

Working the Frontlines:

A Case Study of Job Dissatisfaction among Paid Employees in the John Howard Society

by

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Abstract

The experience of job dissatisfaction in Canada's non-profit frontline workforce has led to problematic turnover rates, employee burnout/fatigue, and a reduced quality of service. The non-profit sector provides valuable services to vulnerable populations, such as the elderly, at-risk youth, people re-integrating back into society from prison, the disabled, those struggling with mental health issues, abused children, and other marginalized groups of people. Our governments cannot always provide services for these populations directly, and it is often the non-profit sector that reaches out and assists. This paper argues that frontline service quality is a public issue, and one way to address service quality is to focus on the overall wellness of the frontline work force and find ways to strengthen teams, build trust, loyalty, job commitment, intrinsic worth, and improve workplace health. The John Howard Society (JHS) was utilized as a case study to illustrate the major features of job dissatisfaction, specifically in Community Residential Facilities (CRFs) – halfway houses. An extensive literature review, frontline employee surveys, and interviews with JHS upper management personnel informed the policy analysis and recommendations. Several options are researched and analyzed, including: (1) workplace mentoring, (2) employee wellness, (3) team building, and (4) hiring a Director of HR. Each policy option is evaluated on its cost-effectiveness, equity, affordability, and impacts to overall job satisfaction.

Keywords: Non-profit sector, human resources, the John Howard Society, job dissatisfaction, frontline employment, public policy, analysis

Dedication

This research project is dedicated to my parents, Karen and Brian LeMoel for their support; to Dale Lutes and Tim Veresh for their guidance; to the John Howard Society for this opportunity; to my supervisor Judith Sixsmith for keeping me on track; to James Cousins for always brightening my day; to Claire Noren for the stress management; and finally, to the frontline employees in our non-profit sector for their hard work and determination.

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List of Acronyms

BIA	Budget Impact Assessment
CBET	Community Based Employment and Training
CD	Commissioner Directives
CCHRSC	Child Care Human Resources Sector Council
CEA	Cost-Effective Analysis
CSSEA	Community Social Services Employers Association
CRF	Community Residential Facility
CSC	Correctional Services of Canada
ED	Executive Directors
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNPI	Government Non-Profit Initiative
HRSDC	Human Resources and Skills Development Canada
HR	Human Resources
JHS	John Howard Society
JHSFV	John Howard Society of the Fraser Valley
JHSLMBC	John Howard Society of the Lower Mainland of British Columbia
LAUNCH	Learning and Understanding New Career Hopes
LTSO	Long-Term Supervision Order
NGO	Non-Government Organizations
ONESTEP	Ontario Network of Employment Skills Training Project
PBC	Parole Board of Canada
REB	Research Ethics Board
RNAO	Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario
SFU	Simon Fraser University
SOP	Standard Operating Practice
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
WFMH	World Federation for Mental Health
WHS	Workplace Health System

Executive Summary

Frontline employment refers to a specific kind of work that is client-centered, and is characterized by staff-to-client relationships. This client-centered philosophy to service delivery first identifies an individual client's needs, and then determines how to best provide assistance. Frontline employees in the Canadian non-profit sector experience certain aspects of job dissatisfaction, such as dissatisfaction with pay, access to benefits, high stress, and workplace safety. This is problematic for the sector because job dissatisfaction leads to high turnover rates, employee burnout and fatigue, ultimately reducing the quality of service delivery.

Why should Canada care about the quality of frontline service? The non-profit sector provides valuable services to vulnerable populations, such as the elderly, at-risk youth, people re-integrating back into society from prison, the disabled, those struggling with mental health issues, abused children, and other marginalized groups of people. Our governments cannot always provide services for these populations directly, and it is often the non-profit sector that reaches out and assists. I argue that frontline service quality is a public issue, and one way to address service quality is to focus on the overall wellness of the frontline work force and find ways to strengthen teams, build trust, loyalty, job commitment, intrinsic worth, and improve workplace health.

There are also costs associated with job dissatisfaction. For example, job dissatisfaction in the US has been estimated to cost \$300 billion annually in lost productivity (Amabile and Kramer, 2011) and in the UK stress accounts for about half of all days of work lost due to ill-health (As cited in Coffey et al, 2009). High turnover rates are costly because not only is the firm losing its investment in human capital, it is also spending resources on searching, recruiting, and training new hires (Vangel, 2011). For Canada's small to mid-sized companies, job dissatisfaction accounts for a loss of 17% of before-tax annual income (Shepell-fgi, 2012). Job dissatisfaction has been estimated to cost the Canadian economy more than \$27.7 billion per year (Shepell-fgi, 2012).

The research in this project covers frontline job dissatisfaction in the Canadian non-profit sector. Two questions are asked: (1) what aspects of frontline employment are

frontline workers in the non-profit sector dissatisfied with? And (2) how can the non-profit sector produce a more “satisfied” workforce?

Answers to these questions were sought via a case study of the John Howard Society (JHS), which is a large non-profit organizational body across Canada. I utilize the JHS as a case study to help answer the research questions, and to both express and address the policy problem. Each JHS is independently operated and managed, and provides unique services depending on the location. Many JHSs however operate Community Residential Facilities (CRFs), A.K.A. halfway houses, which are housing units for adults recently released from prison. The JHS sits at an interesting crossroads where the criminal justice system meets not-profit frontline work.

An online job (dis)satisfaction survey was used, amended from Garcia-Serrano (2011). This was sent to CRF frontline employees in British Columbia (BC), Alberta, and Saskatchewan (N=39). Survey participants were recruited via “purposeful” sampling. All participants were either full-time or part-time paid employees of the JHS. During the later stages of the project, interviews with JHS Executive Directors and other upper management personnel were conducted both in person and over email (N=17) in order to gather feedback, perspectives, and opinions regarding the policy options. The results of the case study were analyzed using statistical techniques for the survey data and thematic analysis for the interview data.

Key findings include: 66% of participants consider their job stressful, 55% report to always or sometimes work under dangerous conditions, 44% of participants are currently thinking about leaving the JHS, 39% felt they rarely or never work independently, yet 71% reported to be “very satisfied” with their job. Chi-square analyses were performed to examine relationships between key variables, such as age, gender, unionization, length of employment, satisfaction levels, against all other indicators asked in the survey. The relationship between unionization and making independent decisions at work was found to be statistically significant, $X^2 (2, N = 39) = 15.193, p < .01$. A Pearson’s correlation coefficient test revealed two statistically significant relationships between age and overall job satisfaction [$r = .414 (p < .01)$], and between age and satisfaction with the physical environment [$r = .345 (p < .05)$].

The interview and email responses from JHS upper management revealed the importance of intrinsic rewards for frontline employees. Feelings of doing good and helping clients are examples of intrinsic rewards that might help address issues like burnout or high turnover rates more effectively than extrinsic rewards, such as higher pay or better benefits (Participant, 2013).

The analysis, together with a review of the literature, informed the development of policy options and a policy analysis. The options and recommendations have wider implications for the non-profit sector. I analyze four intervention ideas in the final policy analysis: (1) workplace mentoring, (2) employee wellness, (3) team building, and (4) hiring a Director of HR. Each option is evaluated on its cost-effectiveness, equity, affordability, and impacts to overall job satisfaction. The two interventions that received the highest evaluative scores were team building and workplace mentoring. Changing current hiring practices are also considered in Chapter 7. Above all, I recommend that any public intervention ought to aim to improve the overall wellness and work-life culture for non-profit frontline employees, looking for long-term, effective resolutions for quality service delivery (RNAO, 2008).

1. Introduction

Non-profit organizations contribute greatly to the Canadian economy and to the public good. The non-profit sector is estimated to account for around \$12 billion in unpaid labour (Eakin and Graham, 2009). In addition, non-profits contribute to the public's well-being by providing necessary frontline services to families, children, marginalized populations, the elderly, and the disabled. Yet the non-profit sector also faces enormous challenges, specifically in their Human Resources (HR) departments including low wages, employee recruitment and retention issues, and difficulties in developing long-term HR strategies.

Job *dissatisfaction*, the targeted policy problem in this research paper, leads to problematic employee turnover rates, burnout and/or fatigue, and a reduced quality of service to the most in need. This is a costly problem that affects both the public and private sectors.

In general the available literature covering job satisfaction is vast, but is quite limited for organizations sitting at the crossroads between community corrections and the non-profit sector. The nature of non-profit frontline employment in community correction is unique. This research paper attempts to address the harms that job dissatisfaction can lead to, but also through a policy analysis, offer systematically analyzed solutions.

Chapter 1 looks at how non-profit organizations are defined in Canada and offers an institutional context behind their structure. Chapter 2 outlines the policy problem in further detail, along with the associated economic costs. Chapter 3 explains what the John Howard Society is, and why it is being utilized as a case study. Chapter 4 addresses the research questions and what methodologies are used to answer them. Chapter 5 examines the major research findings. Finally, Chapter 6 synthesizes and analyzes the findings from the literature review, the survey data, and the interviews in

order to inform the policy process. The policy analysis concludes with an evaluation of each solution and final recommendations.

1.1. What is a Non-Profit Organization?

A non-profit organization is, "...a group which is organized for the purpose of social, religious, charitable, educational, athletic, literary, political or other such activities" (Service New Brunswick, nd, p. 1). Canada Revenue Agency (CRA) (2012) defines a non-profit organization as, "...a club, society, or association that's organized and operated solely for: social welfare, civic improvement, pleasure or recreation, and any other purpose except profit" (Paragraph 1). They are sometimes called not-for-profits, charities, or non-government organizations (NGOs). These terms are not entirely interchangeable. Rather, all non-profit organizations are defined this way because they cannot use their agency body for any personal financial gain (Service New Brunswick, nd). Hence, the "no profit" portion of the term. Examples of non-profits include service clubs, sports association, dance/music groups, religious fellowships, educational societies, and community service associations (Service New Brunswick, nd). A non-profit organization can still engage in profitable activities. However the profits that are created must be held in trust for the organization and can, "...only be used in carrying out its goals and objectives" (Service New Brunswick, nd, p. 1).

The non-profit sector in Canada accounts for \$90 billion in Gross Domestic Product (GDP), which is six times the size of the automobile industry (Eakin and Graham, 2009). Researchers at the Wellesley Institute estimate the non-profit sector in Canada accounts for \$12 billion in unpaid volunteer labour (Eakin and Graham, 2009). The Canadian Institute of Chartered Accountants (2012) states,

"It is estimated that 12.5 million Canadians volunteer with not-for profit organizations (NPOs). Many of these volunteers serve as members of their organization's board of directors. NPO boards are responsible for overseeing the affairs of organizations that constitute about 7 percent of Canada's GDP, generate annual revenues of approximately \$80 billion and provide 2 million full-time jobs for Canadians" (p. 1).

This sector is therefore considered both a significant economic force, and a significant source of labour, within the Canadian economy.

1.2. Human Resource Challenges

Non-profit agencies make enormous contributions to the quality of life in many local communities (Eakin and Graham, 2009). They play a central role in, "...identifying and responding to community needs," and in promoting a sense of shared societal values (Saunders, 2004, p. v). Both employers and employees are mandated to strengthening our communities, while asking little in return. They often target hard to reach groups including the disadvantaged, the marginalized, the disabled, the mentally ill, those involved in the criminal justice system, women, children, the elderly, and anyone facing social exclusion (Saunders, 2004).

Yet this same industry faces enormous challenges, specifically in their Human Resources (HR) departments. Little data is gathered about paid workers, demographic characteristics, or the HR challenges, "...associated with their labour market experience" (Saunders, 2004, p. vii). This hinders Canadian non-profit's abilities to identify their own specific HR limitations, and thus, the capacity to solve their own problems.

Recently, literature on various HR challenges within the non-profit sector has grown in Canada, resulting in both the federal and provincial governments taking a more interested focus. For example, the HR Council for the Voluntary and Non-profit Sector (HR Council) published *Towards a Labour Force Strategy for Canada's Voluntary and Non-Profit Sector*, in 2009. This report was Canada's first comprehensive, evidence-based examination of the details around HR challenges facing paid employment in the non-profit sector. The highlighted HR challenges included the following (GNPI, 2009, pp. 8-9):

- An aging workforce will be retired over the next 20 years
- Close to retired baby boomers often move from corporate positions into public service, volunteerism, and the non-profit sector, finishing their careers in these areas
- Leadership deficits
- Generational issues with people born past 1980, changing the culture of employment
- Cultural diversity

- Greater demands to service
- After the 2008 economic crash, the demand for services like food banks, family support, and housing increased
- Funding and revenue
- Relationships with government
- Recruitment and retention issues
- Skills gaps

I have chosen to focus on employee recruitment and retention in the non-profit sector, along with frontline service delivery, identifying that job satisfaction is a significant component within these (As cited in GNPI, 2009). This following section further dissects job satisfaction.

1.3. Job Satisfaction

According to Locke (1976) job satisfaction is, "...a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job" (As cited in Sell and Cleal, 2011, p. 2). The term is used broadly in academic literature, the media, and is studied throughout the world. Job satisfaction is evident in all sector levels (non-profits, for-profits, and governments). It is impacted by a multitude of variables including physical environment, pay, decision-making autonomy, breaks, benefits, time-off, relationships with managers, co-staff members – anything affecting a person's level of satisfaction with their employment (As cited in GNPI, 2009).

Job satisfaction can be difficult to measure or isolate as a variable in academic research (Sell and Cleal, 2011). As consequence, some researchers argue that job satisfaction is not, "...an absolute measure but merely an indicator for a range of job characteristics" (Sell and Cleal, 2011, p. 2). Economists have criticized job satisfaction studies for being unreliable because the data used for explaining job satisfaction are often subjective (Sell and Cleal, 2011). When researchers interpret responses from job satisfaction surveys, they depend on both an individual's psychological state and on objective circumstances experienced by that individual (Sell and Cleal, 2011). In addition, levels of job satisfaction (typically on a scale of one to ten, ten being highly

satisfied) can also be influenced by unobservable individual characteristics, such as ability (Sell and Cleal, 2011). Job satisfaction is sometimes measured in a way that does not adequately capture subjective characteristics.

Regardless, job satisfaction studies are important to labour market research, public administration, public policy, business, unions, employer bodies, mental health research, and more importantly, HR strategies. Kristensen and Johansson (2008) argue that job satisfaction surveys are, "...highly important for development of public policies as well as for human resource management" (p. 97). Researchers in this field help identify how to improve the wellness and the overall health of employees, and highlight how executive managers can increase productivity for departments. Kristensen and Johansson (2008) state that organizational bodies,

"...periodically evaluate their employees' job satisfaction. This is of great concern to managers who seek to abstain employees from quitting (Clark, 2001) and because it is generally believed that satisfied workers are more productive than dissatisfied workers (Pfeffer and Langton, 1993; Koys, 2001; Patterson et al., 2004)" (p. 97).

This argument applies to the non-profit sector just as much as it would in the public or private sectors. When too many employees quit from an organization, it is typically costly to already resource-scarce agencies (HR Council, 2009). Training frontline workers can be lengthy and intensive, thus, expensive for non-profits. Opportunity costs (foregone benefits) and various transactions costs are at stake when resources are pulled from existing staffed services and placed into hiring and training (HR Council, 2009).

Park, Kim, Lin, and Waller (2011) conclude that, "A causal relationship between job satisfaction and performance is generally accepted by many researchers (Lawer et al., 1967; Locke, 1970; Locke, 1973, Nathanson et al., 1973; Wanous, 1974; Inkson, 1978; Judge et al., 1978; Ivancevich, 1979)" (p. 251). This is based on a general premise that satisfied workers do a better job than do dissatisfied workers. Indeed, conversely, doing a better job may also increase job satisfaction (Park et al, 2011).

1.4. Job Satisfaction in Non-Profit Organizations

Job satisfaction was identified by Imagine Canada, a national charity, in a report entitled *The Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector in British Columbia* as playing an important role when searching for better employee retention strategies (GNPI, 2009, p. 11). Imagine Canada (2006) explained,

“...job satisfaction can compensate for lower pay, quality of life is important to many people, and many employees stay with non-profit and voluntary organizations because they believe in the cause” (As cited in GNPI, 2009, p. 11).

In the non-profit sector, job satisfaction has been found to vary depending on different aspects of the work (HR Council, 2008). For example, Canadian employees experience less satisfaction around pay rate, access to benefits, job security, flexibility to hours, and access to professional development (Saunders, 2004). Other research has found that the overall job satisfaction in the non-profit sector is reasonably high, and making changes to only certain aspects of work, such as professional development and work environment, will help non-profit organizations overcome their HR challenges (Saunders, 2004). Overcoming HR challenges will then lend itself to better service delivery, assisting those in need, and improve the quality of which this happens.

In 2008 the Federation of Community Social Services of BC (the Federation) initiated a three year comprehensive *Recruitment and Retention Project*. The Federation wanted to build a stronger, more sustainable, and skilled paid workforce into the social services sector (GNPI, 2009). In the Federation’s strategy and action plan, promoting positive evidence-informed workplace practices was identified as a way to enhance job satisfaction (GNPI, 2009). This idea of creating positive working environments, with the aim of increasing job satisfaction and employee retention, was also identified by the Child Care HR Sector Council as a recommended strategy and action plan for addressing non-profit HR challenges (As cited in GNPI, 2009).

The public policy problem, job dissatisfaction, is defined in the following chapter, and I explain why it is a problem, the costs associated with it, and what is already being done about it in Canada.

2. Job Dissatisfaction: The Public Policy Problem

This chapter examines job dissatisfaction, its associated costs to the non-profit sector, and outlines what role policy can play to address it.

Frontline employment refers to a specific kind of work that is client-centered, and is characterized by staff-to-client relationships. Frontline employees in the Canadian non-profit sector experience job dissatisfaction in various aspects of their work (Saunders, 2004; HR Council, 2008) such as pay rate, overstress, and access to benefits (Saunders, 2004). Nearly 60% of employed Canadians, working outside their homes, experience difficulty balancing the demands of work and family life (Health Canada Online, 2009). Shier and Graham (2011) state,

“...the social services provide resources, support, and counseling to many, including a community’s most vulnerable and disenfranchised populations. A robust literature though identifies difficulties in the social service workplace (see for example, Acker & Lawrence, 2009; Carniol, 2003; Graham, Swift, & Delaney, 2009; Jones, 2001; Jones & Novak, 1993). Professionals in this sector, in North America and Europe, experience employee burnout (Kim & Stoner, 2008; Sowers-Hoag & Thyer, 1987), high stress (Coffey, Dugdill, & Tattersall, 2009; Coyle, Edwards, Hannigan, Fothergill, & Burnard, 2005; Donovan, 1987), low pay (Carniol, 2003), and higher rates of turnover (Evans et al., 2006; Service Canada, 2008; Siebert, 2005)” (p. 403).

This is problematic for the sector because job dissatisfaction leads to: (1) high turnover rates, (2) employee burnout or fatigue, and (3) a reduced quality of service offered to those in need. The third point about quality service is crucial. Job dissatisfaction ultimately affects the quality of non-profit service delivery. I am identifying this as the public policy problem because the non-profit sector provides valuable services to vulnerable populations, such as the elderly, at-risk youth, people re-integrating back into society from prison, the disabled, those struggling with mental health issues, abused children, and other marginalized groups of people. Federal, provincial, and municipal governments either cannot, or do not, or fail to, provide

services for these populations directly and it is often the non-profit sector through their frontline workers who reach out and assist. The implication is that these employees play a significant role in the social fabric of Canadian life.

Undoubtedly, job dissatisfaction occurs in both the public and private sector as well. The reason I have chosen the non-profit sector is because this labour force makes our communities safer, reintegrates our marginalized populations, gets people back to work, finds housing, reaches out, and empowers our disenfranchised to find their voice. They are often paid less to do this work, do not receive the same access to benefits, and at times are placed in dangerous situations.

Research plays an important role in job dissatisfaction. At the agency level, such as work environment, policy interventions can help create healthier working conditions, build-in stress management opportunities, expand HR strategies, and inevitably improve job satisfaction (Zeytinoglu and Denton, 2006).

The following three sections dissect turnover rates, burnout and fatigue, and service quality in the non-profit sector.

2.1. Problematic Turnover Rates

A turnover rate generally is, "...the ratio of the number of employees that leaves a company through attrition, dismissal, or resignation during a period to the number of employees on payroll during the same period" (BusinessDictionary.com, 2012). A turnover rate can be considered generally high if there are more employees leaving their positions than there are people refilling those positions. This struggle to replace workers can become a difficult HR issue both for-profit companies and non-profit agencies.

A high turnover rate is an expensive problem. It costs money to recruit new employees into the workforce and to train each new staff member. If non-profit agencies do not retain their employees for very long, "...the return on that investment is low" (Adkins, 2013, Paragraph 1). This is because a high turnover rate for an agency results in, "...lost time, money and effort in training young employees who do not remain within the non-profit sector" (The Government of Alberta, 2008, p. 22).

In British Columbia (BC), the Community Social Services Employers Association (CSSEA) conducts regular salary and turnover surveys that explore recruitment and retention challenges found in the social service sector (GNPI, 2009). Most recently, CSSEA identified two major HR and labour market themes: (1) the noticeable lack of young people in the sector and (2) high turnover rates (as cited in GNPI, 2009).

What is too “high” for a turnover rate? CSSEA (2009) reports that the social service sector, “...has a high turnover rate of 19%... [with] a particularly high turnover rate noted for casual male staff, at greater than 40%” (As cited in GNPI, 2009, p. 25). To compare, in 2011 the Canadian national average voluntary (choosing to leave) turnover rate was 9.1% for all private sector businesses (As cited in go2, 2011). For the 2011 – 2012 year, the Canadian retail sector experienced an average voluntary turnover rate of 14% (The Conference Board of Canada, 2013). That being said, the goal is not to have a 0% turnover rate. There should always be some level of turnover as new hires come in, and non-performing employees may be leaving the organization (HR metrics service, 2011).

BC non-profit employers reported the key reasons for their high turnover rates are low wage levels (As cited in GNPI, 2009; HR Council, 2008). In a Canada-wide survey, administered to both employers and employees in the non-profit sector, the most frequently answered reason for leaving was dissatisfaction with current pay (HR Council, 2008). Non-profit employees in Canada, “...tend to be paid lower wages, often have low benefits ... all issues that lead to challenges in staff recruitment and retention” (HR Council, 2009, p. 9).

In 2008 the Child Care Human Resources Sector Council (CCHRSC) published *Supporting Employers in the ECEC Project*. The majority of organizations reported they do not have adequate financial resources to both operate and provide sufficient HR (GNPI, 2009). This results in low wages and a lack of benefits for employees (GNPI, 2009). Other research bodies have identified areas of dissatisfaction in compensation for overtime, RRSP prospects, as well as opportunities for career and professional development (Leach, Hallman, Joseph, Martin, and Marcotte, 2006).

There is an unfortunate cyclical problem here. Non-profit sector research has found that, "...providing benefits or competitive wages is a key strategies used to retain staff" (GNPI, 2009, p. 15). On the one hand, paid employees are dissatisfied with compensation, while on the other hand, employers struggle to provide competitive wages. The non-profit sector meanwhile fights to keep long-term employees, and one solution is the provision of good benefits and competitive wages.

Institutional funding constraints also negatively impact working conditions, which often, "...demand[s] long work hours, but limited career development opportunities" (Saunders, 2004, p. 7). Saunders (2004) argues that,

"Evidence is emerging that the strains associated with the funding environment are making it difficult to retain employees within the sector. People come to non-profit organizations with a passionate commitment to the mission, but find it difficult to sustain that passion amid low salaries, high workloads, and mission drift" (p. 7).

Saunders (2004) prefaces the next section regarding employee burnout and fatigue by highlighting the relationship between stressful funding constraints and employee satisfaction.

2.2. Burnout and Fatigue

Stressful working conditions have been identified to add pressure leading to burnout and fatigue (Government of Alberta, 2008). In the context of paid front-line employment in the non-profit sector, burnout has not been well-defined in the Canadian literature. There is however a common understanding within social service industries of the term, mostly indicating a situation when employees are feeling exhausted, fatigued, or when employees are showing diminished interest, higher than normal absenteeism, ambivalence, or poor work performance.

What is shown in the literature however is that burnout and fatigue can result in both, "...decreased staff morale" and higher turnover rates (Government of Alberta, 2008, p. 7). Frontline work is characterized by high levels of stress because staff/client relationships require meaningful engagement (Leach et al, 2006). These interactions can

be physically and emotionally taxing. Coupled with high demands for service, the constant engagement with clients sometimes leads to burnout (Leach et al, 2006).

Setting aside the nature of staff/client relationships, understaffed environments are another key source of burnout for frontline employees (Imagine Canada, 2006). Non-profit organizations across Canada experience understaffing, which is in part due to an institutional lack of funding and resources (As cited in GNPI, 2009). When understaffed, employees can become, "...burdened with heavy workloads that, in turn, lead to high rates of burnout and turnover" (As cited in GNPI, 2009, p. 10). Imagine Canada (2006) states, "...the current funding environment provides few or no resources for administration or to replace staff members who are on extended leave, thus increasing the likelihood of burn out" (As cited in GNPI, 2009, p. 10).

Employees experiencing burnout can cause tense confrontations with other employees, and this can lead to, "...feelings of guilt and shame when, despite [employees] best efforts, aides can't do the job they know they're capable of doing" (Leach et al, 2006, p. 65). Burnout then becomes an experience of both mental and physical impossibilities.

The findings in my research project suggest that job dissatisfaction requires policy attention from the John Howard Society (JHS), but also from other non-profits operating in the social services. This is in part because employee burnout and fatigue can also lower the quality of service for clients (The Government of Alberta, 2008). The next section elaborates on how altering the quality of services in the non-profit sector affects the Canadian public.

2.3. Quality of Service

The quality of service that each non-profit delivers across Canada depends on a wide variety of factors. For example, the Canadian Childcare Human Resources Sector Council (CCHRSC) identified professional development as a variable impacting on how well or how poorly service was being delivered (As cited in GNPI, 2009). Other barriers to quality service included staff education, formal training opportunities, and a lack of incentives for paid employees to pursue further training (As cited in GNPI, 2009). The

relationship between professional training and quality of service is built on the idea that a highly skilled workforce will deliver a higher quality of care and service, and vice versa.

The Federation (2009) reported that labour and skills shortages, "...threatened the ongoing provision of high quality services to children, youth, families and vulnerable adults" (As cited in GNPI, 2009, p. 19). The term labour shortage was defined as a phenomenon where, "...the demand for labour exceeded the supply of people in the labour force" (As cited in GNPI, 2009, p. 20). A skills shortage was defined as a phenomenon when, "...the people available in the labour force lacked the necessary education, experience, skills, aptitude and inclination to work in the sector" (As cited in GNPI, 2009, p. 20). The premise here is if there are not enough employees, or if those available are poorly skilled, service quality will be reduced.

After the economic downturn of 2008, many non-profits across Canada experienced an increased level of demand for services. In post-recovery, the labour shortage has eased however the Federation (2009) reports that the skills shortage still remains a problem (As cited in GNPI, 2009). This increase of demand on services then feeds into understaffing challenges in the non-profit sector.

Negatively impacting the quality of frontline service delivery is a problem for both non-profit organizations and the Canadian public. For example, frontline workers build relationships with recently released individuals from both federal and provincial institutions. Staff members are expected to be equipped with skills to communicate and help reintegrate individuals back into our communities. The ability to do so successfully results in crime reduction, labour market entrances, reconnections to family, proper medications being taken, taxes being filed for the first time, and psychological help being found (JHSLMBC, 2011). Reducing the quality of these services means reducing the likelihood these outcomes occur.

2.4. The Economics of Job Dissatisfaction

There are both benefits to hiring happy people and costs to employing unhappy people. Keyes and Waterman (2003) argue that frontline employee well-being and satisfaction supports productivity, life satisfaction, and both physical and mental health

(As cited in Shier and Graham, 2011). These positive effects can improve workplace productivity, lower absenteeism, and staff attrition (Shier and Graham, 2011). Conversely, job dissatisfaction in the United States (US) has been estimated to cost \$300 billion annually in lost productivity (Amabile and Kramer, 2011). Dissatisfied employees are likely to leave undesirable work and move onto a more satisfying situations (Vangel, 2011). If employees do not necessarily care about their work or their organization, they are absent more often, produce less output, or produce poor quality service (Amabile and Kramer, 2011). Further, if employees are leaving often, then that organization's turnover rate increases. Turnover can be costly to a non-profit agency because the firm loses its investment in human capital (Vangel, 2011). Refilling that empty position will cost the agency resources in searching, resume reviews, and training.

Researchers have identified a second layer to the issue of turnover. Vangel (2001) reports, "In tight labor markets, dissatisfied employees often find that they are unable to leave dissatisfying jobs" (p. 1). Unhappy and unfulfilled workers are staying in their positions, costing agencies in both unproductivity and absenteeism.

2.5. The Role of Public Policy in Job Dissatisfaction

The provincial governments directly provide services such as education, social work, income assistance, and many health amenities. Various other social services such as shelter houses, recovery homes, criminal justice outreach, youth programming, and Aboriginal friendship centres are provided under contract via non-profit agencies. Funding partnerships are necessary for social services to function and operate, and are provided by governments and private resources. This role is extremely important, and governments are a key stakeholder in non-profit operation and service provision.

Research and policy interventions can create safer working conditions, provide stress management opportunities, and develop sound HR strategies, ultimately leading to a happier more satisfied worker (Zeytinoglu and Denton, 2006). Satisfied workers are more productive, efficient, provide better quality of services, and stay in their jobs longer.

Healthy work environments lead to lower administrative costs associated with mental and physical health problems. Zeytinoglu and Denton (2006) state,

“It is important for policy makers to acknowledge occupational stress resulting from incremental changes in the work and external work environment, and the resulting effects on physical health, work-related stress, job dissatisfaction, and propensity to leave the workplace. Sufficient government funding to provide services, avoiding continuous changes in the work environment, and making rational restructuring decisions based on input from all stakeholders can contribute to healthier workplaces and healthy workers” (p. 4).

Canadian public policy research indicates job dissatisfaction has implications for policy, at the agency levels but, “...more importantly, at the government level, which is the main source of workplace and work environment changes” (Zeytinoglu and Denton, 2006, p. 7). Public policy can focus on planning, regulation, training, and developing programs aimed at improving workplaces (Cameron, Mooney, and Moss, 2002).

At an individual level, public policy can affect the physical requirements of frontline employment such as workload, changing schedules and shifts, heavy lifting, and threats to personal safety (RNAO, 2010). At an organizational level, public policy can affect the physical requirements of frontline work through staffing practices, flexible scheduling, and occupational health and safety policies (RNAO, 2010). At a system level, public policy can affect frontline service delivery models, funding, migration policies, and health system reform (RNAO, 2010).

2.6. What is Already Being Done about This Problem?

Currently, public policy affects the physical requirements of frontline employment through regulations on schedules and shifts, heavy lifting, and threats to personal safety (RNAO, 2010). Occupational health and safety policies at the organizational level affect employee wellness (RNAO, 2010). At a systematic level, public policy is currently affecting workplace health. This section outlines what is currently being done in Canada to address job dissatisfaction.

The Library of Parliament (2008) states that Section 92(7) of the *Constitution Act, 1867*, “...assigns responsibility for most other hospitals to the provinces” (p. 1). But there

is often confusion in the public's mind about the jurisdiction of health. In Canada, both the provincial and federal government are involved in matters related to our health and health care. Health Canada is responsible for helping Canadians, "...maintain and improve their health" (Health Canada, 2009, p. 1). Their mandate encompasses the workplace, and is part of Health Canada's goal to provide employers and employees with tools for improving workplace health (Health Canada, 2009).

In 1999, Health Canada polled 31,000 Canadians in both private sector and public organizations attempting to study how people balance the demands of their home lives and lives at work (Health Canada Online, 2009). This study, published in 2001, was entitled the *National Work-Life Conflict Study*. The major highlights include two facts: (1) almost 60% of employed Canadians, working outside of their homes, having difficulty balancing the demands of their work and family, and (2) one in four Canadians working in large organizations experience high levels of conflict between family and work. Recommendations were made at the end towards employers, employees, governments, and unions.

In 2009, Health Canada, along with Dr. Martin Shain from the University of Toronto, developed the Workplace Health System (WHS) to assist employers with implementing healthier workplace protocols inside their agencies (Health Canada Online, 2009). The WHS outlined tools and models for improving workplace health. For example, a risk survey can assess workplace health needs and risks within a business (Health Canada Online, 2009). The WHS contains a sample summary report of the major findings from the risk survey in order to better understand the results (Health Canada Online, 2009). In addition, the WHS has a technical manual to guide the analysis of the risk survey and "Health Works", which is a five-step guide for employee health while improving business (Health Canada Online, 2009).

There are cost-effective ways to promote health in the workplace (Health Canada Online, 2009). Simple solutions, such as reorganizing the physical work space, posting safety information, focusing on well-being, and encouraging employees to participate in decisions that affect their jobs, are all useful tools in promoting health at work (Health Canada Online, 2009).

The HR Council for the Nonprofit Sector (The HR Council) offers “Workplace Wellness” information on their website that takes a more holistic approach to the physical, spiritual, environmental, intellectual, emotional, occupational, and mental health of employees. The HR Council specifically outlines program options that can be executed on a limited budget. These options include:

1. Dependent care
2. Flexible work arrangements
3. Leaves of absence and vacation
4. Education and training opportunities
5. Encouraging fitness and healthy living
6. Religious observances
7. Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs)
8. Supportive managers
9. Other management approaches

In the next chapter, I explain the John Howard Society (JHS), a national non-profit organization, and look at how this organization specifically fits into my research project. The unique intersection, where service-based non-profits (such as the JHS) meet Canada’s criminal justice system, is examined.

3. The John Howard Society

The JHS is a network of organizations across Canada committed to their mission of providing, "...effective, just and humane responses to the causes and consequences of crime" (JHS, nd, Paragraph 1). The JHS's 65 offices across Canada are mandated to deliver best practice services to pro-socially integrated people attempting to prevent people from coming into conflict with the criminal justice system (JHS, nd). The JHS's policies and research advocates for legislation that aligns with the fundamental principles of justice (JHS, nd). The JHS maintains that, "...punishment does not make people more pro-social – and that it often makes them worse" (JHS, nd, Paragraph 3).

Each individual JHS office is an independent stand-alone non-profit under the corresponding provincial laws of which it is located (JHS, nd). Several JHS locations will be a registered charity. Canada Revenue Agency (CRA) (2012) states a charitable organization,

"...is established as a corporation, a trust, or under a constitution; has exclusively charitable purposes; primarily carries on its own charitable activities, but may also gift funds to other qualified donees, (e.g., registered charities); more than 50% of its governing officials must be at arm's length with each other; generally receives its funding from a variety of arm's length donors; and its income cannot be used for the personal benefit of any of its members, shareholders, or governing officials" (Paragraph 16).

The JHS of Canada is the national office, a registered charity, and is, "...governed by a volunteer board of directors elected to the national board by the provincial or territorial members where they reside" (JHS, nd, Paragraph 1). Each individual JHS also operates provincially, and a volunteer Board of Directors governs each one (JHS, nd). In British Columbia (BC), the JHS operates a provincial office that assists the other regional agencies, "...offering prevention and intervention services as well as advocacy and public education" (JHSBC, 2010, Paragraph 1).

There are nine individual JHSs in BC, located in Abbotsford, Vancouver, Nanaimo, Campbell River, Vernon, Prince George, Kelowna, Kamloops, and Victoria (JHSBC, 2010). Different locations run different programs. For example, in BC the JHS of the Lower Mainland operates several housing units for those who have, "...long-term mental, developmental and health challenges, and who may be vulnerable to victimization or behaving in an unsafe way" (JHSLMBC, 2011, p. 1). To compare, the JHS of the Fraser Valley runs the Learning and Understanding New Career Hopes (LAUNCH) that, "...assists at-risk youth with multiple barriers engage in meaningful work that supports their independence and helps them find their place in their community" (JHSFV, nd, Paragraph 1). These two programs are unique to their respective locations. Other programs, such as halfway houses, are found in many JHS locations and will have many similarities in model design.

The halfway house, as it is commonly referred to, is technically called a Community Residential Facility (CRF). Not all JHSs operate CRFs. A CRF is a place for individuals to live, post incarceration, serving a portion of their sentence under supervision in the community (JHS of Alberta, 2001). Non-profit agencies, such as the JHS, manage and operate CRFs under contract with the Correctional Service of Canada (CSC). There are five CRFs in BC operated and managed by individual JHSs. The JHS assists marginalized people – adult federally incarcerated males – via the CRF model. The JHS frontline labour force therefore works within both the non-profit sector and the criminal justice system. Policy research in this specific area is very limited.

3.1. Community Corrections

Community corrections is the system responsible for those convicted of a criminal offence, who are released into the community, operating outside the walls of prison. Correctional Services of Canada (CSC) maintains jurisdiction over community corrections. CSC (2010) reports,

"Most of Canada's federal offenders serve only part of their sentences in prison. Part of their time is served in the community, where they adhere to certain conditions and are supervised by professional staff of the Correctional Service of Canada. The work of gradually releasing offenders, ensuring that they do not

present a threat to anyone, and helping them adjust to life beyond prison walls is called community corrections” (Paragraph 1).

In 2007, 8447 individuals in Canada were under federal supervision, on conditional release in the community (CSC Review Panel, 2007). In other words, 39% of the federal offender population in Canada were residing in the community (CSC Review Panel, 2007). Of that 39%, 15% were on Day Parole, 47% were on Full Parole, 36% were on Statutory Release, and 2% were on Long-Term Supervision Orders (LTSOs) (CSC Review Panel, 2007).

Under the *Corrections and Conditional Release Act (CCRA)* the Parole Board of Canada (PBC) has exclusive jurisdiction and discretion to, “...grant, deny, terminate or revoke parole for inmates in federal, territorial, and many provincial institutions, except for cases under the jurisdiction of provincial parole boards” (CSC, 2010, Paragraph 4). CSC supervises individuals on parole to ensure people are following their conditions of release set out by the PBC (CSC, 2010, Paragraph 4). The paid employees responsible for the monitoring of these individuals in the community while on parole are called Parole Officers.

In community corrections, the four key paid employees interacting within the system are the police, Parole Officers, correctional community CSC program officers, and individuals working in the CRFs. This research project only discusses the Human Resource (HR) issues focused on CRFs operated by non-profits. The roles of Police Officers, Parole Officers, and CSC Community Program Officers, are not explored.

3.2. Community Residential Facilities (CRFs): The “Halfway House”

A CRF is a place for individuals who, “...having been sentenced to a term of incarceration, are serving a portion of their sentence under supervision in the community” (JHS of Alberta, 2001, Paragraph 1). CRFs provide 24-hour care for the individuals residing at the house (JHS of Alberta, 2001). Typically, individuals live in CRFs while they are working, locating employment, attending school, attending treatment, or other programming in the community (JHS of Alberta, 2001). In 2007, there

were approximately 200 CRFs in Canada under contract with CSC (CSC Review Panel, 2007).

There are five CRFs in BC operated and managed by individual JHSs. One independent JHS can operate more than one CRF. For example, the JHS of the Lower Mainland of BC operates two CRFs – one in Surrey and one in Vancouver. All CRFs are subject to CSC Commissioner Directives (CDs) and Standard Operating Practices (SOPs). However, house rules in each CRF may differ slightly, and some JHSs are unionized.

Individuals residing in CRFs are still serving federal sentences. They are not free to do as they please (JHS of Alberta, 2001). The PBC imposes conditions on individual releases that cover travel boundaries, substance abstinence, contact orders, treatment direction, or other programming (JHS of Alberta, 2001). Most importantly, the PBC decides which individual will be living at a CRF by way of a residency condition, and which individual will be released without having to live at a CRF. Only those people released from prison on Day Parole, Full Parole, Statutory Release, or Long-Term Supervision Order (LTSO), who also have a PBC residency condition on their release can reside at a CRF in Canada. Individuals residing in CRFs are also expected to follow house rules which typically cover curfews, movement in and out of the house, chores, or other personal living arrangements (JHS of Alberta, 2001). Those who do not follow their conditions of release, or the house rules, can have their parole revoked and can be sent back to the institution from which they were released.

CRFs are viewed as a continuum of correctional services (JHS of Alberta, 2001). Residents of CRFs experience a gradual release into the community while still under a prison sentence (JHS of Alberta, 2001). CRFs are funded through fee-for-service contract agreements with CSC, "...to provide a variety of services including accommodation, counseling, employment preparation and supervision of offenders" (White, nd, Paragraph 5). By operating and staffing CRFs, community-based agencies create an important bridge between institutional care and the community (JHS of Alberta, 2001). CRFs provide rehabilitative services and an opportunity for positive change through unique and innovative programming (JHS of Alberta, 2001).

Residential care in a CRF is characterized by frontline work, providing services through a professional staff-client relationship. The care is provided 24-hours a day. The clients are adult inmates residing in the CRF for various amounts of time. Staff members are made up of teams, often a mix of full-time and part-time people, employed by a non-profit organization. CRF paid employees are responsible for upholding CSC Commissioner Directives (CDs), CSC Standard Operating Practices (SOPs), any organization policies, CRF house rules, and any potential union bargained agreements.

Given the nature of client-centred models, such as the CRF, particular stressors include workplace dangers, burnout/fatigue, overtime (sometimes unpaid), and dissatisfaction with pay and/or access to benefits. These stressors can lead to problematic HR circumstances for non-profit organizations, such as high turnover rates and poor employee wellness. More importantly is the how these issue impact the quality of service provision.

4. Methodology

This chapter states the research questions and explains what methods were used to generate information to answer them. The John Howard Society (JHS) was utilized as a case study for four reasons: (1) the JHS is a Canadian non-profit organization, (2) the JHS operates CRFs whereby their frontline workers provide direct service to a marginalized population, (3) the paid frontline workers in these CRFs may be experiencing job dissatisfaction resulting in high turnover rates, burnout, and a reduced quality of service, and (4) I was an employee in a CRF operated by JHS for many years. There is limited research covering this specific context.

4.1. Research Questions

Two questions emerged from the literature review. They are: (1) what aspects of frontline employment are frontline workers in the non-profit sector dissatisfied with? And (2) how can the non-profit sector produce a more “satisfied” workforce? I want to know what aspects of their job workers are struggling with, how far their satisfaction or dissatisfaction reaches, and ultimately I want to know what the sector can do. By attempting to answer these two research questions, my hope is that other non-profits similar to the JHS can utilize the results. As such, this project aims to contribute policy solutions targeting job dissatisfaction in a way that promotes the importance of good quality service in the non-profit sector as a whole.

4.2. Methodological Approaches

Scoping conversations, an online survey, and interviews were used for primary data collection. The scoping conversations were conducted with JHS management to gather direction and input on the public policy problem at hand. This also helped me establish a connection to the CRFs that would be involved in the online surveys. SFU’s

online web-survey tool was administered to frontline employees across Canadian JHS CRFs. Follow-up interviews were conducted with JHS upper management personnel to gather feedback about the available policy solutions.

4.2.1. *Scoping Conversations*

The purpose of this stage was to build connection and to listen to CRF managers' perspectives on job satisfaction. I started with a brief overview of the research project asked for management's support for the online survey. I called the JHS BC locations: Abbotsford, Vancouver, Nanaimo, Campbell River, Vernon, Prince George, Kelowna, Kamloops, and Victoria. Moving east, I called Alberta locations: Calgary, Edmonton, Grande Prairie, Lethbridge, Medicine Hat, and Red Deer. I called Saskatchewan locations: Regina, Saskatoon, and Moose Jaw. The only JHS location in Manitoba to contact was in Winnipeg. Finally, I contacted the only two locations in Ontario that operate CRFs: Niagara Region and Ottawa. Not all locations were able to talk to me over the phone regarding frontline staff job satisfaction in their CRFs.

4.2.2. *The Online Survey*

I reviewed over 20 research articles that were based on the use of a survey instrument for measuring job satisfaction among various frontline paid employees in both Canada and abroad. Of those, I selected 10 articles that were published in an academic journal, peer reviewed, and that included a full questionnaire in an appendix. When the full questionnaire was not shown in an appendix, I decided if the researchers illustrated a comprehensible idea of what the questions were originally asking the participants in the body of their texts. The sources of these ten articles ranged from psychological journals aimed at understanding workplace behaviours (Crede, Chernyshenko, Stark, Dalal, and Bashshur, 2007) to labour market research attempting to examine how job satisfaction is affected by variables, such as pay rate (Hanson, Martin, and Tuch, 1987). Most of the surveys reviewed either included too many questions for the scope of this current research project (Shugars, Hays, DiMatteo, and Cretin, 1991), or were specifically for one type of employment, like nursing or dentistry (Hayes, Bonner, and Pryor, 2010). Although nursing and dentistry have overlapping employment characteristics to CRFs, such as client-focused care and building one-to-one relationships, I argue that these

occupations are not comparable because CRF employment rests within a unique context between the non-profit sector and community corrections in Canada.

I contacted three researchers (Siefert, Jayaratne, and Chess) who used a 33-item job satisfaction survey in 1991, which reported a reliability score for each question, yet was not included into an Appendix. Two responded to say they did not know where it was located since too much time had passed. Due to this, I chose a survey instrument that was short, included all the original questions and their scaled options in an Appendix, was not aimed at any specific type of employment, and that addressed job satisfaction.

Garcia-Serrano (2011) investigated job satisfaction in the *Scottish Journal of Political Economy*. The survey instrument used by Garcia-Serrano (2011) produces information from participants on, "...current working conditions, job satisfaction and expected exit from their firms (Garcia-Serrano, 2011, p. 227). Garcia-Serrano (2011) states,

"The questionnaire contains a wide set of questions concerning features of the physical environment, security at work, mental strain, systems of working organization, employees' autonomy in their jobs, the extent to which the job involves social relations, the extent to which there is encouragement to find ideas for improving the work, and so on" (p. 227).

The closed response sets gave five options: 1 = 'never', 'completely disagree', or 'very bad'. The options range up to 5 meaning either 'always', 'completely agree', or 'very good'. There are 13 different indicators in the survey. The quantitative analysis of the survey results will be discussed in Chapter 5. Below, Table 1 lists each indicator and the corresponding question asked in the survey to participants.

Table 1 Online Survey Indicators and Questions

Survey Indicators	Questions Asked to Participants
Independence	In your job, how often do you work independently?
Participation	How often do you participate in decisions related to job tasks?
Sequence	In your job, how often can you choose or modify the sequence of tasks?
Method	In your job, how often can you choose or modify the method of work?
Pace	In your job, how often can you choose or modify the pace of work?
Breaks	In your job, how often can you choose or modify your work breaks?
Relationship: Managers	In general, how would you describe the relations between managers and employees in the workplace?
Relationship: Employees	In general, how would you describe the relations between co-workers in the workplace?
Stress	Would you consider that your job is stressful?
Danger	How often do you work under dangerous conditions?
Overall Job Satisfaction	How satisfied are you with this job?
Satisfaction with Firm's Organization	How satisfied are you with this firm's work organization?
Satisfaction with Job Environment	How satisfied are you with this job's physical environment?
Reason for Leaving	If you are planning to leave the JHS, please indicate the reason why.

Finally, four basic demographic items were included at the end as seen below:

- In what year were you born?
- Are you male or female?
- How long have you been employed at this job?
- Are you working within a unionized setting?

In total, 19 questions were inputted into the Simon Fraser University's (SFU's) free online Web Survey tool. SFU's survey instrument keeps data files only in Canada, and not the United States, thus not being subjected to the *Patriot Act*. The online survey was sent to both part-time and full-time paid employees through each individual participating JHS. In total eight JHS operated CRF locations agreed to participate. The

survey took around eight to ten minutes to complete. Before participants answered any of the questions, informed consent and confidentiality was explained. Participants were given the option to not answer the survey if they do not want to. They could also exit the survey at any time by clicking the “X” located on the screen’s window. The online survey was an efficient and cost-effective tool to gathering focused data from a definitive sample.

Ruggiero, Gros, McCauley, de Arellano, and Danielson (2011) point out that while the online survey method of gathering data may be an ideal tool, these procedures can be biased and underrepresent low-income, and young, adults (p. 333). However, the participants I tested are paid employees, over 19 years old, and are currently working for the JHS in a CRF setting.

Of the JHS locations that operate CRFs in BC, online surveys were sent to CRF frontline staff members in Surrey, Vancouver, Kelowna, Kamloops, and Victoria. Of the JHS locations that operate CRFs in Alberta, online surveys were sent to frontline staff members in both Calgary and Edmonton. Of the JHS locations operating CRFs in Saskatchewan, online surveys were sent to only frontline staff members in Saskatoon. There are no JHS operated CRFs to the best of my knowledge in Winnipeg. No surveys were emailed to the two JHS locations in Ontario that operate CRFs because neither Ontario locations returned my phone calls.

The surveys were sent to these locations because the management or administrative staff members called me back once a phone message was left. If there was no call back, I left a second message; making the decision that a third call back was too invasive. To some degree, this compromised the data because without Ontario’s participation, the online survey results only represent three provinces in Canada.

The Online Survey Sample

Survey participants were recruited via “purposeful” sampling, using emails and phone conversations. All participants were either full-time or part-time paid employees of the JHS, working in a CRF setting. One exception was made for a similar JHS housing program, with similar employment characteristics, physical environment, and mandate to

that of a CRF. The only difference was that this housing program did not have a contract with Correction Service Canada (CSC).

Of the approximately 85 – 100 frontline workers who were sent the survey, 39 people completed it (n=39). The response rate was between 46% – 39%, which resulted in a dropout rate between 54% – 61%. I am not able to explain why people chose not to answer the online survey. In total, the sample consisted of 26 females (67%) and 13 males (33%). 14 participants (36%) reported to be working in a unionized environment, and 25 participants (64%) reported to be working in a non-unionized setting. Most people who answered the survey have been employed by the JHS between one and five years. The average age in the sample was 36 years old.

4.2.3. Upper Management Interviews

At the final stages of this project, follow-up interviews were conducted with JHS Executive Directors (EDs) and other JHS upper management personnel to gather feedback about the policy solutions and the analysis process. When in-person interviews were available, an interview schedule was used, which outlined an explanation of each policy option. I was able to gain feedback on intervention ideas and criteria.

For the people I could not reach in person, emails were sent to all JHS locations from BC to Ontario, specifically canvassing EDs and other JHS upper management. I canvassed each JHS for input even though not all locations operated a CRF. The goal was to obtain perspectives on HR strategies and other policy options to further enrich and inform the policy analysis. The email contained a link to an open-ended online questionnaire consisting of five questions, with comment boxes provided.

In total, two interviews were conducted in person, and 15 respondents answered via email. The five open-ended questions were emailed to six locations in BC, seven locations in Alberta, three locations in Saskatchewan, one location in Manitoba, and 19 locations in Ontario. The questions are listed below:

1. Do any of your programs use an employee mentoring program? What are the costs? Has it been “successful?” Please explain.
2. Do you think a staff mentoring program would improve retention rates for your JHS? Why or why not.

3. Have you ever implemented a “work wellness” program or initiative before? If so, did you find it useful for improving job satisfaction, or productivity, or burnout, or make any significant impacts in the workplace?
4. What do you think about “team building”? Could you briefly tell me what your JHS does to build stronger teams?
5. How is Human Resources featured in your JHS location? Do you have a director of HR? Or an HR manager? Do you have any suggestions on how to improve the current HR operations? Please explain.

These questions specifically address the policy options in Chapter 6.

4.3. Ethical Considerations

All participants' were assured that their names and identifying characteristics, both in the online survey and the interviews, would remain confidential and anonymous, with respect to the law. In addition, participants were assured that their associations with particular John Howards would be kept confidential to the full extent provided by law. My SFU thesis supervisor and I only had knowledge of their identity. I communicated to all participants that their confidentiality was to be protected by removing identifying characteristics from interview transcripts and survey results. Contact information of the SFU Research Ethics Board (REB), my information, my thesis supervisor, and the JHS of the Lower Mainland of BC (JHSLMBC) were given as an avenue to report any concerns or harmful occurrences.

Informed consent forms were signed when available, but most information was gathered through the online survey. Participants could withdraw at any time. The participants (in both the online surveys and interviews) were not minors. They were adults all over the age of 19. Data are currently being maintained in a secure location. Raw data collected from the study (both for the online survey and all interviews) is being stored on a memory stick, retained in a locked cabinet, and will be for two years, then destroyed. The REB considered this study to be of minimal risk.

5. Results

After the presentation of demographic information, both the key findings of the online survey results are outlined in this chapter. The variables examined in the key findings section are gender, age, unionization, length of employment, and reasons for leaving the JHS. At the later stages of the research project, interviews were conducted with JHS upper management. The qualitative analysis is presented via themes, which includes turnover rates, employee rewards (both intrinsic and extrinsic), and pay.

5.1. Demographic Information

5.1.1. Gender

In total, there were 25 female participants (64%) in the survey and 14 (36%) males. Gender is not equally distributed in this sample and is in line with the general overrepresentation of females working in the non-profit sector (GNPI, 2009). The HR Council (2008) surveyed 807 employees across Canada in the non-profit sector. Of that sample, “76.4% of employees [were] female and 23.6% [were] male” (HR Council, 2008, p. 3). Females outnumbered males by a ratio of approximately three to one. The HR Council (nd) also reports that nearly 1.2 million Canadians work in non-profit organizations. Of this labour force, it is estimated that 76% are women (The HR Council, nd). This is compared Canada’s overall labour force where approximately only 47% are women (The HR Council, nd).

5.1.2. Age

The HR Council (2008) found that in Canada’s non-profit sector, employees’ ages range from 19 to 76, with a mean age of 43.4 years old (p. 3). This is slightly higher than Canada’s overall labour force, where the median age is 41.2 years old (HR Council, nd). My survey sample demonstrated a wide range of ages, and the average age was 36

years old. The age ranges are not equally distributed because most employees are aged between 20 to 29 years old. Table 2 below illustrates the breakdown of age, unionization, and how long survey participants have been employed with the JHS.

Table 2 Aggregated Demographics

Demographic Questions	Aggregated Frequency		
Age of Participants	20 – 29	17	44%
	30 – 49	16	41%
	50 – 69	6	15%
	Total = 39		
How long have you been employed at this job?	< 1 Year	5	13%
	1-5 Years	21	54%
	5-10 Years	7	18%
	> 10 Years	6	15%
	Total = 39		
Are you working within a unionized setting?	Yes	14	36%
	No	25	64%
	Total = 39		

Most survey participants fall within the 20 – 40 age bracket, have been working at the job between 1 and 5 years, and report that they work within a unionized setting.

5.2. The Online Survey Results

The following three tables show the overall findings from the online survey. Table 3 on the next page illustrates the aggregated frequencies per question asked concerning job satisfaction, and has been displayed by gender as well. Using SPSS, satisfaction levels one to four were recoded as “unsatisfied”, satisfaction levels five to seven were recoded as “generally satisfied”, and satisfaction levels eight to ten were recoded as “very satisfied”. Most participants reported to be either generally or very satisfied with their job. This pattern appears to be the same for satisfaction with the firm’s work organization and physical environment, regardless of gender.

Table 3 Aggregated Satisfaction Questions by Gender

Satisfaction Questions	Aggregated Frequency			Female			Male		
	How satisfied are you with this job?	Unsatisfied	3	8%	Unsatisfied	0	0%	Unsatisfied	3
Generally Satisfied		14	36%	Generally Satisfied	10	40%	Generally Satisfied	4	29%
Very Satisfied		22	56%	Very Satisfied	15	60%	Very Satisfied	7	50%
Total Aggregated		39	100%	Total Female	25	100%	Total Male	14	100%
How satisfied are you with this firm's work organization?	Unsatisfied	1	2%	Unsatisfied	0	0%	Unsatisfied	1	7%
	Generally Satisfied	8	21%	Generally Satisfied	3	12%	Generally Satisfied	5	36%
	Very Satisfied	30	77%	Very Satisfied	22	88%	Very Satisfied	8	57%
	Total Aggregated	39	100%	Total Female	25	100%	Total Male	14	100%
How satisfied are you with this job's physical environment?	Unsatisfied	2	5%	Unsatisfied	2	8%	Unsatisfied	0	0%
	Generally Satisfied	17	45%	Generally Satisfied	10	40%	Generally Satisfied	8	57%
	Very Satisfied	19	49%	Very Satisfied	13	52%	Very Satisfied	6	43%
	Total Aggregated	39	100%	Total Female	25	100%	Total Male	14	100%

The aggregated frequencies and percentages are given on the following next two pages (also disaggregated by gender) for questions related to choice in the workplace.

Table 4 illustrates that 66% of participants considered their job stressful, 55% reported to always or sometimes work under dangerous conditions, 44% are currently thinking about leaving the JHS, and 39% felt they rarely or never work independently. A higher proportional of females reported that they work in stressful conditions, when compared to males. A higher proportion of older workers feel they never or rarely get to

work independently, when compared to younger workers. A very small amount of people reported that the relations between managers and staff as poor, but if they did so, most were under 39 years old.

Table 4 Workplace Choices

Question	Aggregated Frequency			Female			Male		
In your job, how often do you work independently?	Never	5	13%	Never/Rarely	7	28%	Never/Rarely	8	57%
	Rarely	10	26%	Unsure	0	0%	Unsure	1	7%
	Unsure	1	2%	Sometimes/Always	18	72%	Sometimes/Always	5	36%
	Sometimes	17	44%	N =25			N =14		
	Always	6	15%						
How often do you participate in decisions related to job tasks?	Never	0	0%	Never/Rarely	1	4%	Never/Rarely	1	7%
	Rarely	2	5%	Unsure	0	0%	Unsure	0	0%
	Unsure	0	0%	Sometimes/Always	24	96%	Sometimes/Always	13	93%
	Sometimes	20	51%	N =25			N =14		
	Always	17	44%						
How often can you choose or modify the sequence of tasks?	Never	1	2%	Never/Rarely	0	0%	Never/Rarely	1	7%
	Rarely	0	0%	Unsure	0	0%	Unsure	0	0%
	Unsure	0	0%	Sometimes/Always	25	100%	Sometimes/Always	13	93%
	Sometimes	28	72%	N =25			N =14		
	Always	10	26%						
How often can you choose or modify the method of work?	Never	3	8%	Never/Rarely	4	16%	Never/Rarely	4	29%
	Rarely	5	13%	Unsure	1	4%	Unsure	0	0%
	Unsure	1	2%	Sometimes/Always	20	80%	Sometimes/Always	10	71%
	Sometimes	25	64%	N =25			N =14		
	Always	5	13%						
How often can you choose or modify the pace of work?	Never	2	5%	Never/Rarely	4	16%	Never/Rarely	3	21%
	Rarely	5	13%	Unsure	2	8%	Unsure	0	0%
	Unsure	2	5%	Sometimes/Always	19	76%	Sometimes/Always	11	79%
	Sometimes	18	46%	N =25			N =14		
	Always	12	31%						

Question	Aggregated Frequency			Female			Male		
How often can you choose or modify your work breaks?	Never	4	10%	Never/ Rarely	5	20%	Never/ Rarely	2	14%
	Rarely	3	8%	Unsure	0	0%	Unsure	1	7%
	Unsure	1	2%	Sometimes/ Always	20	80%	Sometimes/ Always	11	79%
	Sometimes	16	41%	N =25			N =14		
	Always	15	39%						
How would you describe the relations between managers and employees in the workplace?	Very Poor	0	0%	Very Poor/ Poor	2	8%	Very Poor/ Poor	2	14%
	Poor	4	10%	Unsure	3	12%	Unsure	1	7%
	Unsure	4	10%	Good/ Very Good	20	80%	Good/ Very Good	11	79%
	Good	10	26%	N =25			N =14		
	Very Good	21	54%						
How would you describe the relations between co-workers in the workplace?	Very Poor	0	0%	Very Poor/ Poor	1	4%	Very Poor/ Poor	0	0%
	Poor	1	2%	Unsure	0	0%	Unsure	0	0%
	Unsure	0	0%	Good/ Very Good	24	96%	Good/ Very Good	14	100%
	Good	15	39%	N =25			N =14		
	Very Good	23	59%						
Would you consider that your job is stressful?	Completely Disagree	1	2%	Completely Disagree/ Disagree	7	28%	Completely Disagree/ Disagree	5	36%
	Disagree	11	28%	Unsure	0	0%	Unsure	1	7%
	Unsure	1	2%	Agree/ Completely Agree	18	72%	Agree/ Completely Agree	8	57%
	Agree	22	57%	N =25			N =14		
	Completely Agree	4	10%						
How often do you work under dangerous conditions?	Never	1	2%	Never/ Rarely	9	36%	Never/ Rarely	7	50%
	Rarely	15	39%	Unsure	1	4%	Unsure	0	0%
	Unsure	1	2%	Sometimes/ Always	15	60%	Sometimes/ Always	7	50%
	Sometimes	17	44%	N =25			N =14		
	Always	5	13%						

5.2.1. Gender

A chi-square analysis was performed to examine the relation between gender and all other indicators asked in the survey. All relations between gender and these

variables were found to be statistically insignificant. The variables gender, overall satisfaction, stress, and dangerous work environments showed interesting results however, and are discussed below.

First, the relationship between gender and overall job satisfaction was found to not be statistically significant, $X^2 (2, N = 39) = 5.83, p > .05$. Below, Table 5 shows that of the female participants, 100% answered to be either generally satisfied or very satisfied. Of the male participants, 76% answered the same.

Table 5 Crosstab Gender and Job Satisfaction

Gender	Unsatisfied	Generally Satisfied	Very Satisfied	TOTAL
Female	0	10	15	25
Male	3	4	7	14
TOTAL	3	14	22	39

Second, the relationship between gender and work stress was not found to be statistically significant, $X^2 (2, N = 39) = 2.256, p > .05$. The cross-tabulation below illustrates an interesting trend whereby more females (72%) than males (57%) considered their job stressful.

Table 6 Crosstab Gender and Work Stress

	Completely Disagree / Disagree	Unsure	Agree / Completely Agree	TOTAL
Female	7	0	18	25
Male	5	1	8	14
TOTAL	12	1	26	39

Third, the relationship between gender and dangerous work environments was not found to be statistically significant, $X^2 (2, N = 39) = 1.148, p > .05$. Yet, Table 7 indicates a trend towards a higher proportion of females (60%) than males (50%) who feel they work in dangerous environments.

Table 7 Crosstab Gender and Dangerous Work Environments

	Never/Rarely	Unsure	Sometimes/Always	TOTAL
Female	9	1	15	25
Male	7	0	7	14
TOTAL	16	1	22	39

5.2.2. Age

Chi-square analyses were performed to examine the relationship between age and all other indicators asked in the survey. All relations between age and these variables were found to be statistically insignificant. Of interest however are the cross-tabulation results between age and overall job satisfaction, age and stress, and age and dangerous work environments. These three variables are discussed below.

First, a chi-square test examined the relation between age and overall job satisfaction. The relationship between these variables was not found to be statistically significant, $X^2(4, N = 39) = 4.828, p > .05$. Table 8 illustrates the cross-tabulation showing that of the participants in the middle-age range 30 – 49 years old, 75% also reported to be very satisfied with their job. No one above the age of 50 years old reported to be unsatisfied. Most participants, regardless of age reported to be either generally satisfied or very satisfied with their job, at 92%. Only 8% of the sample chose a four or lower, out of ten, on the job satisfaction scale.

Table 8 Crosstab Age and Overall Satisfaction

Age Range	Unsatisfied	Generally Satisfied	Very Satisfied	TOTAL
20 – 29	2	8	7	17
30 – 49	1	3	12	16
50 – 69	0	3	3	6
TOTAL	3	14	22	39

A Pearson's correlation coefficient test revealed two statistically significant relationships between age and overall job satisfaction, and between age and satisfaction with the physical environment. To do this analysis, I used the original age variable that had not been transformed into age ranges. First, my results indicate a weak positive relationship exists between age and job satisfaction [$r = .414$ ($p < .01$)]. This finding suggests that as age increases, job satisfaction also slightly increases. In addition, a relatively weak positive relationship exists between age and satisfaction with the firm's physical environment [$r = .345$ ($p < .05$)] showing that as age increases so does satisfaction with the firm's physical environment.

Second, the relationship between age and work stress was not found to be statistically significant, X^2 (4, N = 39) = 2.986, $p > .05$. The cross-tabulation presented in Table 9 illustrates that of the participants 20 – 49 years old, 70% also consider their job as stressful. To compare, of the participants 50 – 69 years old, 50% also reported the same. Of the younger participants 20 – 29 years old, only 24% reported that they completely disagree or disagree that their jobs were stressful, whereas of the older workers 50 – 69 years old, 50% also reported the same.

Table 9 Crosstab Age and Stress

Age Range	Completely Disagree / Disagree	Unsure	Agree / Completely Agree	TOTAL
20 – 29	4	0	13	17
30 – 49	5	1	10	16
50 – 69	3	0	3	6
TOTAL	12	1	26	39

Third, the relationship between age and dangerous work environments was not found to be statistically significant, X^2 (4, N = 39) = 2.077, $p > .05$. Table 10 below illustrates that of the younger participants 20 – 29 years old, 59% also reported to sometimes or always work in dangerous conditions. Of those participants 30 – 49 years

old, 50% reported the same, and of participants 50 – 69 years old, 67% also reported to sometimes or always work in dangerous environment.

Table 10 Crosstab Age and Dangerous Work Environment

Age Range	Never/Rarely	Unsure	Sometimes/Always	TOTAL
20 – 29	6	1	10	17
30 – 49	8	0	8	16
50 – 69	2	0	4	6
TOTAL	16	1	22	39

5.2.3. Unionized Work Environment

A chi-square analysis was performed to examine the relationship between working in a unionized environment and all other indicators asked in the survey. Key findings are discussed below.

First, unionization did not seem to impact on job satisfaction, as Table 11 shows. The relationship between these two variables was not found to be statistically significant, $X^2 (2, N = 39) = .011, p > .05$.

Table 11 Crosstab Unionization and Job Satisfaction

Unionized	Unsatisfied	Generally Satisfied	Very Satisfied	TOTAL
Yes	1	5	8	14
No	2	9	14	25
TOTAL	3	14	22	39

Second, the relation between unionization and making independent decisions at work was found to be statistically significant, $X^2 (2, N = 39) = 15.193, p < .01$. Table 12 shows that of the participants who are employed in a unionized setting, 100% also reported to sometimes or always make independent work decisions. To compare, of

those in a non-unionized setting, 36% also reported to sometimes or always make independent work decisions.

Table 12 Crosstab Unionization and Independent Decisions

Unionized	Never/Rarely	Unsure	Sometimes/Always	TOTAL
Yes	0	0	14	14
No	15	1	9	25
TOTAL	15	1	23	39

Third, the relationship between unionization and working in dangerous environments was not found to be statistically significant, $X^2 (2, N = 39) = 4.703, p >.05$. Interestingly however, as Table 13 points out, of those participants who do not work in a unionized setting, about half (52%) never or rarely feel they work in a dangerous environment, whereas the other half (48%) feel they sometimes or always do. To compare, of those participants who do work in a unionized setting, 71% also report to sometimes or always work in a dangerous environment.

Table 13 Crosstab Unionization and Dangerous Environment

Unionized	Never/Rarely	Unsure	Sometimes/Always	TOTAL
Yes	3	1	10	14
No	13	0	12	25
TOTAL	15	1	23	39

5.2.4. Length of Employment

A chi-square analysis was performed to examine the relation between length of employment against the variables overall satisfaction, stress, and dangerous work environments. All relations were not found to be statistically significant, but some cross-tabulations showed interesting results.

First, the relationship between length of employment and job satisfaction was not found to be statistically significant, $\chi^2 (6, N = 39) = 3.434, p > .05$. Table 14 below illustrates that of those who have worked between one and five years, 90% also reported to be either generally or very satisfied with their job. Of those who have worked for over ten years with the agency, 100% also reported to be either generally or very satisfied with their job.

Table 14 Crosstab Length of Employment and Job Satisfaction

Length of Employment	Unsatisfied	Generally Satisfied	Very Satisfied	TOTAL
< 1 Year	0	2	3	5
1 – 5 Years	2	9	10	21
5 – 10 Years	1	2	4	7
10+ Years	0	1	5	6
TOTAL	3	14	22	39

Second, a chi-square test examined the relation between length of employment and work stress. The relationship between these variables was not found to be statistically significant, $\chi^2 (6, N = 39) = 10.646, p > .05$. Table 15 illustrates the cross-tabulation showing that of the participants who have worked for the JHS for five years or more, 77% also consider their job stressful. To compare, of the participants who have worked for less than five years, 58% also reported the same. Worth noting is that 48% of participants, who have worked between one and five years, do not consider their job as stressful.

Table 15 Crosstab Length of Employment and Stress

Length of Employment	Completely Disagree / Disagree	Unsure	Agree / Completely Agree	TOTAL
< 1 Year	1	0	4	5
1 – 5 Years	10	0	11	21
5 – 10 Years	0	1	5	7
10+ Years	1	0	5	6

TOTAL	12	1	26	39
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Third, the relationship between length of employment and dangerous working conditions was not found to be statistically significant, $X^2 (6, N = 39) = 2.988, p > .05$. Table 16 shows that those who have worked for the JHS ten years or longer, 67% also reported to never or rarely feel like their work environment are dangerous. To compare, of those who have worked between one and five years, 38% also reported to never or rarely feel like their work environment are dangerous.

Table 16 Crosstab Length of Employment and Dangerous Work Environment

Length of Employment	Never/Rarely	Unsure	Sometimes/Always	TOTAL
< 1 Year	2	0	3	5
1 – 5 Years	8	1	12	21
5 – 10 Years	2	0	5	7
10+ Years	4	0	2	6
TOTAL	16	1	22	39

Most people, regardless of length of employment, answered they either sometimes or always work in dangerous environments.

5.2.5. Reasons for Leaving the JHS

If participants were planning to leave the JHS, they were asked to indicate the reason(s) why. This was the only open-ended question in the online survey. 17 people entered an answer, which suggests 44% of my sample is thinking about leaving the JHS. Table 13 illustrates the breakdown. The answer frequency is more than 17 because some people wrote more than one reason.

Table 17 Reasons for Leaving the JHS

Reason for Leaving	Frequency
Pay/Remuneration	14
Issues with Management	4
Insufficient Advancement Opportunities	2
Unsafe Work Environment	1
Sexism	1
Other	1
TOTAL	23

The most common reported reason for leaving is dissatisfaction with current pay. This is concurrent with findings in the literature review (GNPI, 2009). Issues with JHS management are the second most common reason. When tested however, most participants report the relations between employees and managers as good or very good. It appears there are only a small number of people in the JHS who are dissatisfied with management or current leadership in the workplace.

5.3. Upper Management Interviews

Valuable input was gathered from JHS upper management personnel from locations between BC and Ontario. Two themes are presented below: employee rewards and retention rates, however most of the results were incorporated into the final policy analysis in Chapter 6.

Financial rewards, such as benefits, were challenged by some JHS upper management personnel. For example, one ED spoke about the higher value of “intrinsic” rewards employees receive from working in the sector as opposed to “extrinsic” rewards obtained through hourly wages (Participant, 2013). The argument is that intrinsic rewards elicit a greater value for employees, which result in higher job satisfaction. Intrinsic rewards might be able to help address issues like burnout, turnover, and service

delivery in the non-profit sector more effectively than wage increases or better benefit packages. Another respondent mentioned that recognizing staff's accomplishments was a, "...far greater reward than dollars" (Participant, 2013). That being said, when CRF employees were asked why they were planning on leaving the JHS, low wages was the most common reason.

I prompted the topic of retention rates. One ED pointed out that using retention rates as the sole indicator of dissatisfaction, "...is not always a good thing" (Participant, 2013). Retention rates are only a small piece of the larger picture. People can stay in a position for over five years, but this factor alone does not mean this person is fulfilled, happy, or productive. Another participant mentioned their JHS location had "good retention rates" and attributed this success to a combination of variables such as,

"...competitive salaries, flexible hours, benefits, professional development opportunities, and a cooperative work environment" (Participant, 2013).

Restructuring wage schemes to be more on par with other sectors was mentioned as a way to improve retention rates. The following section elaborates.

5.4. Too Low Pay

The topic of pay and benefits in the non-profit sector is a challenging one. Both my online survey results and communication with upper management highlight the importance of non-profit remuneration. Kosny and Eakin (2008) argue that jobs in these environments are often characterized by "...high demands, long working hours, low pay and exposure to violence and infectious disease, conditions which may be deleterious to worker health" (p. 149). Kosny and Eakin (2008) state,

"Increased competition and funding changes necessitate that organizations get as much as they can out of workers. The 'marketization' of social services means that organizations need workers to go the extra mile, do unpaid work and put their clients' needs above their own. Explicitly or implicitly, poorly funded organizations must rely on the values and commitment of workers to give as much as possible, and even to take risks, in order to continue serving their clientele" (p. 163).

Too low pay for frontline work is integrated into five other complex labour issues. First, the sector's workforce is predominately female (Pinfold, 2010). It is possible that not paying workers at par constitutes a gender-based inequality (i.e. sexist), which should be further discussed between stakeholders (Pinfold, 2010). Second, the "marketization" of social services has resulted in fewer resources to spread to workers (Kosny and Eakin, 2008). Third, some non-profits are unionized. The issue of employee benefits and pay is decided through negotiations, lawyers, and put into contracts. Unionization is a key variable to consider when examining wage schemes in any sector. Fourth, strong and trusting relationships between non-profit agencies and governments are crucial if resources are going to be allocated to the sector. Fifth, as mentioned in earlier sections, too low pay affects the quality of service delivery as it is intertwined with both retention rates and employee burnout/fatigue.

The solution of increasing remuneration for CRF workers has been left out of the policy analysis because the scope of this issue is beyond the reach of my research. The issue of low pay warrants a whole thesis devoted to it. I, along with many other advocates in the non-profit sector, vehemently argue that CRF workers should be compensated at a level that is appropriate and on par with other similar services, such as Parole Officers, Correctional Officers, and social workers. However, I cannot cover the topic of low pay to the degree it deserves in this paper.

5.5. Answering the Research Questions

I set out to answer two questions: (1) what aspects of frontline employment are frontline workers in the non-profit sector dissatisfied with? And (2) how can the non-profit sector produce a more "satisfied" workforce?

As it turned out, most frontline employees who answered the survey (71%) report to be very satisfied with their job. This finding was originally problematic for me because I had identified job dissatisfaction as the problem to address. However, when I broke down the components of job dissatisfaction, such as stress, management, working conditions, pay and other reasons for leaving, a different story emerged (Saunders, 2004). It seems asking solely overall job satisfaction for the non-profit sector is

insufficient, whereas asking about other variables that indicate dissatisfaction produces more robust results.

To answer the first question, frontline employees are dissatisfied with workplace stress and safety, pay and access to benefits, and management. For example, 66% of participants consider their job stressful, 55% report to always or sometimes work under dangerous conditions, 44% of participants are currently thinking about leaving their employer, and 39% felt they rarely or never work independently. The most common reason for wanting to leave their job was pay, and the second most common reason was issues with management. My results also indicate that when frontline employees are dissatisfied with certain components of their job, they only stay with their agency between one to five years, become stressed out, and as the outside literature pointed out, they start to negatively affect quality of frontline services.

Regarding the second research question, the online survey results indicate that the non-profit sector can produce a more satisfied workforce by increasing pay, reducing workplace stress, increasing employees' ability to work independently, improving dangerous workplace environments (or at least the perception of it), improving management and leadership skills, focus on the overall wellness of the work force, strengthen teams, build trust, loyalty, and intrinsic worth.

6. Policy Analysis

To restate the problem: frontline employees in the non-profit sector experience job dissatisfaction, which leads to problematic turnover rates, burnout or fatigue, and a reduced quality of service offered to those in need. The non-profit sector provides valuable services to vulnerable populations. To affect satisfaction of frontline workers is to affect the quality of these services. Once defined, the policy problem informs the goals of the policy analysis (McArthur, 2011). Policy objectives flow from that goal, drawing out the different criteria and measures that will be used to evaluate and compare each policy option put forth. This section outlines the policy analysis and concludes with recommendations. The overall goal of the policy analysis is to provide recommendations for the non-profit sector that will impact frontline job satisfaction.

6.1. Objectives

Hamilton (2010) writes that policy objectives are the desired end conditions whereby limited time and resources have been considered for the target population. McArthur (2011) states that, "All policy analysis operates within the context of government goals and/or objectives" (Slide 5). There are six main societal objectives in the policy process, which include: (1) efficiency; (2) fairness, justice, and equity; (3) liberty and freedom of citizens; (4) security of person, community, nation, and world; (5) development and realization of full human capacity; and (6) sustainability and supporting nature's balance (McArthur, 2011, Slide 6). These six high-level societal objectives act as normative rationales for government action, and are aligned with Western liberal traditions (McArthur, 2011). McArthur (2011) also points out five broad government objectives, including: (1) effectiveness, (2) budgetary impacts, (3) political impacts, (4) third party acceptance, and (5) communications implications (Slide 7).

Not all of these stated objectives are utilized in the policy analysis. My results indicate that any policy option put forth, attempting to address job dissatisfaction in JHS frontline employment, ought to include these fundamental objectives: (1) efficiency, (2) fairness, justice, and equity, (3) budgetary impacts, and (4) effectiveness. These objectives are discussed below, followed by an explanation of the criteria used in the final policy analysis.

6.1.1. Efficiency

In its simplest form, efficiency is "...the need to use resources in the most efficient and economical way" (Schwartz, 2008, p. 11). Efficiency implies that a governing body uses certain technology to minimize costs per unit of output, while at the same time seeks a comparative advantage in the market (FAO Corporate Repository, 2013). The goal implicit in efficiency is to ensure that the conditions for long-term development are optimum while at the same time minimizing costs (FAO Corporate Repository, 2013). For the purposes of this research project, I define efficiency in the similar economic context, and efficiency here refers to the efficiency of the policy option.

6.1.2. Equity

From the perspective of the JHS, it is clear that responses to social challenges in society should be just and humane. Therefore in an attempt to align my research with the values inherent in the JHS the policy objective of equity has been included. Equity considers the relative well-being of producers and consumers, the distribution of power between groups, and the availability of opportunities (FAO Corporate Repository, 2013). Inherent in equity is the attempt to ensure that well-being for both the producers and consumers can experience an increased well-being. Non-intervention in the labour market can result in greater inequities. This is especially true when the *status quo* is already inequitable (FAO Corporate Repository, 2013).

The age and gender of employees is important to consider when implementing HR policies. The equity objective attempts to address how a policy solution can dissolve beneficial outcomes for both genders and across ages to the best of its ability.

6.1.3. Budgetary Impacts

I define the policy objective of budgetary impacts as a two-part concept. First, the budget impact objective attempts to assess the cost of implementation of the policy itself (effectiveness aside). Would the JHS have to pay someone to amend or implement their HR policies? Would this implementation be considered too “costly” to the JHS’s annual budget? Second, the budgetary impact objective attempts to assess the cost of maintaining any policy solutions that have been adopted. Conceptually, this is similar to short-run capital costs versus long-run costs. The question is whether or not the policy intervention can be achieved while remaining at a cost-level that the JHS can afford to implement and maintain.

6.1.4. Effectiveness

Effectiveness considers to what degree a policy solution accomplishes the goals set (Schwartz, 2008). As stated earlier the overall goal of this policy analysis is to provide solutions that will increase the amount of job satisfaction experienced in the non-profit sector. Thus, the policy goal of effectiveness attempts to address how successful the policy intervention has been in achieving this stated goal.

The following section breaks down these four broad policy objectives (efficiency, equity, budgetary impacts, and effectiveness) into their respective criteria, and discusses how I plan to assess and measure each one.

6.2. Criteria and Measures

McArthur (2011) states that criteria are developed to help assess each policy solution put forth on whether or not, or to what degree, the solution can achieve the objectives. They help give expression to the changes, to be observed, before and after a policy intervention (McArthur, 2011). Examples of criteria include costs, co-benefits, risk, political viability, administrative ease, legality, and timing (McArthur, 2011). Hamilton (2010) writes that criteria are established “... to be the measurable dimension of the objectives and will be used to compare the different policy options against one another” (p. 6). There can be many different and conflicting criteria existing at the same time

(McArthur, 2011). Above all, the development of criteria helps specify and illustrate how the policy goals can be achieved and measured. At the same time, this provides analysts with a system to compare and evaluate each policy option.

6.2.1. *Efficiency Criterion: Cost-Effectiveness*

Cost-effectiveness is defined as the extent the interventions are achieving the stated objectives, while at the same time using the least amount of resources required to achieve those objectives (Schwartz, 2008). To measure cost-effectiveness, a Cost-Effectiveness Analysis (CEA) can be the primary tool for comparing the cost of a policy intervention against the expected gains (Disease Control Priorities Project, 2008). According to the International Society for Pharmacoeconomics and Outcomes Research (ISPOR), a CEA evaluates the "...costs and outcomes of alternative technologies over a specified time horizon to determine their economic efficiency" (ISPOR, 2013, Paragraph 11). Hiring a statistician or research analyst for the purpose of conducting a CEA may be unlikely for most non-profit agencies due to high costs of the analysis.

At the bare minimum JHS personnel can measure how cost-effective a policy intervention is by: (1) summing opportunity costs, transactions costs, and administrative costs, (2) then comparing this amount to a value placed on how operative, or how successful, the intervention is at achieving the goals set out by the JHS. This value placed on effectiveness will differ for each intervention and each JHS location. Targets and performance indicators can be useful in identifying what changes have been "effective".

6.2.2. *Equity Criterion: Equal Distribution of Benefits*

This next criterion attempts to address the dispersion of benefits for CRF employees. The total amount of beneficial outcomes, if any at all, ought to be distributed as fairly as possible. By asking who benefits and who does not, this criterion also attempts to assess what the impacts of the policy option are on the different groups of CRF workers. Rachlis and Gardner (2008) state, "...it is crucial to be aware of the potential risks of policy options and directions" (p. 2). That is to say, the JHS could risk

favouring young new workers while penalizing long-term staff members unintentionally if a proper assessment is not done using an equity criterion.

Groups of workers differ depending on age, gender, cultural background, length of employment at the JHS, and other variables. If an intervention results in net benefits (i.e. improved satisfaction at work) for frontline employees, how can the JHS ensure that these benefits will be distributed fairly?

In order to measure equity, online surveys that are quick, free, and anonymous yet include basic demographic information are an effective tool. This is because basic software like MS Excel can demonstrate if, for example, female workers are less satisfied than male workers, or if long-term employees are more satisfied than newly hired employees. One cannot determine causation between variables. At the bare minimum, a non-profit agency, for a very low cost, can gain a general sense of what groups of workers are thinking. The data however only informs a small amount of knowledge.

6.2.3. *Budgetary Impacts Criterion: Costs in Dollars*

Non-profit agencies work within a finite annual budget. Contracts with various other stakeholders may ensure that funds will be distributed for a consecutive amount of years or months. The annual budget is a significant aspect to consider in the analysis.

To evaluate what happens when a policy intervention is being developed or implemented, one of the most paramount considerations is the budgetary impact. This criterion can translate into costs, demonstrated in dollar amounts, which allows the agency to see concrete measures and changes to the agency. There are initial implementation costs of a change that may be coming into an agency, and there are long-term maintenance costs of keeping the policy intervention going. Research analysts, statisticians, and accountants can conduct Budget Impact Assessments (BIAs) that address the financial consequences of adopting a new technology into a firm and help determine their affordability (ISPOR, 2013).

I am not double-counting the costs used in the measurement of cost-effectiveness. The criterion here of costs in dollars is assessed as trying to keep just the

dollar amount low for a JHS, whereas, the cost assessed in the cost-effectiveness criterion uses an all-encompassing cost notion for a different purpose. The cost-effective criterion aims to know how efficient an option is, while costs in dollars criterion here aims to know if this option is too expensive for a JHS to even consider.

6.2.4. Effectiveness Criterion: Changes in Job Satisfaction

The changes in job satisfaction criterion attempts to address how successful the policy option might be in achieving the stated goal. Schwartz (2008) argues that measuring the change in feedback from employees can help evaluate the effectiveness of a policy intervention. Essentially, if job satisfaction overall rises after one year following a policy change, then the intervention may have been effective. If overall job satisfaction decreases, the opposite argument could be made. Therefore, the change in job satisfaction can measure how effective a policy option is. Table 18 below summarizes.

Table 18 Policy Objectives, Criteria, and Measurements

Policy Objective	Criterion	Measurement and Operationalization
Efficiency	Cost-Effectiveness	Analysis that sums economic costs, and compares these costs to the value placed on how effective (or successful) the intervention is at achieving JHS set goals. Target performance indicators can be useful.
Equity	Fair Distribution of Benefits	Free, short, and anonymous online surveys can identify what different groups of CRF workers are feeling/thinking (i.e. workers under 25 agree that...)
Budgetary Impacts	Cost in Dollars	Evaluation of short-term and long-term dollar costs of an intervention, followed by an assessment of affordability (i.e. the intervention is too expensive)
Effectiveness	Changes in Job Satisfaction	Free, short, and anonymous online surveys can measure job satisfaction and the multiple aspects of what makes CRF workers satisfied. After one year post-intervention, another survey can be sent, followed by an evaluation of changes in job satisfaction before and after the intervention.

6.3. Policy Options

Each JHS is operated independently. Therefore policy options put forth may need to be altered to better suit a particular organization. Jurisdictionally, some provinces may differ regarding the administration of justice and how programs are operated and/or funded.

6.3.1. *Policy Option 1: Workplace Mentoring Program*

My findings indicate that relations between both co-workers, and co-workers and management, are good. Yet, for those who are planning to leave the CRF, pay and issues with management were the two most common reasons given. Further, 66% of CRF staff members feel their job is stressful. One way to address these issues would be to frame a policy option around co-worker support, workplace initiatives, co-worker empowerment, and the development of new skills (Shier and Graham, 2011). Zeytinoglu and Denton (2006) argue that higher levels of job satisfaction depend on factors such as peer support, working one-to-one, and emotional labour. Therefore, the first policy option to analyze is a workplace mentoring program.

The US Department of Energy (DOE) (2009) states,

“Mentoring is an effective way to provide professional development and to enhance learning in the workplace. The mentoring relationship is a special relationship built on trust, encouragement, and targeted development. A mentor is a teacher, coach, and advisor who provide guidance and opportunities for learning and professional growth to another employee” (p. 3).

Mentoring uses the resources an organization already has, and can improve satisfaction, leadership skills, and enrich employee loyalty (Kessler, 2010).

What does a mentoring program look like for an organization like the JHS? I will explain a general breakdown of a mentoring program in a CRF environment, which can be implemented for both unionized and non-unionized agencies. First, an individual JHS would discuss and agree on the objectives and goals of the mentoring initiative. This collaboration between upper management, management, and frontline staff could be done in workshops, regular meetings, or focus groups. This means time is spent away from regular duties, and extra costs are incurred for the consultation process. For the

purposes of a JHS operated CRF, the major objectives of a mentoring program may be to: (1) welcome new staff, (2) improve training, and (3) increase job satisfaction. Second, the CRF team would identify staff members who are interested in becoming mentors (with a preference towards highly motivated employees). Third, the CRF would create an outline of the program model that identifies time frames for development, operation, and target goals. New hires, depending on the JHS, may have a probationary period that could suit a mentorship program time length. These details would be worked out in the beginning stages. Program models that leave space for input from the new hire are advised (DOE, 2009). Fourth, new hires are “paired” with their mentors. The pairing process can be based on many characteristics (i.e. age, interests, educational background, or job qualifications). Each CRF would have to make those decisions on a case-by-case basis. Kessler (2010) advises that developing steps to change mentors, when the pairing is not working without “hurt feelings” is integral. A simple “check-in” soon after the relationship begins can help solve this type of issue tactfully (Kessler, 2010). Fifth, the CRF team implements and begins the mentorship program. Sixth, the CRF would develop a closure or ending to the mentorship between the new hire and the mentoring staff member (Kessler, 2010).

6.3.2. *Policy Option 2: Develop a Workplace Wellness Program*

My findings indicate that overall wellness is important to both CRF frontline staff and JHS upper management. One way to promote workplace wellness is to frame a policy option around keeping staff healthy, satisfied, and positive. These HR strategies can be anything from promoting a healthier diet while at work, drug and alcohol counseling, to improving employee morale (The Conference Board of Canada, 2012). Lowe (2003) argues that workplace wellness programs “...deliver impressive cost savings and positively influence productivity” (p. 5). Evidence has pointed out a causal link between working conditions, interventions in the work environment, and employee health (Lowe, 2003). One of the largest components of “wellness” in the workplace has been the recent developments in mental health research and the associated costs to employers.

North America culture is obtaining a larger understanding of what impacts employee mental health can have in the labour market (Lowe, 2003). For example, the

World Health Organization (WHO) states, "...mental illness is expected to become the second leading disease burden globally, after heart disease" (Dewa and Lin, 2000, as cited in Lowe, 2003, p. 32). In addition, Conti and Burton (1995) state, "More disability days are depression related than are related to chronic physical health problems (as cited in Lowe, 2003, p. 32). Lowe (2003) also found that, "...depressed workers have 1.5 to 3.2 more short-term disability days in a 30-day period than other workers" (p. 32).

The Conference Board of Canada (2012) writes,

"One in five Canadians will have a mental health challenge that affects their work performance and their lives. The direct and indirect costs to the Canadian economy of mental health and addiction are now estimated at almost \$30 billion! Financial rewards for damages cause by mental injury at work have increased dramatically, and the Mental Health Commission of Canada anticipates major legal battles over employer responsibility for a psychologically safe workplace" (p. 3).

Without appropriate mental health and substance abuse services, the number of sick days will keep increasing, and medical costs will continue to rise (WFMH, 2011).

A workplace wellness program has been specifically illustrated by the following two models: (1) Work-Life Balance and (2) Mental Health Days. These two models are evaluated individually in the final analysis under the umbrella concept of a workplace wellness program.

Policy Option (2A): Work-Life Balance Program Model

Work-life balance models are additions to the work environment, such as offering staff fitness memberships, offering smoking cessation programs or incentives, offering secure bicycle parking, hosting sporting events, and introducing team weight loss competitions. It is a type of wellness initiative.

The HR Council advises that any initiative ought to be based on the needs of the employees. This means consulting with the CRF team first before moving forward in development is advised. Each CRF and JHS is unique and program models should attempt to reflect that. The beginning consultation phase will also help agencies to better understand resistance from staff, and receive feedback early on (HR Council, nd). The HR Council (nd) states,

“Success requires commitment from all staff and the board of directors so this step cannot be underestimated. Depending on your organization's culture, change may be easier (or more difficult) to handle” (Paragraph 4).

My research findings indicate that developing skills in stress management for CRF workers could be a viable option for the JHS. Yet, a work-life balance model requires agreed upon goals, inter-agency communication, time frames, and mechanisms to identify successes (HR Council, nd). Thus it is problematic to suggest only one program model for all CRFs across Canada. Identifying what the stressors are, if any at all, would be an important first step.

Policy Option (2B): Increase or Introduce “Mental Health Days”

Offering a certain amount of mental health days (paid leave) in the year has been shown to impact productivity and job satisfaction (Lowe, 2003). By allowing employees to take extra days off from work, these absences expectantly increase job satisfaction, and/or reduce stress at work. Other agencies use the term “wellness days”.

This policy option may be more viable for non-unionized agencies than unionized agencies because collective agreements include procedures for vacation days and sick time, and has been negotiated under contract. However HRSDC, through the Labour Program, published their *Innovative Workplace Practices* in 2011. Under working-time management the document states,

“The Workplace Safety and Insurance Board, Ontario and the Canadian Union of Public Employees, Local 1750, have agreed to replace the attendance credits by wellness days. Effective January 1, 2012, all probationary and permanent staff employees will no longer accumulate attendance credits but will be entitled to nine wellness days at the beginning of each calendar year. Employees hired on or before December 31, 2011, with three or more years of service, will receive a cash payout of 50% of their unused attendance credits, at their current rate of pay to a maximum of 26 weeks. New and permanent parttime employees will have their wellness day pro-rated based on their work schedule. Wellness days will be used for various absences such as employee’s marriage, religious holidays, volunteerism, inclement weather. Absences in excess of three consecutive working days will require a medical report. Upon termination of employment, unused days have no cash value” (p. 2).

This shows that mental health days can be an option for unionized JHS locations.

6.3.3. Policy Option 3: Team Building

Teamwork is about building relationships within a group of people who share the similar goals (HR Council, nd). Team building uses the resources already inherent in an organization, such as human resources, scheduled meetings, administration, and communication (HR Council, nd). Working as a team can be an effective model of service delivery, and can improve the quality of service for non-profit organizations (Samuels, 2010).

Employers play a critical role in developing supportive work environments that produce both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards for employees (McMullen, 2003). Yet increasingly, non-profit employers find their time and energy being allocated to securing funding for operation rather than building stronger teams (McMullen, 2003). With decreased funding and increased pressure to secure more funding, funders such as the government become more focused on program outcomes, and as a result stress agencies to meet these expectations (Samuels, 2010). Therefore, under the umbrella of team building, the third policy option is team fundraising.

McMullen (2003) states,

“The amount of influence a fundraiser has in the workplace is also likely to contribute to effective fundraising. From a technical perspective, influence puts decision-making authority in the hands of the people closest to the work and is expected to improve efficiency, effectiveness and productivity. From a psychological perspective, influence provides individuals with a sense of control and has a positive impact on their outlook and job satisfaction; ultimately, these are expected to be reflected in stronger job performance” (pp. 49-50).

Fundraising can be integrated into other functional areas of people’s employment and therefore contribute to inclusion into a more team environment. The collaborative learning that staff members experience leads to improved motivation at work, increased job satisfaction, and enables a greater transferability of skills (Samuels, 2010).

In the context of the JHS, I see two variations of this idea. First, a CRF team can fundraise for their own program, creating an event specifically for them. Or second, a group of CRF employees can participate in an outside fundraising event, raising money for cause outside of the JHS’s. Organizing a fundraising event may not be within the

capacity level of some CRFs. Hosting a community event instead can be a viable alternative.

Policy Option (3A): Group CRF Fundraising/Community Event

The nature of employment in a CRF is unique and thus their team building exercises should be the same. Individuals who have served time in institutions live in CRFs, and are the focus of the client-centred mandate. Community inclusion is a significant part of working for the JHS, which means a fundraising event ought to potentially include CRF residents. For example, the Westcoast Genesis Society, a non-profit organization in BC, hosts an annual barbecue at one of their CRF locations. This annual event encourages staff members, volunteers, residents, and employers to participate. Its success has contributed to the local Resident's Association supporting their zoning application to open a new 35-bed transitional housing facility nearby (McClurg, 2007).

Policy Option (3B): Outside Agency Group Fundraising

A group of CRF employees, volunteers, practicum students, and managers can join a fundraising team, under their CRF's program name or under the JHS's name, and participate in a group fundraising activity. Examples of these team-oriented events include walks or runs for disabilities, diseases, mental health, and many others. Group fundraising requires teamwork among people sharing a common purpose. The private sector often uses this type of team-building exercise and is volunteer-based.

Strengthening a CRF team can also mean increasing a program's inclusion into the larger JHS agency. Individual programs can sometimes become too focused on their own operations, and start feeling isolated. By organizing an agency-wide event, a group of CRF employees can achieve a sense of responsibility and common purpose within the JHS organization. This option has not been included into the final policy analysis as it is too repetitive when compared to team building through a CRF community event. The kinds of agency-wide fundraising events are endless. Jeffrey Stauch has written on this subject in his book *Effective Frontline Fundraising: A Guide for Non-Profits, Political Candidates, and Advocacy Groups*.

6.3.4. **Policy Option 4: Hire a Director of Human Resources**

Each JHS's governing body is a Board of Directors that provides oversight to ensure that the agency meets its mission and is operated effectively, while considering the best interest of stakeholders (HR Council, nd). Ultimately, each Board is responsible for HR management activities including the hiring, the supervision, and the evaluation of its Executive Director (ED) (HR Council, nd). When deciding on how to organize a governance structure for the management of HR, each JHS has several options. No single structure is appropriate for all non-profits, and changing models over time sometimes is necessary (Davidson, 2009). The three most commonly used Board governance models are the mixed model, traditional policy, and the Carver model (HR Council, nd). Table 2 outlines the HR management features of each option.

Table 19 Board Governance Models for HR

Governance Model	Role in HR Management	Role of ED in HR Management	Use of Committees
Mixed Board	The Board can establish a HR Committee to manage HR	Little to no role	HR Committee single use
Traditional Policy Board	The Board oversees the development of HR management policies in achieving the College's mandate. The Board thus limits its activity to setting HR policies and strategic goals.	The ED is then accountable to the Board for HR management (but does not develop HR policies). The hiring, supervising, and evaluation of the ED is done through an Executive Committee.	Several committees used to carry out the functions and activities of the Board.
Policy Governance Board (Carver)	The Board, as a whole, would direct the ED. The Board is not involved in the development of HR management policies.	The ED then establishes and implements all HR processes. He or she is given the delegated responsibility HR management oversight.	Little to no use of Committees

Delegating the management of HR to one person who is not the ED is an option. Hiring a Director of HR can help feature the importance of human capital, and highlight the importance of job satisfaction from the top down.

The size of an agency matters. Lagorio (2010) states,

“Companies with 50 or fewer employees rarely have a formal human resources department; instead, duties from recruiting to benefits administration are scattered among of colleagues--an accounting manager might manage a payroll vendor while mid-level employees write job listings, and a manager makes key hires. Over time, that piecemeal approach becomes inefficient...When is it time to add a human resources director?” (Paragraph 1).


An ad hoc approach to HR becomes inefficient when employee resources are consumed by tasks that an HR Director could have done, and the costs of those tasks then surpass the costs of hiring a Director of HR (Lagorio, 2010).

The following section evaluates each policy option by utilizing the selected objectives and criteria.

6.4. The Policy Analysis

I combined the literature review results, the online survey results, and input from JHS upper management, to address how, and how well, each policy option meets each objective and criterion put forth. The policy options are scored on a scale ranging from one to seven. A score of one represents when a policy option does not meet the set out criterion, and a score of seven means the option has met the set out criterion extremely well. The highest final score an option can receive is 28 and the lowest is seven. A policy matrix seen in Figure 1 on the following page helps evaluate and keep a mathematical score per option. The concluding section will discuss my recommendations. I chose to equally weight each criterion because I was not able to conclude through this research project that one criterion was more important than the other.

Figure 1 The Policy Matrix

Policy Options 	Policy Objectives				
	Efficiency	Equity	Budgetary Impacts	Effectiveness	Total Evaluative Score Out of 28
	Criteria and Measures for Each Objective				
	Cost-Effectiveness Measure: COE Analysis	Equal Distribution of Benefits Measure: Staff Surveys	Annual Budget Impacts Measure: Cost in \$\$	Changes in Job Satisfaction Measure: Staff Surveys	
Option 1 Workplace Mentoring	6	5	4	5	20
Option 2 Workplace Wellness					
Option 2(A) Work-Life Balance	4	1	6	4	15
Option 2(B) Mental Health Days	3	2	2	5	12
Option 3 Team Building					
Option 3(A) Group CRF Fundraiser or Community Event	2	3	1	6	12
Option 3(B) Outside Agency Fundraiser	6	3	7	5	21
Option 4 Restructure Board Governance Model					
Option 4 Hire Director of HR	5	6	3	4	18

6.4.1. Workplace Mentoring Program

Efficiency: Workplace mentoring can be an effective way to improve satisfaction, while not requiring a great deal of resources (HRSDC, 2011). There are other benefits to mentoring, such as improving employee recruitment and retention, reducing burnout, and increasing leadership skills (Dougherty and Dreher, 2007). The upfront people resources and dollar costs to start a mentoring program will exceed the long-term costs of continuing the program. This is because the beginning steps involve consulting CRF employees, managers, the ED, and directors. Early development stages could potentially take over a year before the first pairing happens. Online information, such as mentoring frameworks, material for building goals, and evaluation mechanisms can keep costs down during early development (HRSDC, 2011). Interviews with JHS upper management personnel validated this point (Participant, 2013). By using existing CRF human capital for a mentoring program, this policy option fulfills the objective of efficiency and has met the criterion of cost-effectiveness quite well. It is evaluated as **six out of seven**.

Equity: The benefits should in theory be distributed equally to all different types of employees regardless of demographics. I assume employees who exhibit a higher proficiency level in English would benefit more because mentoring depends on communication (i.e. in-person, over email, on the phone, in front of clients, and in group settings). This policy option fulfills the objective of equity and has met the criterion of equitable distribution of benefits fairly well. It is evaluated as **five out of seven**.

Budgetary Impacts: It is possible for an individual JHS to keep the impact on their annual budget minimal (i.e. keeping the option affordable). Mentoring can use people resources that an agency already has. For a medium or small size JHS, with fewer than 100 employees, a mentoring program might take one year of planning before the first pairing happens. A mentoring model could be developed within 10 to 12 meetings in that year (Participant, 2013). Regular staff meetings, JHS Board meetings, or CRF manager meetings can accommodate these administrative requirements. Emailing questions out to frontline staff while they are at work will result in opportunity costs for the CRF. The upper management personnel, or a policy analyst, would most likely be responsible for the final construction of the mentoring model, possibly taking

one to two months for the compiling, research, and writing. North, Sherk, and Strother (nd) state,

“The resources needed to start a new program would ideally include one full-time staff person to undertake the majority of planning and implementation of tasks... this individual’s salary is often the single largest expenditure in any mentoring effort...Funding for these expenses, added to the costs of recruitment...to help train and support mentors can cost between \$400-\$2,000 per match per year” (p. 2).

A workplace mentoring model meets the criteria of keeping costs in dollars relatively low for an individual JHS’s annual budget. There are risks of opportunity costs (foregone benefits). For example, one participant reported,

“...sometimes it turns out that the staff person does not possess the right skills.... The costs at that point can be substantial in terms of lost opportunity” (Participant, 2013).

The innovation behind the program model leaves costs flexible. An organization in the private sector can easily spend \$100,000 for their first-time mentoring initial costs (North et al, nd). The interviews revealed that one JHS can spend \$15,000 per staff member each time a new hire is being trained in their CRF (Participant, 2013). This policy option is evaluated as **four out of seven**.

Effectiveness: How effective a mentoring program is starts with effective leadership from both CRF co-workers and CRF managers (Participant, 2013). JHS upper management indicated that informal mentoring is a “great” learning and teaching tool to use in the JHS (Participant, 2013). Outside research also argues that mentoring can increase job satisfaction and highlights the intrinsic value in human capital (Dougherty and Dreher, 2007). Not all JHS upper management agree however that a mentoring program would improve job dissatisfaction (Participant, 2013). This policy option fulfills the objective of effectiveness and has met the criterion of changing job satisfaction fairly well. It is evaluated as **five out of seven**.

Overall: Some CRFs will struggle in accommodating the extra human capital required to run a formal mentoring program. This is a major trade-off. Survey results indicate that CRF frontline workers feel they take on a large amount of risk and stress while at work, for a pay that does not match this stress. The pressure of taking on yet

another role to the frontline requirements has not sufficiently been captured by the matrix. The consultation phase with frontline staff members is key. Not all staff members will support a change in the workplace.

The second major trade-off is the heavy reliance on manager leadership. Survey results indicate that some frontline workers are dissatisfied with management. This suggests that individual non-profit agencies should assess the leadership skills of their managers before any development occurs. Ultimately, the success or failure of a mentoring program is dependent on many variables. The final score is **20 out of 28**.

6.4.2. Workplace Wellness Program

Work-life balance programs and mental health days are analyzed in this section.

Work-Life Balance Programs

Efficiency: The literature review suggests that work-life balance initiatives such as smoking cessation assistance, subsidizing gym memberships, or secure bike lock-up areas are a cost-efficient way to improve job satisfaction (HR Council, nd). However, JHS upper management participants commonly reported that these programs are subject to abuse and inefficiencies between demand and actual use of the programs. This policy option appears to fulfill the objective of overall efficiency, as per academic research, but has not met the criterion of cost-effectiveness, as per interview results in this research project. It is evaluated as **four out of seven**.

Equity: Work-life balance programs do not appear to fulfill the objective of equity because, as JHS upper management points out, not all employees enjoy the programs offered. If an agency is offering subsidized gym memberships for example, it is likely that younger CRF employees would use it more than older workers. Some JHS benefit packages include massages as an alternative health care service (Participant, 2013). It is possible that older CRF employees would use massages more than younger workers. These findings suggest it is difficult to create work-life balance programs that equally benefit all types of CRF employees. Work-life balance programs have not sufficiently met the criterion of equal distribution of benefits. It is evaluated as **one out of seven**.

Budgetary Impacts: Work-life balance programs do not necessarily require large dollar resources (Lowe, 2003). JHS upper management suggested that work-life needs can be built into the structures already in place in a CRF, such as secure bike-up lock areas (Participant, 2013). A non-unionized JHS can offer added benefits for a small monthly fee of \$15 that allow employees to spend on anything considered “self-care” (Participant, 2013). This policy option potentially fulfills the objective of keeping budgetary impacts low and has met the criterion of low dollar costs fairly well. It is evaluated as **six out of seven**.

Effectiveness: The results were conflicting on whether or not a work-life balance program would meet the objective of effectiveness for the JHS. The available literature argues that work-life balance initiatives improve job satisfaction (Lowe, 2003). In addition, JHS upper management suggested that work-life balance programs can improve employee morale and camaraderie (Participant, 2013). Other JHS upper management however could not verify if their program had improved job dissatisfaction, productivity, or burnout (Participant, 2013). One participant said that work-life balance programs had “limited impacts in the workplace” (Participant, 2013). This option has somewhat met the criterion of changing job satisfaction. It is evaluated as **four out of seven**.

Overall: The major trade-offs for this option include potential abuse of benefits and an inability to ensure that benefits would be enjoyed equally throughout the CRF team. Outside literature argues these programs are useful for addressing job dissatisfaction and absenteeism (Lowe, 2003). However, responses from interviews with JHS upper management resulted in conflicting opinions and experiences. The final score is **15 out of 28**.

Mental Health Days

Efficiency: Overbearing workloads and general stressors cost an enormous amount annually to non-profit organizations (i.e. filing absent shifts, disability leave, and sick leave) (Conference Board of Canada, 2012). Offering wellness or mental health days is one way to mitigate these costs (Conference Board of Canada, 2012). Deciding whether or not mental health days are an efficient solution is difficult as it depends on many factors. How many mental health days per year would be considered efficient?

How can a JHS ensure this option is cost-effective? The short-term costs include filling an absent position, while at the same time paying for sick leave. Any benefits are seen in the longer-term because the employee returns to the CRF feeling less anxious, more satisfied, and more productive. Yet if staff members abuse the program, then other inefficiencies develop. Genuine compliance (only taking the mental health day for the reason of mental health) is an important factor in how efficient this option can be for a JHS, and enforcing genuine compliance seems unlikely. This option in the long-run is arguably an efficient solution, meeting the criterion of cost-effectiveness, given that CRF employees are reasonably compliant with the program model. In the short-run, this option does not meet the same criterion as well. It is evaluated as **three out of seven**.

Equity: The benefits should be distributed equally, regardless of age, gender, or cultural background. When a CRF staff member is anxious or excessively stressed, he or she should benefit the same way another staff member would from taking a mental health day. However according to JHS interviews with upper management, this is not the case. The feedback commonly mentioned that not all staff members benefited from their wellness initiatives. Certain types of workers are more likely than others to use workplace wellness opportunities (Participant, 2013). This option does not appear to have met the criterion of equal distribution of benefits very well. It is evaluated as **two out of seven**.

Budgetary Impacts: To demonstrate the budgetary impacts, assume one CRF employs seven full-time employees, and four part-time. Each full-time employee is allowed two mental health days per year (keeping sick days separate) and each part-time employee is allowed one mental health day per year. Assume all full-time CRF employees earn \$18 per hour (for simplicity) and assume all shifts are eight hours long. If one full-time employee takes both mental health days each year, and the person filling in is part-time, the costs amount to \$544 annually. If all seven full-time employees take both their mental health days each year, and the shifts are filled with part-time employees, the costs amount to \$3808 annually. If the four part-time employees also take one mental health day each year, the annual costs amount to \$4832. Obviously more sophisticated calculations are involved when benefits such as mental health days are being evaluated. The costs in dollars depend on many variables, such as the size of an agency, already existing benefit packages, and unionization. However these back of

the envelope estimates show that mental health days are potentially an expensive option for the JHS. It is evaluated as **two out of seven**.

Effectiveness: Investing in more mental health strategies has been shown to positively impact job satisfaction, along with lowering stress, reducing absenteeism, and increasing productivity (Burton, 2008). The World Federation for Mental Health (WFMH) (2011) argues that appropriate mental health services, sick days, and insurance packages affect overall employee wellness. JHS upper management expressed the importance of employee mental health but could not necessarily conclude whether or not this option would change job satisfaction (because other variables such as costs and compliance enter their decision-making). Costs and compliance aside, this option appears to meet the criterion for reducing job dissatisfaction fairly well. It is evaluated as **five out of seven**.

Overall: This policy option is more viable for non-unionized agencies than unionized agencies because collective agreements include rules for vacation days and sick time, which has been negotiated under contract. Workplace wellness programs can be very costly. The potential for employee abuse is a large trade-off, coupled with an inability to enforce non-compliance. The final score is **11 out of 28**.

6.4.3. Team Building

JHS community/fundraising events and team building options are analyzed below.

CRF Group Community/Fundraiser

Efficiency: Hosting a CRF community or fundraising event is not an efficient use of resources when trying to build stronger teams. Two JHS interviewees estimated it costs about \$4000 per year, for a non-profit employing around 60 people, to host an annual barbecue. Feedback from staff members, volunteering to operate and run certain events, is not always positive. JHS upper management personnel overall supports team building however this policy option is not necessarily a cost-effective way to do so. It is evaluated as **two out of seven**.

Equity: If benefits were generated from a CRF fundraiser, they would be in dollars and distributed back into the CRF to possibly purchase a new computer or to help pay for a kitchen renovation. In this sense, the financial benefits would be distributed equally, regardless of staff demographics or other variables. Interview results indicate it is unclear that any intrinsic team building benefits would be enjoyed equally because not all staff members participate in these events, or have the capacity to volunteer time away from their personal lives (Participant, 2013). Some CRF staff members may be left out as a result, and not enjoy the full team building benefits of the option. This option has somewhat met the criterion of equal distribution of benefits. It is evaluated as **three out of seven**.

Budget Impacts: This option has not met the criterion of low dollar costs because my interview results illustrate that hosting community events, or fundraisers, is too expensive for many JHSs to consider. Keeping benefits aside and only looking at costs in dollars, this option is evaluated as a **one out of seven**.

Effectiveness: The results from JHS upper management interviews suggest that CRF fundraising/community events are a useful way to affect job satisfaction, or at least have the potential to. Improving job satisfaction through fundraising or hosting events has also been recognized in the available literature (Phaneuf, 2009; Amos, Hu, and Herrick, 2005). These events however require large (often unpaid) effort from CRF workers. It is evaluated as **six out of seven**.

Overall: The major trade-offs for this option include high dollar costs, high time costs, and uncertainties around fully capturing the intrinsic rewards of the unpaid effort. In addition, it is difficult to measure the benefits of hosting community events, such as an improved public relation with neighbourhoods, or a change in community attitudes towards CRF operation. Building good public relations was not sufficiently represented in my policy analysis. The final score is **12 out of 28**.

Outside JHS Group Fundraising

These events occur when a group of CRF employees organize themselves, register with another agency's fundraising event, such as a 10K walk for breast cancer. The team building component has been recognized by the private sector (Phaneuf,

2009). This option is different from a CRF hosting a community event or a fundraiser because it occurs outside of the JHS.

Efficiency: Staff members are not paid to attend the event. Any funds raised by pledges are not being circulated back into the CRF. This option does not need to use regular staff meetings, Christmas parties, or other already existing structures to support its operation. At most, organizing an outer-JHS group fundraising event relies on work emails, a communication log, or an office tack board for advertisement. This is an efficient option in achieving both building stronger teams and happier CRF workers. The criterion of cost-effectiveness has been met. It is evaluated as **six out of seven**.

Equity: If I use the example of a 10K walk for cancer, the required physical activity may cause older or physically unfit employees to feel excluded. JHS upper management participants suggested that their older CRF staff members typically did not participate in active team building exercises as much as the younger employees did (Participant, 2013). Thus age and fitness-level discrimination are potential risks. A group of CRF employees could mitigate this risk by choosing a fundraiser event that does not rely on physical activity. For example, pancake breakfasts, arts and crafts fairs, or farmers markets do not require large amounts of physical activity. CRFs are operated on a 24-hour basis so inevitably there will always be people that could not possibly attend the event. If we agree that there are team building benefits from these events, I argue this option has not sufficiently met the criterion of equitable distribution of those benefits. It is evaluated as **three out of seven**.

Budgetary Impacts: Staff members are volunteering their time outside of the JHS, keeping the costs low for the agency. Depending on individual capacity, a JHS may decide to donate to their CRF team, or pay for labelled t-shirts for example. When compared to the other options put forth in this analysis, team building through volunteer fundraising can be done without large impacts to an annual budget. It has met the criterion very well and is evaluated as **seven out of seven**.

Effectiveness: The CRF workers participating in an outside fundraising event engage a good cause, in the community, with co-workers as a team trying to achieve a common goal. The opportunity is there to support one another and work together.

Private sector researchers, along with several participants, agree this option affects job satisfaction. It is evaluated as **five out of seven**.

Overall: The interview results illustrate the importance of team building. For example, one participant reported, “Team building is essential within our organization” (Participant, 2013). Another JHS participant reported,

“Team building is very important to our bottom line, it increases productivity and commitment to the organization” (Participant, 2013).

Participants spoke about team building at “every opportunity”. Team building for a CRF does not need to be a “formal” organized event (Participant, 2013). One participant suggested that “natural team building”, such as eating together on a regular basis, is a good way to strengthen bonds between people at work. This, combined with formal installations such as recognizing birthdays, Christmas parties, family-day events, support for one another, and baby showers was said to impact both satisfaction and productivity (Participant, 2013). Because the funds raised (surpluses) are occurring outside of the JHS, pressure may be lifted off of unionized JHSs who are cautious about showing surpluses during negotiations of collective agreements (Participant, 2013). Unfortunately, team building events may leave some employees out. The final score is **21 out of 28**.

6.4.4. Restructure the Board of Directors

Hiring a Director (or manager) of HR is an example of a top-down approach that the JHS could implement to better address job dissatisfaction. Yet, nearly all of the ED respondents mentioned their agency was “too small” to hire a Director of HR, while at the same time, expressed their challenges with the responsibility overseeing HR. Both the risk of lawsuits and developing appropriate termination policies were mentioned as concerns for EDs responsible for HR.

Efficiency: Across all sectors, it is common for small agencies (less than 50 employees) to apply ad hoc approaches to HR (Lagorio, 2010). This improvised and reactive strategy can be inefficient as HR issues are consumed by other people, such as the ED. If the costs of hiring a HR Director do not surpass the costs of not having a HR

Director, this option would meet the objective of efficiency (Lagorio, 2010). For small agencies, hiring an HR specialist on contract or a part-time HR Director as needed, would save resources. Conversely, the benefits from this option are difficult to capture. Reducing the risks of lawsuits and showing the saved time costs are challenging to measure. Both the literature review and upper management interview results indicate that this option (or a part-time version of this option) has the potential to sufficiently meet the criterion of cost-effectiveness. It is evaluated as **five out of seven**.

Equity: Hiring a Director of HR meets the objective of equity because all CRF staff members should benefit from this option equally regardless of age, gender, length of employment, or other variables. This option features the importance of staff wellness, reduces and/or manages HR risks, and generally improves the employment experience (Lagorio, 2010). It has therefore met the criterion of equitable distribution of benefits, and is evaluated as **six out of seven**.

Budgetary Impacts: Third Sector New England (2010) published a compensation survey of 56 non-profit agencies in the State of Massachusetts. The annual median salary (50th percentile) of HR Directors was \$77, 501 and the annual average salary was \$81,532. The Ontario Network of Employment Skills Training Projects (ONESTEP) (2008) developed a manual of compensation for the Community Based Employment and Training (CBET) sector. ONESTEP (2008) argued that, "...organizations may not have the financial means...and might aspire to a level such as 10% or 25% below the market rate" for director positions (p. 24). The cost of hiring a HR Director will differ for each individual JHS location. Defining a "low" impact on the annual budget for an individual JHS is difficult. An alternative could be contracting an HR specialist instead, at 24 hours a month, to assist with HR issues "as needed" (Participant, 2013). Undoubtedly, this helps ensure a "low" impact on any agency's annual budget. Aside from that, hiring a full-time Director of HR is an expensive option. This option has not necessarily met the criterion of keeping costs low for the JHS, but potentially could if the part-time option is implemented for smaller agencies. It is evaluated as **three out of seven**.

Effectiveness: Doing the best you can, and "getting by" as one interviewee pointed out, is not an effective way to address HR issues for the JHS. The interview

results indicate that past negative experiences with hiring HR Directors leads EDs to conclude that this option is ineffective (Participant, 2013). Also, EDs who feel they are in “good order” with HR tend not to consider this option (Participant, 2013). The outside literature, on the other hand, totes the effectiveness of HR Directors because this option is argued to both reduce liability risks and improve job satisfaction (HR Council, nd). This option has met the criterion of changing job satisfaction reasonably well and it evaluated as **four out of seven**.

Overall: Hiring a HR Director does not constitute a silver bullet to happier workers. The major trade-offs include poor stakeholder buy-in, which has not sufficiently been captured in the analysis. Most JHS upper management mentioned this option as unfavourable due to their size limitations, or at least perceived limitations. Part-time alternatives are available and are being used by some JHS in Canada. The final score is **18 out of 28**.

7. Recommendations

Duxbury and Higgins (2003) recommend that in order to improve job satisfaction and overall wellness, employers, employees, unions, and governments need to recognize that the Canadian workforce is heterogeneous, and policy solutions should reflect that diversity. This can be difficult to do. Duxbury and Higgins (2003) state,

“There is ‘no one size fits all solution’... The workforce is not homogeneous. Gender, dependent care status, and job type are significant moderators of the relationship between many of the coping strategies... Policy planning should take these differences into account” (p. 52).

As RNAO (2008) points out, above all, “...researchers recommend that administrative and policy interventions to improve quality of work-life and workplace culture are imperative for long-term resolution” (p. 31).

The recommendations I have for the non-profit agencies operating within similar contexts to that of the JHS are informed from the policy analysis. First, the intervention that received the highest evaluative score (21/28) was team building, where a group of employees participate in an outside agency fundraising event, such as walking 10K walk for breast cancer research. Intrinsic rewards, albeit difficult to capture or measure, can positively impact job satisfaction without costing firms large amounts of dollar and people resources.

Second, workplace mentoring received the next highest score (20/28). Although the implementation of this option would result in extra human capital costs, the potential benefits are vast. Mentoring not only improves job satisfaction, but it could improve training policies. Meaningful consultation between management and frontline workers is one of the most important steps prior to development. There is a heavy reliance on effective leadership inherent in this option. Each independent non-profit would have to assess the leadership skills of their managers prior to development.

These recommendations are appropriate when the problem is focused on job dissatisfaction for frontline employees in the non-profit sector. Taking a step back, one of the major overarching issues is employee recruitment and retention. Framing an intervention around changing current hiring practices can help address this. Pinfeld (2010) states that the non-profit sector should start considering recruiting from non-traditional populations, "...like newcomers to Canada, Aboriginal people, recent retirees and people with disabilities" in order to address retention challenges (p. 32). This option is being considered with certain non-profit locations in Canada (Participant, 2013).

Lowering the educational requirements, is another way to change current hiring practices, and can help address high turnover (Participant, 2013). For example, Zeytinoglu and Denton (2006) found that a higher level of education was one significant predictor for employees leaving frontline positions (p. 20). The interview results indicate that the educational requirements for certain non-profit services are being challenged, and alternatives are being considered (Participant, 2013). Although it is essential to maintain standards in the workforce, efforts for long-term recruitment need to be sought out by the non-profit sector (NCSBN, 2007). Vangel (2011) closes, "...understanding predictors and outcomes of the dissatisfaction process can allow organizations to better manage desired results" (p. 15).

Changing hiring practices is a management decision, and does not necessarily warrant the intervention of public bodies. Coming out of this research project, it is clear how important effective management and strong leadership skills are in relation to job satisfaction for frontline employees. There are agency-to-agency interventions available to invest in effective management, and I argue these are crucial to not only strong teams, but to stronger frontline workforces. Of more a public concern is the quality of service delivery, and an understanding that happy/healthy workers produce better service.

The following chapter is the conclusion, which ends this project with a discussion about how client-centered work in the non-profit sector is unique, and requires more attention in labour research.

8. Conclusion

Frontline services in the non-profit sector are imperative to our marginalized and disenfranchised populations. Those tasked with providing such services are called the frontline, and improving the overall wellness of the frontline workforce in the non-profit sector improves the quality of service delivery. Much of these services are delivered on a staff-to-client relationship basis, often called a client-centered approach.

Client-centered work in the non-profit sector is a unique type of work. Providing services through a client-centered approach means recognizing the importance of the client being involved and participating in key decisions about their health, situation, and life (Physiotherapy Alberta, 2012). It is a service philosophy that identifies individual client's needs and then determines how staff members can best provide assistance. It also ensures that all clients with varying complex needs receive the appropriate service, at the right time, and by the right person (Veterans Affairs Canada, 2012). Providing care in this frontline context, and working with clients, can be rewarding and can make positive contributions to both employees' lives and overall satisfaction (Kuuppelomaki et al. 2004; Ribeiro and Paul 2008, as cited in Yiengprugsawan et al, 2012).

Job satisfaction in this context, and in this sector, is complex. One variable, such as workplace stress, is often intertwined with many other factors at work, such as job satisfaction or relations with management.

In this project, I have recommended for non-profit agencies that employ frontline workers, to focus on building stronger teams, building stronger leadership, mentoring, and emphasizing employee wellness. I have found that the larger constructs interconnecting my recommendations are trust, loyalty, job commitment, and intrinsic worth. Ultimately, these high level notions bring together what job satisfaction in frontline work is all about. The following section discusses these four ideas and how they relate to my recommendations.

8.1. Trust

Researchers divide trust between interpersonal (general trust in others) and institutional trust (trust in public and citizen institutions). Others categorize trust as emotional or affective. Webber, Payne, and Taylor (2012) argue that trust, regardless of the category, is an important feature in frontline work that has implications for organizational and individual employee effectiveness. Webber et al (2012) state,

“Affective trust is grounded in interpersonal care and concern for the other individual or an emotional bond. In service relationships, affective trust is important as it serves as the foundation for a strong interpersonal relationship. Affective trust has been conceptualized as a deep level of trust that requires an emotional investment and is stable over time...” (p. 195).

A trusting relationship that builds between clients and service providers also has important implications for job satisfaction, client satisfaction (Webber and Klimoski 2004), and both service quality and service effectiveness (Schneider et al, 1998, as cited in Webber et al, 2012). This trust develops not only between staff and client, but from client to non-profit organization (Handy et al, 2010), between co-workers, and between co-workers and managers (Tan and Tan, 2000, as cited in Huang, Tsai, and Wang, 2012). It is often trust that offers frontline workers a way to manage risks, and help build ‘good’ relationships that are characterized by respect and care (Kosny and Eakin, 2008).

Trust intertwines itself into how co-worker bonds are developed, and how teams can become stronger. Management can utilize trust to both improve job satisfaction (Huang, Tsai, and Wang, 2012) and service quality. In addition, trust can be used for both stress and risk management (Kosny and Eakin, 2008).

8.2. Loyalty

Connected to trust is employee loyalty to an organization. Developing trust has been shown to positively impact loyalty (Webber and Klimoski 2004, as cited in Webber et al, 2012), and the quality of care strongly impacts both job satisfaction and loyalty for

frontline workers (Peltier, Pointer, and Schibrowsky, 2006). Client-centered work often requires loyalty from employees to build 'good' relations between client and staff members, and these bonds can take time to develop. Variables such as loyalty are examined in workplace research alongside HR barriers such as intentions to leave and turnover rates (Peltier, Pointer, and Schibrowsky, 2006). As a result, some service-orientated sectors are putting more emphasis on building loyalty within the workplace for the sole purpose of cultivating better retention rates. In the context of client-centered jobs, clients become "customers" and loyalty is addressed in terms of customer-based satisfaction principles (MacStravic 2002, as cited in Peltier et al, 2006).

Relating back to my recommendations, the implication is that frontline workers who trust the non-profit organization, who believe in their work, and who feel they are delivering a good quality service, will want to stay longer in their position, and feel satisfied doing so. Certain signals from non-profit organizations, such as effective training policies (i.e. mentorship program), a good boss, or worker appreciation events, can all help build the loyalty of frontline workers.

8.3. Commitment

Running alongside the idea of employee loyalty is job commitment, which is both an enduring desire to maintain a valued relationship (Moorman et al, 1992, as cited in Peltier et al, 2006) and a personal commitment to stay with an organization. Peltier et al (2006) state,

"Commitment is a necessary element for sustaining a long-standing relationship between parties and has been defined as a customer's longterm orientation toward a relationship (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2002)...Loi et al. (2006) found that organizational commitment was negatively related to intention to leave and was partially mediated by the relationship between perceived organization support (POS) and turnover intention. In terms of [job] satisfaction, Spence Laschinger and Finnegan (2005) and Spence Laschinger et al. (2006) uncovered a direct link between job satisfaction, trust, and organizational commitment" (p. 83).

A lack of trust has been found to impact long-term job commitment and has had negative effects on the commitment a worker possesses to accept a firm's goals (Spence Laschinger and Finnegan, 2005, as cited in Peltier et al, 2006). This

commitment to a firm's goals has been expressed in the literature as adherence to a "mission". Kosny and Eakin (2008) state,

"A final common feature of work in these agencies was its articulation through a strongly expressed adherence to an ethos of helping, which we have called 'mission.' This strong sense of mission proved central to how risks were understood and acted upon by workers...It was clear that workers played an important role in the creation and maintenance of the mission... the provision of services and the creation of a particular environment for their clients was a joint project that depended on the efforts and commitment of everyone in the organization" (pp. 153-154).

By reinforcing a non-profit's mission, managers can potentially strengthen the frontline's ethos to help others, and to feel committed to do so. The frontline's efforts and participation in upholding these values improves their job satisfaction (Peltier et al, 2006). Non-profits benefit from committed workers, and the interventions I have suggested help foster and build people's commitment.

8.4. Intrinsic Worth

Intrinsic worth refers to the feeling that employees gain from helping others, assisting clients, completing tasks, and achieving successes (Hegney, Plank, and Parker, 2006). This is different to extrinsic worth, such as feelings of satisfaction with remuneration levels and career progression. Intrinsic worth produces a motivational force in workers to engage in frontline activity willingly and, "...engenders a sense of volition and personal endorsement about pursuing the activity" (Vallerand, 2012, p. 4).

Frontline workers in the non-profit sector gain a great deal of satisfaction from intrinsic worth, and this satisfaction has been shown to be guided by strong values that serve as a basis for their involvement (Allahyari 2000, Jones 2000, Leete 2000, Cloke et al. 2005, as cited in Kosny and Eakin, 2008). Employees find intrinsic worth in the emotionally and physically challenging nature of frontline work, managing high workplace stress, making autonomous decisions, and feeling proud of the quality of service delivery (Adams and Bond, 2000, as cited in Hegney et al, 2006). These intrinsic work factors not only influence job satisfaction, but also the intention to leave employment (Hegney et al, 2006).

Management can easily foster this intrinsic worth in the non-profit sector by reinforcing the value of an employee, by emphasizing an employee's participation on the job, by verbally encouraging, and by verbally appreciating their frontline (Participant, 2013). The recommendations I made all speak towards management's opportunity to illicit their teams' intrinsic value.

I have illustrated the interesting interplay between job satisfaction and other work values such as quality of service, trust, loyalty, commitment, and intrinsic worth. To conclude, client-centered work does not conform to a simple input/output labour economics framework. The non-profit frontline labour force does not work in a factory. Their job is to work with human beings who often have been marginalized, abused, forgotten, and hurt. As such, frontline service delivery in the non-profit sector is complex and highlights a unique context for job satisfaction research.

9. Future Directions

Larger-scaled case studies are needed to further examine what aspects of job dissatisfaction amongst frontline workers in the non-profit sector could be more sufficiently and accurately addressed. This can be achieved in two ways: (1) increasing the sample size and (2) conducting interviews with frontline staff to further enrich survey results. A larger sample size, from coast to coast across Canada, would be beneficial to compare by province, and provide the opportunity to compare any northern, western, central, or eastern patterns. It would also be interesting to conduct research on other national organizations mandated to provide service both in the non-profit sector, and within the criminal justice system, as this would offer a comparison for common HR challenges, leading the way to shared solutions.

The issue of the size of an individual non-profit agency arose during the qualitative analysis as an important variable; an issue not addressed in the online survey. It was suggested that agency size impacted whether or not employee growth opportunities were available or limited (Participant, 2013). The answer “we’re too small” arose as a common response when discussing HR strategy ideas, such as staff mentoring. Being a “small” organization also related to the idea of being more “flexible” in terms of offering creative benefits and alternative scheduling. Asking a demographic question regarding agency size would have been beneficial to the analysis.

Regarding the issue of too low pay, if agencies are conducting anonymous job satisfaction surveys, asking *how much* pay it would conceivably take to keep workers on, might be worth investigating.

Finally, further research on client-centered employment in the non-profit sector is needed to better understand the relationships between job satisfaction and trust, loyalty, commitment, intrinsic worth, team building, quality service, and the overall wellness of the frontline.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Online Survey

Working the Frontlines: Job Dissatisfaction among Paid Employees assisting those Affected by the Criminal Justice System - A John Howard Society Case Study

This survey contains a wide set of questions concerning features of your physical environment, security at work, mental strain, your organization, your autonomy in your jobs, and the extent to which your job involves social relations.

Q1. I want to make sure that you, as the participant, are well informed about what it means to provide consent, be involved in a research study, to understand the benefits, and to have your concerns and questions answered. Should you participate in the online survey, you may withdraw at any time by clicking the "x" on the window. Should you wish to obtain information about your rights as a participant in research, or about researcher responsibilities, or if you have any questions, concerns or complaints about the manner in which you were treated in this study, please contact the Director, Office of Research Ethics by email at hweinber@sfu.ca or phone at 604-268-6593. Thank you again for participating in this study. By clicking "Yes" you have verified that you are giving consent to participate, and can move on to the questions of the online survey.

Q2. In your job, how often do you work independently?

Q3. How often do you participate in decisions related to job tasks?

Q4. How often can you choose or modify the sequence of tasks?

Q5. How often can you choose or modify the method of work?

Q6. How often can you choose or modify the pace of work?

Q7. How often can you choose or modify your work breaks?

Q8. In general, how would you describe the relations between managers and employees in the workplace?

Q9. In general, how would you describe the relations between co-workers in the workplace?

Q10. Would you consider that your job is stressful?

Q11. How often do you work under dangerous conditions?

Q12. How satisfied are you with this job? (1 = the LEAST satisfied, and 10 = the MOST satisfied)

Q13. How satisfied are you with this firm's work organization? (1 = the LEAST satisfied, and 5 = the MOST satisfied)

Q14. How satisfied are you with this job's physical environment? (1 = the LEAST satisfied, and 5 = the MOST satisfied)

Q15. If you are planning to leave the JHS, please indicate the reason why.

Q16. In what year were you born?

Q17. Are you male or female?

Q18. How long have you been employed at this job?

Q19. Are you working within a unionized setting?