

What works? A systematic review of research and evaluation literature on encouragement and support of volunteering

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CONTENTS

Executive Summary	2
1: Introduction	3
1.1 Rationale for review	3
1.2 Volunteering in society.....	3
1.3 Volunteering in an organisational context.....	4
1.4 Report structure	4
2: Understanding Volunteering in the New Zealand context	5
2.1 Dimensions of volunteering in an international context.....	5
2.2 New Zealand understandings of volunteering	5
2.3 Participation in volunteering in New Zealand	6
3: Good Practice in Managing Volunteers	8
3.1 The stages of volunteer involvement.....	8
3.2 What works to encourage participation in volunteering and address barriers to volunteering?	8
3.3 What works for volunteering infrastructure and good volunteer management practices in organisations?.....	13
3.4 What works to recruit volunteers?.....	20
3.5 What works for orientating and training volunteers?	22
3.6 What works for retaining volunteers?	23
4: Key success factors for the encouragement and support of volunteers	27
References	29
Acknowledgements	32
Appendix 1: Researching what works	33
Appendix 2: Volunteer role progression, pressure points and actions	35
Appendix 3: Volunteering in New Zealand.....	36

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

- The Department of Internal Affairs commissioned this systematic literature review to assist the Lottery Grants Board and its distribution committees to make distribution decisions that are evidence-based, and to focus on the most effective interventions. (Section 1.1)
- This literature review summarises academic and practitioner research and evaluation from New Zealand and overseas – mostly Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States – on what works to encourage participation in volunteering and to support the management of volunteers. (Appendix 1)
- This literature review focuses on what works for managing formal volunteering carried out through the structure of an organization. This is a ‘workplace’ model for involving and managing volunteers, but it recognises that there is a diversity of volunteers and voluntary organisations. (1.3)
- Over 1 million New Zealanders participate in volunteering and the government’s vision is that citizens will actively volunteer, be supported and valued. The term ‘volunteering’ is a European word and different cultures in New Zealand use other terms related to obligations and contributing to the common good which encapsulate similar actions (e.g. the Māori concept of *mahi aroha*). (2.1-2.3)
- The review highlights research on volunteering in areas funded by the Lottery Grants Board, for example, community and social services, and environment and heritage.
- Gaskin’s Model of Volunteer Involvement has four stages: the doubter, starter, doer, and stayer. These stages – and the transitions between them – are used to structure the discussion of what works to encourage and support volunteering. (3.1)
- The key success factors which research and evaluation tell us work for encouraging and supporting volunteers are: (4)
 - Seeing the involvement of volunteers as a series of stages - from non-volunteer to committed volunteer – helps organisations understand the process of managing volunteers.
 - At a national level, understanding that the motivations and barriers to participation vary and that volunteering should be a fulfilling experience. Government and peak sector bodies should promote a positive image for volunteering; (3.2)
 - At an organisational level:
 - adopting elements of good volunteer management practice, including: support and communication, insurance coverage, written policies and procedures, recruitment and screening, orientation and training for volunteers, risk management and recognition of volunteers. At the same time, recognising that each organisation will have specific needs in this respect; (3.3)
 - investing time and money into volunteering infrastructure, including a manager of volunteers; (3.3)
 - targeted recruitment, carefully matching volunteers to roles, respond to enquiries and maintain a positive organisational image and culture; (3.4)
 - investing in resources into orientation and relevant ongoing training that is accessible and ensure that staff and stakeholders are also trained in working with volunteers; (3.5) and
 - adopting practices to retain volunteers, but also to recognise that there are personal, organisational and contextual factors that contribute to volunteers staying as well as leaving the organisation. (3.6)

1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale for review

The Department of Internal Affairs provides support and advice to the Lottery Grants Board and its distribution committees, and is the administrator of Lottery grants funding to the community. Lottery Grants are available for different types of projects and services for community purposes and benefit. These include support to organisations such as Volunteer Centres which encourage people to volunteer and advise organisations on how to manage volunteers. Lottery committees also make grants to community organisations to cover volunteer costs and expenses (e.g. training, reimbursement etc).

To assist Lottery Committees to make distribution decisions that are evidence-based, and to focus on the most effective interventions, the Department commissioned this systematic review of research and evaluation literature on support and encouragement of volunteering.

This literature review summarises academic and practitioner research and evaluation on what works to encourage participation in volunteering and support the management of volunteers. Due to the paucity of local New Zealand material, it also draws on similar research and evaluation from overseas – mostly Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States. The stages of volunteering – from non-volunteer to committed volunteer – are used to discuss good practice in the management of volunteers within organisations. This includes provision of volunteering infrastructure, recruitment, training, and retention strategies. Key success factors are highlighted.

The study methodology and an assessment of the extent and quality of research available are detailed in Appendix 1.

1.2 Volunteering in society

Over one million New Zealanders participate in volunteering each year. They are the lifeblood of the not-for-profit sector and their influence extends to public and private sector organisations, as well as communities across the country. Volunteering brings multiple benefits to the individual, the beneficiaries of their service, and society more broadly. Ockenden (2007) identifies outcomes from volunteering as including economic and sustainable development, safer and stronger communities, social inclusion and integration, improved quality of life including physical and mental health, and lifelong learning and skills development. Volunteering is also influenced by the policy context, both directly by government policies addressing support and funding for volunteering infrastructure, and indirectly through a range of policy agendas (e.g. health, education, criminal justice, etc.) (Rochester, 2006).

Traditionally volunteering has been seen as ongoing and regular contribution to a volunteering role and organisation. This sustained volunteering remains important, but in recent years there has been a trend for shorter and less frequent commitments to volunteering. The form and development of volunteering in New Zealand, and overseas, are influenced by a range of social, economic, demographic and political factors. These include: the ageing population, changing family and household arrangements, patterns of employment, increased income and education levels, the information and communications technology revolution, increased consumerism and choice, and patterns of community participation and citizenship (Merrill, 2006, nfpSynergy, 2005, Rochester, 2006, Wilson, 2001). The move from more 'traditional' service volunteering to encompass more flexible forms of volunteering has important implications for considering what works for New Zealand organisations trying to successfully recruit, train and retain volunteers.

1.3 Volunteering in an organisational context

Volunteering can be formal or informal. This literature review focuses on what works for managing formal volunteering carried out through the structure of an organisation. Using the definitions from the New Zealand census, this is unpaid work for or through any organisation, group or marae (Statistics New Zealand, n.d.)³. Organisations involving volunteers are often in the non-profit sector, although public sector volunteering is also important (Smith et al., 2010).

1.4 Report structure

In addition to this introduction, section 2 first introduces the dimensions of volunteering in an international context (2.1). This is important given the wide range of international literature this review includes, partly as a result of a paucity of New Zealand research (see Appendix 1). Section 2.2 presents a New Zealand understanding of volunteering, followed by a summary of data on participation in volunteering in New Zealand (2.3).

Section 3 begins by introducing the stages of volunteer involvement in an organisation (section 3.1). These stages – and the transitions between them – are used to structure the discussion of what works to encourage and support volunteering. Section 3.2 focuses on the sector level and considers how participation in volunteering can be encouraged and barriers to volunteering addressed.

The later sections move to the management of volunteers at the organisation level. Section 3.3 highlights the importance of volunteering infrastructure within organisations. This includes an overview of volunteer management practices, and the important role of a volunteer manager. The review then details what works for recruiting (section 3.4), orientating and training (3.5), and retaining volunteers (section 3.6).

Sections 4 will summarise the key success factors for encouraging and supporting volunteers. Examples are referred to throughout the report, highlighting research on volunteering in areas funded by Lottery Grants, for example, community and social services, and environment and heritage.

³ Informal volunteering is unpaid work that occurs outside the household (e.g. childcare and helping someone who is ill who does not live within the same household) (Statistics New Zealand, n.d)

2: UNDERSTANDING VOLUNTEERING IN THE NEW ZEALAND CONTEXT

2.1 Dimensions of volunteering in an international context

Volunteering is a complex phenomenon, and different historical, cultural, political, social and religious contexts means that there is no accepted global definition of what volunteering means. Well-cited work by Cnaan et al. (1996, see for example, Rochester, 2006) presents four elements of volunteering definitions - free choice, remuneration, structure, and intended beneficiaries – each with a continuum of dimensions (Figure 1). This results in forms of volunteering ranging from those over which there is general agreement (at the left-hand side of Figure 1), to the more debatable, such as those involving monetary payments or obligation (e.g. some students volunteering) on the right hand side of Figure 1.

Figure 1: Dimensions of Volunteering

Dimension	Categories			
Free choice	free will	relatively uncoerced		obligation to volunteer
Remuneration	none at all	none expected	expenses reimbursed	stipend/low pay
Structure	formal			informal
Intended beneficiaries	benefit/help others/ strangers		benefit/help friends or relatives	benefit oneself (as well)

After Cnaan et al. (1996: 371)

Rochester (2006) describes three perspectives on volunteering:

- Volunteering as unpaid work or service which contributes to the work of a formal organisation and is managed by the ‘workplace’ model;
- Volunteering as activism and a force for social change where the focus is on a civil society and associations who depend entirely on volunteers; and
- Volunteering as leisure which fits with Stebbins’ theory of ‘serious leisure’ (1996) where the leisure (volunteering) demands considerable commitment and development on the part of the participant.

These three perspectives interrelate, which further complicates the boundaries of what volunteering is.

This literature review focuses on formal volunteering in an organisational context and sits within the first ‘unpaid work’ model⁴, although there are strong overlaps with leisure (e.g. some heritage and environmental volunteering) and activism (e.g. some community-based volunteering) perspectives.

2.2 New Zealand understandings of volunteering

New Zealand’s Volunteering Policy commits government to valuing and celebrating volunteering and supporting volunteering initiatives (Office for the Community and Voluntary Sector, 2008). Volunteering is frequently observed when individuals undertake unpaid work in formal organisations, yet Suggate (1995) notes that a European-centric focus may lead to under-reporting of individuals’ contributions. This occurs particularly in Māori, Pacific and ethnic communities.

⁴ The volunteering as unpaid work perspective dominates the initiatives supported by governments (e.g., the report of the UK’s Commission on the Future of Volunteering and its *Manifesto for Change* largely takes a workplace model approach).

In her review of social services volunteering in New Zealand Wilson (2001: 23) notes:

“The concept of formal volunteering that only includes work done for the benefit of others outside the family and within an organisational context, does not fit comfortably within a Māori or Pacific peoples’ framework.”

Specifically, the lack of a direct equivalent to the term ‘volunteering’ in *Te Reo* Māori means that Māori often do not see their contributions as voluntary work (Te Korowai Aroha Aotearoa Inc. et al. 1999). The Office for the Community and Voluntary Sector (OCVS) (2007) notes the difference between the European concept of giving (volunteering) and the Māori concept of cultural obligation (sharing). This sharing concept has been termed *mahi aroha* as explained in Box 1. Research into how the term volunteering was conceived by Pacific Peoples and by other ethnic groups found it was also quite different from the New Zealand mainstream idea of volunteering (The New Zealand Federation of Ethnic Councils⁵ (NZFEC), 2004, Tamasese et al., 2010). These understandings are also briefly explained in Box 1.

Box 1: Concepts of Volunteering in New Zealand

<p>The Māori concept of <i>mahi aroha</i>: “Volunteering for Māori is based significantly upon the notion of <i>whanaungatanga</i> (kinship) and the benefits, both for the individuals and the wider community, derived from contributing to the common good.” (OCVS, 2007, p.1)</p>	<p>“Many ethnic people think of volunteering as the fulfilling of family and social obligations and responsibilities ... helping, sharing and giving, first to their own family ... their extended families ... ethnic communities and finally to the wider community.” (NZFEC, 2004, p.11)</p>	<p>Pacific peoples’ cultural activities are closely associated with concepts of serving, caring, sustaining community, and reciprocity. There is less a sense of enforceability than an acceptance that one is obliged to do an act, although these obligations are cultural obligations. (Tamasese, et al., 2010)</p>
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2.3 Participation in volunteering in New Zealand

Statistics New Zealand (2007) stated that 31% of the New Zealand population (aged 12 and over) donated over 270 million hours of unpaid labour to community and voluntary sector organisations in 2004. An estimated value of this effort in economic terms is \$3.3bn. The percentage of volunteers is similar to that in Australia (32%), higher than Canada and the United States (27%) but lower than the United Kingdom (39%), although direct international comparisons are hindered by different cultural definitions and measures of volunteering.

Previously there has been an absence of New Zealand data to show changes in volunteering participation over time (Dwyer, 2006); however the Generosity Hub (2009) estimate that the number of people volunteering was stable (at 1.2 million) in both 2007 and 2008. The 1999 time-use survey by Statistics New Zealand showed that adults (over the age of 15) undertook 1.5 hours a week of formal voluntary work (and a further 1.7 hours a week informally volunteering), although Statistics New Zealand (2007) noted that participation in volunteering had increased since that data had been collected. They estimated that the majority of volunteers (54%) volunteer for one organisation, 30% for two, 10% for three and 6% volunteering for four organisations or more. This leads to the estimate that there are over 1.7 million volunteer positions in *tangata whenua*, community and voluntary sector and public sector organisations that were filled by these volunteers (Statistics New Zealand, 2007). The

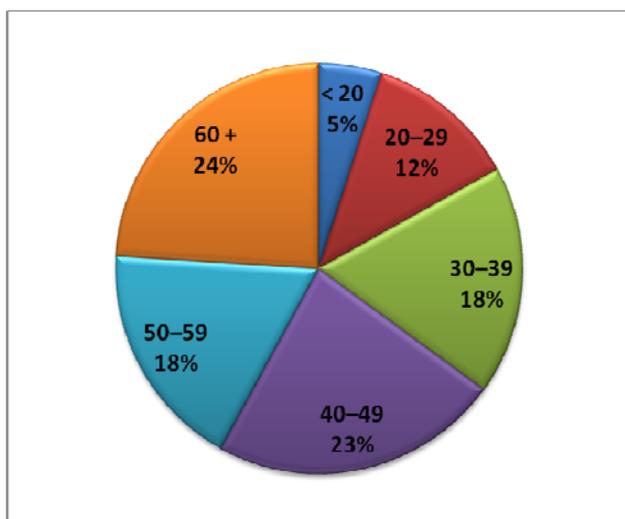
⁵ Now renamed The New Zealand Federation of Multicultural Councils

sectors with the largest number of hours donated were leisure and recreation (78m), member benefit groups (62m), and education (40m). Volunteers also contributed over 20m hours each to organisations that were: Māori based, involved in community safety and protection, and involved in social support and assistance (Statistics New Zealand, 2007). Appendix 3 provides examples of voluntary organisations and volunteer roles.

Statistics New Zealand (2007) found that 57% of volunteers are female and 43% male. Volunteering engages people of all ages (as shown in Figure 2). Also, census data shows that, as a percentage of the population, more people who identified themselves as ‘New Zealanders’ volunteered, followed closely by Māori, then European and Pacific peoples. Asian and Middle Eastern/Latin American/African peoples had a lower volunteering participation rate than other ethnicities.

The Sports and Recreation New Zealand (SPARC) (2006) found that sports volunteers are better educated and more likely to be employed than the general adult population in New Zealand. They also found that 84% were married or living with a partner (compared to 57% of the New Zealand adult population). We are unaware of New Zealand data on other sectors that would support these findings, but international research also shows that volunteers tend to be better educated and wealthier than population averages (see section 3.1). This may mean that there are barriers to volunteering for individuals who are unemployed, not well educated and/or not wealthy.

Figure 2: New Zealand Volunteers' Demographics by age grouping



Source: Statistics New Zealand (2007)

3: GOOD PRACTICE IN MANAGING VOLUNTEERS

3.1 The stages of volunteer involvement

A number of researchers suggest a volunteer goes through a series of stages in their relationship with volunteering more generally, and in volunteering for a specific organisation⁶. Each of the stages and the transitions between them has implications for how volunteers are encouraged, managed and supported most effectively. An individual can stall or exit from volunteering at any of the stages, however, organisations involving volunteers will typically want to progress them through the stages so they are retained as a committed and long-term volunteer.

Katherine Gaskin’s well-cited report *A Choice Blend* (2003) was written for the UK’s Institute for Volunteering Research. Her model of volunteer involvement has four stages moving from the non-volunteer to the long-term volunteer; these are the doubter, starter, doer, and stayer (see Table 1). The aim of the organisation and its volunteer infrastructure should be to help the individual through each transition stage of the model so they become involved, and then more involved. She identifies eight pressure points⁷ that can act as barriers in these transitions and makes recommendations on how these can be overcome or minimised (see Appendix 2).

Gaskin’s model informs the structure this literature review of what works for encouraging and supporting volunteers. We also address the importance of the volunteering infrastructure at the organisational level.

Table 1: Stages in the Involvement of Volunteers

What Works? (section numbers)		Gaskin (2003) <i>A Choice Blend</i> A Model of Volunteer Involvement
	Encouraging participation in volunteering and addressing barriers to volunteering (3.2)	• The doubter is outside volunteering, and may have attitudes, characteristics or circumstances which keep them a non-volunteer.
Volunteering infrastructure and good volunteer management practices in organisations (3.3)	Recruiting volunteers (3.4)	• The starter has entered volunteering by making an enquiry or application.
	Orientating and training volunteers (3.5)	• The doer has committed to being a volunteer and begun volunteering.
	Managing retention (3.6)	• The stayer persists as a long-term volunteer.

3.2 What works to encourage participation in volunteering and address barriers to volunteering?

Gaskin’s model begins with ‘the doubter’ – a person who is outside volunteering. It is important to address what determines people’s decision to volunteer (Bussell and Forbes, 2003). Strategies to address ‘the doubter’s’ participation are typically at the sector level. The Commission on the Future of Volunteering (2008) suggest thinking about an individual’s first

⁶ For example, Bussell and Forbes (2003) present a Volunteer Life Cycle with four stages: volunteer determinants, decision to volunteer, volunteer activity, and committed volunteer. Haski-Leventhal and Bargal’s (2008) Volunteering Stages and Transitions Model has five different phases: nominee, newcomer, emotional involvement, established volunteering, and retiring.

⁷ These transition pressure points are: the image and appeal of volunteering; methods of recruiting volunteers; recruitment and application procedures; induction into volunteering; training for volunteering; overall management of the volunteering; the ethos and culture of the organisation; and the support and supervision given to volunteers (Gaskin, 2003).

steps into volunteering and the need to address issues of information and awareness, image, capitalising on initial enthusiasm, and red tape. Rochester (2006) identifies four explanations as to why some people volunteer and some do not: socio-economic factors, individual motivations, opportunity or access, and the influence of history or culture. This section considers:

- what factors positively influence participation in volunteering;
- barriers to volunteering; and
- initiatives to address these barriers and increase the number of people who are volunteering.

What factors positively influences participation in volunteering?

Large-scale national studies have identified **socio-economic factors** which increase the likelihood that someone will volunteer, known as the propensity to volunteer. Table 2 summarises findings from Australian and British data on factors influencing volunteer participation (Finlay and Murray, 2005, Low et al., 2007, Zappalà and Burrell, 2001). It is clearly shown in Table 2 that life stages affect volunteering.

Many of the factors shown in Table 2 are interrelated. For example, in general, surveys have found that women are more likely than men to volunteer. This can be partly linked to women’s employment status, their family role, and their choice in respect of allocating leisure time. Socio-demographic factors also influence the frequency of volunteering, the sectors volunteers engage in, and the type of roles they undertake.

Table 2: Factors influencing participation in volunteering

	Higher volunteering participation rates associated with:
Age/life stage	Being of working age or recently retired
Gender	Being female
Family and household structure	Being partnered/married Having dependent children
Labour market status	Being in paid employment (full or part time)
Socio-economic status	Higher level of educational attainment Higher status occupation Higher income level
Disability or long term illness	Absence of a disability or long term illness
Ethnicity	Member of the dominant ethnic group
Geographical location and length of residence	Living in a rural rather than urban area Being a longer-term resident
Migration	Being born in the country (rather than an immigrant born overseas)
Religion	Being actively involved in formal religious activities
Civic and social participation	Being involved with voluntary associations Having a higher level of civic participation

Source: Holmes and Smith (2009: 9)

In countries such as Australia, the UK, Canada and the United States, people from ethnic minorities have lower participation rates than the overall population. However, this is partly due to other factors (e.g. lower socio-economic status) rather than as a result of any intrinsic cultural characteristics. Some caution must also be applied translating these findings on ethnicity to a New Zealand context given the different cultural conceptions of volunteering discussed in section 2.2.

Understanding **motivation** – why people do or do not volunteer – dominates research on volunteers. Motivation has implications for the recruitment, training, reward and retention of volunteers (Holmes and Smith, 2009). There are various theories of volunteer motivation, but the one that is most frequently applied is the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) (Clary et al., 1998, Snyder et al., 2000). This inventory asks respondents to select from a series of

statements as to why they would volunteer; these are grouped into six psychological functions:

- Values (e.g. reinforcement or expression of personal values);
- Enhancement (e.g. learning);
- Social (e.g. be part of a group);
- Career (e.g. work skills and contacts);
- Protective (e.g. increasing confidence); and
- Understanding (e.g. personal growth).

Despite a wealth of research on motivations, there is no clear pattern of what motivates volunteers, although researchers do agree that motivation is multifaceted and complex. Further, individuals' motivations typically change over time, yet most research focuses on individuals' initial motivation to begin volunteering. Less attention has been given to understanding why people stay, and this is usually related to retention (see section 3.6).

Motivations are highly personal, although researchers have identified dominant motivations for different types of volunteering and organisations (see Box 2 for examples) and amongst different groups (Box 3).

Rochester highlights two further influences on participation:

- The importance of **opportunities** where access to volunteering is made possible through membership of social networks (hence the importance of word of mouth recruitment, see section 3.3). Volunteering flourishes when people have strong social linkages and community ties.
- Finally, involvement in volunteering is shaped by historical and cultural factors; we have already discussed how cultural groups in New Zealand have different perspectives on what might be seen as volunteering (see section 2.2).

Box 2: Examples of volunteer motivations

- Volunteers in **heritage, arts and culture** are primarily self-driven by their personal interests and supporting a cause, rather than volunteering in response to external incentives (Holmes and Smith, 2009). Mackaway's study of volunteers in the heritage conservation organisation National Trust (New South Wales) (2008: 37) found "volunteers are highly motivated by a combination of their need to interact with others and to do something useful within their community while pursuing interests in history and heritage". This type of volunteering has often been termed 'leisure' volunteering or a form of 'serious leisure' (Stebbins, 1996).
- A literature review by Ockenden (2007) found motivations for people volunteering in the natural outdoors (which covers both **environmental and some heritage** volunteering) include a love of nature, to help manage and look after the physical environment, as well as more generic motivations like social factors and developing skills and employability.
- A study of **hospice volunteers** in Wellington (Roessler et al., 1999) found a desire to help other people was a key motivation, particularly for younger and older volunteers. Younger volunteers were also motivated by personal gain, such as personal growth and a desire to work with the medical profession. Giving back to the community was of more importance for middle-aged respondents. Other motivations for hospice volunteers include a desire to support the philosophy of hospice, spare time, and personal bereavement.

Box 3: Examples of motivations and barriers for younger and older volunteers

- **Young people** are motivated to volunteer by both “outward reasons (a desire to help people and improve things or to contribute to an important cause) and inward reasons (to learn new skills or to feel good)” (Hutin, 2008: 6). Enhancing skills and employability and wanting to meet people and make friends are particularly important for youth volunteers. Volunteers have mixed views about volunteering, with the most recent research suggesting more positive perceptions (Hill & Russell, 2009). Young people have to fit volunteering around their education or work timetables, anticipate future changes in their circumstances, and often have financial limitations and travel problems (Gaskin, 2003, 2004). Young people also say one of the biggest barriers to volunteering is they don’t know how to get involved and take action on the issues they care about (Hill & Russell, 2009). Gaskin (1998) presented a young person’s ‘wish-list’ for volunteering: FLEXIVOL, which sets out their essential requirements: Flexibility, Legitimacy, Ease of access, Xperience, Incentives, Variety, Organisation and Laughs.
- Petriwskyj and Warburton’s (2007) literature review identified that **older people** are most commonly motivated to volunteer by “helping values, social aspects of volunteering, and opportunities to make a contribution to their community or society, to use their skills or share knowledge, to learn, develop new skills and be intellectually stimulated, or to feel good or feel needed”. Common barriers to seniors volunteering are health, mobility and fitness problems, financial barriers, a lack of time and full schedules due to external commitments (particularly to their families but also work, leisure and holidays) (Petriwskyj and Warburton, 2007, Gaskin, 2003). Research suggests marketing to recruit seniors needs to start well before people are due to retire so that it becomes built into their retirement plans (Singh et al 2006, Smith, 2004)

What are the barriers to volunteering?

Research has also identified various barriers to becoming a volunteer, remaining a volunteer and becoming more involved as a volunteer. These can be practical or psychological (Institute of Volunteering Research, 2004), and, as with motivations, barriers vary for different groups of the population. Barriers and constraints to volunteering include:

- time pressures from managing employment, family and other leisure activities;
- financial barriers;
- mobility issues in getting to volunteering activities;
- health and disability limitations;
- language and cultural barriers;
- personal interest and attitudes toward volunteering;
- the image of volunteering and volunteers;
- a lack of knowledge about volunteering opportunities;
- not being asked;
- lack of confidence;
- regulations and risk management culture;
- barriers arising from how organisations involve volunteers (e.g. recruitment procedures); and
- costs associated with volunteering.

Initiatives to address these barriers and increase the number of people who are volunteering

Overall, lack of time is the reason most frequently given for not volunteering or not doing more volunteering (e.g. Low et al., 2007). Consultants nfpSynergy (2005) highlight that the *21st century volunteer* seeks more flexible roles and involvement and also desires more enriching volunteer experiences (Finlay and Murray, 2005). The increase in flexible

volunteering is well acknowledged (Gaskin, 2003; Merrill, 2006), and a range of different forms of volunteering have emerged (Box 4). These forms offer flexibility of when and where individuals volunteer (episodic and online), as well as the promotion of collective volunteering opportunities (family and corporate).

Box 4: Emergent forms of volunteering and useful resources

<p>Episodic volunteering</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Volunteering opportunities that are temporary (volunteering only for a short time), interim (volunteering on a regular basis but for a defined period, for example on a project) and occasional (those volunteering for short periods of service at regular intervals) (Macduff, 2005). Event volunteering, for examples festivals and sports events, are common forms of episodic volunteering (Holmes and Smith, 2009). • Further information: <i>Volunteering Australia's Subject Guide to Event Volunteering – Take a Closer Look</i>. http://www.volunteeringaustralia.org <p>Virtual, online or cyber-volunteering</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Online volunteering activities can often be done ‘any time, any place’ and minimise the barriers of time availability, geographical boundaries and physical limitations (Merrill, 2006). They particularly appeal to young people, and those with a disability which restricts their mobility (Rochester, 2006). • Further information: The United Nations Online Volunteering Service http://www.onlinevolunteering.org/ <p>Corporate, workplace, employee or employer-supported volunteering</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees are encouraged to volunteer by their employer (e.g. through flexi-time arrangements, unpaid or paid time off to volunteer, and employer-organised volunteering activities). These initiatives are often part of corporate social responsibility programs. • Further information: Volunteer Canada resources http://www.volunteer.ca/en/volcan/employ-support/Do-It.org resources http://www.do-it.org.uk/wanttovolunteer/evsvolunteering <p>Family and intergenerational volunteering</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Involves two or more generations participating as volunteers in the same activity. This can be a strategy to engage volunteers who otherwise have caring commitments, although involving different age groups may increase organisational liabilities. (Hegel and McKechnie, 2003). • Further information: Volunteering Australia's <i>Subject Guide Volunteering: An opportunity for the whole family</i> http://www.volunteeringaustralia.org Volunteer Canada resources http://volunteer.ca/en/volcan/family/family

Improving the **image** and perceptions of volunteering is also important (Danson, 2003) and suggest marketing is necessary (Rochester, 2006, Bussell and Forbes, 2003). Inclusive volunteering activities and opportunities should be promoted through publicity and regular advertising (Gaskin, 2003). nfpSynergy's *21st century volunteer* research (2005) predict tomorrow's volunteers are likely to be cause-driven rather than time-driven, looking for specific experiences and rewards (Rochester, 2006). The image of volunteering therefore needs to move away from outmoded stereotypes of ‘middle-class, middle-aged do-gooders’ in traditional volunteering environments and roles (Wilson, 2001, Commission for the Future of Volunteering, 2008).

Strategies to address barriers and increase the number of people who are volunteering are often prompted by government policy. There are important roles for the sector-led national peak volunteering body (e.g. Volunteering New Zealand), as well as local Volunteer Centres; both agencies who support and promote volunteering and volunteer organisations. Initiatives typically target those groups seen as under-represented as volunteers (see Box 6 in section 3.4 for examples). Youth volunteering has been a particular focus (Gaskin, 2004, Hill & Russell, 2009); for example, Volunteering New Zealand's current youth volunteering project ‘Mission Possible’ (see www.volunteeringnewzealand.org.nz).

Rochester (2006:30) identifies four key strategies for improving access to volunteering:

- addressing the image of volunteering;
- more and better sources of information about the range of possible activities;
- more specific activities aimed at boosting people's confidence; and
- applying the principles of good volunteer management.

3.3 What works for volunteering infrastructure and good volunteer management practices in organisations?

Various books and online guides (for examples see Box 5) recommend 'good practice' in the organisation and management of volunteers. However, there is a lack of evidence-based research examining the relationship between this good practice and volunteering outcomes. There is some research which describes how good practice is implemented but, with some exceptions discussed here, the factors linking practice to success are rarely made clear.

Box 5: Resources for volunteer management practice

Books

Bowgett, K., Dickie, K. and Restall, M. (2002) *The Good Practice Guide: for everyone who works with volunteers* Volunteering England

Fryar, A., Jackson, R. and Dyer, F. (Eds), (2004) *Turn Your Organisation into a Volunteer Magnet*. OzVPM. Available: <http://www.ozvpm.com>

McCurley, S. and Lynch, R. (1998) *Essential Volunteer Management* Directory of Social Change.

Woods, M. (1998) *Volunteers: a guide for volunteers and their organisations*. Hazard Press.

Online resources

Energise Inc.; <http://www.energizeinc.com>

OzVPM (Australasian Volunteer Program Management); <http://www.ozvpm.com>

Volunteering Australia - subject guides, research and training on involving a diversity of volunteers <http://www.volunteeringaustralia.org.au>

Volunteering England *Good Practice Bank*: <http://www.volunteering.org.uk/Resources/goodpracticebank>

Australian Sports Commission *People Management Resources*: <http://www.ausport.gov.au>

New Zealand Resources

Volunteering New Zealand <http://www.volunteeringnz.org.nz>

Keeping It Legal *E Ai Ki Te Ture* <http://keepingitlegal.net.nz/about>

Office for the Community and Voluntary Sector (OCVS) <http://www.ocvs.govt.nz/>

Sport and Recreation New Zealand (SPARC) *Toolkit for Clubs – Managing Volunteers* <http://www.sparc.org.nz>

What is good volunteer management practice?

National standards identify a benchmark for good practice; for example:

- Volunteering Australia's (2005a) *Model Code of Practice of Organisations Involving Volunteer Staff* was developed from Volunteer Australia's National Standards and represents seventeen aspects of best practice in the management of volunteers (see Table 3).
- In the UK, *Investing in Volunteers* is the quality standard for organisations that involve volunteers. These standards were revised in 2010 and comprise nine indicators (see Table 3) and 46 volunteer management practices.

The good practice identified in these standards largely overlap with the recommended practices for volunteer management identified in research by The Urban Institute in the United States (see Hager and Brudney 2004, The Urban Institute, 2004).

Table 3: Good volunteer management practices

	Australia	UK	USA
	Volunteering Australia (2005) Model Code of Practice for Organisations Involving Volunteer Staff	Investing in Volunteering (2010) UK quality standard for organisations that involve volunteers - Indicators[†]	The Urban Institute (2004) Recommended Practices for Volunteer Management
COMMON GOOD PRACTICES			
Support and communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provide appropriate levels of support and management for volunteer staff; • treat volunteer staff as valuable team members, and advise them of the opportunities to participate in agency decisions; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • have an expressed commitment to the involvement of volunteers, and recognition throughout the organisation that volunteering is a two-way process which benefits volunteers and the organisation • take account of the varying support and supervision needs of volunteers. • commit appropriate resources to working with all volunteers, such as money, management, staff time and materials. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • supervise and communicate with volunteers
Insurance coverage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provide appropriate and adequate insurance coverage for volunteer staff; 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • have liability coverage for volunteers
Policies and procedures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • acknowledge the rights of volunteer staff; • provide volunteers with a copy of policies pertaining to volunteer staff; • define volunteer roles and develop clear job descriptions; • provide all staff with information on grievance and disciplinary policies and procedures; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • develop appropriate roles for volunteers in line with the organisation's aims and objectives, which are of value to the volunteers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • have written policies and job descriptions for volunteers
Recruitment and screening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interview and employ volunteer staff in accordance with anti discrimination and equal opportunity legislation; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • be committed to using fair, efficient and consistent recruitment procedures for all potential volunteers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • screen and match volunteers to jobs
Orientation and training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provide volunteer staff with orientation and training; • offer volunteer staff the opportunity for professional development; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • put into action clear procedures for introducing new volunteers to their role, the organisation, its work, policies, practices and relevant personnel. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • training and professional development for volunteers

	Australia	UK	USA
	Volunteering Australia (2005) Model Code of Practice for Organisations Involving Volunteer Staff	Investing in Volunteering (2010) UK Quality Standard for Organisations that Involve Volunteers - Indicators[†]	The Urban Institute (2004) Recommended Practices for Volunteer Management
COMMON GOOD PRACTICES (cont.)			
Recognition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> acknowledge the contributions of volunteer staff; reimburse volunteer staff for out of pocket expenses incurred on behalf of the organisation; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ensure the whole organisation is aware of the need to give volunteers recognition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> recognition activities
Risk management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> provide volunteer staff with a healthy and safe workplace; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> commit to ensuring that, as far as possible, volunteers are protected from physical, financial and emotional harm arising from volunteering. 	
ADDITIONAL GOOD PRACTICES			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> differentiate between paid and unpaid roles; not place volunteer staff in roles that were previously held by paid staff or have been identified as paid jobs; ensure volunteers are not required to take up additional work during industrial disputes or paid staff shortage; ensure that the work of volunteer staff complements but does not undermine the work of paid staff. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> training for paid staff in working with volunteers regular collection of information on volunteer involvement annual measurement of volunteer impact

[†] The UK quality standard for organisations that involve volunteers was revised in 2010. It comprises nine indicators (see table) and 46 volunteer management practices. The research by Machin and Ellis Paine (2008a) refers to the previous version of ten indicators, and they focus their reporting on five volunteer management practices: have a written policy on volunteer involvement; carry out evaluation of the impact of volunteers for the organisation’s services or activities; carry out equal opportunities monitoring of volunteers; have a key person(s) who volunteers can go to for advice and support; and arrange training for volunteers

There is agreement on the importance of the following as good practice (Table 3):

- support and communication;
- insurance coverage (for example, to protect the organisation and the volunteer from claims for negligence);
- written policies and procedures (e.g. role descriptions)
- recruitment and screening;
- orientation and training for volunteers;
- recognition activities; and
- risk management (for example, in respect of the Health and Safety in Employment Act 1992)

Additional good practice identified by Volunteering Australia includes a number of aspects in the relationship between volunteer and paid roles and staff. The Urban Institute add to the good practice list: training paid staff who are working with volunteers and measuring volunteer involvement and impact. On this latter point, Hotchkiss *et al.* (2009) advise that volunteer impact is seldom measured. The New Zealand Federation of Voluntary Welfare Organisations (NZFVWO) (2007) was an economic valuation of voluntary organisations, but there is little in New Zealand at an organisational level to assess the Urban Institute’s claim.

Also from the US, Grossman and Furano (2002) identified three elements crucial to the success of volunteer programmes:

- Screening: this provides the opportunity to select applicants who have the most appropriate attitude, time and skills to succeed in a specific volunteer role and organisation. It also filters out volunteers who are poorly matched to the organisation;
- Orientation and training: these set realistic expectations of what volunteers can achieve and ensure volunteers develop the specific skills they need to be effective in their role; and
- Management and ongoing support of volunteers by staff: these ensure that the volunteers’ time and skills are used as effectively as possible.

National surveys have been conducted in Australia, the UK and US examining the extent to which organisations say they are implementing this good practice and the extent to which volunteers say they have experienced these management practices (see Table 4).

Table 4: Studies evaluating the implementation of good practice in volunteer management

Country	Research	Publications	Data collected from	
			Organisations	Volunteers
Australia	National Survey of Volunteering Issues	Volunteering Australia (2009)	✓	✓
UK	Management Matters: a national survey of volunteer management capacity	Machin and Ellis Paine (2008a)	✓	
	Helping Out: a national survey of volunteering and charitable giving	Low et al. (2007) Machin and Ellis Paine (2008b)		✓
USA	Volunteer Management Capacity Study of charities and congregations [†]	Hager and Brudney (2004) The Urban Institute (2004)	✓	

[†] Discussion in this literature review refers only to the data from charities

These international studies found a mixed picture. There were high levels of adoption of some practices, but overall the implementation of these good volunteer management practices is not as widespread as guides to volunteer management might suggest. Evaluation of the UK’s

Investing in Volunteers standards (Cairns and Hutchinson, 2006) found it was more likely that organisations would adopt standards if all key stakeholders were committed to them, the organisation valued volunteers and volunteering, and had sufficient resources and external support to invest in volunteers.

In Volunteering Australia's annual *National Survey of Volunteering Issues* (2009), management practices with higher levels of self-reported implementation were: insurance coverage for volunteers; occupational health and safety; transparent recruitment and screening processes; orientation process; and training provision and skills development. In the UK, over-three quarters of organisations reported they had a key person that volunteers could go to for advice and support; carried out equal opportunities monitoring of its volunteers; had a written policy on volunteer involvement; always held an interview or chat with volunteers before they start; arranged training for volunteers and provided ways of recognising and rewarding volunteers (Machin and Ellis Paine, 2008a). In contrast, only supervision and communication with volunteers had been adopted to a large degree by a majority of charities in The Urban Institute survey (Hager and Brudney, 2004).

Asking volunteers also highlights the variability of volunteer management practice implementation. In the UK, the most common form of management reported by volunteers was access to someone within the organisation to whom they could turn for advice and support (Machin and Ellis Paine, 2008b). The majority of volunteers said they had not received job descriptions, training, nor had they been interviewed (or had a chat with someone) before starting their volunteering; all recommended as good practice in volunteer management.

Although comparison of Machin and Ellis's data on organisational (2008a) and volunteers' views (2008b) needs to be treated cautiously as they came from different studies, they do suggest a gap between what organisations say they do, and what volunteers say they experience. Some of this can be attributed to different perceptions, for example the organisation may 'interview' all applicants, but to the volunteer this might be a conversation over coffee or by telephone, rather than what they think of as a formal interview. Similarly, what the organisation classifies as a training session could be seen more as a social occasion by the volunteer.

What factors influence the adoption of good practice?

Adoption of more volunteer management practices were found in (Hager and Brudney, 2004, The Urban Institute, 2004, Machin and Ellis Paine, 2008a):

- Organisations that have a paid member of staff responsible for managing volunteers
- Larger organisations
- Organisations with a large number of volunteers contributing a large number of hours (although the relationship was less clear in the UK study, Machin and Ellis Paine, 2008b)
- The American study also found increased adoption when volunteers are involved in direct service activities (e.g. mentoring), and in health and human services organisations.

Machin and Ellis Paine (2008b) found different volunteers experienced different levels of good practice adoption depending on the frequency of their volunteering and their volunteering activity. For example, regular volunteers had experienced more volunteer management practices compared to occasional volunteers. Volunteers in their study were generally positive about the way their organisation involved and managed them. However, there was evidence that some volunteers did not want some of the management practices recommended or used. For example, a majority of volunteers did not receive a written role description, neither did they want to. There was some resistance to the formalisation of

volunteer management, with some volunteers preferring ‘informality and flexibility’, rather than volunteering that is ‘too rigid or formal’.

Wilson (2001) discusses how the introduction of the contract culture in New Zealand (and elsewhere) has led to more professional and commercial management of social services delivery, including formalisation of volunteer management. Wilson’s literature review suggests mixed impacts of this policy change on volunteering. Some volunteers have been motivated and more committed by the more professional approach and increased opportunities for training and development; others have been turned off by and demotivated by the pressures and demands of more formalised and controlled organisational environments and management approach. Rochester (2006) highlights similar mixed consequences for volunteering from British public sector reforms.

No single model of good practice

These varying responses to volunteer management practices raise an important point: the adoption of these good practices does and should depend on the specific needs and characteristics of different organisations and volunteer involvement. Size of organisation is a key factor, but organisations also differ in how they involve and therefore how they manage volunteers.

Using the example of the volunteering in the natural outdoors (i.e. the environment), Ockenden (2007: 24) highlights that the involvement of volunteers in the environmental sector appears to have grown in “an organic, independent and sometimes fragmented manner”. He suggests this may have contributed to a lack of focus on volunteering development in many environmental organisations. This could also be a note of caution that implementing more formalised management processes may not fit with the ethos and culture of some organisations in this sector. Nevertheless, Ockenden also points to the recognition, particularly in larger organisations, of the need for a more coordinated and standardised approach to the management and development of volunteering.

There is no one model of volunteer management and Gaskin’s report is called a ‘choice blend’ because, as she concludes:

“The task for volunteer management is to find the right blend: for the organisation, combining choice and control, flexibility and organisation, to be experienced by the volunteer as a blend of informality and efficiency, personal and professional support. This must take full account of the blend of characteristics, motivations and needs within the volunteer workforce; and the type of volunteering and context in which it is carried out. For the volunteering infrastructure as a whole, this suggests a blend of different management approaches and structural arrangements, rather than over-dependence on a single model.” (Gaskin, 2003: 28)

Importance of volunteering infrastructure and funding in organisations

To maximise the benefits of volunteering within an organisation, there needs to be an infrastructure in place, otherwise volunteers are “ineffective at best or, worse, become disenchanted and withdraw, potentially damaging recipients of services in the process” (Grossman and Furano, 2002: 15). This infrastructure frames the volunteer management practices already discussed, but good quality infrastructure is not cheap and requires staff and other resources. Despite this, the survey by Machin and Ellis Paine (2008a) found three in ten UK organisations operate without funding for their volunteer programme. Others had funding through their main or core budget, and externally funded grants were also important. Similarly, the New Zealand survey by Smith et al. (2010) also found that 42% of responding organisations had no budget, or their managers did not know what their budget was.

Ockenden's (2007) literature review of volunteering in the natural outdoors suggests low levels of resourcing and funding for organisations has "a considerable influence on the consistency and quality of volunteer support provided and the sustainability of some community projects" (p.26). He quotes research from Scotland that found low levels of funding and resources can prohibit organisations from giving sufficient priority to volunteer management. This research suggests that the need to focus on financial survival can be at the expense of investment and development of volunteering infrastructure and training. Okenden found funding difficulties can mean organisations scale down their activities and their involvement of volunteers, or it can result in volunteers taking on more responsibilities as a result of a shortage of paid staff. Additional funding could be used to increase the support and management of volunteers, for example, additional training or increased supervision.

In addition, a lack of funds makes it less likely that organisations will be able to partially or fully reimburse volunteers for expenses they have legitimately incurred during their volunteering. Volunteering New Zealand (2006) argued that these out-of-pocket expenses impact organisations' recruitment and retention of volunteers. For example, Volunteering Australia (2005) noted the rising cost of petrol detrimentally affected volunteers' availability and tasks and Tan and Cordery (2010) in a New Zealand survey in 2008, found that costs can be a barrier to volunteering. One barrier to reimbursement was removed by changes to the Income Tax Act (2007, s.CW62B), however organisations need to budget for this reimbursement to support volunteers.

Despite this importance, there are scant details available on the resources required to develop and support volunteering infrastructure. First, organisations find it difficult to keep records about the contributions of their volunteers; the necessity of this was highlighted by The Urban Institute's (2004) good practice (Table 3). As noted in the next three sections, volunteers must be recruited, matched with roles and trained, and supported. This intuitively requires human effort (paid or unpaid) and often requires expenditure in the way of advertising, training resources and reimbursement of the costs of volunteers running programmes. Expenses incurred by volunteers in the course of their volunteering can be considerable, and the 2009 changes to the New Zealand Income Tax Act have simplified the process for organisations to reimburse volunteers. Unless an organisation has a budget for this, they will be unable to support volunteers in this way. While un-reimbursed costs are unlikely to stop committed volunteers donating their time, Cordery and Tan (2010) found that these out-of-pocket expenses have caused one in five volunteers to reduce or change their volunteering or to consider reducing or changing their volunteering, and, for 17% of respondents, out-of-pocket expenses were a significant barrier to increasing their volunteering.

Importance of a (paid) manager of volunteers

Managers and leadership play a vital role in the successful management of volunteers. Having a dedicated manager of volunteers, whether they are paid or unpaid, is an investment in the volunteer management capacity of the organisation. This can be the volunteer manager or coordinator, but more often they have a range of different job titles and roles (Smith et al., 2010). For example, researchers have highlighted the importance of the construction manager on a Habitat for Humanity project (Trevisan, 2007), the local shop manager (Whithear, 1999) for volunteers in charity retail outlets, and in New Zealand examples: the brigade Fire Chief (Kan, 2003) and Department of Conservation field staff (Ringer, 1996, Ringer and O'Brien, 1997).

The importance of a **paid** member of staff responsible for managing volunteers is a reoccurring factor in the adoption of good volunteer management practices (The Urban Institute, 2004, Machin and Ellis Paine, 2008a). For example, Volunteering Australia (2009) found lower levels of adoption of all management systems and processes reported in organisations with an unpaid manager or no manager of volunteers.

A paid member of staff will typically not spend all their time on volunteer management, or even have specific training (The Urban Institute, 2004). Similar to overseas research, in New Zealand Smith et al. (2010) found that 44% of the managers of volunteers they surveyed tend to squeeze their volunteer management tasks around everything else.

The Urban Institute research (2004) found clear evidence that having a paid staff member who dedicates a substantial portion of their time to management of volunteers brings benefits. Organisations with paid managers experienced fewer recruitment challenges, reported positively on their capacity to take on more volunteers, and demonstrated greater adoption of an array of volunteer management practices. However, a paid volunteer manager makes no difference to the retention rate of volunteers (see section 3.6).

3.4 What works to recruit volunteers?

Volunteer recruitment is typically reported as the biggest volunteer management challenge, particularly for smaller organisations and those without a paid volunteer manager (The Urban Institute, 2004, Smith et al., 2010). Recruitment can be seen as a marketing problem where an organisation needs to differentiate itself from its competition in order to attract and match, and then retain, volunteers (Bussell and Forbes, 2003).

There is a variety of recruitment methods available and research can tell us which are most widely used and offers some indication of effectiveness:

- A **direct approach** is most effective (Danson, 2003). For example, in New Zealand research, Charbonneau et al. (2006) found that being invited by someone in the organisation worked well for charities recruiting volunteers.
- **Word of mouth** typically emerges as the most used way to recruit volunteers (Low et al., 2007). For example, volunteers into emergency service volunteering in New South Wales were usually invited to join by the existing service membership, so recruitment focuses on friends and family (Baxter-Tomkins and Wallace, 2009). These are 'like-minded people' who will 'fit in'. This has advantages for retention: interpersonal relationships and group dynamics are key reasons why volunteers stay with the service. However, word of mouth recruitment can create a similar profile of volunteers, and this lack of diversity can limit the effectiveness of groups (Ockenden and Hutin, 2008).
- **Advertising** has a role in promoting volunteering opportunities but Gaskin (2004: 8) suggests its value is in "keeping volunteering in [potential volunteers'] minds, to be acted upon when the time was right for them" rather than generating applications itself. In New Zealand, Charbonneau et al. (2006) found charity volunteers did respond to advertisements and recommended that charities maintain a high profile. Overseas research found that advertising is most persuasive when it presents concrete reasons for volunteering work (Clary et al., 1994, cited in Gaskin, 2003) and the specific benefits of volunteering as they relate to the actual volunteer task, for example, 'socialise with other volunteers' (Callow, 2004). Shields (2009) found the most effective marketing strategy for recruiting young adults highlights the motivations of helping others, or altruism, and maintaining socially beneficial relationships or some sense of personal development.
- **Education programmes** within communities about the organisation and what it's like to be a volunteer (Birch and McLennan, 2007).
- Setting and publicising **information sessions** and intake dates creates a 'call to action' (Birch and McLennan, 2007).
- Intermediaries - such as **Volunteer Centres** – can bridge the information gap between potential volunteers, organisations and volunteering opportunities (The Urban Institute, 2004).

- Recruiting from the organisation's **membership** or via other similar organisations. This is particularly evident in environmental volunteering (e.g. Martinez and McMullin, 2004, Wolcott et al., 2008).
- Similarly, in sport, recruiting those who are already **active participants**, or have family members who are, is most effective (Charbonneau et al., 2006).

Information and communications technology (ICT) offers great potential for recruiting volunteers, for example through initiatives like online volunteer opportunities databases (e.g. www.volunteernow.org.nz). The pace of technological change may account for a lack of research on the effectiveness of these recruitment tools. Data from the UK's volunteering national survey in 2007 found very low levels of recruitment through general volunteering websites or an organisation's own website, although those aged 25-34 and those with a long-term illness or disability use technology more. As noted in Box 4, ICT may be particularly appropriate for recruiting young people, however Zorn and Richardson's New Zealand study (2010) notes that only 53% of community organisations responding to their survey had a website. Further, only 25% of their respondents used ICT to recruit staff and volunteers. While this percentage had increased by 2% from 2005 to 2008, there is a wide gap between small organisations (only 11% used ICT to recruit) and organisations with a budget of over \$100,000 (42% used ICT to recruit). Therefore, there is a risk that smaller organisations will miss out on volunteer enquiries if they do not have the ICT infrastructure.

This variety of recruitment methods needs to be matched by multiple points of access to volunteering, and welcoming and timely responses to enquiries, to capitalise on the individual's initial enthusiasm (Gaskin, 2003, Commission for the Future of Volunteering, 2008). Other factors have been identified as important for successful recruitment:

- Multiple and flexible roles and time commitments (Birch and McLennan, 2007, Gaskin, 2003);
- Role descriptions (Gaskin, 2003), although some volunteers do not want this level of formalisation (Machin and Ellis Paine, 2008b);
- Minimising the bureaucratic hurdles, while undertaking screening which is appropriate to the organisation and role (Commission on the Future of Volunteering, 2008);
- Informal but effective screening (e.g. interviews) and to match individuals to opportunities (Gaskin, 2003);
- A welcoming environment where new volunteers feel safe and accepted (Handy and Cnann, 2007);
- Development and promotion of the support and assistance for new recruits (Birch and McLennan, 2007);
- Highlighting the opportunity to gain new skills or career-relevant qualifications (Birch and McLennan, 2007);
- A volunteer charter and/or clear explanations of rights and responsibilities, procedures and expectations (Gaskin, 2003)
- A paid manager who spends time on volunteer management (The Urban Institute, 2004)

Targeted recruitment is recommended, particularly to involve groups under-represented as volunteers within the organisation, or more generally (Rochester, 2006). For example, The New Zealand Federation of Multicultural Councils (NZFEC, 2004) recommends that organisations undertake the following to encourage ethnic volunteering:

- Actively build networks with ethnic communities (visit during festival days, promote volunteering in ethnic media, conduct special seminars);
- Translate brochures and resources, make work practices culturally acceptable, share resources and information with other voluntary organisations;
- Be clear to volunteers about what is expected of them and provide language training.

Volunteering Australia has useful resources available online for good practice in the recruitment –and management - of a variety of under-represented groups (Box 6).

Throughout the recruitment process, organisations are in competition for the ‘starter’ volunteer. In Volunteer Australia’s practical recruitment guide to *The Volunteer’s Journey*, they suggest that factors that will make a volunteer choose a particular organisation include (2006c: 8):

- whether the organisation can help volunteers meet their aspirations;
- that the organisation recognises that volunteers have different distinct and personal motivations and needs;
- the role itself and how it is described;
- the mission and reputation of the organisation;
- the successes of the organisation;
- any recent positive media coverage;
- the organisation winning an award; and
- the statistics related to the cause and how volunteers can make a difference.

Research with young people in the United States (Shields, 2009) suggest they are particularly drawn to volunteer for organisations that were either very local or personal, or those with a national profile.

Box 6: Volunteering Australia Resources

Subject guides, research and training on involving:

- Young People
- Baby Boomers
- Volunteers with a Disability
- Volunteers from Diverse Cultural and Language Backgrounds
- Indigenous Australians
- Volunteers in Rural and Remote areas
- Families

Available for free download: www.volunteeringaustralia.org.au

3.5 What works for orientating and training volunteers?

To support the ‘doer’ who has committed to being a volunteer and begun volunteering (Gaskin, 2003), orientation and training are core good practice in volunteer management (see section 3.3). Orientation and training are one of Grossman and Furano’s (2002) three elements of a successful volunteer programme. Stamer et al.’s (2008: 1) study of 11 art museum volunteer programmes around the world identified “enhancing volunteers’ learning experiences through initial training and continued education” as one of the key management practices that appear to increase the performance of volunteer programmes. A lack of organisational capacity (including funding, resources, available staff, skills, time or space) to provide the necessary or desired training to volunteers is a barrier to attracting and retaining volunteers (Volunteering Australia, 2009).

Training should set and manage the expectations of volunteers and develop the specific skills volunteers need for their role. Training impacts on volunteer satisfaction, effectiveness, retention and a volunteer’s sense of competency in their role (Holmes and Smith, 2009). The challenge, as seen by the Commission on the Future of Volunteering (2008: 23) is "how to provide volunteers with sufficient training (and the right training) in a way that does not overwhelm and deter them, but also enables those who wish to explore training further to do so". Training needs will differ as the volunteer moves through their time with an organisation,

and prior learning and experience also need to be considered. Gaskin (2003) comments that while volunteers want to be adequately prepared for the tasks they will have to carry out, many do not need nor feel they need training. Conversely, training and skills development are motivations for some volunteers, including the opportunity to have training and qualifications accredited. There are also cost and time implications for training for both the volunteer and the organisation (Commission on the Future of Volunteering, 2008). Volunteering Australia (2006a, b) produces a guide and toolkit for training volunteers that provide a framework for assessing training needs, then implementing and evaluating training.

A study of training in New Zealand's emergency services volunteers (NZIER, 2008), volunteers expressed preference for:

- practical hands-on training;
- exciting, varied, interactive and interesting delivery style;
- relevant training that is useful for doing their volunteer job;
- available at a time and location to suit the volunteer - flexibility is the key here;
- costs to be covered - indirect (accommodation, travel, childcare, lost time) as well as the direct costs;
- effective ongoing refresher training; and
- effective management training for volunteers' managers.

Training for volunteer managers is integral to improving the capacity of volunteer organisations and the quality of volunteer management (Rochester, 2006). Recent New Zealand research by Smith et al. (2010) found training in recruitment is by far the most important training need for unpaid managers of volunteers. Paid managers have a more diverse range of training needs, including:

- management skills;
- communications;
- policy development;
- data management;
- problem solving; and
- volunteer recruitment.

Training is also required for other paid staff within an organisation on how to work with volunteers (Gaskin, 2003; The Urban Institute, 2004), and the Commission on the Future of Volunteering (2008) also highlights the need to train the policy makers who work with organisations that involve volunteers.

3.6 What works for retaining volunteers?

Intuitively retention of volunteers should be encouraged. Retention is often used as an indication of the success of a volunteer programme. As Hager and Brudney (2004: 12) state: "turnover of volunteers can disrupt the operation of the charity, threaten the ability to serve clients, and signal that the volunteer experience is not as rewarding as it might be".

Factors influencing volunteers to withdraw or continue as a volunteer

This section draws on Locke et al.'s 2003 review of the research-based literature on volunteer retention. They found a complex and at times ambiguous picture of the factors that cause people to withdraw or continue as a volunteer. However, what is clear is "there is no 'X' factor that explains why some people continue volunteering and why others withdraw" (p.95). Rather they identify two groups of factors influencing retention: personal factors and life stage events, and those related to organisations and contexts. Importantly, the factors that may lead to a volunteer to withdraw are not simply the opposite of the factors that encourage them to stay.

Personal factors and life stage events influencing retention

Leaving volunteering is often related to changes in personal circumstances: for example, moving location, getting a job, changing family commitments, or starting education (Locke et al., 2003). Continuing volunteering has been linked to ‘stability or continuity in personal life’, such as being married or already having children. Locke et al. also found studies that positively relate higher levels of education and previous experience as a volunteer to remaining a current volunteer. However, they found ambiguous evidence of the influence of personality or attitudes (e.g. being more sociable or having particular motivations), demographic factors (e.g. age), or people’s religious beliefs, on the likelihood that someone will continue volunteering. They conclude: “the evidence to date does not allow us to predict whether certain ‘types’ of people are more likely to make long-term volunteers than others” (p.85).

Organisational and contextual factors influencing retention

These factors have been more clearly linked to retention and turnover, and are more in the control of individual organisations (Locke et al., 2003). From the US, The Urban Institute’s study offers evidence on the relationship between adoption of management practices and retention of volunteers. Hager and Brudney (2004) found higher levels of retention were linked to those management practices that **enrich the volunteer experience**, namely:

- screening and matching volunteers to jobs;
- training and professional development for volunteers; and
- recognition activities.

In Volunteering Australia’s *National Survey of Volunteering Issues 2009*, the methods of recognition preferred by volunteers were: being accepted as a valuable team member, a personal thank you, and feedback about their contribution. However, Locke et al. (2003) caution that while there is some evidence related to the positive influence of specific management practices (e.g. receiving out-of-pocket expenses), the research evidence on the importance of recognising and rewarding volunteers and retention is not as clear.

Management practices such as written policies and collection of data on the number of volunteers and the hours donated are more focused on the needs of the organisation, and while they are good practice, they were not related to volunteer retention in The Urban Institute study. Other activities by the organisation that contribute to higher retention rates (Hager and Brudney, 2004) are:

- providing a culture that is welcoming to volunteers;
- allocating sufficient resources to support volunteers; and
- enlisting volunteers in recruiting other volunteers.

Locke et al.’s literature review and other international studies have found commitment and the intention to remain a volunteer are also positively related to:

- interpersonal relationships, social support networks and friendships developed through volunteering (Locke et al., 2003, Hidalgo and Moreno, 2009, Stamer et al., 2008, Baxter-Tomkins and Wallace, 2009). A report for the New Zealand Fire Services (2009) found the social aspects of the brigade was a key driver for volunteer retention;
- support from staff and other volunteers (Hidalgo and Moreno, 2009, Smith, 2002);
- harmony – or a lack of conflict - with other volunteers and paid staff (Kapoor and Ferrari, 2005);
- volunteers’ sense of responsibility (Locke et al., 2003);
- congruence between the goals of the organisation and those of the volunteers: feeling a shared purpose or common mission (Locke et al., 2003, Kapoor and Ferrari, 2005);
- volunteer’s sense of pride in the organisation (Boezeman and Ellemers, 2008)

- volunteer’s perceptions of the respect they receive from the organisation (Boezeman and Ellemers, 2008); and
- positive characteristics of the work task (Hidalgo and Moreno, 2009).

Many of these are related to a positive **organisational culture** where all members of the team – volunteer and paid – are valued and respected. Gaskin (2003) also notes the importance of involving and consulting volunteers on decisions that affect their volunteering.

Organisational and policy issues in New Zealand

New Zealand research draws together these organisational and policy issues and reports what works in supporting Māori and Pacific volunteers. Box 7 summarises the key factors from the OCVS (2007) study and examples from Tamasese et al. (2010). The *Keeping It Legal E Ai Ki Te Ture* website details laws affecting volunteers in New Zealand not-for-profit organisations (see <http://keepingitlegal.net.nz/about/>).

Box 7: What works in supporting Māori and Pacific volunteers?

What works for Māori in supporting *mahi aroha*?

- Friends and work associates committed to supporting *kaupapa* Māori;
- Sympathetic employers who are flexible regarding *kaupapa* Māori work;
- Good communication technologies which reduce the need for travel;
- Supportive government/organisational policy (e.g. DIA Volunteering Fund, Te Puni Kōkiri contracting guidelines which include *tikanga* Māori essentials (such as food for meetings), and the payment of *koha* and fees for advisory work (OCVS, 2007))

What works for Pacific communities? Some examples from Tamasese et al., 2010:

- At the Mataula Centre, volunteers are supported by being able to work as a Tokelaun community where cultural values and way of life is important;
- At the Canterbury Fiji Social Services Trust volunteers are supported by a sense of belonging, being part of a relationship, and the mutual respect that comes from sharing cultural awareness;
- In developing a Tongan exhibition at the National Library, volunteers were able to fulfil their social obligations and nurture relationships. This *faifatongia* is central to the Tongan construction of self. They also valued working in partnership with the Library;
- For Samoans, the opportunity to contribute to the wellbeing of the *aiga* (extended family) made for successful volunteering because it contributes to one’s own wellness;
- Keeping integrity with ancestors and with future generations is important.

What factors don’t relate to retention?

Regular supervision and communication with volunteers was the most adopted of the nine management practices studied by Hager and Brudney (2004), however, they also found it was the only practice associated with lower levels of retention. The authors offer two explanations for this finding: organisations may increase supervision and communication as a response to poor retention rates; or the way these organisations supervise and communicate may not be finding favour with volunteers. In their study, lower levels of retention were also related to:

- larger organisations;
- a lack of funds allocated to support volunteers;
- staff or board members being indifferent towards volunteers;
- a perception in the organisation that volunteers are absent, unreliable or have poor work habits;
- problems with recruitment; and
- a large percentage of youth volunteers (under the age of 24).

Having a **paid staff member** devoted to managing the volunteer programme is positively related to the adoption of management practices, however it made no difference to the retention rates reported by organisations in this study.

As Hager and Brudney (2004: 12) conclude, there is no single answer to retaining volunteers:

“[Organisations] that want to retain these essential human resources should adopt relevant volunteer management practices and invest in the infrastructure, culture, and volunteer experience that will keep volunteers coming back”.

What works for managing a volunteer’s exit from an organisation?

While volunteer retention is seen as positive, retaining volunteers is not always beneficial, or possible, for the organisation or volunteer. For example, volunteering may be a path to other opportunities, such as paid employment or education. Bussell and Fordes’ (2003: 75) definition of the committed volunteer is “one who is nurtured by the organisation, allowed to grow and develop, and when necessary permitted to exit”. Haski-Leventhal and Bargal (2008) also recognise the importance of the ‘retirement’ stage of volunteering. The exiting transition can follow experiences of burnout, detachment, fatigue and boredom with volunteering (Haski-Leventhal and Bargal, 2008), but it could also be the result of positive experiences, such as an episodic volunteer completing the project they were recruited for. Managers may also recognise the volunteers’ performance has declined; Paull (2009) discusses physical, cognitive or behavioural changes related to ageing, but problems can arise with any volunteers.

Good practice on ending the relationship with a volunteer focuses on the organisation taking a sensitive and positive approach. Paull (2009) stresses the importance of involving the volunteer in such decisions, and providing managers with training and support to assess and evaluate performance and then provide feedback. In relation to cathedral and heritage volunteering, Lee (2008) identifies four aspects of supporting volunteer retirement:

- A volunteer **policy** and agreement that provides a framework to the volunteer’s participation from the start of their involvement;
- **Planning** the change through an agreed process of lessening involvement (e.g. reducing roles or tasks but continued inclusion in social events)
- **Pastoral** support to the volunteer to manage the transition and show the organisation value their service; and
- **Patience** as the volunteer has time to adjust to the prospect of retirement.

Both Lee and Paull discuss retirement of older volunteers, but these practices have value for supporting the withdrawal of other committed volunteers. A flexible approach to volunteering and continued communication can mean ex-volunteers may later return to volunteering as their situation changes. Promoting other opportunities (e.g. through Volunteer Centres) can mean the individual continues to volunteer, even if not the same organisation (Danson, 2003).

In some cases, an organisation will need to dismiss the volunteer. However, there is little research, or practical advice, on how to best handle this situation. Regular appraisals are an opportunity managers and volunteers to discuss the volunteering experience, and can also make the volunteer feel valued (Osborn, 2008). Volunteering Australia produces advice on managing conflict between volunteers and the organisation or their volunteer/paid colleagues, and also recommends setting up a volunteer grievance policy and procedures (see Volunteering Australia, 2005b and 2008 for details).

4: KEY SUCCESS FACTORS FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT AND SUPPORT OF VOLUNTEERS

This section summarises key success factors which research and evaluation tell us work for encouraging and supporting volunteers. While the literature review has included overseas and research, these international findings have been supported by the available New Zealand research.

1. **Seeing the involvement of volunteers as a series of stages** - from non-volunteer to committed volunteer – helps organisations understand the process of managing volunteers. Good practice in the management of volunteers within organisations includes provision of volunteering infrastructure, recruitment, training, and retention strategies.
2. **What works to encourage participation in volunteering and address barriers to volunteering?**
 - Understanding that the motivations and barriers to participation vary, due to, for example, culture, life-stage and socio-economic factors;
 - Volunteers want flexibility and an enriching volunteer experience; and
 - In line with New Zealand's *Policy on Volunteering*, there is a role for government and peak sector bodies to promote a positive image of volunteers and volunteering opportunities and to support and value volunteers and good volunteer management practices.
3. **What works for volunteering infrastructure and good volunteer management practices in organisations?**
 - Adopting the elements of good volunteer management practice including: support and communication, insurance coverage, written policies and procedures, recruitment and screening, orientation and training for volunteers, risk management and recognition of volunteers;
 - Recognising however, that there is no single model of good volunteer management practice and the adoption of practices depends on the specific needs of different organisations and volunteer involvement (for example, some volunteers and organisations thrive on formalised practices, while others do not);
 - Investing the necessary resources (time and money) in volunteering infrastructure, including expense reimbursement (full or partial); and
 - Appointing a manager of volunteers and, where appropriate, paying them.
4. **What works to recruit volunteers?**
 - Targeted recruitment particularly to involve groups under-represented as volunteers (for example due to cultural differences or lifestage)
 - Matching volunteers to the roles available in the organisation and screening out unsuitable volunteers;
 - Effectively responding to enquiries and creating a welcoming environment;
 - Directly approaching potential volunteers and involving current volunteers in recruitment; and
 - Advertising to raise awareness and promote the organisation and volunteering opportunities.
5. **What works for orientating and training volunteers?**
 - Investment of resources in orientation and relevant training;
 - Ensuring training is accessible and that cost is not a barrier to participation; and
 - Providing training for volunteers, managers of volunteers, staff who work with volunteers, and policy-makers.

6. What works for retaining volunteers?

- Understanding there are personal, organisational and contextual factors that contribute towards volunteers staying in an organisation;
- Adopting management practices that enrich the volunteering experience and which are culturally and organisationally appropriate (for example, matching, training and recognition activities);
- Ensuring cost is not a barrier to volunteers' involvement;
- Having an organisational culture that welcomes, values and respects volunteers and emphasises the cultural and social rewards of volunteering; and
- Managing volunteers' exit from the organisation.

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APPENDIX 1: RESEARCHING WHAT WORKS

Researching volunteering in New Zealand – a reliance on overseas data

Publications by The Ministry of Social Development (Wilson, 2001) and The Department of Conservation New Zealand (Bell, 2003) have previously commented on the lack of New Zealand research on volunteers. The current situation is not much improved, although there has been notable research published on volunteering in specific sectors and organisations, for example sport (SPARC, 2006a, 2006b) and the New Zealand Fire Service (Kan, 2003, NZ Fire Service, 2009), and our own recent work on volunteer managers (Smith et al., 2010).

Due to the limited amount of New Zealand material, most of the literature in this review is from overseas, mainly from Australia, the United Kingdom, and the United States⁸. These countries have peak volunteering bodies active in undertaking and publishing research, as well as strong not-for-profit academic communities and specialist journal publications. In the John Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project, New Zealand, Australia, the UK and the US comprise the ‘Anglo Saxon’ cluster (Sanders et al. 2008). They have similar third sectors, levels of government support, and all have a sizeable volunteer presence. While there are important differences in cultural conceptions of volunteering (see section 2), these commonalities support the transferability of research findings and management practices.

Extent and quality of research/evaluation available

Published research largely divides into two types: large-scale national surveys often funded by government or the peak body for volunteering; and small-scale studies of individual organisations or sectors which can be survey-based or typically involve small numbers of interviews or focus groups. These are either academic studies or evaluation exercises funded by the organisations themselves. Most volunteering research focuses on larger organisations, or at least those with some paid staff members; Ockenden and Hutin (2008) note the absence of research on grassroots, volunteer-led organisations. In his literature review for Volunteer Development Scotland, Danson (2003: 13) notes some general limitations of much research on volunteering: “small sample sizes; limited coverage of particular areas and groups; inconsistent definitions of volunteering and failure to recognise these in many commentaries; lack of appreciation of these problems; lack of statistical testing of results, and the resulting fluctuations in estimates”. Our literature review focuses on evidence-based studies with transparent methodologies, alongside practitioner publications from respected national bodies and organisations.

Search methodology

The literature search included both academic and practitioner research and evaluation (see Box 8). Only the most relevant references are included in this report. Priority was also given to research and evaluation in areas funded by Lottery Grants e.g. community and social services, and environment and heritage.

A number of literature reviews on aspects of volunteering were useful, including: Rochester’s *Making sense of volunteering* review (2006) for The UK’s Commission on the Future of Volunteering (2008); and reviews of the literature on retention (Locke et al., 2003); volunteering in the natural outdoors (Ockenden, 2003); the management of volunteering in Scotland (Danson, 2003); youth volunteering (Gaskin, 2004, Hill & Russell, 2009); and social service volunteering in New Zealand (Wilson, 2001).

⁸ The same approach was taken by Wilson (2001) in her literature review on the changing face of social services volunteering for The Ministry of Social Development.

Box 8: Search terms and sources

Academic publications: searches for ‘volunteer’ and related keywords (e.g. management, motivation) were run in a number of databases (ABI Inform, Proquest, SAGE, Wiley Interscience) and specialist voluntary sector journals:

- Australian Journal of Volunteering
- International Journal of Non-profit & Voluntary Sector Marketing
- Non-profit & Voluntary Sector Quarterly
- Non-profit Management and Leadership
- Public Administration Review
- Third Sector Review
- Voluntary Action: Journal of the Institute of Volunteering Research
- Voluntas: International Journal for Voluntary and Non-Profit Organisations

These identified over 250 articles, 150 of which were reviewed in more detail.

Practitioner publications: the websites of key organisations conducting research on volunteering in New Zealand and overseas were reviewed and over 50 research-based publications were downloaded. Organisations included:

New Zealand

- Volunteering New Zealand
- Office of the Community and Voluntary Sector
- The Clearing House (Tangata Whenua, Community & Voluntary Sector Research Centre)
- Department of Conservation
- SPARC
- New Zealand Fire Service

National Volunteering Organisations

- National Service US
- Volunteer Development Scotland
- Imagine Canada
- Volunteering Australia
- Volunteering England
- Volunteer Canada

Other organisations publishing research

- Australian Sport Commission
- Institute for Volunteering Research (UK)
- The Smith Family (Australia)
- The Urban Institute (US)

APPENDIX 2: VOLUNTEER ROLE PROGRESSION, PRESSURE POINTS AND ACTIONS

<u>TRANSITION</u>	<u>VOLUNTEER'S NEEDS</u>	<u>PRESSURE POINTS</u>	<u>EFFECTIVE ACTIONS</u>
DOUBTER TO STARTER	<p>Positive image of volunteering Awareness of variety of volunteering Awareness of variety of volunteers</p> <p>Messages and invitations to volunteer Easily obtained information Easy access to volunteering</p>	<p>Image and appeal</p> <p>Methods of recruitment</p>	<p>General publicity and promotion of volunteering Regular advertising – press, posters and leaflets Targeted promotion to sub-groups Innovative approaches and media</p> <p>Carefully crafted messages Outreach, talks, roadshows, presence at events Active promotion in schools, workplaces etc. Multiple points of access, gatekeeper networks Clear information on literature and websites Greater promotion of websites and databases More visible and more inviting volunteer 'bureaux' Support for volunteer ambassadors</p>
STARTER TO DOER	<p>Positive experience of initial entry Responsive and interested staff Personalised approach Procedures efficient but informal As few delays as possible Being given choices</p> <p>Understanding how things work Feeling equipped and confident to begin volunteering</p>	<p>Recruitment and application procedures</p> <p>Induction to volunteering</p>	<p>Well-staffed reception, walk-in/call-in/email access Attractive leaflets/handouts to take away Friendly, efficient initial response Informal but efficient interview process Individualised matching to opportunities Volunteer role descriptions and charter Vetting and other delays fully explained Referral to other opportunities/organisations</p> <p>Orientation to the organisation and its personnel Clear explanations of policies and procedures Clear explanation of expenses system Informal and friendly style Taster sessions and shadowing</p>
<u>TRANSITION</u>	<u>VOLUNTEER'S NEEDS</u>	<u>PRESSURE POINTS</u>	<u>EFFECTIVE ACTIONS</u>
DOER TO STAYER	<p>Having the necessary skills for the role</p> <p>Relevant training for the role Opportunities for progression and further skills development</p> <p>Good organisation and communication Degree of commitment respected Personal constraints accommodated</p> <p>Feeling comfortable and welcome Feeling of making a useful contribution Sense of being part of the organisation</p> <p>Not worrying about costs, transport, safety etc. Knowing there are staff to help and support Mutual support among volunteers Not feeling pressured</p>	<p>Training for volunteering</p> <p>Training</p> <p>Overall management</p> <p>Ethos and culture</p> <p>Support and supervision</p>	<p>An up to date induction pack</p> <p>Useful, appropriate, convenient initial training Indication of future training opportunities Certification and accreditation options</p> <p>Useful, appropriate, convenient ongoing training Certification and accreditation on offer</p> <p>Well-organised volunteer systems Efficiency combined with informality Flexibility to accommodate other commitments Respect for cultural or age-related concerns Development of volunteers as managers</p> <p>Pro-volunteering culture in organisation Staff training at managerial and operational levels An inclusive ethos without discrimination Volunteers help shape organisational culture Ensuring organisational capacity to consult and respond to volunteers</p> <p>Personal line of support for every volunteer Light-touch supervision Clear and regular reimbursement of expenses Conveying appreciation and value Facilitating volunteer socials and peer support Efficient systems for monitoring and progression An entirely non-exploitative approach to volunteers</p>
STAYER (lifelong)	<p>Being allowed flexibility without guilt</p> <p>Ability to transfer to other volunteering opportunities Life cycle changes</p>	<p>Overall management</p> <p>Support and supervision</p>	<p>Referrals, networks and databases that enable geographical transfer Allowing changes of role and degree of commitment within the organisation</p>

Source: Gaskin (2003: 29-31)

APPENDIX 3: VOLUNTEERING IN NEW ZEALAND

Table 1: Examples of voluntary organisations and volunteering roles

Sector	Organisations	Roles
Social Services	Salvation Army, National Collective of Independent Women's Refuges, Māori Women's Welfare League, Presbyterian Support Services, Wesley Wellington Mission, City Centre for the Elderly, Youthline Counselling	Meals on Wheels distributor, night shelter worker, counsellor, budgeting adviser, foodbank co-ordinator, prison visitor, op shop worker, soup kitchen worker, computer technician
Health	AIDS Foundation, IHC, Mercy Hospitals Auckland, marae-based women's health clinics	Hospital driver, nursing home visitor, crisis counsellor, accountant
Education NZ	Playcentre Federation, Adult Reading Literacy Association	Adult literacy tutor, Kohanga Reo parent help, school library assistant, children's play group co-ordinator, school board of trustees member
Sport & Recreation	New Zealand Tennis, Regional Sport Trust, Titahi Bay Athletics Club, Petone Baptist Youth Group, Pencarrow Girls' Brigade	Netball administrator, marathon support crew, rugby referee, soccer coach, Toastmasters' President, chess club co-ordinator, garden club organiser; Scout leader
International	Amnesty International, Red Cross, World Vision, VSA	Relief worker, teacher, street collector
Arts & Culture	Historic Places Trust, Porirua Community Theatre, ACCESS Radio	Kapa Haka group manager, community theatre usher, drama group treasurer, community radio announcer, art gallery guide, festival stage manager
Politics, Advocacy & Information	NZ Citizens Advice Bureaux, New Zealand Council of Christian Social Services, Waterfront Watch, Federated Farmers	CAB worker, board member, self-help group co-ordinator
Community & Society	Rotary, Neighbourhood Watch, Lions	Marae committee member, Neighbourhood Watch co-ordinator
Environment & Animal Welfare	Greenpeace, Royal Forest and Bird Protection Society of New Zealand, Havelock North Environmental Home Group	'Friends of the Zoo' member, SPCA volunteer, beach clean up participant, Department of Conservation track maintenance volunteer, Historic Places Trust volunteer

Source: Wilson (2001: 14)