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Aisling Sugrue

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# An Evaluation of the International Volunteer Programme at HOPE Community Resources in Alaska

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For Award of Masters of Science  
The Institute of Technology, Tralee

Supervised by Pat Flanagan and Dr. Sean Connor

Submitted to the Quality and Qualifications Ireland (QQI) , May 2014

## Abstract

A review of the literature identified a theme of ambiguity regarding the phenomenon of volunteerism, regarding the definition, academic perspectives and volunteer's motives. The review also identified the Volunteer Process Model (VPM, Omoto and Snyder, 1995) and the researcher utilised this model when designing the mixed methods questionnaire to evaluate the motivations, satisfaction and attitudes towards disability of Hope's international volunteers, both current (n=13) and previous (n=85), and also the impact the volunteer programme has on the volunteer's careers. The attitudes towards disability of participating staff and management were also evaluated and compared with the volunteers. The impact on Hope's workforce and service users was evaluated through the use of semi-structured interviews. Rapid ethnography was also used to validate the findings.

The results of the VFI showed that volunteers were mostly driven by Values, Understanding and Career motivations. However based on the qualitative findings, Adventure, Understanding and Career were the main motivators. The volunteers indicated that they were most satisfied with Group Integration with staff and service users, Work Assignment and Participation Efficacy, and they were least satisfied with Organisational Support and Communication Quality. Forty-nine percent of the volunteers stated that their careers were directly impacted and 29 percent reported an indirect impact. Twenty-two percent of previous volunteers are also in high impact roles within the area of disability service provision. Both the volunteers and Hope staff scored above average attitudes toward disability based on the Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons – Scale O (Yuker and Block, 1970). It seems the volunteers had positive attitudes before volunteering, most likely due to their previous experience, as 100% reported knowing someone with a disability, 43% had worked or volunteered with someone with a disability and 71% had studied a disability module.

The attitudes of Hope staff and management towards the volunteers were very positive with the majority referring to the enthusiasm and energy of the volunteers and reported their work ethic to be above average. The results show that the volunteers are the primary providers of physical activity and recreation services and programmes for Hope's service users and also that volunteers generally develop meaningful relationships with the service users.

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# **Introduction**

## **1.0 Introduction**

The following study aims to evaluate the impact of the International Volunteer Programme at Hope Community Resources in Alaska, using a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. This first chapter introduces the organisation itself and the volunteer programme, along with the aims and objectives of the project. This is followed by a review of the literature. The first two chapters aim to provide a background and context for the study and are followed by the methodology chapter which details the research methods. The fourth chapter reports the results, giving a brief discussion, while the fifth chapter discusses the results in detail, linking the findings within the study and also with existing literature. The final chapter outlines recommendations identified by the researcher to support the optimum functionality of Hope's international volunteer programme according to the programmes aims.

### **1.1 Introduction to Hope Community Resources**

Hope Community Resources is a not-for-profit, disability service provider with offices throughout Alaska. According to Hope's website, the organisation was originally called Hope Cottages and from the early days in 1968, the philosophy was that no one should have to live in an institutional setting and as an alternative Hope Cottages offered community-based services. This philosophy was in alignment with the national shift towards deinstitutionalisation. Hope has a person-centered philosophy which values the importance of personal choice and works to ensure that families are kept together and are empowered with choice and control over their lives, including their living environment, the supports they choose and employment opportunities. Hope has a very strong corporate culture which is driven by the organisational Beliefs, Values, Mission, Vision and Expectations (BVMVE). This culture strives to be anchored in the Wellness model of health which is evident from their motto "*Helping people with disabilities achieve their dreams*". Also some of the services Hope provide which include spiritual wellness, self-advocacy and self-determination, recreation programmes, supported relationships and community health and wellness. When combined these help provide an environment for flourishing health and relationships and not merely the absence of disease. However it seems that there is still a discrepancy between the terminology and the use of disability models, for example the use of the term "mental retardation" in client's plans of care and Medicaid documentation and also the use of the older International Classification of

Disease (ICD) model as opposed to the updated International Classification of Functioning, Health and Disability (ICF) model.

As well as a commitment to service users, Hope is also committed to its workforce, which has expanded along with the number of service users. Each employee receives an initial week long training induction with additional on-going modules as an introduction to the organisation and the field of disability. Up until 2013 this training lasted two weeks, without the continual modules. Hope prides itself on having never implemented pay cuts or reducing employee benefits and according to the Deputy Executive Director (n.d.) *“have held sacred the trust that [employees] place in our commitment to them, both individually and collectively”*. Hope has an employee turnover rate of 31 percent in 2013 which is much lower than other direct support service providers in the USA, which can range between 35 and 70 percent (AAIDD, 2013). In recent years Hope has created and implemented a Wellness programme for all employees for which Hope was awarded the Psychologically Healthy Workplace Award from the Alaska Psychological Association in 2007 and in 2008 Hope was one of nine organisations to receive a national award for Best Practice from the American Psychological Association (APA, 2008) for their innovative programme designed to promote a psychologically healthy work environment.

## **1.2 The International Volunteer Programme**

The international volunteer programme has been running since 1996, however the concept wasn't new to Hope, as the organisation had already been accepting anthropology students from the State University of New York Plattsburg (SUNY) since the early nineties. These students mostly travelled to the regions of Alaska to develop community maps and identify community profiles and pathways for people to become included. The first volunteer from outside the USA came from Germany. This volunteer had a family member that participated in a yearly fundraising activity called “Walk for Hope”. Hope realised that this volunteer left with a lot of information, including Hope's philosophy of care, and they realised that they could “change the world” in this way. Hope also saw that Hope staff and service users could also learn from volunteers. In 1995 a director at Hope made a connection with a third level educational institute in Ireland, the Waterford Regional Technical College (now the Waterford Institute of Technology (WIT) and the following year six Irish recreation students travelled to Alaska for the summer. In 2002, changes were made to visa requirements and Hope responded by working with immigration attorneys, creating the structure for the current volunteer programme. This

structure included a weekly \$350 stipend for living expenses, up to \$1000 for reimbursement of flights, provided accommodation and transport to and from volunteer tasks. The Waterford Volunteer Club was also created to support volunteers before travelling to Alaska and is the volunteer's first link with Hope. The Club provides them their immigration and visa documentation and also plays a main role in recruiting volunteers. All European volunteers are required to pay a fee of €150 (€100 up to 2012) to obtain their immigration documentation.

The main aim of the international volunteer programme is to create a setting for sharing and learning between the volunteers and Hope. According to Hope's volunteer manual, some of the benefits include cultural exchange, the spreading of Hope's philosophy and values, the opportunity for volunteers to experience how Hope supports people with disabilities, and include them into the community. Hope also benefits from the skills and energy that the volunteers bring, which create initiatives and programmes. As a director reported *"the idea is to bring volunteers over, give them the experience and then they return to their countries and implement what they have learned in their own way"*. The programme initially supplemented the workforce at Hope, however an additional reciprocal impact was identified which included the provision of health inducing, physical activity and recreation programmes for Hope's service users, providing the opportunity for inclusion in activities that people with disabilities typically experience many barriers to (Fentem, 1996; Hannon, 2005). According to some directors, the programme also supplements the workforce.

### **1.3 Programmes and Initiatives Created by Volunteers**

The volunteers are the core facilitators and providers of physical activity and recreation services within Hope, and most of these services are provided through the Discovery Centre. At the time of data collection, three of the five members of paid staff at the Discovery Centre were previously volunteers, two of whom were supervisors. A member of senior management stated that they *"have pushed inclusion so hard all of my career and recreation is the only place that I have started to back off"* suggesting trust in the volunteers to implement their expertise and skills as they are the providers of recreation services at Hope. The precursor to the Discovery Centre was Camp Cara, a recreation and adventure summer camp, which was created by volunteers in 2003 and started in Dillingham by merging a group Hope service users with the local 'Boys and Girls' Club to provide an inclusive summer camp. Camp Cara then moved to Anchorage in 2004.

This was followed by Camp Spraoi, which provided activities for service users that found the Camp Cara environment too intense. Camp Spraoi evolved into the Discovery Centre in 2010 when Hope acquired a new building and the Centre now facilitates a range of activities including boccia, bowling, water aerobics, swimming, karate, art projects, street dancing, library visits, music, karaoke, zumba and social club. Most recently, in 2013, the cooking, nutrition and healthy lifestyles programmes have been combined to create the Discover Health programme with the supervisor sitting on the Wellness Committee which provides wellness services for both Hope staff and service users. The Discover Health Programme has also been incorporated into service provision at Hope's offices in the Kenai Peninsula. This expansion of recreation services, in particular most recently, suggests that the increase in long-term volunteers in the last year and the appointing of previous volunteers with recreation skills to supervisory positions has accelerated the development of services provided by volunteers. For example a manager stated *"I really owe it to [the volunteers], they are very much the catalyst and the reason for a more structured programme [at the Discovery Centre]"*.

#### **1.4 International Collaboration**

Hope staff also saw that the programme was having an impact on the volunteers and their career paths. For example, an interview with a member of staff at the third level institute from where the original international volunteers were recruited reported that interest in disability electives (disabilities and advocacy, activity for intellectual disability) increased. Many of the volunteers became employed in roles that supported the inclusion of people with disabilities, for example Sports Inclusion Disability Officers and Sports Development Officers within a service provider for people with disabilities. Members of management at Hope began to realise that they could possibly support the provision of disability services in countries where these services were only developing.

Scheller (n.d) also stated that Hope is represented on the spiritual committee of the International Association for Intellectual Disabilities (IAIDD) and has a commitment to intellectual and developmental disabilities. According to a supplement in a local paper, Hope Community Resources is actively aspiring to participate in global efforts to positively impact the global issues of poverty and disability, both of which have been identified by the United Nations (Anchorage Press, April, 2013). Hope is using the international volunteer programme as a vehicle to attain this goal. Hope has worked with the USAID to develop partnerships with Universities in Russia, Kyrgyzstan and through

the United Nations Development Program, the initial phase of collaboration has been made in Ethiopia and has also travelled to Senegambia to make similar connections with a university there (Scheller, n.d.).

## 1.5 Aims and Objectives

The current study has three broad aims which are to:

- Create a profile of Hope’s international volunteers
- Assess the impact of the international volunteer programme on the workforce and service users of Hope Community Resources (referred to as Hope throughout the chapter)
- Assess the impact of the programme on the volunteer’s careers and attitudes to disability

These broad aims will be met using the objectives and corresponding methods described in Table 1.1.

**Table 1.1 Study Objectives and Methods**

Group	OBJECTIVES	METHOD
Impact on Volunteers	Identify the volunteer profile	Volunteer Questionnaire
	Evaluate whether the programme fits the Volunteer Criteria	Volunteer Questionnaire
	Evaluate volunteer’s motivations	Volunteer Questionnaire – VFI (Clary et al., 1995) and qualitative question
	Evaluate volunteer’s satisfaction	Volunteer Questionnaire – VSI (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley, 2001) and qualitative question

**Table 1.1 continued**

	<b>OBJECTIVES</b>	<b>METHOD</b>
<b>Impact on Volunteers</b>	Evaluate volunteer’s attitudes to disability and compare to the attitudes of Hope’s staff and management	Volunteer Questionnaire – questions from the NDA public attitudes survey (2011); ATDP-O (Yuker et al., 1790); qualitative question Ethnographic Observations
	Evaluate the impact on volunteer’s careers and education	Volunteer Questionnaire
<b>Impact on Hope</b>	Outline the programmes and initiatives volunteers have created	Volunteer Questionnaire Semi-structured Interviews – staff and management
	Evaluate the attitudes of employees and management towards the volunteers	Semi-structured interviews Ethnographic Observations
	Evaluate the impact of the programme on the workforce	Semi-structured interviews Ethnographic Observations
	Evaluate the short-term nature of the programme on the workforce	Semi-structured interviews Ethnographic Observations
<b>Impact on Service Users</b>	Evaluate the impact on the service users	Informal Interviews with Personal Representatives Ethnographic Observations
	Evaluate the short-term nature of the programme on Hope’s service users	Informal and semi-structured Interviews with Personal Representatives and Hope employees Ethnographic Observations

## 1.6 Rationale

This study was undertaken at the request of Hope management as a means to gather data regarding the international volunteer programme and to analytically evaluate the programme, substantiating the anecdotal evidence which has been gathered over the eighteen years the programme has been running. This data is also necessary for the application for funding and grants to financially support the programme further, in particular the quantitative data regarding the numbers of volunteers that have participated in the programme.

## 1.7 Limitations

- The majority of data was collected onsite in Alaska over eleven weeks during the summer of 2013 which is a limitation as this provides a snapshot of the year. Summertime see the greatest volume of volunteers and to optimise the quality of data collected, this study included ethnographic observations and interviews of staff and management.
- Perspectives of service users were not directly obtained due to:
  - delays obtaining consent, for example from Hope's self-advocacy group
  - time constraints which limited the opportunities of findings ways of getting valid and reliable data from service users.
- There was an imbalance of sample sizes which led to a reduced power of statistical analyses, for example the ratio of
  - Male to Female volunteers;
  - CV group to PV group;
  - Hope staff and management to Volunteers
- Volunteers from before 2002 were not represented
- The Attitudes toward Disabled Persons scale is old and uni-dimensional which may have contributed to the unexpected scores. Future studies could consider utilising a multidimensional scale for example the Multidimensional Attitudes Scale Toward Persons With Disabilities (MAS, Findler et al, 2007)



## 1.8 Delimitations

- Of the previous volunteers, only those that use the internet were invited to participate in the online survey. For example those that were contactable via email of the social media network *facebook*
- The economic impact of the volunteer programme was not evaluated
- The impact of the volunteer programme on the wider community was not evaluated

## **Review of the Literature**

## 2.0 Review of the literature

### 2.1 Introduction to the literature review

The chapter begins by introducing the concept of disability with the aim of providing a context for the International Volunteer Programme at Hope. The author reviews the evolution of the definition of disability, and also the development of disability services in both the USA and Ireland, while also including a short piece on the impact of physical activity, in particular on people with disabilities. This latter section was included due to the programmes the volunteers have initiated at Hope.

The second section of the review introduces the topic of volunteerism, starting by identifying the lack of congruence regarding the definition. This is followed by the history of volunteerism in Ireland and the role volunteerism has played in the development of disability services in Ireland. This Irish history has been included as the majority of Hope's international volunteers are from Ireland. The broad scope of volunteerism is reviewed including the rates of participation in the USA and Ireland, along with the recent shift in society and the impact this has had on volunteer patterns and behaviour. The chapter then addresses the reasons people volunteer and what satisfies volunteers and how volunteers can be optimally supported. The final section looks at literature that evaluates a variety of volunteer programmes which are similar to the volunteer programme at Hope.

### 2.2 Introduction to the Concept of Disability

The World Health Organisation (WHO, 2002) published a new definition of disability, in 2002, which was endorsed by 191 WHO members states, via the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF). This definition is as follows:

*“Disability is an umbrella term for impairments, activity limitations and participation restrictions. Disability is the interaction between individuals with a health condition (e.g. cerebral palsy, Down syndrome and depression) and personal and environmental factors (e.g. negative attitudes, inaccessible transportation and public buildings, and limited social supports)”.*

(WHO, 2002)

The purpose was to create a universal language and framework for defining, measuring and developing policies for health and disability for use in health services and health related sectors. This classification was a radical conceptual shift, towards a

biopsychosocial model of disability that mainstreamed disability by acknowledging that everyone can experience some sort of disability. This concept is similar to the WHO definition of health (1948) which states that health is “*a state of physical, mental and social well-being, not merely the absence of disease*”. Applying this holistic and optimal concept to disability, allows people of all levels of ability, not just people with disabilities, to be measured in terms of functioning as opposed to their lack of ability or disability. It also shifts the focus from etiology and cause of disability to the impact. The ICF model identifies outcomes due to interactions between health conditions and contextual factors including internal factors which are personal and external factors which are environmental and recognises three levels of human functioning, of the body part, the whole person and the whole person within society.

### **2.2.1 Previous Models of Disability**

The previous models of disability were the medical model, and the social model. The medical model’s perspective of disability is that of illness, trauma or a health condition, as a negative entity separate from the individual that requires medical treatment or intervention to “correct” the problem (WHO, 2002). This model medicalised disability and associated it with illness and pathology leading to dependency, patronisation and isolation of people experiencing disability (Pillinger, 2002). The shift from the medical model of disability to the social model, led to the advocacy for the rights of people with disabilities. These rights included equality, choice, empowerment and independence (Williams, 2001; Shakespeare, 2000; Morris 1993; Sevenhuisjen, 1998). In Ireland, independence was associated with a shift from charity to rights, meaning that people with disabilities could independently make the decisions that impact their lives, especially regarding support services, health care and welfare (Pillinger, 2002).

There was a shift towards the social model of disability which freed the individual with the impairment and viewed disability as a problem caused by society, due to limiting attitudes and physical environments that are not supportive of people with disabilities. This shifted the responsibility to the level of government and legislation (Altman, 2001). The WHO recognised that both of these models had some validity but that neither offered a sufficient solution to the complex phenomenon of disability so a combination of both the medical and social model led to the development of the ICF and the biopsychosocial model of disability, synthesising biological, individual and social perspectives of health (WHO, 2011). The definition stated at the beginning of this section emerged.

### 2.2.2 Institutionalisation

This section outlines the history and evolution of the provision of disability services in the USA and Ireland. Both countries were included as the study is based on a service in Alaska, USA and because the majority of the volunteers are from Ireland. In particular the Irish history provides insight into the culture of volunteerism with the provision of disability services in Ireland. This insight aims to provide the readers, in particular management at Hope, with context and an indication of the possible reciprocal impact of the programme in terms of sharing knowledge regarding the provision of disability services.

#### 2.2.2.1 In the USA

In the USA the first purpose built “insane asylum” was built in 1773 in Williamsburg (National Library of Medicine, 2013) to accommodate a group of poor and unhappy people who “*are deprived of their senses and wander the countryside terrifying the rest of their fellow creatures*” (Fauquier, 1766). This appeal supports Anleu’s (2003) perspective which states that the initial rationale for separating the insane was not medical but social and economic, in particular when madness, later defined as either mental illness or intellectual disability, became a widespread diagnosis and was often applied to a diverse population of social deviants including “mad” people, criminals, libertines, beggars, vagabonds, prostitutes, the unemployed and the poor. The early mental hospitals had intentions of humane care until beliefs shifted that mental illness was incurable. Also mass immigration from Europe between 1830 and 1850 increased the population from 13 to 23 million, consisting mostly of unskilled immigrants thus intensifying the issues of poverty and disease (Ferguson et al, 2008; Grob, 1992). Mental hospitals became “human warehouses” characterised by physical abuse, ridicule and neglect in appalling conditions (Morrissey et al., 1980; Parry, 2006). The “insane” were confined, often chained and naked, in cellars, pens and cages (Parry, 2006) and treatment for the “insane” involved physical labour (Brown, 2010). By 1955 there were two hundred and sixty five “mental hospitals” throughout the USA (Grob, 1992). In later years and up until the 1970s, people diagnosed with insanity, as well as other societal deviants including orphans, paupers, the homeless, criminals and those with alcohol addiction were subjected mandatory sterilisation to “improve the stock” of humanity (Adams et al., 2007; Kühn, 2002).

#### *2.2.2.2 In Ireland*

Between 1810 and 1815 the Irish Parliament, under British rule, granted funding to build the first institution solely for the care of “lunatics” and “idiots”, Richmond Asylum in Dublin. This was followed by the Irish Lunatic Asylums for the Poor Act (1817) which was introduced by members of the House of Commons. Power et al. (2013) claim that this Act allowed Britain to use Ireland as a testing-ground for institutionalisation in Britain, legislating that “lunatics” and “idiots” in Ireland were to be moved from poorhouses to a system of asylums. Between 1845 and 1850, the institutional infrastructure was greatly overburdened by the Great Famine as mass emigration and starvation meant that the population was made up of the most impoverished (O’Gráda, 1993). The prevalence of ill health and destitution was so great that disability was the norm and the degree of severity was all that distinguished between poor health and disability, due to malnutrition induced conditions like rickets (Cooter, 2000). A report from the Inspectors of Lunatics (1893) stated that in 1851 there were 4,905 “idiots” or people experiencing intellectual disability in Ireland with 3,562 of these people living in the community or “at large”, and 5,074 “lunatics” or people experiencing mental illness with 1,073 of this group living outside of an asylum, prison or workhouse. This is the first differentiation between people with mental illness and intellectual disability in the reviewed literature. By 1891 this number had increased to 6,243 people experiencing intellectual disability, with 4,077 living in the community and 14,945 people experiencing mental illness, with 893 living in the community.

When Ireland attained independence from Britain in 1922 the government abolished all social welfare schemes associated with the Poor Laws (Sweeney, 2010) and the development and sole provision of social services for people with disabilities went solely to the Church. The first ten years of independence reported little development in the way of social provision for people with disabilities. In 1931, the Catholic Church released a doctrine which Power et al (2013) summarise as the Church forbidding State involvement in the provision of services or functions within the family and in the 1950s the state handed over control of residential intellectual disability services to the Roman Catholic Church (Sweeney, 2010). Involvement of the Church in the domain of disability meant that the Eugenics Movement, which involved mandatory sterilisation, was rejected and involvement of the family and community in healthcare was advocated. The Church did strive to prevent “immoral” sexual activity and reproduction of children with inherited

“subnormal” intelligence by institutionalising women deemed as “mentally defective” (Sweeney, 2010).

### **2.2.3 Shift Towards Deinstitutionalisation**

On an international level, the mid 1950s and 1960s saw a shift towards promotion of community housing for people with disabilities which was sparked by the Scandinavian “*normalisation movement*”. This movement held the philosophy that people with disabilities should be included in the social service system and experience the same rights and life as people without disabilities (Ericsson, 1985).

#### **2.2.3.1 In the USA**

The introduction of antipsychotic medication in 1955 (Torrey, 1997) initiated deinstitutionalisation in the USA with a shift towards “community mental health” (Adams et al, 2007). This was accelerated by the introduction of the Community Mental Health Centres Act (CMHC Act - also known as the Mental Retardation and Community Mental Health Centres Construction Act of 1963), by the democratic President JF Kennedy (Kofman, 2012). Social stigma associated with mental illness and intellectual disabilities began to decrease and the introduction of the federal and state funded Medicaid and Medicare health service programmes for the older population in 1966 supported the shift from state institutions to smaller community-based nursing homes (Kofman, 2012). Koyanagi (2007) report that between the initial pilot community programmes in 1955 and 1980, the resident population in state mental hospitals fell from 559,000 to 154,000. While the motives for deinstitutionalisation were laudable, there were some issues (Kofman, 2012; Koyanagi, 2007). For example, the medical model of care and treatment was embraced and many of those that were deinstitutionalised received therapeutic treatment according to their disability, and their social and human needs were often overlooked (Kofman, 2012; Sundararaman, 2007). The gap between service provision and needs, meant that many people who were deinstitutionalised ended up homeless, in prison or in unregulated care provided by substandard for-profit organisations (Cameron, 1989; Rocheford, 1993; WHO, 2001). According to Koyanagi (2007), it wasn’t until 1975 when the National Institute of Mental Health created the federal funded Community Support Programme (CSP) which provided state funding for a broad range of services, supports and community resources for adults living in the community with mental illness. While funding for the programme was initially only \$6 million a year it had a monumental impact on state policies as states were in a position to provide services that weren’t

available in the CMHC programmes by expanding services beyond sole medical treatment. Koyanagi (2007) added that leaders of disability services in other countries can learn from the mistake of implementing deinstitutionalisation before an infrastructure of community resources has been developed.

### *2.2.3.2 Disability Civil Rights Movement*

The Disability Civil Rights Movement began in the 1970s, inspired by the efforts of the civil rights campaign and the women's movements in the 1960s (Hurst, 2003; Shakespeare, 1993). The impact of widespread injury following the Vietnam War also fuelled the push for people with disabilities to claim a positive identity and demand civil rights and integration into society despite discrimination and prejudice (Shakespeare, 1993). The Independent Living Movement started in Berkeley, California with the first Centre for Independent Living (CIL). The Centre merged with the Disability Movement focusing on the social model of disability services as mentioned previously, whereby society is changed to meet the needs of people with disabilities. By 1972 there were CILs in five states across the USA, run by people with disabilities for people with disabilities (Shreve, 1982). The societal shift towards consumerism in the USA led the way for people with disabilities to demand choice and control over service provision. Equal human rights and de-medicalisation were also demanded.

### *2.2.3.3 The First Civil Rights Law*

In 1990 the USA enacted the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA), the world's first civil rights law which prohibited discrimination of people with disabilities, and according to Power et al. (2013), led the way in developing disability law internationally. This law defined disability in alignment with the medical model as "*A. a physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities of such individual; B. a record of such impairment; or C. being regarded as having such impairment*" (1990, section 3). The law also included concepts from the social model by legislating in the areas of employment; public entities for example public transport; public accommodations for example commercial facilities; telecommunications and miscellaneous provisions which includes prohibition of retaliation or coercion including threats, intimidation or interference. In 2008, the ADA was later amended by President George Bush. The definition was expanded according to the biopsychosocial model of disability, and other changes included broadening the scope of "major life activities", and identifying what "substantially limits" such activities. Under the Presidency of Barack



Obama, Rosa's Law was also introduced in 2010, which federally requires the use of the term "intellectual disability" instead of "mental retardation".

#### *2.3.3.4 The Impact of the Olmstead Case*

The landmark Olmstead case against the Georgia commissioner of human resources (Olmstead v. L.C., 1999), was brought by two institutionalised women who challenged their right to integration, in alignment with the ADA. The Supreme Court ruled that mental illness is a form of disability and falls under the scope of the ADA (1990), and that unjustifiable institutionalisation of a person with a disability is discrimination, which is a violation of this Act, in particular when the service provider has declared that community-based services would best suit the individual; when the individual themselves wishes for community-based care and when this care can be reasonably provided. The court ruled that institutionalisation inhibits integration into society limiting interaction with others and also the possibility of employment and making a life for oneself. This case greatly impacted the deinstitutionalisation process and by 2009, nine of the fifty states, including Alaska in 1997, had closed all large state-run residential facilities, with more than sixteen residents (Lakin et al., 2010). They add that twelve of the fifty States of America have closed all residential institutions and thirteen States have closed larger facilities but have maintained smaller community based residential settings. Other States, for example Iowa and New Jersey, no longer possess these facilities but do provide state staff to operate them.

#### *2.2.3.5 In Ireland*

Events that led to deinstitutionalisation in Ireland included the second Vatican Council in 1965, when the Catholic Church reversed its stance on social welfare provision and began to advocate for the involvement of the State in the social and economic welfare of the country. The state became more involved in the delivery of support services in 1970 when the Health Act was passed. This Act also provided grants for funding for disability services in addition to the previous funding grant made available via the previous Health Act of 1953 (Section 26 and Section 65 grants). Voluntary organisations led by parents and friends organisations, for example KARE in Co Kildare and Western Care in Co Mayo, which had already begun to provide disability services which were more in alignment with emerging international concepts including deinstitutionalisation and were entitled to these grants. These organisations continued to lead community based disability

services and also began to create links with the institutions throughout the country (Power et al., 2013).

Internationally, 1981 was the United Nations International Year of Disabled People which marked a watershed in thinking and led to the World Programme of Action concerning Disabled People. This was adopted by the UN in 1982. (United Nations, 2003-2004). The theme of the year was “full participation and equality” and objectives included raising public awareness of disability issues, understanding and acceptance of people with disabilities and the encouragement of people with disabilities to establish self-advocacy organisations. In Ireland, this was followed by a Government report, *Planning for the Future* (1984), which made recommendations for a comprehensive, community-oriented and integrated mental health service. This report resulted in a process that was referred to as “de-designation”. Walsh and Daly (2004) reported that this process simply re-categorised the living quarters of patients with intellectual disabilities within institutions as no longer being part of the mental hospital. People with intellectual disabilities were relocated but remained on the institution property (Power et al, 2013). In 1987 the National Economic and Social Council (NESCC) published a report, *Major Issues in Planning Services for Mentally Handicapped and Physically Handicapped Persons* which acknowledged a lack of appropriate national guidelines on the level of service; on the eligibility of services; and the discretionary nature of some services, while advocating for the integration of people with “mental handicaps” into society and the continuation of voluntary support services with improved coordination with the State. Mulcahy and Reynolds (1984) reported that in 1981, 241 people were living in group homes within the community and this number had doubled by 1985.

In 1990, the *Needs and Abilities* policy for the Intellectually Disabled was published, advocating for community-based living and the closure of existing large scale, residential institutions according to available funding. However, Power et al. (2013) state that the government underestimated the scale of this task. By the end of the century there were 7,810 people with intellectual disabilities living in full-time residential care with 2,835 of these people living in community-based group homes, 3,539 of these people living in institutional residential centres and a 365 people living in special intensive placement due to the severity of their needs (Mulvaney, 2000).

For people with physical disabilities, the Irish Centres for Independent Living (CILs) was established in 1992, as part of a worldwide movement started in Berkeley California advocating for equal rights for people with disabilities. The philosophy of CILs is “*nothing about us without us*”. This self-advocacy group advocated for a personal assistance service which began in Dublin in 1995 as an EU pilot programme called INCARE, and eventually led to the provision of a personal assistance service in Ireland. INCARE was run by the CILs until it was taken over by the Irish Wheelchair Association. In the mid 1990s, the Irish CILs aligned themselves with the national training and employment agency, Foras Áiseanna Saothair (FÁS), a skills and training organisation for people experiencing unemployment, benefitting those availing of both CILs and FAS services. At this point many voluntary organisations were now direct service providers, for example Enable Ireland, yet still receive only partial funding from the Section 65 Grant mentioned earlier (Power et al., 2013).

In 1993, the Irish Commission of the Status of People with Disabilities was established which signified major change in disability policy by consulting with people with disabilities as part of the policy-making process. In 1996 a report of the Commission on the Status of People with Disabilities – A Strategy for Equality was published. This report recognised the international shift towards a social model of disability. The report acknowledged that people with disabilities have been marginalised within Irish society and have been excluded economically, socially, culturally and politically. Up to this point the Census did not collect data to provide statistics on the level of disability in Ireland and the Commission recommends that the Central Statistics Offices includes these questions as the report states most other European Union countries do. The Commission recognised the United Nations' Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (1993) as a key document for the development and implementation of disability policy. The main principles within this document state that disability is a social issue and equality is the foundation of the human rights approach which has been the adopted perspective. Following recommendations from this report, the National Disability Authority (NDA) Act in 1999, and the National Disability Authority was set up in 2000. The mandate of the NDA is to report to the Department of Equality and Law Reform (currently the Department of Justice and Equality), to engage in disability research and develop relevant statistics, to advise people with disabilities on standards and guidelines and to promote an inclusive society and environment.

The Commission also recommended and supported the founding of a Council for the Status of People with Disabilities and advocated the need for a representative group to ensure that the perspectives of people with disabilities are included and also proposed that the Government provided funding for the Council. This Council became the statutory body, People with Disabilities Ireland (PWDI). Also the Equal Status Act 2000 prohibited discrimination in terms of the delivery of public services including disability and while Power et al (2013) state that this act put Ireland ahead of many other jurisdictions, Pillinger et al (2002) state that the power of the Act does not compare favourable to legislation in Canada, the UK and the USA when it comes to ensuring the public bodies provide accessible public services and buildings for people experiencing disabilities.

According to Power et al. (2013) Ireland is now at the cusp of transformation of its disability service and there is potential for learning from other countries. Up until 2012 specialist disability services were not inspected by a regulatory authority with some having no quality assurance in place (NESC, 2012). However, in the absence of any State involvement others brought in their own quality assurance procedures and have gained international awards for excellence, for example in 2011 Rehab was awarded the European Quality in Social Services Excellence award (EQUASS) for their training services (Rehab, 2011). Since 2013 the Health Information and Quality Authority (HIQA) has initiated State regulation of the disability sector, following amendments in 2009 to the Health Act (2007). Within the disability sector there is widespread acknowledgement that there is a need for change in the current model of service provision (Power et al., 2013). In particular since 2014, when established organisations, including Rehab and the Central Remedial Clinic, came under scrutiny following Governance and salary scandals (Burke-Kennedy et al., 2014; Quinlan et al., 2014).

#### **2.2.4 Attitudes to Disability**

In Ireland, the National Disability Authority (NDA) has carried out research to measure the public attitudes to disability, which have been identified in the ICF as the main barriers or facilitators to the inclusion of people with disabilities into society. This survey was completed in 2001, 2006 and 2011 and assesses various aspects of inclusion which include general attitudes, education, employment, relationships (sexual), neighbourhood, social isolation and state benefits. The area most relevant to the current study is general attitudes. In 2011, 57 percent of participants either agreed or strongly agreed that it is society that creates barriers which disables people. Of the survey respondents 14 percent

reported having a disability and 33 percent of this group agreed that “people with disabilities are treated fairly” compared to 43 percent of respondents without disabilities. Table 2.1 shows the results of the Irish public’s perceptions of disability for each year the survey was carried out. The most commonly perceived disabilities are physical, intellectual and mental health difficulties. In 2011, 61 percent of all respondents believed that people with mental health difficulties cannot participate fully in life. 59 percent hold this view towards people with autism or intellectual disabilities compared to 49 percent who believe this is true for people with physical, visual, hearing or speech disabilities, suggesting less inclusive attitudes towards mental health difficulties and intellectual disabilities.

**Table 2.1. NDA Results Reporting Participants’ Perceptions of Disability**

<b>Illnesses, Conditions or Disabilities the term ‘people with disabilities’ refers to</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2011</b>
	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Physical Disability</b>	80	86	81
<b>Intellectual Disability</b>	48	54	55
<b>Mental Health Difficulty</b>	34	43	52
<b>Hearing Loss/Vision Difficulty</b>	26	39	39
<b>Vision Difficulty</b>	N/A	34	33
<b>Hearing Loss</b>	N/A	26	25
<b>Long term Illness</b>	12	22	21
<b>Frailty in Old Age</b>	N/A	9	16
<b>Addiction</b>	4	7	13
<b>HIV/AIDS</b>	5	5	10
<b>Speech Difficulties</b>	N/A	N/A	23
<b>Alcoholism</b>	N/A	N/A	9

In 2011, 64 percent of participants reported knowing someone with a disability. Table 2.2 shows results for each year the study was carried out and also the relationship the participant has with this person. The results reported a considerable increase in the percentage of participants who knew someone with a disability between 2001 and 2006, going from 48 percent to 71 percent, indicating improved social inclusion. Between 2006 and 2011 there was a slight decline to 64 percent. The NDA did not suggest reasons for

this decline. It is possible that the economic downturn in 2008 impacted these results due to an increased focus on personal concerns during a recession, and also possibly due to more negative portrayal of people with disabilities in the media which was reported in British newspapers (Briant et al., 2011). These researchers evaluated changes in reporting regarding disability between 2005-2006 and 2010-2011 and found that there was a decrease in the number of “sympathetic” stories and an increase in negative terms such as “burden” and “scrounger”. In 2011 the most common type of disability experienced by the people respondents knew was a substantially limiting physical disability (49%), followed by an intellectual disability (28%) and then a psychological or emotional condition (19%). Also those under the age of 35 were significantly less likely to report knowing someone with a disability ( $p < 0.001$ ).

**Table 2.2 Percentage of Participants that Knew Someone with a Disability and the Relationship they Had With this Person**

	<b>2001</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2011</b>
	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Knew Someone with a Disability</b>	48	71	64
<b>The Percentage of Participants Who Had the Following Relationships with Someone with a Disability*</b>			
<b>Other Relative</b>	29	17	18
<b>Friend</b>	36	17	17
<b>Member of Immediate Family</b>	20	20	15
<b>Neighbour</b>	N/A	17	13
<b>Acquaintance</b>	41	16	9
<b>Spouse/Partner</b>	2	3	3
<b>College/Work Contact</b>	6	6	3
<b>Other</b>	N/A	3	2
<b>Not Sure</b>	N/A	4	6
<b>No</b>	N/A	25	30

According to the Contact Theory proposed by Gordon Allport (1954) and supported by Hewstone (2003), contact between groups promotes a positive attitude towards what is referred to as the “out-group” and this interaction also promotes trust in the “out-group”

towards the “in-group”. Allport identified four key conditions for these positive impacts to occur which include equal status between groups, common goals, intergroup cooperation and support of authorities. Antonak (1981) supported this theory showing the factor to have the greatest influence on attitudes towards people with disabilities, was the intensity of contact participants had with people with disabilities. Also in a meta-analytic review of 696 samples, Pettigrew and Tropp (2006) reported that greater intergroup contact is generally linked with reduced prejudice ( $r=-.215$ ) with 94 percent of these samples showing this inverse relationship.

#### *2.2.4.1 Measuring Attitudes to Disability*

There is a scarcity of research assessing the attitudes of the public towards people with disabilities in the USA or in Alaska. However the self-advocating Disability Rights Education and Defence Fund (DREDF) launched a Media and Disability Programme in 2008 to tackle what they describe as deeply ingrained stereotypes, negative attitudes and beliefs associated with disability, suggesting that such attitudes exist. The majority of attitudes to disability studies have been conducted on students. Siperstein et al. (2007) evaluated the attitudes of a sample of 5,837 American high school students from across twelve states towards intellectual disability and also their previous and current level of contact with people with disabilities. They also used a variety of scales that measured capabilities, behaviour intentions and inclusion. In the questionnaire the term mental retardation was used instead of intellectual disability, as the authors claimed that the students would be more familiar with this term. This highlights the gap between mainstream terminologies associated with disability and the use of language associated with emerging disability paradigms. The relevant findings report that less than 20 percent of the students had prior contact with people with intellectual disabilities, and ten percent reported having a current classmate with an intellectual disability. Also, 88 percent of participants believed that students with intellectual disabilities can make friends with students who do not have intellectual disabilities. It was also reported by 88 percent of the participants that students with intellectual disabilities can engage in physical activity with others with such disabilities however, only 54 percent agreed that students with intellectual disabilities, can play on a team with others without intellectual disabilities. There was a similar variation in the impact of inclusion scores. 77 percent of participants agreed that inclusion of students with intellectual disabilities in the classroom would “teach students that being different is ok” and that it would “help students be more

accepting of others” (74 percent). The results also reveal that students are more likely to engage in distant interaction like lending a student with an intellectual disability a pencil (91 percent) or saying hello in the hall (81 percent), yet a lower number of students were likely to choose a student with an intellectual disability to be on their team in Physical Education (PE) (53 percent) or to work on a project (51 percent), indicating integration but not inclusion of people with ID. Participants were even less likely to interact with students with intellectual disabilities outside of school with 35 percent indicating that they would go to the movies with a student with an intellectual disability, or engage in personal conversations (27 percent). Only 10 percent reported having a friend with an intellectual disability.

There were two studies that utilised a version of the Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons scale (ATDP) on leisure and recreation students. Perry et al., (2008) evaluated the attitudes of 269 leisure and recreation students towards people with disabilities using the Attitudes to Disabled Persons –Scale B (ATDP-B). 85 percent of participants reported having previous experience with people with disabilities and their mean score was 115.89. Again females (Mean =119.4) scored significantly higher than males (Mean =111.6,  $p<0.001$ ) and also participants who engaged with people with disabilities weekly had a higher mean score of 121.33 ( $n=51$ ), indicating a more positive attitude, compared to those with daily interaction (Mean = 117.9,  $n=30$ ), monthly interaction (Mean = 112.34,  $n=44$ ) and interaction less than six times a year (Mean = 109.93,  $n=45$ ). Bedini (1992) evaluated the impact of a leisure and recreation programme on student’s ( $n=237$ ) attitudes toward people experiencing disabilities. While this study is older, it used the original version of the ATDP scale, version O. The results show that the students in the leisure and recreation programme scored significantly higher after their programme, which involved a disability awareness intervention which consisted of a range of teaching methods including guest speakers, lectures, research, discussions, simulations and an advocacy project ( $p=0.000$ ). They also scored significantly higher than journalism students who received no disability related education ( $p=0.000$ ).

### **2.2.5 Physical Activity and People with Disabilities**

Physical activity levels are typically lower among people with disabilities (WHO, 2004). The Centres for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) report that in Alaska only 53.3 percent of people with disabilities meet the physical activity requirement and that 16.7 percent of these people are inactive, compared to 10.2 percent of people without



disabilities being inactive. Fentem (1996) reported that the benefits of physical activity for people with disabilities, include facilitating independence, reducing functional limitations, and also preventing and delaying the onset of secondary conditions, such as obesity, cardiovascular conditions and kidney failure. Research has also referred to the social and psychological benefits associated with physical activity. For example Weiss et al. (2003) reported that sports and leisure activities had a significantly positive impact on the physical, mental, social and spiritual health of people with intellectual disabilities.

The benefits of physical activity are widely accepted, yet still people with disabilities continue to be less physically active than the general population as was seen in the CDC results. There is also a discrepancy in the physical activity levels between those with and without disabilities in Ireland, with 35 percent of people with disabilities not engaging in moderate physical activity compared to 10 percent of those without disabilities (Hannon, 2007). People with disabilities experience additional barriers to participation in physical activity than the general population, some of which include physical access, attitudinal and social barriers (Hannon, 2005; Mirfin-Veitch, 2003). Hannon (2005) adds that providing the opportunity for participation in physical activity for people with disabilities, eliminates many of the barriers to inclusion in physical activity that are often experienced.

### **2.3 Introduction to Volunteerism**

This section of the review introduces the main subject of the review, volunteerism. To provide a context, the researcher looks at the differences in the definitions, the history of volunteerism in Ireland, and also the role volunteerism has played in the evolution of disability service provision in Ireland. The chapter then discusses volunteer participation rates, the shift in society and how it has impacted volunteer behaviour. Following the concept of the Volunteer Process Model (Omoto and Snyder, 1995), the author then analyses the literature regarding volunteer's motivations and satisfaction. The final section of the chapter looks at studies of volunteer programme similar to Hope's programme.

#### **2.3.1 Definition of Volunteerism**

Due to the broad scope and international context of the topic, defining the term volunteer has proven to be a challenging exercise and has been the cause for much debate (Anheier and Salamon 1999; Dekker and Halman 2003; Dekker and Van den Broek, 2004; Hadzi-Miceva, 2007; Haski-Leventhaal, 2009; Musick and Wilson, 2008; Smith and Cordery, 2010; United Nations, 2011). Between scholarly definitions and public perceptions of

volunteerism there is not yet an accepted global definition however there are some common themes. In an attempt to systematically compile a definition combining the literature and public perceptions, one of the leading academics in the field and his colleagues, Cnaan et al. (1996) reviewed over three hundred articles and reports of associated literature and identified four common dimensions each of which range on a continuum between broad and purist definitions. These four dimensions include free choice, structure, intended beneficiaries and remuneration

To describe the continuum in terms of free choice Cnaan et al. (1996) used the example of court ordered community service, stating that a broader definition may encompass this type of activity as volunteering, whereas a purist definition would not. Secondly, the structure of the volunteer activity ranges from informal help offered to neighbours and friends to formal service to formal organisations. Thirdly, intended beneficiaries has been defined more loosely to include relatives and the volunteers themselves compared to purist definitions stipulating that the volunteer must be a stranger. The fourth dimension, remuneration was reviewed, with broader definitions allowing for expense reimbursement, stipends and low pay as long as it is less than the value of the service provided while stricter definitions allow for no reward. The provision of stipends, particularly for international volunteer programmes, was supported by some researchers who found that stipends were good practice and can promote participant diversity; volunteer retention programme efficiency and effectiveness; and help reduce attitudes of superiority on behalf of volunteers, which are often prevalent in international volunteering (Moskwiak, 2005; McBride et al., 2009; Pluim and Jorgensen, 2012; UN, 2009).

The definition from the Volunteering Ireland (2004) states that volunteering is

*”the commitment of time and energy, for the benefit of society, local communities, individuals outside the immediate family, the environment or other causes. Voluntary activities are undertaken of a person’s own free will, without payment (except for reimbursement of out-of-pocket expenses)”.*

Even though this definition does not mention the structure dimension it is towards the purist end of the defining scale.

Finding such definitions limiting due to the focus on remuneration instead of on a broader range of rewards, Cnaan et al. (1996) propose the concept of 'net cost' where the total benefits to the volunteer are subtracted from the total cost. According to Cnaan et al. (1996) costs include effort and sacrifice of income and social pleasure, while benefits include tangible rewards for example money, social status and opportunities, possible future gain including skill acquisition, work experience and business networking. Cnaan and Handy (2005) state that the cost of a long-term and time consuming commitment, is much greater than the cost of sporadic or one-time involvement.

Handy et al. (2000) evaluated public perceptions of the concept of volunteerism. Their international study analysed perceptions of over 3,000 participants, divided equally between India, two regions in the USA, Canada, the Netherlands and Italy. Their findings strongly support public perceptions of the 'net cost' theory, an activity more likely to be rated as volunteerism when there was a greater benefit to society and a greater the cost to the volunteer. These findings were consistent across all regions. Both Cnaan et al. (1996) and Handy et al. (2000) state that further research is required to clarify exactly what constitutes a cost and a benefit. Lee and Brudney (2009) also found that when considering volunteerism people are likely to compare the costs and benefits before making a commitment and that these perceived costs and benefits can differ depending on the volunteer activity, the type of organisation and the volunteer profile.

### **2.3.2 History and Culture of Volunteerism in Ireland**

Despite the lack of a consistent international definition of volunteerism, the previous section suggests that volunteerism is an international phenomenon. In Ireland volunteerism is deeply entrenched within the culture and can be seen throughout Irish history (Donoghue, 2001; GHK Holdings Limited, 2010; Tarrant Condron, 2012; Volunteering Ireland, 2009; Prizeman et al., 2010; Van Hout et al., 2011). What is now described as volunteering was also carried out in other forms in Irish society, such as 'meitheal' and 'cooring'. Meitheal is the cooperation of local rural communities to complete agricultural work, like harvesting crops and footing turf (Donoghue, 2001; Tarrant Condron, 2012) and references of this form of social solidarity are recorded in the Brehon Laws, as far back as the fifth century (O'Dowd, 1981). Cooring, is a similar concept and the term is derived from the word 'comhair' meaning 'to help' or 'to cooperate' (Prizeman et al., 2010, p19). The Christian tradition has ingrained the concept of caritas in the Irish culture, which involves service for the good of others, due to the

provision of health, education, welfare and social supports on behalf of the Catholic and Protestant churches (GHK, 2010; Prizeman et al. 2010). In particular, following the Catholic Emancipation Act (1829) when religious orders entered the voluntary arena in greater force and numbers. This was strengthened in 1931 when the Catholic Church released a doctrine which Power et al. (2013) summarise as the Church forbidding the state involvement in the provision of social services or functions within the family, further indoctrinating the tradition of self-help within the family and the community (GHK, 2010).

### ***2.3.2.1 Volunteerism and Disability Service Provision***

The doctrine released by the Roman Catholic Church led to the state handing over control of residential institutions to the Church in the 1950s, which were responsible for the provision of intellectual disability services (Sweeney, 2010). At this point in Irish history we can see the development of a distinct connection between the provision of disability services and volunteerism in Ireland, as voluntary ‘parents and friends organisations’ became involved in the advocating for the equality, inclusion within society, and service provision for people with disabilities, mirroring such international trends (Donnelly-Cox and O’Regan, 1999; Power et al., 2013; Prizeman et al. 2010). An example is the Dublin Association of Parents and Friends of Mentally Handicapped Children which spurred the establishment of St Michael’s House, the first provider of day care services for children experiencing intellectual disabilities (Power, 2013). The role of the medical profession is also evident in the example of Cerebral Palsy Ireland (now Enable Ireland), which was set up in 1948 by Dr Robert Collis. The doctor recognised a gap in services and set up an assessment clinic at the Children’s Hospital in Dublin. Services at this clinic were provided by volunteers. This development led to the foundation of the National Association of Cerebral Palsy in 1951 which worked in conjunction with the State. The expansion of this organisation is attributed to the advocacy and voluntary support of friends and families of children experiencing Cerebral Palsy (Enable Ireland, 2009). Power et al. (2013) add that while voluntary organisations introduced international concepts by creating community based services, the institutions run by the Church made no move to deinstitutionalise. This indicates the important role volunteerism played in the provision of disability services in Ireland.

As mentioned earlier in section 2.2.2, in 1970 the State became more involved in the delivery of social and economic welfare services after the Catholic Church reversed its stance and began to advocate for such involvement in 1965. Even so, the voluntary sector remained the leader in community based disability services, and ‘parents and friends associations’ began to create links with the residential institutions throughout the country, complementing and providing alternatives to State services (GHK, 2010; Power, 2013; White Paper, 2000). According to Donoghue (1998) such strong involvement on behalf of voluntary organisations highlights the ineffectiveness of the provision of services by the State however, Haski-Leventhaal et al., (2009) report that such relations and complementarity between non-profit or voluntary organisations and governments are common, where both entities share a similar goal, but engage in different strategies. The recent economic downturn has increased the reliance on voluntary services due to the reduction in the size of the workforce within the Community and Voluntary sectors (Harvey, 2012).

#### **2.3.2.2 The ‘Wider Picture’ in Ireland**

Another role volunteerism played in Irish society was in the Gaelic revival movements via the Gaelic Athletic Association (GAA), Muintir na Tire, and Conradh na Gaeilge, even further strengthening the link between volunteerism, solidarity and the Irish culture (Donoghue, 2001, Tarrant Condron, 2012; GHK, 2010). Despite such strong volunteer involvement within Irish culture and the provision of social services, there is no national strategy for volunteering in Ireland, however there are some key policy documents including the ‘*White Paper: Supporting Voluntary Action*’ (2000) which highlights the interrelationship between the Community and Voluntary sectors, stating that many organisations belong in both sectors. On an international level, 2001 was the United Nation’s ‘*International Year of the Volunteer*’. In the same year, Volunteer Centres Ireland (now Volunteer Ireland) was set up to provide a service of matching potential volunteers with organisations and also began advocating for a national volunteer infrastructure. Other policy documents include ‘*Tipping the Balance*’ (2002); the Joint Oireachtas report on ‘*Volunteers and Volunteering in Ireland*’ (2005); the ‘*Towards 2016*’ (2006); the ‘*Active Citizenship Report*’ (2007); and the ‘*Policy to Support Volunteer Centres*’ (2009). One of the most significant policies to follow the White Paper (2000) was the ‘*Social Partnership Agreement: Towards 2016*’ which recommends

collaboration between the State and the Community and Voluntary sectors which became the responsibility of the Department of Community, Rural and Gaeltacht Affairs (now the Department of Environment, Community and Local Government). Recommendations include the provision of funding, policy and government commitment, including the appointment of voluntary action units within the relevant departments along with formal recognition of voluntary participation and contributions.

### **2.3.3 Volunteer Statistics**

This section of the review provides volunteer statistics for both the USA and Ireland. Both countries have been included to provide a context for the readers in Alaska and in Ireland as the volunteer programme is based in the USA and the majority of volunteers are from Ireland. A limitation is that these statistics cannot be accurately compared, due to the differences of definitions, methodologies and sample sizes across both countries (Anheier and Salamon, 1999; Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2000; ILO, 2011; Musick and Wilson, 2008; UN, 2011). An example of such inconsistencies can be seen in the European Commission report on Volunteering in the European Union (2010) which showed the rate of volunteerism in Hungary to be 5.5 percent in 2007, and at 40 percent in 2005, the former statistic includes only formal volunteering while the latter includes both formal and informal volunteering. These inconsistencies are widely acknowledged and in collaboration with the United Nations and the John Hopkins University Center for Civil Society Studies, Maryland, USA, the International Labour Organisation has published detailed guidelines for the collection of volunteer data in the *Manual on the Measurement of Volunteer Work*. When utilised internationally, these guidelines will create comparative cross-national data. The manual has set guidelines which show countries how to supplement existing household surveys and gather volunteer data which is cross-nationally comparable while facilitating the estimation of the economic impact of volunteer activity (ILO, 2011). Another statistical issue is that response rates are often biased as people who choose to complete surveys are more likely to be volunteers (Wilson, 2012).

#### **2.3.3.1 Volunteer Statistics - USA**

The US Department of Labor (2013) provides statistics on volunteerism in the USA defining volunteering as offering unpaid work (except for expenses) through or for an organisation. The department reported that 23.2 percent of men (27,238) and 29.5 percent

of women (37,274) reported that they had volunteered at least once between September 2012 and September 2013. The age group with the highest level of volunteer activity was 45 to 54 year olds (12.8 million) while 20 to 24 year olds had the lowest representation (4.1 million). It was reported that 27 percent of volunteers provided between 100 and 499 hours of voluntary service, 25 percent served between 15 and 49 hours and 22 percent volunteered for between 1 and 14 hours. This latter group most likely represent episodic volunteers (Hustinx et al., 2008). These results show that participants with higher levels of education are more likely to volunteer. For example, among participants over 25 years of age, college graduates accounted for 42.2 percent of volunteers compared to 17.3 percent of high school graduates while only 8.8 percent of participants who had less than a high school diploma volunteered. Married people are more likely to volunteer (31.9%) compared to those that had never married (20.7%) while 33.5 percent of the population with children under 18 years volunteer compared to 23.8 percent without children.

#### *2.3.3.2 Volunteer Statistics - Ireland*

The Irish Central Statistics Office included a question on voluntary activity in the Census for the first time in 2006, asking the population to report their voluntary activity within the previous four weeks. Similar to the US statistics, the 2006 census reported that the age category with the greatest number of volunteers were the 45 to 54 year olds (118,589 - 22.7% of this population), and the age category with the least amount of volunteers were the 20-24 year olds (35,730 – 10.4% of this population). It is important to note that the data from both countries is only loosely comparable due to the inconsistency between definitions, and also because the USA data did not provide percentages according to each age category. Of the entire population 16.4 percent reported volunteering, including 275,013 male volunteers (16.4%) compared to 278,242 female volunteers (16.6%). While this national survey did not report volunteer rates according to education it did report according to profession, and was thus used to indicate socio-economic status. From this it is clear to see employers, managers, ‘upper’ and ‘lower’ professionals volunteered most, with a higher number of ‘lower’ professionals volunteering (25.6%). Those that volunteered least were unskilled workers (9.4%). The type of activity the greatest amount of volunteers participated in was with a social or charitable organisation (27.4%); followed by those involved with a sporting organisation (25.7%); and a religious group or church (20.4%). This report does not mention the amount of time invested by volunteers.

In an email to the author (Sept, 2013) Halpin reported that in 2011 the volunteer question was removed from the Census after consultation from the Census Advisory Group (CAG), which consisted of a range of experts from academia, research bodies and government departments, on the rationale that the Quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS) would be a more appropriate source of volunteer data. At the time this literature review was undertaken, current volunteer statistics were not available. While the Census (2006) offered data on the entire population of Ireland, the Eurobarometer (2012) reported more current volunteer statistics from a sample population over 15 years of age. It was reported that 32 percent of Irish participants “*currently have a voluntary activity on a regular or occasional basis*”. The greatest number of Irish volunteers were likely to be involved in sport or outdoor activities (37%), while 30 percent of the participants perceived that volunteering played the most important role in education, followed by sport (26%), active aging (25%) and health care (24%). These findings are not surprising considering the involvement of volunteerism within the Gaelic Athletics Association and also within the provision of social services in Ireland, as reviewed in the history of volunteerism in Ireland in section 2.3.2.

#### **2.3.3.3 Youth Statistics**

Due to the short and recent span of volunteer data collection, it is not clear whether the low rates of young adult participation in volunteerism are a product of the social zeitgeist mentioned earlier or whether young adults have consistently had lower participation rates throughout history. Volunteering among young adults and students in particular, is imperative as they become future leaders and impact society of the future while also impacting the service recipients, the educational institutes and wider community (Haski-Leventhaal et al., 2008; Haski-Leventhaal et al., 2009). Other research does show that even though parents and those in full-time work are more likely to volunteer, younger adults who are transitioning through life stages, parenthood and full-time work, were less likely to volunteer (Oesterle et al., 2004).

#### **2.3.4 A Shift in Society**

Many scholars have reported a shift in society within the past 25 years, described as a sociological evolution from “simple” or “classical” modernisation, to “late” or “reflexive” modernisation (Beck 1992; Castells, 2000; Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2003). This evolution has occurred in concurrence with a combination of a technological revolution, informationalism and the emergence of a new social structure. These three



distinct yet inter-woven processes, all lead to increased income; improvements in education; technological advances leading to instantaneous global communication; and more accessible and affordable transport (Castells, 2004). One of the leading sociologists described this evolution as “*a new modernity coming into being*”, a phenomenon that previously occurred when the industrial society evolved from the feudal society (Beck, 1992, p10). The structures and institutions, for example religion, family and schools, which emerged to guide and support society in the initial phase of modernisation now have less control over the population, which has moved into the autonomous phase of individualisation. The relationship between these social structures and members of society has changed, as individuals are breaking free from the constraints of society and are freely creating new identities. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2000) state that the higher the level of education and income, the greater the level of individual freedom. This newly found freedom has been cited to have a flip-side of individual insecurity, vulnerability and high risk (Beck and Beck-Gernsheim, 1996). Scholars have reported that personal development associated with volunteerism, low commitment and providing a safe environment to try out various life experiences all empower youth with the opportunity and skills to handle this freedom more successfully (Anheier and Salamon, 2001, Dekker and Van den Broek, 2004; Hustinx, 2001).

#### *2.3.4.1 The Impact of the Societal Shift on Volunteerism*

A feature of this societal shift is a “destandardization of labor” where employment norms transition from “lifetime employment” consisting of lifelong, full-time contracts to shorter and more flexible, individual contracts, referred to as “lifetime employability” (Forrier and Sels, 2003, p103). Trends in volunteerism reflect this shift. Many academics have noted the emergence of a new volunteer ethos as the meaning, roles and patterns change, which mirrors the socio-cultural shift (Anheier and Salamon, 2001; Glasrud, 2007; Haski-Leventhaal et al., 2010; Hustinx, 2001; Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2000; Lockstone-Binney et al., 2010; Rommel et al., 1997). The behaviour and attitudes of volunteers have moved from what had been described as altruistic to reciprocal. The altruistic approach to volunteerism involves caring motives where altruism and generosity are core values of the volunteer. This approach is reported to be in alignment with traditional sociological values which were predominant before the emergence of individualisation. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2000) reported that this type of voluntary

action which is based on complete devotion and self-abandonment to the organisation is less attractive to members of modern society who are more likely to choose commitments that offer a range of experiences, and provide opportunities for personal development (these trends will be discussed in further detail in later in the chapter 2.3.6).

### **2.3.5 Volunteerism and Social Capital**

Social capital is described as the “glue” that holds society together (National Committee on Volunteering, NCV, 2002, p97) and is defined by Putnam (2000, p 19) as “*social networks and norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them*”. It promotes attitudes associated with the collective rather than the individual through collaboration and coordination (Putnam, 1995, p 67). Putnam (2000) further categorises social capital into “*bonding*” and “*bridging*” categories stating that they are both important, but very different. The bonding category relates to social capital within familiar networks including families, friends and local communities, and bridging social capital refers to the creation of new and diverse networks and relationships. International social capital could be classified as the latter type of social capital and McBride et al. (2010) found that long-term international volunteering positively impacted international social capital. Other researchers reported that this form of social capital was used to develop humanitarian projects, internships and gain employment (Lough et al., 2009; Thomas, 2001; Hudson and Inkson, 2006).

It is widely accepted that volunteering is a central factor in social capital (Donoghue, 2001; Haski-Leventhaal et al., 2009; Musick and Wilson, 1997; NCV, 2002; Putnam, 2000; Van Hout et al., 2011). Anheier and Salamon (2001) state that governments perceive volunteerism as the “social glue” that holds modern society together indicating a connection between social capital and volunteerism as social capital is similarly described as ‘social glue’. This is evident in the Irish Government’s White Paper (2000) in which a range of practical measures were recommended to strengthen the relationship between the Voluntary and the Community sectors which often interrelated, as was reviewed in section 2.3.2. Musick and Wilson (1997) also point out the connection between social capital and volunteering with their findings that people who frequently engage with others, even informally, are more likely to volunteer than those who do not.

Haski-Leventhaal et al. (2008) claim that youth volunteerism can help overcome declining social capital, while Boeck et al. (2009) found that social capital was enhanced in younger people who moved away from their originating community and interacted with new people, as this broadened their understanding of diversity by bridging new relationships. Other researchers implicate the positive impact of sports volunteering and the associated social interactions that provide young people with a combination of “bonding” and “bridging” social capital, as these volunteers typically served within their local community, yet their voluntary service led to leadership roles which involved expanding networks of younger children, and often people with disabilities (Nicholson and Hoye, 2008, p 311). In contrast to Putnam (2000), these researchers suggest that “bonding” and “bridging” social capital can be intrinsically connected across contexts and networks.

### **2.3.6 Types of Volunteerism**

Rommel et al (1997; translated in Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2000) reviewed the relevant literature, and created an analytical framework to describe the differences between the more traditional and the more modern type of volunteerism, defining them as “*classic*” and “*new*”. This framework classifies both types of volunteerism within six dimensions which are culture; choice of organisation; choice of field action; choice of activity; length and intensity of commitment; and relationship with beneficiary. Each of these dimensions are described according to both classic and new types of volunteerism:

Culture - The classic culture of volunteerism is described as having fixed identities associated with traditional cultural norms, gender, social class and religion, all affecting volunteering. This is compared to the new culture of individualisation and autonomy where volunteer options are consciously considered before any voluntary commitment is made.

Choice of Organisation - The dimension of organisation choice contrasts between loyal and eager volunteers who choose a voluntary organisation due to a cultural identification and are willing to follow leadership within a hierarchical structure. This contrasts with the consumer type volunteers, who are loyal to a cause as opposed to an organisation, and prefer a more horizontal and decentralised organisational structure.

Choice of Field Action – This aspect of volunteerism differentiates between the classical volunteers who are driven by traditional cultural norms and are more likely to choose volunteer activities associated with religion and education. Whereas “new” volunteers are more likely to choose according to personal experiences and issues involving modern, topical and global issues often influenced by the media.

Choice of Activity - Again “classic” volunteers choose activities influenced by traditional roles, with women usually assisting and men usually managing. “New” volunteer’s activity choices seem to stem from personal interests and capacities, and allow for personal control and creativity.

Length and Intensity of Commitment – The volunteers defined as “classic” are most likely to create an unconditional allegiance with one particular organisation and indefinitely offer long-term service. The type of volunteers described as ‘new’ generally choose short, episodic projects serving a variety of organisations while maintaining flexibility and autonomy throughout the process. This type of volunteer behaviour is generally due to a variety of external factors including time constraints and other practical limitations (Hustinx, 1998).

Relationship with Beneficiary – ‘classic’ volunteers generally devote themselves altruistically to the voluntary organisation without expectation of anything in return. In comparison, “new” volunteers combine solidarity and a personal quest for fulfilment and identity. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2000) encourage the reconsideration of altruism and egoism as a dynamic continuum, which can strengthen and enrich each other, and where volunteers may adopt any position between pure altruism and pure egotism.

Other researchers report that the identified theoretical distinction of volunteers will neither be completely “classic” or “new” in practice but will be a dynamic interaction of characteristics of both (Eckstein, 2001; Hustinx, 2001; Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2002; 2003; Anheier and Salamon, 2001). Hustinx and Lammertyn (2000) describe this combination of “classical” and “new” styles of volunteering as “reflexive” and state that both styles of volunteering have naturally merged, strengthening and enriching each other. Beck (1992) associates egoism and economic imperialism with individualism stating that when economic thinking extends itself to domains of life which were

previously separate, economics becomes the reference point and the fragile phenomenon of altruism becomes less possible. In turn equating the socio-cultural process of individualisation often associated with egoism as a threat to social solidarity. Other researchers perceive that individualism can have a positive impact, for example, Realo and Allik (2009) claim that true individualism strengthens social solidarity as people realise that goals are best attained collectively. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2000; 2001) also defend individualisation and disagree that it is a threat to volunteering. They have found that while young volunteers do fit into the “new” volunteer category, they also have a strong sense of solidarity, a genuine commitment to their voluntary activity, along with a personal identification with the mission of the organisations they volunteer with. Dekker and Van den Broek (2004) state that while the relationship between “new” volunteers and volunteer organisations may be more superficial than “classic” volunteers, these looser ties make volunteering more open to strangers and bridges groups, cultures, lifestyles and ideologies where this may not have been possible previously. “New” volunteerism has opened up new avenues of volunteering, including episodic volunteering; international volunteering or ‘voluntourism’; corporate volunteering; and virtual or e-volunteering, some of which will be reviewed in the following sections (Hustinx, 2001; Weller, 2008).

#### *2.3.6.1 Young Adults and Volunteering*

The ‘new’ style of volunteering is mostly carried out by younger volunteers, for example Hustinx and Lammertyn (2000) state that young adults used volunteering as an opportunity to try “risky” life experiences before committing to life choices. O’Connor (2011) also reported that volunteering was a very personal decision for young Irish volunteers and was often driven by the field in which they would be volunteering and also the experience of working and socialising with others. It is also possible that these styles of volunteerism have evolved to adapt to the availability of younger volunteers, as younger adults transitioning through life stages, including marriage, parenthood and full-time employment, were less likely to volunteer (Oesterle et al., 2004). Volunteer statistics have shown that older groups of the population that have already transitioned into these life phases were more likely to volunteer. The types of volunteerism that are most similar to the international volunteer programme at Hope Community Resources are episodic, and international volunteering and will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

### *2.3.6.2 Episodic Volunteering*

Nancy MacDuff first identified the concept of episodic volunteering in 1991, when she noticed that volunteers were choosing short-term volunteer activities instead of traditional, longer-term activities. MacDuff later described the concept as separate, loosely connected voluntary episodes, that are temporary and limited in duration (2004). The episodic trend has been growing (Bryan and Madden, 2006; Hustinx et al., 2008) and has even been reported as the largest shift in volunteering (Styers, 2004). In 2004 MacDuff added detail to the distinction of episodic volunteers when she identified three main types: temporary, which describes a one-time service; interim, which describes regular service that lasts less than six months; and occasional which describes regular and short periods of volunteering for example at activities, events or projects.

MacDuff (2004) recommended that volunteer programmes should include both long-term and episodic volunteers, offering parallel services. Justification for this recommendation was explained by MacDuff in 2008, when she reported that short-term volunteer activity encourages others to volunteer, while long-term volunteers provide programme stability. She added that episodic volunteers add “nourishment” to the programme with new opinions and ideas. As well as the direct service being provided, Handy and Brudney (2007) state that episodic volunteering serves by building “civil society” within communities and while labour productivity may be lower due to the short length of service, efficient coordination and management along with clearly defined roles can help overcome this discrepancy.

Bryan and Madden (2006) state that the phenomenon of episodic volunteering is not new, as communities have come together to volunteer on short-term projects for centuries, for example in Ireland the concepts of ‘meitheal’ and ‘coiring’, where neighbours helped each other with farm activities and in times of need. What these scholars state is new is the documentation of episodic volunteering, as until recently only formal volunteer activities were accounted for. The literature suggests that this short-term voluntary behaviour is now spreading to formal volunteer activities, most likely as a result of individualisation and globalisation. Bryan and Madden (2006) also state that episodic volunteering can and does encompass both ‘classic’ and ‘new’ volunteering. This latter statement is supported by other researchers who emphasize that episodic volunteerism is not a distinct category, adding that it actually broadens the styles of volunteering (Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2003; Hustinx et al., 2008). Once again there is a lack of clarity on the

topic of volunteerism as Haski-Leventhaal (2008) found that the activities and programmes carried out by episodic and regular volunteers were completely separate from each other (n=258). They reported that activities were specifically designed to suit the level of involvement of each group, with the episodic volunteers who had been serving for an average of three years, carrying out ad-hoc activities which required less commitment, while the regular volunteers performed those requiring training, skills and higher levels of responsibility.

There have been some attempts to quantify the scope of episodic volunteer activity, for example, based on data from the Independent Sector in the USA, Brudney (2005) found that 31 percent of all volunteers could be defined as episodic. In the UK Low et al. (2007) found one-third of current volunteers had volunteered on an occasional basis (i.e., less frequently than once a month) in the past twelve months, and seven percent had participated in a one-time activity (Low et al., 2007). MacDuff refers to the lack of valid and reliable research on episodic volunteering and states the importance of understanding this growing aspect of modern volunteering, as enabling both sides of the volunteer partnership to be more effective and in turn increasing the likelihood of episodic volunteers becoming long-term volunteers.

### **2.3.7 International Volunteering**

Another new type of volunteering is international youth volunteering, which has become increasingly popular since the 1960s (Hill and Russell, 2009; Lee, 2011; Machin, 2008), with an acceleration in popularity in the twenty first century with the increase in student gap years. Unfortunately there is a scarcity of research evaluating the impacts of these programmes (Conran, 2011; McBride et al. 2012; Sherraden et al., 2008; Sherraden, et al., 2006). The concept of volunteer tourism or 'voluntourism' has also emerged and increased in popularity. Volunteers tourists typically pay to participate in programmes that combine adventure and volunteerism and include various elements of adventure, civic service, personal growth and group interaction, which provides lifelong learning and transformative learning (Conran, 2011; Plum and Jorgenson, 2012; Raymond and Hall, 2008). Tomazos and Butler (2009) found over 300 volunteer tourism organisations across 150 countries. Four categories of volunteer tourism were identified by Coghlan (2008), which include community holiday expeditions; holiday conservation expeditions; research conservation expeditions; and adventure expeditions. Until the emergence of

‘voluntourism’, the majority of international volunteer programmes provided developmental aid. These programmes received criticism from many researchers who highlight the importance of humility, a commitment to learning and working closely with indigenous populations to promote fair, equitable and holistic experiences for both volunteers and the recipients by ensuring that ethics, close relationships between both parties and nature are at the core of the experience stating that these characteristics were not always present (Conran, 2011; Plum and Jorgenson, 2012; Rockliffe, 2006; Smith and Laurie, 2011). These researchers state that these qualities avert inferior-superior relationships and the uni-directional sharing of people, ideas and benefits associated with colonialism. Others criticise some sending organisations for often creating volunteer opportunities according to the needs of the volunteers rather than the local communities and also for failing to create an educational experience for the volunteers (Hill and Russell, 2011). Rockliffe (2006 p37) also advocates for the conscious use of language giving the example “*to build active global citizenship*” which reinforces equity compared to “*development workers for building the capacity of partners*” which sustains an attitude of superiority. Other researchers add that it is imperative that such programmes are carefully designed and managed while considering the complex nature of development politics and also provide consciousness raising experiences and training to ensure that the impact is positive (Conran, 2011; McGehee and Santos, 2005; Raymond and Hall, 2008).

Sherraden et al. (2008) reviewed the literature and agree that while the older paradigm of international volunteering can promote colonialism and paternalism, the new paradigm of more conscious volunteering can create a wide range of benefits some of which support global social capital. Other benefits include an increase in international social networks and solidarity, increased democratic participation in international affairs; cross-cultural competency and communication skills; international understanding and collaboration. Another review by Machin (2008) on returned volunteers in the UK, categorised the impacts into promoting social cohesion and global awareness; improving civic participation; developing personal and professional skills; and impacting employment and career progression.

#### ***2.3.7.1 Impact on the Volunteers***

The majority of research on international volunteer programmes has studied the impact on the volunteers themselves. Reported impacts include an increase in volunteer’s intercultural competence; interest in international affairs; interpersonal communication



skills and self-efficacy (Yashima, 2010); intercultural understanding (Conran, 2011); international awareness, social capital and international career intentions (McBride et al. 2010; 2012) while affording rich learning environments providing global management skills (Fee and Gray, 2011). The latter researchers add that international volunteer programmes can provide an optimal reciprocal environment for building the capacity of the volunteers while making a valuable, and valued, contribution internationally.

#### *2.3.7.2 The Impact of International Volunteering on Volunteer's Careers*

Some researchers specifically evaluated the impact of international volunteer service on volunteer's careers. One of the most relevant studies was carried out by Cook and Jackson (2006), who found that eighty percent of returning international volunteers (n=516) reported an increase in self-efficacy. Eighty percent also claimed to have gained skills they would not have gained without leaving the UK. The most frequently gained skill was "working with different cultures" (92 %), followed by "communication" (74 %) and "problem-solving" (57 %). In terms of reactions from perspective employers regarding their overseas experience, more than half of participants (51%) reported a "generally positive" reaction. Eighteen percent reported "mixed reactions" and 13 percent report "no specific reaction". Only five percent reported difficulty finding employment upon return and 68 percent had gained employment within three months of returning to the UK. The latter findings suggest that the attitudes of managers and human resource staff have improved over time, as an older study found that all participants (n=30) had found it difficult to obtain work after international voluntary service (Thomas, 2001). Further evaluation found that volunteers who had the most positive experiences on return to the workforce, were those whose motives to volunteer were career driven and who used the experience as a career strategy to gain new skills, attitudes or mind-sets.

The main benefits gained from all volunteer's overseas experiences were improved higher order skills and work methods. These skills included global awareness, adaptability, interpersonal skills, handling responsibility, stress management, self-assurance, problem solving, exchanging skills, strategic thinking and a sense of humour. The skills rated most transferrable to the workplace were handling responsibility, stress management, self-assurance and problem solving. Volunteers reported being more conscious when choosing their workplace, considering the working culture of the prospective workplace, as well as the social and environmental attitude, looking for more "forward-thinking" and imaginative employers (Cook and Jackson, 2006; Lough et al., 2009; Thomas, 2001).

These attitudes are more in line with the “new” style of volunteerism proposed by Rommel, Obdebeeck and Lammertyn (1997; translated in Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2000) mentioned earlier in the literature review.

### **2.3.9 Motivation to Volunteer**

The largest body of volunteerism literature has focused on the motivations of volunteers especially as many researchers strive to discover why so many people give freely of their time. This section begins by discussing how volunteerism fits within the leisure literature and how this placement brings up the altruism versus egoism debate. The author then goes on to review the different academic perspectives, and also how motivations are measured.

#### ***2.3.9.1 Altruism - Egoism Debate***

Stebbins (2007) categorised leisure as serious, casual and project-based, and states that volunteering is a type of leisure activity that can be carried out within each type of leisure activity. Serious leisure is described as regular engagement in an activity that allows the individual to express their knowledge, skills and experience in pursuit of a fulfilling career. Casual leisure is defined as a short-lived, intrinsically rewarding experience that requires little training. Project based leisure is defined as short-term or occasional involvement in an activity that is reasonably complicated and requires creativity. The altruism-egoism debate arises as Stebbins (1996) and other researchers assume that all volunteers have egoistic motives as they expect to benefit in some way (Finkelstein, 2009; Antoni, 2009). As discussed earlier, some of the leading researchers in the field of volunteerism, Hustinx and Lammertyn (2000), have classified two essential types, ‘classic’ and ‘new’. These authors identified classic volunteering with more altruistic motives and ‘new’ volunteering with more reciprocal or egoistic motives. More importantly these researchers recommend that these motives are conceptualised to exist on a dynamic continuum where either type of volunteering can be positioned at any point of the scale between egoism and altruism, rather than being seen as contrasting or conflicting motives. The egoism debate is supported by the findings of Hustinx (2001), who reported that most youth stated that their volunteer experience was not altruistic as they were aware that volunteering had to benefit them in some way and that true altruism could not exist, and implies that voluntary action is ‘reciprocal’ or ‘instrumental’. These types of volunteerism are done for personal gain, freely investing time to receive

associated benefits, for example, qualifications and personal satisfaction (Anheier and Salamon, 2001; Barker 1993).

#### *2.3.9.2 Sociological versus Psychological Perspectives*

The literature review also identified a lack of congruence regarding volunteer's motivations between the disciplinary perspectives of sociology and social psychology, again highlighting a lack of congruence in the field of volunteerism (Handy and Hustinx, 2009). Sociologists claim that motives do not precede the action of volunteering but are applied and evolve during the process as a means to make sense of the action and may be associated with benefits, rather than motives (Musick and Wilson, 2007). Musick and Wilson (2008) state that social psychologists believe that there are infinite reasons for such service. For example, Batson et al. (2002) claim that volunteer motives are fluctuating states of mind that depend upon the volunteer's circumstances. Others claim that it is not possible to identify clear and finite motives for volunteering, due to the ever evolving nature and trends of the topic (Handy and Hustinx, 2009). This contrasts with the perspective of social psychologists who claim that volunteers have particular personality traits combined with specific motivations founded in basic psychological needs (Omoto and Snyder, 1995; Clary and Snyder, 1998). Both disciplines do agree that the same action may have different motives (Batson et al., 2002; Musick and Wilson, 2008). Despite this lack of ambiguity regarding volunteer's motivations, there has been a vast amount of research evaluating why so many people spend so much of their leisure time volunteering. Most of which uses a functional approach which has been described as the most successful strategy for identifying the motivations associated with voluntary service and behaviour (Papadakis et al., 2004).

#### *2.3.9.3 The Volunteer Process Model*

Omoto and Snyder (1995) conceptualised the Volunteer Process Model (VPM) which is a framework informed by psychological research and theories, and is the most well-known model in this area (Davila, 2009, MacNeela, 2004; Moskell et al., 2010). It identifies three interactive and sequential stages that unfold over time, which are antecedents; experiences; and consequences. The antecedents stage looks at subjective dispositions, a term used by sociologists (Musick and Wilson, 2008; Moen, 1997), referring to how people interpret themselves and the world around them. In the VPM these include motivations, personalities and characteristics of volunteers which are most likely to predict who will volunteer and who is most likely to be a successful and satisfied

volunteer. The experiences stage evaluates the behavioural and psychological dimensions of the relationships between the volunteers and the recipients of their service. This stage particularly looks at the aspects that support volunteer retention, which include satisfaction and organisational integration. The consequence stage explores the impact of the service on volunteer's knowledge and attitudes to the group they are serving, and also their intent to remain in voluntary service.

On a sample of volunteers providing service to people with AIDS, Omoto and Snyder (1995) found that both motivations and satisfaction had a positive impact on their length of service and attitude change. They also found that a higher level of satisfaction positively influenced duration of service. Further evaluation revealed that volunteer's motivations did not influence their satisfaction or integration, but did find that two particular motives, Understanding and Personal Development, significantly predicted volunteer's duration of service. The results also showed that Values, Community Concern, Esteem Enhancement and Understanding motivations all significantly influenced perceived attitude change while Personal Development did not. The next section will review literature that has used this approach to evaluate volunteer motives, as the finite number of reasons associated with this approach allows for quantification and also implies the importance of linking benefits with motivations (Houle et al., 2005).

#### *2.3.9.4 Measuring Motives*

There are many quantitative instruments for assessing volunteer's motivations, as discussed in detail in the methodology chapter. The VPM used the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) which was designed by Clary and Snyder, 1995). They identified six groups of functions, or motivations, that may be satisfied by voluntary service. The VFI is the leading and most sophisticated psychological theory and instrument, used to measure why people volunteer (Esmond and Dunlop, 2004; Handy and Hustinx, 2009, Musick and Wilson, 2008). The theory uses a functional approach, assuming that the act of volunteering satisfies important psychological functions and consists of a finite number of motivations. The VFI is a multifactor model and makes several assumptions, which state that volunteers serve in order to fulfil personal goals; that volunteers carrying out a similar service may have different motives; volunteers can have more than one motive and that successful recruitment, volunteer satisfaction and retention are associated with volunteer's motives being satisfied. The functions identified within the VFI are Protective, Values, Social, Career, Understanding and Enhancement. The Protective

function, sometimes referred to as Ego Protective, includes functions associated with dealing with personal conflicts and reducing negatively perceived feelings. An example item is “*by volunteering, I feel less lonely*”. Values functions are met when a volunteer’s motive is to act on personal values like helping those in need, humanitarianism and altruism. A sample items is “*I feel it is important to help others*”. Social functions are related to strengthening the volunteer’s social relationships, for example “*others with whom I am close, place a high value on community service*”. The Career function is associated with gaining work experience. An included item is “*I can make new contacts that might help my business career*”. The understanding function allows the volunteer to learn more about the world and to utilise skills that are not often used. An example item is “*Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things*”. The enhancement function involves the volunteer’s personal growth and psychological development and is represented by items including “*I can explore my own strengths*”.

Even though the VFI was designed by social psychologists, the instrument is also supported by sociologists, including Musick and Wilson (2008), who report that it has been linked to actual volunteer behaviour. The VFI allows each motive to be rated equally avoiding the problem of ranking one motive against another as one action may satisfy many needs (Wilson and Musick, 2008), including aspects associated with both altruistic and egoistic needs (Papadakis et al., 2004). While the VFI is supported by researchers from both the psychological and sociological fields, like any measuring instrument it has received criticisms. Handy and Hustinx (2009) state that the Values function, which questions whether the cause for which the volunteers are serving is important to them or whether it is important to the volunteer to help others, is indisputable and obvious adding that volunteers would hardly volunteer for any other reason. Clary et al. (1996) support this criticism and add that the other motivations are likely to guide the volunteer’s choice of voluntary service, for example human service volunteers were most likely to have motivations associated with the understanding function ( $r=+.510$ ,  $p<.05$ ) compared to a protective motivation ( $r=+.007$ ,  $p<.05$ ). Another issue is the finite number of motivations due to the evolving nature of volunteerism which includes new trends for example international, episodic or virtual volunteering which may not have been considered when the VFI was designed. These criticisms, along with the lack of qualitative methods to measure the ever-changing phenomenon of volunteerism suggest that qualitative methods should be utilised along with quantitative measures, in particular when evaluating

emerging types of volunteerism to ensure the entire scope of volunteer's motives are captured as quantitative methods can be too simplistic (Handy and Hustinx, 2009; Lockstone-Binney, 2010).

#### *2.3.9.5 Studies that used the Volunteer Function Inventory*

An Irish study that used the VFI (n=444) looked at six social service organisations (MacNeela, 2004). Even though the mean age of this sample is older than Hope's volunteers (Mean=43 years), this sample is comparable to Hope's volunteers due to the similarity of service provision and also due to the common nationality. The VFI function that was rated mostly highly was Values (Mean =26.9), followed by Understanding (Mean =24.4). The function that received the lowest number of ratings was Career (Mean =12.9). The male volunteers rated the Social function significantly higher than the female volunteers ( $p=.004$ ), while the females rated the Values function significantly higher than the males ( $p=.01$ ). Unfortunately the effect size of these differences was not stated. This study also reported medium powered, positive relationships between volunteer satisfaction and Understanding ( $r=.40$ ,  $p=.001$ ), Enhancement ( $r=.31$ ,  $p=.001$ ) and Values ( $r=.36$ ,  $p=.001$ ) functions.

Another study that used as adapted version of the VFI found that volunteers that provided human services rated the Values and Understanding functions highest, while those involved in youth development rated the Understanding and Enhancement functions most highly. International volunteers put greatest importance on the Enhancement function (Clary and Snyder, 1996). These authors also found that female volunteers placed significantly greater importance on all motivations except the Career function, when compared to male volunteers ( $ps<0.012$ ). They also found that the motives for different age groups were similar, except for younger volunteers who placed greater importance on Protective, Understanding and Career functions. This study used a four point likert scale rather than the original seven point scale, which impedes direct comparison with other studies.

Clary et al. (1998) carried out a series of studies some of which included validation studies and are discussed in detail in the methodology chapter. The most relevant of these studies found that volunteers were most attracted to recruitment material that corresponded to their personal motivations according to the VFI, except for those that rated the Social function highest. Examples of text from the Career function brochure are “*by volunteering*

*you can explore a variety of career options....”* and *“volunteer work looks good on your resume and employers are often impressed by it”*. These findings are valuable for recruitment of volunteers. Another relevant study from the series found that volunteers who were driven by a specific function or motive and received benefits from their volunteer task associated with their motive, were more satisfied than those who didn't (Clary et al., 1998). The mean age of the participants was seventy and this most frequently rated function was Values (Mean=6.04), followed by Enhancement (Mean=4.98) and Understanding (Mean=4.36). Career was the least rated function (Mean=1.43), most likely due to the age of the participants. This is supported by Davila and Diaz-Morales (2009) who found that as age increased there was a significant decrease in volunteers ratings for the Career and Understanding functions ( $p < 0.01$ ).

To summarise these studies, all of which involved social and human service volunteers, the most frequently rated motivations were Values, Understanding and Enhancement (Clary et al., 1998; Clary and Snyder, 1996; MacNeela, 2004). This was common across all age categories, yet it was also evident that younger volunteers also rated the Careers function highly (Clary et al., 1998; Davila and Diaz-Morales, 2009)

#### ***2.3.9.6 Student's Motives to Volunteer***

Handy et al. (2010) found that from an international sample of 9,482, from twelve countries, students with Career associated motives volunteered with less intensity (less hours and involvement) than volunteers with other motives. They found volunteers to be mostly motivated by values type motivations, followed by career and social motivations indicating that volunteers have more than one motive. These authors suggest that the association between volunteerism and “resumé building” are at the societal level more than at the individual level. This is supported by Gronland et al. (2011) who evaluated student volunteer motives on a sample of over 9,000 students, across thirteen countries. They found that social norms and values influence voluntary participation, in particular among students, who are often responding to the demands of society to build career experience. They also found that the motives of volunteers depended on the dominant cultural values of their country, with participants from countries that scored higher on individualism, for example the USA, rating career motivations more important than participants from more egalitarian countries, such as Finland, who rated values type motives more importantly. Considering Ireland is more egalitarian than individualistic (Daly and Clavero, 2002), the results of Gronland et al., (2011) are supported by



O'Connor (2011) who reported that participating Irish students mostly had what they describe as altruistic motives, but according to the VFI are more values motivated, combined with lesser rated egoistic. Some examples of these highly rated reasons for volunteering included “*belief in the cause*”; and a “*desire to make a difference*”. Some examples of the egoistic motives were the “*opportunity to have fun*”, to “*travel*” and to “*develop skills*” and “*gain experience*”. Career and religious related motives were reported least frequently.

#### ***2.3.9.7 The Volunteer Function Inventory to Evaluate Students's Motives***

The VFI was used to evaluate the volunteer motivations of American undergraduate students (n=437) from a range of courses, including one of which included recreation and leisure studies (Papadakis, 2004). This study used a four-point likert scale, but did not report the actual scores of the entire sample. Instead the authors reported the results of the differences that were tested reporting that females scored significantly higher on the Values (p=.000,  $\alpha=.01$ ), Understanding (p=.007,  $\alpha=.01$ ) and Enhancement (p=.031,  $\alpha=.05$ ) functions than males. The most frequent motive for females was Values (Mean=16.64), compared to Career for males (Mean=14.36). They also found that those enrolled in service-oriented programmes rated the Values function more highly than those in non-service-oriented programmes (p=.002,  $\alpha=.01$ ). The former group rating this function most highly (Mean=16.43) compared to the latter group who rated the Career function as highest (Mean=14.85). Unfortunately the effect size of these differences were not reported.

Gage and Thapa (2012) also used the VFI to measure the volunteer motivations of American college students (n=270). Again the VFI scores were not calculated according to the VFI directions and each item was scored independently rather than according to each function. The four highest scoring items served Values functions (Means=5.91, 5.73, 5.73, 5.66), and the fifth highest item was an Understanding function (Mean=5.64). The lowest scoring items served the Protective function (Means=3.51, 3.60, 3.79, 3.79, 4.00). The main barriers to volunteering were ‘*too many other commitments*’ (Mean=3.3), ‘*not having enough time*’ (Mean=3.0) and ‘*not knowing about volunteer opportunities*’ (Mean=2.5).



On a sample of psychology students ( $n=112$ ), Houle et al. (2005) used the VFI to assess whether specific motivations were associated with particular tasks. Participants ranked eight different volunteer tasks in order of preference and then evaluated the level at which these tasks associated with descriptions of six volunteer motives. The tasks included data entry, reading to people with visual impairments, making cards for older adults, making holiday baskets, filling envelopes and collating newsletters, typing fundraising letters, creating study packs for students, and creating brochures for new students. A significant interactive effect was found between the tasks and motives ( $F(35, 3885)=30.30, p<.001$ ) with all eight tasks significantly satisfying different motives. Further analyses specifically found that the Values function predicted the tasks of reading to those with visual impairments; making cards for older adults and data entry. While the Career function predicted the typing fundraising letters and creating brochures tasks. This study also found that the participants preferred tasks that they perceived would match their motives.

One of the studies in the series conducted by Clary et al. (1998), evaluated how undergraduate student's motivations to volunteer and the benefits they received impacted their intent to remain ( $n=369$ ). Their results support the findings of the previous study (Houle et al., 2005). The VFI scores and benefits were dichotomised at the median and it was revealed that all those that scored above the median in both a VFI function and a functional benefit, were significantly more satisfied than those who scored below these medians (all  $Fs(1,365)>23.50, ps<.001$ ) indicating that the volunteers who perceived that their volunteer function had been met, were more satisfied with the experience. The authors also found that volunteers were more likely to intend to continue volunteering both long-term (all  $Fs(1,365)>5.12, ps<.001$ ) and short-term (all  $Fs(1,365)>10.43, ps<.05$ ) when their volunteer function was met by their task.

These findings again suggest that young volunteers similar to the those that participate in Hope's volunteer programme are most likely to have motivations associated with the Values, Understanding, Enhancement and Career functions (Gage and Thapa, 2012; Papadakis, 2004) and that matching volunteer's motives to both the recruitment material and also the tasks they will be involved in is more likely to promote satisfaction (Clary et al., 1998) and intention to remain in service (Houle et al., 2005)

### 2.3.10 Volunteer Satisfaction

The importance of volunteer satisfaction is widely recognised, in particular as part of the Volunteer Process Model (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley, 2001; Omoto and Snyder, 1995; Pauline, 2011) and as was mentioned earlier in the chapter, volunteer satisfaction has been linked to intent to remain (Boezeman et al., 2009; Costa et al., 2006, Clary et al., 1998; Kim et al., 2007; Omoto and Snyder, 1995) and also to volunteer motivations or functions when matched to volunteer tasks (Boezeman et al. 2009; Clary et al., 1998, Houle et al., 2005). Another impact of volunteer satisfaction, in particular within social services, is suggested by Bennett (2006) who state that ‘*emotional contagion*’ is more likely to positively impact service users when volunteers are highly satisfied. ‘*Emotional contagion*’ can be described as the unconscious transference of emotions from one person to another, and can be valuable when considering relationships between service recipients and professionals (Hatfield et al., 1993). Bennett (2006) discovered that volunteer satisfaction, directly and indirectly, impacted service user’s satisfaction as it influenced the volunteer’s commitment to the organisation. They also found that the satisfaction level of the service users was higher for those who had regular contact with the volunteer, and also those who received services from volunteers who had greater levels of interest in the cause being served by the organisation. This indicates a link between volunteer satisfaction and the Understanding motive. The findings of Sturm et al. (2013) highlight the implications of satisfaction levels on ‘*emotional contagion*’ reporting that people with intellectual disabilities are more sensitive to the emotions of others.

#### 2.3.10.1 Factors Influencing Volunteer Satisfaction

Some studies have evaluated factors that impact volunteer satisfaction. As was previously reported in the section on motivations (2.3.9) matching volunteers with specific motivations to certain tasks can be done by consciously recruiting according to the benefits the tasks provide (Clary et al, 1998; Kim et al. 2007). Other identified factors include matching volunteers with organisations, meaning that their personal beliefs match the organisations, and how they are treated by management (Kim et al, 2007). In this study these factors explained for 46.8 percent of the variance in empowerment which was described as a “*critical reward*” for volunteers. Empowerment combined a sense of meaning, competence, self-determination and making an impact and in turn explained for 13.5 percent of the variance in intent to remain as a volunteer.

A strong sense of community positively impacted volunteer's commitment to the organisation which then indirectly positively impacted satisfaction levels of short-term episodic and sport-related volunteer sample (n=147) ranging between 16 and 75 years of age (Costa et al, 2006). Sense of community was created when volunteers contributed in training by sharing their experiences and perspectives. A limitation of this study is that the researchers used a job satisfaction scale rather than a volunteer satisfaction scale.

Pascuet, et al. (2012) found that '*fulfilment*' was the most frequently rated cause of satisfaction (n=46), followed by a '*friendly atmosphere*' (n=34) and the '*developed relationships*', with staff (n=34), service users (n=25) and other volunteers (n=19). The most frequent reasons for dissatisfaction were lack of knowledge (n=29), emotional demands (n=7) and unfriendliness (n=7). Van Der Vleuten and Schouteten (2009) also identified factors that created dissatisfaction such as organisational change which involved organisational growth and redesign with a focus on efficiency and accountability which led to reduced support, negatively impacted volunteers' satisfaction. The researchers report greater distance between employees, volunteers and their supervisors which created issues with communication, work assignment and organisation.

Gaskin (2004) also found that young volunteers are more likely than older volunteers to report dissatisfaction. This is possibly due to the "new" style of volunteerism that younger volunteers are associated with, as described earlier in chapter in the types of volunteering section (2.3.6). Gaskin adds that younger volunteers prefer their volunteer activities to be well-run and organised, but also provide spontaneity and flexibility and also provide autonomy and responsibility according to their level of ability and skill. These findings suggest that the factors that have the greatest impact on volunteer's level of satisfaction are integration between volunteers and staff, making a difference (Costa et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2007; Pascuet et al, 2012) and also assigning volunteers to roles matching their ability and motivations (Clary et al, 1998; Kim et al., 2007).

#### ***2.3.10.2 Measuring Volunteer Satisfaction***

It is also evident that there is a lack of consistency throughout the research when measuring volunteer satisfaction as the majority of studies used purpose designed questions (Cnaan and Cascio, 1999; Kemp, 2002; Clary et al, 1998; Pascuet et al., 2012; Van Der Vleuten and Schouteten, 2009; Houle et al., 2005) while others used work satisfaction questionnaires (Costa et al., 2006). The most widely used volunteer

satisfaction scale is the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (Galindo-Guzley and Kuhn, 2001), which is multifaceted, with five dimensions and 39 items, and helps identify various sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction allowing for tailored and more effective, improvement strategies (Pauline, 2011). The dimensions include Work Assignment, Participation Efficacy, Group Integration, Organisational Support and Communication Quality (Group integration has 7 items). Work Assignment refers to the job fit according to the volunteer's skills and convenience and also the level of self-expression, challenge and opportunity for skill development provided. A typical item is '*the chance I had to utilise my skills*'. The Participation Efficacy category includes items regarding volunteer's expectations of how their service will positively impact others, for example '*how worthwhile my contribution was*'. Group Integration relates to the satisfaction volunteers received from the relationships that were developed with paid staff and other volunteers. A question from this category is '*the friends I made while volunteering*'. The Organisational Support category refers to volunteer's satisfaction with the level of educational and emotional resources available to them, for example '*the availability of getting help when I needed it*'. The final category, Communication Quality and relates to the satisfaction with the host organisation's level of person-oriented communication and included items such as '*the flow of communication coming to me from paid staff and board members*'.

A review of the literature identified two studies that used the VSI in its entirety. Some studies also used aspects of it (Jordan, 2009; Wong et al., 2010). Pauline (2011) found that the overall satisfaction of episodic, sport volunteers (n=205) was between satisfied and very satisfied (Mean=5.8). The sample were least satisfied with Communication Quality (Mean=5.6) and were most satisfied with Participation Efficacy (M=5.9). Pauline also identified a significant positive relationship between volunteers who spent more than 20 hours in service and overall satisfaction ( $r=.23$ ,  $p<.05$ ) suggesting that those that were most satisfied were more likely to remain in voluntary service, again suggesting that the concepts of "new" and "classic" volunteer styles associated with younger and older volunteers. This supports the findings of Gaskin (2004) who reported that younger volunteers were more likely to report dissatisfaction than older volunteers.

Another study that used the VSI was carried out by Cho (2010) who used two groups of ministry volunteers, youth ministry and welcome ministry groups. Cho found that there was a significant, positive relationship between volunteer satisfaction and their

perceptions of teamwork for the youth group ( $r=.62$ ,  $p<.0007$ , effect size  $r^2=.38$ ) and also for the welcome group ( $r=.64$ ,  $p<.0007$ , effect size  $r^2=.40$ ). Cho also found that younger volunteers rated significantly lower satisfaction scores than older volunteers, and while the significance value was not reported the effect size was reported as moderate.

### **2.3.12 Volunteer Management**

The previous sections have provided a review of the literature which has studied the motives of volunteers and also the satisfaction of volunteers providing insight into the process of volunteering and highlighting the importance of volunteer management (Haski-Leventhaal et al., 2009; Omoto and Snyder, 1995). As already mentioned in section 2.3.8 on international volunteering, many researchers emphasise the importance of carefully designing and managing international volunteer programmes, to address and avoid the criticisms regarding colonialism and the inferiority/superiority binary relations (Conran, 2011; McGehee and Santos, 2005; Pluim and Jorgenson, 2012; Raymond and Hall, 2008; Rockliffe, 2006; Smith and Laurie, 2011). Volunteerism has become the ‘backbone’ of many human service providing organisations in the USA in the last three decades (Handy and Brudney, 2007; Haski-Leventhaal and Cnaan, 2009), as well as in Ireland as mentioned in section 2.3.2. Graff (2008) states that volunteerism is predominantly taken for granted again indicating the importance of adjusting to and utilising this valuable resource optimally. Barnes and Sharpe (2009) perceive the need for organisations to reflect on their own practices to provide a more collaborative, vocation-based and networked approach to volunteer management, while also considering and working towards alleviating the economic costs to volunteers, adding that “*traditional*” approaches are likely to be negatively impacting volunteerism, especially when the majority of younger volunteers display behaviours associated with the “new” styles of volunteerism (Rommel et al., 1997; translated in Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2000).

#### **2.3.12.1 Optimal Management**

When the value of volunteerism within human services is considered along with the consumerist approach to volunteering, which has been conceptualised as the “new” style of volunteering (Barnes and Sharp, 2009; Handy and Brudney, 2007; Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2000; Van Hout et al., 2011), there is an implication for an alternative approach to managing volunteering. In particular, as volunteer satisfaction has been shown to be associated with volunteer retention and intent to remain as reported in the satisfaction section (Boezeman et al., 2009; Costa et al., 2006, Clary et al., 1998; Kim et

al., 2007). Smith and Cordery (2010) undertook a systematic review to identify the best practices in volunteer management and found a limited amount of research internationally, all of which provided common recommendations. These included equal and consistent recruitment procedures; insurance coverage; written policies and procedures; appropriate supervision or management and on-going support for volunteers; and also orientation to the organisation, training and professional development for volunteers; and recognition practices. Researchers also found that these practices were optimally implemented under the following conditions: in larger organisations; with a paid volunteer manager; with large groups of volunteers contributed frequently; providing direct service in health and human service organisations (Sherraden et al., 2008; Smith and Cordery, 2010). The leadership or management role was the most frequently reported factor associated with good practice, in particular when utilising an episodic volunteer labour force (Handy and Brudney, 2007). Smith and Cordery (2010) acknowledge that these best practices require resources, including staff and funding for reimbursements, and recruitment and state that external grants and funding supports many organisations and that they should be considered according to the specific needs of both the organisation and the volunteers. Gaskin (2003, p28) refers to the ideal management of volunteer programmes as the '*choice blend*' which balances a combination of autonomy and control; flexibility and organisation; efficiency, informality and support on a both personal and professional levels, while considering the volunteer's needs and motivations.

#### **2.3.12.2 Recruitment**

Smith et al. (2010) state that recruitment is the greatest challenge associated with volunteer management, particularly for smaller organisations or those without a paid manager. Other researchers suggest that recruitment is perceived as a marketing issue (Bussell and Forbes, 2003), in particular with "new" types of volunteerism. Smith and Cordery's review of the literature identified that targeting and inviting specific volunteers to participate was the most effective approach. This was supported by McNeela (2004) who found that the majority of volunteers at a disability service in Ireland had been directly approached by members of staff or other volunteers. According to Smith et al. (2010), other effective approaches to recruitment include word of mouth, which is the most frequent mode, and advertising. However, these approaches have advantages and limitations, for example word of mouth can aid retention due to pre-existing social bonds

or ‘dual-identity’ (Haski-Leventhaal and Cnaan, 2009), yet can limit diversity (Smith and Cordery, 2010). Advertising can be effective when tailored to volunteers with specific motives (Clary et al., 1998; Houle et al., 2005), yet is more effective as a long-term approach, as it creates awareness of the opportunity for potential volunteers to participate at a suitable time rather than generating actual volunteers (Gaskin, 2004; Gage and Thapa, 2012; Haski-Leventhaal et al., 2009). Researchers state the importance of awareness of the organisation’s positioning and also the type of volunteering they facilitate to allow them to strategically recruit volunteers accordingly (Handy and Brudney, 2007; Haski-Leventhaal and Meijs, 2011; Kim et al., 2007). Gaskin (2003) outlines recommendations for optimal recruitment stating that initial contact between volunteers and the organisation should be positive and welcoming, with prompt response to enquiries to capitalise on volunteer’s initial enthusiasm. Other recommendations include providing role descriptions; flexible and matched role placement; clear communication of procedures, expectations, rights and responsibilities; and an efficient yet thorough interview process.

#### *2.3.12.3 The Economics of Volunteer Management*

The recommended resources identified by Smith and Cordery (2010) require financial management according to the specific needs of both the organisation and the volunteers, which these researchers identified as an aspect of volunteer management that typically requires improvement. They report that 42 percent of the organisations represented in their review did not have assigned budgets or were not aware of the economic costs associated with the programme. This is a large percentage considering many non-profit organisations utilise a combination of a paid and voluntary labour force and according to Handy and Brudney (2007) receive labour below the market price. These organisations report interchangeability between the roles of paid staff and volunteers in twelve percent of roles. Another valuable role volunteerism possibly plays within human services is the supplementation of a predominantly high staff turnover rate, which often produces staff shortages, in particular direct support for people with intellectual disabilities, (Devereux et al., 2009; Hatton et al., 2001; Seavey, 2004). For example, Seavey (2004) estimated the turnover cost at 2,500 dollars per staff member, and in 2009 the turnover rate was 38 percent (ANCOR) and rates of between 35 and 70 percent are not unusual in the USA (AAIDD, 2008). The annual turnover at Hope in 2013 was 31 percent. According to Mutkins et al. (2011) there is no consensus within the literature on the predictors of burnout but they found that perceived organisational support and symptoms of

depressions predicted emotional burnout symptoms, including emotional exhaustion. This is supported by Devereux et al. (2009) who reviewed the literature on burnout among direct support professionals that work with people with intellectual disabilities, and found a strong relationship between organisational support and workplace stress. These researchers add that the well-being of staff impacts their own quality of life and also that the service user's supporting the concept of '*emotional contagion*' which was proposed in the previous section of this chapter (2.3.10).

### **2.3.13 Volunteer Programmes**

As has been shown throughout this review, volunteers provide services across a broad range arena, in particular within social and health services (Clary and Snyder, 1995; Donnelly-Cox and O'Regan, 1999; MacNeela, 2004; Power et al., 2012; Prizeman et al., 2010). Within these services there is a varying reliance on volunteers, and they carry out a broad spectrum of roles including direct support roles, administration, fundraising and management (Deane and Andresen, 2006; MacNeela, 2004). This section of the literature review looks in detail at volunteer programmes similar to the international volunteer programme at Hope Community Resources. Firstly, reviewing studies that evaluate volunteer programmes within disability services. Secondly, looking at volunteer programmes that provide physical activity and recreation services. The final piece of the review examines studies of volunteer programmes which combine all of these elements of various programmes and have characteristics most comparable to Hope's international volunteer programme.

#### **2.3.13.1 Volunteer Programmes in Disability Organisations**

As volunteerism is so prevalent within disability service provision there is a considerable amount of relevant research, most of which evaluates volunteer's motives and was already reviewed in the motivations section (2.3.9). There is a limited amount of research evaluating the actual programmes. One such study assessed a volunteer programme within a disability service in Ireland (MacNeela, 2004). This study used the Volunteer Process Model (Omoto and Snyder, 1995) to describe the volunteer's roles and the antecedents, experiences and consequences of volunteering. The second study reviewed a programme within a mental health service in Australia (Deane and Andresen, 2006). This volunteer programme provided services similar to those provided by Hope's volunteers, however the service users experienced mental illness as opposed to disability.



The programme itself was reviewed and the impact on the recovery of the service users was assessed. These studies will be reviewed in detail.

The first study (MacNeela, 2004; n=444) evaluated eight social and health care services in Ireland, the antecedents and consequences refer to the motivations and benefits and were already reviewed in section 2.3.9. This section will review the experiences of the volunteers within the not-for-profit disability service, COPE, as their experience is relevant to the current study.

The volunteers served primarily as fundraisers (n=4); three serve on the board of management; and one provided direct support to service users. MacNeela (2004) reported that the volunteers formed the structure and culture of this organisation and they had provided governance by making important decisions and linking staff, service users and their guardians. This concurs with the history of volunteerism within disability services in Ireland in section 2.3.2. The length of service provided by volunteers varied, for example those fundraising volunteered episodically, while those on the board volunteered more regularly (one volunteered a minimum of ten hours a week). The shortest term was two and a half years while the longest was almost fifty years. The length of time spent volunteering was reported as a barrier to recruitment.

In terms of organisational factors, six of the volunteers had been recruited directly by COPE associates, and this was reported as the common recruitment practice. The other two volunteers approached COPE independently because a family member was availing of COPE's services. None of the volunteers received any sort of training from COPE, however organisational support is offered to volunteers and paid staff alike, in the form of structural feedback provided in the 'Balanced Score Card'. Integration with other volunteers depended on volunteer's roles, for example, board members report to be well integrated, while fundraisers report little contact with other volunteers or staff.

The direct experience of volunteers was reported in relation to society, with COPE relating to society at the local community level, wider society and State level. The study states that all volunteers mentioned a close relationship between COPE and the local community and while the author doesn't specifically state that volunteers are involved in supporting this relationship, it is likely that the volunteer fundraisers play an important role in this due to their engagement with the local community on COPE's behalf. For example at church gate collections and on COPE Day. At the State level, the organisation

itself is considered as a voluntary organisation which allows COPE to avail of funding grants described earlier in the literature review. While the qualitative data was collected from a small sample of volunteers (n=8) the data offers detailed insight into the volunteer process. Despite the similarities between COPE and Hope as they both provide disability services, the utilisation of volunteers at COPE is very different to Hope's volunteer programme. COPE's volunteers are older than Hope's volunteers, they fulfil different roles and fit into Rommel et al.'s (1997; translated in Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2000) classification of "classic" volunteers while Hope's volunteers can be described as "new" volunteers.

The other relevant study assessed a volunteer programme called Helping Hands, within a service for people experiencing mental illness in Australia (Deane and Andresen, 2006). The study evaluated the evolution and sustainability of the friendship programme which had been running for six years, providing recreational, vocational, therapeutic and social services by training volunteers from the community. The programme aims to promote independence, improved social mobility and an enhanced quality of life. The programme was funded by the Department of Health and Aged Care until it was taken on by the Schizophrenia Fellowship. The programme has two part-time paid positions, a coordinator and an administration assistant. Recruitment is conducted via media campaigns including press releases, media and poster advertising and presentations to students and health organisations. Training is provided by a collaborating mental health service. 53 percent (n=19) of the service users received one-to-one support from a volunteer, 33 percent received group services via programmes and 36 percent received both. 6 percent participated in the new Outreach programme. In terms of the impact on the service users, 82 percent reported that the most important aspect of the programme was friendship with the volunteers, and 63 percent claimed that having someone to care for and support them had changed their life. Forty-one percent reported that they were now more outgoing, happy and lived a more fulfilling life due to the programme.

These two studies have similarities with Hope's programme, however they highlight the differences between the management of various volunteer programmes. For example, the volunteer programme at COPE was unstructured and volunteers are primarily involved in fundraising and rarely in direct support service provision. While the Helping Hands programme provided direct support and was far more structured regarding paid coordination staff, recruitment and training.

### **2.3.13.2 Volunteer Programmes in Recreation and Physical Activity**

There is a very limited amount of literature involving volunteering programmes offering mainstream physical activity or recreation services. After reviewing the literature it is not clear whether there is a scarcity of such programmes or whether there is simply a scarcity of research evaluating them.

One relevant study assessed various impacts of volunteering at the Olympics at the Winter Games in Lillehammer, Norway in 1994 and at the Summer Games in Sydney, Australia in 2000 (n=400) (Kemp, 2002). The roles volunteers carried out varied and mostly involved direct contact with spectators, media correspondents, competitors, government representatives and diplomats. The other results showed the impact on the volunteers for example 80 percent learned to cooperate with other and perceived that this networking would positively impact them when looking for work, 40 percent reported receiving job skills.

In terms of learning about society, 74 percent reported an increase in confidence while 68 percent of the student volunteers learned about the role the media plays in society. 64.5 percent reported developing social skills and 55 percent improved their knowledge about society. Of all volunteers, 74 percent liked participating in a unique event and also the “celebratory atmosphere” Volunteers were satisfied with the level of organisation throughout the event, the quality of training and overall management of the entire event however statistics are not reported. The author suggests that there is a positive relationship between volunteer learning and satisfaction. There were no details provided on the management of the programme.

Another study conducted by Tan et al. (2006) aimed to increase physical activity levels of older adults (Mean age=69 years) who volunteered at a public school for at least 15 hours a week. The participants also served in roles that were created to positively impact the student’s academic outcomes and also increase the volunteer’s physical activity levels, social engagement and cognitive stimulation in turn promoting physical, mental and social health, quality of life. The results show that even though the volunteer roles were not specifically associated with physical activity, including one-to-one tutoring; attendance enhancement; and violence prevention sessions, still the physical activity levels increased from 220 minutes to 270 minutes, while the control group went from 170 minutes to 140 minutes per week. This naturally impacted calorific expenditure with the

volunteers expending forty percent more calories than at baseline, while that of the control group decreased by 16 percent. The focus of this study on the physical activity levels of the volunteers is not very relevant to the current study, however it does show that engaging in such a programme can positively impact physical activity levels which can have positive implications for Hope's service users.

### **2.3.13.3 Volunteer Programmes Providing Disability and Recreation or Physical Activity Services**

There are many volunteer programmes that provide physical activity or recreation services for people with disabilities, most likely due to the provision of such services by voluntary organisations as stated earlier in sections 2.2.2 and 2.3.2., yet there is a scarcity of academic data evaluating these programmes. A review of the literature identified two studies that provide detail on the actual volunteer programmes and also the impact on the service recipients. These studies will be reviewed in detail. One other study also evaluated the motivations of Special Olympics volunteers (Khoo and Engelhorn, 2011) and found that volunteers were most likely to volunteer for the following reasons "*my skills are needed*" and "*I have experience providing a service*". This group also reported feeling a higher expectation to volunteer. First time volunteers were more likely to volunteer for the following reasons "*It was a chance of a lifetime*" and "*I wanted to broaden my horizons*".

Another study evaluated a volunteer friendship programme that connects volunteers with 'clients' that experience serious mental health issues, through a non-profit organisation called Compeer Inc (McCorkle et al., 2009). The friendships are referred to as matches and each match commits to meet for a minimum of four hours a month. A limitation of this study is that participants were recruited from one Compeer centre in the USA from over 100 offices throughout the USA, the Netherlands and Australia. Compeer staff recruit volunteers, however the recruitment method is not reported. Volunteer receive training on mental illness, diagnoses and symptoms and the associated stigma. In training volunteers are briefed on their roles, expectations and responsibilities. They also learn about boundaries, reciprocity, conflict management, how to deal with crisis situations and the protocol to terminate a match. Clients most frequently reported the benefits of the programme as '*gaining a real friend*' and '*spending time with someone without a clinical agenda*' which counteracted the frequently experienced stigma associated with mental

illness. Other benefits included support “*going through major life transitions*”; “*receiving practical help*” from volunteers; “*receiving interpersonal feedback and encouragement*”; “*introduction to new activities*”. A limitation is the lack of statistical results reported for the client’s benefits. Both clients and volunteers often reported improvements in the client’s social behaviour. All volunteers also reported received benefits to the programme. The most frequently cited benefit was with “*gained friendship*” (83%), followed by feeling good about “*helping someone else*” (67%). Other less reported benefits included “*gaining a better understanding of the mental health service and mental illness*”; “*increasing their range of activities*” and “*transitioning into retirement*”. Twenty-five percent of volunteers and 50 percent of clients reported no drawbacks to the programme and among this constructive feedback there were no consistent complaints.

Another detailed study evaluated the structure and implementation of Camp Shriver, across six US cities. The camp is an inclusive physical activity summer camp for children with and without intellectual disabilities, and has been running regularly since the 1960s and set the foundation for the Special Olympics (Siperstein et al., 2006). The organisation and management of each camp was evaluated and also the impacts on the service users. The duration and frequency of the Camps varied, ranging from one eight day camp to three five days. Most camps arranged for the campers without intellectual disabilities to partner with those experiencing intellectual disabilities, except for the Boston camp where all campers were included equally. Each camp had a director and either four or five coaches and some of the camps also paid the camp leaders. Most of the camps provided training and orientation for camp staff and partners. Further detail of the recruitment process and management were not described.

The study also evaluated the impact of camp on the camper’s skills and each camp reported significant improvements in camper’s skills in the various activities. For example, in Florida there was a significant improvement in softball ( $t=-9.69$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and soccer skills ( $t=-3.07$ ,  $p<.01$ ) in the two weeks of camp. These results were validated by volunteer’s reports which stated that 91 percent saw improvements in camper’s sports skills. The study also reported that social relationships between campers with and without intellectual disabilities were positively impacted. This was shown when the participants were asked to nominate “new friends” and “who they would like to play with”. Campers with intellectual disabilities were just as likely to nominate campers without intellectual disability, as was the contrary. The results showed that gender had a greater impact on

who was nominated than ability or disability, with both males and females mostly choosing campers of the same gender.

Interviews of the camp directors showed that the greatest reported successes were the creation of relationships between the camp and the surrounding community which supported the running of camp on a logistical level by providing staff, volunteers, facilities and transportation for campers. Many of the camps reported aspiring to recruit volunteer partners from the same schools as the campers to enhance the possibility of the campers, continuing the relationships they have created. For example, Camp Shriver Boston planned to host a reunion for campers to coincide with a university baseball game.

#### **2.3.14 Potential Issues Associated with Volunteerism**

As already reviewed in section 2.3.7, more traditional types of international volunteering have been criticised for creating conditions associated with colonialism and paternalism. These conditions include an inferior-superior dynamic and uni-directional sharing of concepts and culture between service recipients and international volunteers (Conran, 2011; Plum and Jorgenson, 2012; Rockliffe, 2006; Sherraden et al., 2008; Smith and Laurie, 2011). It was also reported that other researchers suggest that some volunteer opportunities are created to match the needs of the volunteers rather than the needs of the local communities (Hill and Russell, 2011). This section will review other possible issues associated with the impact of volunteerism that were identified in the literature. A major limitation is that the focus of much of this literature is on the economic impact of utilising volunteer labour (Handy and Brudney, 2007; Handy and Mook, 2011; Handy and Srinivisan, 2004) and does not delve into the impact of such economic motives on behalf of volunteer management, on the phenomenon of volunteerism. Strickland and Ockenden (2011) identify such economic motivators as a major issue and suggest that volunteering should be promoted for its intrinsic value, as opposed to being a means to an end. Again this returns to the altruism-egoism debate previously reviewed in section 2.3.9, this time at the macro level of management and public service operation. The ideal scenario according to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2000) is to acknowledge the existence of volunteer motives on a dynamic continuum ranging from egoistic or extrinsic motives to altruistic or intrinsic motives.

##### **2.3.14.1 Paid Staff and Volunteer Relations**

One of the most obvious possible issues is the potential for strained relations between paid staff and volunteers which, according to Handy et al. (2008), is a sensitive and

“almost taboo” subject. Due to conceivability of job displacement, surprisingly there is a scarcity of relevant research and the majority of existing literature is outdated. For example, research carried out by MacDuff (2001) and Pearce (1993). Another limitation is that the majority of this research is undertaken by the same group of scholars. For example, Handy and Brudney (2007), Handy et al. (2000); and Handy and Srinivasan (2005). Despite the sparsity of academic literature, many volunteer organisations have created guidelines on the topic and encourage organisations that utilise volunteers to develop their own volunteer policies and documents to protect the workforce from displacement by volunteers. They also promote an environment of acceptance, unity and participation/cooperation between volunteers and paid staff with role clarity (Volunteering Queensland Inc., n.d.; Trade Unions Congress and Volunteering England, 2009; Youth Work Ireland, n.d.). One of the few relevant articles states that, particularly in times of economic difficulty, relationships between paid staff and volunteers are crucial to the utilisation of volunteers as a resource (MacDuff and Netting, 2005). These authors outlined factors that can support positive relationships including communication, clearly defined roles, training, volunteer and staff support, mutual responsibilities and an inclusive planning process. Many of these factors are supported by other researchers and trade unions (MacDuff, 2001; Pearce, 1993; Trade Unions Congress and Volunteering England, 2009; Volunteering Queensland Inc, n.d.).

Another pertinent study examined the interchangeability of roles between paid staff and volunteers in a series of studies, on a sample of 4,552 nonprofit organisations in Canada (Handy et al., 2008). The researchers found reverse trends, which depended on varying social forces including changes to budget; organisational professionalization; inclusion of volunteers; and the complexity of volunteer roles. For example, 26 percent of organisations reported that some activities previously performed by paid staff were being carried out by volunteers, mostly due to financial cutbacks; and that 15 percent of organisations reported worker or union concerns regarding staff substitution by volunteers. The reverse trend was that 55 percent of organisations reported that paid staff were carrying out activities that were previously the responsibility of volunteers. Mostly due to increased levels of funding and a desire for greater levels of professionalism. This finding is supported by the findings of Elstubb (2006). Handy et al. (2008) also found that larger organisations with a greater dependency on volunteers were more likely to replace paid staff with volunteers. Among the non-profit organisations, 65 percent of volunteers

were given more complex roles involving greater responsibility. In the second study using the same sample, 68 percent of the respondents agreed that some work is carried out specifically by both paid employees and volunteers, some is carried out interchangeably by either group. Role allocation was most frequently determined by skills, qualifications and effectiveness. The findings also report that between 2000 and 2005, there was an increase of four percent in the percentage of tasks carried out by paid staff and a corresponding reduction in those carried out by volunteers. Reasons included requirement of specific skills (24%), number of hours required (19%), liability concerns (14%) and past/historic practice (13%).

Other researchers found that Government budget cuts to local authorities and public services also create the potential for job substitution as some public bodies plan to avail of voluntary service to provide some public services (Strickland and Ockenden, 2011). These researchers suggested that job displacement or replacement could lead to negative attitudes towards volunteers however, there was no study that supported this theory, possibly due to shortage of research on the topic. In contrast, the author reviewed a study that evaluated the attitudes of paid staff towards volunteers following budget cuts to the public sector in Sweden which led to an increased usage on volunteers in the police force (Hermansson, 2008). The study found that in tasks that could legally be undertaken by volunteers, they did replace paid staff at times, yet the majority of resistance was not directly attributed to the volunteers but was mostly related to volunteer management. This included a lack of knowledge and communication regarding volunteer's activities and where they fit within the organisation; and a lack of planning and inefficient use of volunteer services.

#### ***2.3.14.2 Exploitation of Volunteers***

In recent years there has been much media debate on the topic of the exploitation of volunteers, in particular young students, recent graduates and interns (Ellis and Jackson, 2013). In the USA, this was sparked following a ruling that a film production company had violated minimum wage laws for not meeting the criteria stipulated for unpaid internships in federal law (Hickman and Merrill, 2013). There is very little academic literature on the topic however, the media debate seems to have triggered some research (Business Week, 2013; New York Times, 2013). For example, Gerada (2013) sought the perceptions of interns in the UK and found that unpaid internships are perceived as beneficial and necessary by students and graduates, but that they can also exploit the



commitment and eagerness of the interns, and can promote inequality of opportunity as only wealthy students can afford to work without pay. The results also report that the participants perceived that unpaid internships in non-profit organisations were more justifiable due to budget constraints, the positive impacts of these organisations and the community-based nature of these organisations. Aside from non-profit organisations, the 53 percent of the participants perceived that reimbursement of expenses only was not justifiable, while 23 percent thought it was justifiable. Another 23 percent were unsure. While this study evaluates the perceptions of the students themselves, Gardner (2011) found that in the USA students from lower income families were more likely to participate in unpaid internships than those from higher income families who were more likely to seek internships at for profit companies. Gardner (2011) also found that gender and course of study was most likely to determine whether the student was engaged in a paid or unpaid internship. For example, females and students involved education, social science, arts and humanities and communication were more likely to undertake unpaid internships. Gardner (2011) highlighted the need for further research on the topic suggesting that public perceptions portrayed by the media are not always accurate.

This section of the literature review identifies a major gap in the literature and a need for further evaluation of the possible issues associated with volunteerism, in particular on the topics of staff and volunteer relations. The existing literature does suggest that like the issue of colonialism associated with international volunteerism, conscious volunteer management seems to be the key to solving or preventing these issues (MacDuff, 2001; MacDuff and Netting, 2005; Pearce, 1993; Trade Unions Congress and Volunteering England, 2009; Volunteering Queensland Inc, n.d).

## **2.4 Conclusion**

This chapter began by reviewing the history of disability services in both the USA and Ireland, with the aim of providing a context for the reader. It was identified that disability service provision in Ireland is at the cusp of a reformation (Power et al, 2012). Disability services in the USA have been led by a consumerist, rights based approach which led to deinstitutionalisation, which has been mirrored in Ireland by voluntary organisations. The researcher then looked at the shift in society towards individualism and the impact this shift has had on volunteerism. For example, “new” types of episodic volunteerism emerged and one of the most prominent is international volunteering which is frequently carried out by students.

There is a common theme of discordance in the volunteer literature, starting with the definition (Anheier and Salamon 1999; Dekker, 2002; Dekker and Halman 2003; Hadzi-Miceva, 2007; Haski-Leventhaal, 2009; Musick and Wilson, 2008; Smith and Cordery, 2010; United Nations, 2011), to the disagreement between sociologists and social psychologists regarding volunteer's motivations (Antoni, 2009; Batson et al., 2002; Finkelstein, 2009; Handy and Hustinx, 2009; Musick and Wilson; Stebbins, 1996), to the classification "new" and "classic" styles of volunteerism (Rommel et al (1997; translated in Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2000), and to the potential issues associated with volunteering, all highlighting the complexity of the phenomenon.

There has also been a considerable amount of research on the impacts of volunteering, with each study evaluating different aspects. For example, studies of international volunteering have looked at the impact on the volunteer's careers yet have not looked at volunteer's motivations or satisfaction with the programmes (Cook and Jackson, 2006; Thomas, 2001). Other studies have evaluated volunteer programmes that provide disability services and the impact on the volunteers (Deane and Andresen, 2006) and also volunteer's motivations (MacNeela, 2004). There has also been research on volunteer programmes that provide recreation and physical activity, which have looked at the benefits to the volunteers (Kemp, 2002; Tan et al., 2006). However, there is a lack of research evaluating the reciprocal impact of international volunteer programmes, in particular in disability services, within the context of the Volunteer Process Model (Omoto and Snyder, 1995). The current study intends to address some of these methodological anomalies.

# **Methodology**

## **3.0 Methodology**

### **3.1 Introduction and Researcher Reflexivity**

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce, explain and justify the research philosophy and approach. The chapter also outlines specific details of the research strategy and design including the sample size, methods, analysis and ethical considerations. At this point it is valuable to understand the researcher reflexivity which refers to beliefs and values of the researcher, to get a clear view of bias associated with this perspective. The researcher has a background in a strengths-based and holistic approach to health which is aligned with the biopsychosocial model of disability. In addition the researcher's personal values are similar to the humanistic psychological philosophy which include Maslow's (1943) self-actualisation theory which theorises that every person has the right to become all that they are capable of becoming. Ryan and Deci's (2000) self-determination theory is another humanistic concept which proposes that people are motivated by natural, intrinsic tendencies to behave in a healthy, fulfilling manner. These views are similar to the philosophy of Hope and it is through these lenses that the investigator designed the study, then collected and analysed the data.

### **3.2 Title**

The title of the project is 'An evaluation of the International Volunteer Programme in HOPE Community Resources in Alaska'

### **3.3 Aims and Objectives**

The aims and objectives were listed in detail in the introduction and here is a reinstatement of the broad aims of the study.

- To create a profile of Hope's international volunteers
- To assess the impact of the international volunteer programme on the workforce and service users of Hope Community Resources (referred to as Hope throughout the chapter)
- To assess the impact of the programme on the volunteer's careers and attitudes to disability

### 3.4 Philosophy

The research paradigm or philosophical framework sets the scene for the research project including the intent, the motivation, the expectations (MacKenzie and Knipe, 2006) and in particular the process in which knowledge is developed (Saunders et al., 2007). The first pragmatists realised that social science research required more than one scientific method (Mertens, 2010), so due to the social nature of the current project the most suitable paradigm is pragmatism with rapid ethnography. Pragmatism has been described as a practical, common sense philosophy (Mertens, 2010) and offers a middle ground between rigid philosophical and methodological stances and is often described as an anti-philosophy (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003, p76; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). While based on natural experiences and the process of the organism-environment interaction, pragmatism strongly endorses empiricism and practical theory. This involves using a variety of methods most suited to answering a specific research question (Creswell, 2003; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Saunders et al., 2007). Due to the broad scope of the current study, for example the range of participants and also the variety of research topics pertinent to the volunteers, using this paradigm as the foundation for the current study allowed the researcher to choose the most suitable methods. This flexibility and freedom of scope are the strengths of this paradigm however, as with all paradigms, there are also limitations. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) identify some weaknesses including the difficulty of concurrently carrying out qualitative and quantitative research in addition to learning how to mix these methods appropriately; the issue of qualitatively analysing quantitative data and how to interpret conflicting results; and the increased financial and time cost. The researcher decided that these benefits of utilising this paradigm, primarily the freedom to choose mixed methods which allow for data triangulation, outweighed the limitations. Cameron (2011) used the term eclectic when describing the weaknesses of this paradigm while Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) use the same term eclectic to describe the strengths of pragmatism. Some of the leading writers in mixed methods, Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998, p30) support pragmatism and recommend researching in a way that is appropriate and of value to the researcher, using the results in a way that supports this value system and creating positive consequences which is why pragmatism was chosen to meet the aims and objectives of the current study.

### 3.5 Approach and Strategy

The research approach most frequently associated with pragmatism is mixed methods (Cameron, 2011; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p 41; Mertens, 2010, p 8) and is the method that has been chosen to meet the aims of the current project in order to provide a rich understanding of the volunteer programme which cannot be gained from quantitative methods alone. Mixed methods is the third methodological movement which evolved from the concept of triangulating data from a variety of sources and methods, merging both qualitative and quantitative methods in a unique combination that facilitates answering a research questions comprehensively in a way that cannot be done using just one method (Creswell, 2006; Tashakorri and Teddlie, 2003). Combining methods in this way integrates the strengths and reduces the limitations of both approaches (Bernard, 2011; Creswell, 2009).

In social science triangulation offers diverse perspectives from a variety of sources (Olsen, 2002) strengthening the validity of the research (Voss et al., 2002). Hussein (2009) identified different types of triangulation including data, theoretical, investigator, analysis and methodological, stating that methodological triangulation is used most frequently in social sciences. There are two types of methodological triangulation, using both qualitative and quantitative methods; and using multiple methods within either a qualitative or quantitative approach (Creswell, 2008). The current study combines qualitative methods including ethnographic observations and interviews as well as quantitative surveys.

Olsen (2002) suggests that there may be a lack of focus unless the research methods are sequenced. For example in the current study participating volunteers were asked to complete quantitative surveys which were followed by in-depth qualitative interviews. For further depth, ethnographic observations have been included in the research methods. All methods have been consistently aligned with the objectives of the study.

A mixed methods approach also has implications for sampling. Teddlie and Yu (2007) recommend a combination of probability and purposive sampling for creating mixed method samples to achieve the combined effect of increasing external validity and transferability. They also stated that in mixed methods there must often be a compromise between quantitative and qualitative samples conditions which is referred to as the 'representativeness/saturation trade-off'. Teddlie and Yu (2007) describe this trade-off as

a choice between the inference associated with quantitative sampling and saturation of data associated with qualitative sampling. The current study used ‘concurrent mixed methods’ sampling which allowed the researcher to triangulate results from the independently sampled mixed methods used within the study. Questionnaires and interviews focused more on ‘representativeness’ provided by the quantitative data were cross-validated and corroborated by the qualitative data as recommended by Creswell et al. (2003). Specific sampling methods will be discussed in further detail later in the next section.

### **3.6 Research Design**

The current study was designed to encapsulate the impact of the volunteer programme on all involved parties and to identify areas that work well and areas that could be improved. The literature was reviewed to support the design of methodology, each method of data collection was then piloted to obtain feedback for improvement. The following section gives an outline and justification for the various instruments that were chosen.

### **3.7 Questionnaire Design**

A questionnaire was designed to collect data from previous volunteers (PV group) to meet the objectives of the study. The questionnaire addressed attitudes to people with disabilities, motivations to volunteer and volunteer satisfaction, and also demographic information and specific questions relating to the impact of the programme on the volunteer and their career path. A copy of each questionnaire has been provided in the appendices (7.1; 7.2; 7.3). This questionnaire was slightly modified for volunteers that served at Hope during the summer of 2013 (CV group). For example, the post CV group were asked to “*describe in as much detail as possible how you think your experience at Hope will impact your career path*” compared to a similar question asked of the PV group “*describe in as much detail as possible how you think your experience at Hope impacted your career path*”. This group received a pre and post version of the questionnaire which aimed to assess whether their experience at Hope had an impact on their attitudes towards people with disabilities.

The questionnaire was designed following a review of the literature which identified a wide range of possible instruments that could be used to support the Volunteer Process Model (Omoto and Snyder, 1995) which proposes three interactive stages of interconnected behavioural and psychological qualities. As described in the literature review (2.3.9), this model may predict the characteristics of those who are most likely to become involved in volunteerism, those that will have the greatest impact and those who are most likely to be satisfied in their volunteer role. The first stage of this model is the antecedent stage which includes the qualities of helping personality, motivational characteristics and social support circumstances. Stage two identifies the experience stage which looks at the behavioural and psychological domains, the relationships that are created between volunteers and those that receive their services. In the current study this applied to Hope staff and the service users. Integration and satisfaction are the psychological and behavioural aspects that support positive impacts on the recipients as well as volunteer retention. This conceptual model is widely acknowledged throughout the volunteer literature (Marta and Pozzi, 2008; Galindo-Guzley and Kuhn, 2001; Chacon et al., 1998) and on this basis the author used the Volunteer Process Model as the foundation for the volunteer questionnaires.

### **3.7.1 Piloting of Questionnaire**

The preliminary questionnaire was piloted on a sample of ten people, all of whom had previously volunteered, with the purpose of improving the questionnaire. 60 percent of this sample had volunteered with people with disabilities. The researcher explained the purpose of the study and asked for feedback regarding their thoughts and feelings when completing the questionnaire. All members of the pilot sample were from Ireland. This data was not analysed. The general consensus was that while the questionnaire took almost twenty minutes to complete, they liked the thought of being asked about their experience of a programme they had volunteered for, in particular when it would help improve the experience in future. Four of the six that had volunteered with people with disabilities highlighted the one-dimensionality of the Attitudes toward Disability section of the questionnaire, stating that it was “too simple” and “not broad enough”.

The “pre” questionnaire for the summer 2013 volunteers, was piloted on a sample of four students who had not volunteered before. When asked for feedback this sample mentioned



that while they found the questionnaire long they would most likely be eager to complete a questionnaire for an organisation they were planning to volunteer for. All pilot participants reported that the questionnaire would be easier to complete online which prompted the researcher to use the online programme *SurveyMonkey* which allows the survey to be sent via email or via the social media network *facebook*. No other changes were made.

**Table 3.1 Research Methods**

<b>Research Methods and Instruments</b>
<b>Volunteer Questionnaire</b> See Appendix A
Demographic and Qualitative Questions
Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI, Clary et al., 1998)
Volunteer Satisfaction Index (VSI, Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley, 2001)
Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons – Scale O (ATDP-O, Yucker et al., 1970)
Questions from the Public Attitudes Survey (National Disability Authority, 2011)
<b>Semi Structured Interviews</b> See Table 3.4
<b>Rapid Ethnographic Observations</b>

### **3.7.2 Measuring Volunteer’s Motivations**

To assess volunteer’s motivations a variety of questionnaires were reviewed. These included the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI, Clary et al., 1998), the Volunteer Motivations Inventory; VMI (Esmond and Dunlop, 2004), the Attitudes Toward Helping Others; ATHO (Webb et al., 2000), the Helping Attitudes Scales; HAS (Nickell, 1998) and the Attitudes Towards Charitable Giving; ATCG (Furnham, 1995).

Immediately the ATHO scale (Webb et al., 2000) and the ATCG (Furnham, 1995) were excluded as both scales are associated more with financial help than actual service. The

VFI and the VMI were deemed most suitable as both scales are based on Omoto and Snyder's Volunteer Process Model (1995) consisting of generic functions associated with volunteerism. The VFI has been identified as the standard instrument for measuring volunteer motivations (Gage and Thapa, 2012; Clary and Snyder, 1999) and while the VMI expands on an earlier version of the VFI with parallel categories correlating strongly, for example career and career development ( $r=0.69$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) (Esmond and Dunlop, 2004), the VMI has not been validated as thoroughly as the VFI, nor is it as widely used. Considering these factors as well as the length of the instruments (the VFI has 30 items compared to the VMI's 40), it was decided that Clary et al.'s Volunteer Function Inventory (1998) would be used.

### **3.7.3 The Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI)**

In a review of the literature Clary et al. (1998) identified six self-related functions associated with volunteerism including protective, values, career, social, understanding and enhancement and designed the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI, Clary et al., 1998). Six studies were carried out to assess factor structure, reliability and validation. The first study consisted of a factor analysis of responses of 465 volunteers and identified six motivational factors with eigenvalues greater than one (eigenvalues and corresponding percentage variance: 8.26 (28%); 3.29 (39%); 2.47 (47%); 2.14 (54%); 1.40 (59%) and 1.20 (63%)) suggesting that the six factors were supported by the volunteers. The second study cross-validated the factor structure on a younger sample of 534 students, 320 of whom had volunteer experience (eigenvalues revealed six factors with scores and variance of 9.42 (31%); 3.16 (42%); 2.68 (51%); 1.72 (57%); 1.16 (61%) and 1.01 (64%)). The first and second study results were combined to compare samples and results showed a strong correlation. Where a score of 1 indicates a perfect correlation the Career, Protective and Social factors scored  $r=0.98$ ; Understanding recorded  $r=0.97$  and the Values factor computed  $r=0.93$ . Congruence was also calculated separately for students that volunteered and students that did not and similar scores were recorded. The third reliability study was carried out on a sample of 65 some of whom had volunteered ( $n=27$ ), some had not ( $n=25$ ) and others were currently volunteering ( $n=13$ ). The sample was retested a month after the initial test and again the factors were consistent (the Values function scored  $r=0.78$ ; Enhancement and Understanding reported  $r=0.77$ ; Career and Social scored  $r=0.68$  and Protective scored  $r=0.64$ ). The scores of the third study are lower

than the results from the first and second studies combined correlation scores, however these scores are still strong enough to correlate. The significance level for all studies was  $p < 0.001$ .

The final three studies validated that the VFI was in alignment with the three stages of the Volunteer Process Model, supporting the concept that recruitment of volunteers with specific motivations would enhance the satisfaction of volunteers, in turn positively impacting retention and commitment. The fourth study revealed that participants ( $n=59$ ) judged recruitment advertisements as effective when the theme matched their personal motivation to volunteer using regression analyses. For example, the enhancement score was the only function that significantly predicted participant's ratings (multiple  $r=0.51$ ,  $F(1,56)$ ). The fifth study validated the VFI by assessing volunteer satisfaction and the scope of benefits relevant to the six functions. Results revealed greater satisfaction among volunteers who reported an important function and perceived benefits associated with that function. The sixth validation study also found that volunteers benefitting according to their motivations, were satisfied with their role and intended to continue volunteering both short and long-term.

When the researcher tested for internal consistency on the current sample, the VFI scored a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) of .783, which is an acceptable score according to Pallant (2005) who states that a  $\alpha$  of  $>0.7$  indicated internal consistency. Even though VFI (1998) is valid, reliable and widely used (Gage and Thapa, 2012) it is possible that 'new' types of volunteering such as international volunteerism may have functions that are not included in the VFI. For this reason the current survey included an open-ended qualitative question asking volunteers why they chose to volunteer at Hope.

#### **3.7.4 Measuring Volunteer Satisfaction**

The concept of measuring volunteer satisfaction is relatively new and can be seen by the limited number of measuring instruments (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley, 2001). Many studies have used and designed their own questionnaires (Clary et al., 1998; Cnaan and Cascio, 1998; Kemp, 2002; Pascuet et al., 2012) however for the current study it was decided to use valid and reliable scales where possible to support the validity and reliability of the study.

A variety of job satisfaction scales have been used to measure volunteer satisfaction. For example Gidron's (1983) Sources of Job Satisfaction Index used by Bennett (2006) and the Job Satisfaction Scale (Wood et al., 1986) utilised by Costa et al. (2006). Other job satisfaction scales considered for use in the current study were the Principle Environment Influences in Employment scale (Warr, 2007) and the Gallup Workplace Audit (Gallup Organisation, 1992-1999) however it was decided that use of a satisfaction scale specific to volunteerism would be most suited to the current project as the programme is clearly defined as a volunteer programme and also because there is a contextual difference between volunteer and paid work in particular motives (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley, 2001).

A review of the literature discovered three specific volunteer satisfaction tools including the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (VSI, Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley, 2001) and the Volunteer Satisfaction Scale (VSS, Silverberg et al., 2001). Both the VSI and VSS were used to assess satisfaction of volunteers providing recreation services. Of the two scales the researcher decided to use Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley's Volunteer Satisfaction Index (2001) as it was most frequently used or adapted (Al Mutawa and Ali, 2012; Boezeman and Ellemers, 2007; Jordan, 2009) and is the most validated of the scales and also because the authors of this instrument validated it using a sample of volunteers providing recreation services.

### **3.7.5 The Volunteer Satisfaction Index (VSI)**

The VSI (Galindo-Guzley and Kuhn, 2001) is a 39 item questionnaire that has five separate dimensions designed by identifying general and comprehensive factors that relate to motivation and impact volunteer satisfaction including Work Assignment, Participation Efficacy, Group Integration, Organisational Support and Communication Quality (Group integration has 7 items). Factor analysis was carried out on a sample of 327 volunteers from an internationally associated non-profit organisation to calculate the dimensional nature of the instrument and revealed three factors. The first factor represented Organisational Support and consisted of twelve items (eigenvalue was 8.113 explaining 21% variance), two items were dropped due to a lack of conceptual suitability and the Cronbach's alpha reliability score was 0.91. The second factor, Participation Efficacy, had seven items (eigenvalue was 5.827, 15% variance) with a reliability score

of 0.84. The third factor identified three items that were intended to correspond with Work Assignment and Communication Quality and were identified as Empowerment (eigenvalue of 3.949, 10% variance) with a reliability score of 0.75. Factor four represented Group Integration with four items (eigenvalue of 3.522, 9% variance) and had a reliability score of 0.87. The sum of the variance of the four identified factors is 55% which indicates a good score. This conclusion is supported by Guion (2011, p 201) who states that there is always a large amount of unrecognised variance.

Pauline (2011) also tested the VSI for internal consistency on a sample of professional golf event volunteers and revealed a score of .946, showing high reliability. The author of the current study also found the VSI to be internally consistent on the current sample ( $\alpha=0.987$ ). Qualitative questions were also included in the volunteer questionnaires to gain a deeper understanding of the volunteer's satisfaction and to help identify topics that were not covered in the VSI. Volunteers were asked whether they would recommend the programme and to give reasons for their answer. They were also asked to "describe briefly what you liked best about Hope's volunteer programme", and to "describe improvements could be made with Hope's volunteer programme".

### **3.7.6 Attitudes to Disability**

Another objective of the study was to assess volunteer's attitudes to disability in order to evaluate whether Hope's philosophy has impacted volunteers in this way. There is a wide range of disability scales including the Attitudes Toward Disabled Person's Scale (ATDP, Yuker et al., 1970), the Scale of Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons (SATDP, Antonak, 1982), Interactions with Disabled Persons Scale (IDP, Gething and Wheeler, 1992) and the Multidimensional Attitudes Scale Toward Persons with Disabilities (MAS, Findler et al., 2007).

The present study chose the ATDP-O scale as it is the most widely used and validated of the instruments (Lam et al., 2010) and includes international validation (Chan et al., 2002). Limitations of the ATDP-O (Yuker et al., 1970) include its one dimensionality and lack of person first language compared to MAS (Findler et al., 2007), however it is so widely used that it allows for comparison with similar groups including recreation students (Perry, 2008), health professional students (Tervo et al., 2004) and Chinese and American students (2010) as recommended by Yuker and Block (1986). Use of the

ATDP-O also allows for comparison of Hope's previous volunteers to pre-existing data of Irish recreation students to help discern whether Hope's philosophy impacted their attitudes and rule out the possibility that it was their college programme that impacted their attitudes.

### **3.7.7 The Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons – Scale O (ATDP-O)**

The ATDP-O (Yuker et al., 1970) is a 20 item questionnaire that indicates whether the participant perceives someone with a disability as equal to someone without a disability. Scores range from 0-120 with higher scores indicating the opinion that people with and without disabilities are similar and the scale has eight test-retest scores for reliability ranging between  $\alpha=0.66$  and  $\alpha=0.89$  with a median of  $\alpha=0.73$  (Yuker et al., 1970). The split-half method of equivalence reliability was used and involved items being calculated separately according to odd and even numbers and then correlated. Reliability coefficient results of  $\alpha=0.75$  and  $\alpha=0.85$  (Yuker et al., 1970) confirm reliability. Miller (n.d) states that equivalence reliability is important in studies similar to the current study where subjective data is being collected from various participants. When tested for reliability on the current sample, the ATDP-O scored a Cronbach's alpha coefficient result of  $\alpha=0.809$  indicating good internal consistency.

The current study also included questions from the National Disability Authority (NDA) of Ireland's public attitudes to disability survey to assess the extent of experience with disabilities and to evaluate whether Hope's volunteers are more likely to have direct experience with disabilities than the general public in Ireland (NDA, 2001; 2006; 2011) Participants were asked to identify from a list of illness, conditions or disabilities, the term "people with disabilities" referred to; they were also asked whether they had any of the conditions, illnesses or disabilities; or whether they knew someone with a disability and if so, what was the disability that they had. These questions were asked to evaluate whether those who had greater experience with people with disabilities have better attitudes towards disability as suggested by the Contact Theory (Allport, 1954; Hewstone, 2003). All interviewed Hope staff and management were also invited to complete this portion of the questionnaire. Ethnographic observations were also made to compare the attitudes of Hope staff and management towards disability to the attitudes of the volunteers.

### 3.7.8 Sampling

The current study aimed to evaluate the total population of previous volunteers which was 567 up to the summer of 2013, according to Hope's records. Members of management reported that these records are inconclusive and that over a thousand volunteers have possibly participated in the programme throughout the years. This population included 537 volunteers from Ireland and 30 volunteers from countries including eleven from Austria; eight from Russia; five from Kyrgyzstan; four from Belarus; two from Czech Republic; one from Gambia, Malawi, Chile, Lithuania, Spain and the Netherlands. A limitation is that this population does not include volunteers from between 1997 and 2002 as Hope has no records of participating students for this timeframe as it wasn't until 2003 that the programme officially became an organised volunteer programme.

From Hope's records, email addresses were available for 318 of the total population (N=567). 50 of these email addresses were invalid meaning that 268 volunteers were contacted via email. The researcher used the social media network, *facebook*, to search for previous volunteers and a further 109 previous volunteers were contacted in this manner. This totalled an accessible population of 376. A limitation of collecting responses via *facebook* is that if the participant is not within the direct social network of the researcher, but is "friends" with a "friend" of the researcher, the survey link goes to the participant's "other" message box instead of their inbox. This "other" message box is similar to a junk mail folder. Another limitation associated with response rates of online surveys is the lack of direct contact between the researcher and the participant. To counteract this limitation the researcher addressed each participant by their name when contacting them on *facebook* to make the interaction more personal, aiming to increase the likelihood of participating. All volunteers participating in the volunteer programme during the summer of 2013 (CV group, n=21) were invited to complete the volunteer questionnaire before and after their volunteer experience at Hope.

### 3.7.9 Response Rate

The overall response rate was 43 percent. Of the accessible population of 376 volunteers, 85 from the PV group responded to the questionnaire equating to a response rate of 23 percent. 33 participants responded via *facebook* and 52 participated via the email link. Of the twenty-one CV group, thirteen volunteers participated in the pre and post portion of

this study. The response rate for this group is 62 percent. This sample was verbally invited to participate which most likely lead to the higher response rate. In addition to the limitations listed in section 3.7.8 it is possible that many of the volunteers no longer check their student email accounts which were the provided email addressed by most of the PV group.

### **3.8 Semi-structured Interview Design**

The purpose of the semi-structured interviews is to assess the impact of the international volunteer programme on Hope and on the service users. The semi-structured approach offers the interviewer discretion and control within a reasonably conversational manner and allows for narrative which facilitates a deeper understanding of the topic (Harrell and Bradley, 2009). The ‘grand tour’ method was adopted, beginning each interview with an open-ended question to evoke an account of the interviewee’s involvement with the international volunteer programme (Spradley, 1979; Roulston, 2010; Brenner, 2006; Fox et al., 2010). Throughout each interview the interviewer was mindful of the core conditions that build trust, congruence or authentic agreeableness, unconditional positive regard and empathy (Rogers, 1959) to facilitate an environment where the interviewee feels free to authentically discuss topics, reducing social desirability bias. The conversation was then guided using ‘mini tour’ questions (Spradley, 1979) to specifically assess the perceived impact of the programme on the organisation and the service users. Probes included the impact on service users, on the organisation, on the attitudes of paid staff, programmes that have been developed by volunteers, cultural exchange, short-term issues, for example “tell me how you think the volunteer programme has impacted service users”. Each interview was tailored according to involvement the interviewee had with the volunteer programme being careful to use non-directional wording as suggested by Creswell (1998). For example previous volunteer coordinators were probed to speak about their perception of organisational support, communication quality, work assignment, participation efficacy and group integration to triangulate to data provided by volunteers in the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (VSI, Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley, 2001). Hope staff were also asked questions related to the motivation of the volunteer’s and their work ethic to triangulate data collected from the volunteer survey. See table 3.4 for a schedule of the guidelines used in interviews for Hope management and paid staff.



**Table 3.4 Interview Schedule Guidelines for Hope Management and Employees**

Interview Topics	Probes
<b>Grand Tour Question</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tell me about your experience/involvement with International Volunteers</li> </ul>
<b>Mini Tour Questions</b>	
<b>Impact of the Programme</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• On service users</li> <li>• On Hope</li> <li>• On attitudes of employees</li> <li>• On volunteers</li> </ul>
<b>Perception of volunteer’s satisfaction – in line with the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (Galindo-Guzley and Kuhn, 2001)</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Communication quality</li> <li>• Organisational support</li> <li>• Participation efficacy</li> <li>• Work assignment</li> <li>• Group integration</li> </ul>
<b>Perception of Volunteer’s Motives – in line with Volunteer Function Inventory (Clary et al., 1998)</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Protective</li> <li>• Values</li> <li>• Career</li> <li>• Social</li> <li>• Understanding</li> <li>• Enhancement</li> </ul>
<b>Additional Questions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Programmes adapted by volunteers</li> <li>• Short-term issues?</li> <li>• Coordination of the programme?</li> </ul>

The schedule for interviews with guardians of service users with experience with the volunteers is outlined in Table 3.5. Where possible questions were asked of both guardians and Hope’s staff and management; however, many of the topics asked of staff and management are not relevant to the guardians due to the limited amount of contact.

For example, service user’s guardians would not be aware of volunteer’s level of satisfaction or the impact of the volunteer programme on Hope as an organisation.

**Table 3.5. Interview Schedule for Service User’s guardians**

Interview Topics	Prompts
<b>Grand Tour Question</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tell me about your experience with International Volunteers</li> </ul>
<b>Impact of the Programme</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• On service users</li> </ul>
<b>Perception of Volunteer’s Motives (in line with Volunteer Function Inventory (Clary et al., 1998))</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Protective</li> <li>• Values</li> <li>• Career</li> <li>• Social</li> <li>• Understanding</li> <li>• Enhancement</li> </ul>
<b>Additional Questions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Short-term issues?</li> </ul>

### 3.8.1 Piloting of Semi-Structured Interviews

Interviews were piloted on two people who had previously been involved in facilitating a short-term volunteer programme providing recreation services for people with disabilities. When asked for feedback regarding the style of the interview both interviewees reported that the structure of the interview was relaxed and allowed them to openly discuss the positive and negative aspects without being lead either way.

The semi-structured interview that was designed for Hope’s service users was piloted on four people with mild to intellectual disabilities availing of Hope’s services, with the intention of then excluding these individuals from the study. The sample was purposively identified with the support of Hope staff. The interviews were conducted in the homes of the interviewees to ensure the setting was familiar and the interviewer had already visited and spoken with the home alliance coordinator (direct support staff) and requested and obtained written consent. The wording of the consent form and the interview questions were simplified according to the level of understanding of the service users as

recommended by guidelines (National Disability Authority of Ireland, 2009; D'Eath, 2005) and advice from the service user's direct support staff.

It was found that, despite these considerations and the interviewer's direct experience with people with intellectual disabilities, the participant's responses were not valid. Two of the service users were unable to differentiate between the volunteers and paid staff even when the volunteers were referred to as "the Irish" or "the students" as suggested by staff. The researcher did not find a way of obtaining appropriate answers from three of the four pilot participants within the data collection timeframe, for example one service user repeatedly spoke about her personal employment, her family and her daily activities. Another issue that arose in two of the four interviews, was participants giving what they thought to be desired responses. An example was one participant answering yes to all questions even when these answers conflicted. Another limitation was the small number of service users who obtained consent from their personal representatives within the data collection timeframe, further limiting the sample size. These outcomes prompted the researcher to depend more heavily on ethnographic observations of interactions between service users and the volunteers providing scope for the observation of body language, facial expressions and tone of voice (Thorpe, 2012). This helped maintain alignment with the person-centered philosophy of disability and the biosychosocial model of disability it was imperative that the service user's perspective was portrayed. These observations are reported in section 3.9.

### **3.8.2 Interview Sampling**

As with most qualitative data collection, purposive sampling was used to identify interview samples (Teddlie and Yu, 2007). The researcher deliberately identified the most appropriate sources of information within Hope staff and management using typical case method of purposive sampling (Teddlie and Yu, 2007). This sample included members of senior management (n=5) and recreation management and staff (n=5) supervisors; previous volunteer coordinators (n=7), direct support supervisors including home alliance coordinators (n=10), training staff (n=2); and previous volunteers who are currently staff (n=6). The total sample of interviewed Hope staff is 30, all of whom have had direct involvement with the international volunteer programme. Sampling was random where possible, for example direct support staff with direct involvement with the volunteers were identified as an appropriate typical case sample but due to the larger size of this group a random sample was taken. The researcher also invited a random sample of

guardians of service users availing of recreation services provided by volunteers to participate in brief interviews to share their perspective of the impact of the volunteer programme on their ward. In terms of the services users, with the support of Hope supervisory staff the researcher identified a sample of potential participants with mild to moderate intellectual disabilities. From this sample a group of participants were randomly selected to participate in interviews (n=15). These participants included service users that availed of services at the Discovery Centre and Camp Cara (n=7); at a group home where volunteers had frequently provided service (n=3); and those involved in the Self-advocacy group (n=5).

To assess the international impact of the volunteer programme four international volunteers from outside of Ireland were interviewed to identify whether the impact of the programme was different in countries where disability services were less of a priority than in Ireland and the USA. These countries included Gambia, Russia, Romania and Belarus. This type of purposive sampling is referred to as critical case sampling which uses unique cases and while the results are not inferential the richness of the provided data allows the researcher to offer logical generalisations (Teddlie and Yu, 2007).

### **3.8.3 Validity and Reliability of Interviews**

Validity and reliability are concepts most associated with quantitative research (Golafshani, 2003) however when applied to qualitative research the concept of reliability can be translated as dependability, credibility, neutrality or consistency and validity can be interpreted as transferability, applicability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), trustworthiness, quality and rigor (Golafshani, 2003) meaning that the researcher checks for accuracy of findings (Creswell, 2007).

Triangulation of data from various sources and methods validates qualitative data, for this reason a broad range of Hope staff and service users were interviewed in the current study (Creswell and Miller, 2000; Golafshani, 2003). Also the use of different methods was incorporated including interviews with an ethnographic approach, and surveys. Additionally to validate the findings on a broader scale within the study both Hope's and the volunteer's perspectives were included. Creswell and Miller (2000) recommend the process of researcher reflexivity as a valuable method of validation and can be described as an awareness that the researcher's beliefs and values contribute to the meanings

throughout the research process, in particular in qualitative research becomes intertwined with the subject matter (Anderson, 2008). As was done in the methodology introduction, the researcher discloses their own personal beliefs, values and biases which may impact their perspective. Another method of enhancing validity and reliability within qualitative research is through the analysis procedure (Patton, 2002). A systematic thematic approach was taken to analysis all qualitative data using Braun and Clarke's guidelines (2006) and is described in detail in section 3.10.2.

### **3.9 Rapid Ethnographic Approach**

Rapid ethnography is a type of multi-method data collection over a short period of time involving numerous sources of data which can include observations during interviews with key informants, review of archival data, participant observations in a natural setting, surveys and group interviews all chosen to provide a textured depiction of the entity being evaluated (Baines and Cunningham, 2011; Millen, 2000). It allows the organisation to be placed within a broader socio-cultural context (Handwerker, 2001) which supports one of the aims of the volunteer programme which is to make a positive impact on disability services on an international scale by introducing students from a range of countries to their client-centred beliefs, values, mission, vision and expectations. The holistic nature of ethnography (Whitehead, 2005) is also in alignment with the biopsychosocial model of disability and the humanistic philosophies mentioned in the introduction. All of these reasons impacted the decision for this approach to be used within this study in conjunction with the methods outlined earlier, as a means of data triangulation to reinforce validity. The aim of the ethnographic aspect of this study was to supplement and validate the qualitative and quantitative data described throughout the chapter.

As reported in section 3.8.1, the data collected in the pilot interviews with Hope's service users was not reliable, the researcher observed interactions between the volunteers and service users at the volunteer's 'work' environment. This included the Discovery Centre, Camp Cara, the Art Studio and the Hope Annual Picnic. The researcher looked for reactions in the service users when they were in contact with volunteers or during conversations with staff about the "Irish students" or "Irish staff", as many of the volunteers are sometimes referred to when in one-to-one service with service users. The observed reactions included body language, facial expressions, tone of voice and spoken

words. Observations were made of service users that have availed of the volunteers services in group homes and at the Discovery Centre, which is Hope's recreation centre and is staffed mostly by volunteers. Because the researcher is from Ireland and had previously volunteered at Hope, they were perceived as a volunteer by many of Hope's service users, staff and management which allowed the researcher to observe the attitudes of these groups towards the volunteers in a mildly covert manner. Due to the non-sensitive nature of the study this was ethically appropriate. Observations were made throughout the researchers three months on site for varying lengths of time. For example, ranging between two to six hours on consecutive days; and observations during brief visits and interactions at the following sites and encounters. These included during training, at the Discovery Centre, the Art Studio, Camp Cara and at Hope gatherings, like the annual Hope Picnic. The researcher observed volunteer's attitudes towards Hope's service users, their level of satisfaction and motivations; and also the attitudes of Hope staff, management and service users towards the volunteers.

This type of research generally involves two researchers, including one from the local site acting as a cultural translator and to enhance validity. In this study, one researcher was deemed sufficient considering the researcher's familiarity with the organisation and the programme. Baines and Cunningham (2011) mention that a researcher's familiarity with the site is beneficial however heightened awareness is necessary along with the required bias towards understanding the participant's perspective. The researcher received training and experience in objectively reporting client-centred findings as part of BSc (Hons) in Health and Leisure with massage at the Institute of Technology, Tralee while carrying out a qualitative undergraduate research project and also for various reflective practice modules.

### **3.9.1 Validity and Reliability of Ethnography**

To support validity of ethnographic observations, researcher reflexivity was stated (Creswell and Miller, 2000) in the introduction offering the reader the researcher's perspective, which impacts the data collected. As already mentioned this perspective is in alignment with the holistic biopsychosocial model of disability and the humanistic psychological philosophies. Triangulation with data collected using other methods also promoted validity and reliability of data as stated by Creswell (2007).

### 3.10 Data Management and Analysis

#### 3.10.1 Volunteer Questionnaire

The researcher used SPSS to analyse the quantitative data collected using the volunteer questionnaire and the ATDP-O results from Hope staff and management. Before running tests, the researcher tested all data for normality. Parametric tests were used for normal data and Non-parametric tests were used for data that was not normal. The actual differences and relationships that were tested are outlined in the results chapter (in sections 4.4.2; 4.5.1; 4.6.2)

**Table 3.2 Tests Used for Differences and Relationships**

	Application	Parametric Test	Non-parametric Test
Tests for Differences	Matched Pairs	T Test	Sign Test
	Two Independent Samples	T Test	Mann Whitney U Test
	Several Independent Samples	ANOVA	Kruskal Wallis Test
Tests for Relationships	Linear Correlation	Rank Correlation	

Adapted from Pallant (2005)

G\*Power3 was used to test for the post-hoc power, which refers to the power of each test in detecting a statistical difference, and also the effect size of differences that were discovered. The effect sizes were then measured against Cohen’s guidelines (1988) which outline whether the effect size is small, medium or large. Scores are outlined in Table 3.3.

**Table 3.3 Cohen’s d Guidelines for Effect Size (1988)**

Effect Size	Differences	Relationships
<b>small</b>	0.2	r=0.1
<b>medium</b>	0.5	r=0.3
<b>large</b>	0.8	r=0.5

### **3.10.2 Semi-structured Interviews and Qualitative Questions in Questionnaire**

The researcher followed the guidelines of Braun and Clark (2006) to carry out thematic analysis of the qualitative data. Braun and Clark state that this method of analysis reports the reality and experiences of the study participants so the researcher felt that this approach is most suited to the current, pragmatic study. All interviews were transcribed and coded within the qualitative analysis software package NVIVO (QSR International 10). The researcher read all qualitative data before initial coding. Any patterns in the data, in particular pertinent to the study aims and objectives were identified as themes in a deductive or theoretical manner, as suggested by Braun and Clark (2006). All codes (nodes) and themes were reviewed and additional themes were identified and categorised. For example, in the Motivations section Adventure, Financial Support, “Experience” and Programme Organisation were identified. In the Satisfaction section the Alaska Experience and the Hope Experience were also identified. A Reciprocal Benefit category was identified when evaluating the impact on Hope and also the impact on the Wider Community was discovered. Codes and themes were reviewed again, codes were merged and relationships were identified. For example, the results show a relationship between the increase in visa extensions and returning volunteers and the development of health and recreation services being provided by the volunteers. Appendix D shows how themes were formed through recoding and creating models. The results were then written, providing quotations of the most representative findings.

### **3.10.3 Rapid Ethnographic Observations**

Field notes were taken following observations and were reviewed in terms of the study objectives. This data was not the main method of the study and was used to validate and merge the findings from the quantitative and qualitative findings. Similar to the data from the semi-structured interviews, this data was analysed in alignment with Braun and Clarke’s (2006) guidelines using NVIVO (QSR International 10) and aligned with the themes found in the quantitative and qualitative data.

## **3.11 Ethical Considerations**

Before any data was collected the current study was reviewed by the Institute of Technology’s Ethics Committee and Hope’s Ethics Committee, ensuring that the current study was carried out in alignment with a client-centred philosophy and under strict controls.



Ethical issues that were considered within the current study included confidentiality and data protection in alignment with the Data Protection Act (1988; 2003). Care was taken to ensure that all results were anonymous and did not allow for identification of any participant. It was imperative that the well-being of all participants involved in or affected by the research was considered and maintained. Online surveys were informed and completion indicated consent. Written consent from a parent or personal representative was required for any interviewed participant with an intellectual disability. The researcher designed the semi-structured interviews for service users (which were piloted and cancelled due to a lack of valid data) according to guidelines provided by the National Disability Authority of Ireland (NDA; 2009). For the ethnographic observations, consent from the two ethics committees was deemed sufficient as the data being collection was not of a personal or sensitive nature and was working to serve the highest good of service users and was in alignment with Hope's Core Philosophy. All electronic data was kept on a password protected computer and all paper files were kept in a locked filing cabinet within a locked room.

Assessment of the programme aims to provide recommendations on how the international volunteer environment may be enhanced for all involved parties, as opposed to exploiting study participants. Throughout all stages of the research process the researcher was considerate of the human rights of the participants, especially those of Hope's service users. These rights as outlined in the UN convention of rights of persons with disabilities (2006) include, respecting the dignity of all participants, autonomy including the right to participate and withdraw at any time, the equality of all participants.

### **3.12 Reflection on the Research Process**

On reflection, the researcher found the research process to be generally effective at attaining the aims and objectives of the research. Nonetheless, there were areas that worked well and also areas that could have been more effective. The researcher was satisfied with the level and quality of quantitative and qualitative data obtained from the volunteers and Hope staff and management and with how this data was merged using mixed methods. A deductive or thematic approach to the qualitative analysis was chosen as most suitable to the current study. This type of analysis refers to a 'top down' approach and ensures that analysis of the data meets the study objectives in particular when they are specific. In comparison, inductive analysis allows for greater scope yet it may identify themes that may not represent the study aims and objectives (Braun and Clark, 2006).

This choice of analysis also affected the coding of data. For example, while the researcher did not limit the coding purely according to the quantitative instruments, the researcher did code the data with the categories of each instrument in mind to allow for validation of the quantitative data. For example, following the first reading of qualitative data the researcher acknowledged many of the volunteer's motives were in alignment with the functions or motivations within the Volunteer Function Inventory, with the addition of motivations, including adventure and experience.

The main area aspect of the study the researcher would make improvements in, is the collection of data from Hope's service users. This would involve even greater planning in particular clarification from all parties involved regarding ethical approval expectations, as on arrival in Alaska clearance from Hope's Ethics Committee was required before any data could be collected. This was in addition to clearance from the Institute of Technology, Tralee which had been previously obtained. This shortened the period of data collection, in turn impacting the level of input from Hope's service users for a few reasons. These included identifying a sample of service users with mild intellectual disability and obtaining consent from their personal representatives, both of which were time consuming processes. The researcher felt that this compromised the quality of the study, in particular as the biopsychosocial model of disability advocates for the empowerment of people with disabilities through self-advocacy and obtaining their personal perspectives. The researcher chose to depend on ethnographic observations to a greater level in this aspect of the study compared to the other study groups. Despite this limitation, the researcher felt that the combination of mixed methods and the ample amount of data collected sufficiently met the aims and objectives of the study.

## **Results**

## **4.0 Results**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the findings of the research as outlined in the methodology chapter. Due to the large range of data collected, some context is provided by comparing the findings of this study to the relevant norms or leading research. The results will be interpreted in further detail in the discussion chapter.

The chapter begins by describing the profile of Hope's international volunteers and their involvement with the volunteer programme, including the number of trips and volunteer's roles. This is followed by describing whether the volunteers perceive their service as voluntary or not and the likelihood of their participation without the provision of reimbursements. Volunteer's motivations and satisfaction are reported along with any differences and relationships identified and also Hope staff's satisfaction with the volunteers. Volunteer's attitudes to disability are also reported and compared with Hope management and staff. Various impacts on the volunteers are reported including personal, educational and career impacts. An international impact was also found. The impact on Hope's workforce and service users is also reported including the impacts associated with the short-term nature of the programme. An impact on the wider community was also identified.

### **4.2 The Volunteers**

Of a total 376 possible participants, the response rate of the Previous Volunteer (PV) group was 22 percent (n=83) and for the Current Volunteer (CV) group it was 62 percent (n=13) of a possible 21 participants. 75 percent of the volunteers (PV and CV groups) were female (n=72) compared to 25 percent male (n=24).

#### **4.2.1 Nationality**

Hope provided the researcher with a list of 631 international volunteers, however only 376 of these volunteers were contactable. Also a member of management reported that possibly over 1000 volunteers have participated in the programme. The list provided consists mostly of volunteers from 2003 onwards, when the programme became a formal international volunteer programme. From the 631 provided names, 538 came from Ireland

(93%) and 47 have come from a range of other countries (8%) which are shown in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1 Volunteer’s Countries of Origin**

<b>Country</b>	<b>n</b>
<b>Ireland</b>	538
<b>Austria</b>	20
<b>Russia</b>	8
<b>Kyrgyzstan</b>	5
<b>Belarus</b>	4
<b>Czech Republic</b>	2
<b>Romania</b>	2
<b>Spain</b>	1
<b>Lithuania</b>	1
<b>The Netherlands</b>	1
<b>Chile</b>	1
<b>Malawi</b>	1
<b>Gambia</b>	1

#### **4.2.2 Level of Education**

Hope mostly recruits volunteers through third level educational institutes, which is why all participants, and according to management of the Volunteer club, the majority of volunteers, had completed or were undertaking third level education. 49 percent of the volunteers reported participating in the programme as part of their college placement or work experience (n=53). Table 4.2 shows the range of colleges from which volunteers are recruited and the course that they had studied. Volunteers are mainly recruited from Waterford Institute of Technology (WIT); the Institute of Technology, Tralee (ITT); the Institute of Technology Sligo (ITS), all in Ireland and also Graz University in Austria. Volunteers have also come from Tomsk State University, Russia; a University in Kyrgyzstan, and a University in Romania. Hope have also travelled to and made connections with Universities in Ethiopia, and Senegambia with the intention of recruiting volunteers, however students have not been recruited from these countries due to cost and immigration limitations. Also, ITS sent volunteers for two years from 2004,

however due to changes in their curriculum, the volunteer programme no longer met the curriculum requirements in terms of the experience the volunteers were receiving. This changed again in 2012 and ITS began sending students again.

**Table 4.2 Volunteer’s Educational Programmes**

Third Level Institute	Degree Programme	n	% of Volunteers
Waterford Institute of Technology (49.4%)	Recreation and Sport Management	21	22.6
	Health Promotion	17	16
	Exercise and Health	10	10.8
Institute of Technology Tralee	Health and Leisure Studies	16	17.2
University of Graz	Social Care	5	5.4
Institute of Technology Sligo	Social Care	2	2.2
Other*	Social Care	9	22.6
	Nursing	4	
	Construction	3	
	Other	3	

\* 33.3 percent of these volunteers were recruited from WIT

\*\*2.2 percent did not respond to this question and 1 percent may have been lost due to rounding

Additionally, it was found that 67 percent of all volunteers had or were studying a programme involving leisure, recreation and or health promotion. 18 percent were involved in a social care or social science programme and 4 percent had studied nursing. 3 percent of the participants had studied construction and the remaining 7 percent of participants had either not answered the question or studied miscellaneous programmes. Seventy-one percent of the volunteers (n=68) had also studied a disability module however it is not clear whether this was before or after their time at Hope.

#### 4.2.3 Recruitment of Volunteers

The participants were asked how they heard about Hope’s volunteer programme. The majority (75%) of volunteers had first heard about the programme through their college, followed by 10 percent who heard about the programme from a former volunteer. Table 4.3 lists all sources from where volunteers heard about the programme. No volunteers had heard about the programme from Hope’s website and when the researcher looked for information via the internet, found that the information regarding the international volunteer programme was difficult to find and was outdated. For example, the email

address provided was for the volunteer coordinator who had not been in that position for over a year, the training provided by Hope had been reduced from two weeks to one and this had not been updated. This suggests that utilisation of this medium of information could be improved.

**Table 4.3 Recruitment**

Source	%
College	75.0
Former Volunteer	10.4
Friend/Colleague	8.3
Hope Management	3.1
Belarus Orphanage Project	3.1
Hope's Website	0

During the interview process Hope staff were not directly asked about volunteer recruitment, however sixteen members of staff specifically mentioned ideal skills and qualities to be considered when recruiting volunteers. Flexibility and adaptability were mentioned most frequently, followed by previous experience with people with disabilities, in particular with Autism. The need for licensed drivers (three years driving experience is necessary) was also identified. The majority of members of staff highlighted the importance of all volunteers knowing that they will be providing personal care as some stated that there were many occasions where volunteers were unaware that personal care was an expected responsibility, even though this information is stated in the volunteer manual and those involved in recruitment report that all volunteers are informed of this during interviews. Two members of staff stated that the majority of volunteers come with a willingness to form a relationship with service users and highlight the importance of this quality stating that the service users “aren’t people who want you to care for them, they want you to hang out with them and do stuff together and kind of be on their same level, they don’t want you to just come in here and take care of them”, “they aren’t just looking for therapy, they’re looking for heart”. Another member of staff who works alongside volunteers reported the need for focusing on each service user’s personal goals while doing this. In terms of the broader goals of the volunteer programme, two directors perceived a need to recruit volunteers that are “willing to make an impact when

*they go home, so the best thing to do would be to attract these volunteers. What do they want to learn? What projects will they start when they go back?"*

#### **4.2.4 Previous Experience with People with Disabilities**

The results show that 43 percent of the volunteers had worked or volunteered with people with disabilities before their service at Hope (n=59). Table 4.4 shows the type of service this involved. It can be seen that 28 of the participants, the largest proportion, had experience within an organisation that provided physical activity for people with disabilities, with 20 of these participants volunteering with Special Olympics. 19 volunteers had gained experience at other disability organisations, while twelve did so through their college or university. Three participants had volunteered at the Belarussian Orphanage Project (BOP), an organisation that Hope have made a connection with and have recruited volunteers from.

**Table 4.4 Previous Work or Volunteer Experience with People with Disabilities**

<b>Activity/Organisation</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Physical Activity (includes Special O)</b>	28
<b>Special O</b>	20
<b>Other Disability Organisations</b>	19
<b>University/Internship/College Placement...</b>	13
<b>Miscellaneous</b>	4
<b>Belarus Orphanage Project</b>	3

Additionally, the questions from the Irish National Disability Authority (NDA) survey (2001, 2006, 2011) which evaluated participant's perspectives of disability and experience with people with disabilities, revealed that 100 percent of volunteers reported knowing someone with a disability compared to 64 percent of the general public in Ireland (NDA, 2011). Table 4.5 lists the types of relationships participants had experienced with people with disabilities. For example, 36 percent of Hope's volunteers reported having a friend with a disability, compared to 17 percent of the NDA sample (2011). This is a substantial finding as friendship is a personal choice, so this indicates that Hope's volunteers may have more positive attitudes to disability, or that spending time with



people with disabilities increased the likelihood of developing a friendship with someone with a disability. Of the CV group 62 percent reported having a friend with a disability. Also 32 percent of Hope’s volunteers had an immediate family member (parent or sibling) with a disability and 34 percent had a relative with a disability compared to 15 and 18 percent of the Irish population respectively (NDA, 2011). 62 percent of the CV group reported having an immediate family member with a disability. This suggests that the CV group already had positive attitudes to disability before volunteering at Hope.

**Table 4.5 People Volunteers know that Experience Disabilities**

<b>Relationship</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>Friend</b>	36
<b>Other Relative</b>	34
<b>Immediate Family</b>	32
<b>Colleague</b>	27
<b>Neighbour</b>	22
<b>Acquaintance</b>	20
<b>Spouse</b>	1

#### **4.2.5 Previous Volunteer Experience**

The results show that 61 percent of all volunteers had volunteered before volunteering at Hope and Management of the Volunteer Club stated that experience volunteering has become a prerequisite in recent years. As was reported in Table 4.4, 21 percent of the participants had volunteered with Special Olympics. Participants were also asked whether they had engaged in any other types of voluntary service. Table 4.6 shows that the most frequent type of previous volunteer experience, excluding Special Olympics, was international (8%), followed by volunteering that provides services for youth (7%).

**Table 4.6 Volunteer Experience Before Hope**

Type	Percent
International	8
Youth Services	7
Miscellaneous	6
Physical Activity*	2
Older Adults	2

\*excluding Special Olympics

#### 4.2.6 The Number of Times Volunteering and Duration

Of the 97 participating volunteers, they made 144 trips to Hope. Table 4.7 identifies the number of times volunteers returned to Hope and shows that over 25 percent of participants had returned to Hope at least once, with almost 10 percent volunteering three times.

**Table 4.7 Number of Times Volunteering at Hope**

Number	Percent
One	74
Two	12
Three	9
Four	3
Five	1

Of the participants that had volunteered once at Hope, 74 percent served for three months (n=71), 29 percent spent between four and six months at Hope (n=21) and five percent volunteered for between seven and twelve months (n=4). For those who returned to Hope a second time or more (n=30), 50 percent spent between one and three months in Alaska (n=18), 23 percent spent between four and six months (n=8), 28 percent of volunteers spent between seven and twelve months (n=10). The two participants that volunteered five times did not state how long their fifth trip was. In addition to these results, there are eleven current members of staff that transferred from the volunteer programme to permanency, the majority of whom are in supervisory roles.

#### 4.2.7 Location and Housing

Of the 96 participants, 97 percent reported that they were located in Anchorage throughout their stay (n=93). Two percent were located in Dillingham (n=2) and one percent was located in Seward (n=1). Volunteers are regularly located in Kodiak and Juneau, however these regions were not represented by the participants of the study. 87 of the 96 volunteers lived in dormitory housing (91%). 59 percent reported that they were satisfied with their housing (n=57), 23 percent reported that they were not satisfied (n=22) and 17 percent weren't sure (n=16). One volunteer didn't answer this question. Participants were not asked to elaborate on their answer to this question, however later in the questionnaire nine participants mentioned housing when asked about improvements that could be made, and two of these gave specific details. For example, a volunteer from 2008 stated that "*the shared housing should be revisited, six adults per bedroom is not appropriate*" and another from 2012 stated that the "*dormitory house was in poor condition and the living arrangements were aimed towards teenagers. There should be better accommodation for those who are older*". It seems however that these issues may have been addressed, as in 2012 and 2013 the maximum number of volunteers per room was four and a volunteer from 2013 reported that renovations were being carried out on the volunteer housing.

#### 4.2.8 Volunteer's Roles at Hope

Over the years of the programme the volunteer's roles have changed. Initially volunteers served in direct support roles within group homes and from 2003 the volunteers began to provide recreational services for Hope's service users. Most recently, ten of the thirteen participants in the CV group were involved in a recreation role (including Camp Cara, direct support at the Discovery Centre, or the Healthy Lifestyles programme) and five also provided direct support in service recipient's natural homes (38%). None of CV group volunteered in group homes compared to 28 participants from the PV group that did (34%), while 18 of the PV group reported volunteering in natural homes (22%). It is possible that some of the PV group that reported volunteering in natural homes misinterpreted the question as some of them had volunteered as far back as 2006 and management at Hope stated that volunteers were being placed in this role in 2013 for the first time. The shift in volunteer's roles mirrors changes in the demographic of Hope's service users, as approximately 75 percent of new service users reside in their natural homes, compared to previously when the majority of service users lived in group homes.

25 of the 45 participants that volunteered since the Discovery Centre was opened in 2010, were involved in recreation roles and 27 reported volunteering in group or natural homes (seven of these participants volunteered in both roles). The programmes and initiatives created by volunteers were reported in the introduction (section 1.1)

**Table 4.8 Volunteer’s Roles**

<b>Role</b>	<b>n</b>
<b>Direct Support (DS) in group home</b>	47
<b>DS in natural home</b>	31
<b>DS in Discovery Centre</b>	21
<b>Camp Cara Leader</b>	12
<b>Other Rec/Camp/Lifestyle Programme</b>	10
<b>DS One to One</b>	7
<b>Art Studio</b>	6
<b>Other</b>	6
<b>Maintenance</b>	4

**\*Many had more than one role**

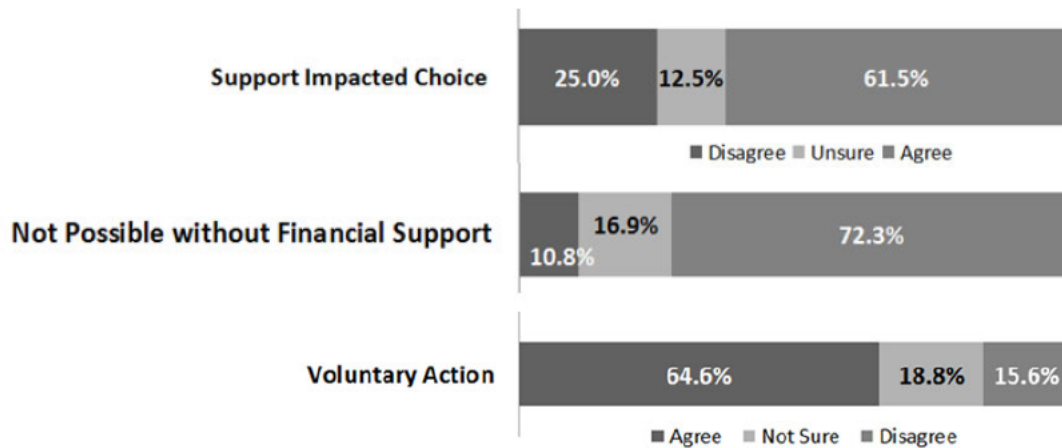
56 percent of volunteers reported carrying out just one role (n=54), 28 percent carried out two roles (n=27), 12 percent were involved in three roles and 4 percent of volunteers had four roles (n=4).

### **4.3 Volunteer Criteria Fit**

To evaluate whether the programme was a volunteer programme or not, volunteer’s perceptions were taken into account. In accordance with the criteria outlined in the literature review that sometimes raise debate, Figure 4.1 displays the following findings. The programme is formal, all service provided was outside of the family; 100 percent freely chose to participate. Also 65 percent of volunteers perceived their service as voluntary. The remuneration criterion is the one that raises the volunteer definition debate as there is a stipend for living expenses and also flight reimbursement.

The latter criterion is the only one to raise the volunteer definition debate however when volunteers were asked whether the stipend for living expenses and flight reimbursement

impacted their decision to volunteer. 62 percent of volunteers reported that it did, compared to 25 percent that reported it didn't. 72 percent of volunteers reported that it would not have been possible for them to volunteer at Hope without this financial support. When asked whether they perceived their service as voluntary, 65 percent perceived that it was, 19 percent of participants were unsure and 16 percent perceived that their service was not voluntary. These results are displayed in Figure 4.1.



**Figure 4.1 Impact of Reimbursements on Participation and Perception of Voluntary Activity**

#### 4.4 Volunteer's Motivations

This section evaluates volunteer's motives quantitatively using the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI, Omoto and Snyder, 1995) and also qualitatively, by asking volunteers the following open-ended question, "Why did you choose to volunteer at Hope?". This was to eliminate the possibility that the VFI questions did not include all possible motivations, especially as both International and Youth volunteering are "new" types of volunteering, so were most likely not considered when this scale was being designed as discussed in the literature review.

##### 4.4.1 The Volunteer Function Index (VFI)

The Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI, Omoto and Snyder, 1995) measured participant's scores on six separate functions or motivations, each with a maximum score of 35. These functions include Protective, Values, Career, Social, Understanding and Enhancement. An example of a Protective function, which protects the volunteer's personality or ego, is "Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles". An item

from the Values function, which refers to concern for others, is “I am genuinely concerned with those I am serving”. “Volunteering experience will look good on my resume” is an example of a Career function where the volunteer is motivated by increasing their job prospects. The Social function is served when participants volunteer due to social or normative pressure and an example is “Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best”. When participants volunteer to learn or apply their skills, they are satisfying the Understanding function, an example of which is “By volunteering, I can learn more about the cause for which I am serving”. An example of the Enhancement function is “Volunteering makes me feel better about myself” and the motivation is personal improvement and increasing self-esteem.

The volunteer function with the greatest importance to Hope’s volunteers (n=83, 13 volunteers from the PV group did not complete this section of the questionnaire) was Values (mean=32.7, SD=8.3), followed by Understanding (mean=30.3, SD=4.0) and Career (mean=26.0, SD=7.0). Figure 4.2 shows the scores for all VFI functions for all volunteers. It can be seen from Figure 4.3 that there is a similar pattern between male’s and female’s motivations, with males scoring slightly lower on all functions except the Protective function.

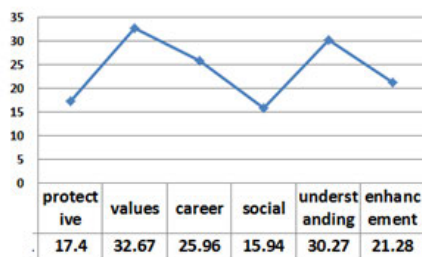


Figure 4.2 Mean VFI Scores

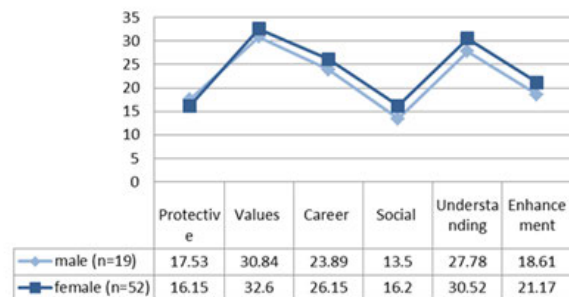


Figure 4.3 Males and Females Mean VFI Scores

In the current study the Volunteer Function Inventory has good internal consistency as the Cronbach’s alpha consistency score was greater than 0.7 ( $\alpha=.793$ ). For this reason the researcher created a Global Motivation score by getting the sum of the VFI functions, as was done by Omoto and Snyder (1995). This allowed the researcher to evaluate, in the next section, whether a high overall motivation, impacted any the following objectives: whether volunteers returned to Hope; brought Hope’s philosophy to another organisation; remained in the field of disability; (or improved their attitude to disability (Section 4.5.4).

**Table 4.9 Global Motivation Scores**

Function	Mean	SD	female (n=52)	SD	male (n=19)	SD
<b>Global Motivation Score</b>	143.7	29.2	143.8	27.0	132.1	32.7

#### **4.4.2 Differences and Relationships in Motivation Scores**

An independent samples t test was conducted to compare the VFI scores for the various variables between males (n=19) and females (n=52). A post-hoc test was run using G\*Power3 which identified that due to the varying sample sizes there was a 45percent chance of detecting a significant difference. Understanding was the only variable that showed a significant difference between males (M = 27.8, SD = 5.1) and females (M = 30.5, SD = 3.5;  $t(70) = -2.1, p = 0.046$ ). G\*Power3 calculated the magnitude of the difference in the means to be 0.625, which is a medium sized effect (Cohen, 1988). There was no significant difference between males and females Global Motivation score.

The appropriate tests for differences, depending on whether the data was normal or not, were run to look for differences in volunteer's motivations, including each VFI function and the Global Motivation Scores between the following variables:

- a) The PV group and the CV group;
- b) Those who had previously volunteered and those who had not;
- c) Those who had studied a disability module and those who had not;
- d) Those who remained in the field of disability and those who did not;
- e) Those who brought Hope's philosophy with them and those who did not;
- f) Those who volunteered once and repeat volunteers

**Table 4.10 Cohen's d for Tests for Differences**

	Differences Tested		Post-hoc Power*	
	n		n	
<b>PV group</b>	70	CV group	13	49.9%
<b>Previous Volunteer</b>	51	Not	33	59.9%
<b>Studied Disability Module</b>	48	Did Not	22	48.2%
<b>Remained in Field</b>	37	Did Not	28	50.2%
<b>Brought Hope's philosophy</b>	31	Did Not	34	50.9%
<b>Volunteered Once</b>	39	Repeat	26	49.4%

\*power of detecting a statistical difference due to sample sizes

No significant differences were found; however, as can be seen in table 4.10, the chances of detecting differences in these tests ranged between 48 percent and 60 percent due to the size of the sample groups. There were differences in the scores of volunteers who remained in the field of disability (variable d) and also who reported bringing Hope's philosophy to another organisation (variable e) as both groups had higher Global Motivation scores compared to those who didn't (d=143.1 and 134.4; e=412.5 and 136.5 respectively) and also scored higher on most of the VFI functions. These results are detailed in Table 4.11.

**Table 4.11 VFI Scores for Differences for Variables d and e**

		Remained in Field		Brought Philosophy	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
<b>VFI Protective</b>	Y	16.59	8.064	16.39	7.588
	N	15.89	7.978	16.21	8.420
<b>VFI Values</b>	Y	33.05	4.301	32.03	5.326
	N	30.93	5.944	32.24	5.046
<b>VFI Career</b>	Y	26.27	8.221	26.35	7.036
	N	24.43	6.652	24.68	8.074
<b>VFI Social</b>	Y	16.00	7.817	16.26	7.814
	N	13.89	7.524	14.03	7.562
<b>VFI Understanding</b>	Y	30.03	3.760	30.42	3.557
	N	29.29	4.736	29.06	4.651
<b>VFI Enhancement</b>	Y	21.19	8.495	21.03	8.735
	N	19.93	8.606	20.29	8.394



		Remained in Field		Brought Philosophy	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Global Motivations	Y	143.14	28.590	142.48	27.748
	N	134.36	30.006	136.50	30.791

Tests for correlation were run to determine whether there was a relationship between volunteer’s motives (Global and specific) and whether they brought Hope’s philosophy into the workplace ( $r^2$ =between 0.18 and -0.161); remained in the field of disability ( $r^2$ =between -0.045 and -0.201) and returned to Hope as a repeat volunteer ( $r^2$  = between 0.135 and -0.035). None of these relationships were strong enough to be significant (Cohen, 1988).

#### 4.4.3 Qualitative Motivations

To get a deeper understanding of volunteer’s motivations the volunteer questionnaire asked both the CV and PV group “Why did you choose to volunteer at Hope?” Using NVIVO (QSR International 10), responses were coded and were seen to be in alignment with the VFI functions and some other additional motivations. These motives were categorised as Adventure (n=54), Financial Support (n=6) and Programme Organisation (n=2). The Adventure category consists of motives similar to the following quotes, “*the experience of coming to Alaska*”, “*travel*”, “*sounded exciting*”. The Financial Support motivations are similar to the following reason for choosing to volunteer at Hope, “*the stipend, not because I love money that much, but otherwise I just couldn't have afforded it because I'm just a student without any income.*” The two Programme Organisation motives came from a volunteer from 2005 and another from 2013 who chose to volunteer because “*it seemed to be very organised*”. Six volunteers also stated “*experience*” as their reason for volunteering, however it wasn’t clear to the researcher exactly what type of experience was meant. For example, other volunteers had stated gaining work experience, which came under the Career function. Others reported gaining experience with people with disabilities, which fit under the Understanding function. Figure 4.12 shows that the most frequent qualitative reasons for volunteering were to gain Understanding (n=69), Adventure (n=54) and improving Career prospects (n=27). Examples of these motives include, respectively “*to work with people with disabilities in a different country and develop my knowledge further*”; “*something new, an adventure, new experiences*”; and “*impressive work experience for my CV*”. A director with a lot of direct experience with the volunteers validated the findings associated with volunteer’s motives when they were

asked what they perceived volunteer’s motives to be and stated “*I know that it is adventure and I know that it is fun but yet there is something within that person that when they get here they get so connected that they become such a part of people’s lives*”. This is supported by Musick and Wilson (2008) who claim that volunteer’s motives change over the course of their voluntary activity.

The main difference between the quantitative and qualitative motivation results is that the Values function was the highest rating motivation on the VFI scale but was mentioned by only six volunteers in the open-ended motivations question. The ethnographic observations revealed that in general the volunteers did truly care about the welfare of the service users they were working with. For example, one volunteer drove for thirty minutes before their volunteer task was to begin, without prompting, to collect a camper that did not have transport to Camp Cara on that particular day. Another volunteer had been working in a one-to-one role with a service user, was very concerned about the individual they were working with when they heard that their role was changing, until they were satisfied that their replacement worked well with the service user.

**Table 4.12 Qualitative Motivations**

<b>Motivation</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
<b>VFI Understanding</b>	69
<b>Adventure</b>	54
<b>VFI Career</b>	27
<b>VFI Social</b>	18
<b>VFI Enhancement</b>	6
<b>VFI Values</b>	6
<b>Financial Support</b>	6
<b>“Experience”</b>	6
<b>Programme Organisation</b>	2
<b>Recession in Ireland</b>	2

Few members of Hope’s staff spoke about the volunteer’s motives but every member of staff and management spoke positively about the volunteer’s work ethic. Only one participant, from a sample of 28, reported having a negative experience with volunteers between 2003 and 2006. This participant stated that “[volunteers] would show up to work

*hung-over and not feeling well enough to give it 100%*". The member of staff added "*I realise that over time things have changed and they are nice and friendly, and I spend a lot of time at different homes so I've had a lot of contact with students and volunteers in different situations*". The participant's report led the researcher to ask other members of staff whether they had experienced similar issues and no other member of staff reported any issue with volunteer's attendance or duty performance. All other reports were very positive, with the majority rating their work ethic to be above average and reporting that the volunteers bring energy and enthusiasm. One supervisor stated "*I think it's almost because they want to be here so bad and they want to learn and be a part of what they're doing that they have all worked above and beyond ... they always put the people we support first*". Another supervisor stated that "*their attitude is strong, this is the difference and I try not undermining, this is what makes them better, their attitude and the energy*". It is also likely that the volunteer's high levels of education combined with their high ratings of the Understanding and Career functions play a role in these findings

There were some reports that the volunteer's work ethic or motives had changed over the years, that initially they had a stronger desire to learn and share their skills. Some managers suggest that after a few years, possibly when the volunteers all began to live together, that the programme became more like a "*summer vacation*". However, it has been reported that motives may have improved again in recent years, especially after a large group of volunteers were sent home after repeatedly breaking house rules. In particular as all members of staff that worked with and supervised the volunteers, were very satisfied with the work ethic of the volunteers in recent years. A typical example was given by a supervisor who stated "*the volunteers that I've seen come through in the last couple of years have been eager to learn and eager to help and have their experience*". Some members of staff claimed that this gave the message that the programme was to be taken seriously. Another member of staff who has been involved with the programme since its inception, perceived that these poorer attitudes may have been offset due to having "*other nationalities staying in student housing, [having] students staying for three months, five, eight months to a year*".

It is also possible that the economic climate in Ireland contributed to this shift in attitudes and also to the increase in the number of volunteers willing to return to Hope. This possibility is supported by two volunteers from the CV group who stated "*I haven't been able to use my degree back home... I was on [social welfare] for the summer, I applied*

*for a million jobs and got one interview ... there's no work at home, I guess that's why a lot of the returners are coming back, its familiar and you get on fine while you're here and you like the work you do*". The other volunteer stated that they returned in 2010 because *"nothing was shaking back home so I said alright I'll come out... that was 2010 and I'm still here"*. Following these statements the researcher evaluated the motives of repeat volunteers in greater detail and found that while none of the 28 participants that returned to Hope spoke specifically about why they returned to Hope, the most frequently stated motives from this group were Adventure (19) and Understanding (15), while Shortage of Jobs in Ireland (2), Experience (2), Social (1) and Financial Support (1) were all rated much less frequently, suggesting that the recession is not the main motivator for volunteers returning.

#### **4.5 Volunteer's Satisfaction**

This section reports the findings related to volunteer's satisfaction with the programme. Data was collected from four sources, the Volunteers Satisfaction Index (VSI, Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley, 2001); a satisfaction with housing rating scale; and a satisfaction with volunteer club scale and feedback. The fourth source of data was a range of open-ended questions which asked volunteers whether or not they *"would [you] recommend Hope's volunteer programme?"*; to *"describe what you liked best about Hope's volunteer programme"*; and to *"describe what improvements could be made with Hope's volunteer programme"*.

##### **4.5.1 The Volunteer Satisfaction Index (VSI)**

The Volunteer Satisfaction Index (VSI, Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley, 2001) measured participant's levels of satisfaction on five domains. These domains include Communication Quality, Organisational Support, Participation Efficacy, Work Assignment and Group Integration. A maximum score of 56 indicates volunteers were very satisfied, while a score of 8 indicates they were very dissatisfied. The authors state that volunteers typically score high on satisfaction due to the volitional nature of the service and suggest that less than perfect scores indicate the presence of dissatisfaction, indicating room for improvement. For this reason the researcher decided it was important to look at repeated constructive feedback in detail, in particular when similar findings were reported by both volunteers and staff, to identify ways in which the programme may

support an even higher level of volunteer satisfaction. Communication Quality refers to the flow of information to volunteers, in particular a sufficient amount of information to allow the volunteer to carry out their role. An example is “*The flow of communication to me from paid staff and board members*”. Organisational Support includes educational and emotional support and an example includes “*The support network that is in place when I have/had volunteer related problems*”. Participation Efficacy is the level at which volunteers perceive their voluntary action positively impacts someone other than themselves. An item from this category is “*The difference that my volunteer work is making*”. The Work Assignment category refers to the suitability of the role to the volunteer’s skills and abilities and includes items like “*The fit of the volunteer work to my skills*”. Group Integration is related to the relationships that volunteers create with other volunteers and paid staff. An example is “*The degree to which I felt I belonged in the organisation*”.

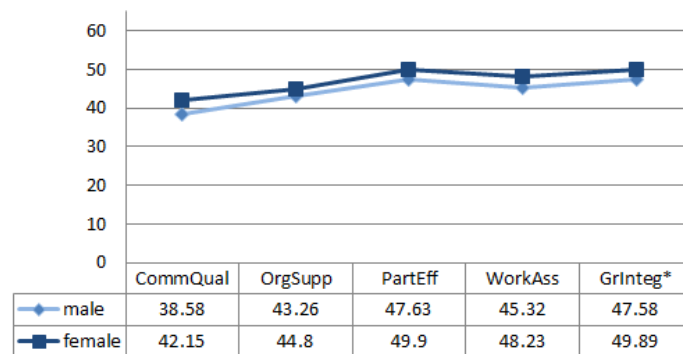
The highest scoring dimensions of satisfaction from the VSI according to Hope’s volunteers were Group Integration (Mean=49.4, this category had seven items, the others had eight so the score was adjusted by dividing by seven and multiplying by eight, to allow for direct comparison with other categories) and Participation Efficacy (Mean= 49.1) and Work Assignment (Mean= 47.7). Each of these scores indicate that volunteers were “*fairly satisfied*” with these domains and these results are substantial as Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) found Participation Efficacy and Group Integration to be significant predictors of intent to remain and also Organisational Support for volunteers under 40 years of age. The lowest scoring dimension was Communication Quality (Mean= 40.1) indicating that volunteers were “*a little satisfied*”. The VSI has good internal consistency as the Cronbach’s alpha consistency score is  $\alpha=0.845$ . This allowed the researcher to calculate an Overall Satisfaction score using the sum of each VSI item. The Global mean score was 225.6, SD=28.9. Table 4.13 shows all VSI scores and their satisfaction rankings.

**Table 4.13 Volunteer Satisfaction Index Scores**

Category	Mean	SD	Ranking
<b>Group Integration*</b>	49.4	4.4	Fairly satisfied
<b>Participation Efficacy</b>	49.1	5.3	Fairly satisfied
<b>Work Assignment</b>	47.7	6.9	Fairly satisfied
<b>Organisational Support</b>	44.3	8.0	Fairly satisfied
<b>Communication Quality</b>	41.0	10.6	A little satisfied
<b>Global Satisfaction</b>	225.6	28.9	Fairly satisfied

**\*original score was 43.3, this score was adjusted to allow for comparison**

A similar pattern can be seen in Figure 4.4 for both male and female VSI scores, with males rating each category slightly lower than females.



**Figure 4.4 Males and Females Mean VSI Scores**

**\*original score was 43.3, this score was adjusted to allow for comparison**

The appropriate tests for differences were run to assess whether there were differences in volunteer's satisfaction between the following groups:

- PV group and CV group;
- Males and females;
- One time Volunteers and Repeat Volunteers;
- Those who had previous experience volunteering and those who had not;
- Those who brought Hope's philosophy to another organisation and those who didn't

G\*Power was then used to compute the power of calculating differences given the sample sizes (Table 4.14) and also the effect size of any differences found (Table 4.15).

**Table 4.14 Post-hoc Power for Tests for Differences in VSI Scores**

	Differences Tested		Post-hoc Power*	
	n	n		
<b>PV group</b>	75	CV group	13	50%
<b>Male</b>	19	Female	65	47%
<b>One Time</b>	57	Repeat	27	56%
<b>Previous Volunteer</b>	42	Not	43	63%
<b>Brought Hope's philosophy</b>	33	Did Not	37	54%

\*power of detecting a statistical difference due to sample sizes

Significant differences were found between those who had volunteered at Hope once and those that had volunteered more than once for two variables, Organisational Support ( $p=.031$ ) and Participation Efficacy ( $p=.018$ ). Significant differences were also found between those that stated that they had brought Hope's philosophy with them and those who had not in specific variables. These differences were found in Communication Quality ( $p=.008$ ), Organisational Support ( $p=.022$ ) and Group Integration ( $p=.038$ ). Table 4.14 shows all differences found and the effect size of each significant difference, according to Cohen's guidelines (1988), were medium. No other significant differences were found; however, as reported in Table 4.14, the chances of detecting significant differences were between 48 and 63 percent.

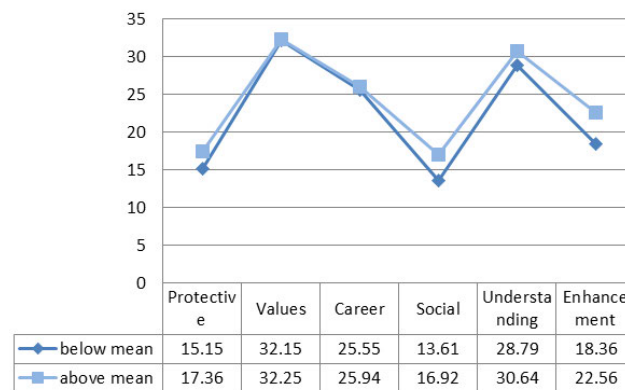
**Table 4.15 Significant Findings from Tests for Differences in Satisfaction Levels**

		U	z	P	Effect Size
<b>c</b>	<b>Organisational Support</b>	545.0	-2.152	.031	0.53
	<b>Participation Efficacy</b>	523.5	-2.365	.018	0.61
	<b>Communication Quality</b>	385.5	-2.650	.008	0.70
<b>e</b>	<b>Organisational Support</b>	416.5	-2.285	.022	0.56
	<b>Group Integration</b>	435.0	-2.072	.038	0.49

#### 4.5.2 Interaction between Satisfaction and Motives

To identify whether volunteers scoring either above or below the overall mean satisfaction score had specific VFI motives (Values, Protective, Career, Social,

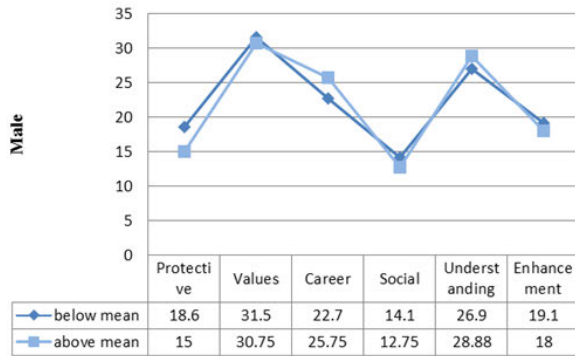
Understanding and Enhancement), a mixed between-within subjects analysis of variance was conducted. This test had three findings, the first was that the main effect comparing the two levels of overall satisfaction, either above or below the overall volunteer mean, on volunteer's motivations was not significant ( $F(1,67) = 3.265$ ,  $p = 0.075$ , partial eta squared = 0.046), suggesting no statistical significance between the motivations of either group. The second finding was that there is a statistical significance between the VFI functions (Wilks Lambda = 0.105,  $F(5,63) = 107.878$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , partial eta squared = 0.895), which indicates a very large difference (Cohen, 1988). The final result showed that there was no significant interaction between volunteer's motivations and their level of satisfaction (Wilks Lambda = 0.887,  $F(5,63) = 1.606$ ,  $p = 0.172$ , partial eta squared = 0.113). Figure 4.5 shows the scores for those who scores both above and below the Global Mean satisfaction score.



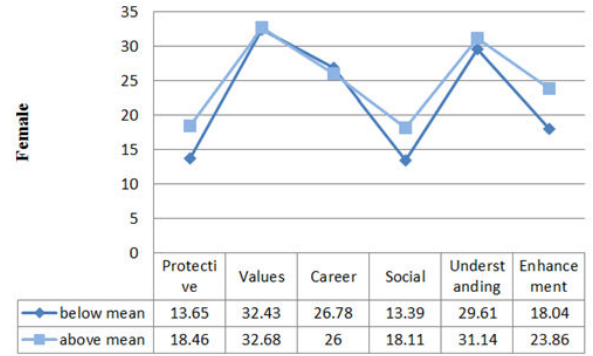
**Figure 4.5 VFI Scores for Above and Below Overall Mean Satisfaction**

Figures 4.6 and 4.7 show the VFI scores for males and females for both above and below the mean satisfaction scores. While the differences were not significant, there is a gender difference in VFI scores for those who scored above the overall mean satisfaction score. The figures also show that satisfied females rate each of the VFI functions more highly than the males, in particular the Enhancement function (females= 23.9; males= 18), the Protective function (females= 18.5; males= 15) and the Social function (females= 18.1; males= 12.8). It is interesting that these functions were the lowest scoring function.





**Figure 4.6 VFI Scores for Males for Above and Below Overall Mean Satisfaction**



**Figure 4.7 VFI Scores for Females for Above and Below Overall Mean Satisfaction**

A Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) was also run to test for an association between gender and level of satisfaction, no significant relationship was found ( $\chi^2(1, n=83) = .677, p = .410, \phi = .119$ .)

### 4.5.3 Volunteer's Satisfaction

#### 4.5.3.1. The Volunteer Club

Participants were asked to rate their satisfaction with the Waterford Volunteer Club and also to give feedback. The Club is based in Ireland and is responsible for recruitment and is therefore the Irish volunteer's first link with Hope. Of the volunteers, 45 percent indicated that they "were not a member of the volunteer club" (n=43) suggesting that they were unaware of their membership in the Club. Satisfaction with the Club was reported by 28 percent of all volunteers, rated between 5 and 7, from a maximum score of 7 (n=27). Dissatisfaction with the Club was indicated by 17 percent, rating between one and three (n=16). Eight percent indicated that they were uncertain (n=8) and two volunteers did not answer the question. Constructive feedback was given by 27 participants, which was mostly related to Communication Quality, Organisational Support, or the membership fee. A representative example of such feedback from a volunteer is "I paid €150 for no service. They did not coordinate any of my trip, speak once with me or meet me". Another volunteer that volunteered four times indicated room for improvement in the level of support from the volunteer club stating "the experience [at Hope] is amazing, but you need a lot of patience and really, if at all possible to know someone who has been here or is there to help you organize your move to Alaska." Other repeat volunteers reported that the level of service provided by the Club has deteriorated in recent years. For example

*“my first experience was very pleasant however my current application has been very delayed and communication was poor”*. Of the CV group, the mean satisfaction rating with the Club was 4.8 (5= a little satisfied). Five of these volunteers commented on Communication Quality, four didn’t know what purpose the club served and the four who were satisfied made no comment. Many volunteers also provided additional feedback regarding the Volunteer Club when asked about their overall satisfaction with the programme. For example, many volunteers reported waiting two to three weeks for responses to emails from the Volunteer Club, two volunteers reported that they didn’t *“know what was happening until they were getting their connecting flight in New York on the way to Alaska”* and found the process very confusing and disorganised. Another volunteer suggested *“Emails need attending in a greater detail for volunteers that need info on flights, accommodation, visa requirements, just a voice for the volunteers to feel they are wanted and that someone is there to answer their questions”*.

#### **4.5.3.2 The Programme**

100 percent of volunteers stated that they would recommend the programme which indicates overall satisfaction. Qualitative data was also analysed to measure volunteer’s level of satisfaction from the following questions: why they recommended the programme; what they liked best; and what improvements could be made. The data was categorised according to the VSI dimensions and an additional category was identified and was classified as the *“Alaska Experience”* and referred to satisfaction that was reported due to the location of the programme. An example includes it *“was a great opportunity to see Alaska in all it’s beauty... endless sunshine, lots of activities to do after working hours”*. Each dimension was then further divided into positive or constructive feedback to identify what was working with the programme and what areas could be improved, to help create an optimal volunteer environment which would likely create a optimal setting for the service users they support, via the concept of emotional contagion (Bennett, 2006). Table 4.16 lists each category and the associated number of both positive and constructive comments. The categories with the highest level of positive feedback were Work Assignment (134). Many volunteers positively refer to the level of responsibility they are given *“Gives one so much experience and responsibility”*. The next category to provide a high level of satisfaction was Group Integration (82) and included integration with Hope staff, service users and also other volunteers. In the VSI

Group Integration refers to integration between volunteers and staff and also other volunteers, however Hope’s programme also involves service users and so this group was also accounted for under this category. An example is *“It’s an excellent opportunity, working with fantastic individuals and staff and being treated with respect and dignity”*. Many volunteers positively referred to the Participation Efficacy category or the difference they made while volunteering, for example *“assisting individuals with various recreational activities and seeing them smile and become full of life”*. Organisational Support received 29 positive ratings, most of which were related to the provision of the stipend (5), accommodation (3), training (6); the organisation of the programme and support provided by their supervisors (7). The greatest frequencies of constructive feedback were provided for Organisational Support (90) and Communication Quality (47). The main areas associated with Organisational Support that received such feedback were related to support from the Volunteer Club, which has already been reported, and also support while in Alaska. For instance one volunteer stated *“a lot of things could be tightened up... starting with the volunteers needs, and improved organisation is much needed, starting right from when a volunteer signs up to travel to Alaska.”* Another volunteer stated *“when we arrived there was nothing planned and everybody was all over the place with work ... a lot of unnecessary stresses!!”*, while volunteers referred to poor communication between their supervisors and other staff.

**Table 4.16 Satisfaction Feedback**

Satisfaction Domain	Volunteer Feedback	
	Positive	Constructive
Work Assignment	134	33
Group Integration	82	3
Alaska Experience*	35	0
Participation Efficacy	35	0
Organisational Support	29	90
Hope Experience	15	3
Communication Quality	1	47

**\*from all sources of qualitative satisfaction data**

The researcher particularly focused on repeat volunteers and also the Current (CV, n=13) group of volunteers as they provide the most recent feedback, and also because there have been changes in the support provided for volunteers at Hope since 2012. The volunteer programme switched to being run by a volunteer coordinator to being run by a committee of managers that carry out various roles involved in the running of the programme. There was a greater level of constructive feedback, compared to positive feedback, from this group which mostly related to Communication Quality (12) and Organisational Support (8). Six of the CV group recommended appointing someone *“to go to if we have any problems ... I didn't feel like I had anyone to go to”*. Another example of a representative quote is *“I found aspects of the programme to be very disorganised”*. The rate of constructive feedback for these categories is much higher than for the PV group indicating a drop in satisfaction levels which is supported by the following statement from a repeat volunteer, *“I experienced both sides of it. Things went more smoothly when that position was there and people had a voice to protect them”*. Also, because so many members of staff expressed the need for this role. These examples highlight the vulnerability of the volunteers and the necessity for a greater level of care and support, both emotional and organisational and related to communication to ensure that volunteers feel safe and welcome and to improve their satisfaction with these aspects of the programme.

The positive feedback from the CV group was consistent with the overall results with Group Integration receiving the most reports (5), followed by Work Assignment (4), Participation Efficacy (3) and the Alaska Experience (2), indicating that these aspects of the programme are working. Some examples include *“I liked that even though you were a volunteer you were still treated as a member of staff”* and *“Being given total responsible to run your own programs and activities”*. Another volunteer stated that *“seeing [service users] smile and become full of life”* provided satisfaction for them which was associated with Participation Efficacy.

#### **4.5.4 Staff's Satisfaction with the Volunteers**

The results show that in the early days of the volunteer programme some staff were apprehensive about incorporating the volunteers into the workforce, mostly because volunteers require the same amount of training as domestic staff, yet the volunteers were staying for only three months. This attitude changed after the initial staff that worked with

the volunteers became a “*good voice for them*”. The findings from the interviews indicate that currently the demand for volunteers is greater than the number of volunteers that Hope can accommodate at one time, suggesting a positive and welcoming attitude towards the volunteers and the skills that they bring. One Home Alliance Coordinator (HAC) stated “*they adapt very well to any situation ... people just adore them*”. The researcher interviewed all HACs that had worked with the volunteers regularly, and none perceived training the volunteers to be a waste of resources. For example one HAC referred to training stating that “*anyone who comes here has to be well trained so I just spend the time... I get to see how they’re developing and learning so I don’t mind, it’s not a problem for me.*” Most stated that the effort is worth it and others referred to the high turnover of staff in the industry and stated that knowing that the volunteers will be there for a specific length of time is manageable compared to domestic staff who can leave, and often do, at any time (The turnover rate at Hope in 2013 was 31 percent). Others report that the volunteers create good relationships with “*supervisory staff and the care coordinators and with the parents and guardians*” and some supervisors state that there is “*no sort of differentiation among them... they’re completely integrated*”. One director even perceives that the volunteer programme is “*an award winning venture.*”

Evidence also indicated that the volunteers are also integrated in a more personal manner. One HAC who hasn’t worked with a volunteer in over a year and half, reported inviting them over for Thanksgiving and to other parties to ensure that “*they have somewhere to go*”. The researcher also observed that another member of Hope staff regularly dropped off home-cooked food to the volunteer’s accommodation. All of these findings indicate a high level of integration into the workforce at Hope and as mentioned earlier, in section 4.3.2, only one member of staff stated that they would not work with the volunteers due to a negative experience, but added that they had since repeatedly encountered volunteers at other homes and found the experience to be positive. It seems that the volunteers also integrate into the lives of the service users as 51 percent of the PV group reported keeping in touch with Hope’s service users after returning to their home country, for example by sending holiday cards or via *facebook*.

While results show integration at staff level, it does seem that in recent years there is a lower level of integration between Hope management and the volunteers. This could be due to the organisational growth at Hope and/or also due to the removal of the volunteer

coordinator role. As one manager described their involvement in the early days “*Hope was much smaller at the time... and if you had an interest in something you could become involved in it [now] you may have to take more formal routes*”. One director stated that there was an annual picnic and in later years up until 2012, a trip to Wolverine lake for the volunteers and “*we would sit around the campfire*”. It seems that this level of group integration was a catalyst for a reciprocal benefit which is reported in greater detail in section 4.7.1 “*people were writing papers for us in terms of how to improve inclusion, how to help someone’s life.... that changed us, it pumped energy into us*”. This director stated that they decided to distance themselves to improve the level of Group Integration with members of staff. It seems that this was successful as other members of staff reported that there had been some animosity from other staff members towards the volunteers as some perceived the volunteers to be “*untouchable... like spies*”. The researcher did not detect any such attitudes from current staff, one direct support staff member addressed this and perceived that “*once people started working alongside each other more often it kind of disappeared where everybody just worked at Hope versus the different groups.*” These findings suggest that once the programme was established less support from high level management was necessary. However the results show that the Organisational Support category still received the greatest amount of constructive feedback from staff and management (and also the volunteers as reported in the previous section), indicating room for improvement in this area. The researcher looks at the categories in greater detail to help identify possible solutions.

#### **4.5.4.1 Organisational Support**

One area of Organisational Support associated with the Volunteer Satisfaction Index is training, which mostly attained a high level of satisfaction which was confirmed by the researchers observations. As already mentioned, time and resources spent on training were the initial concern for staff, however all interviewed staff reported that the energy spent on training the volunteers was worth it, in particular when volunteers returned to Hope or extended their visas. The majority of staff and management agreed that the complications associated with the programme are mostly to do organisation and management, and recommended that a coordinator could take care of the logistical issues that seem to be creating dissatisfaction and frustration. These issues include transportation, communication, visa and medical concerns, housing issues, coordination

and work assignment, gaps between volunteer placements, inconsistent record keeping and lack of a clarity regarding the budget for the programme. Typical examples of constructive feedback include *“I don’t know what happened when [the volunteer programme] became centralised... it’s a great programme but if there was more support people would be less frustrated”* and *“the process needs to be cleaner and neater”*. Others suggest that a volunteer coordinator should work with the volunteer committee. This is supported by members of the volunteer committee that were interviewed also reported that there was *“room to improve”* as there are *“many details... inherent in the programme”*, and *“not having one person who you can kind of bring it all together is challenging”*. Others stated that the person in this role should have greater involvement in the recruitment process to prevent *“going from having three staff to none”*. Some supervisors referred to the different needs of the volunteers compared to domestic staff stating that *“they need someone that can talk to them, support them and give them info”*. One supervisor described a scenario where a volunteer was hospitalised. The supervisor reported feeling confused and frustrated as they acknowledged that Hope had a responsibility to support the volunteer but didn’t know whose responsibility it was as there was no volunteer coordinator at the time.

The findings also suggest that supervisors and directors really care about the volunteers and the programme and are eager to find the ideal scenario. For example, four members of staff and management reported voluntarily becoming involved in the running of the programme at times when there was no coordinator, after recognising a need for additional organisation and support for the volunteers *“I basically took over because somebody needs to be ... the point person”*. As mentioned in the previous section, some members of management stated that it was easier to do this when Hope was a smaller organisation. The most recent supervisor who reported working overtime to support the volunteers stated about the CV group *“they’ve been texting me, asking questions, they’re totally lost... I was really surprised when the coordinator role was cancelled, I don’t think it’s fair for the volunteers”*. A director and a supervisor both commented that they *“really welcome knowing how we can do that [care for the volunteers] better”* and *“it’s a growing process and [about] figuring out the best combination”*. These findings indicate an openness on behalf of Hope staff and management to find the best way of managing the volunteer programme.

#### **4.5.4.2 Communication Quality**

Staff also reported room for improvement in Communication Quality, typically related to gaps in the information volunteers had received before travelling to Alaska. Some staff reported breakdowns in communication among Hope staff and others reported not knowing who to contact when issues arose regarding the volunteers they supervise. Management in the Discovery Centre had begun monthly meetings to counteract the communication issues and also to facilitate greater utilisation of the volunteer's skills, one member of staff reported that until these meetings began "*there wasn't much communication going on and from there, there were frustration.*" Others reported communication issues relate to communication between the volunteer club and those coordinating the volunteer programme, for example one director reported that "*some thing's slipped through the cracks.*" Many reported that some volunteers had not been aware that they would be providing personal care, with a member of training staff reporting this as "*the biggest challenge*". However, further research revealed that this information is outlined in the Volunteer Manual, which is available freely online and according to those involved in recruitment, all volunteers are asked to read. Other reported communication breakdowns included volunteers expecting to be placed in specific roles, and not knowing how many volunteers would be coming until short notice, which caused difficulty arranging accommodation for volunteers.

### **4.6 Volunteer's Attitudes to Disability**

This section of the results looks at the findings of the measures outlined in the methodology that were used to evaluate the attitudes of the volunteers, and some of Hope's supervisors and management, towards disability. The quantitative measures were analysed using SPSS and analyses were run to look for differences between the various groups of participants to help identify whether volunteering at Hope impacted the attitudes of the volunteers. The researcher also ran tests to evaluate whether volunteers with certain motivations, according to the Volunteer Function Inventory, were more likely to have more positive attitudes towards people with disabilities.

#### **4.6.1 Volunteer's Perceptions of Disability (National Disability Authority, 2001)**

The questions from the NDA of Ireland (2001, 2006, 2011), that evaluated volunteer's perceptions of what classified a disability; the rate of disabilities experienced by the participants; and also their level of direct experience with people with disabilities (already



reported in section 4.2.3) revealed that, of the 96 volunteers the highest number of volunteer’s perceived intellectual disability as a disability (89.1%) followed by physical (83.9%) and sensory disabilities. Table 4.17 shows participant’s perceptions for each condition or illness and reveals that a greater number of Hope management classified a greater number of conditions or illnesses as a disability. The NDA results been included in this table and show that a far greater number of Hope’s volunteers and Management rated the conditions or illnesses as a disability, compared to the general public in Ireland in 2011 (results from 2001 and 2006 are displayed in section 2.2.3). Table 4.17 also shows that many of the Current Volunteer Group had rated many of the conditions as disabilities prior to volunteering at Hope and did not after volunteering, for example 100 percent rated intellectual disability before volunteering and 92.3 percent of the same group did after volunteering. A similar trend occurred for each of the sensory impairments (hearing loss 85 to 46%; vision impairment 85 to 54%; speech difficulty 85 to 62%) and frailty in old age (23 to 8%). It is possible that the volunteer’s attitudes became more inclusive after volunteering at Hope and no longer perceived these conditions as disabilities.

**Table 4.17 The Percentages of Participant’s that Perceived the following Experiences as an Illness, Condition or Disability**

	<b>Pre CV Group (n=13)</b>	<b>Post CV Group (n=13)</b>	<b>PV &amp; Post CV Groups (n=96)</b>	<b>Hope Management (n=17)</b>	<b>NDA (2011)</b>
	%	%	%	%	%
<b>Physical disability</b>	85	85	84	100	81
<b>Intellectual disabilities</b>	100	92	89	100	55
<b>Mental health difficulties</b>	62	62	50	88	52
<b>Hearing loss</b>	86	46	53	88	25

**Table 4.17 Continued**

	<b>Pre CV Group (n=13)</b>	<b>Post CV Group (n=13)</b>	<b>PV &amp; Post CV Groups (n=96)</b>	<b>Hope Management (n=17)</b>	<b>NDA (2011)</b>
<b>Vision difficulties</b>	85	54	55	94	33
<b>Speech difficulties</b>	85	62	54	82	23
<b>Long-term illness</b>	23	23	30	53	21
<b>HIV/AIDS</b>	8	0	12	18	10
<b>Addiction</b>	8	8	13	12	13
<b>Alcoholism</b>	8	0	11	18	9
<b>Frailty in old age</b>	23	8	20	35	16
<b>Other</b>	0	0	1.2	1	0

Fisher's exact tests were run to look for differences in the percentages of each group's ratings of each experience as a disability. This test was used due to the small sample sizes. These groups included the Current Pre and Post groups (Pre CV and Post CV), and the Hope Management group and all volunteers after Hope (Post CV group + PV group). There were no statistically significant differences between the 2013 volunteer sample (n=13) before and after their time at Hope, however statistically significant differences were found between all previous volunteers (n=96) and Hope management (n=17). These differences were reported in perceptions of the following experiences: Hearing loss,  $p=0.007$ ; Vision difficulties,  $p=0.002$ ; Speech difficulties,  $p=0.03$ ; and Mental health difficulties,  $p=0.003$ . The effect size of each of these differences is medium according to Cohen's guidelines (1988). Table 4.18 displays the statistically significant findings.

**Table 4.18 Significant Findings for Tests for Differences in Perceptions of Disabilities**

<b>Experience</b>	<b>p value</b>	<b>Effect Size* (Phi value)</b>
<b>Hearing Loss</b>	0.007	-0.269
<b>Vision Difficulties</b>	0.002	-0.307
<b>Speech Difficulties</b>	0.030	-0.232
<b>Mental Health Difficulties</b>	0.003	-0.311

\*0.30 for medium effect (Cohen, 1988)

A small percentage of the participants reported having a disability. One of the PV and Post CV volunteer groups had Deafness, two had an intellectual disability, one experienced psychological or emotional difficulties and two had a chronic illness. Two members of management had a physical limitation and two had a psychological or emotional illness. Table 4.18 displays these results in percentages.

**Table 4.18 The percentage of each group with any of the following conditions**

	<b>Pre CV Group (n=13)</b>	<b>PV &amp; Post CV Groups (n=96)</b>	<b>Hope Management (n=17)</b>
	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Physical limitation</b>	0	0	11.8
<b>Deafness</b>	7.7	1.04	0
<b>Blindness</b>	0	0	0
<b>Intellectual disabilities</b>	15.4	2.08	0
<b>Psychological or emotional difficulties</b>	7.7	1.04	11.8
<b>Chronic illness</b>	0	2.08	0
<b>Other</b>	7.7	2.08	0

#### 4.6.2 Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons – Scale O (ATDP-O)

Scores from the ATDP-O (Yuker et al, 1970) showed that both the volunteers and Hope management scored above the norms (females= 78.84, SD= 16.44 and males= 78.86, SD= 15.65, Yuker et al, 1970), indicating higher than normal attitudes to disability, with Management scoring higher than the volunteers (respectively 92.72 and 90.79). A variable was created using crosstabs to identify the number of volunteers (PV and post CV groups), according to gender, that scored above Yuker et al’s (1970) norms. It was found that 87.7 percent of female volunteers (n=57) scored above the norms for females. 92 percent of the male volunteers (n=23) also scored above the norms for males. These results cannot be inferred to the wider population as the Pearson’s chi-square values are not significant (females, p value= 0.279; males, p value= 0.714). Table 4.19 shows the ATDP-O score for a variety of groups, listed below. The appropriate tests for differences were run to test whether the differences between these groups were statistically significant:

- a) Pre and Post CV group;
- b) All volunteers after volunteering (PV+ post CV) and Hope management;
- c) Pre CV and Management;
- d) Those who brought Hope’s philosophy elsewhere and those who didn’t;
- e) Those who studied a disability module and those who didn’t.

**Table 4.19 Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons – Scale O**

		n	Mean	SD
<b>Previous Volunteer Groups</b>		75	91.2	13.6
<b>Current Volunteer Group</b>	Pre	13	88.3	11.1
	Post	13	87.9	18.4
<b>Previous + Post Current Volunteer Group</b>		88	90.8	13.0
<b>Hope Management</b>		17	92.7	18.4
<b>Institute of Technology Tralee Group</b>				
<b>Brought Hope’s Philosophy</b>	Did	34	89.9	12.3
	Did Not	33	90.8	13.8
<b>Studied Disability Module</b>	Yes	60	89.0	13.7
	No	27	94.7	10.8

Even though differences can be seen between groups, none of these differences were statistically significant. For example, the 2013 sample and the PV sample (88 and 91); those who had studied a disability module scored lower on the ATDP-O scale than those who had not (89 and 95); and also the CV group scored lower after volunteering (88 to 88). Table 4.20 shows that the power of finding statistically significant differences between these groups ranged between 2 percent and 46 percent due to the number of participants in each group.

**Table 4.20 Cohen’s d for Tests for Differences**

Differences Tested		Post-hoc Power*		
	n		n	
<b>Pre CV group</b>	13	Post CV group	13	2.43%
<b>After Volunteering</b>	88	Management	17	12.14%
<b>Pre Volunteering</b>	13	Management	17	29.06%
<b>Brought Hope’s Philosophy</b>	34	Did Not	33	6.95%
<b>Studied Disability Module</b>	60	Did Not	27	46.23%

\*power of detecting a statistical difference due to sample sizes

#### 4.6.4 Interaction between ATDP-O and VFI Scores

Tests for relationships were run to evaluate the strength of the relationships between the volunteer’s ATDP-O scores and motivation scores, including Global Motivation scores ( $r=.054$ ) and each VFI function. Scores ranged between  $r= -0.013$  and  $r= 0.154$  and fell short of the parameters for a small relationship (Cohen, 1988), indicating no significant relationship between attitudes to disability and motivations for the current sample.

#### 4.6.6 Qualitative – Attitudes to Disability

Ethnographic observations of Hope staff and management and also data collected from interviews confirm that these participants have very positive attitudes to disability and towards people with disabilities. Hope’s motto ‘*helping people with disabilities achieve their dreams*’ really seems to be a philosophy that is embraced by members of the organisation. An example of this being practiced was when Hope’s service users approached their supervisor with a request to travel to Ireland to see where the volunteers come from and to be involved in the recruitment process and the supervisor immediately

began to look at the possibility of making it happen. The researcher also observed an interaction involving a director, a service user and a volunteer, in which the service user did not want to do their prescribed exercises in the Discovery Centre gym, the volunteer tried to encourage and motivate the service user, while the director really listened to the service user and identified that they wanted to use a mainstream gym to mix with people without disabilities. These findings are validated by a volunteer who reported that their main memories at Hope were to ensure that service users always “*maintain their dignity and not to ever rush them and see them as a job*”. Other examples include a director stating that the word disability should be changed as “*it means that you’re not able*”, and a supervisor acknowledging that “*the ultimate goal [of inclusive physical activity] ... is not just to be able to throw a boccia ball with skill, it is to be able to participate in a game with people that they have relationships with*”.

Despite these positive findings in terms of attitudes towards disability, a participant who volunteered in 2008 and now holds a managerial role within a disability service in Europe, reported finding some of the terminology used in training out-dated. Stating that “*staff still using the term 'retarded', saying 'he is very retarded' instead of 'low functioning autism' or 'non-verbal profound disability'*” The researcher did not hear the term “retardation” being used by staff but did notice that this term was used within the service user’s Plans of Care and also on Medicaid documentation. The researcher did observe, a member of training staff and management mentioned their disapproval of the use of this term during training. This person was not aware of the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health model (ICF, WHO, 2002) and expressed a desire to move towards the use of this model. These findings indicate positive attitudes on behalf of Hope staff and management, even if there is room for improvement in terms of the terminology used in documentation, to attain alignment with Rosa’s Law (2010) and leading international standards and practice.

#### **4.7 The Impact on Volunteers**

This section looks at the impact of the volunteer experience on the volunteers themselves, firstly looking at the personal impact of volunteering at Hope on the volunteers and then on their education and careers. Volunteers were then asked to “*describe in as much detail as possible how you think your experience at Hope impacted your career path*” or “*...how you think your experience at Hope will impact your future career path*”, and

many reported an impact on the education; during interviews; and also both direct and indirect impacts on their careers.

#### **4.7.1 The Personal Impact on Volunteers**

Of the CV group, seven volunteers could list more than five of Hope's values and three could list between one and five. Of the PV group, 28 listed more than five of the values and 18 listed between one and five. Some participants that could not list the specific values stated that the philosophy impacted them nonetheless. For example, one volunteer stated "*I can't remember the named values but I did enjoy the overall ethos and spirit of Hope....has definitely influenced me*". Also 49 percent of the PV group of volunteers reported that they brought Hope's philosophy with them to another workplace (n=37). 51 percent reported that they didn't (n=39). Seven participants from the PV group of volunteers did not answer the question.

When asked if they kept in touch with Hope's service users after leaving Alaska, 51 percent of the PV group stated that they did (n=42). 48 stated that they didn't (n=40) and one volunteer didn't answer the question. These findings indicate an emotional or social impact on the volunteers, and supports a statement made by a director who perceived volunteer's motives to be related to adventure but believed that the relationships volunteers develop at Hope, shift their motives, attributing Group Integration as a main contributing factor to the large percentage of volunteers that return.

While evaluating the personal impact on the volunteers, it was found that the majority of the qualitative data collected could be coded according to the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) functions identified earlier in the chapter. The functional approach of the VFI to volunteerism implies an association between benefits and motivations which supports this categorisation of results (Houle et al, 2005; Musick and Wilson, 2007). The functions include Protective, Values, Social, Career, Understanding, Enhancement and the Adventure function. The Social function as defined in the VFI is related with motivation to volunteer due to social norms, however the researcher felt it was not possible for benefits to be provided in this way, so Social benefits were categorised according to volunteer's reports of how the relationships that were formed during the time volunteering impacted them. The number of citations each function received are as follows: the Understanding function (134), the Social (51), Adventure (34), Enhancement

(31) and Values (17). The Protective function received no citation associated with personal benefits. Benefits associated with Understanding and Career will be reported in the next section. Many volunteers stated that their volunteer experience had provided them with meaningful relationships with other volunteers, staff and service users. For example one volunteer cited *“being accepted quickly as one of [Hope staff] and not just another volunteer”*. Another stated *“meeting new people and creating lasting friendships with other volunteers and Alaskans”* as a benefit. Other participants stated that the programme had given them confidence which is associated with the Enhancement function, and in particular in working with people with disabilities. A representative quote that encompasses this benefit is *“Hope Alaska was probably the best experience of my college life. It showed me I was capable of a lot more than I had thought I was. It gave me the opportunity to learn new skills in MANDT training, caring for others, it opened up and showed me my capabilities as a carer and teacher. It gave me great confidence and independence in going over to Alaska with a group of people that I was not a part of but made life friends afterwards!”*

#### **4.7.2 The Impact on Volunteer’s Education**

Thirteen volunteers stated that volunteering at Hope impacted their education. A representative report was that volunteering at Hope *“provided [them] with such a confidence boost to then go on to higher education in health and social care”*. Three of these participants went on to study occupational therapy; two carried out a research project in the field of disability and others chose disability related modules, for example Special Populations at Waterford Institute of Technology; further training at the University of Anchorage, Alaska; and disability related postgraduate studies. Six volunteers stated that they wish to continue their education in disability studies.

#### **4.7.3 The Impact on Volunteer’s Careers**

Nine participants identified their experience at Hope as positively impacting them during job interviews. One participant stated that their experience at Hope helped them gain their current employment and also helps them on a daily basis. Another volunteer, from 2006, used their experience during interview for their current job, and recounted how their Hope experience had *“shaped [their] career... I used my experience in Dillingham... as a barometer of how far I could/would go to support a person with a disability”*. This participant has since developed a national disability inclusion training programme and has also worked with Enable Ireland, Special Olympics, and has been involved in



wheelchair football, basketball and tennis. Many other volunteers reported gaining knowledge and skills for working with people with disabilities. A typical statement is “*I wouldn't even think twice about working with people with disabilities ... it's a comfort zone for me now, before it was a grey area*”. Another volunteer reported their experience as “*a good chance to think about certain ideas and build my own opinion about certain things*”. Other volunteers referred to the opportunity of seeing how health care services are run in another country. For example, “*seeing the difference in the services between Ireland and the US.*”

Sixty percent of the PV group (n=50) have worked or volunteered with people with disabilities since volunteering at Hope compared to 40 percent who have not (n=33). 92 percent of the CV group (n=12) stated that they would continue to work in the field of disability, some of whom had not considered it as a career path before volunteering. The remaining volunteers stated that they were not sure which path their career would take. Ten participants from the PV group also stated that even though they were not working in the field of disability at the time of completing the survey, Hope had impacted their desire to continue to work in the field of disability in the future. For example, one participant from this group stated that their “*career path has taken a little side line, but my goal is to get into working with people with disabilities in the future*”.

From the PV group, 41 stated that their experience at Hope had directly impacted their career path and are now working in the field of disability. Some of these participants have been employed in managerial or advocacy positions in Adapted Physical Activity (APA) and disability service provision since volunteering at Hope. Table 4.21 lists high impact roles that volunteers have been involved in. An example of a response identifying how Hope impacted their career is “*I believe that working at Hope had formed the basis for my career pathway. Since ... I have volunteered in India and specifically with children with disabilities... has contributed to my hands on knowledge in the area of disabilities and... given me a focal point when completing assignments in college and also when completing job interviews.*” Another participant stated that after volunteering in 2004 they decided to work in the area of disability and went on to study an MSC in Applied Behaviour Analysis (ABA). They now work as an autism classroom teacher and training facilitator with the Special Education Support Service (SESS). This participant later

returned to Hope as a volunteer and used her Applied Behaviour Analysis skills to train other volunteers and staff and to create more structured activities at the Discovery Centre while still allowing Hope’s service users to maintain Hope’s value of choice. A manager described this as “*monumental...for allowing choice [one of Hope’s values] with structure*”. This example indicates the ideal scenario of reciprocal benefit identified by one of Hope’s directors.

**Table 4.21 High Impact Roles after Volunteering**

Role
<b>Manager of CARA Adapted Physical Activity Centre</b>
<b>Training and Education Officer at the CARA APA centre</b>
<b>Executive Board Member and current Chairperson of Board of the Irish Wheelchair Association</b>
<b>Manager and coach of Irish Wheelchair Rugby 7's (x2)</b>
<b>Lecturer in Adapted Physical Activity, Institute of Technology, Tralee</b>
<b>Physical Activity Coordinator, One for All</b>
<b>Sports Inclusion Disability Officer (x5)</b>
<b>Sports Development Officer at Special Olympics, Ireland</b>
<b>Supervisor Instructor at Brothers of Charity</b>
<b>Training Facilitator at Special Education Support Service</b>
<b>Disability Case Manager at Good Samaritan Industries</b>
<b>Health Program Manager for Senior and Disability Services, State of Alaska</b>
<b>Manager at Bea Fisher developmental disability service, Saskatchewan, Canada</b>
<b>High Management position in the field of disabilities in their home country</b>

From the PV group, 29 percent (n=24) stated that even though they were not directly working in the field of disability, that volunteering at Hope had still impacted their careers and they were bringing disability awareness to their chosen profession. Examples of such statements include “*It added a string to my bow... The skills I learned working in the disability sector were transferable to [teaching, sports development and child protection]*”. A health promotion professional stated that their current job requires a

universal knowledge and approach that can target groups from all backgrounds that they their experience at Hope “*dramatically increased my knowledge and confidence in working with people with disabilities*”. There were six volunteers that reported Hope had not impacted their career because they are not working with people with disabilities, in contrast to the previous group who acknowledged an indirect impact on their careers in terms of inclusion. Two participants stated that they had already chosen their career path before volunteering at Hope so were not impacted in this way. For example, “*I was already working with people with disability... thus the volunteer program has impacted me in this way*”. Another volunteer from 2008 stated that their career was impacted by their experience at Hope but not by Hope’s disability awareness training as they found the terminology outdated, however reported being impacted by the relationships they had developed. The other volunteer stated that their career was not impacted as they had been placed in maintenance, and did not gain hands-on experience with people with disabilities. In total the results show that 79 percent of previous volunteers stated that their careers had been impacted, either directly or indirectly, by volunteering at Hope.

#### **4.7.4 The International Impact**

It seems that volunteers coming from countries where disability service provision is less advanced, compared to international standards, have been impacted greatly by Hope’s philosophy and the experience they gained. For example, one participant who had worked for the United Nations in an advocacy role stated “*in training... the philosophy hit me... I immediately had that feeling of trying to adapt that, not only working with people with disabilities but thinking these are philosophies I can use in my own life... my personal upliftment*” adding “*I thought I was doing so much, talking about advocacy and talking about rights and healthy issues and empowering young people but ... I’ve left a whole group out when I did it... not once did it occur to me*”. This participant also worked within media for seven years prior to their time at Hope and stated that when they return home they intend to use their skills and connections to advocate for people with disabilities stating “*if it doesn’t change sooner it will change through me... that has to change*” adding that they also have “*political ambitions*”. Two other volunteers plan to create a group homes in their home country on their return, one in Africa the other in Eastern Europe. When asked whether they will continue to work in the field of disability when they return home one stated “*I would actually like to do an assisted living kind of thing...*

*like the ranch. So I think actually the last few years were pretty good in learning a lot of new stuff about this”.*

The majority of volunteers that have come from developing countries have already incorporated some of what they have learned at Hope into projects in their home country. A volunteer from Belarus, introduced a training programme for staff at four orphanages that supports children with disabilities and also reported meeting with several directors to share what they had learned at Hope. In Tomsk, Russia, volunteers have created a group home and an art programme, inspired by Hope’s art studio. Art projects have also been created in Sri Lanka and in Tokmok, Kyrgyzstan. A group home and recreation centre have also been created in Tokmok. Another volunteer from Russia created links between a Governmental office and an orphanage to provide basic hygiene resources for the children. This volunteer returned to Hope repeatedly “to learn more about and get more experience, with Autism and therapy” and also attended the University of Anchorage, Alaska (UAA), acquiring training in Applied Behaviour Analysis. On return to Russia this volunteer created a support group for parents of children with Autism combining the knowledge she had gained at Hope and at UAA and working towards uniting specialists in the field of Autism with organisations that support people with Autism. Other volunteers have worked with people with disabilities in India; Melbourne and Perth, Australia; London, UK; Guernsey, the Channel Islands; and Saskatchewan, Canada.

#### **4.8 The Impact on Hope**

This section discusses the impact that the programme has made on Hope. The programmes and initiatives volunteers have created have already been reported, so this section looks at the reciprocal benefit of having international volunteers on the provision of services at Hope, including the short-term nature of the programme and also the impact on the service users.

##### **4.8.1 Reciprocal Benefit**

All interviewed directors stated that a reciprocal benefit is the ideal scenario for the volunteer programme, where both Hope and the volunteers receive benefits from the volunteer programme, again implying that the volunteer programme falls into the category of “new” volunteerism (Rommel et al., 1997). Hope is a not-for-profit organisation so it is important that the cost of the programme is considered. Directors

reported that the economic cost of the programme was calculated by the finance department in recent years and that for the cost of the programme to balance, volunteers must volunteer for a minimum of three months. The interviews also revealed further perspective relating to the economic value of the programme. A director stated “*we have come to count and depend on it for a lot of things*”, referring to the programmes that the volunteers run adding that the volunteers are a “*crucial aspect*”. This director stated that “*as long as it was breaking even [economically] ... it makes sense to have them.*” Another previous volunteer coordinator expressed the need for a specific budget for the programme stating that “*there was a budget but it was so small... for the type of programme that we were running*”.

Another director referred to the energy invested in training volunteers and referred to volunteers returning or extending their visas stating that “*the value of the programme increased because the investment in teaching bore fruit*”. This was echoed by many other members of staff and management and is evident by the programmes and initiatives that volunteers have created. The results also show that since volunteers have been returning and extending their visas, there has been more structure to programmes and services provided by volunteers and there has been an acceleration in the rate of development of these programmes. For example, the Discovery Health programme was led by a volunteer who returned four times, this programme was begun in 2012, as Life Skills sessions at the Discovery Centre and evolved to the Cooking and Nutrition programme and Healthy Lifestyles programme. Both of these merged into the Discover Health programme which is now becoming part of a Hope-wide Wellness Initiative, expanding to Kenai. As one recent volunteer stated “*things are going at a hundred miles an hour, but it’s good*”. Another director referred to the reciprocal benefit as the giving and receiving that occurs including “*volunteers making an impact when they go home*”. Many examples have already been mentioned in the previous sections including one volunteer returning to Hope and incorporating their ABA training into service provision in the Discovery Centre and the many volunteers who have created initiatives in their home countries.

From the data collected it is evident that all members of staff and management acknowledge the benefit of having international volunteers at Hope. The majority refer to the recreation skills and knowledge that the volunteers bring and the programmes that have been created by volunteers, as mentioned earlier. And many state that Hope’s staff do not have the skills or educational training to provide these resources and there are no

Adapted Physical Activity or recreation type degrees courses available in Alaska. Many members of staff refer to the cultural exchange that the volunteers provide while all members of staff and management mention the energy and vibrancy that the volunteers bring. Some even perceive that it alleviates burnout, which is responsible for such a high turnover rate in direct support roles.

#### **4.8.3 The Impact of the Short-Term Nature of the Programme on the Workforce**

As mentioned in the previous paragraph, the extension of volunteer's visas and terms at Hope, seems to be positively impacting the development of services provided by the volunteers. During interviews with staff and management, the short-term nature of the programme on the workforce was frequently referred to. Almost all members of staff referred to the energy that the volunteers bring, others refer to the high turnover in staff in direct support services and how the using volunteers may impede burnout. One member of staff that has worked with the volunteers for many years and in different roles, claimed that the short-term nature of the programme maintains a high level of enthusiasm and energy and helps alleviate burnout, stating that *“by switching out the volunteers every six months it gives a burst of energy to the programme that we wouldn't have otherwise... [the work is] also draining, its tiring, its physically exhausting... people have high behavioural challenges”*. Other supervisors refer to the *“freshness of energy that comes with that. And new ideas and new ways of approaching things, which in a really dynamic group setting environment like the Discovery centre is important”*, and that it allows for continual improvement *“new volunteers come in, if there was something that I didn't like the way the project was working it gives us a chance to reset that”*.

The other issue that was mentioned relating to the short-term nature of the programme was the initial apprehension on behalf of some staff, as volunteers receive the same amount of training as paid employees. However, as mentioned in section 4.8.1, further research revealed that this was not the case and that this apprehension no longer seemed to be present. For example, one supervisor stated that they *“confess that I was a little concerned... [about the] complete overhaul of staffing every couple of months... that concern I had never showed itself to be well-founded*. This supervisor perceived that the high rate of return volunteers and recent increase in visa extensions has been a major

contributing factor. Another supervisor perceived the retraining associated with the volunteer turnover as an “*opportunity to change things*”.

#### **4.8.4 The Impact on Hope’s Service Users**

To evaluate the impact on Hope’s service users or “individuals” as they are called at Hope, the perspectives of some of their parents and carers was obtained. Typically, the views of parents of service users receiving Discovery Centre services, or those attending Camp Cara, and also Home Alliance Coordinators (HACs) of the service users living in group homes where volunteers regularly provide service. Some of the impacts that were reported were the skills and ideas that the volunteers bring, which lead to Inclusion in recreational and physical activities; the relationships created with volunteers and other service users; the focused attention service users receive; and cultural exchange.

From the researcher’s perspective the most significant impact the volunteers have on the service users, is the skills they bring which provides a variety of physical activity and recreational services, and the wide range of psychological, physical and social health benefits that engaging in these services can provide (Hannon, 2004). Access to these activities is even more significant for people with disabilities than the general population, due to the high level of barriers that are often experienced by people with disabilities. Some of these barriers are social, natural or related to the physical environment and available facilities (Saebu, 2010). Another associated impact is the delay and reduction of secondary conditions and chronic symptoms (Fentem, 1996). The researcher observed the service users participated in a variety of such activities via the Discovery Centre and Camp Cara, some of which included swimming, rock climbing, kayaking and dancing. The researcher also observed that service users also had access to a gym at the Discovery Centre but noted that this facility was not optimally utilised and was often locked. Further research found that the volunteers with the appropriate skills had been placed as Camp Cara leaders, indicating a demand for more volunteers with Adapted Physical Activity skills.

Many members of staff and management also acknowledged the impact the volunteers skills bring yet they also reported the positive of the relationships they develop with the service users. For example, one HAC stated “*when [service user] was alive, she couldn’t wait day to day for them to arrive*”. The researcher also noted that they were introduced

to service users as a volunteer when visiting group homes for data collection, and the majority of service users were excited to meet a new volunteer, and often spoke of good memories with other volunteers or mentioned how much fun they are, without prompting. Another supervisor referred to the change they have observed in the service users since they had been working with volunteers, stating that they “*just open up and blossom in so many ways*” due to the extra attention they receive from volunteers. This supervisor perceived that the volunteers “*come with a readiness and willingness to form*”. Adding that the activities and skills the volunteers bring provide a great framework to develop these relationships. A director stated that the volunteers “*awakened us to the fact that [Hope staff and service users] are not very active [physically]*” implying the health benefits of the programmes the volunteers provide. A supervisor recalled an incident which particularly highlighted the volunteer’s skills regarding inclusion of the service users in physical activity and recreation. The supervisor reported that a wheel chair user with limited use of their arms, entered a room where boccia was being played, and “*[the volunteer] looked around the room... and there was a camera tripod... and with the tripod [the volunteer] adjusted the legs so that it made a trough, and this individual could pick up the ball and roll it down and he was making points... and I said ‘that’s adapted recreation’*”. Some parents and HACs also reported noticing the difference of having volunteers placed according to the skills that they bring. For example, without prompting a parent and a HAC both referred to an improvement in the running of Camp Cara in 2012, when only students with a background in Adapted Physical Activity were assigned to Camp Cara. The HAC stated “*the Irish volunteers, they are coming with ... more training than they’ve had before... they took [individual] swimming... something that we didn’t think would happen. In the past... she ended up sitting and watching others have activities or we would keep her home*”

Other staff referred to the cultural exposure the service users were receiving. A typical example from a supervisor is “*they absolutely love new students ... I have [service users] that talk about Ireland as if they’ve been there or they talk about the different places the students are from like its second nature to them and I don’t think they would have ever thought of anything outside of Alaska aside of this programme.*” Some service users have even approached a supervisor with an intention to travel to the colleges in Ireland to be involved in the recruitment process and to “*see where the volunteers come from*”.



#### 4.8.5 The Impact of the Short-Term Nature of the Programme on Hope's Service Users

There seemed to be a mixed consensus among Hope staff regarding how the short-term nature of the volunteer programmes impacts Hope's service users, with the majority perceiving this aspect of the programme to have more benefits than disadvantages. Some members of management expressed their concern, for example one director stated "*it is hard on the individuals we support to have people popping in and out of their life*". Others echoed this statement or mentioned that it is difficult for service users to bond and create relationships with volunteers when they are leaving after three months. The topic was raised with staff whom have direct contact with Hope's service users to evaluate their perceptions of services users actual experiences, including Home Alliance Coordinators, supervisors and direct support staff. The majority stated that even though the service users (and staff) are sad to see the volunteers leave, when handled correctly, the situation can be used as an opportunity to support the service users as they learn to adjust to transitions. HACs agreed that it is "*an opportunity to teach the individuals about the circle of life*" adding that they don't perceive the volunteers leaving as a negative impact as they already "*have so many people come and go out of their life*" and many of the volunteers send cards and letters to the service users after they return to their home country which alleviates the sadness they feel when the volunteers leave. Results show that of the volunteers that served in group homes or natural homes (n=43), 79.1 percent reported maintaining contact with the service users at Hope (n=34) compared to 51.2 percent of the overall PV group. These results suggest that the volunteers in group homes form closer relationships with the service users they support, most likely due to the closer environment involved. When compared to the volunteers who served at the Discovery Centre and at Camp Cara as these environments seem to facilitate the development of relationships among the service users.

Some of the staff reported that making service users aware that the volunteers would be leaving a couple of weeks in advance helped with this transition and added that "*a need that the people we serve have, is learning how to handle those kind of changes*". Another supervisor added that they had observed "*behaviours sky-rocketing sometimes when we're going through that change*", in the past, referring to the volunteer turnover, but added that this does not happen as much since volunteers are extending their visas. A member of the behavioural therapist team at Hope, stated "*from my perspective it [short-term nature of the programme] can be a very good thing*" adding that practicing new

skills, outlined within each service users plan of care, in different environments and with different people improves the learning process and is the foundation of the Generalisation Process and adds that it is a way in which the short-term nature of the volunteer programme can be utilised.

It seems that the ideal scenario seems to evolve and involves using some core paid staff or long-term volunteers to create consistency, with the supplementation of short-term volunteers. An example of this occurs in both the Art Studio and the Discovery Centre, and as one supervisor reported *“it’s been a learning process”*. It also appears to depend on where the volunteers are placed, for example Camp Cara is a summer camp, and the Discovery Centre has an influx of service users during the summer months so a larger workforce is required at these times. Some staff members and parents also perceived that in group environments there is less of a negative impact on the services users, than in environments where the volunteers are in more one-to-one situations, such as group homes or natural homes. For example one parent stated when in one-to-one relationships with staff *“[service user] gets attached and then they break them up he gets a lot of behaviour problems, but over here [Discovery Centre] everybody’s in a group in one room, all working together, he’s comfortable with just about everyone I know”*. Other staff members, in particular Home Alliance Coordinators (HAC), report that the benefits of having the volunteers outweigh the negative impacts. For example one stated that *“the minuses are in the 10% and the pluses are in the 90%”*.

## **4.9 The Impact on the Wider Community**

An evaluation of the impact of the volunteer programme on the wider community was not an objective of the study, however the researcher discovered the beginnings and also potential for such an impact.

### **4.9.1 Impact on the Wider Community In Alaska**

For example a member of a local aqua-aerobics class began to voluntarily provide water aerobics sessions for Hope’s service users after a group of service users and volunteer joined the class. This volunteer was not qualified but had previous ballet teaching experience and reported seeing the need to provide a specific class as she observed that the service users found the mainstream class difficult to follow due to the high level of

skill required. Again this highlights the demand for an increase in recruitment of volunteers with Adapted Physical Activity skills.

Also some members of Hope staff have envisioned utilising the volunteers and their skills to impact people with disabilities throughout Anchorage. One director reported suggesting to an organisation that provides outdoor sports for people with mostly physical disabilities, to connect with the Adapted Physical Activity programme at the Institute of Technology, Tralee. Another manager reported having conversations with a local teacher in Anchorage about the possibility of creating activity sites within the school district, with a focus on providing adaptive physical activity and recreation for students with disabilities after hearing of budget cuts for adaptive recreation programmes within the education system. A means of supporting this vision and also supporting the water aerobics volunteer was suggested by a previous volunteer who now is now in a managerial Adapted Physical Activity role in Ireland. They suggested that more strategic placement of volunteers, in particular those that have studied Adapted Physical Activity adding that they could even be trained as Disability Inclusion Tutors before leaving Ireland and they could implement this training with Hope staff and also at local leisure centres, local sports clubs and “*start to build capacity within Anchorage so that there are more opportunities for inclusion*”.

A member of Hope staff also stated that Hope were planning to present at the Full Lives Conference for Direct Support Professionals at the University of Anchorage, Alaska (UAA) regarding the Discover Health Programme that was recently developed by a volunteer and was staffed primarily by volunteers.

#### **4.9.2 Impact on the Wider Community in Ireland**

The researcher has already reported the impacts on the volunteer’s careers which has an impact on the wider community in Ireland and the other home countries of the volunteers. The results also showed that the programme has been recognised politically as in March 2014, Dinny McGinley, the Irish Minister of State from the Department of Community, Rural and Gaeltacht Affairs, and a delegation paid an official visit to Hope to acknowledge the work the volunteers have been doing.

Another impact was reported by a member of staff at the Waterford Institute of Technology who perceived that the programme had an impact on the uptake of disability related modules since students began volunteering at Hope. This member of staff added

that this had a “*snowball effect*” as there was an increased level of interest in these modules, even among students who had not volunteered at Hope.

#### **4.10 Results Summary**

Rather than reiterating an already vast results chapter, the researcher chose to use the discussion chapter to summarise the main findings of the results, while combining the quantitative and qualitative findings and comparing them to the relevant literature.

## **Discussion**

## 5.0 Discussion

This chapter aims to merge both the quantitative and qualitative results while aligning the findings with the aims of the study, while also comparing them to the existing literature. The main aims of the study were to: create a profile of Hope's international volunteers; assess the impact of the international volunteer programme on Hope; and to assess the impact of the programme on the volunteer's careers and their view of disability.

### 5.1 Objective 1 - Identify the Profile of Hope's Volunteers

The importance of an organisation's awareness regarding their volunteer profile is to facilitate optimal utilisation of volunteers as stated by Haski-Leventhaal and Meijs (2011). Hope's volunteers typically fit the "new" classification of volunteerism as described by Rommel et al (1997, translated by Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2000, p20) as the programme is long-term episodic, international, consists mostly of young volunteers and provides reciprocal benefits as identified by Hope staff, management and the volunteers. Fee and Gray (2011) stated that this reciprocal environment is the optimal scenario for building capacity of volunteers and also making a valued contribution. As the majority of volunteers are from Ireland the researcher compared the participants to the National Disability Authority public attitudes to disability questionnaire (NDA, 2011) and found that a larger proportion of Hope's volunteers reported knowing someone with a disability, in particular friends (35.6%) and immediate family (32.2%) in comparison to the general public in Ireland (17% and 15% respectively). The NDA also found that participants under 35 years of age were significantly less likely to report knowing someone with a disability ( $p < 0.001$ ). This highlights the uniqueness of Hope's volunteers, the majority of whom were between 18 and 25 years of age.

Another distinct characteristic of Hope's volunteers is the high level of education they have undertaken as all participants had completed or were studying at third level. These findings propose that the volunteers will have the qualifications and skills to move into high impact careers, in particular as the volunteers rated the Careers and Understanding function so highly and also as the results showed, 22 percent of previous volunteers that have moved into high impact positions within the field of adapted physical activity and disability service provision. This possibility is supported by Thomas (2001) who found that returned volunteers that were driven by career motivations, were most likely to have positive experiences on return to the workforce.

## 5.2 Objective 2 - Evaluate Whether the Programme Fits the Volunteer Criteria

The findings indicate that Hope's volunteer programme meets the volunteer criteria proposed by Cnaan et al. (1996), which include the dimensions of structure, free choice, intended beneficiaries and remuneration. The programme is formal, 100 percent of the volunteer's reported choosing freely to volunteer and 100 percent of volunteers were providing voluntary service to people aside from their families. The remuneration aspect of the programme was the area that brought up the definition debate, however the researcher acknowledges that due to the international nature of the programme the provision of a stipend and flight reimbursement are good practice. Also, according to other researchers provision of such remuneration can promote participant diversity and volunteer retention which are both related to the reciprocal impact of the programme which the results have shown is a goal of the programme (Barnes and Sharpe, 2009; McBride et al., 2009; Moskwiak, 2005; Plum and Jorgensen, 2012; UN, 2009). These supports also promote inclusion and provision of volunteer opportunities for people who are likely to be marginalised, which supports that findings that 72 percent of volunteers stated that it would not have been possible for them to volunteer without the stipend for living expenses and flight reimbursement.

A surprising result was that 18.8 percent were unsure of whether their action at Hope was voluntary or not, and 15.6 percent perceived that their action was not voluntary. It is possible that these results are due to the provision of these financial supports, as people are more likely to perceive action as voluntary if there is a greater cost to the volunteer (Handy et al., 2000). And also as volunteers may be comparing Hope's volunteer programme to 'voluntourism' which requires payment of a participation fee, in contrast to Hope's programme. In particular as 'voluntourism' is often associated with adventure, which was qualitatively reported by the largest proportion of volunteers as their reason for volunteering. Another possibility is that, while the stipend volunteers receive is less than the local wage for direct support professionals, and is provided to cover living expenses which are quite high in Alaska, many of the volunteers are students and have not been earning a wage, so may perceive the stipend as payment for the service they provide, especially as they are expected to volunteer for approximately forty hours per week.

### 5.3 Objective 3 - Evaluate the Volunteer's Motives to Volunteer

The quantitative results revealed that Hope's volunteers rated the Values, Understanding and Career functions most importantly, and in that order. MacNeela (2004) found a similar pattern in the VFI scores of social service volunteers in Ireland, except MacNeela's volunteers, who were older than Hope's volunteers (Mean age=43 years) rated the Career function lowest which could be responsible for this discrepancy. Clary et al (1996) also found that volunteers involved in Human Services rated Values and Understanding highest. They also reported that younger volunteers placed a greater importance on the Protective, Understanding and Career functions. Other researchers consistently reported that younger volunteers rated the Career and Understanding functions more highly than older volunteers (Davila and Diaz-Morales, 2009; Gage and Thapa, 2012). The advantage of implementing mixed methods proved worthwhile in the identification of the Adventure motive within the qualitative data, which 56 percent of volunteers reported unprompted. It was the second highest motivator, after Understanding and before Career, all of which are egoistic motives according to Batson (1990). The Adventure motive is also supported by the finding that 8.3 percent of volunteers had previous international volunteer experience. O'Connor (2011) similarly found that young Irish volunteers had mostly altruistic motives and were strongly and often "passionately" aligned with the cause, in combination with lesser rated egoistic motives such as "*travel opportunities*".

As mentioned in the results chapter, there was a difference between the qualitative and quantitative data when measuring motivations, with the Values function, which can be described as altruistic (Batton, 1990), scoring highest in the quantitative data and lowest of the VFI functions, in the qualitative data. It is possible that social desirability is responsible for this inconsistency as the participants may have answered in a manner that they perceive to be favourable. However ethnographic observations and statements made by Hope staff and management indicate that the volunteers did have genuine compassion and concern for Hope's service users, as reported in the results chapter (4.4.3). As one manager stated "*[the volunteers] come with a readiness and willingness to form those relationships*". This is strongly supported by the 51.2 percent of volunteers that reported keeping in touch with Hope's service users. Hustinx (2011) also found that a large cohort of international student volunteers were mostly driven by altruistic motives, followed by career and social motivations. The most likely possibility for the difference is supported



by the critique of the VFI by Handy and Hustinx (2009) who state that the Values function is naturally indisputable, as volunteers would hardly volunteer unless they cared. This is particularly evident with Hope's volunteers who report a high rate of previous volunteer experience, mostly with vulnerable groups like people with disabilities, older adults and children, and also because all voluntary roles at Hope involve personal care involving bathing and toileting. It could be assumed that someone solely seeking adventure would not be interested in this high level of personal human service. All of these factors suggest that the volunteers are naturally driven by Values functions, but maybe it was the Adventure and the experience of serving in the field of disabilities that specifically attracted the volunteers to Hope.

All members of Hope staff that referred to the volunteer's motivations also validated that Adventure was a main factor in the volunteer's motivations and so the results show that Hope's volunteers were driven by Values (which is altruistic), Adventure, Understanding and Career (which are all egoistic). This is valuable information for Hope in terms of recruiting volunteers, as other researchers suggest that motives should be considered when designing recruitment literature for volunteers, as volunteers are more likely to be attracted to literature that matches their motives (Clary et al., 1998; Houle et al. 2005).

#### **5.4 Objective 4 - Evaluate Volunteer's Satisfaction with the Programme**

This objective was more difficult to compare to existing volunteer satisfaction literature as research on this topic is scarce (Gagne and Deci, 2005) and also because satisfaction is specific to each volunteer programme. The results showed that Group Integration, Participation Efficacy and Work Assignment scored highest both quantitatively and qualitatively, in different order. An additional "Alaska Experience (AE)" variable was also identified. The categories that provided most room for improvement were Communication Quality and Organisational Support. Hope staff and management validated these findings and the results showed that the majority of participants recommended the appointment of a volunteer supervisor or manager. This role has been removed in recent years and a repeat volunteer from 2009, 2010 and 2011 stated "*It is a programme that I love and it has changed me in many ways, I am worried however that it is slipping slightly and that the quality of the experience is not what it used to be*". A supervisor validated this with the following statement "*sometimes I'm amazed that it goes off as well as it does!*" A representative quote from a volunteer is "*Volunteers need someone they can go to coordinating within Hope*", which was mirrored by the majority

of staff and management. For example, the majority of supervisors echoed the following statement “*if I have one person that I can go to, to ask questions about students, whether their visa, medical concerns, housing concerns that they have, tickets, whatever, it’s a lot easier for me as a supervisor*”. Another supervisor added that a volunteer supervisor is needed to “*make sure that all the schedules and plans are going according to plan and everyone is secure and safe.... We have a committee but it’s gonna fall back on the coordinator cos the committee will meet and talk and approve something, but the action will fall on the coordinator*”. This is also recommended as one of the most frequently cited factors that contributes to good practice (Handy and Brudney, 2007; Smith and Cordery, 2010) and as most previous volunteer coordinators reported “*I think it’s really important that they know someone is there for them*”. Many current volunteers similarly reported not knowing who to go to with either volunteer related or personal problems, and as the volunteer cohort consists mostly of young adults, the majority of whom are volunteering internationally for the first time, it seems that the appointment of a coordinator would provide a greater level of organisational and emotional support and could also work more closely with the Volunteer Club in Waterford, which also received a large amount of constructive feedback, to provide greater levels of support for volunteers before travelling to Alaska.

Volunteer satisfaction scores are typically high due to the volitional nature of volunteering (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley, 2001; Pauline, 2010), however Gaskin (2004) reports that younger volunteers are more likely than older volunteers to report dissatisfaction, most likely because younger volunteers fit the “new” classification of volunteerism which involves the expectation of a give and take relationship. Nonetheless there is much research that has identified a relationship between satisfaction and intent to remain (Boezeman et al., 2009; Costa et al., 2006, Clary et al., 1998; Kim et al., 2007; Omoto and Snyder, 1995). In the current study those who reported high levels of satisfaction Organisational Support and Participation Efficacy were significantly more likely not to return to Hope. While those that rated Communication Quality, Organisational Support and Group Integration highly, were significantly more likely to bring Hope’s philosophy with them. All of these findings empower management at Hope by identifying aspects of the programme that are creating dissatisfaction, and in turn providing awareness regarding possible improvements (Stiller et al., 2011) to promote an optimal environment for a reciprocal impact (Fee and Gray, 2011). Also it is important to

point out that, the majority of those who rated certain aspects of satisfaction low, provided detailed feedback and suggestions for improvement, suggesting that these volunteers were impacted enough to take the time to provide such feedback. This is supported by the findings that 100 percent of volunteers expressed that they would recommend the programme. For example there is a high level of training and orientation provided for the volunteers at Hope. This is supported by Costa et al. (2006) who stated that a sense of community is created when volunteers contributed in training by sharing their experiences and perspectives. Many researchers found that integration with volunteers and staff, and also making a difference, had the greatest impact on volunteer's levels of satisfaction (Clary et al, 1998; Costa et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2007; Pascuet et al, 2012).

The results of the current study suggest that Group Integration, Work Assignment and Participation Efficacy have the greatest impact on volunteer satisfaction while Organisational Support received a lot of constructive feedback, mostly related to the actual supports for the volunteers. It seems that the high level of responsibility and the more strategic placement of volunteers in recent years, has allowed many of the volunteers to implement their skills and develop programmes at Hope. For example, the placement of Adapted Physical Activity students in Camp Cara which was noticed by some service users' guardians and staff and also the Discover Health Initiative. The high level of satisfaction with Work Assignment is most likely due to the high level of responsibility many volunteers referred to. For example, one volunteer stated that they liked being "*put in different challenging situations, I have learnt more about how to respond to people in the moment than any book could teach me*". It is also seems possible that a high level of satisfaction with Work Assignment can lead to an increased level of Participation Efficacy, as volunteers can utilise their skills and perceive a greater impact by providing services that the service users would not otherwise have access to. Especially as the Career and Understanding motivations are rated so highly by volunteers and as some researchers found that volunteers who reported that their motives had been met, or that they had received benefits according to their motives, were more likely to be satisfied (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, 2008) and also were more likely to intend to remain in voluntary service both long-term and short-term (Clary et al., 1998)

## 5.5 Objective 5 - Evaluate the Attitudes of Staff and Management towards the Volunteers and the Volunteer Programme

The researcher has already seen that volunteers rated Group Integration highly, both qualitatively and quantitatively. Similarly reports from Hope staff, Management and also the researcher's observations indicated welcoming attitudes towards the volunteers and high levels of Group Integration. It seems that the positive attitudes of staff have developed over the years as they have grown to trust the volunteers, whereas the results show that initially many members of staff were apprehensive. It seems that the volunteer's strong work ethic and high levels of enthusiasm contributed to the development of trust towards the volunteers and in turn facilitated community or group engagement which is in alignment with Putnam's social capital theory and also the emotional contagion concept proposed by other researchers (Hatfield et al., 1993; Bennett et al., 2013). For example one supervisor reported the excitement the volunteers bring as "*contagious, especially when they are in orientation with other new staff*". While a representative quote from a Home Alliance Coordinator (HAC) refers to the attitudes of staff towards the volunteers "*we've been at HAC meetings ... and a lot of people are like, sign me up ... because people are so familiar with the work and how they do in the homes and ... they adapt very well to any situation they've been taken to in any home, from what I've heard from my fellow HACs in different homes... people just adore them*"

The constructive feedback provided by Hope staff and management also echoes volunteer's constructive feedback as it related to organisational support and communication quality. It seems that this is due to organisational changes associated with the shift from having an assigned coordinator to running the programme by a committee and also the growth of the organisation. This is supported by the findings that the majority of volunteers and staff recommended the appointment of a volunteer coordinator to work with the volunteer committee to improve Communication Quality and Organisational Support and create cohesion within the programme. For example, a member of staff stated "*I don't know what happened but when it became centralised ... it's a great programme and if there was more support it would be more successful, not that it's not successful now, but there would be less frustration*". In particular as Van Der Vleuten and Schouteten (2009) found that both staff and volunteer's satisfaction significantly decreased after major organisational change within a social service organisation. The

results show an eagerness on behalf of management to find the ideal management structure for the programme.

### **5.6 Objective 6 - Evaluate the Attitudes of the Volunteers towards Disability and Compare to Hope Staff and Management**

The statistical analysis revealed no statistically significant differences in Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons, Scale O (ATDP-O) scores between the volunteers, either before or after, or between the PV group and Hope staff and management; however, the power of finding such differences was low due to the sample sizes (2.43 to 46.23% according to G\*Power). Hope Management scored higher (Mean =92.7) than all volunteer groups (CV+PV M=90.8), indicating that Hope is in a position to positively influence that attitudes of volunteers towards disability. A surprising finding was that there was a very slight decrease in the ATDP-O scores of the CV group after volunteering, going from 88.3 to 87.9. The volunteer's scores are still well above the norms (females =78.84; males =78.86, Yuker et al, 1970) and it is possible that they already had positive attitudes to disability. This is supported by the Contact Theory which suggests that contact between groups promotes a positive attitude towards what is referred to as the "out-group" (Allport, 1954; Hewstone, 2003), and as such a large proportion of volunteers had experience with people with disabilities, in particular compared to the general population as discussed previously in section 5.1. Not only did the volunteers have experience with people with disabilities, but the majority of those in the CV group were studying or had studied a degree that involved recreation, leisure or health, and many of these programmes involve a disability module. Some researchers have found that students in such programmes have more positive attitudes to disability than students of other programmes (Bedini, 1992; Mohay and Reid, 2006; Perry et al., 2008; Shannon et al., 2009). Another possibility is that those who experience daily interaction with people with disabilities score lower on the ATDP scale, compared to those who had weekly interactions, as was reported by Perry et al (2008). These authors interpreted their finding by suggesting that daily interaction provides an increased level of stressors, responsibility or other factors that could affect participant's attitudes.

While the quantitative findings reveal a lack of clarity regarding the impact of volunteering at Hope on the attitudes of the volunteer's towards disability, it is evident from the qualitative findings that the hands-on experience and the high level of responsibility the volunteers received at Hope provided many of them with increased

levels of confidence for working with people with disabilities, and also a greater level of employability to employers. One volunteer stated “*this experience dramatically increased my knowledge and confidence in working with people with disabilities*”. This concurs with the findings of Mohay and Reid (2006) who report that directors of childcare centres who had children with disabilities attending their centres, had received more disability training than those who had not. This suggests that the volunteers who did not have previous experience or inclusive attitudes to disability are more likely to be more inclusive of people with disabilities after volunteering at Hope. The qualitative results from volunteers from countries where disability services are not as developed as at Hope and in Western Europe, support these findings as the majority of these volunteers made, or plan to make, a great impact on return to their home countries. This will be discussed in greater detail in the following section (5.7).

As was already discussed both quantitative and qualitative results indicate that Hope staff and management have positive attitudes to disability. A small number of volunteers commented on the use of the term “mental retardation” which the researcher also observed is used in service user’s plans of care and on Medicaid documentation. This term seems to be still widely used in the USA. For example, Siperstein (2007) used this term in their study instead of intellectual disability as it was perceived that the participants would be more familiar with this term. However, Rosa’s Law was legislated in 2010, which federally requires the use of the term “intellectual disability” instead of “mental retardation”. Adoption of this language would ensure that the terminology used in documentation is consistent with the attitudes that the researcher observed, already exist among Hope’s management and philosophy, and also the highest international standards, for example the World Health Organisation, the Nations and the DSM-IV.

### **5.7 Objective 7 - Evaluate the Impact on Volunteer’s Careers**

The impact on the volunteers was one of the main objectives of the study and the results showed that volunteering at Hope had greatly impacted the volunteer’s careers, both directly (49.4%) and indirectly (28.9%), and had also impacted during interviews and when considering further education, which was consistent with the findings of other researchers (Cook and Jackson, 2006; Thomas 2001; Lough et al., 2009). One volunteer reported “*the experience I gained at Hope, definitively shaped my current career, as I’m now in similar organisation, and in similar role, to that I worked in with HOPE. I see similarities between the two organisations and how each could learn from each other*”.

60 percent of the participants have either worked or volunteered with people with disabilities since volunteering at Hope which also suggests that Hope either impacted their later career choices or reinforced their desire to work in the field of disability. For example, one volunteer stated *“I was already working with people with disability ... However Hope did give confidence to me, regarding my practice. It assured me that my approach was in line with that the highest standards”*. Nancarrow (2007) also reported benefits similar to the indirect impact reported by many of Hope’s volunteers, stating that working in intermediate care provided workers with a broader understanding of the roles of other professionals and a holistic perspective of the service. These findings propose the likelihood of Hope’s volunteers incorporating a more encompassing and inclusive perspective after volunteering at Hope, regardless of their chosen career path, as was reported by many volunteers. For example *“Health promotion professionals are required to have a universal knowledge and an approach that can target individuals and groups from all backgrounds. This experience dramatically increased my knowledge and confidence in working with people with disabilities.”*

It is very difficult to discern whether it was volunteering at Hope that was solely responsible for the volunteer’s career choices, or whether it was the volunteer’s motivations, especially as the Career and Understanding functions were rated so highly, or whether it was a combination of both factors. The researcher was conscious of this when designing the related questionnaire item, and to increase the validity of participant’s responses, asked participants to *“please describe in as much detail as possible how you think your experience at Hope impacted your career path”*. In light of this, all responses must be accepted as being impacted by volunteering at Hope, which shows a very high impact on volunteer’s career paths. Also, it is very clear from the results, that volunteering at Hope impacts positively at interviews, in particular due to the high level of responsibility volunteers are given at Hope which provides the volunteers with the opportunity to implement their skills. Volunteering in this capacity provides higher order or “soft” skills, including adaptability and the ability to work well with other people and are skills that are sought after by both the public and private sectors (Thomas, 2001). The value of these skills is highlighted by Cook and Jackson (2006), who state that there is a skills gap in these areas. They add that 94 percent of employers either strongly agree or agree that long-term international volunteering enhances these skills, and 48 percent stated that it enhances employability. 39 percent report overseas volunteering as a

“specific developmental tool”. These researchers added that returned volunteers validated the claims of employers by reporting to have gained “soft” skills through international volunteering. The combination of the results and the existing literature, indicate that Hope’s volunteer programme has a strong impact on the careers of the volunteers.

As mentioned briefly in the previous section (5.6), the majority of volunteers that came from ‘developing countries’ were greatly impacted on by Hope’s philosophy. Many reported being very grateful for the opportunity they received at Hope, and the majority were inspired to reciprocate the experience by making an impact on returning to their home countries. As reported in the results section (4.7.4), many of these volunteers had already incorporated their experience by creating group homes, adapting and implementing training for staff and developing support networks for parents of children with Autism in their home countries. It is likely that the gap in service provision between Hope and their home countries and a combination of the motivations of the volunteers, impacted this action. Some volunteers had reported that their experience at Hope had awakened a passion in them that had changed their career path, this was supported by Lough et al. (2009) who found that many international volunteers continued to work for similar causes on return to their home countries. Unfortunately there is a dearth of previous research for comparison as the majority of international volunteer programmes provide services in developing countries.

The researcher felt it is important to add that Hope directors were very clear that when referring to ‘spreading their philosophy’ that they were not referring to what other researchers described as colonial attitudes of dominance and dependency (Pluim and Jorgenson, 2012; Rockliffe, 2006). Rather, they aspire to sharing the philosophy of inclusion and care, merged with the values and norms of the volunteer’s societies. For example, one director stated that “*the idea is to bring volunteers over, give them the experience and then they return to their countries and implement what they have learned in their own way*”. The high level of training and immersion into Hope’s philosophy along with the direct experience could be equated to what McGehee and Santos (2005) describe as conscious raising experiences provided by host organisation which is necessary to promote the positive impacts of international volunteering.



## 5.8 The Personal Impact on the Volunteers

Evaluating the personal impact of volunteering at Hope was not an objective of the current study, however similar to the findings of other researchers many volunteers reported additional benefits that volunteers become aware of once they carry out their voluntary service (Hustinx, 2001; O'Connor, 2011). These benefits were associated with the Understanding, Enhancement, Social Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) functions. Interestingly the latter two functions were some of the lowest rating motivations according to both the qualitative and quantitative results. In particular volunteers reported developing friendships and meaningful relationships, gaining confidence and independence. Some typical examples include the following statements from volunteers, *“you get to work with some amazing people on a daily basis and form life-long friends and relationships with the people you work with”* and *“it showed me I was capable of a lot more than I had thought I was.”* Another volunteer reported *“I would safely say that it really changed my entire philosophy about life ... there are so many things that I was completely oblivious to... this had really given me a ... deeper insight into disability”* another volunteer stated that they *“started to appreciate all the things I took for granted in my life”*. These findings are supported by other studies that reported similar benefits (Lough, 2009; Yashima, 2010 and MacBride et al, 2012). In particular, the participants in the study carried out by Yashima (2010), attributed their personal growth to the uncertainty, fun, excitement and conflicts that arose due to multicultural differences that they experienced while volunteering overseas.

## 5.9 Objective 8 - Outline the Programmes and Initiatives Volunteers have Created at Hope

The list of programmes and initiatives in the introduction chapter (section 1.3), combined with the impact on volunteer's careers, and also the high return rate all highlight the reciprocal benefit that has emerged over the years. These impacts benefit both the provision of services at Hope and the volunteers themselves as discussed in the previous sections (5.7; 5.8). This reciprocal benefit was referred to by some members of Hope management as the ideal scenario and is supported by Plum and Jorgenson (2012), who state that the balance associated with reciprocity avoids inferiority-superiority relations associated with colonialism and which are often inculcated by international volunteerism. The results indicate that this impact occurred due to a combination of factors associated with the Career motivations and eagerness of the volunteers to utilise their skills and to make a difference, and also the conditions that Hope staff provide which has created an

environment that offers satisfaction with Group Integration, Work Assignment and Participation Efficacy. These conditions include welcoming attitudes of staff and an openness and willingness to trust the volunteers to utilise their skills and knowledge. For example one volunteer stated *“I had good people that trusted in me to do it and they basically saw our degrees in rec management and nobody else at Hope had that degree... they knew the business side of it, how to make it profitable, how to make it coordinate ... we were given the time and the opportunity to set up an actual rec programme ... ya so we got given a lot of free will”*

## **5.10 Objective 9 – Evaluate the Impact of the Programme on the Workforce**

As well as discussing the impact of the programme on the workforce according to objective nine of the study, this section also discusses the impact of the short-term nature of the study which was also identified within the qualitative data.

### **5.10.1 The Impact on the Workforce**

At this stage of the study the impact of the programme on the workforce at Hope has been discussed in various capacities, including the ‘emotional contagion’ associated with the volunteer’s enthusiasm and freshly gained skills, and also the positive attitudes of Hope staff towards the volunteers. To reinforce these findings another quote from a supervisor is included, stating *“I’m always really proud when I’m talking to the new hires to say like this is the kind of agency we are, we’re not just Hope of Alaska, we are working with people from all over the world to make the world a better place, to teach people, to learn from them and to be able to look at this community as a broader aspect... we all are working together.”* This quote also emphasizes the reciprocity of the programme as it refers to the sharing of knowledge and skills that occurs between the volunteers and Hope staff.

One of the purposes of the volunteer programme is to supplement the workforce at Hope. In particular in the initial days of the programme, volunteers served in group homes, allowing HACs to take holiday leave. Some members of staff and management suggested that the volunteers help alleviate or counteract the high staff-turnover rate that is prevalent in direct support service provision. While the annual turnover rate at Hope in 2013 (31%) is lower than the National average (38%, ANCOR, 2009), this high turnover rate can produce staff shortages and a reduced quality of care due to increase pressure and over-burdening of existing staff (Seavey, 2004). These findings suggest that the volunteer

programme has positively impacted the workforce at Hope by alleviating the pressure associated with high turnover rates, while also invigorating the workforce with enthusiasm and energy.

The review of the literature highlights the frequent exploitation of student volunteers (Ellis and Jackson, 2013; Gerada, 2013) and it could be suggested that the utilisation of volunteers to supplement the workforce at Hope has the potential to exploit the volunteers however, a number of factors already reported throughout the results and discussion strongly suggest that such exploitation is not evident. These include the high level of satisfaction on behalf of the volunteers; the broad and frequent range of benefits reported by the volunteers; the communication of Hope's expectations of the volunteers before their travel to Alaska, provided in the volunteer manual; the high level of reported integration into the workforce; and also the provision of a stipend for living expenses, accommodation and flight reimbursement.

#### **5.10.2 The Short-term Nature of the Programme**

It seems that the general consensus is that Hope staff and management are very satisfied with the volunteer programme and that over time the short-term nature of the programme is having less of a negative impact, in particular since volunteers are returning more and are also requesting visa extensions. A quote from a supervisor summarises the initial apprehensions stating that *“It’s interesting here now 2 and a half years later, thinking back to my initial concerns about staffing with volunteers like we do, but at this point in time I couldn’t imagine doing it any other way”*. It seems that the only possible negative impact associated with the short-term nature of the programme on the workforce is associated with the short turnover and training. However, these issues do not seem to be prominent at Hope as they could be in other types of service, due to the substantially high turnover rates in direct support service provision. As was reported in the results chapter (4.8.3) some members of staff even acknowledge that the short-term nature of the volunteer programme maintains a high level of energy and helps alleviate emotional burnout which is often associated with staff turnover. One such quote reports *“I also think there is something to be said for being short-term. I don’t think we have the burnout that we would have if we had staff that were here forever”*

In reference to the training, when HACs and supervisors were asked directly about this, all of them reported that it was worth the effort. And again, some referred to the high

turnover rate and stated that knowing when volunteers are leaving in advance is more manageable. It seems that efficient coordination and management of the volunteer programme can help overcome or alleviate any of the issues which is supported by other researchers (Handy and Brudney, 2007; MacDuff, 2008). In particular, MacDuff (2008) refers to the combination of short-term and long-term volunteers stating that the former encourages others to volunteer and add “nourishment” to the programme with new opinions and ideas, while the latter provide programme stability. Another counteraction to any possible negative impacts could be the possibility of consciously integrating the volunteer’s skills into the workforce by training direct support staff and other international volunteers, as ‘paraeducators’ or peer tutors (Lieberman, 2007). This possibility was even suggested by some members of staff, and would facilitate the transference of the volunteer’s skills even further. The researcher discovered that volunteers studying adapted physical activity have experience in paraeducation, and in particular as a direct support professional stated *“hearing what I hear and seeing what I’ve seen about the volunteers being able to adapt the activities I could benefit so much from that ... it’s kind of a waste to not have some kind of training programme or collaboration”*

### **5.11 Economic Value of the Programme**

The researcher did not evaluate the economic impact of the volunteer programme however as mentioned in the results, some members of staff and management referred to this aspect of the programme. Handy and Mook (2011) recommend a cost-benefit analysis, including both monetary and non-monetary aspects, before allocating a budget for a volunteer programme, especially as the results of the current study show that the impact of the volunteer programme on Hope is so great. The International Labor Organisation (2011) also recommends the need for measuring the economic value of volunteering, which includes utilising the “replacement cost approach”, by calculating the economic cost of hiring someone to carry out the roles the volunteers carry out. In the case of Hope’s volunteers, this would mean considering the skills that many of the volunteers exercise and also balancing this with the stipend and flight reimbursement expenditure. One supervisor highlights the complexity of evaluating the costs and benefits of the programme, would be very difficult as often the volunteers are assigned to roles that would cost a lot more to send a direct support professional. For example, a volunteer who was sent on an overnight fishing trip to support a service user, and who

was excited about the experience, while if a direct support professional was sent it would have cost numerous hours of pay.

## **5.12 Objective 10 - Evaluate the Impact of the Programme on Hope's Service Users**

This section of the chapter discusses the impact of the programme on Hope's service users in alignment with objective ten. Additionally, the impact of the short-term nature of the programme on the service users is discussed.

### **5.12.1 The Impact of the Programme on Hope's Service Users**

The results show that the volunteers impact Hope's service users in particular by creating meaningful relationships and also by developing and providing physical activity and recreation programmes that provide an array of widely acknowledged health benefits. The social impact of the programme on Hope's service users was frequently reported. It seems that the volunteers placed in the group homes create meaningful relationships with the service users, while it seems that the volunteers at the Discovery Centre and at Camp Cara facilitate the development of friendships between services users by providing programmes that naturally facilitate interaction between the service users. This is supported by the results that show that a larger proportion of these volunteers in group homes remain in contact with the service users compared to those who volunteered in recreation roles (79% and 51%). These social relationships are valuable as researchers have reported that people with intellectual and mental disabilities often find it difficult to create relationships due to a range of barriers, including societal attitudes and limited opportunities (McCorkle et al., 2009; Mirfin-Veitch, 2003). The impact is magnified due to the energetic and enthusiastic attitudes of the volunteers when considering the findings of some researchers who stated that the well-being of staff impacts their quality of life and also the quality of life of the service users (Bennett et al., 2006; Devereux et al., 2009).

The provision of recreation and physical activity services is even more valuable to Hope's service users as physical activity levels are typically lower among people with disabilities (WHO, 2004). The Centres for Disease Control and Prevention (2005) report that only 53.3 percent of people with disabilities are physically active in Alaska and 16.7 percent are inactive, compared to and 57.9 and 10.2 percent of people without disabilities,

respectively. As mentioned in the results chapter (4.8.3) people with disabilities experience additional barriers to physical activity, including physical access, attitudinal and social barriers adding that physical activity can alleviate symptoms and prevent the development of secondary conditions like obesity, cardiovascular conditions and kidney failure (Hannon, 2005, Fentem, 1996). These findings highlight the benefits that are available to the service users that avail of the Discovery Centre services, which is primarily staffed by international volunteers. Provision of these services provides Hope's service users with the opportunity to choose healthy and inclusive activities.

### **5.12.2 The Short-term Nature of the Programme**

Overall, the short-term nature of the programme seems to have more advantages than disadvantages, partly due to the volunteer's enthusiasm and also the high percentage of volunteers that maintain contact with the service users of their own volition, or as one parent reported "*the volunteers coming and going is not an issue for him? No because of everybody being around, not just one person going out with him*". It also seems that many staff members utilise this aspect of the programme as an opportunity to teach the service users how to deal with the life changes, especially as there is a high turnover rate in the field of direct support service provision. For example a HAC reported "*[service users] have had so many staff come and go so I think that they were used to it ... when I have the students I know they want to be here. Sometimes we don't always have staff that really want to be here, it's just a job for them, don't get me wrong, I've had a lot of wonderful people but there's a difference and you can tell.*" A member of the behavioural therapy team added that the short-term scenario is ideal for the generalisation of learning skills, which involve practicing skills across a range of environments. So it seems that conscious utilisation of the volunteers as a resource provides the greatest benefits and alleviates any negative impacts, for example a HAC stated that the volunteer works at their home because "*everybody's independent and we have a routine going, I integrate the volunteers to the routine... It is short but we enjoy the time while it lasts*". These results again indicate the value of volunteer management and coordination as part of a team of collaboration with other roles at Hope, for example care coordination teams, behaviour therapists, and HACs, regarding volunteer's placements and also combining short-term volunteers with long term volunteers or staff as recommended by MacDuff (2008).

### **5.13 The Impact on the Wider Community**

Evaluation of the impact on the wider community was not an objective of the study, however the results showed the potential for impacting the provision of inclusive recreation and physical activities at the level of the wider community of Anchorage. Other researchers found that careful management of volunteers can impact local communities (Coghlan and Fennell, 2009; Siperstein et al. 2006), for example at Camp Shriver many of the camps aspired to recruiting ‘partners’ from the same schools as the campers to enhance the possibility of the campers, continuing the relationships they have created. As mentioned in the results section (4.9.1) a previous volunteer in a high impact position in Ireland has offered to train future volunteers in Disability Inclusion Training with the intention of providing this training for sports and physical activity clubs in Anchorage. This would involve recruitment and placement of a greater number of volunteers with a background in Adapted Physical Activity, or peer tutoring or paraeducation between these volunteers and other staff and volunteers as the researcher observed that volunteers with these skills were placed in Camp Cara for ten weeks of the summer, leaving the recreation centre short of adapted recreation skills.

### **5.15 Summary**

As the discussion chapters shows, the aims and objectives of the study were addressed providing management at Hope with a profile of their international volunteers. The study also identified the impact of the programme on the workforce and service users at Hope and the impact of the programme on the volunteer’s careers and attitudes to disability. Additionally, the research also identified impacts that were outside the scope of the study, including the impact on the wider community and the economic impact of the programme. Overall the findings indicate that the programme has a positive impact on all parties involved, albeit with room for improvement in the areas of communication and organisational support. The following chapter outlines recommendations that are guided by a combination of the literature and the results of the study, and aim support the optimal functioning of the programme.

## **Recommendations**



## 6.0 Recommendations

Chapters four and five have reported and discussed the results and have identified a high level of positive feedback from both volunteers and Hope staff, supervisors and management however, these chapters also identified aspects of the programme that received much constructive feedback that when addressed are likely to improve the programme even further. For example, communication quality and organisational support were two dimensions that received a large amount of constructive reports from both management and volunteers and could be solved by a higher level of organisation that could be provided by a volunteer coordinator. This chapter provides a list of recommendations that aim to provide management at Hope with solutions that address the issues that have been identified, and which are in alignment with the literature that was reviewed in chapter two. The majority of these recommendations could be achieved with the appointment of a volunteer coordinator who would consciously oversee the management of the programme. The researcher acknowledges that many of these recommendations will require additional resources, with financial implications, however the results indicate that the impact of the programme provides sufficient benefits to the service users to justify such expenditure.

### 6.1 Recruitment

- Utilise the volunteer's motivations when designing recruitment literature being careful to promote the reciprocal benefits to avoid inferiority-superiority attitudes, yet still focusing more on the impact on the recipients than the volunteers themselves. This can be done by promoting the Values, Understanding, Adventure, Career benefits.
- Utilise the internet and social media for the recruitment of volunteers. For example, Facebook, Twitter, Linked In, Hope's website, (Gage and Thapa, 2012; Gaskin, 2003)
- To optimally utilise the Discovery Centre facilities and also to introduce para-education or peer tutoring the scope of recruitment could be extended to include other college and Universities that provide Adapted Physical Activity programmes. For example:

- Adapted Physical Activity, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada.
- Adapted Physical Activity, University of Queensland in Australia. This could increase the pool of available volunteers during the winter months as these students would be on summer holidays.
- Erasmus Mundus Master in Adapted Physical Activity, Catholic University of Leuven (EMMAPA);
- European University Diploma in Adapted Physical Activity, Haaga-Helia University of Applied Sciences, Finland (EUDAPA);
- Master of Science in Adapted Physical Activity Leadership, Institute of Technology, Tralee, Ireland
- Improve communication between Hope and the Volunteer Club and recruit according to the agency's needs, considering the "desirable qualities" outlined by Hope staff:
  - Flexibility and adaptability (role and location)
  - Experience with people with disabilities, in particular Autism,
  - Driver's license, with a minimum of 3 years driving experience,
  - A willingness to form relationships;
  - A desire to make an impact when they return home (career aspirations)
- Online training before departure, including online scoring

## 6.2 Volunteer Club

- Improvements to the level of support and communication provided by the Volunteer Club. For example, prompt responses to emails; creating an automatic response to emails indicating to volunteers that their emails have been received.
- Provide a report similar to annual report that Hope publicly makes available online detailing the sources of funding and the expenditures of the organisation. To

facilitate transparency in particular in light of recent scandals in Ireland related to not-for-profit and charitable organisations and salary top-ups scandals

- Improve the services provided to volunteers that would be associated with club membership and also to reflect the fee of €150 that volunteers are required to pay. For example:
  - Provide all volunteers with a welcome package including the necessary paperwork and a updated copy of the volunteer manual clearly outlining expectations
  - Provide training and induction (possibly online) to develop cultural awareness and health and safety training specific to Alaska
  - Create and maintain an online network, linking new recruits with previous volunteers. For example, a closed Facebook group.
- Create an online newsletter and publish feedback and case studies from previous volunteers to inform and attract future volunteers (King, 2007)
- Create a reunion for previous volunteers possibly every five years and use this as an opportunity to network and evaluate the impact of the programme on the volunteer's careers
- Maintain records of all previous volunteers

### 6.3 At Hope

- Create a volunteer coordinator/manager role to liaise with the volunteer committee to facilitate multidimensional collaboration throughout Hope, and to provide:
  - Organisational and emotional support to volunteers
  - Monitoring and evaluation to provide feedback and facilitate reciprocal learning
  - Organisational support to supervisors

- Conscious management of the ‘generalisation process’ in collaboration with the behaviour therapists at Hope to minimise any possible negative impacts on the service users due to the short-term nature of the programme
- Create a volunteer policy that provides role clarity for volunteers to pre-empt any issues associated with job substitution
- Introduce ‘para-education’ or peer tutoring to consciously integrate the volunteer’s skills into the workforce (Lieberman, 2007)
- Train the Adapted Physical Activity students from the Institute of Technology students in Disability Inclusion Training which is provided by the CARA centre for APA to improve the accessibility of physical activity opportunities throughout Anchorage and Alaska via school programmes and sport and leisure organisations
- Attain alignment with Rosa’s Law (2010) by shifting towards use of the term “intellectual disability” instead of “mental retardation” in documentation
- Begin the shift towards utilisation of the International Classification of Functioning, Health and Disability model of disability (ICF, WHO, 2002) to allow for internationally comparable information regarding the experience of health and disability. In particular if management at Hope desire to be more actively involved in research and/or disability advocacy on an international level

#### **6.4 Further study**

Evaluate the impact of the volunteer programme and their skills on the service users in greater detail, for example evaluating the physical activity levels of service users that avail of services provided by the volunteers compared to those not availing of such services

Longitudinally evaluate the impact of participation in the volunteer programme on the volunteer’s attitudes towards disability. Considering the possibility that direct experience with people possibly utilising a multidimensional scale for example the Multidimensional Attitudes Scale Toward Persons with Disabilities (MAS; Findler et al, 2007).

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# Appendices

## 8.0 Appendices

### A. Previous Volunteer Questionnaire (PV group)

#### Section 1 Demographic & Background Information

*As I mentioned this survey is aimed to support Hope Community Resources improve and expand their International Volunteer Programme so that they can support people with disabilities in countries where the standard of disabilities services is low. Your input and honesty is really valuable and is much appreciated.*

*The entire questionnaire should take about 15-20 minutes.*

*This first page asks for your background information so that we can get a clear picture of the volunteers that have come through the programme.*

*Thanks again for your support*

#### 1. Which sex are you?

- male  
 female

#### 2. Which age category do you fall into

<18            18-21            22-25            26-30            31-35            >35

#### 3. Which year(s) did you volunteer at Hope Community Resources?

#### 4. How many times did you volunteer at Hope Community Resources?

- 1  
 2  
 3  
 4  
 >4

#### 5. How long did your volunteer experience(s) last? (more than one experience, example 3 months and 6 months)



**6. What was the name(s) of the volunteer coordinator/point person?**

**7. Did you volunteer at Hope Community Resources as part of a college/University placement programme?**

- yes
- no

**8. Did you study any of the following programmes before or during your volunteer experience at Hope Community Resources?**

- Health and Leisure at IT Tralee
- Sports and Coaching Performance at Waterford IT
- Exercise and Health Studies at Waterford IT
- Health Promotion at Waterford IT
- Recreation and Sports Management at Waterford IT
- Recreation and Leisure at Sligo IT
- Social Care Practice at Sligo IT
- Social Care at University of Graz, Austria

**9. Did you complete any 'disability' modules in your college course?**

- yes
- no

**10. Did you work or volunteer with people who experience disabilities before volunteering at Hope?**

- yes
- no

If yes, please elaborate

**11. Did you volunteer for any other organisation before volunteering at Hope?**

- yes
- no

if yes, please list the organisation

**12. How did you hear about the International Volunteer Programme?**

- your college/University
- a former volunteer
- Hope Community Resource's website
- a member of Hope Community Resource's staff
- a friend/colleague
- Other (please specify)

**13. Why did you chose to volunteer at Hope? what was the attraction?**

**14. What was your role(s) at Hope Community Resources?**

- direct support in group home
- direct support in natural home
- Discovery Centre staff
- Camp Cara leader
- other recreation programme
- maintenance

Other (please specify)

**15. Where in Alaska were you based for the majority of your volunteer experience?**

- Anchorage
- Kodiak
- Juneau
- Kenai/Soldotna

Other (please specify)

**16. Did you live in dormitory housing?**

- yes
- no

**17. Please rate your satisfaction with the living conditions (1 not at all satisfied and 7 very satisfied)**

**18. Please rate how much you saw your position at Hope as voluntary action? (1 not at all, 7 completely)**

**19. Did you freely chose to volunteer at Hope Community Resources?**

- yes
- no

**20. Please rate how much the stipend for living expenses and flight reimbursement affected your choice to volunteer at Hope Community Resources? (1 not at all, 7 completely)**

**21. If there was no stipend and flight reimbursement, would it have been possible for you to volunteer at Hope Community Resources?**

- yes
- no
- don't know

**22. Please describe in as much detail as possible how you think your experience at Hope impacted your career path**

**(if you are a recent volunteer please consider your future career, eg do you intend to continue to work with people with disabilities? do you intend to incorporate Hope's philosophy and BVMVE into your work ethic and how? do you have goals or aspirations that your experience at Hope had influenced?)**

**23. Have you worked or volunteered with or for people with disabilities since volunteering at Hope?**

- yes
- no

if yes, please name the organisation, your role and any other relevant information

**24. please rate your satisfaction with the Waterford Volunteer Club**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain

- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied
- 8. I was not a member of a volunteer club

please comment briefly on your answer

**25. Would you recommend Hope's volunteer programme?**

- yes
- no

**26. Please describe briefly what you liked best about Hope's volunteer programme?**

**27. Please describe improvements could be made with Hope's volunteer programme?**

**28. Please list or describe any programmes or initiatives you created at Hope**

**29. After you left Alaska did you ever keep in touch with any "individuals" receiving Hope services eg Christmas or birthday cards, texts, phonecalls, facebook etc**

- yes
- no

**30. Hope Community Resources has 10 values which are the foundation of Hope's mission, please list as many of these values as you can remember**

**31. Have you brought Hope's values or philosophy to any other organisation or programme?**

- yes
- no

**32. Is there anything you would like to add?**

## Section 2 Attitudes to Disability

*This page will help me gauge the attitudes of all volunteers toward disability, some of the questions in this piece are a bit sticky so please bear with me and give the first answer that comes to heart.*

### **33. What particular sorts of illnesses, conditions or disabilities do you think the term "people with disabilities" refers to**

- a. physical disability
- b. hearing loss
- c. vision difficulties
- d. speech difficulties
- e. intellectual disabilities (for example Down Syndrome, cognitive impairment)
- f. mental health difficulty (mental illness - depression, schizophrenia, anorexia)
- g. long-term illness (for example diabetes, epilepsy)
- h. HIV/AIDS
- i. addiction
- j. alcoholism
- k. frailty in old age
- Other (please specify)

### **34. Do you have any of the following long-lasting conditions?**

- a. blindness
- b. deafness or a severe hearing impairment
- c. a condition that substantially limits one or more basic physical activities such as walking, climbing stairs, reaching, lifting or carrying
- d. an intellectual disability
- e. a psychological or emotional condition
- f. chronic illness
- g. other, specify below
- h. none of the above

- i. don't know
- Other (please specify)

**35. Do you know anyone who has a disability?**

- a. spouse
- b. member of immediate family
- c. other relative
- d. friend
- e. neighbour
- f. acquaintance
- g. colleague/work contact
- h. other
- i. not sure
- j. no

**36. What type(s) of disability does the person (people) you know have?**

- a. blindness
- b. deafness or a severe hearing impairment
- c. a condition that substantially limits one or more basic physical activities such as walking, climbing stairs, reaching, lifting or carrying
- d. an intellectual disability
- e. a psychological or emotional condition
- f. chronic illness
- Other (please specify)

**37. Please rate the following statements/questions according by indicating how strongly you agree or disagree with each**

Parents of people with disabilities should be less strict than other parents

- 1. I disagree very much

2. I disagree pretty much
3. I disagree a little
4. I agree a little
5. I agree pretty much
6. I agree very much

**38. People with physical disability are just as intelligent as non-disabled people**

1. I disagree very much
2. I disagree pretty much
3. I disagree a little
4. I agree a little
5. I agree pretty much
6. I agree very much

**39. People with disabilities are usually easier to get along with than other children**

1. I disagree very much
2. I disagree pretty much
3. I disagree a little
4. I agree a little
5. I agree pretty much
6. I agree very much

**40. Most people with disabilities feel sorry for themselves**

1. I disagree very much
2. I disagree pretty much
3. I disagree a little

4. I agree a little
5. I agree pretty much
6. I agree very much

**41. People with disabilities are the same as everyone else**

1. I disagree very much
2. I disagree pretty much
3. I disagree a little
4. I agree a little
5. I agree pretty much
6. I agree very much

**42. There should be special schools for people with disabilities**

1. I disagree very much
2. I disagree pretty much
3. I disagree a little
4. I agree a little
5. I agree pretty much
6. I agree very much

**43. It would be best for people with disabilities to live and play in special communities**

1. I disagree very much
2. I disagree pretty much
3. I disagree a little
4. I agree a little
5. I agree pretty much



6. I agree very much

**44. It is up to the government to take care of people with disabilities**

1. I disagree very much

2. I disagree pretty much

3. I disagree a little

4. I agree a little

5. I agree pretty much

6. I agree very much

**45. Most people with disabilities worry a great deal**

1. I disagree very much

2. I disagree pretty much

3. I disagree a little

4. I agree a little

5. I agree pretty much

6. I agree very much

**46. People with disabilities should not be expected to meet the same standards as non-disabled people**

1. I disagree very much

2. I disagree pretty much

3. I disagree a little

4. I agree a little

5. I agree pretty much

6. I agree very much

**47. People with disabilities are as happy as non-disabled people**

1. I disagree very much

2. I disagree pretty much

3. I disagree a little
4. I agree a little
5. I agree pretty much
6. I agree very much

**48. Severely disabled people are not harder to get along with than those with minor disabilities**

1. I disagree very much
2. I disagree pretty much
3. I disagree a little
4. I agree a little
5. I agree pretty much
6. I agree very much

**49. It is almost impossible for disabled people to lead a normal life**

1. I disagree very much
2. I disagree pretty much
3. I disagree a little
4. I agree a little
5. I agree pretty much
6. I agree very much

**50. You should not expect too much from people with disabilities**

1. I disagree very much
2. I disagree pretty much
3. I disagree a little
4. I agree a little
5. I agree pretty much
6. I agree very much

**51. People with disabilities tend to keep to themselves much of the time**

1. I disagree very much
2. I disagree pretty much
3. I disagree a little
4. I agree a little
5. I agree pretty much
6. I agree very much

**52. People with disabilities are more easily upset than non-disabled people**

1. I disagree very much
2. I disagree pretty much
3. I disagree a little
4. I agree a little
5. I agree pretty much
6. I agree very much

**53. People with disabilities cannot have a normal social life**

1. I disagree very much
2. I disagree pretty much
3. I disagree a little
4. I agree a little
5. I agree pretty much
6. I agree very much

**54. Most people with disabilities feel they are not as good as other people**

1. I disagree very much
2. I disagree pretty much
3. I disagree a little
4. I agree a little

5. I agree pretty much

6. I agree very much

**55. You have to be careful what you say when you are with people who have a disability**

1. I disagree very much

2. I disagree pretty much

3. I disagree a little

4. I agree a little

5. I agree pretty much

6. I agree very much

**56. People with disabilities are often grouchy**

1. I disagree very much

2. I disagree pretty much

3. I disagree a little

4. I agree a little

5. I agree pretty much

6. I agree very much

**Section 3 Volunteer Satisfaction Index, Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001)**

This section of the survey allows for the analysis of your satisfaction with the volunteer programme. This piece is very important as it will help identify aspects of the programme that are working well and aspects that could do with improvement.

Please indicate your level of satisfaction with the following statements.

**57. My relationship with other volunteers in the programme**

1. very dissatisfied

2. fairly dissatisfied

3. a little dissatisfied

4. uncertain

5. a little satisfied

- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**58. The friends I have made while volunteering**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**59. The way in which other members of the organisation relate(d) to me**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**60. My ability to effectively help**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**61. The chance to receive additional skill training for this/the volunteer opportunity**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**62. The amount of educational resources available to me**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**63. How appreciative the clientele are/were of our help**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**64. The amount of interaction I have/had with other volunteers**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain

- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**65. Relationship with the paid staff**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**66. The influence my participation is having/had in the lives of the service users**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**67. My ability to do this job as well as anyone else**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**68. How worthwhile my contribution is/was**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**69. The progress that I have seen in the programme success**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**70. The level of challenge this volunteer job provides/d me**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**71. The realism of the picture I was given of what my volunteer experience would be like**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied



- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**72. The support network that is in place when I have/had volunteer related problems**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**73. The difference that my volunteer work is making**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**74. The availability of getting help when I need(ed) it**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied

- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**75. The accuracy of the information I was given concerning my volunteer job**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**76. The fit of the volunteer work to my skills**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**77. The convenience of this job to my scheule**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**78. The amount of effort I put in equalling the amount of change I influence(d)**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**79. The support I receive(d) from people in the organisation**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**80. The flexibility I am/was given to fit my volunteer work into my life**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**81. The freedom I have/had in deciding how to carry out my volunteer duties**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain

- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**82. The chance I have/had to utilise my knowledge and skills**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**83. The degree to which I feel/felt I belong(ed) in the organisation**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**84. The amount of time I spent with other volunteers**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**85. The training I have/had received**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**86. How interesting my volunteer work is/was**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**87. The resources I have been/was given to do my job**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**88. The amount of permission I need(ed) to do things**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied

- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**89. The opportunities I have/had to learn new things**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**90. The flow of communication coming/that came to me from paid staff and board members**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

**91. The access to information I have/had concerning the programme**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied

7. very satisfied

**92. The amount of information I receive(d) about what the organisation is/was doing**

1. very dissatisfied
2. fairly dissatisfied
3. a little dissatisfied
4. uncertain
5. a little satisfied
6. fairly satisfied
7. very satisfied

**93. The way in which the organisation provides/d me with performance feedback**

1. very dissatisfied
2. fairly dissatisfied
3. a little dissatisfied
4. uncertain
5. a little satisfied
6. fairly satisfied
7. very satisfied

**94. The degree in which the organisation communicates/d it's goals and objectives to the volunteers**

1. very dissatisfied
2. fairly dissatisfied
3. a little dissatisfied
4. uncertain
5. a little satisfied
6. fairly satisfied
7. very satisfied

**95. How often the organisation acknowledges the work I do/did**

- 1. very dissatisfied
- 2. fairly dissatisfied
- 3. a little dissatisfied
- 4. uncertain
- 5. a little satisfied
- 6. fairly satisfied
- 7. very satisfied

#### Section 4 Volunteer Function Inventory - Omoto and Snyder, 1995

*This final piece of the questionnaire will allow us to identify the motives of volunteers. Please know that there is no wrong or right motive, what is important for the volunteer programme is to get a better insight into the reasons volunteers participate in the programme and to ensure that the programme is in alignment with these motives.*

Please indicate how important or accurate each possible reason is for you in deciding to perform volunteer work, using the following response scale

#### **96. No matter how bad I've been feeling volunteering helps me to forget about it**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

#### **97. By volunteering I feel less lonely**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate



7 extremely important/accurate

**98. Doing volunteer work relieves me of some guilt over being more fortunate than others**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**99. Volunteering helps me work through some of my personal problems**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**100. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**101. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself**

- 1 not at all important/accurate

- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**102. I am genuinely concerned about the group I am serving**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**103. I feel compassion toward people in need**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**104. I feel it is important to help others**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate

- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**105. I can do something for a cause that is important to me**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**106. Volunteering can help me get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**107. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**108. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**109. Volunteering will help me succeed in my chosen profession**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**110. Volunteering experience will look good on my resume**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**111. My friends volunteer**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain

- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**112. People I'm close to want me to volunteer**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**113. People I know share an interest in community service**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**114. Others with whom I am close, place a high value on community service**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**115. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**116. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**117. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**118. Volunteering allows me to learn the things through direct, hands on experience**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy

- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**119. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**120. I can explore my own strengths**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**121. Volunteering makes me feel important**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**122. Volunteering increases my self-esteem**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**123. Volunteering makes me feel needed**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**124. Volunteering makes me feel better about myself**

- 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy
- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

**125. Volunteering is a way to make new friends**

- Volunteering is a way to make new friends 1 not at all important/accurate
- 2 very little importance/accuracy



- 3 little importance/accuracy
- 4 uncertain
- 5 somewhat important/accurate
- 6 important/accurate
- 7 extremely important/accurate

## B. Consent Forms



**Title of Research:**

An Evaluation of the Impact of the Irish Volunteer within Hope Community Resources and also the Impact of the Volunteer Placement on the Volunteers Themselves and their Subsequent Places of Work

**Name of Researcher:** Aisling Sugrue

**Contact:** [REDACTED]

*Dear Parent/ Personal Representative,*

Under the Supervision of Mr. Pat Flanagan of the Health and Leisure Department in the IT Tralee, Ireland, and Dr. Sean Connor of the Department of Health Sciences, Health Sport And Exercise Science at Waterford Institute of Technology, Ireland, Aisling Sugrue, a Masters Research student is conducting research on the impact of Hope Community Resource's International Volunteer programme. This project will support the directors at Hope to assess whether the International Volunteer Programme supports the organisation's beliefs and mission to awaken the dreams of their services users by providing relevant services and supports resulting in choice, control, family preservation and community inclusion.

The Relevant Portion of this Study Involves:

**Individuals** being interviewed on a one to one basis, with supervision, and being asked a variety of questions related to their experiences with the International Volunteers at Camp Care and the Discovery Center. Example Question: what is/was the best/worst thing about Camp Cara/Discovery Center/your time with the Irish Volunteers?

**Parents/Personal Representatives** completing a questionnaire and maybe participating in a group interview to help the researcher assess the impact of the Volunteer Programme on their child/individual in their care. Example Question: please share any changes you have noticed in your child/the individual in your care during and after their experience with the international volunteers at Camp Cara and/or the Discovery Centre.

Please read the following statements and tick the boxes:

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the subject information and participation requirements for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions which have been fully answered.

- 2. I understand that my participation and the participation of my child/the individual in my care is voluntary and we are free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without any medical care or legal rights being affected.
- 3. I understand that there is no compensation for participation in the study.
- 4. I understand that all information gathered with remain confidential and anonymous. All information will be stored in a password protected computer and in a locked filing system where only the researcher has access.
- 5. I give permission for this interview to be recorded
- 6. I consent to allow ..... to participate in this study provided (s)he agrees.
- 7. I agree to participate in this study

If you have any further questions or queries about participating in this research please do not hesitate to contact me, Aisling Sugrue at [REDACTED] Or Roy Scheller, Deputy Executive Director at Hope Community Resources [REDACTED]

Name of Participant: Signature: Date:  
 .....  
 .....

Name of Parent/Personal Representative: Signature: Date:  
 .....  
 .....

Name of Investigator: Signature: Date:  
 .....  
 .....

**C. Semi-structured Interview Schedule for Staff and Management  
including Consent and Attitudes toward Disabled Persons - Scale 0  
(Yuker and Block, 1970)**



**Project Title**

An Evaluation of the Impact of the Irish Volunteer Within Hope Community Resources and  
also the Impact of the Volunteer Placement on the Volunteers Themselves and their  
Subsequent Places of Work

*Dear Participant,*

Under the Supervision of Mr. Pat Flanagan of the Health and Leisure Department in the IT Tralee, Ireland, and Dr. Sean Connor of the Department of Health Sciences, Health Sport And Exercise Science at Waterford Institute of Technology, Ireland, I am conducting research on the impact of Hope Community Resource's International Volunteer programme. The aim of the project is to assess the impact of the International Volunteer Programme and it will support the directors at Hope to assess whether the International Volunteer Programme supports the organisation's beliefs and mission to awaken the dreams of their services users by providing relevant services and supports resulting in choice, control, family preservation and community inclusion.

The Relevant Portion of this Study Involves:

Completing a short questionnaire and participating in an interview, all of which will take no longer than one hour. With your permission, the interview will be audio recorded to facilitate collection of information. Example question: what is your perception of the impact of the International Volunteer Programme?

Please read the following statements and tick the boxes:

8. I confirm that I have read and understand the subject information and participation requirements for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions which have been fully answered.

9. I understand that my participation is voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without any medical care or legal rights being affected.

10. I understand that there is no compensation for participation in the study.

11. I understand that all information gathered will remain confidential and anonymous. All information will be stored in a password protected computer and in a locked filing system where only the researcher has access.

12. I give permission for this interview to be audio recorded

13. I agree to participate in this study

If you have any further questions or queries about participating in this research please do not hesitate to contact me, Aisling Sugrue at [REDACTED] or by email at [REDACTED]. You can also contact Hope's Deputy Executive Director, Dr. **Roy Scheller** by email [REDACTED].

Name of Participant:

Signature:

Date:

.....

.....

Name of Researcher:

Signature:

Date:

.....

.....

For multiple choice questions please type an **X** beside your answer

### Attitudes to Disability

#### A. National Disability Authority – Public Attitudes to Disability in Ireland

1. What particular sorts of illnesses, conditions or disabilities do you think the term 'people with disabilities' refers to

- a. Physical disability
- b. Hearing loss
- c. Vision difficulties
- d. Speech difficulties
- e. Intellectual disability (for example Down Syndrome, cognitive impairment)
- f. Mental health difficulty (mental illness – depression, schizophrenia, anorexia)
- g. Long-term illness (for example diabetes, epilepsy)
- h. HIV/AIDS
- i. Addiction
- j. Alcoholism
- k. Frailty in old age
- l. Other, specify \_\_\_\_\_

2. Do you have any of the following long lasting conditions?

- a. Blindness
- b. Deafness or a severe hearing impairment
- c. A condition that substantially limits one or more basic physically activities such as walking, climbing stairs, reaching, lifting or carrying
- d. An intellectual disability
- e. A psychological or emotional condition
- f. Chronic illness
- g. Other, specify
- h. None of the above
- i. Don't know

3. Do you know anyone who has a disability?

- a. Spouse/partner





<b>A = I disagree very much</b>	<b>B = I disagree pretty much</b>	<b>C = I disagree a little</b>
<b>D = I agree a little</b>	<b>E = I agree pretty much</b>	<b>F = I agree very much</b>

8. People with disabilities are usually easier to get along with than other children
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F
9. Most people with disabilities feel sorry for themselves
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F
10. People with disabilities are the same as everyone else
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F
11. There should be special schools for people with disabilities
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F
12. It would be best for people with disabilities to live and play in special communities
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F
13. It is up to the government to take care of people with disabilities
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F
14. Most people with disabilities worry a great deal
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F
15. People with disabilities should not be expected to meet the same standards as non-disabled people
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F
16. People with disabilities are as happy as non-disabled people
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F
17. Severely disabled people are not harder to get along with than those with minor disabilities
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F
18. It is almost impossible for disabled people to lead a normal life
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F
19. You should not expect too much from people with disabilities
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F
20. People with disabilities tend to keep to themselves much of the time
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F
21. People with disabilities are more easily upset than non-disabled people
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F
22. People with disabilities cannot have a normal social life
- A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F

<b>A</b> = I disagree very much	<b>B</b> = I disagree pretty much	<b>C</b> = I disagree a little
<b>D</b> = I agree a little	<b>E</b> = I agree pretty much	<b>F</b> = I agree very much

23. Most people with disabilities feel that they are not as good as other people

A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F

24. You have to be careful what you say when you are with people who have a disability

A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F

25. People with disabilities are often grouchy

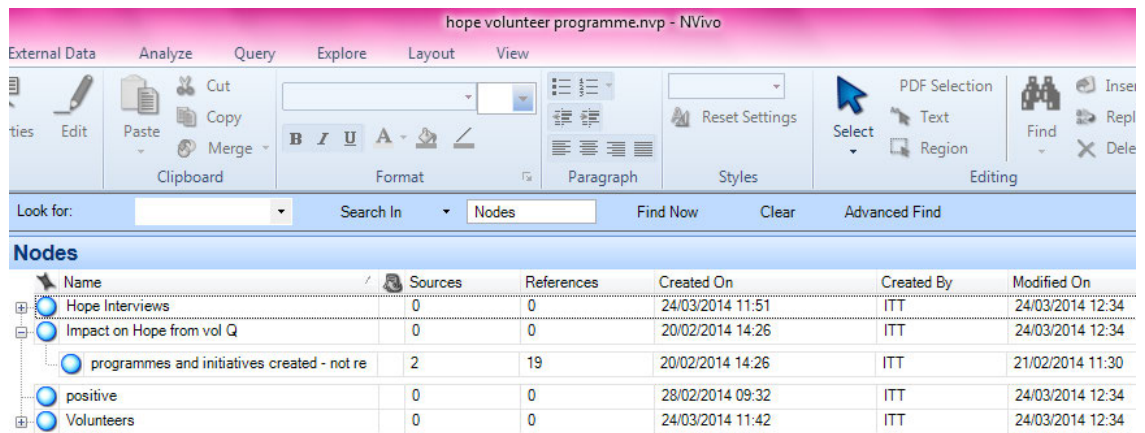
A                      B                      C                      D                      E                      F

## Interview Schedule

Interview Topics	Probes
<b>Grand Tour Question</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tell me about your experience/involvement with International Volunteers</li> </ul>
<b>Mini Tour Questions</b>	
<b>Impact of the Programme</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• On service users</li> <li>• On Hope</li> <li>• On attitudes of employees</li> <li>• On volunteers</li> </ul>
<b>Perception of volunteer's satisfaction – in line with the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (Galindo-Guzley and Kuhn, 2001)</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Communication quality</li> <li>• Organisational support</li> <li>• Participation efficacy</li> <li>• Work assignment</li> <li>• Group integration</li> </ul>
<b>Perception of Volunteer's Motives – in line with Volunteer Function Inventory (Clary et al., 1998)</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Protective</li> <li>• Values</li> <li>• Career</li> <li>• Social</li> <li>• Understanding</li> <li>• Enhancement</li> </ul>
<b>Additional Questions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Programmes adapted by volunteers</li> <li>• Short-term issues?</li> <li>• Coordination of the programme?</li> </ul>

## D. NVIVO Codes (Nodes)

### D.1 Main Node Folders



The screenshot displays the NVivo software interface for a project named "hope volunteer programme.nvp". The interface includes a menu bar with options like External Data, Analyze, Query, Explore, Layout, and View. Below the menu is a ribbon with various toolbars for editing, formatting, and searching. The main area shows a list of nodes under the heading "Nodes".

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On
Hope Interviews	0	0	24/03/2014 11:51	ITT	24/03/2014 12:34
Impact on Hope from vol Q	0	0	20/02/2014 14:26	ITT	24/03/2014 12:34
programmes and initiatives created - not re	2	19	20/02/2014 14:26	ITT	21/02/2014 11:30
positive	0	0	28/02/2014 09:32	ITT	24/03/2014 12:34
Volunteers	0	0	24/03/2014 11:42	ITT	24/03/2014 12:34

## D.2 Hope Staff and Management Interview Nodes

hope volunteer programme.nvp - NVivo

External Data Analyze Query Explore Layout View

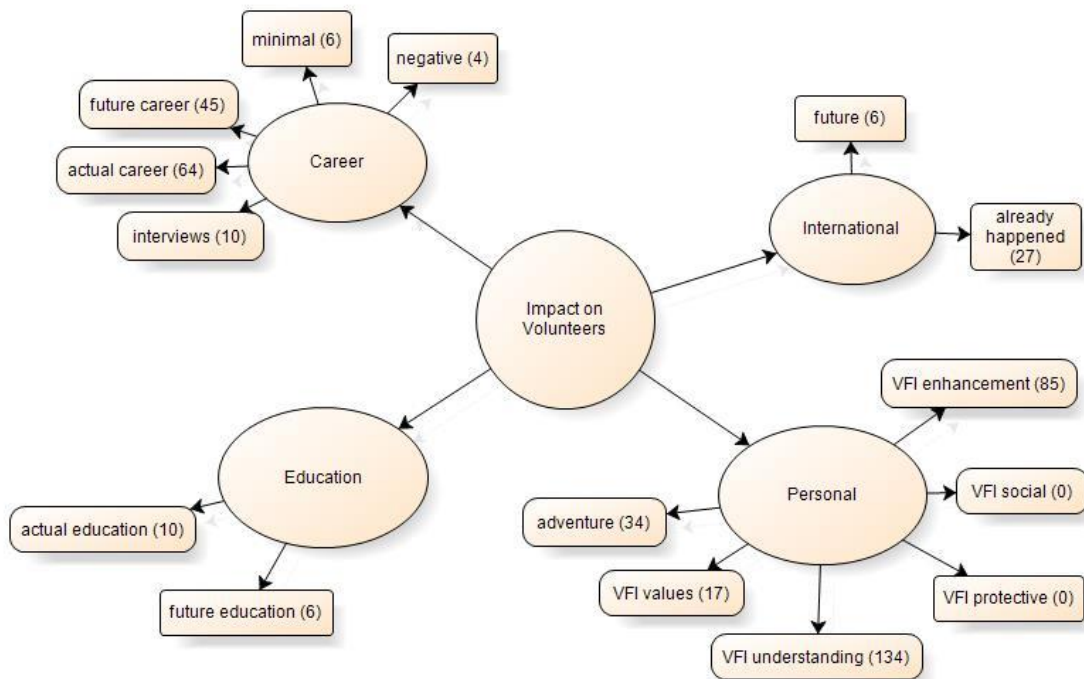
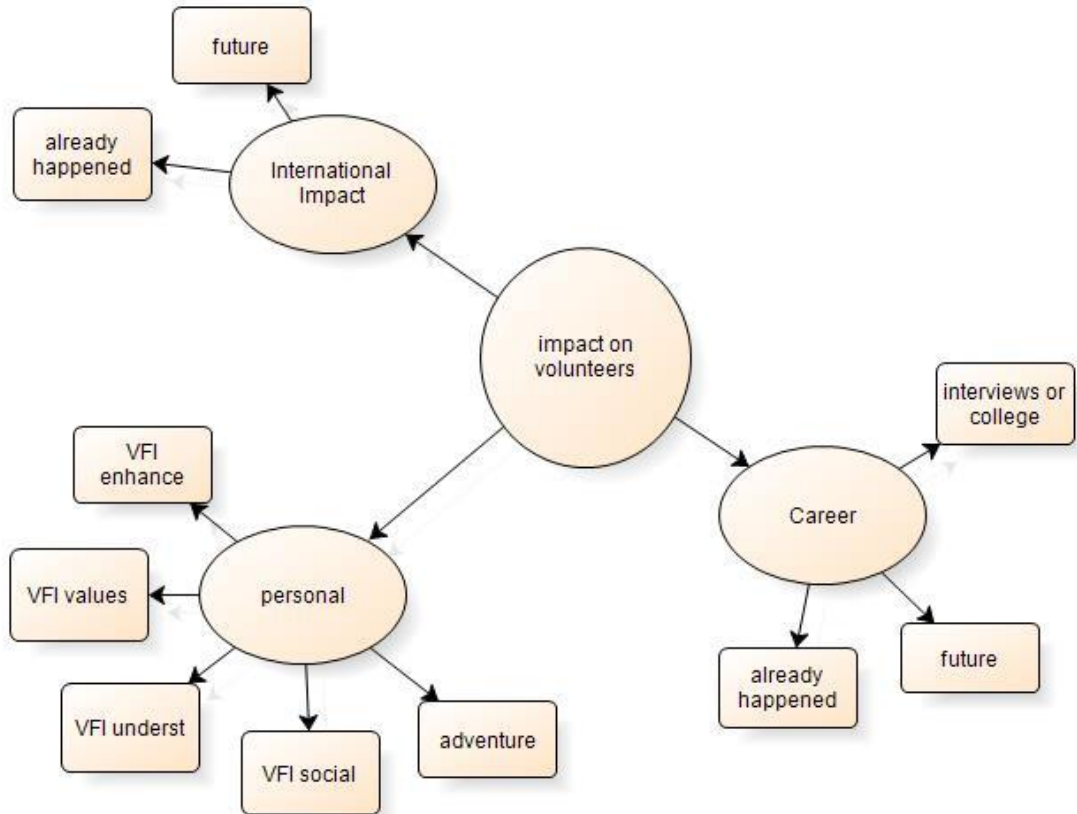
Clipboard Format Paragraph Styles Editing

Look for: Search In Nodes Find Now Clear Advanced Find

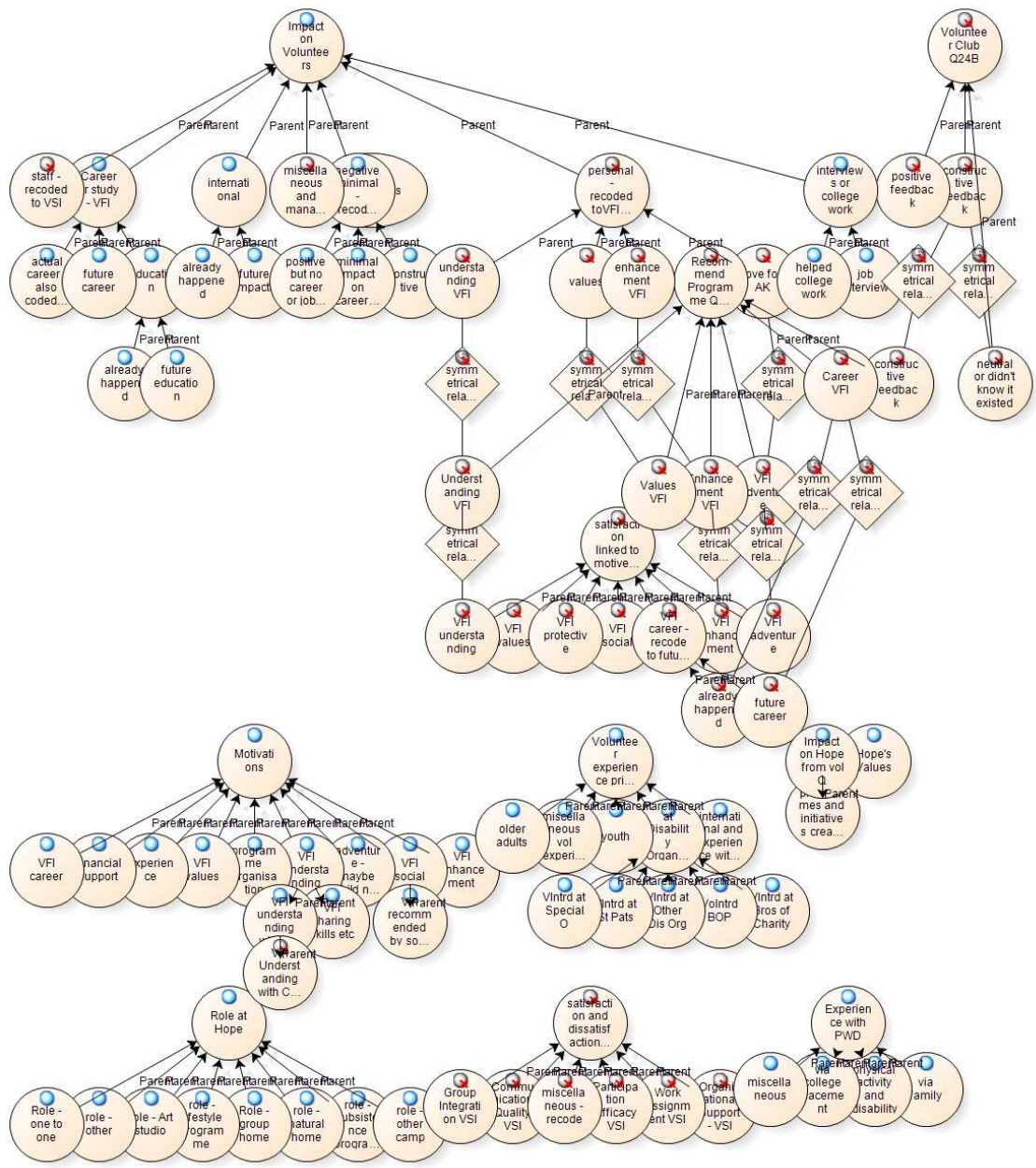
### Nodes

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On
Hope Interviews	0	0	24/03/2014 11:51	ITT	24/03/2014 12:34
attitudes to disability - link with inclusion	10	18	24/03/2014 19:53	ITT	27/03/2014 12:37
impact on Hope	1	1	24/03/2014 12:04	ITT	25/03/2014 17:01
burnout	11	17	24/03/2014 12:05	ITT	27/03/2014 12:19
economic costs	3	4	24/03/2014 12:06	ITT	26/03/2014 15:10
inclusion - well-being	16	32	24/03/2014 12:07	ITT	27/03/2014 12:38
international	15	55	24/03/2014 12:04	ITT	27/03/2014 10:13
aims	9	23	28/03/2014 12:30	ITT	28/03/2014 12:42
current affairs internationally	2	7	28/03/2014 12:33	ITT	28/03/2014 12:42
impact	9	21	28/03/2014 12:30	ITT	28/03/2014 12:40
programme and initiatives	14	18	24/03/2014 12:04	ITT	28/03/2014 13:04
reciprocal benefit	24	76	24/03/2014 12:07	ITT	28/03/2014 13:18
service users	21	63	24/03/2014 12:04	ITT	28/03/2014 11:47
short-term nature	21	50	24/03/2014 12:05	ITT	04/04/2014 15:34
wider community	4	7	24/03/2014 12:07	ITT	28/03/2014 11:42
Introduction to Programme	24	88	24/03/2014 11:52	ITT	31/03/2014 11:09
Recruitment	1	2	24/03/2014 11:52	ITT	24/03/2014 12:55
adventure	4	7	24/03/2014 11:53	ITT	28/03/2014 15:29
advice or feedback	16	39	24/03/2014 11:52	ITT	28/03/2014 15:41
aims and needs	9	20	28/03/2014 15:36	ITT	28/03/2014 15:56
feedback - positive	5	6	28/03/2014 15:36	ITT	28/03/2014 15:51
feedback for improvement	5	8	28/03/2014 15:36	ITT	28/03/2014 15:49
recruitment strategies - motives et	2	2	28/03/2014 15:39	ITT	28/03/2014 15:55
partying	12	19	24/03/2014 18:46	ITT	28/03/2014 13:17
process	9	10	24/03/2014 18:50	ITT	31/03/2014 11:39
VFI understanding	1	1	24/03/2014 11:52	ITT	28/03/2014 15:28
work ethic	31	97	24/03/2014 12:40	ITT	28/03/2014 15:27

### D.3 The Impact on Volunteers Nodes







hope volunteer programme.nvp - NVivo

External Data Analyze Query Explore Layout View

Clipboard Format Paragraph Styles Editing

Look for: Search In Nodes Find Now Clear Advanced Find

### Nodes

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On
Volunteers	0	0	24/03/2014 11:42	ITT	24/03/2014 12:34
Experience with PWD	0	0	18/02/2014 14:47	ITT	27/02/2014 15:04
miscellaneous	1	4	18/02/2014 14:49	ITT	18/02/2014 14:49
physical activity and disability	1	27	18/02/2014 14:48	ITT	18/02/2014 14:48
via college placement	1	12	18/02/2014 14:48	ITT	18/02/2014 14:48
via family	1	4	18/02/2014 14:48	ITT	18/02/2014 14:48
Impact on Volunteers	6	157	14/02/2014 14:27	ITT	27/02/2014 15:04
Career or study - VFI	3	89	14/02/2014 15:03	ITT	28/02/2014 21:14
actual career - also coded to VFI c	4	65	14/02/2014 15:09	ITT	25/03/2014 21:58
future career	2	44	14/02/2014 15:09	ITT	01/03/2014 12:31
negative minimal - recoded go to c	2	15	14/02/2014 15:03	ITT	21/02/2014 11:30
constructive	1	4	18/02/2014 11:11	ITT	01/03/2014 12:34
minimal impact on career path	2	7	14/02/2014 15:03	ITT	01/03/2014 12:34
positive but no career or job ye	1	1	18/02/2014 11:12	ITT	21/02/2014 11:30
Education	3	15	14/02/2014 15:08	ITT	28/02/2014 21:18
already happened	3	11	24/02/2014 18:50	AS	28/03/2014 15:33
future education	2	6	24/02/2014 18:50	AS	24/02/2014 18:54
Hope's Values	2	15	20/02/2014 14:53	ITT	28/02/2014 21:18
international	5	27	14/02/2014 15:04	ITT	28/02/2014 21:18
already happened	7	27	18/02/2014 12:33	ITT	28/03/2014 12:29
future impacts	3	6	18/02/2014 12:34	ITT	21/02/2014 11:30
interviews or college work	2	11	14/02/2014 15:04	ITT	28/02/2014 21:18

hope volunteer programme.nvp - NVivo

External Data Analyze Query Explore Layout View

Clipboard Format Paragraph Styles Editing

Look for: Search In Nodes Find Now Clear Advanced Find

### Nodes

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On
Volunteer experience prior to Hope	0	0	18/02/2014 14:44	ITT	27/02/2014 15:04
at Disability Organisation	2	33	18/02/2014 14:47	ITT	21/02/2014 09:46
Vlntrd at Bros of Charity	1	4	18/02/2014 14:47	ITT	13/02/2014 10:05
Vlntrd at Other Dis Org	1	16	18/02/2014 14:47	ITT	13/02/2014 10:06
Vlntrd at Special O	1	19	18/02/2014 14:47	ITT	13/02/2014 10:07
Vlntrd at St Pats	1	3	18/02/2014 14:47	ITT	13/02/2014 10:07
Volntrd BOP	1	3	18/02/2014 14:47	ITT	13/02/2014 10:05
international and experience with PWD	1	9	18/02/2014 14:46	ITT	18/02/2014 14:46
miscellaneous vol experience	1	6	18/02/2014 14:46	ITT	18/02/2014 14:46
older adults	1	2	18/02/2014 14:47	ITT	18/02/2014 14:47
youth	1	7	18/02/2014 14:47	ITT	18/02/2014 14:47



hope volunteer programme.nvp - NVivo

External Data Analyze Query Explore Layout View

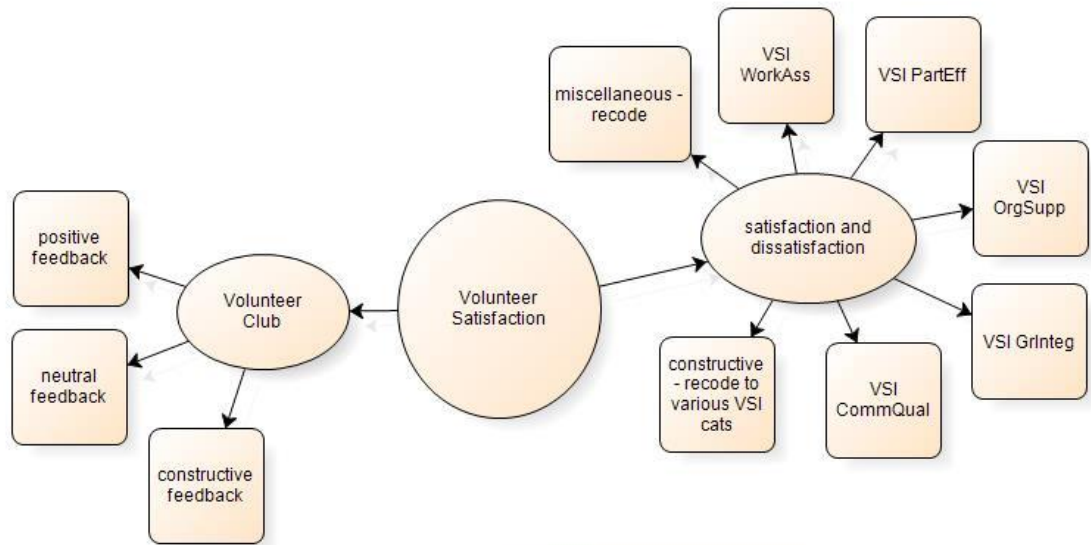
Clipboard Format Paragraph Styles Editing

Look for: Search In: Nodes Find Now Clear Advanced Find

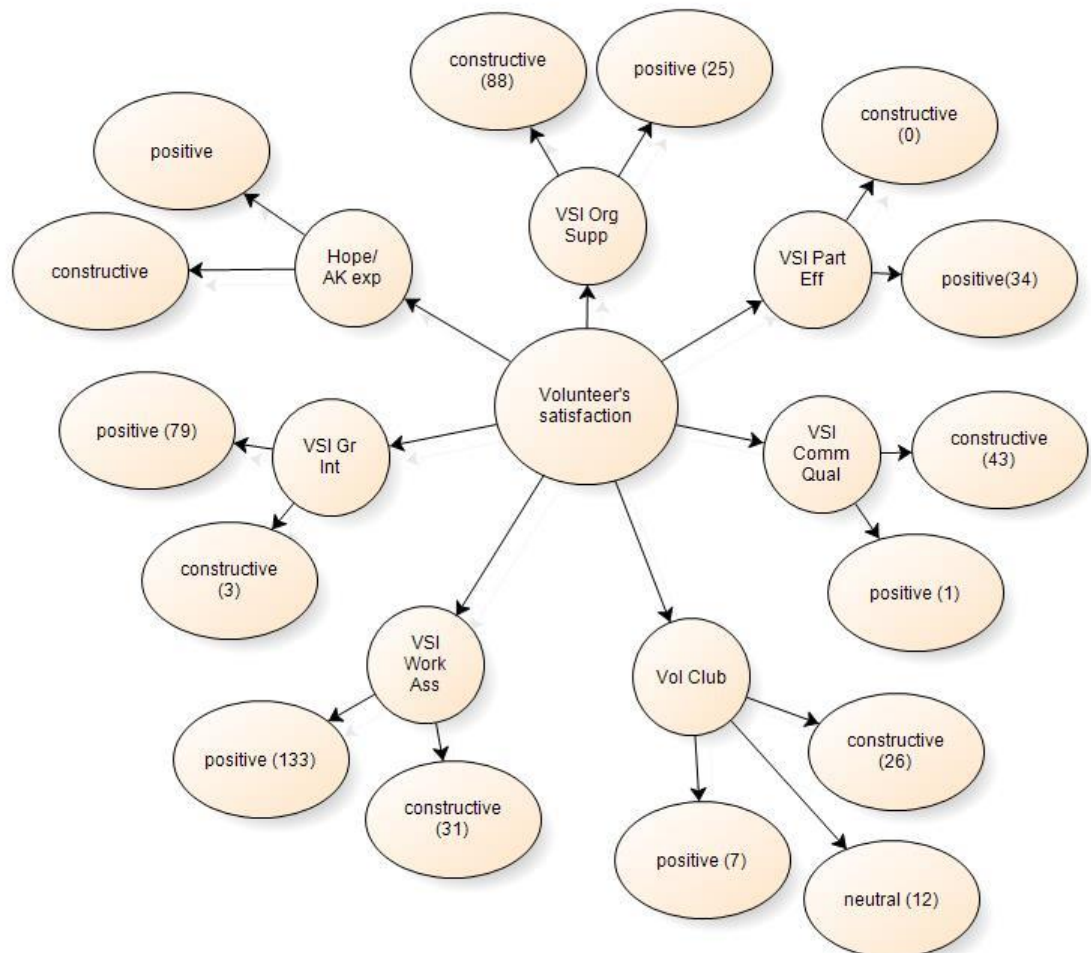
### Nodes

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On
Education	3	15	14/02/2014 15:08	ITT	28/02/2014 21:18
already happened	3	11	24/02/2014 18:50	AS	28/03/2014 15:33
future education	2	6	24/02/2014 18:50	AS	24/02/2014 18:54
Hope's Values	2	15	20/02/2014 14:53	ITT	28/02/2014 21:18
international	5	27	14/02/2014 15:04	ITT	28/02/2014 21:18
already happened	7	27	18/02/2014 12:33	ITT	28/03/2014 12:29
future impacts	3	6	18/02/2014 12:34	ITT	21/02/2014 11:30
interviews or college work	2	11	14/02/2014 15:04	ITT	28/02/2014 21:18
helped college work	1	2	18/02/2014 11:06	ITT	01/03/2014 12:10
job interview	3	12	18/02/2014 11:06	ITT	27/03/2014 09:52
personal impact -benefit acc to VFI	0	0	27/02/2014 15:24	ITT	28/02/2014 21:18
VFI adventure	2	34	27/02/2014 15:24	ITT	27/02/2014 15:29
VFI enhancement	2	85	27/02/2014 15:24	ITT	28/02/2014 12:19
VFI protective	0	0	27/02/2014 15:24	ITT	27/02/2014 15:29
VFI social	0	0	27/02/2014 15:24	ITT	27/02/2014 15:29
VFI understanding	4	134	27/02/2014 15:24	ITT	28/02/2014 10:02
VFI values	2	17	27/02/2014 15:24	ITT	27/02/2014 15:29
Role at Hope	0	0	13/02/2014 10:17	ITT	27/02/2014 15:04
role - Art studio	1	6	13/02/2014 10:20	ITT	13/02/2014 10:20
Role - group home	1	4	13/02/2014 10:17	ITT	13/02/2014 10:17
role - lifestyle programme	1	2	13/02/2014 10:18	ITT	13/02/2014 10:18
role - natural home	1	1	13/02/2014 10:19	ITT	13/02/2014 10:19
Role - one to one	1	7	13/02/2014 10:19	ITT	13/02/2014 10:19
role - other	2	8	13/02/2014 10:19	ITT	21/02/2014 11:30
role - other camp	1	3	13/02/2014 10:19	ITT	13/02/2014 10:19
role - subsistence programme	2	2	13/02/2014 10:19	ITT	21/02/2014 11:30

## D.4 Volunteer Satisfaction Nodes



NOTE: recode constructive and miscellaneous nodes, within each VSI node create a positive and negative node, also merge Vol Club nodes with overall satisfaction



hope volunteer programme.nvp - NVivo

External Data Analyze Query Explore Layout View

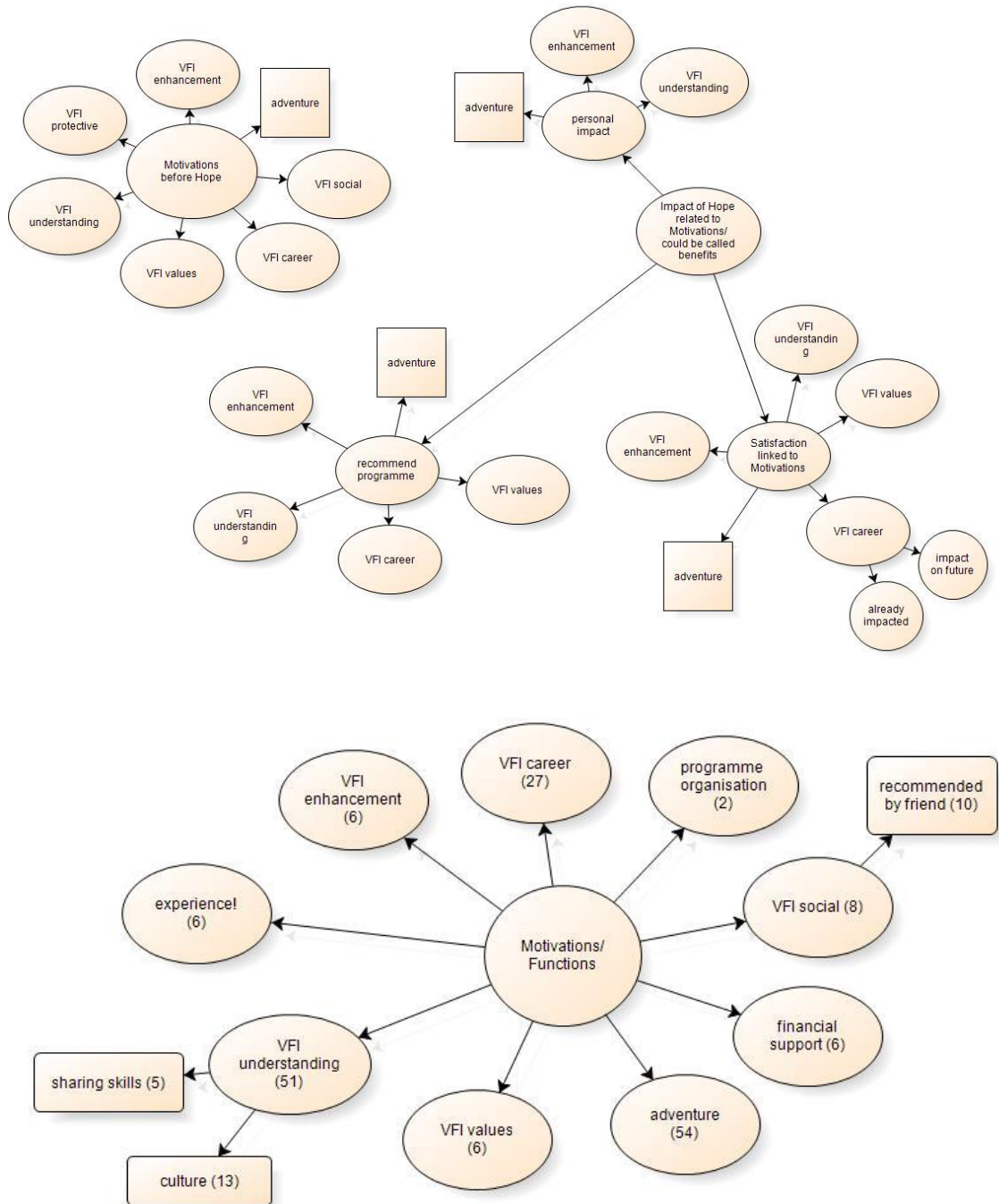
Clipboard Edit Paste Copy Merge Format Paragraph Styles Editing Proofing

Look for: Search In: Nodes Find Now Clear Advanced Find X

### Nodes

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
Satisfaction	0	0	28/02/2014 09:31	ITT	28/02/2014 09:31	ITT
Hope - AK experience	2	67	28/02/2014 09:35	ITT	28/02/2014 14:33	ITT
Vol Club	0	0	28/02/2014 10:02	ITT	28/02/2014 10:02	ITT
constructive	3	27	28/02/2014 10:03	ITT	26/03/2014 14:23	ITT
neutral	2	12	28/02/2014 10:03	ITT	28/02/2014 11:01	ITT
positive	2	7	28/02/2014 10:02	ITT	28/02/2014 10:59	ITT
VSI CommQual	1	1	28/02/2014 09:31	ITT	26/03/2014 14:20	ITT
constructive	5	47	28/02/2014 09:32	ITT	28/03/2014 12:54	ITT
positive	1	1	28/02/2014 09:32	ITT	26/03/2014 14:30	ITT
VSI Grinteg	0	0	28/02/2014 09:32	ITT	28/02/2014 09:32	ITT
constructive	1	3	28/02/2014 09:32	ITT	28/02/2014 12:02	ITT
positive	3	82	28/02/2014 09:35	ITT	24/03/2014 19:01	ITT
VSI OrgSupp	2	2	28/02/2014 09:32	ITT	26/03/2014 14:20	ITT
constructive	3	92	28/02/2014 09:33	ITT	26/03/2014 14:34	ITT
positive	3	29	28/02/2014 09:33	ITT	24/03/2014 19:09	ITT
VSI PartEff	0	0	28/02/2014 09:34	ITT	28/02/2014 09:34	ITT
constructive	0	0	28/02/2014 09:34	ITT	28/02/2014 09:34	ITT
positive	2	35	28/02/2014 09:35	ITT	01/03/2014 12:32	AS
VSI WorkAss	1	1	28/02/2014 09:34	ITT	24/03/2014 18:57	ITT
constructive	3	33	28/02/2014 09:35	ITT	24/03/2014 18:57	ITT
positive	3	134	28/02/2014 09:34	ITT	28/03/2014 11:01	ITT

## D.5 Volunteer Motivations Nodes



hope volunteer programme.nvp - NVivo

External Data Analyze Query Explore Layout View

Clipboard Edit Paste Copy Merge Format Paragraph Styles Editing Proofing

Look for: Search In Nodes Find Now Clear Advanced Find X

### Nodes

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
Motivations	3	169	13/02/2014 10:14	ITT	27/02/2014 15:04	ITT
adventure - maybe child node to under	3	55	13/02/2014 10:14	ITT	24/03/2014 19:04	ITT
experience	1	6	13/02/2014 10:15	ITT	24/02/2014 21:20	AS
financial support	1	6	13/02/2014 10:15	ITT	13/02/2014 10:15	ITT
programme organisation	2	2	13/02/2014 10:15	ITT	13/02/2014 10:15	ITT
VFI career	3	29	13/02/2014 10:14	ITT	24/03/2014 19:04	ITT
VFI enhancement	2	6	13/02/2014 10:15	ITT	24/02/2014 19:18	AS
VFI social	2	8	13/02/2014 10:15	ITT	13/02/2014 10:17	ITT
VFI recommended by someone the	2	10	13/02/2014 10:15	ITT	13/02/2014 10:03	ITT
VFI understanding	2	51	13/02/2014 10:16	ITT	24/02/2014 21:27	AS
VFI sharing skills etc	2	5	13/02/2014 10:16	ITT	13/02/2014 10:03	ITT
VFI understanding with culture	2	13	13/02/2014 10:16	ITT	13/02/2014 10:02	ITT
VFI values	2	6	13/02/2014 10:16	ITT	13/02/2014 10:16	ITT