



Family &  
Community  
Services

# RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION OF VOLUNTEERS

## A rapid literature review

Prepared by: Dr Melanie Randle and Dr Samantha Reis







“Volunteers need recognition of their efforts and acknowledgement of the value they contribute to their communities.

– Have Your Say online response

## Contents

<b>Executive summary</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3 The effectiveness of social marketing campaigns aiming to recruit volunteers</b>	<b>38</b>
Aims and research questions	4	3.1 Evidence for effectiveness	39
Key findings	5	<b>4 Discussion and recommendations</b>	<b>45</b>
Attitudes and participation	5	4.1 Attitudes and participation	45
Use of marketing concepts	5	4.2 Use of marketing concepts	46
Social marketing campaigns	6	4.3 Social marketing campaigns	47
Recommendations	6	4.4 Recommendations	48
<b>Introduction</b>	<b>8</b>	4.5 Limitations and directions for future research	52
Aims	10	<b>References</b>	<b>54</b>
Method	10	<b>Appendices</b>	<b>58</b>
Rapid review	10	Appendix A: Examples of volunteering social marketing materials	58
Search strategy	10	Appendix B: Evaluated social marketing materials from the literature	65
Inclusion and exclusion criteria	11		
Report structure	11		
<b>1 Attitudes toward and participation in volunteering</b>	<b>13</b>		
1.1 Motivations and benefits	13		
1.1.1 Episodic volunteering	14		
1.1.2 Benefits of volunteering	16		
1.2 Facilitators and barriers	16		
1.3 Differences between sociodemographic groups	18		
1.3.1 Gender	18		
1.3.2 Socioeconomic factors	19		
1.3.3 Age	20		
1.3.4 Cultural background	22		
1.3.5 People who are unemployed	23		
1.3.6 People with a disability	24		
<b>2 Use of marketing concepts for recruiting volunteers</b>	<b>26</b>		
2.1 Competition, segmentation and positioning	27		
2.1.1 Competition	27		
2.1.2 Segmentation	28		
2.1.3 Positioning	29		
2.2 The marketing mix	30		
2.2.1 Product	30		
2.2.2 Price	31		
2.2.3 Place	31		
2.2.4 Promotion	32		



## Executive summary

### Aims and research questions

This rapid literature review synthesises existing research on volunteering in Australia. It focuses specifically on motivations, barriers and facilitators to volunteering among different segments of the population, and the application of marketing concepts to provide insight into the volunteering marketplace and understand volunteering behaviour. In addition it reviews publicly available evaluations of previous social marketing campaigns that are designed to recruit volunteers to assess their effectiveness. The review aims to provide

a set of evidence-based recommendations for future campaigns, aiming to increase the recruitment and retention of volunteers. In order to achieve this, four research questions are posed:

1. What does recent research tell us about attitudes toward, and participation in, volunteering in Australia? In particular: (i) What are the key motivations for volunteering?; (ii) What are the key facilitators and barriers to volunteering?; and (iii) Do these motivations, facilitators and barriers differ for different segments of the population?
2. To what extent have marketing concepts been applied for the purpose of recruiting volunteers, in particular: (i) Competition, segmentation and positioning?; and (ii) The marketing mix?

**“In Australia, volunteering is generally viewed positively by the population (Volunteering Australia, 2016), with just under one-third of Australians aged 15 or over stating that they had volunteered in the previous year (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015).”**



3. What are the predominant social marketing campaigns/approaches/strategies for recruiting volunteers? Which have been most effective, and why?
4. What evidence-based recommendations can be derived for future campaigns seeking to increase numbers of volunteers in Australia?

### Key findings

#### Attitudes and participation

In Australia, volunteering is generally viewed positively by the population (Volunteering Australia, 2016), with just under one-third of Australians aged 15 or over stating that they had volunteered in the previous year (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015). The benefits associated with volunteering are wide ranging and include increased social connectedness (Vecina & Fernando, 2013), enhanced physical health and fitness (Dunn et al., 2016) and improved mental health outcomes (Jenkinson et al., 2013; Vecina & Fernando, 2013).

Motivations to volunteer are equally wide ranging, and tend to be influenced by sociodemographic characteristics and life stage. For example, younger people typically volunteer to gain skills and experience; while older people tend to be more interested in passing on knowledge to assist younger generations (Bushway et al., 2011; Nicol, 2012). Barriers to participation in volunteering activities also vary according to sociodemographic characteristics. For example, younger people report being very time poor (Nicol, 2012); whereas people from diverse cultural backgrounds are more likely to cite language as a barrier (Randle & Dolnicar, 2012). Motivations can depend on the type of role being performed. For example, motivations to volunteer for cultural/sporting events include material benefits, recognition and social pressure; while motivations specific to charity events include a desire to raise funds for the cause, and a personal connection to the cause (Dunn et al., 2016).

Willingness to volunteer and levels of satisfaction with volunteering are encouraging (Volunteering Australia, 2016); however, there are still some negative associations with volunteering, such as too much

commitment required and volunteers being overworked (Gaskin, 2003). Further, evidence suggests a lack of knowledge among the general population regarding the wide range of volunteering opportunities available.

#### Use of marketing concepts

Marketing strategies have the potential to address barriers and communicate/deliver benefits at all stages of the ‘volunteer life cycle’ (Bussell & Forbes, 2003). Recognising that increasing numbers of non-profit organisations are competing for limited resources, including volunteers, researchers have sought to apply marketing concepts (such as market competition, segmentation and positioning) to gain insight into the volunteering marketplace. These studies reveal that volunteer organisations have distinct brand images, some of which are positioned quite closely to one another and others that are relatively unique (Dolnicar & Randle, 2007a). Further, competition analysis indicates that organisations with certain types of brand images are considered complementary by volunteers, and could potentially work together to recruit and share volunteers; whereas organisations with other types of brand images have volunteers who are unlikely to volunteer for multiple organisations, and they therefore compete with one another for volunteers (Randle et al., 2013). Segmentation has also proven to be a useful tool for understanding the market of volunteers, because although as a whole the market of volunteers is extremely heterogeneous, groups of volunteers exist which are homogeneous in terms of particular characteristics. This is the case, for example, for people who are younger versus older, male versus female or employed versus unemployed. Other more sophisticated segmentation studies have used statistical analysis to identify groups of people who have characteristics in common which may not be immediately obvious to researchers. This includes, for example, groups of people with particular combinations of motivations (Dolnicar & Randle, 2007b) or similar patterns of volunteering behaviour (Dolnicar & Randle, 2007a). These segmentation studies have provided insight into the particular preferences and needs of different volunteer groups, which enables volunteer offerings and marketing strategies to be customised to appeal to specific segments.



In addition to the type of market analysis described above, research on volunteering has applied to the four Ps of marketing (product, price, place and promotion) in an attempt to develop more effective marketing strategies to recruit volunteers. In the context of volunteering, the ‘product’ relates to the type of volunteering experience being offered (including the type of work involved and the environment in which it is performed), and requires volunteer managers to consider whether the experience being offered matches the needs of volunteers. Given that the needs of different segments can vary significantly, the appropriate product offering for each segment is likely to vary significantly as well.

‘Price’ refers to any costs associated with volunteering, including the time required to volunteer. Often, barriers to participation align with these costs, and so volunteering experiences need to be designed in such a way that minimises these costs and thereby reduces barriers to participation. ‘Place’ refers to the way in which people gain information about, and access to, volunteering opportunities. Appropriate information and pathways to volunteering need to be made available, such that they can easily be accessed as soon as an individual decides they would like to start volunteering. Finally, ‘promotion’ relates to the way in which volunteering is communicated to the target audience in an attempt to persuade them to become engaged. This review provides evidence for the use of all of these marketing principles and provides various examples to illustrate their usefulness.

### Social marketing campaigns

Relatively few systematic evaluations of marketing campaigns designed to recruit volunteers were identified though this review. Some campaigns were successful in terms of both increasing volunteers and raising awareness of volunteering. For example, the ongoing Year of the Volunteer campaign (UK) and Volunteers Week (UK) utilised television, radio, newspapers, a website and other media, and were successful in recruiting younger people and people from black and ethnic minority backgrounds (Machin, 2005).

A national recruitment campaign for the Special Constables (England and Wales) utilised a range of

media, including television, radio and newspapers, and was successful in increasing volunteers. The campaign targeted young adults, and this demographic was particularly responsive, with around 80 per cent of callers to the recruitment line aged 18 to 34. Almost 20 per cent of callers were from culturally diverse populations, particularly Indian and Pakistani backgrounds, which were also target groups for the campaign.

The Program for Marketing Volunteering (Israel) also provides insight regarding factors that contribute to successful social marketing campaigns aimed at increasing volunteers (Boehm, 2009). This campaign utilised a range of strategies, including advertising, use of ambassadors, public relations and incentives to reach their audience. It was highly successful in increasing recruitment to various volunteer positions, which was attributed to the use of positive emotional appeals, provision of information (to counter lack of knowledge/awareness), use of clear call-to-action messages and customised message length (depending on mode of communication). Finally, evidence from the Baltimore Experience Corps Trial (USA) demonstrates the appeal of messages relating to generativity in the recruitment of older adults. Those who were recruited cited word of mouth most frequently as their source of information (Tan et al., 2010).

### Recommendations

Based on the research and evaluations reviewed, evidence-based recommendations for future social marketing campaigns seeking to recruit and retain volunteers include:

1. Raise the profile and strengthen the overall image of volunteering by promoting volunteering as a life story, with different roles being played at different life stages.
2. Dispel misconceptions about volunteering, including that a high time commitment is necessarily required, that volunteer roles are inflexible and that volunteering is for certain types of people only.
3. Encourage volunteer organisations to conduct a market analysis before developing a marketing strategy, including the use of marketing concepts

- such as competition, segmentation and positioning.
4. Build individual organisation brand images based on selected positioning.
5. Match individual volunteer needs with a suitable ‘product’ (volunteer role), where possible customising the experience to match volunteer needs.
6. Customise messages for target audiences, focusing on relevant volunteering motivations, benefits and barriers, while not cluttering the message with too many elements.
7. Design the creative strategy to reinforce key messages, including positively framed messages emphasising the benefits of volunteering and images representing different groups in society.
8. Customise communication channels according to the media usage of the target audience.
9. Harness the power of word of mouth, because it is consistently reported as one of the most effective methods of volunteer recruitment.
10. Promote volunteering as a means of professional development, because this is a key motivator for numerous groups.
11. Improve access to information and specific volunteering opportunities.
12. Take enquiries seriously and respond quickly, to avoid perceptions that potential volunteers are not valued.
13. Evaluate social marketing campaigns effectively, including achievement of objectives and short- and long-term impacts of the campaign.

Recommendations regarding targeting particular segments of the population include:

14. Targeting people who are younger: messages related to career enhancement, altruism, socialising and adventure/fun; flexible options in terms of time commitment and low costs of involvement; communications through online and social media channels.
15. Targeting people who are older: messages related to utilising skills, helping future generations and socialising; create volunteer opportunities that match with established skills; recognise there are different types of segments within the older population (for example, regular volunteers, grey nomads).

16. Targeting people who are unemployed and people with disabilities: focus on gaining skills leading to employment; offer mentoring/training to address potential lack of confidence; provide flexible opportunities and roles.
17. Targeting episodic volunteers: messages focusing on doing something worthwhile and the cause being supported; offer flexible roles so level of involvement can be controlled; particularly suited to event-based roles; communications through mainstream media channels.

Recommendations specific to retention of volunteers include:

18. Effective volunteer management practices, including program management, training and support and recognition/rewards for volunteers.
19. Ongoing assessment of individual volunteer needs and motivations at all points in the volunteer life cycle to ensure volunteers continue to benefit from and value their involvement.
20. Ongoing reinforcement of benefits of volunteering, including those accrued by the individual volunteer and to others/the community.

Comparatively, Australian volunteering rates tend to be relatively high, and are estimated to be on par with Ireland and the Netherlands, higher than UK rates, but lower than the US, Canada and New Zealand (McGregor-Lowndes et al., 2014). Regardless, the possibility of exhausting the supply, coupled with market competition for volunteers, means that efforts to recruit new volunteers should be ongoing and targeted (Bussell & Forbes, 2002). Australian figures suggest a recent decline in the number of individuals participating in formal volunteering activities over the past five years (Volunteering Australia, 2016). Reasons for this apparent decline are still unclear; however, possible causes are hypothesised to include: increasingly busy lifestyles, making prioritisation of volunteer activities more difficult; the ageing population reducing the supply of able-bodied volunteers; younger generations being less positive about filling volunteer roles; and people not classifying their everyday helping behaviours as formal volunteering, and therefore not recording them as such through standard reporting mechanisms including the census (Oppenheimer et al., 2015). Regardless of the reasons, the reported decline highlights the importance of continuously attracting new volunteers to the sector.

Research consistently demonstrates that volunteers are not one homogeneous group. Many kinds of people with diverse backgrounds, skills and experiences volunteer, and they do so for myriad reasons. Importantly, demographic factors tend to influence willingness to volunteer. Recent figures indicate that individuals aged 15–17 and 35–44 years are most likely to engage in volunteering activities (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015), and females have consistently been recorded as volunteering more than males (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2010; 2015; Volunteering Australia, 2016). People in full- or part-time employment are also more likely to volunteer than those who are unemployed (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2010; 2015).

Volunteering itself is complex to define, with motivations thought to exist on a continuum in terms of costs and benefits – ranging from perceived ‘free choice’ through to ‘obligation to volunteer’, and remuneration ranging from none to low pay (Bussell & Forbes, 2002). This continuum raises questions regarding at what point

the cost/benefit balance does and does not qualify as volunteering, and this inherently links volunteering to altruistic motives. However, adherence to this definition effectively excludes ‘involuntary’ volunteers – who are required donate their time as part of another program or degree. Another nuance in the concept of volunteering is the idea that some participate for the ‘common good’, while others participate as part of service to a non-profit organisation (Bussell and Forbes, 2002). So, while altruistic tendencies are often cited as a motivation for volunteer work, a range of other factors are often influential. Of particular importance to understanding volunteering motivations are perceived barriers to volunteer work, such as time, costs and level of commitment required.

In order to maintain and increase Australia’s supply of volunteers, recruitment efforts are increasingly utilising marketing concepts to inform their strategy development. Essentially, this involves identifying the right consumers (those individuals most likely to be interested in volunteering); designing a product that is attractive to them (a volunteering experience that is appealing in some way); attracting them (developing communications campaigns that are meaningful and motivating for them); and then keeping them loyal (having them continue volunteering for as long as possible) (Randle & Dolnicar, 2009c). While there is a growing body of knowledge regarding how marketing concepts can be used most effectively to achieve these aims, there is less research that measures the actual impact (if any) of social marketing campaigns in terms of recruiting and retaining volunteers. There is a need for comprehensive, clear, evidence-based guidelines regarding elements of marketing campaigns that are effective in increasing recruitment and retention of volunteers.

## Introduction

Volunteering serves a vital function in modern Australian society (Volunteering Australia, 2016). In 2014 it was estimated that 5.8 million individuals over the age of 15 volunteered in Australia, representing 743 million hours of work (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015). While volunteering has obvious and tangible benefits for the organisations involved and the individuals they serve, a diverse array of benefits for volunteers has also been recorded. These include physical, psychological and social benefits, with some studies even supporting reductions in mortality (Jenkinson et al., 2013)



## Aims

This rapid review synthesises existing research on volunteering in Australia, focusing specifically on motivations, barriers and facilitators to volunteering among different segments of the population, and the effectiveness of social marketing campaigns in recruiting and retaining volunteers. It aims to provide a set of evidence-based recommendations for campaigns aiming to increase the recruitment and retention of volunteers. In order to achieve this, four research questions are posed:

1. What does recent research tell us about attitudes towards, and participation in, volunteering in Australia? In particular:
  - i. What are the key motivations for volunteering?
  - ii. What are the key facilitators and barriers to volunteering?
  - iii. Do these motivations, facilitators and barriers differ for different segments of the population?
2. To what extent have marketing concepts been applied for the purpose of recruiting volunteers? In particular,
  - i. Competition, segmentation and positioning?
  - ii. The marketing mix?
3. What are the predominant social marketing campaigns/approaches/strategies for recruiting volunteers? Which have been most effective, and why?
4. What evidence-based recommendations can be derived for future campaigns seeking to increase numbers of volunteers in Australia?

## Method

### Rapid review

The project utilised a rapid review methodology. Rapid reviews streamline traditional systematic review methods in order to achieve a synthesis of evidence within a short timeframe. Streamlining is achieved, while still enabling the key evidence to be synthesised in a rapid review, through introducing restrictions at the literature searching and data extraction stages. Such strategies may include limitations on date and language of publication, the number of electronic databases searched and

searches of unpublished literature. Importantly, evidence comparing rapid reviews and full systematic reviews has found that the overall conclusions do not vary significantly (Watt et al., 2008). As such, rapid reviews aim to provide a succinct, usable and highly targeted integration of key research findings in a short timeframe, rather than an exhaustive description of all data available (Ganann et al., 2010).

### Search strategy

The search strategy employed various psychology, business and multidisciplinary academic databases (for example, PsychInfo, Scopus, Proquest Central, ABI/INFORM Complete), and was augmented with grey and academic literature identified via search engines (for example, Google Scholar) and searches of known Australian and international databases and websites with relevant data (for example, Volunteering Australia, Australian Bureau of Statistics). Reference lists of the included articles/reports were scanned in order to retrieve any omitted research with relevance to the research questions. Google image searches were also conducted to capture social marketing campaign materials related to volunteering that may have been subject to evaluation.

Key terms for searches included combinations of the following words:

- volunteer, volunteering
- motivation, attitudes
- barriers, facilitators
- strategy, intervention, campaign
- social marketing, marketing, segmentation
- evaluation, review, systematic review.

When searches yielded a large number of relevant results, the term 'Australia' was used to narrow the search and prioritise inclusion of Australian studies. This was a key strategy, particularly for Research question 1, which is a thoroughly researched area and generated an unmanageable number of results. Thus, Australian studies and systematic reviews were utilised to provide the most effective synthesis of current research. This is explained further in the inclusion and exclusion criteria.

### Inclusion and exclusion criteria

This review was guided by the following inclusion and exclusion criteria for the material found.

- Research questions 1 and 2 primarily focused on literature published from 2010–16, because there is already a large body of research on volunteering attitudes, motivations and behaviour – including systematic reviews. It was expected that systematic reviews published post-2010 would provide integrative summaries of earlier findings, and thus sufficient coverage of less recent (pre-2010) issues relating to this topic. Exceptions were made for research pre-2010 if: (1) it provided insight or context that is important for understanding subsequent studies included in this review (Bussell & Forbes, 2002; 2003); (2) it comprised an integral part of a (post-2011) literature review included in this rapid review (for example, Gaskin, 2003); or (3) it provided unique and specific insights relevant to a particular aspect of marketing (for example, evidence regarding segmentation).
- Research questions 3 and 4 focused on literature published between 2000 and 2016, because it was expected that there would be fewer systematic evaluations of social marketing campaigns that were designed to recruit and/or retain volunteers. This wider timeframe allowed identification of a greater number of evaluation studies, central to the development of recommendations.
- Articles with Australian data and those evaluating specific campaigns were prioritised over those simply describing a campaign or approach.
- The review included academic and grey literature from Australia as a priority, but international literature was also included, particularly if it related directly to the research questions. International volunteering campaigns can provide useful insights that may be transferrable to the Australian context.

- Excluded articles were those deemed of low relevance to the research questions (for example, literature about pro-social behaviour or intrinsic/extrinsic motivations more generally, articles about paid volunteer work – such as medical testing in the US), editorials, opinion pieces, commentaries, and literature published prior to 2000. Research with robust methodologies (for example, randomised controlled trials, systematic reviews, longitudinal designs) were prioritised over research utilising less rigorous methodologies (for example, cross-sectional designs, convenience samples); however, most studies identified were cross-sectional in nature.

The search strategy yielded 52 items for inclusion in the rapid review, many of which were literature reviews, and thus included summary statistics from multiple sources.

### Report structure

This review is structured in accordance with the aims and research questions posed. Motivations for, barriers to and facilitators of volunteering are considered first; marketing-related research aimed at informing efforts to recruit and retain volunteers are considered second; and the literature evaluating previous social marketing campaigns to recruit and retain volunteers is presented third. A discussion of results and summary of recommendations for future campaigns to recruit and retain volunteers is provided last. Brief critiques of the studies are also included, in order to allow consideration of the quality of evidence for each of the research questions.



## 1. Attitudes toward and participation in volunteering

Participation in volunteering activities has been shown to hold benefits not only for those being helped, but also for those who volunteer. Volunteers benefit organisations by providing new insights, increasing effectiveness and volume of operations, and enhancing the image of the organisation (Volunteering Australia, 2016). In addition, volunteering is thought to help further develop personal traits and professional skills of volunteers, assist in building relationships and networks, and improves patience, teamwork and problem-solving skills (Volunteering Australia, 2016). The notion of reciprocity between volunteers and those they help is believed to contribute to satisfaction with the volunteering experience, with recent research indicating that 99 per cent of volunteers intended to volunteer again, and 93 per cent perceived their volunteering as contributing to real change (Volunteering Australia, 2016). An examination of what motivates individuals to engage (or not engage) in volunteering activities may provide insight into how greater recruitment and retention of volunteers can be achieved.

### 1.1 Motivations and benefits

Historically, motivations for volunteering were broadly and rather loosely classified as either altruistic or egoistic. That is, people either volunteered primarily to benefit others or to receive benefits themselves (Bussell & Forbes, 2002). However, more recent research has revealed complexities associated with this broad generalisation of volunteering and postulated different, more detailed models of volunteer motivations.

One of the most widely applied theoretical models of volunteer motivations in recent decades is the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI, Clary et al., 1998). This model acknowledges the broad range of reasons people volunteer and identifies six psychological functions which may be served – either individually or in combination – by volunteering (summarised in Table 1). Extensive psychometric testing has produced evidence for the reliability and validity of the VFI in measuring volunteer motivations among different population groups and volunteering contexts (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1992; Marta et al., 2006).

**Table 1 Summary of the six functions in the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI, Clary et al., 1998)**

Function	Description	Examples
<b>1. Values</b>	To express values related to altruistic and humanitarian concerns	'I feel it is important to help others' 'I can do something for a cause that is important to me'
<b>2. Understanding</b>	To learn new things and utilise existing knowledge and skills	'Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things' 'I can learn how to deal with a variety of people'
<b>3. Social</b>	To engage with friends or do something perceived positively by others	'My friends volunteer' 'People I'm close to want me to volunteer'
<b>4. Career</b>	To achieve benefits related to a job or career	'Volunteering experience will look good on my resume' 'I can make new contacts that might help my business or career'
<b>5. Protective</b>	To avoid negative aspects of one's own life	'Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles' 'By volunteering I feel less lonely'
<b>6. Enhancement</b>	To achieve a positive sense of one's own self	'Volunteering makes me feel needed' 'Volunteering makes me feel better about myself'

“With recent research indicating that 99 per cent of volunteers intended to volunteer again...

(Volunteering Australia, 2016)



Applications of the VFI have shown that individuals typically cite numerous motivations for volunteering, both within and across the six functions. For example, Phillips and Phillips (2010) utilised the VFI in a cross-sectional study of 328 volunteers aged between 13 and 86 years (mean 51 years) at a large not-for-profit organisation in the US (Meals on Wheels). Analytic techniques supported the factor structure of the VFI within the context of Meals on Wheels volunteers. The most commonly reported motivations for volunteering related to the 'value' function (humanitarian/altruistic reasons), followed by motivations relating to the 'understanding' and 'enhancement' functions. The 'career' function, in this context, was least salient. The VFI offers researchers and volunteer organisations a tool to measure and understand the motivations of their own volunteers, differences in the motivations of different types of volunteers, and the motivations of potential volunteers they may wish to attract in future through social marketing campaigns.

### 1.1.1. Episodic volunteering

While much of the research on volunteering has focused on long-term or regular volunteers, many people prefer volunteering opportunities that are short-term, discrete or 'one-off'. These individuals have been termed 'episodic volunteers' (Dunn et al., 2016). Episodic volunteering is particularly suited to people who are time poor, including those working full time, young people and those with high household incomes (Holmes, 2014). Episodic volunteering provides opportunities to volunteer in time-limited, one-off contexts and, according to US research, these types of opportunities are thought to account for almost half of all volunteering (Brudney & Meijjs, 2009). However, people who engage in episodic volunteering have been found to have different motivations than those who volunteer regularly.

In their systematic review, Dunn et al. (2016) synthesise literature from 33 articles to provide a summary of predominant motivations for episodic volunteering, as well as an analysis of motivations according to sector (for example, tourism, sports, events and so on). Of the 33 articles reviewed, eight studies were Australian, 15 were American, four each were from Canada and Europe, one was from the UK and one was conducted across multiple

countries. Results indicate that across all sectors the primary motivations for episodic volunteering were helping others in the community, socialising/meeting new people and helping an organisation or cause.

When results were analysed by sector, unique motivations were found for 'event-based' volunteering (for example, at cultural or sporting events), including material benefits and recognition received, physical fitness and health, involvement with or love of sport and social pressure. In contrast, motivations specific to volunteering at charity sports events included a desire to raise funds for the cause, a personal connection to the cause and wishing to 'give back' or honour the memory of a loved one. In this sense, episodic volunteering for charity was seen as a kind of emotional catharsis, a way of processing loss or possibly reciprocity for support received in the past (Dunn et al., 2016). Further, findings show that volunteers motivated by wanting to help others and socialising were associated with higher rates of retention and frequency of volunteering.

Motivations have also been found to differ by gender and age of volunteers, with women more likely to cite helping others, involvement with the cause and personal growth/challenge as reasons for volunteering than men. In contrast, men were more likely than women to cite enjoyment of sport, the physical challenges of the role (for example, extending physical capabilities) and material benefits as motivations (Dunn et al., 2016).

Overall, Dunn et al. (2016) found that episodic volunteers were primarily motivated by altruistic and social reasons. Therefore, marketing strategies aiming to attract episodic volunteers would be expected to achieve greater success if they include messages emphasising these motivations. Attracting volunteers for charity sporting events should focus on the personal connection people may have with the cause and their opportunity to 'give back' to the organisation through volunteering. While this review provides important insights regarding sector-specific motivations for volunteering, the lack of prospective/longitudinal studies addressing motivations for volunteering limits the capacity to draw conclusions, especially because motivations for participation may change over time or with increased participation in volunteering activities.

Other systematic reviews have taken a more focused approach, for example, examining volunteering specifically in the public health and social welfare sectors (Hyde et al., 2014). Their review includes 20 articles that were predominantly from the US and Canada (none were from Australia). In the health and welfare sectors, volunteers reported appreciation from families and staff was the most highly rated benefit of volunteering, followed by free parking, and public/private recognition of their service. While social motivations (for example, forming social ties) were important to ongoing volunteers, episodic volunteers rated this as less important. Fewer than half reported having formed close relationships through volunteering activities in the health and social welfare sector. This suggests that episodic volunteering may deliver different benefits than does regular volunteering, likely due to the nature and timeframe of their volunteer work. Overall, Hyde et al. (2014) found the most common motivations for episodic volunteers were: altruistic (for example, supporting the cause, helping others); psychological or physical enhancement (for example, self-esteem, physical challenge, feelings of accomplishment); and social (for example, enjoyment, connecting with others). Frequency of episodic volunteering and intention to volunteer again in future were most strongly associated with altruistic and enhancement motivations. This review supports other research by noting the methodological issues associated with research on volunteer motivations, including a reliance on cross-sectional designs and failure to properly control for relevant demographic variables (for example, age) which may influence findings. Hyde et al. (2014) note that since research in this area was dominated by US perspective, and therefore there is a need for cross-cultural, demographically diverse prospective studies to advance knowledge in this area.

An Australian perspective is provided by Holmes (2014), who examined motivations for episodic volunteering in the tourism sector. Holmes (2014) conducted semi-structured interviews with episodic volunteers (n = 10) and regular volunteers (n = 10) to examine motivations for volunteering across a variety of tourism roles (for example, sports events, campground hosts, airport meet and greets). Qualitative data reveal different motivations for the two

groups of volunteers. Episodic volunteers tended to have actively sought out their volunteering role, and reported being intrinsically motivated to volunteer because of an interest in that event or role. Conversely, regular volunteers often reported having been invited by a friend or family member to perform their role. Supporting the findings of Hyde et al. (2014), regular volunteers were more likely to be motivated by social factors than episodic volunteers; whereas episodic volunteers tended to be less motivated by creating opportunities for social contact, and would instead take their existing friends and/or family with them to the events. Episodic volunteers were also less concerned with learning motivations and more concerned with 'doing something worthwhile' (value motivation). In this sense, they were also more motivated by the cause, and tended to express passion and pride for the organisation or cause. The ability to see an event through from start to finish also gave an added sense of satisfaction for episodic volunteers, because their involvement at all stages meant that they felt a greater sense of responsibility for the (positive) outcomes.

Episodic volunteers, like regular volunteers, said that they looked for activities that fit in with their lifestyles, but reported being reluctant to make a regular commitment to the organisation and tended to view regular volunteering as a threat to maintaining their lifestyle. They also valued living spontaneously; whereas regular volunteers felt that a benefit of their volunteering was the ability to plan ahead and know what activities they would be doing during the year (Holmes, 2014). These findings indicate that it is the nature of the commitment, rather than simply the time spent, that differentiates the two groups. Offering multiple pathways for volunteering – one for episodic volunteers and one for regular volunteers – would be expected to capture both these market segments and encourage greater participation.

Overall, episodic volunteers perceived volunteering as a reciprocal relationship between themselves and the organisation, and were more attached to the cause itself, rather than a desire to assist the organisation in the long term. Flexibility in volunteer programs was again recommended, in order to encourage volunteering from a more diverse demographic (Holmes, 2014).



### 1.1.2 Benefits of volunteering

Closely related to motivations, are the numerous physical, psychological and social benefits associated with volunteering, and have also been the subject of extensive research. Evidence suggests a multitude of benefits associated with volunteering, such as increased social connectedness, sense of community and social support. Physical and mental health benefits have also been reported, including better physical health and fitness, greater subjective wellbeing, life satisfaction, self-acceptance, higher perceived social status, improved social identity, perceiving a 'purpose in life' and even reductions in mortality (Vecina & Fernando, 2013).

For example, Jenkinson et al. (2013) provide a systematic review and meta-analysis of 40 experimental and cohort studies comparing volunteers and non-volunteers across many health factors. Volunteering was associated with greater life satisfaction and wellbeing, and lower rates of depression. Their meta-analysis of data from five cohort studies found a 22 per cent reduction in mortality for volunteers when compared to non-volunteers. The authors caution that, while this research appears compelling, the actual mechanisms by which benefits occur are unknown (for example, physical health benefits might relate to the amount of time spent out of the house, rather than the volunteer activity itself).

There is also evidence that different motivations influence the perceived benefits obtained through volunteering. In a Spanish study, Vecina and Fernando (2013) surveyed 251 volunteers and found that 'pleasure-based' prosocial motivations (motivations based on experiencing pleasure as a result of helping) was related to various beneficial outcomes, including greater satisfaction, personal growth engagement and sense of purpose in life. Conversely, volunteers reporting 'pressure-based' prosocial motivations (motivations based on fulfilling obligations) did not experience these benefits. This research, while cross-sectional in nature, demonstrates a complex interplay between individual motivations and the perceived benefits achieved as a result of volunteering. In terms of marketing, messages that emphasise and illustrate the pleasure volunteers experience from helping others may

encourage people for whom this motivation exists to become volunteers. Given this research suggests they are also more likely to perceive beneficial outcomes from their involvement, it is possible that they will also have higher levels of retention in the volunteer workforce. Future research could provide greater insight in to the impact of pleasure- versus pressure-based messages, in terms of how these are perceived by audiences and what types of people they attract to volunteering roles.

### 1.2 Facilitators and barriers

Even when attitudes towards volunteering are positive various factors can act as facilitators or barriers to participation. Understanding these factors enables volunteer managers to assess which facilitators they can enhance and barriers they can reduce in order to increase participation. A significant and consistently cited barrier to volunteering is time – either a lack of available time or the perceived cost of taking time away from other activities of value to the individual (for example, time with family and friends). For example, Bussell and Forbes (2003) conducted focus groups with 52 UK volunteers and volunteer coordinators and found lack of time to be a major barrier to participation.

Concordantly, the Scottish Executive (2006) utilised in-home interviews as part of a larger study of 498 adults from lower socioeconomic status backgrounds, and found that the greatest perceived drawback to volunteering was the time it takes (cited by 36% of people with volunteering experience). Concerns included the ability to fit volunteering activities around other commitments; however, these concerns were reported less frequently by people who were unemployed. Other perceived barriers to volunteering related to organisational issues (for example, 'things could be better organised', 7%), the risk of losing interest in the work (6%) and administrative issues involved in becoming a volunteer (for example, police checks, 6%).

Several hypothetical facilitators were also examined. Participants who had not previously volunteered were asked which factors would make them more likely to volunteer (for example, if volunteering was good fun; if volunteering could improve career prospects; if someone

they knew volunteered with them). Almost half of respondents reported that none of these factors would have any influence. Overall, though, the most effective facilitators included the ability to fit volunteering around other existing commitments (18%); if the role was related to personal interests and skills (7%); and the ability to volunteer 'when they felt like it' (7%). These facilitators offer an explanation for the apparent popularity of episodic volunteering (discussed in the previous section) because it allows people to make shorter-term, lower-level commitments to volunteering. This gives the feeling of being more 'in control' of volunteering commitments and more confidence regarding the ability to work it around other responsibilities. Other less commonly reported facilitators included having sufficient information about volunteering and knowing someone who had volunteered before (Scottish Executive, 2006).

As part of its overall volunteering strategy, the Scottish Executive (2004) summarises several barriers experienced by non-volunteers, including:

- low-skilled individuals often lacking awareness of their usefulness as volunteers (associated with a lack of confidence in their ability to perform a role)
- ongoing lack of awareness regarding the link between volunteering and government benefits, and how volunteering may assist transition to work
- concerns about volunteer organisations being unable to cater to volunteers with a disability or mobility issues (for example, adapting equipment for people with hearing problems)
- concerns about out-of-pocket expenses related to volunteering
- the perception that volunteering is predominantly for middle-aged, middle-class people (effectively excluding those from more marginal groups).

Targeting these barriers may involve educating non-volunteers in order to dispel misconceptions; emphasising that multiple and varied (skilled and unskilled) volunteer roles are available; and challenging the perception that volunteering is an activity for the mainstream population rather than a diverse range of individuals – including minority groups.

Gaskin (2003) provides an integrative review summarising research on what volunteers want from their experience and notes that barriers exist around the label 'volunteer' itself. Gaskin (2003) cites qualitative evidence from a focus group of 23 volunteers (aged 18 to 65 years) which indicates that the image of volunteers as 'overworked' is a barrier to participation. From a marketing perspective, this presents an opportunity, because these barriers could feasibly be overcome with effective social marketing campaigns that emphasise specific aspects of volunteering (compared to the alternative scenario where people have an accurate understanding of what is involved but do not find the prospect of volunteering at all appealing).

Evidence suggests that young people may experience distinct barriers to volunteering, although time is still the primary barrier. Hutin (2008) reports results of a UK study which indicates that the main obstacle to young people (16 to 24 years) volunteering was time. Face-to-face interviews conducted with a large sample of 2156 young people reveal that 93 per cent of participants nominated a lack of spare time as being a barrier to volunteering (multiple barriers could be nominated). Results also show that a lack of information and knowledge about how to go about finding volunteer opportunities was also a salient concern, with 56 per cent of respondents indicating that they didn't know how to find out about volunteer opportunities. Furthermore, 51 per cent were reluctant to volunteer because of worries about risk and liability. This research is robust, in that it includes a large sample of young people to investigate current barriers to volunteering; however, these barriers were investigated in a hypothetical sense, rather than in the context of past volunteering behaviour or future intention to volunteer. No other age groups were included in the study, so the extent to which these barriers differ from the rest of the population cannot be determined.

A UK-based rapid review by Hill et al. (2009) further supports the notion that time is the main barrier for young people volunteering, and the cost of volunteering (time-wise) is often weighed against the capacity to work and earn money. Another barrier was the perception that volunteering opportunities are not flexible enough to be feasible for young people. Evidence was also found to suggest that, like people who are unemployed, young people sometimes perceive they have nothing to offer.



This lack of confidence and fear of rejection was cited as a significant psychological barrier. Again, results show that lack of knowledge about how to get involved and understanding about how to get involved with a chosen cause were also barriers. Hill et al. also note a lack of information for non-volunteers about the potential benefits of volunteering. This review provides a valuable summary of barriers to young people's involvement in volunteering, and also supports earlier research indicating that greater provision of information about volunteering targeted at young people is necessary to tap into this market. The review by Hill et al. is a rapid (rather than a systematic) review; however, details of the inclusion/exclusion criteria and the number of articles obtained were not reported, so the methodological rigor of the review is difficult to ascertain.

An investigation of barriers to volunteering among different segments of the population (for example, young people) has the potential to inform more customised and targeted social marketing campaigns. The following section examines more closely motivational nuances which may be present for different segments of the population.

### 1.3 Differences between sociodemographic groups

Volunteers are a diverse population, but it is possible to segment the market for the purpose of targeting marketing strategies. Much of the available research considers a range of sociodemographic factors (such as age, employment status, socioeconomic status and cultural background) in trying to understand motivations for, and barriers to, volunteering.

#### 1.3.1 Gender

Various studies have claimed that volunteers are more likely to be one gender or the other. In most cases, this depends on the context of the study and the type of volunteering being examined. According to Australian Bureau of Statistics figures, overall women are more likely to volunteer than men (38% versus 34% respectively, Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2010). However, gender differences tend to vary depending on the type of volunteering activity. For

example, women are over-represented in volunteer roles involving preparation and serving of food (48% compared to 28% for males), but males reported undertaking repairing/maintenance and gardening activities more often than females (38% and 14% respectively, Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2010). In addition, coaching, refereeing and judging were volunteer roles undertaken more often by men than women (35% compared to 17%, Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2010). Bussell and Forbes (2002) note that while several studies have found significantly higher rates of volunteering among women than men, political volunteering appears to be an exception to this – more men than women tend to volunteer for political campaigns. This finding indicates that gender differences in volunteering are not straightforward, and the sector within which the volunteering opportunity arises may appeal differentially to men and women.

US research using data from a nationally representative sample indicates that gender was superior to other factors (such as religious affiliation) in predicting volunteering behaviour among older people (Manning, 2010). Manning (2010) analysed national data from a survey of 6863 US citizens aged 51 to 61 years, and found that women were 15 times more likely than men to have contributed over 100 hours of volunteering during the previous year; however, the type of volunteering was not measured, so differences in roles could not be accounted for. The same study also found that religious affiliation (that is, belonging to a church or classifying oneself as 'religious') was unrelated to volunteering in later life. This large-scale survey provides useful data on gender differences in volunteering, but since other variables were not measured, possible explanations for these differences cannot be established.

Australian research has added specificity to these findings by investigating participation in different types of volunteering according to gender. A segmentation study conducted by Dolnicar and Randle (2007a) with an international sample reveals various gender differences for volunteers in different organisations. Altruistic volunteers (volunteers for organisations concerned with health, peace, environment, social welfare services, human rights and women's groups) were significantly likely to be female (61% compared to 39% male), and church volunteers were

also significantly more likely to be female (59% compared to 41% male). Conversely, a greater proportion of 'leisure' volunteers (volunteers for organisations concerned with sports and recreation, youth work, cultural activities) were male (63% compared to 37% female), as were volunteers for 'political' organisations (volunteers for labour unions, political parties, professional associations: 67% compared to 33% female). Taken together, results suggest that traditional stereotypes regarding gender roles may to some degree be reflected in contemporary volunteering behaviour.

#### 1.3.2 Socioeconomic factors

Volunteering rates in Australia have been shown to vary according to socioeconomic status, with people in lower groups less likely to volunteer than those in higher socioeconomic brackets (23% in the lowest income bracket, compared to 39% in the highest; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015). This supports results of an earlier review which found that higher socioeconomic status and years of education were associated with greater likelihood of volunteering (Bussell & Forbes, 2002). In order to further explore reasons for this association, one US study examined motivations to volunteer among low socioeconomic status groups. Martinez et al. (2011) conducted focus groups with 35 lower socioeconomic status participants who were older and from diverse cultural backgrounds. Participants also completed a questionnaire prior to the focus group discussions to determine the extent of their volunteering activities (if any), previous volunteer experience and demographic characteristics. The focus groups explored reasons for, and barriers to, volunteering. Just over half of participants had a history of formal volunteering and consistent with previous research this included more women than men. Participants were primarily motivated to volunteer for altruistic reasons – to help others in need (for example, assisting children in schools, providing companionship, doing housekeeping/running errands). Other motivations included keeping active, personal satisfaction, socialisation and meeting new friends.

The research of Martinez et al. (2011) identifies that the factors facilitating volunteering for lower socioeconomic status participants included flexibility in commitment

required, reasonable hours, good treatment by staff and acknowledgement of their contribution. Participants discussed transport as a barrier to volunteering and suggested that improved public transport, free parking and accessible volunteer locations would enable their involvement. Barriers to volunteering included (age-related) health and medical problems such as reduced energy and mobility; personal factors, such as lack of money, time, flexibility; and prior negative experiences with volunteering (for example, feeling unappreciated or being 'bossed around'). The inclusion of non-volunteers in the sample provides insights into genuine rather than hypothesised barriers to participation and allows comparisons between the two groups (volunteers and non-volunteers).

Sociodemographic variables have also been examined in relation to international volunteering opportunities (in this case, outside of the US). McBride and Lough (2010) analysed data from the 2005 US Population Survey to examine the association between various sociodemographic characteristics and international volunteering. Using data from a sample of 111,675 US citizens, they compare non-volunteers (n = 86,624) with people who had volunteered in the US but not internationally (n = 24,708) and those who had volunteered outside of the US (n = 343). Compared to domestic volunteers, international volunteers were more likely to be male, young, foreign born, highly educated, not employed full time and without dependent children in the home. Results suggest that barriers to international volunteering included cultural values, individual attitudes, the intensive time commitment, stringent eligibility requirements, participation costs and the low supply of volunteer roles. Findings of this analysis have several limitations, including reliance on a cross-sectional design and the fact that availability of volunteer roles, length of commitment and specific skills for international volunteering (for example, being bilingual) were not explored or controlled for in the analysis. However, this research does highlight that unique or extreme volunteer roles can attract specific types of people and present specific barriers to participation that may not be present for other volunteering roles, and may not be obvious if the notion of volunteering is only considered as a generic concept.



### 1.3.3 Age

Age is one of the factors most commonly studied when considering volunteering motivations, barriers and behaviour. For example, Boehm (2009) conducted focus groups with volunteers aged 21 to 78 years ( $n = 25$ ), non-volunteers aged between 22 and 80 years ( $n = 23$ ) and other professionals/employees of volunteer organisations aged 26 to 65 years ( $n = 19$ ) to inform the development of a social marketing campaign encouraging volunteering. The focus groups examined needs, barriers and potential market segments to be targeted by the campaign. While many adult volunteers cite giving up time (that would otherwise be spent with family or on hobbies) and/or financial sacrifices (for example, volunteering instead of performing paid work), older people tended to emphasise the commitment and effort they believed they would have to put in. There was also concern among all participants regarding the nature of the work and how taxing it may be physically and psychologically. This concern was particularly salient for volunteer roles that involved working with people with physical and emotional disabilities (Boehm, 2009). This study demonstrates the interplay between age, barriers and motivations for volunteering, and research reviewed in the following sections examines this in greater depth.

#### *People who are younger*

Research suggests that early exposure to volunteering is likely to foster a lifelong volunteer culture, where volunteering is accepted as part of one's role in society across the lifespan (Francis, 2011; Nicol, 2012). Nicol's (2012) discussion paper suggests that younger Australians tend to be interested in developing specific professional skills for use in their future careers. Barriers to volunteering among young people included time costs, out-of-pocket expenses and loss of potential income. It was thought that this may explain the over-representation of university students and people from affluent areas in the younger volunteer force. Nicol (2012) recommends that future research aim to better understand the impact, value and diversity of the volunteering community, with an emphasis on the factors that limit marginalised communities. Further, it is recommended that youth volunteering be flexible

around other priorities, provide visible outcomes, use online platforms and include activity-based volunteering, and that attempts should be made to demonstrate an interest in the lives of the younger people who volunteer.

Francis (2011) conducted Australian-based research using a sample of 282 university students and concludes that there may be problems with using the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) to guide research on motivations of the current generation of university students. Psychometric analysis indicates that the VFI had an unstable factor structure for this participant group (with the model only explaining 11% of the variance in self-reported volunteering behaviour), and therefore could not effectively capture the motivations of this particular sample. The main factor found to predict volunteering behaviour was instead social norms: volunteering was significantly related to observations of primary referents (for example, parents, friends, family members) being involved in volunteering. Thus, the volunteering behaviours of friends and close family members were the key determinants of volunteering behaviour for these young adults (Francis, 2011). This reinforces the earlier findings of Bussell and Forbes (2002), who suggest that young people whose parents volunteered were more likely to volunteer themselves. Taken together, findings suggest that that early exposure to key referents who volunteer can positively influence volunteering later in life. This also suggests that marketing messages targeting young people should emphasise volunteering as a social activity that includes family, other young people and valued peers.

Overall, key motivators for young people appear to be related to career enhancement and social norms (Nicol, 2012; Francis, 2011). Research also suggests that key barriers to involvement include a lack of time and the opportunity costs associated with performing paid work instead (Hutin, 2008; Hill et al., 2009).

#### *People who are older*

While much research has focused on the potential of older people to contribute to the volunteer workforce, particularly those who are retired, one particular segment of the older population, the 'grey nomads' (people over

the age of 50 who travel for extended periods of time), has been identified as having particular potential. Their diverse range of skills and willingness to volunteer has been recognised as potentially highly valuable, particularly in terms of providing support for rural communities where volunteering resources are more limited (Leonard & Onyx, 2009). Campbell (2009) utilised a variety of qualitative techniques, including in-depth interviews, observation, and content analysis of online forums, to explore motivations of grey nomads who served as regular volunteers at a national folk festival. All participants were females over the age of 50, but the exact sample size was not stated. Primary motivations for volunteering included camaraderie/social networks, feelings of security associated with being part of a group, feeling valued as a participant (rather than just a spectator) at the event, feelings/privileges associated with being an 'insider' at the event and a sense of personal pride. Unlike results of other studies of volunteers more generally, altruism and motivations associated with gaining new skills were not evident. Rather, social motivations were of greater importance.

Leonard and Onyx (2009) surveyed 314 Australians over the age of 50 who were travelling to assess their interest in, and motivations for volunteering. Results reveal several factors associated with increased likelihood of volunteering, such as offering variable/flexible hours of volunteer work and providing opportunities for cost-free volunteering (particularly considering the lower socioeconomic status of many travellers). Further, promoting volunteer opportunities through local information centres, word of mouth and at camp sites were all recommended as communication channels which would be effective in reaching potential volunteers. Again, social motivations were identified as salient to this group, as was getting to know local people in the area. Skill-based learning motivations were less important when compared to learning about people and seeking new experiences and adventures.

Age and health status within this segment also warrants consideration, because those over 70 with fair to poor health were significantly less interested in volunteering than those who were younger or in better health. University-educated grey nomads were more likely to volunteer in order to help a town or utilise their skills, and this group had

more specific ideas about which activities they would like to perform (for example, teaching a short course, giving talks to local children about life/where you come from or Indigenous projects).

The studies of Campbell (2009) and Leonard and Onyx (2009) highlight a specific but potentially valuable segment of the market which could be targeted for volunteering activities. Although the studies don't include control groups of non-travelling older people for comparison, the specific motivations (for example, to help out communities and use their skills), behaviours (for example, shorter engagement in volunteering activities) and communication channels (for example, information centres and camp grounds) all linked to the fact that they were travelling. While this group are not necessarily time poor (generally, they are limited in terms of the relatively short time they have available in each location they visit. Therefore, customised marketing strategies that include volunteering experiences designed to take into account the transience of this group are likely to increase awareness of the possibility of volunteering as part of the grey nomad lifestyle, and prompt them to consider and even actively seek out volunteering opportunities at the places they stay. This approach could be specifically adopted by rural and regional areas that recognise a need in their community and identify that grey nomads that transit through their area have skills that match their needs. Each individual location would need to identify their particular needs, as well as the characteristics of people who visit their area in order to provide volunteering activities that meet the needs of both locals and travellers alike.

Other Australian research has addressed the motivations of older volunteers more broadly. Brayley et al. (2014) conducted a cross-sectional survey utilising the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI, Clary et al., 1998) in order to uncover the motivations of 187 Australian retirees. The career subscale of the VFI was removed for this study, because it was deemed irrelevant for retirees; however, other variables considered more relevant to retirees (for example, relating to the transition from paid employment) were included in the modelling, with intention to volunteer as the dependent variable. Results reveal that the 'values' function (see Table 1) and desiring continuity from one's previous paid work were strong and significant predictors of intention to volunteer. The authors speculate that the



desire for continuity from work may reflect a desire to preserve professional identity during retirement. This holds implications for recruitment of skilled retirees as volunteers; matching of volunteer work with past careers may be an important motivator for retirees to take up volunteer roles.

Warburton (2010) provides a narrative literature review about the characteristics of older adults volunteering in Australia and the barriers and incentives they perceive. Analysis of Australian Bureau of Statistics data reveals that, in general, older volunteers were more likely to be Australian-born, well educated, have good health, higher incomes and reside outside of capital cities. Barriers to older people volunteering included individual factors (time, lack of flexibility, financial costs, negative perceptions about the type of work involved, concerns about not being welcomed by fellow volunteers), and organisational factors (poor management, stringent requirements such as selection criteria and numbers of shifts). Facilitators to volunteering included incentives such as training, opportunities to interact with/help people from other generations, flexible options and positions that are tailored to their skills, interests and experiences. While this was not a systematic review and results were not compared to other generations, the focus on Australian volunteers increases the relevance of findings within the Australian context.

Older people have also been shown to be motivated to volunteer by 'generativity', which, in the prosocial sense, refers to a desire to pass on knowledge and improve the world for future generations. Bushway et al. (2011) conducted a narrative review examining the benefits, motivations and barriers related to environmental volunteering – defined as activities completed by choice to address environmental issues – for older people. Volunteering was found to benefit older adults by providing them with social activities, learning and a sense of purpose when their role in life is changing. Environmental volunteering often involves outdoor activities, which are reported to provide perceptible physical and mental health benefits. Motivation to participate in environmental volunteering was suggested to be derived from this sense of generativity, as well as helping individuals in need, achieving greater meaning in life, a feeling of personal responsibility to help others, to make a difference on an issue or problem and to stay healthy and active (Bushway

et al., 2011). While retirees tend to have more time for volunteering activities, this research shows that time is nevertheless still perceived as a barrier. Other key barriers related to financial costs of volunteering and lack of information about opportunities. The authors suggest that including stipends or basic incentives for volunteers would help attract volunteers from this demographic group. While their narrative review provides insight into reasons for volunteering among older people, the lack of a stringent search strategy means that the methodological rigour of the review is difficult to establish. However, other research described in later sections of this review (for example, Tan et al., 2010) lends support to the significance of generativity in motivating older volunteers.

### 1.3.4 Cultural background

Cultural factors have also been shown to influence motivations for and barriers to volunteering. Grönlund et al. (2011) conducted survey research with more than 600 university students in each of 13 countries (North America, Europe, the Middle East and Asia Pacific regions, total n = 9612) to examine potential cross-cultural differences in volunteer motivations. It was predicted that differing cultural values (for example, a focus on individualism, conservatism or egalitarianism) would affect motivations to volunteer. For example, for cultures that hold strong egalitarian values (for example, the Netherlands, Sweden), altruistic motivations were expected to dominate. Conversely, participants from more individualistic cultures (for example, New Zealand, the US) were expected to endorse 'resume' (career-based) motivations for volunteering. At the aggregate level, results indicate that altruistic and 'learning' motivations (for example, learning about new perspectives/people/causes, curiosity) for volunteering were most frequently reported by participants who volunteered, but that significant differences exist between cultures. As predicted, participants from more individualistic cultures were significantly more likely to report 'resume' motivations for volunteering; whereas those from egalitarian cultures were more likely to report altruistic reasons for volunteering (Grönlund et al., 2011).

Despite the large sample size, the use of a cross-sectional methodology and a university student sample with higher educational levels (which has been found to also relate

to volunteering) limits the extent to which findings can be generalised to the general population. Australian data was not collected, but because it is expected that similar (individualistic) cultural values would be prevalent for Australians as they do for New Zealanders, these findings potentially provide insight into the volunteering motivations relative of people from other similar countries. More specifically, this study illustrates and supports previous research highlighting the importance of career motivations for young people (particularly university students) in their decision of whether to volunteer.

Research conducted with Australian residents from diverse cultural backgrounds also supports this factor as influencing volunteering attitudes and behaviour. Randle and Dolnicar (2009a) conducted one-on-one interviews and focus groups with 71 Australian residents from a diverse range of cultural backgrounds plus eight experts in multicultural volunteering. Findings were reported in terms of three cultural groupings: Australian, Anglo-Celtic (English, Irish and Scottish) and southern European (Italian, Macedonian, Greek and Serbian) and found differences between the groups in terms of attitudes towards volunteering, social norms and perceived facilitators and barriers to volunteering. Findings show that attitudes towards volunteering were more consistently positive among the Australian and Anglo-Celtic groups with more variation in the southern European group. Importantly others were found to have high influence on the decision to volunteer within southern European groups, moderate influence for Australians and low influence for the Anglo-Celtic group. Finally, work and family commitments were key barriers for Australian and Anglo-Celtic groups; whereas language and transport were more likely to be barriers for the Southern European group (particularly older generations).

These differences between cultures were supported in a later quantitative study conducted by Randle and Dolnicar (2012) which examined data from 303 Australian residents who reported identifying with different cultural backgrounds (Anglo-Australian, n = 100, Chinese, n = 91, German, n = 77 and North American, n = 35). When compared to people with Anglo-Australian backgrounds, Australian residents with Chinese backgrounds were more likely to be influenced by others in their cultural group and faced barriers related to English-speaking skills and car

transport. Australian residents with German backgrounds were more likely to believe that volunteering would provide opportunities to socialise, broaden their perspective and learn new skills, while those with North American backgrounds also saw volunteering as a way of socialising and meeting new people, and helping family and friends who may be involved with the organisation.

These studies highlight the challenges for volunteer organisations trying to attract volunteers in communities that are highly multicultural. Because of the differences identified between cultural groups in terms of attitudes, social norms and barriers to volunteering, generic, population-wide messages about volunteering may be ineffective in engaging people from minority groups. Social marketing strategies which appeal to one group in the community may be irrelevant or even unappealing to other groups in the same community. It is apparent that, depending on the particular market segment the organisation is trying to target (in this case individuals with particular cultural backgrounds), customised campaigns are required that consider the motivations and barriers of that group and address them by offering appropriate volunteering opportunities that meet their needs. Thus, the development of culturally suitable communications that tap into their particular motivations and reduce the barriers experienced may enhance recruitment and retention of volunteers from diverse cultural backgrounds.

### 1.3.5 People who are unemployed

Bussell and Forbes (2003) found unemployed people to be motivated by skills development and work experience/job opportunities that can emerge from volunteering. This was reinforced in a more recent study by Randle and Rintoul (2013) which evaluated a small-scale volunteering program in regional Australia. The program sought to match people experiencing disadvantage with community-based volunteering opportunities in order to develop practical work skills that create pathways to paid employment. Ten in-depth interviews with volunteers (n = 4) and a range of relevant managers and stakeholders associated with the program (n = 6) reveal numerous benefits experienced by volunteers. These included enjoying the challenge and socialising with other volunteers and staff, which led to increased engagement in the community more generally.



Participants also reported employment-related benefits, such as improved employment prospects (related to skill development and personal confidence), the development of local contacts and referees, increased motivation to find paid work and various other practical supports for job seeking. All volunteers interviewed reported volunteering for the program because they believed it would lead to paid employment. However, the barriers to participation in the program were also high, because many who originally expressed interest in volunteering stayed only for a short time or did not start volunteering at all. These barriers included not being able to see the pathway between volunteering and paid employment, changes in personal circumstances (for example, gaining custody of children), the perception that volunteering required too much effort and being selective about the types of tasks they were prepared to perform as volunteers.

While this was a small-scale study, it does highlight that people who are unemployed have quite specific motivations for volunteering which relate primarily to gaining paid employment, social interaction, community engagement and networking. However, this group is also faced with specific barriers that differ from other groups in the population, such as changing personal circumstances which affect their ability to volunteer, having the commitment to persist with volunteering when the path to employment may not be immediately obvious, and adhering to the structured aspects of many volunteering programs such as having to present for shifts at certain times or having to perform certain tasks. These aspects of volunteering may be less familiar to individuals who have not been formally employed for some time. Specific supports may be required to facilitate specialised volunteering programs (such as this one) in order to break down the barriers experienced by people who are unemployed, such that they can participate fully in the program and achieve the benefits of involvement.

The benefits obtained by people who are unemployed through volunteering have been supported by other larger-scale quantitative studies (for example, Scottish Executive, 2006). Results show that participants who were unemployed were more likely to agree that volunteering offers benefits to the volunteer themselves, were less

likely to be concerned about time barriers to volunteering. However, evidence suggested a greater reluctance to volunteer among those who were unemployed, with data indicating they were less interested in volunteering than those who were employed (although the difference was small, 26% compared to 33% of employed participants).

### 1.3.6 People with a disability

Australian data indicates that having a disability reduces likelihood of volunteering (Volunteering Australia, 2010). It is estimated that 33 per cent of adults with a disability or long-term health condition volunteered in the year 2010, compared to 39 per cent of people without a disability or long-term health condition (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2010). Evidence from Australian research suggests that people with disabilities experience a range of barriers to volunteering, because of the physical limitations of their disability and also because of attitudes towards people with a disability more generally (for example, that they are the recipients rather than providers of charitable services; Bruce, 2006). For example, a qualitative study (Trembath, Balandin, Togher & Stancliffe, 2010) with 24 Australian volunteers with complex communication needs found three main barriers to volunteering: (1) communication barriers (related to having a disability that affects their ability to communicate); (2) participation barriers (for example, ability to access the location in which the volunteering takes place, ability to access public and other modes of transport); and (3) the need for appropriate support (for example, from family, friends and staff at the volunteer organisation). Participants also reported experiencing barriers associated with negative attitudes toward people with disabilities, including the perception they are unable to perform their volunteer role. However, participants also cited numerous benefits of volunteering, including meeting new people, improved communication skills and increased confidence and self-esteem (Trembath, Balandin, Togher et al., 2010).

Trembath, Balandin, Stancliffe and Togher (2010) provide a narrative review of 30 articles examining volunteering among adults with an intellectual disability and the transition from volunteering to employment. They found that for adults with an intellectual disability, volunteering

has been shown to develop knowledge, skills and social networks. However, Trembath, Balandin, Stancliffe et al. (2010) found no evidence regarding the effect of volunteering on future employment of people with intellectual disabilities, but note that the prospect of future employment may motivate some people. Volunteering may also provide a suitable alternative to paid work for some people with intellectual disabilities, although the authors note the risk of exploitation as a concern. Ensuring adults with intellectual disabilities are able to make informed

choices about volunteering adds complexity to the issues these potential volunteers face. Overall, the results of this review suggest that people with intellectual disabilities do experience benefits from volunteering, but that caution should be taken to ensure they fully understand what they are committing to and are not exploited. While job opportunities are often a motivator for volunteering, this study found no evidence to link job opportunities with volunteering.



“Australian data indicates that having a disability reduces likelihood of volunteering...”

(Volunteering Australia, 2010)



## 2. Use of marketing concepts for recruiting volunteers

In recent decades, volunteer managers and researchers have recognised the potential value of marketing-based theories and concepts in understanding and harnessing the phenomenon of volunteering. This has resulted in theories of consumer behaviour being applied in an attempt to understand volunteering in a way similar to how we understand other consumer behaviours. In doing so, just as consumers are matched to suitable products and services in a commercial context, volunteers can be matched to suitable volunteer experiences in a pro-social context.

An early example of this was Bussell and Forbes' (2003) exploratory study which used the framework of a Customer Relationship Life Cycle (Gronroos, 2000) to examine volunteering in terms of: (1) the determinants of volunteering (consideration stage); (2) the decision to volunteer (purchasing stage); (3) volunteering behaviour (consumption stage); and (4) volunteer commitment (loyalty stage). To this end, a series of six focus groups were conducted with volunteers, volunteer coordinators and project directors/organisers from various volunteer organisations in north-eastern England. Alignment at all stages of the consumer relationship life cycle model was found for volunteering, resulting in the development of a Volunteer Life Cycle model, the key stages of which are summarised in Table 2).

**Table 2 Summary of stages in the volunteer life cycle (Bussell & Forbes, 2003)**

Stage	Description	Role of marketing
<b>1. Determinants stage</b>	Understanding motivations and generating interest	Identify motivations, create awareness and interest in volunteering
<b>2. Decision stage</b>	Turning interest into volunteering behaviour	Create a differentiated offering, match volunteers with suitable roles
<b>3. Activity stage</b>	Engaging individuals in volunteering activities	Ensure volunteer needs are met, provide alternative opportunities if necessary
<b>4. Commitment stage</b>	Ensuring volunteers remain committed to the organisation/role	Monitor ongoing needs, nurture volunteer, allow to grow and develop



The authors emphasise that at every stage of the volunteer life cycle managers need to understand volunteer needs and ensure they are matched with suitable roles. Marketing objectives and strategies need to be considered and tailored to each stage of the volunteer life cycle. For example, the 'activity stage' may include strategies such as training, mentoring and socialising in order to meet volunteer needs in the first instance; while providing ongoing skill development and recognition in the 'commitment stage' may assist in achieving lower levels of volunteer attrition. While this research provides a conceptual model of volunteer engagement and commitment, results highlighted the lack of systematically developed, sophisticated marketing strategies being implemented at each stage of the cycle, and that this can have a significant impact on the likelihood of volunteers moving from one stage of the cycle to the next.

### 2.1 Competition, segmentation and positioning

In recent decades there have been increasing numbers of studies applying marketing concepts which are fundamental to commercial sector (such as competition, segmentation and positioning) to investigate the phenomenon of volunteering. These concepts are used collectively to investigate the structure of the volunteering market, and therefore often overlap in research studies (as is the case in many of the studies described next). This section provides examples of how these concepts have been applied in volunteering research, either in isolation or in conjunction with one another.

In general, the volunteering sector has increasingly recognised that competition for volunteers' time is growing – both in terms of the other things potential volunteers could do with their time, but also between different volunteering opportunities.

#### 2.1.1 Competition

Competition refers to a situation in which there are various providers of a product or service (or in this case, a volunteering experience) in the one marketplace and

consumers (or volunteers) have a choice over which provider they choose. Recognising the growing competition in the volunteering sector, Dolnicar and Randle (2007a) used data from the World Values Survey which included nationally representative samples aged 18+ in over 80 countries, and 22,554 people who had volunteered for an organisation. The study investigated competition, segmentation and positioning in the context of volunteering.

First, factor analysis revealed four segments of volunteers: altruists, leisure volunteers, political volunteers and church volunteers. Second, positioning maps were constructed to illustrate the proximity of different organisations types in relation to one another, indicating that people who volunteer for one organisation are also more likely to volunteer for other organisations that are close by. For example, the plots show close proximity of 'altruistic' organisations (for example, health, human rights, elderly) and also the 'leisure' organisations (for example, youth, cultural, sport and recreation). Third, the four volunteer segments were profiled in terms of sociodemographic characteristics, priorities in life, values, concerns and job preferences. These profiles provide insight into the characteristics of individuals likely to volunteer for different organisation types, such that customised campaigns can be developed to target them.

Altruistic volunteers (health, peace movements, welfare for elderly, environmental conservation, animal rights, local politics, human and women's rights) tended to have the highest proportion of women and the highest average age. Leisure volunteers (sports and recreation, youth work and cultural activities) were more likely to be men, and reported lower levels of concern for their family, the unemployed and the elderly when compared to other segments. A high proportion of political volunteers (labour unions, political parties, professional associations) were male, and they placed more importance on work and were less concerned about leisure time. Finally, church volunteers gave time to their church to the exclusion of other causes, and were more conservative in their beliefs about acceptable social behaviour. This study included participants from a large number of countries, and so any individual country differences are likely to be masked in the reporting of findings. However, these results could be



further studied in local contexts to allow findings specific to the Australian volunteer culture to be elucidated.

Competition was the subject of a later study by Randle et al. (2013) which investigated the non-profit marketplace to examine whether a strategy of competition or collaboration is more effective for recruiting volunteers. Based on a survey of 1415 Australian residents, the study investigated whether the brand images of different organisations were perceived by volunteers as being in competition with one another or as complementary. Results reveal that volunteering organisations are perceived by the market to have different images, and there is no one optimal strategy for all volunteering organisations. Volunteers for organisations with certain brand images (for example, the 'hero' image) are unlikely to volunteer for more than one organisation, so these types of organisations are essentially competing with one another for volunteers. Individuals who volunteer for organisations with other brand images (for example, 'local' or 'saviour' images) are likely to volunteer for more than one organisation. These organisations are therefore considered compatible, which presents opportunities for cooperative marketing and recruitment activities. The study is limited to the eight volunteering organisations included which were selected to represent a range of different organisation types and sizes. In addition, the brand image attributes used in this study were specifically developed for the Australian context, and so while the findings are particularly relevant for Australian volunteering organisations, their generalisability to other countries is unknown.

### 2.1.2 Segmentation

Market segmentation refers to the process by which a population is divided into sub-groups which are homogeneous with respect to their needs, characteristics or behaviours, and who might require different products, services or experiences (Kotler et al., 2006). In the past decade, segmentation studies have come to be quite common in volunteering research; however, this often occurs almost inadvertently, because researchers are interested in understanding one particular group of volunteers. This type of segmentation is known as a *priori* (Mazanec, 2000) or commonsense (Dolnicar, 2004)

segmentation, and involves splitting the population into groups based on a predetermined criterion selected by the researcher. These studies can focus on one segment only, or compare multiple segments. Numerous examples of a *priori* segmentation have already been discussed in this review, such as those focusing on younger people only (for example, Francis, 2011; Nicol, 2012; Shields, 2009), older people only (for example, Brayley et al., 2014; Bushway et al., 2011; Campbell, 2009; Leonard & Onyx, 2009), people who are unemployed (for example, Randle & Rintoul, 2013) and people with disabilities (Trembath, Balandin, Stancliffe et al., 2010). Others have compared different segments such as younger versus older people (for example, Boehm, 2009), people from diverse cultural backgrounds (Randle & Dolnicar, 2009a) and people who are employed versus not employed (Scottish Executive, 2006).

Other studies have segmented volunteers according to their volunteering behaviour; for example, comparing literacy volunteers with other volunteers (Wymer, 2003), comparing low contributors versus high contributors (Randle & Dolnicar, 2009b) or comparing characteristics of non-volunteers who express interest in volunteering in future (that is, potential volunteers) with people who indicate no interest at all (Randle & Dolnicar, 2015; Randle et al., 2014). The limitation of a *priori* segmentation studies is that they are based on the researcher's subjective judgement as to the splitting criterion that will effectively discriminate between subgroups.

A more sophisticated approach to identifying homogeneous segments within the population is known as a *posteriori* (Mazanec, 2000) or data-driven segmentation (Dolnicar, 2004). This approach utilises statistical techniques to identify the existence of segments which may not have been obvious to researchers prior to conducting the analysis. An example of this type of study is that conducted by Dolnicar and Randle (2007a) as previously described, whereby factor analysis was used to identify segments of volunteers who are similar in terms of the types of organisations they volunteer for. Dolnicar and Randle (2007b) used Australian Bureau of Statistics data to segment volunteers according to motivations for volunteering. Using topology representing networks, six psychographic segments were identified that share

similar combinations of motivations for volunteering. These were the: (1) 'classic' volunteers (helping others, doing something worthwhile, personal satisfaction); (2) 'dedicated' volunteers (motivated by a wide range of factors); (3) 'personally involved' volunteers (know someone in the organisation); (4) 'niche' volunteers (fewer but more specific motivations); (5) 'personal satisfaction' volunteers; and (6) 'altruists' (helping others). Profiling demonstrates that these motivation-based segments are significantly different in terms of their sociodemographic characteristics, which is useful for volunteering organisations aiming to target these segments.

### 2.1.3 Positioning

Market positioning refers to an organisation or offering occupying a distinctive and desirable place in the minds of the target group relative to competing organisations/ offerings (Kotler et al., 2006). A *posteriori* segmentation has also been utilised to provide insight into the structure of the Australian environmental volunteering market with respect to volunteering organisation brand image positioning, competition and market segments (Randle & Dolnicar, 2009c). Key findings of this market structure analysis include that volunteering organisations can have distinct brand images, but not all people perceive an organisation to have the same brand image. Preference for an organisation depends on which type of image it is perceived to have. Significantly, a large proportion of the population (32%) had difficulty identifying the brand images of volunteer organisations, suggesting that organisations that can build distinct and strong brand images are more likely to achieve a competitive advantage in the market. The type of analysis conducted in this study provides organisations with information about how there are currently perceived by the market, which types of brand images are likely to be most preferred by potential volunteers and which types of individuals are most likely to be interested in volunteering for their organisation – information which is invaluable in informing an effective marketing strategy. Findings also reinforce the competitive nature of the volunteering market and offer information about which specific organisations compete with one another in the minds of potential volunteers. A limitation of this type of analysis is that it requires reasonably large sample sizes to perform the necessary

analysis. In addition, this study focused on one type of volunteering (environmental), and so findings are not easily generalisable to other forms of volunteering.

A later study further investigated the notion of brand image by applying a well-known marketing theory (self-congruity theory, Sirgy, 1986) to investigate whether volunteering organisation preference can be predicted in a competitive marketplace based on the degree of match between an individual's self-image and perceived organisational image (Randle & Dolnicar, 2011). An online survey of 1415 Australian adults measured participants' individual self-image in terms of a battery of personality attributes, perceptions of eight volunteering organisations using the same attributes, and preferred volunteering organisation. For volunteering organisations with high levels of awareness and distinct brand images, self-congruity theory held (that is, high similarity was found between individuals and their preferred volunteering organisation compared to other organisations). However, for volunteering organisations with less strong positioning, congruity between self-image and organisation image was not found to be significant. Findings reinforce the importance of volunteering organisations building brand awareness within the market and developing distinct brand images, such that potential volunteers can identify what the organisation stands for and assess the extent to which they perceive a match between themselves and the organisation.

The studies outlined above illustrate that, increasingly, marketing concepts such as competition, segmentation and positioning (for example, through brand image) are being applied in the volunteering sector. The potential benefits to organisations operating in increasingly competitive environments are also becoming more apparent. Some studies conducted at the population level can provide volunteering organisations with valuable insight into the general structure of the volunteering market; for example, segments of individuals who volunteer for similar type of organisations (Dolnicar & Randle, 2007a) or major market segments that share similar motivations for volunteering (Dolnicar & Randle, 2007b). In some cases, however, the value of this type of analysis is very context specific; for example, analysis of a competitive marketplace may include many competitors in



a metropolitan area, but a limited number of competitors in regional areas. In these cases, customised research and analysis is required to gain the necessary insight to develop specifically tailored marketing strategies that are appropriate in each context.

## 2.2 The marketing mix

The development of social marketing strategies requires consideration of the four Ps of marketing: product, price, place and promotion – also known as the ‘marketing mix’. To identify the extent to which each of these areas has been the subject of research in the context of volunteering, the following sections summarise recent literature to illuminate the current knowledge base.

### 2.2.1 Product

In social marketing, the ‘product’ can have multiple components (Lee & Kotler, 2016), which for volunteering may include the nature of the volunteering experience being offered and the benefits associated with volunteering. The research reviewed highlights the fact that different segments of the population volunteer for different reasons, and that, depending on their personal and social circumstances, they want different volunteering experiences. Traditionally, volunteer organisations had a ‘one size fits all’ mentality towards volunteers, whereby set roles required volunteers and individuals were sought to fill them. More recently, volunteer organisations have come to recognise the value of effectively matching volunteer needs with the roles available, and so have developed a more flexible attitude towards the types and range of roles offered.

For example, the research reviewed reveals that younger people are particularly motivated to volunteer in roles that will enhance their job opportunities and career prospects (for example, Grönlund et al., 2011) and that allow them to socialise with their friends (Francis, 2011). They are also interested in roles that are not too time consuming, and that do not incur high financial costs or take time away from paid employment (Nicol, 2012). Nicol (2012) suggests that volunteering opportunities designed for young people should offer flexibility around their other priorities, provide

visible outcomes, include activity-based volunteering and attempts should be made to demonstrate an interest in the lives of the young people who volunteer.

On the other hand, grey nomads are not time poor per se, but are time poor in each location they visit. Therefore, short-term volunteer activities that help the local community and enable them to use their skills are appealing to this group (Leonard & Onyx, 2009). Other research of female grey nomads found they volunteer at large-scale cultural events because they are looking for roles that enable them to socialise, gain a feeling of security associated with being part of a group and gain privileges associated with being an ‘insider’ at events (Campbell, 2009).

Other examples have been given of groups that prefer different and specific types of volunteer experiences. ‘Episodic’ volunteers are attracted to roles that are flexible and not too demanding and do not impede on their lifestyle (Holmes, 2014); whereas research suggests that people who are unemployed and people with disabilities may be interested in roles that develop skills and create pathways to paid employment (Randle & Rintoul, 2013). Differences have also been reported between people from different cultural backgrounds in terms of what they are looking for in a volunteering experience (Grönlund et al., 2011; Randle & Dolnicar, 2009a), which suggests that roles could be customised to cater for different cultural groups.

Following their review of available literature, Smith and Cordery (2010) also recognise that offering high quality volunteer experiences necessarily involves good volunteer management practices at the organisational level. They suggest that this includes having effective processes for recruitment and screening, providing orientation and training programs for volunteers, actively communicating with volunteers, having formalised policies and procedures, processes for risk management and recognition of volunteers.

The research that has been conducted in relation to the ‘product’ of volunteering highlights the differences between segments of the population in terms of the types

of volunteering roles likely to appeal to them. Volunteer organisations need not only to have good knowledge of the types of volunteer roles they have and which types of people are likely to be interested in them, but also what their key target segments are and what types of roles appeal to them. Once a good match has been identified between the available volunteers and available roles, managers can consider how to communicate this potential match to the target group effectively.

### 2.2.2 Price

In social marketing, price is the cost associated with performing a desired behaviour (Lee & Kotler, 2016). In the context of volunteering, this can include the time cost of volunteering, the opportunity cost in terms of the other activities that could be performed instead of volunteering (for example, other leisure activities, time with family/friends or paid work), the physical, psychological or emotional cost of performing certain types of volunteer roles, or actual monetary costs of involvement (for example, transport costs). Particularly relevant to this aspect of a social marketing strategy is having an understanding of the barriers that prevent people from volunteering and implementing strategies that effectively overcome these barriers.

One of the most consistently identified barriers to participation in volunteering activities is the time cost. For others, time is not a barrier because they are not time poor. For these people, volunteering can form an important part of their social life, and so they may prefer to have regular involvement and a more significant contribution of time.

However, for many of the groups, including young people and people who are employed full time, time is a key barrier because of a perception that all volunteering activities have a significant time cost associated with them. To reduce this barrier, groups for which time is a high cost need to be informed about volunteering opportunities that require less time; for example, episodic volunteering opportunities, volunteering that can be done from home and/or in a flexible timeframe, or activities requiring only a small amount of time on a regular basis.

Associated with this cost is the opportunity cost of engaging in other leisure activities or spending time with family and friends. Reducing these costs would involve creating opportunities for volunteers to achieve these objectives while volunteering. For example, parents concerned about spending time with their families and children could be targeted for participation in family-friendly volunteering activities (such as Clean Up Australia Day), in which the volunteering can be performed while also spending time with family. Similarly, young people who see a cost of spending time with their peer group could be targeted for volunteering roles that include others of a similar age, either by encouraging groups of friends to get involved together (for example, outdoor or recreational roles), or encouraging people to come along and meet new people their own age (for example, common interest groups such as surf clubs or church groups). This is reinforced by Francis (2011), who recommends that marketing to young people should emphasise volunteering as a social activity to be performed with friends.

For other groups, financial costs are a barrier, particularly for young people who are more likely to be students or older people who are more likely to be retired from paid employment (Leonard & Onyx, 2009). Reducing the costs associated with volunteering for these groups involves understanding the financial costs associated with different volunteering roles and compensating volunteers accordingly. This could be in the form of financial reimbursement or providing other supports which reduce costs incurred by the individual (for example, offering free transport).

### 2.2.3 Place

In social marketing, ‘place’ refers to where and when the target audience will perform the desired behaviour (Lee & Kotler, 2016), which, in the context of volunteering, includes gaining information about, and access to, appropriate volunteering opportunities. The notion of place refers to whether individuals can easily find opportunities to volunteer once they have made the decision to do so, or if there are barriers that make it more difficult to find these opportunities.



Focus groups conducted with adults in the UK by Gaskin (2003) reveal that many potential volunteers feel impeded by the lack of information and clear access points to lead to fulfilling volunteering roles. This suggests a need to provide a central point of contact for volunteering information and opportunities as they arise; however, it is unclear what form this kind of central contact point should take in order to maximise effectiveness. For example, the idea of a 'volunteer bureau' was not popular among focus group participants, because it sounded overly formal and old-fashioned. Gaskin recommends that marketing approaches should be supported with multiple and visible access points for those wanting to volunteer, which should be both tangible (for example, a community centre) and online. Young people were particularly interested in accessing this type of information online through the internet.

Not knowing what volunteering opportunities are available is a sentiment echoed in numerous subsequent studies. For example, a study by Hutin (2008) found that 56 per cent of young people felt they had a lack of information and knowledge regarding volunteering, and did not know how to find out about volunteer opportunities. This finding is reinforced by Hill et al. (2009), who found that a key barrier to involvement in volunteering for young people was a lack of knowledge about how to get involved, and that greater provision of information about volunteering targeted at young people is necessary to tap into this market. Nicol (2012) recommends that volunteering organisations should be open to looking at new ways of communicating and engaging with young people, which includes utilising technology and harnessing the power of social media. This issue has also been identified in studies involving older people, who cite a lack of information about volunteering opportunities as a reason for not becoming involved (Bushway et al., 2011).

In another UK study conducted by Smith and Gay (2005), older volunteers suggested that many people were unaware of how rewarding volunteering can be, and that they had encountered the 'why do something for nothing' argument from friends and/or family (see 1.1.2). Participants suggested that increasing awareness of how rewarding volunteering can be would go towards

dispelling these misconceptions and increase volunteers. In their systematic review, Smith and Cordery (2010) identify several methods that have proven effective in increasing information about, and access to, volunteering opportunities. These include community education programs designed to build awareness about where to get information and a sense of what is involved, and the use of intermediary organisations, such as local volunteer centres, which can act as a central source of information about opportunities.

Related to the issue of access is the response potential volunteers receive once they express interest in volunteering. A recent report by Volunteering Australia (2016) highlights the fact that volunteer organisations do not respond quickly enough to enquiries about volunteer opportunities or offers to volunteer. Given that Australian social commentators have identified the need to be taken seriously as the number one desire that drives human behaviour (Mackay, 2013), it is perhaps not surprising that if people offer to donate their time they become disappointed if their offer is not taken seriously by at least receiving a prompt response from the organisation (Volunteering Australia, 2016).

#### 2.2.4 Promotion

'Promotion' is defined as persuasive communications implemented in a way that prompt the target audience to take action (Lee & Kotler, 2016). In the context of volunteering, promotion refers to the way in which volunteering (in general) and available volunteering opportunities (more specifically) are communicated to the general population and/or specific target audiences. Within this, numerous decisions have to be made, including the type of message to communicate, how to communicate it and which communication channels to use.

#### Messaging

Generally, the messages communicated regarding a volunteer offering should align with the key motivations and benefits of potential volunteers, as identified through market analysis. Previous research has demonstrated that people have more positive reactions to volunteering

advertisements when they include messages that match their personal motivations for volunteering, as compared to advertisements with messages that do not match their motivations (Clary et al., 1994). The objective is to communicate messages so they are meaningful to the target audience and motivate them to take action.

The extent to which people are open to calls to action about volunteering depends somewhat on their underlying beliefs about the notion of volunteering and the extent to which they perceive it positively (Gaskin, 2003). With growing recognition of the importance of brand image and the power of brands in communicating values and meaning in the non-profit sector, research attention has turned to the issue of the image of volunteering as a generic concept. For example, Hankinson and Rochester (2005) examined image perceptions of volunteering in general with a view to determining how volunteering could be branded. Interviews were conducted with nine senior managers of volunteering organisations and volunteers from four different organisations in the UK. Hankinson and Rochester (2005) identified three features of volunteering as a generic concept: (1) a social purpose; (2) providing benefits to the volunteer; and (3) nature of the activity (including range of opportunities and flexibility of engagement). More specifically, the positive aspects of this generic concept were identified as helping others, shaping communities that benefit everyone, acquiring new skills, giving time freely/out of choice, working flexibly, meeting new people and having a diverse range of opportunities available. Negative aspects included being low status and volunteers being perceived as 'do-gooders'.

Recommendations include that the national volunteering body (Volunteering England) take responsibility for leading the overall brand development strategy based on the key messages identified, that different types of volunteering be developed as sub-brands, the brand development process be inclusive of all key stakeholders, a visual identity be developed to reflect the brand appropriately, staff training and communication programs be implemented to ensure clear and consistent delivery of the brand, and consideration given to the inclusion of celebrity champions for the volunteering brand (Hankinson & Rochester, 2005). This reinforces some of the earlier work of Gaskin (2003),

which acknowledges that the image of volunteering included some negative aspects, such as the perception that volunteers are overworked (Gaskin, 2003). However, Gaskin also emphasises the value of including younger people in promotions to present a more modernised brand image of volunteering, as well as a variety of types of people in communications to promote inclusion.

Other researchers have focused on optimal messages for targeting specific segments of the population, such as young people. For example, Clary et al. (1994) conducted experimental research using a sample of 82 college students in the US, who viewed and evaluated several different (hypothetical) volunteering campaign advertisements. Participants were shown four volunteering marketing messages (full-page print advertisements) which varied according to two factors: strategy of argument (messaging focused on reasons to volunteer versus countering barriers to volunteering) and nature of reasons to volunteer (focus on abstract versus concrete reasons to volunteer). The text included in these full-page advertisements is presented in Appendix B. An interaction between the strategy of the argument and reasons for volunteering was observed. When the argument was focused on reasons to volunteer (rather than countering reasons to not volunteer), concrete messages (for example, meeting friends, learning new things) were favoured by participants. When a 'countering' argument was made, abstract messages (for example, civic duty, helping people) were preferred. While concrete reasons for volunteering were judged as more effective for recruiting volunteers, abstract reasons were thought to be more effective for retaining existing volunteers. Thus, framing messages so that tangible reasons and benefits are highlighted may improve recruitment of (young) volunteers.

This research is notable because it is one of the few to test different volunteering advertising messages experimentally; however, the age of the study (22 years) should be considered when interpreting results in the context of contemporary Australian society. In addition, the university student sample means that the extent to which results can be generalised to the population as a whole is unclear.



Based on findings from a quantitative study of university students, Shields (2009) suggests that effective advertising for young adults includes messages related to both altruism and personal development. She provides evidence that the young adult market is multidimensional, and thus requires a variety of different appeals in order to increase persuasive power. Applying Callow's (2004) theoretical model of motivations for volunteering, Shields (2009) shows that the humanitarian/social model of message appeal is translatable to young people. Further, low humanitarian, low social messaging (personal development, for example, 'having the opportunity to enhance my personal and professional skills by volunteering at a non-profit organisation') and high humanitarian, high social messaging (social skill, for example, 'having the opportunity to interact with staff and befriend other volunteers') were the most popular among young people. This indicates that segmentation of older and younger people using this framework may help inform targeted communications, and that egoistic messages tended to be more popular among college students than altruistic ones.

Older volunteers have also acknowledged the importance of promoting volunteering within the community. UK research conducted by Smith and Gay (2005) examined detailed case studies of 11 organisations that engage older volunteers, and conducted interviews with 21 volunteers drawn from the case study organisations and 12 national stakeholders with an interest in older volunteering. Older people reported a perceived image problem with volunteering, and argued that it should be promoted more actively through advertising and public relations campaigns, focusing on volunteering being an enjoyable activity and emphasising the quality of the challenges and jobs available.

Minority cultural groups may also benefit from different types of promotional messages. Machin's (2005) review of the literature suggests that promotions should be specifically targeted towards minority cultural groups, and care should be taken to ensure language is culturally appropriate and not alienating. This notion has since been supported by Australian research, which suggests that by understanding the volunteering motivations of specific

cultural groups, promotional messages can be tailored to address their specific motivations and barriers in a way that is culturally appropriate, and which improves the effectiveness of marketing efforts (Randle & Dolnicar, 2009a; Randle & Dolnicar, 2012).

### **Creative strategy**

Once the key message has been chosen, the appropriate creative strategy must also be determined. A limited number of studies have focused on this issue and these are summarised in this section. Lindenmeier (2008) tested the creative design of print advertisements to assess the roles of self-efficacy, advertisement-induced emotional arousal, perceived time cost of volunteering and message framing on willingness to volunteer. Two 2 × 2 factorial experiments were conducted with a total of 262 university students in south-western Germany. The conditions manipulated in the advertisements included:

#### Experiment 1

- Self-efficacy: ability to help one child (low) versus five children (high)
- Message framing: by volunteering children will learn to read (positive) versus by not volunteering children will not learn to read (negative)

#### Experiment 2

- Advertisement-induced arousal: stylised person reading together with a neutral slogan 'Better reading, better writing' (low arousal) versus crying children together with an emotional slogan 'Illiteracy equals poverty!' (high arousal)
- Time cost of volunteering: 1 hour per week (low) versus 3 hours per week (high).

Key findings from Experiment 1 include that for low self-efficacy conditions, positively framed messages increased willingness to volunteer, whereas for high self-efficacy conditions, positive framing actually reduced willingness to volunteer. Key findings from Experiment 2 included that for the high arousal condition the time commitment required had no impact on students' intention to volunteer (which was relatively high); however, when arousal was low, high time commitment significantly

reduced willingness to volunteer. Results also show some gender specific differences to the advertisements, with Experiment 1 showing that changes to self-efficacy messaging had no impact on women's willingness to volunteer, but the low self-efficacy condition significantly decreased men's willingness to volunteer. Results from Experiment 2 indicated that differences in the level of advertisement-induced arousal had less effect on women than it did on men, with significant decreases in men's willingness to volunteer when arousal levels were low. These findings highlight differences in how volunteering advertisements are perceived by male and female viewers and the impact this has on stated willingness to volunteer. They suggest that males need to feel that through volunteering they will be able to make a tangible difference, and that the message needs to convey a sense of urgency.

Key recommendations suggested by the author include that self-efficacy should not be emphasised in conjunction with positive (gain) frames; however, self-efficacy can effectively be emphasised in conjunction with negative (loss) frames. Further recommendations relate to whether campaigns are targeted at males or females, including that messages targeting men should include high levels of advertisement-induced arousal because of the impact this has on lowering the perceived time costs of volunteering. Conversely, print advertisements are suggested to have less impact on female audiences, and that other mechanisms such as informative communications strategies may be more effective in reaching this group.

The dependent variable in this study was self-reported willingness to volunteer (intention); however, questions have been raised regarding the correlation between intention and actual behaviour, with meta-analysis showing medium-to-large changes in intention leading to only small-to-medium changes in behaviour (Webb & Sheeran, 2006). The author notes that the particular voluntary task that is the focus of this study (coaching of children) may be subject to gender-specific effects, with this type of role being more preferred by females. This is supported by other research which shows that women are more likely than men to prefer roles that involve helping other people (Dunn et al., 2016).

The use of celebrities to increase the appeal of particular volunteering opportunities has also been recommended to boost the profile of volunteering among young people. However, evidence for the effectiveness of this celebrity endorsement has not yet been provided (Hill et al., 2009).

Nyahunzvi (2013) provides an analysis of the creative strategies used by ten Zimbabwean websites that provide a profile of volunteer organisations and volunteer tourism experiences. Organisation and 'voluntourists' narratives on the websites were examined with content analysis used to describe and identify patterns. Voluntourism was presented as benefiting volunteers themselves, poor communities, the environment and wildlife. Hyperboles, emotive, romantic and attention grabbing language were used to market volunteer experiences. Phrases such as 'make a real difference in just two weeks' and 'fall in love with all Zimbabwe has to offer' were utilised. Testimonials were used by some organisations to entice potential volunteers and were thought to be a useful and cost-effective tool particularly in challenging stereotypical views of the destinations. Two websites offered a multilingual website to attract international voluntourists. The limitations of this study include the small sample size, the focus on voluntourists exclusively and the inability to determine the effect of the marketing strategies on future volunteering behaviours. Examples of similar kinds of messages taken from voluntourism websites are included as part of Appendix A.

### **Communication channels**

Once key messages and creative strategies have been determined, the most effective channels for communicating the message to target groups must be decided. On the basis of literature synthesis and focus group data, Gaskin (2003) identifies that one of the most important channels of recruiting volunteers was through word of mouth, particularly for older volunteers. This finding has been repeatedly reinforced by others, including Hill et al. (2009), who found word of mouth as a powerful tool for recruiting younger volunteers, because they tended to prefer face-to-face methods of recruitment. For this reason, peer advocacy programs were recommended to improve the image of volunteering and engage young people with the ideals of volunteering and



the volunteer organisations themselves. These findings were recently reinforced by a Volunteering Australia report (2016) which supported word of mouth as the most effective recruitment strategy across all age groups.

Smith and Gay (2005) also highlight word of mouth as one of the most effective means of engaging older volunteers. Managers of older volunteer programs also reported building relationships with local media who were sympathetic to their cause, and would run human stories to appeal for volunteers. Other communication channels reported as effective for older volunteers included placing advertisements in newsletters and communications which are periodically sent out by employers in large distributions (for example, local hospitals or authorities). Volunteer managers agreed that targeted recruitment strategies tended to receive a much better response than broad-brush, community-wide approaches.

Participants in the Gaskin (2003) study also recognised the value of advertisements in reminding them about the importance of continuing to volunteer. Recommendations included using innovative communications approaches (for example, combining leaflets, posters and other advertising materials with outreach visits, talks and presence at public events and so on). Further, were: active promotion of volunteering databases or websites (or development of these); promotion of volunteering opportunities in schools, workplaces and retirement homes; and encouraging current volunteers to act as champions for volunteering by ‘spreading the word’ among their family and friends. Although Gaskin’s research included participants who were all volunteers themselves and so the views of non-volunteers were not represented, findings do highlight the fact that current volunteers also notice promotional efforts and these keep their own volunteering commitments top of mind.

In a comprehensive review of media and volunteering, Machin (2005) argues that the power of the media to influence volunteering has not been sufficiently researched, but may be harnessed to improve the image of volunteering. She notes previous research suggesting that traditional media advertising does have

an impact on recruitment of volunteers; however, this impact is outweighed by other methods of recruitment, particularly word of mouth. Machin (2005) recommends that volunteering opportunities should be marketed on the radio and television, citing research to suggest that young people may be more receptive to campaigns utilising these communication channels.

Roker and Eden (2002) produced results indicating that poster and pamphlets were effective with young people who are ‘proactive’ in seeking information about volunteering. They conducted a longitudinal (one-year) study of 74 young people (aged 12 to 27 years) in the UK and measured their involvement in social action groups. Results indicate that most young people found out about getting involved in the groups via posters, advertisements and flyers. The authors recommend that, for particular types of volunteer opportunities such as social action groups, there may be benefits to using posters and flyers as communication channels. Contrarily, following a summative review of research, Hill et al. (2009) conclude that posters and pamphlets are limited in their effectiveness for recruiting younger volunteers, with only 13 per cent of young people accessing volunteering information via this mechanism. While perhaps not highly effective in their own right, Hill et al. (2009) argue that posters and pamphlets may still be effective as part of a wider marketing strategy, particularly if they are well targeted. These forms of traditional advertising have been argued as being useful for raising awareness of opportunities, and supporting other contact modalities, like word of mouth and educational networks (Hill et al., 2009).

Schools and universities were also cited as a valuable avenue for recruitment, because development of a culture of volunteering within these institutions was expected to foster greater commitment to these ideals in later life. In particular, encouraging and supporting volunteering efforts, rather than mandating them, was thought to increase future volunteering (Hill et al., 2009).

Following their literature review, Smith and Cordery (2010) provide several recommendations regarding use of communications channels for volunteer marketing communications, including:

- using direct approaches; for example, personally inviting someone to volunteer
- using word of mouth by ‘like-minded people’ as a communication modality
- use of traditional advertising, but taking care to target messages appropriately taking into consideration the type of the organisation, and age and other relevant sociodemographic characteristics of the target group
- communicating through channels connected to existing membership bases within the organisation
- in the case of sporting organisations, directly targeting those who are already active participants in that sport or event.

The studies reviewed in this section provide evidence for the fact that marketing concepts are being applied

effectively to gain insight in to the volunteering marketplace and volunteering behaviour. However, it is also evident (particularly in the case of the marketing mix) that the results of these studies, which collectively provide significant insight to inform sophisticated marketing strategies, often do so inadvertently, rather than being deliberately designed with the aim of doing so. That is, they mostly approach the research from a non-profit or social perspective and seek to understand volunteering behaviour in a generic sense, rather than systematically designing studies that apply marketing and consumer behaviour theory with a view to developing more holistic and effective strategic marketing campaigns. Future marketing-related studies could take such an approach during the design of the research to provide more comprehensive insight to inform future social marketing initiatives.

Managers of older volunteer programs also reported building relationships with local media who were sympathetic to their cause, and would run human stories to appeal for volunteers.







### 3. The effectiveness of social marketing campaigns aiming to recruit volunteers

While marketing campaigns aimed at increasing the number of volunteers have been undertaken by a variety of organisations across the volunteering sector, very few that systematically evaluated marketing campaigns aimed at recruitment of volunteers were identified in this review. Those that were identified are described and discussed in the following section. Where available, examples of materials from these campaigns are provided in Appendix B.

No marketing campaigns could be identified addressing retention of volunteers. It is possible, however, that effective recruitment marketing messages serve the dual function of recruiting new volunteers as well as encouraging experienced volunteers to continue their work, and recognise the value and impact of it. In this way, effective marketing may increase retention rates. This possibility remains an important topic for future research.

#### 3.1 Evidence for effectiveness

##### *Volunteer Scotland 2006 (Scotland)*

The Scottish Executive (2006) provides a formal evaluation of a national social marketing campaign aimed at increasing awareness of volunteering in Scotland, including the associated benefits and how to get involved. The campaign targeted people aged over 25 years in lower socioeconomic groups (ranging from skilled working class to non-working). It included advertisements on national radio stations as well as print advertisements in selected regional and national newspapers, and ran for three weeks in January 2006. The advertisements were aimed at promoting awareness of local volunteer centres as a central point of contact for all volunteering information, and an example of the print advertising is included in Appendix A.

The evaluation aimed to measure awareness (prompted and unprompted) of the campaign and general attitudes toward volunteering among the target group (adults aged over 25 years in lower socioeconomic groups) by conducting 498 in-home interviews (conducted in the month following the campaign). Results suggested that the advertising was 'relatively effective' in reaching the target group, with seven per cent demonstrating spontaneous awareness of the advertising and rates rising to 19 per cent when prompted. While awareness of the campaign was modest, recall of key campaign messages was poor. Approximately half of the seven per cent of participants who could spontaneously recall the campaign could also recall core messages, and over one-third of this group could not recall any messages. Only three per cent of participants showed spontaneous awareness of local volunteer centres as sources of information, and over half of all participants reported not knowing where to go for

information on volunteering. Once prompted, awareness of volunteer centres rose to 18 per cent; however, the authors concluded that the campaign was not effective in increasing awareness of the centres.

Overall, this evaluation found moderate to low effectiveness of a national print and radio campaign; however, importantly, no pre-testing of the target demographic was conducted, so significant effects in terms of potential changes in awareness or attitudes resulting from the campaign could not be measured.

Machin (2005) provides details of 11 local and national campaigns targeting volunteers. Most were UK national and local campaigns, conducted between 2000 and 2005. A brief description of the evaluated national campaigns (six campaigns) is included below, and campaign materials that could be sourced online is included in Appendix B. While the evaluation and message components of these campaigns may not have always been reported, they still hold relevance for future marketing campaigns aimed at recruiting and retaining volunteers.

##### *Year of the Volunteer (UK)*

The Year of the Volunteer media campaign ran between January and June 2005, and at that point had increased registrations to national volunteer organisation 'TimeBank' by 24,500 people. The campaign involved television, radio, national and local newspaper, magazine and bus advertisements, and was found to be particularly successful in reaching young people (60% of all registrations were from people aged under 35 years) and black and ethnic minority communities (21% of registrations). Because this evaluation research remains unpublished, and advertising materials are not available online, further details about reasons for efficacy of the marketing campaign cannot be ascertained.

##### *Volunteers Week (UK)*

Volunteers week was a national initiative running for a week in June in both 2004 and 2005. Promotion and news coverage were fundamental to raising awareness of the work of volunteers and increasing the profile of volunteering more generally. In 2004, young people were



specifically targeted, and celebrity endorsement was utilised as part of the campaign. Within this one week period, TimeBank reported over 2000 registrations in both 2004 and 2005 (much higher than an average week), with minority groups and young people again receiving greater representation – 40 per cent of newly registered people were under 35 years, 6.5 per cent were from black and ethnic minority communities and seven per cent of newly registered people had a disability. Modes of communicating the message included television (short films about volunteering shown on the news and specific channels), radio, national and local newspapers and a website (Machin, 2005). Thus, this campaign appeared to be effective in increasing volunteer registrations, particular for young people. Importantly, celebrity endorsement was utilised and appeared to be effective; but again, more detailed data is not available, so isolation of the particular factors relating the efficacy is not possible.

#### ***Special Constables (England and Wales)***

Potential volunteers for the Home Office's 'Special Constables' program were targeted in a social marketing campaign in England and Wales between February and March 2005. A range of media channels was used, including television, radio and national and local newspapers. The campaign had multiple aims, including to increase awareness of special constables, increase the number of applications received, increase respect for constables and raise awareness of the Year of the Volunteer (described above). The number of calls to the recruitment line and number of people requesting application forms were used as outcome measures. Data indicate that calls to the phone line almost doubled (from 355 on average per week prior to the campaign to 616 during the campaign), as well as a significant increase in requests for application packs (from 145 requests per week pre-campaign to 395 during the campaign). Although the number of special constables actually recruited was not reported, visits to the Year of the Volunteer website increased threefold during the campaign. Evaluation reports indicated that the television advertising component of the campaign was the most influential factor, because it continued to have an effect after the radio and print advertisements had ceased.

While material from the 2005 iteration of this campaign could not be located online, examples of campaign materials that relate to the UK Special Constables program are included in Appendix B. In 2005, the campaign was intentionally targeted at young adults, and this demographic was found to be particularly responsive, with approximately 80 per cent of those calling the recruitment line aged 18 to 34. Almost 20 per cent of callers were from culturally diverse populations, particularly Indian and Pakistani backgrounds, which were other target groups for the campaign. Images from this campaign (see Appendix B) clearly illustrate and emphasise diversity. The image included in Appendix B also appeals to self-enhancement with the tagline 'We're looking for someone special'.

The 2004 version of the campaign was evaluated by the Home Office, which found that 83 per cent of the sample (total n = 791) recalled seeing the campaign when shown an advertisement (prompted recall). Television advertisements were most commonly recalled (by 70% of respondents); radio advertisements were recognised by 40 per cent of participants; press advertisements having slightly lower levels of penetration (36%); and internet methods had the least recognition (Machin, 2005).

This campaign appears to be successful in motivating young and ethnic minority groups to take action towards volunteering for this cause. Interestingly for these groups, television was the most effective medium in increasing awareness of the volunteering opportunity, while the internet was the least effective (Machin, 2005). It is possible that these 2003–05 results may differ from any obtained in the present day, where the internet and social media are used far more commonly for marketing purposes. However, these results speak to the power of mass media such as television in effectively raising awareness of volunteering opportunities and prompting people to take action.

#### ***Make a Difference Day (UK)***

The 2004 version of this campaign (which began in 1994) aimed to increase awareness of and interest in volunteering and attract more new volunteers. Again, television, local and national newspaper advertisements,

and radio advertisements were all used to promote the day. It was estimated that in 2004 the Community Service Volunteers (CSV) Make a Difference Day campaign resulted in 90,000 people volunteering on the day, and through extensive media coverage (estimated to be valued at £2 million) reached an audience of around 187 million people. As these data were obtained from a Community Service Volunteers internal report, comment regarding the rigour of the evaluation cannot be made. However, based on the available information, the campaign appears to have been successful in recruiting a large number of UK participants in an episodic volunteer capacity (Machin, 2005).

#### ***International Year of the Volunteer (Brazil)***

This national campaign was rolled out between January and October 2001 in Brazil, and aimed to increase awareness and involvement in volunteering. It included extensive coverage of numerous media channels, including television, radio and newspaper advertisements, and more innovative methods, such as incorporating volunteering storylines into soap operas (also known as 'product placement' in marketing). Evaluations suggest that television played a large part in the success of the initiative, with the focus on volunteering in storylines of television shows, interviews about volunteering with celebrities and testimonies of volunteers thought to have contributed to this. The evaluation estimated that around 30,000 people called the volunteering line to express interest in volunteering as a result of the campaign; however, other metrics related to campaign success were not available (Machin, 2005).

#### ***Give Five (US)***

The Give Five campaign was a comprehensive media and advertising campaign (billboards, television, radio, press) launched across the US in the late 1980s. It utilised 'goals' based advertising and asked the US population to donate five per cent of their income to worthy causes and five hours per week to volunteering. National surveys did not find a significant increase in volunteering activity following the campaign; however, some local areas experienced an increase in volunteering (for example, in San Francisco volunteering activity increased by 12%),

which was thought to be attributable to support from local coalitions. Evaluations identified that audiences found the campaign to be dictatorial, and this is likely to have reduced motivation to comply. For this reason, it was recommended that campaigns focus on being motivational and positive in nature (Machin, 2005).

Yörük (2012) evaluated the Give Five campaign using household surveys from 1988 to 1996. These surveys included questions about volunteering and were delivered face to face, twice per year across the US with a total of 8851 households taking part. Analysis of this nationally representative data set indicates that overall, the Give Five campaign was not associated with significant increases in charitable giving patterns. However, participants who had heard about the campaign showed a slight increase in the amount of time they volunteered per week, volunteering approximately 20 minutes more on average than those who had not seen the campaign. This was thought to equate to a 20 per cent improvement in volunteering among those who were exposed to the campaign. While this trend seemed promising, Yörük (2012) notes problems with comparing this and other volunteering campaigns, including the lack of evaluation studies and the lack of data collected during the campaign period.

Overall, Machin (2005) concludes that media campaigns can indeed be effective in prompting people to take action toward becoming a volunteer (for example, the Special Constables campaign), and that targeted campaigns utilising mass marketing such as television as a communication channel is likely to be most effective in raising awareness and recruitment.

#### ***Program for Marketing Volunteering (Israel)***

One evaluation study conducted in Israel reported significant increases in volunteer numbers as a result of their social marketing campaign. Boehm (2009) initially conducted focus groups (discussed in Section 1.3 of this document) to assess potential market segments and used these to inform the multi-channel marketing campaign. The campaign aimed to increase volunteering across several diverse domains (for example, educational projects, medical volunteering, community work for the environment, repairs and renovations, assistance to



people with disabilities and so on). An additional aim was to raise the profile of volunteering by creating a positive brand image. The 15-month campaign included traditional advertising components (newspapers, radio and direct mailouts), as well as personal communication with volunteer ‘ambassadors’, public relations (for example, a volunteer march to increase visibility: journalists were contacted and used to promote events) and using incentives (for example, young volunteers received discounts/vouchers for local cafés or businesses).

Messages were developed along two motivational lines: altruism and benefits. This resulted in three different positions for advertising which may potentially be used to target different people for different volunteer roles:

1. Focusing strongly on benefits, but including a message appealing to altruism – hypothesised to be effective among those who are in initial stages of being convinced about volunteering, and for organisations which have some sort of prestige or status attached.
2. Focusing strongly on altruism with lower level messages regarding benefit – hypothesised to be especially effective for organisations wanting to recruit volunteers to work with people who are sick or have disabilities.
3. Focusing strongly on both altruism and benefit messages – hypothesised to be broadly applicable to many types of people, and thought to strengthen persistence (possibly encouraging retention of people who already volunteer). Because altruism messages were viewed as a type of benefit, it seemed appropriate to combine, rather than separate, these two dimensions.
4. Including neither benefit nor altruism messages – this was not recommended, and was not included in the campaign.

Boehm (2009) also notes that many different appeals and dimensions were possible, but that care must be taken to limit appeals to one or two component messages, to avoid confusion and distrust within the population. Thus, clear, brief targeted messaging techniques were used, and research on market segments informed careful selection of the message and images used. While further details of messaging were not reported (and images were not provided), the following were features of the campaign:

- positive appeals, including emotional appeals (for example, ‘love thy neighbour as thyself’)
- provision of information to increase knowledge and awareness of volunteering (for example, ‘the meeting points are... at...’; ‘the volunteering campaign has begun’)
- calls to actions (for example, ‘don’t stay on the sidelines, start volunteering today’)
- do’s and don’ts (for example, ‘lend a hand to the elderly’)
- customised message length, with shorter messages deemed more appropriate for radio and longer messages used in print media and as part of the personal communication component of the campaign.

The evaluation of this campaign indicates that it was highly successful in recruiting new volunteers, with numbers increasing 61 per cent across all volunteer roles/sectors in the local area covered by the campaign. Some sectors particularly benefited from the campaign, with a 100 per cent increase in volunteers serving food to people experiencing disadvantage, an 84 per cent increase in volunteers assisting the elderly and 89 per cent increase in volunteering to support people with disabilities. The authors attribute the success of the campaign to:

- differentiation of messaging for different target groups
- a focus on attitude change first (followed by calls for action), particularly among people who are resistant to the ideals of volunteering
- positioning volunteering as a worthwhile and rewarding activity (while not ‘cluttering’ the message with too many elements/arguments)
- addressing the costs of volunteering, and incentivising it
- inclusion of direct personal communication as part of the strategy.

This research was based on a local initiative in Israel, and it may be that various cultural differences limit the generalisability of findings to Australia. However, results of this evaluation provide support for other research in terms of the factors common to particularly successful volunteering marketing campaigns, such as using segmentation to identify target groups, and developing clear, simple, customised messages that are

used alongside personal modes of communication (for example, use of ambassadors).

### **Baltimore Experience Corps Trial (US)**

US research by Tan et al. (2010) examined a social marketing intervention aimed at recruiting older adult volunteers to deliver a school-based program designed to increase healthy behaviours of children. Instead of relying on appeals based on the health benefits of volunteering for older adults (for example, increases in physical activity), this campaign appealed to ‘generativity’ – the notion that one can make a difference by helping the next generation. In addition to testing messages based on the idea of generativity, this research examined motivations for volunteering among those who were successfully recruited. Of 368 eligible older adults who enquired about becoming volunteers, a total of 155 were successfully recruited in the first year of the four-year project. It was thought that the focus on generativity would be effective in attracting ‘natural helpers’, or people to whom others naturally turn for assistance and support. Communication messages around generativity were selected with the primary promotional messages, including: ‘Share your wisdom’ and ‘Do you want to make a difference?’. Campaign images featured older adults undertaking intergenerational activities in schools.

Traditional media, such as local television and radio advertisements, were utilised, as were more targeted media channels, such as church bulletins, community outreach talks and word of mouth. The program was relatively time intensive, requiring 15 hours of volunteer activities per week, which limited volunteers to individuals who had this amount of time available. All participants were aged 60 years or older, and a five-step recruitment process (beginning at initial contact) was implemented. Analyses reveal that 63 per cent of those who made initial contact (n = 368) were motivated by altruism (‘helping others’) and 71 per cent felt it was a ‘worthwhile cause’ or part of their ‘civic duty’ to help. Approximately one-third of respondents reported more egoistic motivations (‘it’s good for me’), so in this case, it seems that appeals to generativity were somewhat successful in attracting a cohort of people with altruistic motives. Those who were recruited cited word of mouth most frequently as the source of information about the volunteering opportunity, with radio advertisements the second most influential. While this research indicates positive results obtained from a social marketing campaign to recruit volunteers, it was only in preliminary stages at the time of reporting, and so had not yet undergone more stringent outcome evaluation.







“Just under one-third of people aged 15 and over reporting having volunteered in the past year...

(Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015)

## 4. Discussion and recommendations

This rapid review provides insights into the recruitment and retention of volunteers, and in particular, the use of marketing concepts to achieve these goals. Evidence relating to motivations, benefits, facilitators and barriers to volunteering can be used to augment data from previous social marketing campaigns and inform future campaigns. A summary and discussion of findings of the rapid review, as well as evidence-based recommendations are provided in this section.

### 4.1 Attitudes and participation

In Australia, volunteering is generally viewed positively by the population (Volunteering Australia, 2016), with just under one-third of people aged 15 and over reporting having volunteered in the past year (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015). The benefits associated with volunteering are wide ranging, and include physical fitness and health (Dunn et al., 2016), mental health benefits (for example, greater subjective wellbeing, self-acceptance, life satisfaction, sense of ‘purpose in life’; Jenkinson et al., 2013; Vecina & Fernando, 2013), social benefits (for example, increased feelings of social connectedness, sense of community and perceived social support; Vecina & Fernando, 2013) and benefits associated with personal development (for example, work-related skills, broadening perspectives; Grönlund et al., 2011; Nicol, 2012). One systematic meta-analysis (Jenkinson et al., 2013) found evidence for an association between volunteering, lower rates of depression and lower mortality overall.

Generally, most volunteers are motivated by the opportunity to do something worthwhile, help others and engage in something that is enjoyable and rewarding. Beyond this, motivations to volunteer tend to vary according to sociodemographic and lifestyle characteristics. For example, women are over-represented in roles related to caring, social welfare and health, while men are more likely to volunteer for roles involving sports and recreation, repair work, maintenance

and gardening (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2010; Dolnicar & Randle, 2007a). Young people are more likely to volunteer in order to improve their work-related skills and career prospects; whereas older people are more likely to want to use the skills already developed during their career and help younger generations. Similar to young people, people who are unemployed and who have disabilities are commonly interested in volunteering in order to gain skills and experience that may lead to paid employment. Differences in motivations have also been identified between people from diverse cultural backgrounds; for example, some groups are interested in roles that allow them to support their own community; whereas others are interested in socialising, meeting new people and broadening their perspective.

Evidence also suggests that volunteering motivations characterise the types of people who perform different roles. While motivations for event-based volunteering (for example, cultural or sporting events) tend to include material benefits and recognition, improved fitness/health, involvement with or love of sport, and social pressure; motivations specific to volunteering at charity events typically include wanting to raise funds for the cause, a personal connection with the cause, and a desire to ‘give back’ or honour the memory of a loved one (Dunn et al., 2016). Marketing of charity volunteering opportunities would therefore be expected to benefit from appeals focusing on compassion and emphasising the personal connection people may have with that particular cause or organisation.

While willingness to volunteer and satisfaction with volunteering among Australians is encouraging (Volunteering Australia, 2016), there are still some negative perceptions associated with volunteering, such as a high level of commitment required, volunteers being overworked and volunteering being the domain of specific sections of the population only, such as older people (Gaskin, 2003). In addition, evidence suggests a general lack of knowledge and awareness regarding the range of volunteering roles available and the varying levels of time and commitment required.



A marketing opportunity exists not only to eliminate misconceptions about volunteering by educating the general population about the variety of opportunities available and wide range of people who participate as volunteers, but also to position volunteering as a fundamental and vitally important part of modern day life in Australia and something that everyone can and should contribute to when they can. This message is likely to resonate with Australians because of their existing self-identity being strongly linked with a fair go, mateship and helping people out (Lentini et al., 2009; Purdie & Wilss, 2007). Within this theme, marketing messages could highlight the way volunteering touches everyone's lives, whether as providers or receivers of volunteer services. For example, on any typical weekend, most Australians would either engage in volunteering activities or come into contact with them in the community (for example, through sporting clubs, community fundraising, sausage sizzles at local shopping centres and so on). Highlighting the way volunteering is interwoven through everyday life supports the notion that everyone gives and everyone receives, and it is important that everyone takes their turn in both roles. At certain stages of life when barriers to participation are high (for example, periods of being time poor), individuals may be more receivers than givers; however, there may be other stages when barriers are lower and people can then have their turn fulfilling the role of giver. Promoting this notion of entering and exiting from the volunteer workforce depending on stage of life may also help to alleviate any guilt people feel for not participating during some stages, but increase the feelings of responsibility to have their turn when they can. Raising the profile of volunteering and building a positive brand image would pave the way for subsequent direct calls to action, which has been an effective strategy in previous social marketing campaigns (for example, Boehm, 2009).

## 4.2 Use of marketing concepts

Marketing strategies have the potential to address barriers and communicate/deliver benefits at all stages of the Volunteer Life Cycle (Bussell & Forbes, 2003). Recognising that increasing numbers of non-profit organisations are competing for limited resources

(including volunteers), researchers have sought to apply marketing concepts, (such as market competition, segmentation and positioning) to gain insight into the volunteering marketplace and volunteering behaviour.

Some of the key insights emerging from this body of research include:

- For some organisations with particular brand images (for example, the 'hero' image), volunteers are unlikely to volunteer for more than one organisation, so these organisations are essentially competing with other similar organisations for volunteers. However, other organisations with different brand images (for example, 'local' or 'saviour' images) are likely to volunteer for more than one organisation, so they are considered compatible. This presents opportunities for cooperative marketing and recruitment activities, and possibly even sharing of volunteers (Randle et al., 2013).
- While the market of volunteers is extremely heterogeneous, segments of the market can be identified that share similar characteristics, and because of this, can potentially be targeted by customised marketing campaigns. This may include obvious grouping criteria such as sociodemographic characteristics (for example, gender, age, cultural background) or life stage/style (for example, parents with children, grey nomads). However, with more sophisticated data analysis, other groups can be identified which may not be immediately apparent, such as those with similar combinations of motivations (Dolnicar & Randle, 2007b) or volunteering behaviour (Dolnicar & Randle, 2007a).
- In markets where multiple volunteer organisations operate, potential volunteers are presented with several volunteering options to consider. Within this set of options, certain volunteering organisations can be perceived as similar to one another, while others are seen as more differentiated. Individuals who volunteer for multiple organisations are likely to choose a set they perceive as similar (Dolnicar & Randle, 2007a), probably because they are seen as interchangeable. By creating differentiated positioning, volunteering organisations can offer a unique experience and reduce the likelihood that

they are viewed as interchangeable with other volunteering organisations or roles. The greater the match (congruence) between an individual's self-image and the organisation's perceived image, the greater that person's preference for the organisation (Randle & Dolnicar, 2011). For volunteering organisations, this information can be used to analyse their own brand image and identify which types of people are most likely to prefer their organisation and should therefore be targeted. In addition, they could identify the type of people they would like to attract and then look to modify their own brand image to match this.

Attention from the marketing discipline extends beyond market structure analysis to include the four Ps of marketing: product, price, place and promotion – which can assist volunteering organisations develop holistic marketing strategies that help to achieve their goals. The research reviewed demonstrates the relevance of these concepts in the context of volunteering, summarised as follows:

- The volunteering 'product' refers to the nature of the experience being offered to potential volunteers, which includes the benefits gained from involvement. Understanding volunteer needs and motivations enables managers to develop experiences and offerings that match these needs, and thus deliver the desired benefits such that volunteers are recruited and remain volunteers for as long as possible. Because motivations and needs of volunteers vary according to market segment, the product offering that would suit these different segments varies also, and should be customised accordingly.
- The 'price' of volunteering refers to the cost of involvement, which can be the time required to volunteer (and the opportunity cost of alternative activities) or financial costs incurred from participation. Often, barriers to participation are closely aligned with these costs, and so volunteering experiences need to be designed in ways that reduce these barriers (for example, creating opportunities for volunteering that require less time, reimbursing volunteers for costs incurred and so on).

- 'Place' refers to the way in which people gain information about, and access to, volunteering opportunities. This has been found to be a key barrier to participation, with many studies reporting that potential volunteers do not know what opportunities are available or where to get more information. If they do express interest, often they do not receive a satisfactory response. Information and access channels available need to be designed such that when people make a decision to volunteer, they can immediately and easily take action toward that end.
- 'Promotion' involves the use of persuasive communications to encourage the target audience to volunteer. This involves communicating key messages, which are most effective when they align with the motivations of the viewing audience (Clary et al., 1994). Given that different segments have varying motivations, messages must be customised to align with those of the target audience. Promotion also involves deciding on an appropriate creative strategy, which may include positive framing, a non-demanding tone and a diverse range of people. Finally, while word of mouth has been consistently shown to be one of the most effective ways of communicating volunteer opportunities, volunteer segments differ in their use of media, and this should be reflected in the promotion strategy (for example, younger people are typically higher users of technology and social media than older people).

## 4.3 Social marketing campaigns

The review identified very few systematically evaluated social marketing campaigns aimed at recruiting volunteers. Evidence provided by an evaluation of the Volunteer Scotland campaign (Scottish Executive, 2006) indicates moderate to low efficacy of a print and radio campaign. However, other campaigns reveal greater success in terms of increased recruitment and also raising awareness of volunteering more generally. For example, the ongoing Year of the Volunteer campaign (UK) and Volunteers Week (UK) took a multi-channel approach which included television, radio, newspapers, a website and other media, and these were particularly



successful in recruiting young people (under 35 years) and people from black and ethnic minority backgrounds (Machin, 2005).

A national recruitment campaign for the Special Constables (England and Wales) was found to be particularly successful in increasing recruitment of volunteers. Evaluation results reveal high recall of the campaign (83%), with television advertisements being the most commonly recalled medium (70%). This campaign appears to be successful in motivating young people and people from Indian and Pakistani backgrounds, which were key target groups for the campaign. In this case, television was the most effective medium to increase awareness of the volunteering opportunity, while the internet was the least effective (Machin, 2005), which suggests that the specific elements of the online campaign (for example, sites targeted, platforms used) were ineffective in reaching the target groups.

Other campaigns have utilised innovative methods to raise the profile of volunteering. For example, Brazil's International Year of the Volunteer Campaign utilised 'product placement' by incorporating volunteer-related storylines into popular television shows and soap operas, alongside celebrity endorsements and testimony. While widely considered to be an effective campaign, formal evaluation data for this campaign is not available (Machin, 2005).

An evaluation of the US Give Five volunteering campaign reveals no significant increases in charitable giving overall but slight increases in the amount of time volunteered for those exposed to the campaign (Machin, 2005; Yörük, 2012). Data suggest that the campaign was perceived to be dictatorial, which led to a reduced motivation to comply, and the authors recommend that future campaigns be framed more positively (Machin, 2005). This notion is reinforced by the evaluation of the Program for Marketing Volunteering campaign in Israel (Boehm, 2009), which partly attributes its success the use of positive emotional appeals. Other aspects of the campaign thought to contribute to its success include the provision of educational information, use of

a clear call to action and customised message length (depending on mode of communication).

Finally, other campaigns provide evidence for the effectiveness of customised messaging; for example, a focus on generativity for appeals to recruit older volunteers (Tan et al., 2010). This program also relied heavily on word of mouth to reach volunteers, and this was reported most frequently as the source of information about the volunteering opportunity.

#### 4.4 Recommendations

Based on the research and evaluations reviewed, evidence-based recommendations for future social marketing campaigns seeking to recruit and retain volunteers include:

1. **Raise the profile and strengthen the overall image of volunteering** by promoting volunteering as a life story, with different roles being played and contributions being made at different stages of life. Position volunteering as an intrinsic part of Australian life, supporting cultural notions of a fair go, mateship and lending a hand. At the overall branding level, key benefits known to resonate across most groups within the population should be emphasised, such as doing something worthwhile, helping others and having an enjoyable and rewarding experience.
2. **Dispel misconceptions about volunteering.** Educating the public about the range of volunteering opportunities and the inclusive nature of volunteering would overcome some of the key barriers to participation. Common misconceptions include that: a high degree of time commitment is required, volunteer roles are inflexible, volunteering involves only giving rather than receiving any personal benefits, and that volunteering is an exclusive activity for some segments of the population only. Key messages should include the wide range of roles available (there are roles for everyone) and emphasise the diversity of volunteers (everyone can play a role).

3. **Encourage volunteer organisations to conduct a comprehensive market analysis** before developing a marketing strategy. This includes understanding the customers (potential volunteers), including who they are, what they want, why they get involved (motivations/benefits), and why they don't (barriers); who/what the competitors are, including other leisure time activities and other volunteering opportunities. This may involve educating volunteer managers on how to conduct such an analysis, including explanations of concepts such as market competition, segmentation and positioning.

4. **Build individual organisation brand images based on selected positioning.** Individual volunteering organisations should be educated about the value of a strong brand image and encouraged to think about their positioning, point of differentiation and how to build and strengthen this positioning in the competitive marketplace. This will increase the chances that the organisation will be 'top of mind' when individuals decide to take action towards volunteering.

5. **Match individual volunteer needs with a suitable 'product' (volunteer role).** This involves recognising that not all volunteers are suitable for all roles, having a flexible approach to the types of roles made available for volunteers, and where possible, customising the experience to match volunteer needs. It also involves understanding the key barriers for the target group; for example, if financial costs are a key barrier to involvement, the experience should ensure that no costs are incurred by volunteers (for example, this could include covering transport or parking costs).

6. **Customise messages for target audiences.** Research shows that the effectiveness of promotional messages depends on the degree to which they match the viewer's personal motivations for volunteering. Customised messages are therefore required for each target segment, which should include:

- a focus on specific motivations of the target group

- being specific about the types of the benefits associated with a particular role (rather than just referring to abstract benefits), including the benefits for the individual and to others (promoting the notion of a win-win situation)
- clearly positioning volunteering as an important and rewarding activity, without 'cluttering' the message with too many elements/arguments.

7. **Design creative strategy to reinforce key messages.** This includes positively framing messages to emphasise the benefits of volunteering and including images of everyday people who are relatable to the viewer as well as well-known identities or celebrities to raise the profile of volunteering. Generally, images should include a broad range of types of individuals from every walk of life to promote the notion of diversity and inclusion in volunteering. However, depending on the organisation, type of volunteering role and target audience, promotions should include images that match the motivations of the target audience. For example, promotions targeting students who are interested in socialising with people similar to themselves should include images of other students; whereas promotions targeting people that wish to meet different types of people and broaden their horizons should include images of a diverse range of people. The tone of the message is also important and should not be too dictatorial, judgemental or demanding.

8. **Customise communication channels for target audiences.** Mass media such as television is an effective way of reaching large numbers of people; however, this medium tends to be expensive and in many cases beyond the budgetary reach of non-profit organisations. It is often more effective to identify the communications channels used by the target group and develop a strategy accordingly. This may include radio stations they are more likely to listen to, magazines or newspapers they are likely to read, websites they are likely to visit or places they are likely to be. For younger people, this may include use of the internet and social media platforms (for example, Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, Instagram),



and for grey nomads, this may be campsites, information centres or local restaurants/café.

#### 9. **Harness the power of word of mouth.**

A communication channel most consistently reported as effective for volunteer recruitment is word of mouth. Developing a strategy to proactively harness the value of this medium could include:

- having existing volunteers tell their own stories (testimonials) to be used in promotional activities (this makes the volunteering experience seem more personal and relatable)
- reminding existing volunteers of the power of word of mouth and utilising peer networks by personally inviting others to volunteer. This can also be combined with mentoring opportunities whereby friends show new volunteers how things are done (this also overcomes barriers associated with lack of confidence)
- peer advocacy programs to improve the image of volunteering and engage others (for example, young people) with the ideals of volunteering and the values of individual volunteer organisations.

#### 10. **Promote volunteering as a means of professional development.**

For some groups in society (for example, younger people, people who are unemployed and people with disabilities), a key motivator for volunteering is the potential to develop new skills and gain experiences that increase their chances of gaining paid employment. However, these groups may not always recognise the potential of volunteering to provide such development. Even for groups for which this is not a key motivator, volunteering could still be a means of professional development or strengthening overall employability through demonstrated community engagement. The specific type of work-related skills highlighted in such promotions should be customised to the particular target group. For example, promotions aimed at university students could focus on gaining practical experience in the specific area of their degree (for example, environmental management); whereas promotions aimed at people who are long-term unemployed may focus on more fundamental

workplace skills (for example, time management, professional relationships and so on).

#### 11. **Improve access to information and volunteering opportunities.**

A lack of understanding about where to find out about volunteering and what opportunities are available is consistently cited as a key barrier to participation. A multi-platform approach is recommended, including an online presence that includes social media. This online presence is generally expected by the public in modern society, as is the presence of effective search engines that refine searches according to relevant criteria (this could include level of time commitment, type of job/nature of work and so on). Additional search criteria could also relate to the type of experience being sought (for example, to learn new skills, meet new people, be outdoors and so on) in order to create the best match between the volunteer and the role. As well as an online presence, access to volunteer opportunities should also include physical locations for those who prefer face-to-face contact (for example, community and information centres or other target group-specific locations such as holiday parks) and phone hotlines for those who prefer to speak to a person. Importantly, the existence of access points need to be communicated to the general population to raise awareness regarding where information can be found, and branding should also be consistent across all access points to reinforce the values and image of volunteering at a conceptual level.

#### 12. **Take enquiries seriously and respond quickly.**

Once potential volunteers have expressed interest in volunteering, it is important that organisations respond quickly, and in a way that shows that the individual's offer is appreciated and being taken seriously. Not responding leaves would-be volunteers feeling unappreciated and disappointed, which influences the likelihood of them considering volunteering again in the future. At the very least, a prompt response to the enquiry should be provided in order to understand the individual's motivation for volunteering and the type of role they are interested in. If nothing suitable is presently available at that

organisation, the potential volunteer should either be directed to a different volunteering opportunity that meets their needs, or a commitment should be made to notify them in the future when a suitable volunteering role is available. Volunteer organisations should be mindful that it is not just formal marketing campaigns that contribute to public perceptions of brand image. Rather, every interaction volunteers have with the organisation and its staff contributes to the image people have of the organisation, and if these experiences are not congruent with the brand image being formally promoted, it undermines and discredits the image being purported by the organisation.

#### 13. **Evaluate social marketing campaigns effectively.**

The impact of the campaign, in terms of identified objectives and the intended target audience, should be evaluated in order to assess its short- and long-term impact on key variables of interest (for example, changes in community perceptions of volunteering, awareness of volunteering opportunities, numbers of volunteers recruited and so on).

Based on the research and campaigns reviewed, and beyond the messages identified as likely to be meaningful to the majority of the population (for example, helping others, having an enjoyable and rewarding experience), recommendations regarding targeting particular groups of the population include:

**14. Targeting people who are younger:** this should include messages related to career enhancement, socialising with other people like themselves, altruistic motivations and a sense of adventure and fun. The volunteering experience should be flexible in terms of time commitment and be workable around other social activities and paid employment, thereby reducing barriers related to time. Costs of involvement should also be minimal, because this group is generally characterised by having lower incomes. Online, social media and mobile communication channels are likely to be most effective in reaching this group.

**15. Targeting people who are older:** this should include messages relating to utilising their skills, the significant contribution that can be made by older people by giving back to improve future generations (generativity) and socialising with either new people or current groups of friends. Matching volunteer work with skills developed during past careers may enhance motivation to take up volunteer roles for retirees, and marketing volunteering opportunities to people who are nearing retirement may encourage them to consider volunteering as part of their retirement plan. Within the population of 'older people', various segments exist which would be suitable for customised messages, including:

- regular volunteers, who are interested in making friends and developing social networks – this group is interested in longer-term relationships and is comfortable with the commitment that comes with more regular and consistent patterns of volunteering
- grey nomads, who are time poor in terms of time per location they visit, but are interested in using their skills and contributing to the local community they are visiting. Shorter-term opportunities are more suitable for this group and should be communicated through tourism-based channels such as information centres at holiday parks.

**16. Targeting people who are unemployed and people with disabilities:** similar to young people, these groups express concern regarding their ability to fulfil a volunteering role (lack of confidence) and are motivated by gaining skills and experience which may lead to paid employment. Experiences that are focused on workplace skill development and that offer mentoring/training to overcome confidence issues would suit these groups. Volunteering roles would also need to be flexible enough to cater for other individual commitments (for example, child care, health-related appointments or job-seeking commitments). Messages that convey success stories of people who have gained employment as a result of volunteering, as well as images focusing on diversity and inclusion of volunteers, would be suitable for targeting these groups.



**17. Targeting episodic volunteers:** messages should focus less on learning skills (learning motivations) and more on ‘doing something worthwhile’ (value motivations). Focus should also be placed on the organisation or cause, because they tend to express passion and pride in this aspect of volunteering. This group is interested in roles that are flexible and optional, so they feel in control and that the opportunity to volunteer will not have too much of an impact on their lifestyle. They are particularly interested in event-based experiences because they can see them through from start to finish and feel as though they have accomplished something. Communicating with this group should be done through mainstream channels and if possible, mass marketing to access the market of people who are not regular volunteers (because they are unlikely to be connected to standard volunteering distribution lists). Information must be easily accessible, because once they hear of volunteering opportunities, they are likely to search for more information themselves, rather than go to a familiar source of volunteering information.

Recommendations specific to retention of volunteers include:

**18. Effective volunteer management practices,** including effective processes for recruiting and screening volunteers, such that they fit in with the current volunteer workforce, providing training and support for new volunteers, providing effective and ongoing communication with current volunteers, having documented policies and procedures that provide structure for the volunteer work environment and effective mechanisms for recognising and rewarding volunteers.

**19. Ongoing assessment of individual volunteer needs** and motivations at all points in the volunteer life cycle. Volunteer motivations and needs can change over time, depending on personal circumstances, life events and volunteering experiences. Continual monitoring enables managers to ensure volunteers continue to perceive benefits from their involvement and, if appropriate, provide

opportunities to modify working arrangements to ensure this is the case. This could also involve providing additional training and development opportunities or changing/advancing the volunteer roles in recognition of their contribution and experience.

**20. Ongoing reinforcement of benefits** of volunteering, including those accrued by the individual volunteer. While marketing messages about the specific benefits of a particular role may be more effective to recruit volunteers, more abstract (value-laden) messages have been suggested as more effective in retaining volunteers.

#### 4.5 Limitations and directions for future research

The limitations of this review include those related to rapid review methodology; namely, intentionally limiting the scope of the review and imposing restrictions in the searching and data extraction stages of the process. This involved largely limiting the dates of publications included (to 2010–16 for Research question 1 and 2000–16 for Research questions 2 and 3), prioritising Australian research, prioritising social marketing campaigns that include evaluations of their effectiveness, and excluding articles deemed as peripheral to the research questions. Search and retrieval of grey literature was also limited, given the resources available and the timeframe. The fact that there is no national mechanism for systematically identifying and searching all research centres, non-government agencies and other organisations undertaking volunteering research poses barriers to quickly identifying a comprehensive body of grey literature relevant to the Australian context.

This review supports other research (for example, Hyde et al., 2014), which highlights the methodological issues associated with available research on volunteer motivations, including a reliance on cross-sectional designs. Very few studies include longitudinal tracking of participants’ volunteering experiences (or lack thereof). This is particularly problematic when considering the ‘volunteer life cycle’, because temporal changes in

motivations, barriers and facilitators are not empirically tracked, and may be over simplified as a result.

The marketing-related research identified focuses predominantly on recruitment rather than retention of volunteers. From a marketing perspective, retention falls under the banner of ‘customer loyalty’, which, in the context of volunteering, lies mainly within the ‘product’ domain. In this sense, retaining volunteers is less about promoting and providing access to opportunities, and more about ensuring the volunteer continues to be satisfied with the experience. This necessarily involves monitoring volunteer needs and ensuring the individual continues to receive tangible and/or intangible benefits from their involvement. It also involves ensuring that appropriate systems, structures and management practices are in place to support volunteers and ensure they feel valued and want to continue their involvement (for example, processes to recognise and reward volunteers). Further research is required to understand whether customer loyalty programs such as those found in the commercial sector may be potentially useful for creating loyalty among volunteers.

Generally, the body of research regarding volunteer motivations is dominated by US perspectives (Hyde et

al., 2014). Therefore, there is a need for more studies which include cross-cultural, demographically diverse prospective data. Further, studies of volunteers typically fail to account for the views of non-volunteers. Since volunteers may differ in personality and demographic characteristics to non-volunteers, it is important to consider differences in motivations and barriers according to experience with volunteering. Depending on the research questions being posed, future research on volunteering should aim to include ‘matched’ (by age, gender, socioeconomic status and so on) control groups of volunteers versus non-volunteers.

Finally, heterogeneity in volunteering roles and organisation types should be accounted for in studies of volunteering. Often, volunteering is operationalised as one generic construct. However, key indicators such as attitudes towards volunteering, intention to volunteer and actual volunteering behaviour are significantly influenced by the type of role, the cause being supported and the specific organisation being volunteered for. Studies which define the volunteering behaviour in terms of these key parameters are likely to provide more accurate findings in terms of the nature of relationships between the explanatory and response variables being investigated.





## References

- Australian Bureau of Statistics (2010). Voluntary work Australia Retrieved 14 June 2016, from [http://www.ausstats.abs.gov.au/Ausstats/subscriber.nsf/0/404350EEC6509985CA2579580013177A/\\$File/44410\\_2010.pdf](http://www.ausstats.abs.gov.au/Ausstats/subscriber.nsf/0/404350EEC6509985CA2579580013177A/$File/44410_2010.pdf)
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (2015). General social survey: Summary results Australia 2014. Retrieved 15 June 2016, from <http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/Latestproducts/4159.0Main%20Features152014?opendocument&tabname=Summary&prodno=4159.0&issue=2014&num=&view=>
- Boehm, A (2009). Applying social marketing in the development of a volunteer program. *Social Marketing Quarterly*, 15(3), 67–84.
- Brayley, N, Obst, P, White, KM, Lewis, IM, Warburton, J, Spencer, NM (2014). Exploring the validity and predictive power of an extended Volunteer Functions Inventory within the context of episodic skilled volunteering by retirees. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 42(1), 1–18.
- Bruce, L (2006). Count me in: People with a disability keen to volunteer. *Australian Journal on Volunteering*, 11(1), 59.
- Brudney, JL, Meijs, LC (2009). It ain't natural: Toward a new (natural) resource conceptualisation for volunteer management. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 38(4), 564–581.
- Bushway, LJ, Dickinson, JL, Stedman, RC, Wagenet, LP, Weinstein, DA (2011). Benefits, motivations, and barriers related to environmental volunteerism for older adults: Developing a research agenda. *The International Journal of Aging and Human Development*, 72(3), 189–206.
- Bussell, H, Forbes, D (2002). Understanding the volunteer market: The what, where, who and why of volunteering. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 7(3), 244–257.
- Bussell, H, Forbes, D (2003). The volunteer life cycle: A marketing model for volunteering. *Voluntary Action*, 5(3), 61–79.
- Callow, M (2004). Identifying promotional appeals for targeting potential volunteers: An exploratory study on volunteering motives among retirees. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 9(3), 261–274.
- Campbell, A (2009). The importance of being valued: Solo 'grey nomads' as volunteers at the national folk festival. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 12(3/4), 277–294.
- Clary, EG, Snyder, M (1999). The motivations to volunteer: Theoretical and practical considerations. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 8(5), 156–159.
- Clary, EG, Snyder, M, Ridge, R (1992). Volunteers' motivations: A functional strategy for the recruitment, placement, and retention of volunteers. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 2(4), 333–350.
- Clary, EG, Snyder, M, Ridge, RD, Copeland, J, Stukas, AA, Haugen, J, Miene, P (1998). Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: A functional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(6), 1516.
- Clary, EG, Snyder, M, Ridge, RD, Miene, PK, Haugen, JA (1994). Matching messages to motives in persuasion: A functional approach to promoting volunteers. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 24(13), 1129–1149.
- Dolnicar, S (2004). Beyond 'commonsense segmentation' – A systematics of segmentation approaches in tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(3), 244–250.
- Dolnicar, S, Randle, M (2007a). The international volunteering market: Market segments and competitive relations. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 12(4), 350–370.
- Dolnicar, S, Randle, M (2007b). What motivates which volunteers? Psychographic heterogeneity among volunteers in Australia. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organisations*, 18(2), 135–155.
- Dunn, J, Chambers, SK, Hyde, MK (2016). Systematic review of motives for episodic volunteering. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organisations*, 27(1), 425–464.
- Francis, JE (2011). The functions and norms that drive university student volunteering. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 16(1), 1–12.
- Ganann, R, Ciliska, D, Thomas, H (2010). Expediting systematic reviews: *Methods and implications of rapid reviews. Implementation Science*, 5(1), 56.

- Gaskin, K (2003). A choice blend: What volunteers want from organisations and management. Retrieved 11 June 2016, from <http://www.ivr.org.uk/images/stories/Institute-of-Volunteering-Research/Migrated-Resources/Documents/C/choice-blend-report-for-printing.pdf>
- Grönlund, H, Holmes, K, Kang, C, Cnaan, RA, Handy, F, Brudney, JL, Haski-Leventhal, D, Hustinx, L, Kassam, M, Meijs, LC (2011). Cultural values and volunteering: A cross-cultural comparison of students' motivation to volunteer in 13 countries. *Journal of Academic Ethics*, 9(2), 87–106.
- Gronroos, C (2000). *Service management and marketing: A customer relationship management approach* (2nd ed.). Chichester, England: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- Hankinson, P, Rochester, C (2005). The face and voice of volunteering: A suitable case for branding? *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 10(2), 93–105.
- Hill, M, Russell, J, Brewis, G (2009). Young people, volunteers and youth projects: A rapid review of recent evidence. Retrieved 11 June 2016, from <http://www.ivr.org.uk/images/stories/Evidence%20Bank/v20formative20evaluation20rapid20evidence20review20-20formated20-20Dec202009-1.pdf>
- Holmes, K (2014). 'It fitted in with our lifestyle': An investigation into episodic volunteering in the tourism sector. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 17(4), 443–459.
- Hutin, M (2008). Young people help out: Volunteering and giving among young people. Retrieved 11 June 2016, from <http://www.ivr.org.uk/component/ivr/young-people-help-out>
- Hyde, MK, Dunn, J, Scuffham, PA, Chambers, SK (2014). A systematic review of episodic volunteering in public health and other contexts. *BMC public health*, 14(1), 1.
- Jenkinson, CE, Dickens, AP, Jones, K, Thompson-Coon, J, Taylor, RS, Rogers, M, Bamba, CL, Lang, I, Richards, SH (2013). Is volunteering a public health intervention? A systematic review and meta-analysis of the health and survival of volunteers. *BMC Public Health*, 13(1), 773.
- Kotler, P, Adam, S, Brown, L, Armstrong, G (2006). *Principles of marketing* (3rd ed.). Frenchs Forest, NSW: Pearson Education Australia.
- Lee, N, Kotler, P (2016). *Social marketing: Changing behaviours for good* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lentini, P, Halafoff, A, Ogru, E (2009). Perceptions of multiculturalism and security in Victoria. Retrieved 17 June 2016, from <http://arts.monash.edu/politics/terror-research/--downloads/perceptions-report.pdf>
- Leonard, R, Onyx, J (2009). Volunteer tourism: The interests and motivations of grey nomads. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 12(3/4), 315–332.
- Lindenmeier, J (2008). Promoting volunteerism: Effects of self-efficacy, advertisement-induced emotional arousal, perceived costs of volunteering, and message framing. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organisations*, 19(1), 43–65.
- Machin, J (2005). Volunteering and the media: A review of the literature. Retrieved 12 June 2016, from <http://www.dudleycvs.org.uk/images/stories/Documents/VAMUVolunteeringandtheMedia.pdf>
- Mackay, H (2013). *What makes us tick? The ten desires that drive us*. Sydney, NSW: Hachette.
- Manning, LK (2010). Gender and religious differences associated with volunteering in later life. *Journal of Women and Aging*, 22(2), 125–135.
- Marta, E, Guglielmetti, C, Pozzi, M (2006). Volunteerism during young adulthood: An Italian investigation into motivational patterns. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organisations*, 17(3), 221–232.
- Martinez, IL, Crooks, D, Kim, KS, Tanner, E (2011). Invisible civic engagement among older adults: Valuing the contributions of informal volunteering. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Gerontology*, 26(1), 23–37.
- Mazanec, JA (2000). Market segmentation. In Jafari, J (ed.), *Encyclopedia of tourism*. London, UK: Routledge.
- McBride, AM, Lough, BJ (2010). Access to international volunteering. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 21(2), 195–208.



- McGregor-Lowndes, M, Flack, T, Scaife, W, Weipking, P, Crittall, M (2014). Giving and Volunteering in Australia 2014. Retrieved 21 June 2016, from <http://www.communitybusinesspartnership.gov.au/wp-content/uploads/2014/12/Giving-and-Volunteering-in-Australia-2014-Environmental-Scan-and-Literature-Review-2.pdf>
- Nicol, S (2012). Volunteering and young people. *Youth Studies Australia*, 31(3), 3–5.
- Nyahunzvi, DK (2013). Come and make a real difference: Online marketing of the volunteering experience to Zimbabwe. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 7, 83–88.
- Oppenheimer, M, Haski-Leventhal, D, Holmes, K, Lockstone-Binney, L, Meijs, L (2015). Where have all the volunteers gone? *The Conversation*. Retrieved 11 June 2016, from <https://theconversation.com/where-have-all-the-volunteers-gone-47192>
- Phillips, LC, Phillips, MH (2010). Volunteer motivation and reward preference: An empirical study of volunteerism in a large, not-for-profit organisation. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, 75(4), 12–19.
- Purdie, N, Wilss, L (2007). Australian national identity: Young peoples' conceptions of what it means to be Australian. *National Identities*, 9(1), 67–82.
- Randle, M, Dolnicar, S (2009a). Does cultural background affect volunteering behaviour? *Journal of Non-profit and Public Sector Marketing*, 21(2), 225–247.
- Randle, M, Dolnicar, S (2009b). Not just any volunteers: Segmenting the market to attract the high contributors. *Journal of Non profit and Public Sector Marketing*, 21(3), 271–282.
- Randle, M, Dolnicar, S (2009c). Understanding the Australian environmental volunteering market: A basis for behavioural change and a sustainable future. *Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ)*, 17(4), 192–203.
- Randle, M, Dolnicar, S (2011). Self-congruity and volunteering: A multi-organisation comparison. *European Journal of Marketing*, 45(5), 739–758.
- Randle, M, Dolnicar, S (2012). Attracting volunteers in highly multicultural societies: A marketing challenge. *Journal of Non profit and Public Sector Marketing*, 24, 351–369.
- Randle, M, Dolnicar, S (2015). The characteristics of potential environmental volunteers: Implications for marketing communications. *Australasian Journal of Environmental Management*, 22(3), 329–339.
- Randle, M, Leisch, F, Dolnicar, S (2013). Competition or collaboration? The effect of nonprofit brand image on volunteer recruitment strategy. *Journal of Brand Management*, 20(8), 689–704.
- Randle, M, Miller, L, Ciarrochi, J, Dolnicar, S (2014). A psychological profile of potential youth mentoring volunteers. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 42(3), 338–351.
- Randle, M, Rintoul, D (2013). Evaluation of the NSW volunteering strategy 2012–13. Retrieved 12 June 2016, from <http://www.volunteering.nsw.gov.au/documents/23672909/23725145/Evaluation%20of%20the%20NSW%20Volunteering%20Strategy%20Final%20Report%20Bathurst%20Grows%20-%202014.pdf>
- Roker, D, Eden, K (2002). A longitudinal study of young people's involvement in social action. Retrieved 15 June 2016, from <http://www.researchcatalogue.esrc.ac.uk/grants/L134251041/read>
- Scottish Executive (2004). Volunteering strategy. Retrieved 11 June 2016, from <http://www.gov.scot/Resource/Doc/25954/0025523.pdf>
- Scottish Executive (2006). Volunteering 2006 post-campaign evaluation report. Retrieved 12 June 2016, from <http://www.gov.scot/Publications/2006/12/07091540/2>
- Shields, PO (2009). Young adult volunteers: Recruitment appeals and other marketing considerations. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 21(2), 139–159.
- Sirgy, MJ (1986). *Self-congruity: Toward a theory of personality and cybernetics*. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers/Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Smith, JD, Gay, P (2005). Active ageing in active communities. Retrieved 14 June 2016, from <https://www.jrf.org.uk/sites/default/files/jrf/migrated/files/1861347626.pdf>

- Smith, K, Cordery, CJ (2010). What works? A systematic review of research and evaluation literature on encouragement and support of volunteering. *A Systematic Review of Research and Evaluation Literature on Encouragement and Support of Volunteering* (June 14, 2010).
- Tan, EJ, Tanner, EK, Seeman, TE, Xue, Q-L, Rebok, GW, Frick, KD, Carlson, MC, Wang, T, Piferi, RL, McGill, S, Whitfield, KE (2010). Marketing public health through older adult volunteering: Experience corps as a social marketing intervention. *American Journal of Public Health*, 100(4), 727–734.
- Trembath, D, Balandin, S, Stancliffe, RJ, Togher, L (2010). Employment and volunteering for adults with intellectual disability. *Journal of Policy and Practice in Intellectual Disabilities*, 7(4), 235–238.
- Trembath, D, Balandin, S, Togher, L, Stancliffe, RJ (2010). The experiences of adults with complex communication needs who volunteer. *Disability and Rehabilitation*, 32(11), 885–898.
- Vecina, ML, Fernando, C (2013). Volunteering and well-being: Is pleasure-based rather than pressure-based prosocial motivation that which is related to positive effects? *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 43(4), 870–878.
- Volunteering Australia (2010). Key facts about volunteering in Australia. Retrieved 14 June 2016, from <http://www.volunteeringaustralia.org/wp-content/uploads/VA-Key-statistics-about-Australian-volunteering-16-April-20151.pdf>
- Volunteering Australia (2016). State of volunteering in Australia. Retrieved 15 June 2016, from <http://www.volunteerigastralia.org/wp-content/uploads/State-of-Volunteering-in-Australia-full-report.pdf>
- Warburton, J (2010). Volunteering as a productive ageing activity: Evidence from Australia. *China Journal of Social Work*, 3(2/3), 301–312.
- Watt, A, Cameron, A, Sturm, L, Lathlean, T, Babidge, W, Blamey, S, Facey, K, Hailey, D, Norderhaug, I, Maddern, G (2008). Rapid reviews versus full systematic reviews: An inventory of current methods and practice in health technology assessment. *International Journal of Technology Assessment in Health Care*, 24(2), 133–139.
- Webb, TL, Sheeran, P (2006). Does changing behavioral intentions engender behaviour change? A meta-analysis of the experimental evidence. *Psychological Bulletin*, 132(2), 249–268.
- Wymer, WW (2003). Differentiating literacy volunteers: A segmentation analysis for target marketing. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 8(3), 267–285.
- Yörük, BK (2012). The effect of media on charitable giving and volunteering: Evidence from the 'give five' campaign. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 31(4), 813–836









**Australian Volunteers (Australia)**

Website image: <http://www.australianvolunteers.com/>

Example of Australian materials



**Conservation Volunteers (Australia)**

Website image: [www.conservationvolunteers.com.au](http://www.conservationvolunteers.com.au)

Example of Australian materials – emphasising experience/adventure



**Volunteering Australia (Australia)**

Website image: <http://www.volunteeringaustralia.org/2016/05/what-an-amazing-week>

Example of Australian materials – positive emotional appeal



**Seek Volunteers (Australia)**

Website images: <https://www.volunteer.com.au/>

Example of Australian materials – individualised volunteering roles and personal stories





**Red Cross (Australia)**

Website image: <http://www.redcross.org.au/volunteering.aspx>

Example of Australian materials – diversity, individualised volunteering roles and personal stories

### Meet our volunteers



#### James

"I talk to people who are sick in hospital, sit and talk with them and just comfort them, show them my love and respect."

[Read more »](#)

#### Bianca

"I've worked since my early teens in hospitality and retail, but volunteering at Red Cross is a completely different field of work and I love it. It's very humanitarian and definitely makes me feel good - it just picks me up."

[Read more »](#)



#### Saeed

"Through volunteering I can develop my skills and experience about Australian agriculture, but also I can establish networks. Step-by-step I am meeting a lot of people and other specialists."

[Read more »](#)

**Starlight Children's Foundation (Australia)**

Website image: [www.starlight.org.au/volunteer](http://www.starlight.org.au/volunteer)

Example of Australian materials – aimed at young people



Screen shot of promotional video: [www.starlight.org.au/volunteer](http://www.starlight.org.au/volunteer)

Example of Australian materials – aimed at young people, and focus on fun/rewards





**Global Work and Travel Co. (multinational)**

Website image: [www.globalworkandtravel.com.au/](http://www.globalworkandtravel.com.au/)

Example of Voluntourism materials – aimed at young people; focus on adventure/experience



**Project Abroad (Australia)**

Website image: <http://www.projects-abroad.com.au/>

Example of Voluntourism materials – focus on career development/job skills



**Appendix B: Evaluate social marketing materials from the literature**

**Volunteers Scotland (2006)**

Print advertising: Available in Scottish Executive (2006)



**Clary et al. (1994)**

Messages tested.

**Message A: Emphasising abstract reasons for volunteering**

Subjects are given a page with a statement at the top, then two photographs of a person of their gender. The first photograph on this page shows a male of college age explaining something to the reader. The second photograph shows the same person, who seems to be listening. At the top of the page is the following statement: People are always asking me to do volunteer work, and I suppose there are a lot of reasons why I should say yes... After all, for our society to work, everybody needs to do their part. Besides, people have a duty to help those in need – it's the humanitarian thing to do. And, you know, volunteer work is a way people can do something useful and help others at the same time. Also, I bet that by helping other people I could become better able to help myself. You know, maybe I can be a volunteer!

**Message B: Emphasising concrete reasons for volunteering**

Subjects are given a page with a statement at the top, then two photographs of a person of their gender. The first photograph on this page shows a male of college age explaining something to the reader. The second photograph shows the same person, who seems to be listening. At the top of the page is the following statement: People are always asking me to do volunteer work, and I suppose there are a lot of reasons why I should say yes... Maybe the time I would spend volunteering would provide me with an interesting and fun break from classes and studying. Also, I bet I could make a lot of new friends through a volunteer organisation. And, I bet helping someone through volunteer work would make me feel pretty good. You know, I might even be able to learn a lot of new things and develop some new skills. You know, maybe I can be a volunteer!



**Message C: Emphasising abstract reasons for not volunteering**

Subjects are given a page with a statement at the top, then two photographs of a person of their gender. The first photograph on this page shows a male of college age explaining something to the reader. The second photograph shows the same person, who seems to be listening. At the top of the page is the following statement: People are always asking me to do volunteer work, and I suppose there are a lot of reasons why I should say yes... I don't think one person can really make a difference. But, maybe one person helping one other person can make a big difference, especially to the person being helped. Yeah, but it's really somebody else's responsibility. But, you know, if everybody says that, nothing's going to get done. Still, what these people need is professional help, and I'm just a regular person. But maybe that's just what's needed, a regular person... someone to be a friend. I made it on my own, though; if they really want to, they can make it too. Maybe that's not true. I had friends and family, and they helped me when I needed it. You know, maybe I can be a volunteer!

**Message D: Emphasising Concrete Reasons for Not Volunteering**

Subjects are given a page with a statement at the top, then two photographs of a person of their gender. The first photograph on this page shows a male of college age explaining something to the reader. The second photograph shows the same person, who seems to be listening. At the top of the page is the following statement: People are always asking me to do volunteer work, and I suppose there are a lot of reasons why one should say yes... I just don't have the time. But, maybe I could rearrange my schedule to fit it in. Yeah, but I work hard, and I don't think I'd have the energy. But, you know, maybe it's kind of like exercise – the more you do, the more energetic you feel. But volunteer work doesn't sound like much fun. Now, going to movies or doing outdoors kinds of things – that's my idea of fun. Unless... maybe there's a kid who would like to do things like that. Still, when you do volunteer work, you have to work with that kind of people. But, just maybe, people are people. You know, maybe I can be a volunteer!!

**Special Constables (UK)**

Cited in Machin (2005)

Advertising image: <http://www.derbyshire.police.uk/Careers/Special-Constabulary-Recruitment/About-Special-Constables.aspx>



Screen shot of promotional video: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aBOiFF7IJAs>







Family &  
Community  
Services