

Links between Volunteering and Employability

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction

1. The Department for Education and Employment (now DfES) commissioned Cambridge Policy Consultants and their survey partners, System Three Research, in July 2000 to explore the link between volunteering and employability. The focus of this research has been on whether voluntary activity can improve an individual's ability to gain, maintain or improve their employment. The main aims of the research are to:
 - Investigate the nature of the link between volunteering and employability (including access to training and education) and the mechanisms operating; and,
 - Establish whether there are circumstances in which unemployed people who volunteer increase their employability compared to similar people who do not volunteer.

Methodology

2. From the Employment Service Evaluation Database (ESED), 32,700 records were chosen for people who had had some form of contact with the Employment Service between July 1999 and the end of June 2000. About a third of ESED records had no telephone number and so a postal survey was carried out in addition to a telephone survey. In total, 1,708 telephone interviews were successfully completed and 203 people responded to the postal survey.
3. Overall of the 1,911 people who responded, 783 had volunteering experience (103 were postal responses) and 1,026 did not. This compares to initial targets of 1,000 in each category. Unfortunately, the sampling data was relatively inaccurate and so the effective sample size was smaller than the 32,700 with which System Three began the research. Although the sampling was structured (to ensure sufficient numbers of people with volunteering experience), early results suggested that approximately 10% of the ESED population had some volunteering experience, a figure which is in line with previous studies.
4. To provide some longitudinal analysis of the impact of volunteering on employability we undertook a comparison of the employment status of survey

respondents from the ESED database in July 2000 (the base for the survey of volunteers) and at the end of January 2001. Not only has ESED provided further personal characteristic information, crucially it contains JUVOS variables which have allowed investigation of labour market pathways over time.

Who volunteers

5. Women are more likely to volunteer, as are those who are older and those who have higher qualifications. It is also the case that those now in employment are more likely to have volunteered, although non-volunteers are more likely to be in full time employment.
6. However, regression analysis shows that although gender and qualifications appear to be causal factors behind volunteering, they are relatively weak – the main causes have not been observable, but are likely to revolve around individual aspirations and attitudes.
7. Factors which do *not* have an impact on whether someone volunteers include: disability, prior duration, ethnicity, marital status, mobility, criminal conviction and area of residence.

The volunteering experience

Type of activities

8. Although nearly 70% were unemployed when they first began their volunteering activity, 54% were in employment at the time of the survey, 9% were in education or training and just over a third were still unemployed.
9. Nearly three quarters volunteered for just one organisation, and in most cases this was for organisations outside of the public sector (20% volunteered for public sector organisations).
10. Four in five individuals have undertaken more than one type of task for their organisation(s). The most common is outdoor type activities (40% of volunteers) followed very closely by ‘office’ activities. Slightly fewer have undertaken ‘support’ volunteering, such as counselling and care work, and less than a quarter have done ‘manual’ type work.

11. Just over half have done more than 200 hours volunteering in total, and a third have done 500 or more hours.

Nature of activities

12. For just over a third of volunteers, the primary motivation was charitable. Just under a third said their volunteering was motivated by personal or social reasons, such as wanting to get out of the house or meet people. For a quarter, volunteering played a role in their employment strategy.

13. Typically, voluntary activity involves:

- *Working with the public*: Two fifths of volunteers had dealings with the public all the time, and only just over one in ten never did;
- *Teamwork*: 56% worked with other volunteers or staff most of the time with less than one in five working “nearly always” on their own;
- *Activities in line with the volunteer’s capabilities*: Two thirds felt that the level of the tasks required of them was appropriate, and of the remainder, twice as many felt they were under-stretched as over-stretched;
- *Regular attendance*: All but a quarter attend in a pattern that is akin to a work environment: regular and set times, although only a half were expected or required to;
- *Supervisory activity*: Some two fifths reported that they supervise others as part of their volunteering activity;
- *A variety of tasks*: Within the activity, two thirds reported that it was either very or quite varied with only 10% saying there was very little or no variety;
- *Training*: just over one in six volunteers had gained a qualification or certificate as part of their volunteering experience. Between a third and two fifths (37%) had not received any training at all. In between, 36% reported receiving induction training and just over a quarter enjoyed continuing but informal training.
- *Personal Development*: just over half reported that their contribution had been reviewed or discussed with them. Fewer than one in ten volunteers said that they had not experienced any personal development (such as taking on greater responsibilities) during their volunteering activity. The most common (nearly 80%) is a reduction in the supervision they need;
- *Information about employment opportunities*: Fewer than 30% of volunteers reported that they had heard about employment and/or training opportunities during their volunteering activity, somewhat disappointing given the acknowledged importance of ‘word of mouth’ and informal networks in the sourcing of job opportunities.

Impacts of volunteering

14. Nearly 54% of volunteers believe that their volunteering experience has helped or will help them to get a job. However, while 88% of those who are currently unemployed and looking for work believe that their volunteering experience will help them, only 41% of those who are now employed believe their volunteering helped them to get their current job. In other words, those who have yet to move into work either have too high expectations of what their volunteering can do for them or those who have moved into employment are in hindsight playing down its significance.
15. The reason cited as most important by most volunteers who felt they had benefited was increased confidence, followed by work experience and proof of motivation and then the acquisition of specific skills.
16. Of those who have already moved into employment, only one in six said that their current job was similar to their volunteering activity.
17. Just under half of those who had moved into a job said that volunteering activity had played no role in getting it. Of those who thought it had played a role, four fifths believe they would have been able to get another job without the volunteering experience; of these, a slight majority believe their current job is more interesting and offers greater career prospects – but just less than half believe that another job would be better paid. This suggests that their choice of career is guided as much by non-financial aspects as financial.
18. On moving into employment, a third had continued with their volunteering activity as before, with a further one in six continuing in a reduced capacity. Given that two fifths had already stopped before taking up employment, only 6% actually discontinued on the point of entry into employment.
19. For those who had considered volunteering or doing more than the small amounts that they did, 47% cited a lack of time as their reason for not doing so, although a lack of knowledge (for example, about the implications for benefits or where to source volunteering opportunities) also appears to be a barrier.

Who benefits and how

By individuals' perceptions

20. This section explores what the characteristics and the features of the volunteering experiences are for those individuals who perceive that their volunteering experience has been or will be of benefit to them in the labour market. The following personal characteristics are correlated with positive views of the impact of volunteering i.e. if this characteristic applies, the individual is more likely to report volunteering as boosting labour market prospects:
- Not having a driving licence
 - Living on one's own
 - Not having dependants
 - Being young
21. The following features of volunteering are correlated with positive views of the impact of volunteering:
- Volunteering span of 50 hours or more
 - Volunteering for more than one organisation
 - Working with the public at least some of the time
 - Ongoing informal training and to a lesser extent formal training
 - Discussion/review of volunteering activity
 - Working in a team at least some of the time
 - Variety of experience
22. In terms of motivation, those who have undertaken their volunteering activity for employment reasons are far more likely than others to report a positive impact: nearly 70% compared to less than 40% of those who undertake their volunteering activity for charitable reasons.

The relationship between volunteering and job entry

23. This section explores whether there are any links between volunteering and the length of time on the unemployment Register. In fact, people who do not volunteer can expect shorter durations on the Register: the median length of the last spell of unemployment for volunteers is 9.1 weeks, compared to 7.7 weeks for non-volunteers.

24. A number of factors can pull volunteers towards a quicker re-entry into employment. Higher qualifications to begin with, and then working with the public, experience of a supervisory role and on-going training within the volunteering experience can reduce the amount of time a volunteer is likely to spend on the Register – although they are still likely to spend more time than a non-volunteer. However, the factor that most reduces time spent on the Register for a volunteer does not depend on the quality of the volunteering experience, but on whether they were employed or not when they began: those who were in this position return to employment more quickly than those who began their volunteering activity while unemployed.

Work history of volunteers and non-volunteers

25. This section uses the work histories of individuals to assess whether those who volunteer have seen an advantage in the labour market over those who have not. This is done by exploring the three points in time: data from ESED at July 2000, the survey data and updated ESED data at January 2001.
26. Overall, it seems that those who volunteer are not as a result more likely to move from unemployment to employment than those who do not volunteer. The subset who undertake their volunteering activity for employment reasons are marginally more likely to move into employment (around 12% above other volunteers and non-volunteers). This is particularly the case for those with more than 6 months on the Register. Although numbers are small, those in this group who volunteer for employment reasons are 50 percent more likely to no longer claim JSA than other volunteers and non-volunteers.
27. Available information on differences in job quality is limited. However an analysis of spell structure (number of spells on unemployment) and durations off the Register has found no significant difference between volunteers and non-volunteers.

Regression analysis

28. This section uses linear regression techniques to estimate the contribution of a wide variety of factors to increased employability. Such an approach adds statistical rigour to the analysis, although as a technique it is better suited to time-series data and not the cross-sectional data available here. The analysis focused on three dependent variables:

- The duration of the individual's last spell of unemployment;
 - The number of days spent on the Register between July 2000 and January 2001; and,
 - Those clients who were on the Register in July 2000 but who had secured employment in January 2001.
29. The model results have been somewhat disappointing in that they are not able to explain the variation across the three variables above 41% (50-60% would represent a good explanation).
30. The main finding from this section of the analysis is that neither volunteering or number of hours volunteered are significant variables in any of the specifications of the model used for the regression. Across different specifications of the model two broad factors were repeatedly significant:
- Personal characteristics (prior duration, age, sex, possession of a driving licence)
 - Characteristics of the voluntary experience (team work, work experience, review procedures, supervisory role)

It is interesting to note that while the influence of personal characteristics is no great surprise, the factors which are perceived by volunteers themselves to make a difference to the quality of the voluntary experience do match the characteristics identified as significant in the regression analysis. These results confirm the impression from the descriptive analysis of the data that other factors (relating to aspirations and attitudes) come into play in determining the precise link between voluntary activity and employability.

Summary of findings

31. Half of all volunteers report that their volunteering activity has had a positive impact on their chances of employment. The nature of the volunteering activity has an impact here. The following features of the volunteering experience are correlated to whether the volunteering experience is attributed with improving the chances of getting a job:
- volunteering for a greater number of hours
 - working with the public, even if only for a small amount
 - being motivated by an employment strategy
 - whether training was received, particularly ongoing informal training

- having one's volunteering contribution reviewed or discussed (a strong correlation)
 - working with others
 - variety within the volunteering activity
 - hearing about employment or educational/training opportunities through the volunteering activity (a strong correlation).
32. However, this endorsement of the impacts of voluntary activity on an individual's employment prospects is not matched by the quantitative analysis of employment experiences. There is no discernible difference in employment outcomes overall between those who have and those who have not volunteered. Moreover, volunteers take longer to (re-)enter employment than non-volunteers. This may be because volunteering is obstructing a return to work in some way, for example by limiting time for jobsearch. However, there is some evidence from our survey that this delay is for positive reasons as people wait to find their 'ideal' job.
33. More detailed analysis suggests that voluntary activity can have a positive impact on employment outcomes for certain groups: those who volunteer for employment reasons are in fact more likely to move off the JSA Register. This applies in particular to those between the ages of 25 and 44, those who can be assumed to be more likely to be at the 'career building' stage. Although numbers in the analysis are small, 12% more of those who undertake volunteering for employment reasons leave the Register than non-volunteers.
34. On some quantitative measures it would appear that volunteering does have a positive impact on an individual's employability, on others it would appear to have a negligible impact and on others still to have what appears to be a negative impact. These apparently contradictory findings in fact point to complex layers of patterns experienced by different sorts of people. The scope of this research has not enabled a full analysis of these patterns and for many of them the numbers available are insufficient to produce robust results. This is likely to be a result of unobservable factors, such as attitude, dynamism and the willingness to explore new opportunities.
35. Volunteering may, therefore, be worthy of public support (not counting the positive impact which may accrue to wider society as a result of volunteering activity). Our findings would suggest, however, that if public support for

volunteering is appropriate, it should be as much as a means of supporting on-going self-development and widening of horizons as a welfare-to-work mechanism. Voluntary activity can provide a broad range of positive benefits for unemployed people but we have found no overwhelming evidence that it leads directly to entry into employment – other factors such as the support environment and individuals’ aspirations and personal barriers all play a part and these need to be addressed either as part of the voluntary experience or through other support mechanisms.

1. INTRODUCTION

- 1.1. This research has set out to investigate systematically the link between volunteering and employability. The Government has a broad-ranging interest in developing active citizenship to help combat social exclusion and engage people in serving their wider communities. Moreover, there is a specific interest in the potential of voluntary activity to provide an important stepping-stone in the route back to employment. A number of previous studies have identified that voluntary activity can lead to increased motivation, confidence and skills and that this may be part of an active strategy to (re)gaining employment pursued by individual jobseekers.
- 1.2. The Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) commissioned Cambridge Policy Consultants in conjunction with System Three Research in July 2000 to explore the link between volunteering and employability. The focus of the research has been on whether voluntary activity can improve an individual's ability to gain, maintain or improve their employment. The main aims of the research are to:
- Investigate the nature of the link between volunteering and employability (including access to training and education) and the mechanisms operating; and,
 - Establish whether there are circumstances when unemployed people who volunteer increase their employability compared to similar people who do not volunteer.
- 1.3. Both voluntary activity and employability are ill-defined concepts and neither lend themselves to direct measurement. Therefore, the research has been carefully designed to concentrate on those who have been seeking employment and compare the experiences of those who have undertaken a *substantive* amount of volunteering against those who have not.
- 1.4. To achieve this, the study has been largely based on a large scale random survey of people who have used Employment Service services in the past 12 months before the survey. This does not necessarily mean all people will have been formally unemployed and claiming benefit but the vast majority will have been in this position. We aimed to achieve a sample of 1,000 volunteers and 1,000 non-volunteers to provide a comprehensive basis for the

analysis. Unfortunately, due to problems with the quality of contact details we were not able to secure the full quota for the volunteers (full details are provided in Annex A).

1.5. A structured questionnaire was used to explore the nature of the volunteering activity and any relationship between this activity and the individual's current status. Key questions included:

- Does volunteering have a positive impact on employability?
- If participating in voluntary work does increase employability, what is it which produces this effect?
- What sort of people increase their employability or access to education or training by participating in voluntary work?
- Over what timescale might volunteering be expected to impact on employability?
- In what sorts of employment fields does volunteering influence employability or access to training or education?

1.6. To provide some longitudinal analysis of the impact of volunteering on employability we undertook a comparison of the employment status of survey respondents from the ESED database in July 2000 (the base for the survey of volunteers) and at the end of January 2001. Not only has ESED provided further personal characteristic information, crucially it contains JUVOS variables which have allowed investigation of labour market pathways over time.

1.7. The remainder of this report is structured as follows:

- The next section explores the characteristics of those who volunteer and those who do not;
- Section 3 analyses the nature of the volunteering experience that survey participants have had;
- Section 4 looks at who benefits and how – this is based on four analyses: by perceptions of individuals, by time taken to (re-)enter work, by work histories and by statistical regression of the factors contributing to employment entry;
- Section 5 presents a summary of the findings of the analysis.
- The technical fieldwork report is in Annex A and Annex B outlines the sample selection and survey bias.

2. WHO VOLUNTEERS?

2.1. To date there have been relatively few large scale surveys of the level of volunteering activity undertaken by unemployed people. We are aware of only one previous survey of JSA claimants which suggested that 9% of unemployed people undertook some form of volunteering. Because of the sample quotas used to construct the volunteer and non-volunteer groups, it is not possible to report the extent of volunteering among unemployed people directly from the survey. However, during the initial phase of the fieldwork programme, our survey partners reported that volunteers amounted to around 9% of the population contacted¹.

2.2. The following tables set out the primary differences in the characteristics between those who undertake some form of voluntary activity and those who do not. Differences are not large and occur across the following characteristics:

- Economic activity;
- Gender;
- Age; and
- Qualifications.

Where there are differences it has also been possible to explore whether employment status has an impact – so for example, whether those who are older *and* who are unemployed are more likely or not to be volunteers.

2.3. Differences in economic activity are slight: non-volunteers are marginally more likely to be employed full-time, but less likely to be employed part-time. Overall, 54% of volunteers are in employment compared to 51% of non-volunteers.

2.4. Volunteers are also more likely (proportionately almost twice as likely) to be in education or training than non-volunteers. Non-volunteers are, however,

¹ The population was drawn from those who had had some contact with the Employment Service, leading to an entry on the Employment Service Evaluation Database, ESED, between July 1999 and June 2000

more likely to be unemployed, although again the differences between the two groups are not large.

Table 2.1: Economic status of volunteers and non-volunteers

	Volunteers	Non-volunteers
Employed full-time (more than 30 hours a week)	35%	38%
Employed part-time (between 16 and 30 hours a week)	10%	7%
Employed part-time (less than 16 hours a week)	5%	3%
Employed part-time (less than 1 hours a week), but claiming	1%	0%
Self-employed	3%	3%
Unemployed	35%	42%
Retired	1%	1%
Looking after family	1%	1%
In education or training	9%	5%
Total	100%	100%

Source: CPC/System Three survey

- 2.5. Proportionately more females undertake voluntary activity than males – females are almost a third more likely to volunteer.

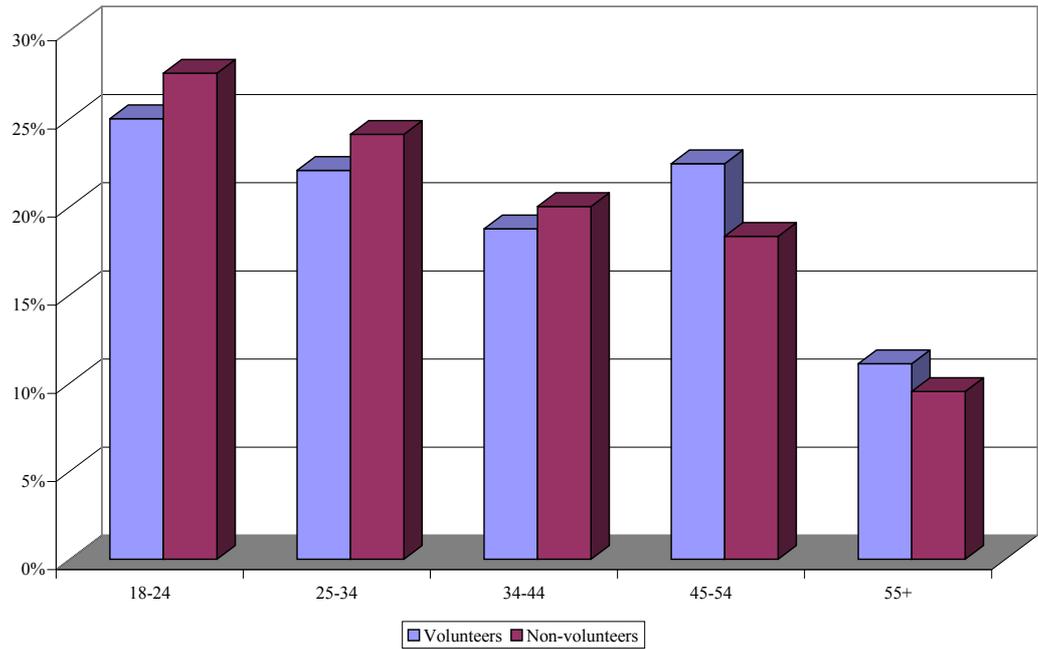
Table 2.2: Gender

	Volunteers		Non-volunteers	
	N ^o	%	N ^o	%
Female	318	41%	347	31%
Male	465	59%	779	69%
Total	783	100%	1126	100%

Source: CPC/System Three survey

- 2.6. Volunteers are also more likely to come from older age groups above 45 years old, although proportionate differences between different age groups are not large. Within this, those volunteers in the age group 45-54 are more likely to be employed, while those who are 55 and above are more likely not to be in employment.

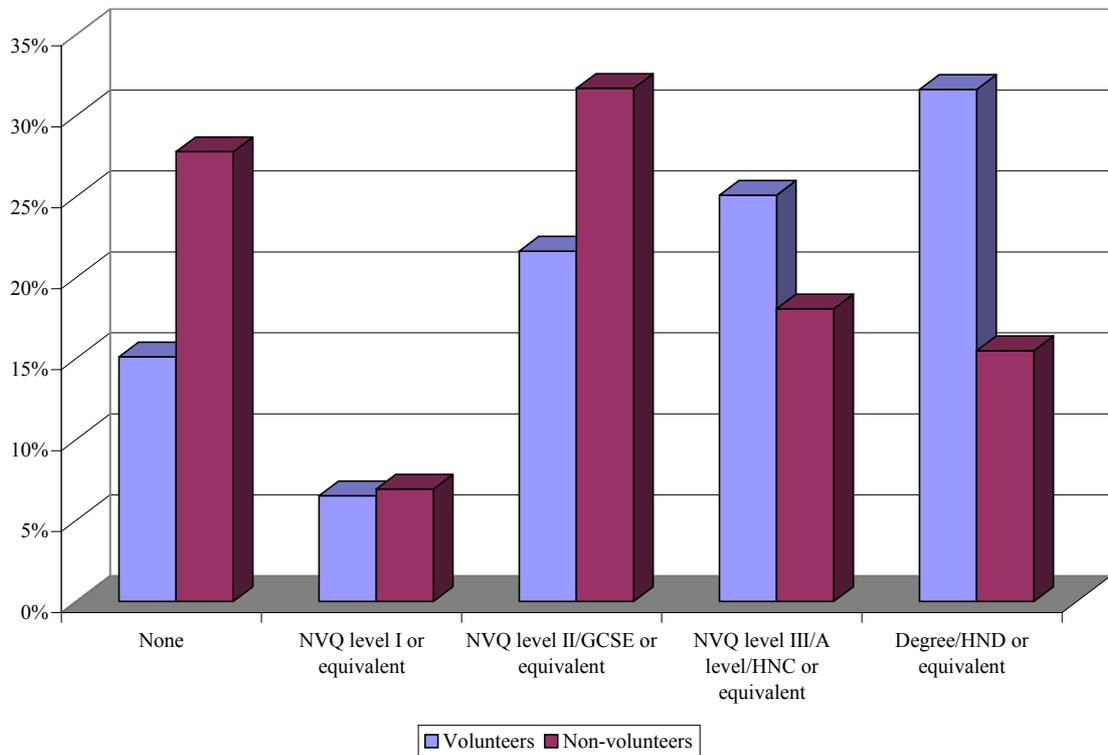
Figure 2.1: Age Distribution of Volunteers and Non-volunteers



Source: CPC/System Three survey

2.7. Volunteers are more likely to be more highly qualified and non-volunteers are almost twice as likely to have no formal qualification.

Figure 2.2: Highest qualification of Volunteers and Non-volunteers



Source: CPC/System Three survey

- 2.8. This pattern holds, regardless of current economic status, as Table 2.3 shows. While those who are in employment are more likely than those who are not to have qualifications, those who are not in employment but are volunteers are more likely than those who are employed but who are not volunteers to have a degree (or equivalent) and less likely not to have any qualifications.

Table 2.3: Those with no qualifications and with degree by volunteering and employment status

		No qualifications		Degree or equivalent	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Non-volunteers:	Unemployed	183.0	33.0	68.0	12.3
	Employed	129.0	22.5	106.0	18.5
Volunteers	Unemployed	68.0	18.9	95.0	26.5
	Employed	50.0	11.7	152.0	35.6

Source: CPC/System Three survey

- 2.9. We have undertaken a series of statistical regression analyses across a very broad range of characteristics and factors to explore any other differences between volunteers and non-volunteers. Three conclusions arise from this analysis:
- Firstly, that even for cross-sectional data we have been able to explain only a small proportion of the variation in volunteering between people (at most the regression has been able to explain 7% of the variation between the two groups where 50-60% might be considered a good fit with cross-sectional data). This suggests that the factors which lead people to volunteer are more closely associated with attitudes and aspirations than observable personal characteristics – a result that is not surprising.
 - Secondly, that whatever the range of characteristics employed in the regression, gender and qualifications remain statistically significant. Age and economic status are less statistically significant, suggesting that other (unobserved) factors are correlated with these.
- 2.10. Other characteristics which have been compared for volunteers and non-volunteers have been found to be broadly similar. They have all been tested in the regression model and on the specifications used have not shown any statistically significant relationship to whether an individual undertakes voluntary activity or not. The full tables are contained in Annex C.

3. THE VOLUNTEERING EXPERIENCE

3.1. Economic status of volunteers

3.1.1. Overall, 783 individuals with volunteering experience were surveyed, 680 by telephone with another 103 responding to the postal questionnaire. Of these, 427 (54%) had some form of employment at the time of the survey, 271 (35%) were unemployed, 18 (2%) were inactive and 69 (9%) were in education or training. Only two thirds of those apparently eligible for JSA (i.e. those who are unemployed or those working less than 16 hours a week) were actually claiming².

3.1.2. It should also be noted that one third of those with employment stated that their job was ‘not permanent in some way’, with women (32% of those in employment) slightly more likely to be in this situation than men (27% of those in employment). This is mainly accounted for by short term contract work (as opposed to seasonal or casual work), but nevertheless highlights the relatively insecure employment into which many volunteers have moved.

3.1.3. Nearly 70% (543 individuals) were unemployed when they first began their volunteering activity.

3.2. The volunteering activities undertaken

3.2.1. Respondents were invited to state for which types of organisations they had volunteered. Table 3.1 demonstrates the variety of organisations volunteered for. The results add up to more than 783 as some people have either volunteered for more than one type of organisation or may have classified an organisation in more than one way.

3.2.2. One way of further categorising the organisations volunteered for is according to whether they are public sector organisations or not. This

² Details are presented in Table 2.1.

analysis shows that just over a fifth have volunteered for a public sector organisation, with 85% having volunteered for an organisation outside the public sector. Some 7% have volunteering experience with organisations both within and outside the public sector.

Table 3.1: Types of organisation(s) volunteered for

	Count	Percent
A school/educational organisation	118	15.0
A hospital	27	3.4
A prison/probation office	11	1.4
A charity	271	34.5
A voluntary organisation	180	22.9
A religious group/group based at faith based organisation	95	12.1
A local residents or tenants group	27	3.4
A leisure or hobbies group	110	14.0
An issue based group	52	6.6
A self-help group	24	3.1
Territorial army/other reserve forces	8	1.0
Local authority	36	4.6
Other care organisations	15	1.9
Job club/ reemploy agency	5	0.6
Other	39	5.0

Source: CPC/System Three survey

3.2.3. Table 3.2 shows the number of organisations that people have volunteered for. While the clear majority (nearly three-quarters) have only volunteered for one organisation, a significant minority have been involved with two or more.

Table 3.2: Number of organisations volunteered for

	Count	Percent
One	571	73
Two	138	18
Three or more	74	9
Total	783	100.0

Source: CPC/System Three survey

3.2.4. The range of activities undertaken by volunteers varies enormously too. Table 3.3 shows the types of activities undertaken. It is clear that many volunteers are undertaking multiple tasks: nearly 40% have undertaken two or more activities. Outdoor and recreational activities if they include environmental and animal related activities, are the most common very closely followed by organisation and administrative work.

Table 3.3: Type of activities involved in volunteering

	Count	Percent
Outdoor activities (including environmental and animal related)	291	37.1
Recreational/social activities	196	25.0
Training	158	20.1
Counselling/advice	84	10.7
Care work	113	14.4
Reception work	54	6.9
Shop work	92	11.7
Manual, kitchen or driving	128	16.3
Organising, administration and clerical	230	29.3
Fundraising	129	16.4
Management/technical	116	14.8
Educational	37	4.7
Other	28	3.6
Total respondents	1656	211.0

Source: CPC/System Three survey

3.2.5. We have further classified volunteering activities into four groups:

- ‘active’ volunteering: outdoor and recreational activities etc;
- ‘support’ volunteering: counselling, care work etc;
- ‘manual’ volunteering: driving, kitchen work, other manual work etc;
- ‘office’ volunteering: administration, management etc.

Based on these classifications, the following table shows that while office-type tasks are still very common, the most common is in fact ‘active’ type volunteering.

Table 3.4: Volunteering activities (CPC classification)

	Count	Percent
Active	322	41.1
Support	292	37.3
Manual	182	23.2
Office	321	41.0

Source: CPC/System Three survey

- 3.2.6. Volunteers were also asked how much volunteering activity they had carried out. In total, just over half (53%) had done more than 200 hours volunteering, of whom three fifths (a third of the total) had undertaken more than 500 hours of volunteering. It should be noted that these figures reflect answers that are above a minimum level of volunteering set to filter out those with occasional or negligible volunteering experience: to ‘qualify’ as a volunteer, the person had to have volunteered for at least 24 hours in total, to have volunteered on average twice a month and to have volunteered for at least 24 hours in the past twelve months.

Table 3.5: Total hours volunteering in bands

	Count	Percent
(over threshold) up to 50 hours	128	16
more than 50 up to 200 hours	241	31
more than 200 up to 500 hours	156	20
more than 500 hours	258	33
Total	783	100

Source: CPC/System Three survey

3.3. Becoming involved

- 3.3.1. Gay in her 1998 report³ noted the different motivations for getting involved in volunteering. Table 3.6 demonstrates the range of motivations, with the first two columns showing what was considered to be a factor and the second two showing what was considered to be the most important factor. It should be noted that even for the latter two columns, several individuals were unable to

³ Getting into Work – the role of volunteering in improving employability, Pat Gay, Nov 1998, Institute for Volunteering Research

pinpoint a single most important reason, and so the responses come to more than 700 (the number who responded).

Table 3.6: Motivations for becoming involved in volunteering activity

	A reason		Most important	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
Because it is giving something back	387	49.5	241	34.4
Because I was asked	127	16.2	18	2.6
Because it is enjoyable	345	44.1	118	16.9
Because I wanted to use my skills	263	33.6	53	7.6
Because I wanted a job in the same field	179	22.9	75	10.7
Because I want to get onto a specific course	51	6.5	15	2.1
Because it is general work experience	155	19.8	36	5.1
Looks good to potential employers	159	20.3	25	3.6
Keeps me busy/gets me out of the house	243	31.1	42	6.0
A good way to meet people/social reasons	189	24.2	28	4.0
Helps me to acquire or update specific skills	165	21.1	35	5.0
Other	20	2.6	7	1.0
Don't know	12	1.5	37	5.3
Total responses	782		700	

Source: CPC/System Three survey

3.3.2. These results are perhaps more meaningful when further classified. The various motivations fit broadly into four such classifications:

- ‘charitable’: wanting to give something back, a good cause etc.
- ‘social/personal’: to get out of the house, meet people, enjoyable etc.
- ‘employment’: want a job in the same field, want to acquire skills, good work experience etc.
- other: motivations not falling into the above, including family members already involved in volunteering and those who could not give any specific reason for volunteering.

When analysed on this basis, in just over a third of cases charitable reasons are the primary motivation, in just under a third social and personal reasons are most important and a quarter mainly become involved with a view to enhancing their employment prospects.

Table 3.7: Most important reason for becoming involved (CPC classification)

	Count	Percent
charitable	247	35.4
social/personal	227	32.5
employment	176	25.2
other	48	6.9
Total responses	698	100.0

Source: CPC/System Three survey

3.3.3. Motivation by age group does vary. The older the volunteer is, the more likely their primary motivation will be charitable, with about a quarter of 18-34 year olds motivated in this way against 44% of those over 45. Conversely, the younger the volunteer, the more likely they are to have volunteered for employment reasons: a third of 18-34 year olds will be motivated by this, whereas only 16% of 45-54 year olds are and just 7% of those 55 or over. Across all age groups, about one third are motivated by social reasons.

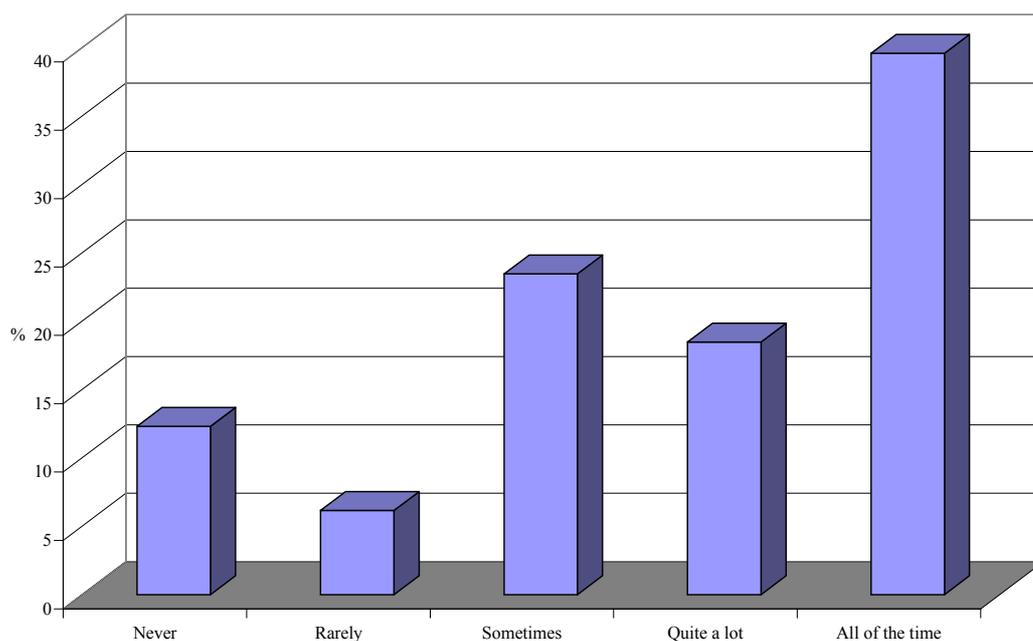
3.3.4. Respondents (in the telephone but not the postal survey) were also asked *how* they became involved. It is clear that familiarity with the organisation directly or through someone else is by far and away the most common route to becoming involved. Less than 3% cited a volunteer bureau as a route, less than 10% mentioned media channels, such as leaflets, newspapers or the internet and just over 10% mentioned their Jobcentre as playing a role.

3.4. Nature of the volunteering activities

3.4.1. Volunteers were asked a number of questions about the nature of their volunteering activity. Those who were interviewed by telephone were asked more questions than those who returned a postal survey. Questions which were only asked in the telephone survey are marked with an asterisk (*) at the start of the relevant paragraph.

3.4.2. *The vast majority of volunteers, some 88%, have had at least some contact with the public as part of their volunteering experience. This includes nearly 40% whose volunteering has brought them into contact with the public on a very regular basis indeed. The results are illustrated in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Extent of contact with the public



Source: CPC/System Three survey

3.4.3. Nearly two thirds of volunteers reported that the level of the tasks they were required to do as part of their volunteering activity were about right for them. Just over 10% felt that they were being asked to do more than they were capable of, but more than twice as many felt they could have been stretched more. These results are shown in the following table.

Table 3.8: Appropriateness of tasks and responsibilities

	Count	Percent
My tasks and responsibilities are about right for me	501	64
Sometimes I feel I cannot do everything required	76	10
I often feel I cannot do everything required	16	2
Sometimes I feel that my abilities are not fully used	97	12
Often I feel that my abilities are not fully used	86	11
Don't know/no reply	7	1
Total	783	100

Source: CPC/System Three survey

3.4.4. Volunteers were also asked whether they were expected to turn up at set times and the extent to which they complied. Just under half replied that the times they volunteered were set and they responded accordingly – a situation akin to an employment environment. Another quarter turned up at regular times,

even though they were not required to. Overall, therefore, all but a quarter were attending their volunteering activity in a way similar to that expected from an employer. Table 3.9 shows these results in more detail.

Table 3.9: Attendance requirements/expectations

	Count	Percent
These times were fixed and you followed them most or all of the time	387	49
They were fixed, but you only followed them some of the time	38	5
They were not fixed, but you tended to turn up at regular times	190	24
They were not fixed, but you turned up when you could	142	18
When required	12	2
When it suited me	3	-
Other	5	1
Don't know/no response	6	1
Total	783	100

Source: CPC/System Three survey

- 3.4.5. *Given the emphasis within employment policy on training as a route for progression, respondents were asked whether they had received any training during their volunteering activity and if so, what sort of training it was. Just over a third received no training at all (37%). A similar number (36%) received (at least) some induction training, just over a quarter enjoyed on-going/informal training and slightly fewer (24%) participated in formal training. Of these, just over half gained a qualification or certificate as a result.
- 3.4.6. Finding comparable statistics on the provision of training by employers is not straightforward. The recent Learning and Training at Work survey (2000) does provide a detailed analysis of the provision of training by employers – not the take-up by individuals. Nevertheless, the survey reported that just under a quarter of employers provided no training at all, with 41% providing off-the-job training and a further 35% on-the-job training. Almost twice the number of employers (46%) said they were providing training leading in part to a formal vocational qualification than the proportion of individual volunteers (24%) who benefited from such training. However, the survey reports significant variation in the take up of training by size of firm – voluntary organisations will typically fall into the smaller end of this

distribution and therefore the individual figures may compare well to the level of training provided by ‘industry’.

3.4.7. *Table 3.10 shows what training was received by volunteers undertaking different sorts of activities. Given the sensitivities involved in some of the ‘support’ volunteering (which includes counselling and care work), it is not surprising that this category receives the most formal training.

Table 3.10: Training received by type of volunteering activity (%)

	formal	ongoing	informal	none
Active	18%	20%	27%	35%
Support	26%	23%	28%	23%
Manual	19%	25%	30%	26%
Office	18%	26%	33%	23%

Source: CPC/System Three survey

3.4.8. Over both surveys 146 respondents, just over one in six, had gained a qualification or certificate through their volunteering activity.

3.4.9. The degree to which an individual is managed and supported was seen as being potentially important in the overall impact of the volunteering experience. Volunteers were therefore asked if their volunteering activity was ever reviewed or discussed with them. The results to this question are shown in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11: Volunteering activity ever reviewed or discussed

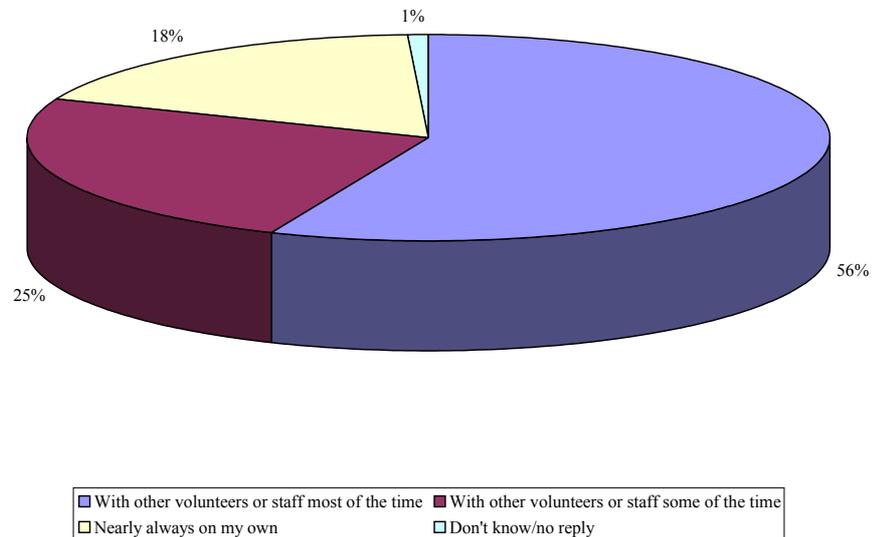
	Count	Percent
Yes	412	53
No	365	47
Don’t know/no reply	6	1
Total	783	100

Source: CPC/System Three survey

3.4.10. In addition, it was felt important to develop an understanding of the level of teamwork that the volunteering activity(/ies) required of each volunteer – teamworking skills are often cited as important ‘soft’ skills within the world of work. These results are represented graphically in Figure 3.2. Less than

one in five nearly always worked on their own, with over half saying that they worked with others most of the time.

Figure 3.2: Extent of working with others



Source: CPC/System Three survey

3.4.11. *A surprisingly high proportion of volunteers also manage other volunteers or staff in some capacity – nearly two fifths of those who responded to this question.

3.4.12. *Volunteers were also asked whether they felt they had made any progress in any of seven suggested ways. The results are outlined in Table 3.12, where the percentage figure is for all 682 potential responses. It is encouraging to note that fewer than one in ten felt they did not experience any of the suggested aspects and that nearly two thirds felt they had experienced three or more.

Table 3.12: Progress within the volunteering experience

	Count	Percent
Do more of the activity than to begin with	372	59.8
Have taken on more complex duties	376	60.5
Have needed less and less supervision	488	78.5
Taken on supervision of other people	262	42.1
Now use more equipment, such as IT	274	44.1
Work more with the public now than to begin with	341	54.8
Now undertake management tasks	189	30.4

Source: CPC/System Three survey

3.4.13. *The survey was also able to show the extent to which volunteering experiences offer variety. Just over 36% stated that their volunteering experience entailed considerable variety, with a further 30% saying that there was quite a lot of variety. About one in ten said there was very little or no variety with the remaining quarter stating that their volunteering activity was a little bit varied.

3.4.14. Respondents were asked whether their volunteering activity had led to them hearing about employment and/or training and education opportunities. Given the acknowledged importance of such informal networking and ‘word of mouth’ routes into employment, it is disappointing that fewer than 3 in 10 replied that they had. Of those who had, two thirds said it had led to contact with a potential employer or training provider, and over a quarter (66 individuals) achieved an interview, gained a job or were offered a training place.

3.5. The Impacts of Volunteering

While looking for work

3.5.1. All those who have experience of being a volunteer and looking for work were asked whether the former had had a positive impact on the latter.

3.5.2. *Table 3.13 shows how many believe that the experience of their volunteering activity had an impact on their job search behaviour. Just under

half believed that the volunteering experience had encouraged greater job search, with over a third believing it had done this ‘a lot’.

Table 3.13: Did volunteering experience encourage greater job search?

	Count	Percent
Yes – a lot more	214	33
Yes – a little more	88	13
No	357	54
Total	659	100

Source: CPC/System Three survey

It is interesting to note that an analysis of the responses of those who are now in employment by their broad occupational category suggests that those who are most likely to say that their volunteering experience encouraged greater job search are those in lower skilled occupations (such as personal and protective services, sales occupations and plant and machine operatives). However, the likelihood of reporting a subsequent role of the volunteering in actually getting the person a job does not reflect this (see 3.5.5. below).

- 3.5.3. In some ways, the most crucial question is whether the volunteering experience is seen as having had a positive impact on the individual’s chances of getting a job. Those who are in education/training or who are still unemployed were asked whether they felt the volunteering experience would help them get a job, and those currently in employment were asked whether they felt the volunteering experience had helped them to get a job. The combined results are shown in Table 3.14.

Table 3.14: Has volunteering experience had a positive impact on chances of getting a job

	Count	Percent
Yes - a lot	223	31
Yes - a little	160	23
No	328	46
Total	711	100

Source: CPC/System Three survey

- 3.5.4. Overall, over half believe that volunteering has had a positive impact. This suggests that volunteering is something that clearly has a role to play. It should be noted, however, that there are significant differences depending on the individual's current economic activity. Whereas 88% of those who are currently unemployed and intending to work believe that volunteering has had a positive impact, this falls to 72% for those in education/training and drops dramatically to 41% for those who are currently in employment. It is not clear whether this is caused by too high expectations of their volunteering by those not in employment, or by those in employment playing down the role that volunteering has in fact played. Furthermore, this very positive finding is not supported by statistical analyses (see section 4).
- 3.5.5. *Amongst those who are now in employment, there are slight differences between those moving into different broad occupational categories. However, because of the small numbers involved it is hard to draw any robust conclusions, particularly as no clear pattern emerges: for example, while only three in ten managers and administrators say their volunteering experience helped them to get their current job, over half of those now in associate professional or technical occupations do; and while over 50% of those now in personal and protective services cite a positive impact, only a third of those who are now plant and machine operatives do.
- 3.5.6. Of all those who were able to specify in what way the volunteering experience had had a positive impact (some 80%), the most common factor identified was more confidence, followed by work experience, proof to potential employers of motivation and the acquisition of specific skills.

Table 3.15: Reasons behind impact of volunteering; most important reason

	A reason		Most important	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
Have more confidence	195	63	86	24
Understand better what employers want	125	41	24	7
Have improved your appearance	45	15	0	0
Have improved your timekeeping	54	18	2	1
Have acquired specific skills	154	50	44	12
Have work experience	174	57	52	15
Have a reference	127	41	24	7
Are better at interview	98	32	3	1
Are better at completing application forms	70	23	4	1
Employers can see that I can do the job	129	42	34	10
Employers can see that I am motivated	156	51	54	15
Employers can see I've been working	4	1	3	1
Other	14	5	16	5

1. 'Most important' percentage column adds to more than 100 as some people named more than one 'most important'.

Source: CPC/System Three survey

Those unemployed at time of survey

3.5.7. The analysis now turns to those who remained unemployed at the time of the survey. They were all asked (not just those who believed their volunteering would help them get a job) whether and in what way they felt their volunteering experience had had an impact on key aspects of employability. Table 3.16 displays the results. It is clear that for those who remained unemployed at the time of the survey, volunteering activity has often had a significant perceived positive benefit. In particular, some 85% have become more confident, over 70% feel they have improved in terms of working with others and nearly 60% have picked up or improved specific skills. All but 5% believe that the organisation(s) for whom they volunteer would be prepared to give them a reference.

Table 3.16: Impact of volunteering on unemployed

<i>Volunteering experience...</i>	A lot		A little/maybe		Not at all		Total	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Has boosted confidence in general	163	57	79	28	44	15	286	100
Can now work better with others	145	51	79	28	62	22	286	100
Has led to new or improved skills	64	22	101	35	121	42	286	100
Was useful as work experience	109	38	94	33	83	29	286	100
Has led to (potential) reference	241	86	24	9	15	5	280	100

Source: CPC/System Three survey

Those in employment

- 3.5.8. *Table 3.17 shows the broad occupational categories of those who have moved into employment (at the time of the survey). There is a relatively even spread of occupations, with clerical and secretarial being the largest category (and 50% above the proportion in employment nationally). Volunteers tend not to find work in more ‘technical’ occupations – craft and related and plant and machine operators – represent just over half that found nationally.
- 3.5.9. Over half of respondents (54%) said that their current job was completely different to what they did for their volunteering activity. Almost a third (31%) felt it was similar in a few or some ways, with only one in six saying that it was very similar to what they did for their volunteering activity.
- 3.5.10. Only 12% were working for the same organisation for which they did the volunteering. Of these, 43% were motivated by employment reasons to undertake their volunteering activity, much higher than the overall proportion (25%) motivated by employment reasons. Of those who were working for a different organisation, 12% did something quite or very similar to the organisation for which they volunteered but the majority (over 70%) worked in an organisation whose function is unrelated to that of the organisation volunteered for.

Table 3.17: Occupational categories of those now in employment

	Count	Percent	UK %
Managers and administrators	46	12	16
Professional occupations	53	14	11
Associate professional and technical occupations	32	8	11
Clerical and secretarial occupations	86	22	15
Craft and related occupations	30	8	12
Personal and protective service occupations	52	14	11
Sales occupations	38	10	8
Plant and machine operatives	19	5	9
Other occupations	22	6	8
Unclassified	6	2	-
Total	384	100	100

Source: CPC/System Three survey and Labour Force Survey, Autumn 2000

- 3.5.11. In order to gauge the extent to which those who have moved into employment believe volunteering has ‘made the difference’, they were asked whether they thought they would have got their current job without the experience of their volunteering activity.

Table 3.18: Would person have got current job without volunteering activity

	Count	Percent
Yes	235	50
Probably	68	14
Probably not	38	8
No	133	28
Total	474	100

Source: CPC/System Three survey

In summary:

- half believe that their volunteering activity played no role in their acquisition of their current job;
- just over a third believed that the activity definitely or probably did help them (those answering “probably not” and “no” to the question);
- of those who said that it definitely helped them, three quarters were unemployed when they began their volunteering activity (against just 62%

of those now in employment) which suggests that is an effective way into employment;

- tempering this, however, is the further finding that less than two fifths in this group began volunteering primarily motivated by employment reasons.

3.5.12. All those who believed that the volunteering activity may have played some role in helping them get their current job were also asked whether they could have obtained a job at all without the volunteering activity. Of the 212 who answered, one in five (44 individuals) believed that they would not or probably would not have been able to gain a job at all. The main difference the volunteering appears to have made is in giving the individual confidence and demonstrating motivation and ability to work to employers.

Table 3.19: Would person have been able to get any other job without volunteering activity

	Count	Percent
Yes	121	57
Probably	47	22
Probably not	18	9
No	26	12
Total	212	100

Source: CPC/System Three survey

3.5.13. The 168 individuals who believed that they would not have got their current job without the volunteering activity, but would have got another job, were asked a series of questions to ascertain their views of the quality of the job to which the volunteering activity had assisted them compared to other jobs they believe they might have obtained instead:

- just over half believed that the alternative would have been better paid (suggesting that volunteering activity is not necessarily a good route to maximising the wage levels of any consequent employment);
- 56% believed that another job would not have been as interesting and enjoyable as their current job, with only a quarter saying that another job would definitely have been more interesting;
- 55% believed their current job offered greater career prospects than another job, with only 25% saying that another job would definitely have been better from a career point of view.

All those looking for training

- 3.5.14. Those who were unemployed and looking for training/education and those currently in training/education were asked whether they felt their volunteering experience had or would have a positive impact in this regard. The results are shown in Table 3.20.

Table 3.20: Did/will volunteering help secure training/education place

	Count	Percent
Yes - a lot	35	34
Yes - a little	12	12
No	57	55
Total	104	100

Source: CPC/System Three survey

3.6. Volunteering in employment

- 3.6.1. Of those who were employed at the time of the survey, 46% had given up their volunteering activity – indeed, 40% were no longer volunteering at the point at which they moved into employment. A further one in six had reduced the amount of volunteering activity they undertook, but over a third (36%) had continued to volunteer in the same way as when unemployed.
- 3.6.2. *Of those who have continued, nearly half (45%) found it difficult or sometimes difficult to combine work and volunteering. However, slightly more (49%) believe that their volunteering is of help to them in their jobs, mainly through providing experience and boosting chances of promotion.
- 3.6.3. *Just over a quarter of all those unemployed at the time of the survey have had a period of employment (of at least 4 weeks) since they began their volunteering activity. Just over a third gave up their volunteering activity while in this employment but just under half of these resumed the volunteering once they became unemployed again.

3.7. Barriers to volunteering

- 3.7.1. Those who had not volunteered (but had considered it) and those who had volunteered but for less than the threshold amount (less than 24 hours in total, less than 2 hours a month or less than 24 hours a year) were asked some questions regarding why they had not undertaken (more) volunteering. In addition, those volunteers answering the postal questionnaire were asked whether they had considered undertaking more volunteering than they currently did and if so, what had prevented them.
- 3.7.2. Just over 1,000 (1,038) contacted had never volunteered, some one third of whom had considered volunteering. Of the 173 individuals with volunteering experience questioned, two in five had considered undertaking more. The reasons given by the total of 401 people who had considered undertaking (more) volunteering for not doing so are outlined in Table 3.21. By far and away the most important issue is lack of time, but there are clearly some other areas where knowledge and information is lacking, primarily regarding the whereabouts of volunteering opportunities and the implications from a financial point of view of becoming involved.

Table 3.21: Barriers to (further) volunteering

	Count	Percent
I do not have the time	187	47
I don't know of any organisations who offer volunteering opportunities	54	13
I don't know of any organisations for whom I would want to volunteer	20	5
I have been looking for work/ in education	35	9
I am concerned that it might get in the way of looking for work	47	12
I am worried that I would lose money through not being paid expenses	23	6
I am concerned that it might affect my benefit claims	21	5
Lack of motivation/not thought about it	22	5
Poor health/ ill-health	11	3
Have children/family commitments	9	2
Other	23	6

Source: CPC/System Three survey

4. WHO BENEFITS AND HOW

4.1. Introduction

4.1.1. This section addresses the core issue for the research: whether a relationship can be established between voluntary activity and employability – as measured by both the perceptions of the individual and any observable differences in their experiences of employment. We have undertaken this analysis in four distinct ways:

- a descriptive analysis of the perceptions of individuals concerning the manner and extent to which voluntary activity has contributed to their employability (drawing a distinction between those in work and those yet to find work);
- an analysis of the time taken by people to (re-)enter employment according to different factors relating to their voluntary activity;
- an analysis of the work history of volunteers and non-volunteers between July 2000 and January 2001 to explore the factors which may underlie sustainability in outcomes; and,
- a statistical regression analysis of the factors contributing to (re-)entering employment.

Each of these analyses are addressed in turn.

4.2. Individuals' Perceptions of the Value of Voluntary Activity

4.2.1. This section explores the characteristics and features of the volunteering experience of those who have reported that volunteering has boosted their employment prospects. For example, overall 54% of those volunteers surveyed felt that volunteering had had a positive impact in some way (either a lot or a little) on their chances of getting a job; however, 61% of those living on their own felt this as against only 43% of those living with a partner. From this it seems that those living on their own are more likely to benefit in employment terms from volunteering than those living with a partner. It should be noted that this is a correlation *only* – it does not mean that the indicator is the causal factor behind the positive outcome. Furthermore, the 'positive impact' is based on a self-perception, the basis for which is likely to

vary significantly from person to person. However, this process does begin to identify which aspects of volunteering appear to be important and for whom.

4.2.2. Only those factors and features that have a significant correlation with a positive impact from volunteering are discussed. For completeness, the factors which do not have a significant correlation are:

- Possession of a criminal record
- Ethnicity (whether white or non-white)
- Disability
- Whether volunteered for a public or non-public institution (or both)
- Type of volunteering activity (active, support, manual, office) or numbers of types undertaken
- Appropriateness of tasks to skills and aptitude
- Time requirements
- Progression within the volunteering activity

Personal Characteristics

4.2.3. Not having a driving licence means that one is more likely to gain something from volunteering: 65% of those without a driving licence benefited in some way whereas only 47% of those with one reported that their volunteering activity had increased their chances of getting a job.

4.2.4. 43% of those living with a partner reported a positive impact from volunteering. For those living on their own, this goes up to 61%, suggesting that single people are more likely to benefit.

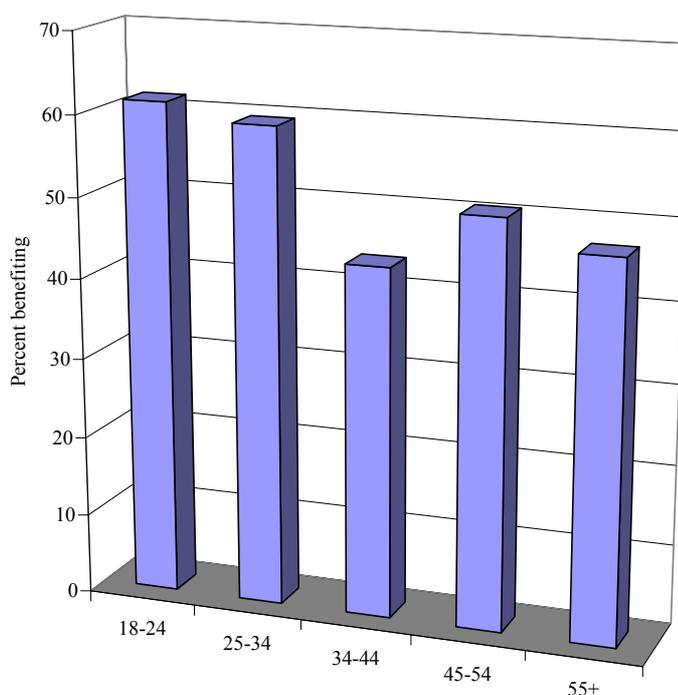
4.2.5. Not having dependants makes one more likely to benefit from volunteering, though the correlation is not as strong as with the driving licence and whether one lives with a partner: 57% of those without dependants reported a positive impact, as against 48% with one dependant and 46% with two or more dependants.

4.2.6. The younger one is, the more likely one is to experience positive impacts from volunteering as Figure 4.1 illustrates. This correlation is particularly strong where significant benefits from volunteering are reported: 38% and

39% of 18-24 year olds and 25-34 year olds respectively reported significant benefits as against only 22% of those in the 35-44 bracket.

4.2.7. In summary, it appears that those who are most likely to report benefits are those who are less likely to have well developed social networks. Volunteering, therefore, may play a role by enabling such people to develop social networks. The impact may be as much in terms of social skills and social benefits as those directly related to employment – this would fit with the statistical picture developed below, which suggests that the link between volunteering and employability (as opposed to other sorts of benefits) is much weaker than surveyed individuals' responses would suggest.

Figure 4.1: Correlation between agebands and reporting positive impact from volunteering



Source: CPC/System Three survey

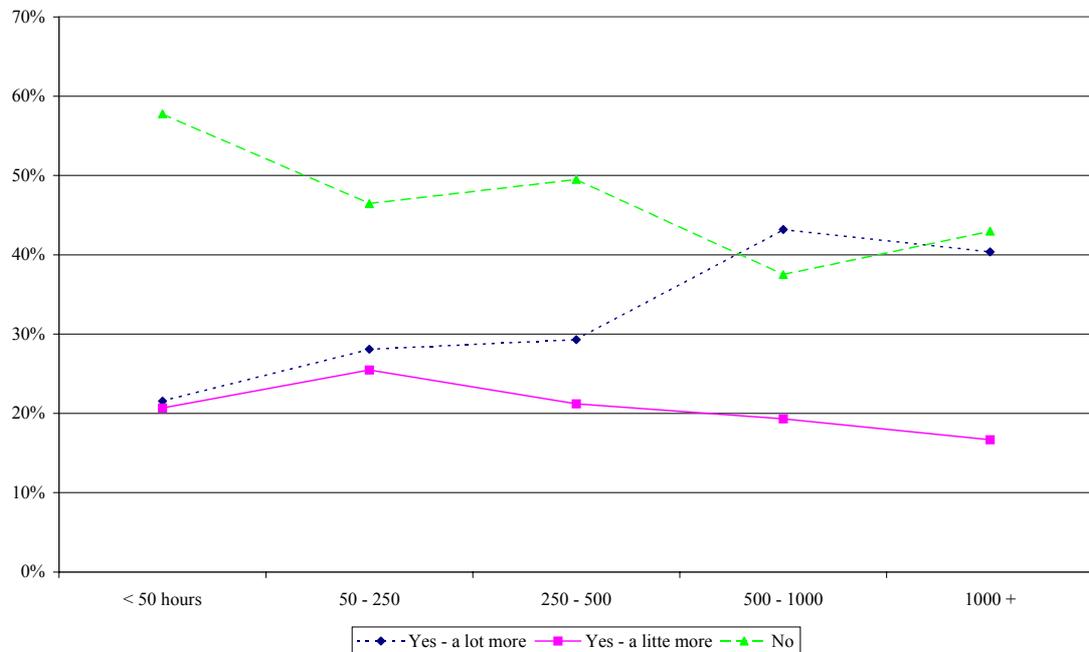
4.2.8. Those who have been unemployed for six months or more have been subject to a separate analysis. This is of particular policy interest, because it is after six months on the Register that much government intervention begins, such as New Deal. While overall 54% of volunteers believe that volunteering has had a positive impact for them in terms of finding employment, that figure goes up to 64% for those whose most recent spell is 6 months or more. In other

words, there appears to be a correlation between length of unemployment and perceptions of benefits from volunteering. As with earlier results, however, those still not in employment are more likely to attribute benefits to volunteering, with 75% saying that they felt that volunteering had boosted their employability, compared with 54% of those now in a job. The difference is much less than that for all volunteers, where 88% of all volunteers who are still unemployed believe it has had a positive impact against only 41% of those now in employment.

Nature of the Volunteering

4.2.9. There is a correlation between the total number of hours volunteered and whether there is a positive impact, particularly when significant impacts are reported. Figure 4.2 illustrates this link. The top line represents those who say they have not benefited at all (which declines with longer hours of volunteering) and the middle representing those who say they have benefited ‘a lot’ from their volunteering (which increases with longer hours of volunteering).

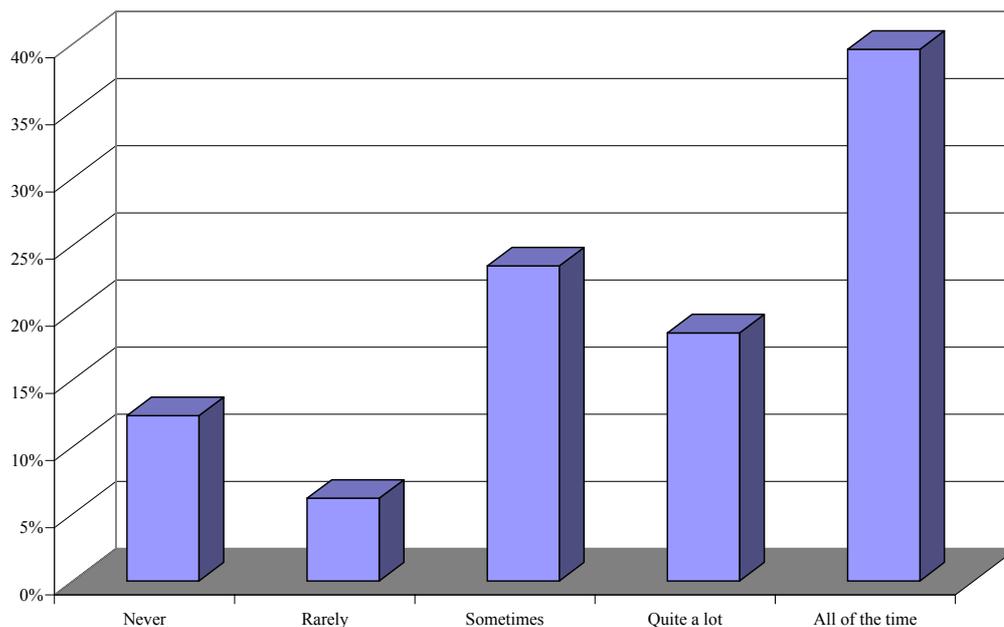
Figure 4.2: Correlation between hours volunteered and reporting positive impact from volunteering



Source: CPC/System Three survey

- 4.2.10. Only 40% of those who never work with the public as part of their volunteering activity report a positive impact, against over half of those who do. However, it does not seem that the more contact with the public there is, the greater the likelihood of reporting a positive impact as illustrated by Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3: Percentage reporting positive impact from volunteering by working with the public as part of volunteering experience



Source: CPC/System Three survey

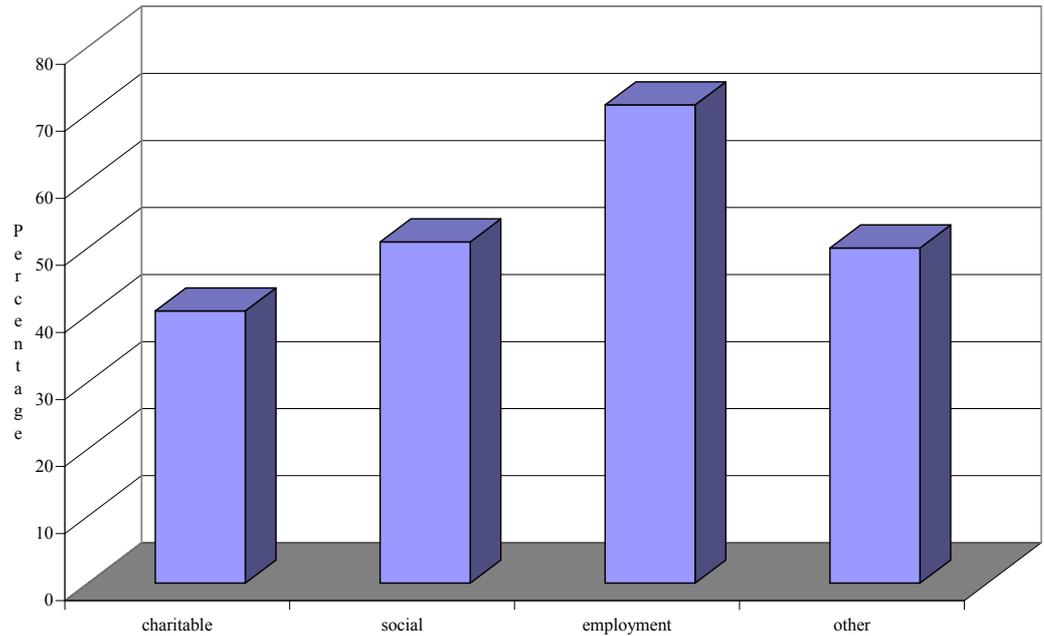
- 4.2.11. Whether training was provided by the organisation also appears to have a correlation with a positive impact for the volunteer in employment terms. It is interesting to note, however, that those who benefited most are those who have received ongoing informal training: only 43% of those who received no training have claimed a benefit as against 53% who have been ‘shown the ropes’ and 56% who have received formal training – but of those who have received ongoing informal training 61% reported a benefit.
- 4.2.12. Those who had had their volunteering activity discussed or reviewed by someone at the organisation are nearly 50% more likely to say that they benefited than those who did not, with 62% of those who were reviewed reporting a positive impact against 44% of those who were not.

- 4.2.13. There is also a correlation between working with others as part of the volunteering activity and employment related benefits: two fifths of those working on their own most or all of the time reported positive impacts whereas nearly three fifths of those who work as part of a team did. It is interesting to note that the link is slightly stronger amongst those who work with others sometimes than amongst those who work with others most or all of the time. This suggests that a variety and combination of working arrangements is more likely to deliver positive employment benefits for volunteers.
- 4.2.14. Finally, those who have heard about employment and training/education opportunities during their volunteering experience are more likely to report that their chances of gaining employment as a result of their volunteering have increased. 72% of those who have heard about such opportunities report a positive impact, whereas only 45% do of those who have not heard about such opportunities.

Motivation for Volunteering

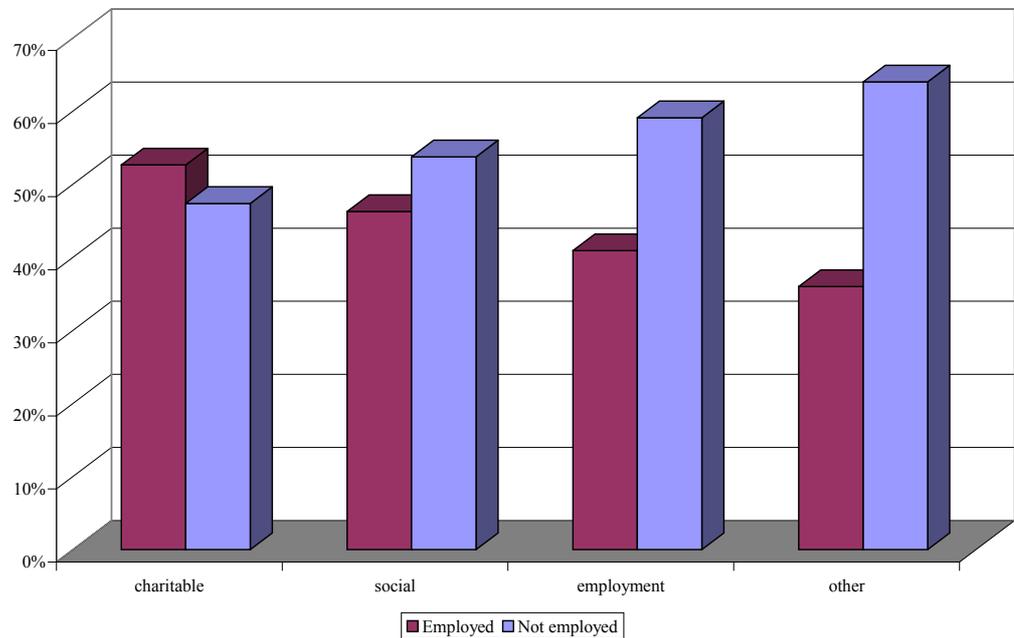
- 4.2.15. Those who are primarily motivated to volunteer as part of an employment strategy are much more likely to claim an employment benefit from their activity. It is interesting to note, however, that those who are motivated mainly by a social reason (such as wanting to meet new people or simply looking for something to do) are in fact more likely to report an impact than those who are mainly motivated by charity. This is illustrated in Figure 4.4.
- 4.2.16. In part, these differences in observed impacts are due to the employment status of volunteers: people who are currently unemployed do rate the (potential) impact of voluntary activity much more highly than those already in work. Figure 4.5 shows the differences in employment status (at time of survey) by the peoples' primary motivation. This may go some way to explaining why those who start voluntary activity for employment (career) driven reasons are more positive about the impacts. The 'Other' category is included for completeness but contains only 48 respondents and therefore should be treated with caution.

Figure 4.4: Percentage of those reporting positive impacts from volunteering by primary motivation



Source: CPC/System Three survey

Figure 4.5: Employment Status by Primary Motivation



Source: CPC/System Three survey

4.2.17. People who began their volunteering activity when they were unemployed are twice as likely to be motivated by employment reasons as those who began when they were employed (30% of those who began when unemployed as

against 15% of those who were employed). This is in line with expectations but some care is required in interpreting this result: we do not have a volunteering 'history' for each individual and these responses relate to their current volunteering activity which may not be their first.

4.3. The Relationship between Volunteering and Job Entry

4.3.1. Marginally more volunteers are in employment. We have already considered whether this is due to any particular bias in the sample or differences in the basic characteristics of volunteers and non-volunteers (see section 2) - while volunteers tend to be older and have longer unemployment durations on the one hand, they also tend to be proportionately more likely to be female and better educated on the other (both relatively positive factors in predicting an individual's chances of finding work). This section considers further whether voluntary activity has had any impact on the speed at which unemployed people have found work.

4.3.2. Table 4.1 presents the arithmetic mean and median (50th percentile) values for the number of weeks people have been on the Register prior to either entering employment or (for those who have not yet left) the end of July 2000. Although we have presented the mean values, we believe the median values provide a better indicator of the average as they are less prone to the influence of a few very long durations at the upper end of the distribution. According to both measures, however, people who do not volunteer can expect shorter durations on the Register: the median duration on the Register of volunteers in employment is 18% longer than the comparable group who do not volunteer, while for unemployed people the median duration (to end July 2000) is 47% longer for volunteers.

Table 4.1: Average and median durations on Register (last spell in weeks)

	Mean			Median		
	Employed	Unemployed	All	Employed	Unemployed	All
Volunteers	20.0	46.7	35.5	9.1	25.9	17.7
Non-Volunteers	15.5	38.8	29.1	7.7	17.6	13.4

Source: CPC/System Three Telephone survey

4.3.3. This would suggest a prima facie case that voluntary activity may actually delay a return to employment. Table 4.2 presents comparable durations according to a range of factors (in each case those with closed durations, i.e. the employed, are presented separately to those who remain unemployed). The hypothesis is not entirely borne out by this further analysis. If the 7.7 weeks median value for non-volunteers to find employment is taken as a benchmark, then certain factors in the volunteering experience can reduce the median value of volunteers entering work. Possession of higher level qualifications and working with the public during the voluntary activity make a distinct difference to the speed at which volunteers return to work. Experience in a supervisory role or on-going formal or informal training can also have a positive impact.

Table 4.2: Median durations on Register (last spell in weeks)

	Volunteers	Employed	Unemployed	All
Qualifications above level 3		8.3	25.9	16.7
Qualifications below level 3		11.2	25.9	19.6
Volunteered when employed		6.4	16.0	10.1
Volunteered when unemployed		11.3	29.6	21.7
Work with public		7.9	25.9	17.1
Did not Work with public		11.2	26.0	18.7
Undertook supervisory role		8.4	21.7	16.3
No supervisory role		9.3	29.6	18.7
Undertook formal/informal training		8.7	26.0	16.9
No training		9.7	24.0	17.7

Source: CPC/System Three Telephone survey

4.3.4. However, it is the time at which people first volunteer which appears to make the most significant difference. Those who volunteer when employed return to work in almost half the time compared to those who first volunteer when unemployed and more quickly than those who do not volunteer. There are some differences between these two groups – for example 61% of those who first volunteer while in employment have a highest qualification of Level 3 or above but these differences are not large: 56% of those who first volunteer when unemployed have qualifications at the same level. While we have undertaken a regression analysis to statistically test these relationships (see 4.5 below), the analysis suggests differences in non-measured factors (attitudes and aspirations etc.) may better explain these findings.

- 4.3.5. The view that other factors are playing a role is reinforced by an analysis of the median durations by primary motive for volunteering. According to Table 4.2, those who first volunteer when employed are most likely to have shorter average durations. This would suggest that those whose motive is employment related were more likely to have shorter median durations. However, Table 4.3 suggests that this is not the case: the median duration for those looking to develop their employment prospects through volunteering is longer than those of the other groups. For this to be consistent with the previous finding then on average those motivated by employment and who started to volunteer while employed must have longer durations than those who volunteer for charitable reasons whatever the stage at which they volunteer.

Table 4.3: Median Durations by Primary Motivation

	Employed	Unemployed	All
Charitable	7.9	21.9	13.0
Social/Personal	9.1	21.6	15.0
Employment	13.7	34.6	24.0
Other*	-	-	-

* Fewer than 50 cases so not included

Source: CPC/System Three Telephone survey

- 4.3.6. The time on the Register has also been analysed for those whose last spell on it has been more than 26 weeks, to see if there are any differences between those with volunteering experience and those without. Overall, the median time on the Register for those who have volunteering experience is 46.8 weeks and for those without volunteering experience, 44.6 weeks. A difference of just over two weeks over a total of some 11 months is not significant, but ties in with other findings, that volunteers are likely to spend slightly longer on the Register than non-volunteers. Further analyses, for example by whether they were in employment at the time of the survey, whether they worked with the public and whether they had reviews supports the same conclusion.
- 4.3.7. Motivation for volunteering does appear to have a small correlation with length of time on the Register for this group, with those volunteering for charitable reasons (median of 41.1 weeks) and employment reasons (45.1

weeks) spending less time on the Register than most volunteers (46.8 weeks). This supports the view that employment motivated volunteering does relate to better employment outcomes, but the connection is slight and is based on very small numbers.

4.4. Work history of volunteers and non-volunteers

4.4.1. This section explores whether the work histories of those in the survey appear to be influenced by volunteering activity. In order to do this the contribution of volunteering activity needs to be isolated as far as possible from other factors known to improve an individual's chances of employment, such as qualifications and possession of a driving licence.

4.4.2. We have access to labour market circumstances at three points in time: the time the database for the survey was extracted from ESED (the end of July 2000), the time of the survey (between October and early December 2000) and the time for which the second extract from ESED was made (January 2001). The proportions of survey respondents who were claiming JSA⁴ at the three points in time, by whether they have volunteering experience or not, are shown in the following table:

Table 4.4: Claiming JSA or not at three points in time by volunteering experience or not (%)

		Volunteers	Non volunteers
July 2000	Claiming JSA	41.2%	41.0%
	Not claiming JSA	58.8%	59.0%
Survey (Oct-Dec 2000)	Claiming JSA	26.1%	28.1%
	Not claiming JSA	73.9%	71.9%
January 2001	Claiming JSA	29.0%	28.7%
	Not claiming JSA	71.0%	71.3%

Source: CPC/System Three Telephone survey

⁴ For the two figures derived from ESED (July 2000 and January 2001), whether they are claiming JSA or not is signified by their presence on JUVOS; those figures derived from the survey are based on the numbers answering both that they were unemployed *and* that they were claiming. None of the three figures, therefore, include those who are unemployed but not claiming.

- 4.4.3. At all three points, the proportions claiming JSA and not claiming are very similar indeed – certainly there are no statistically significant differences. This suggests very strongly that volunteering overall does *not* have an impact (either way) on employment outcomes. Available information on differences in job quality is limited. However an analysis of differences in spell structure and durations off the Register has found no difference between volunteers and non-volunteers.
- 4.4.4. A number of more detailed analyses have been conducted to see if this ‘global’ picture hides more complex connections between volunteering and employment outcomes.

Motivation for volunteering

- 4.4.5. The motivation behind volunteering clearly has an influence, with those volunteering for employment reasons especially likely to move off JSA. The figures for those who volunteered for employment reasons are shown below next to the results from Table 4.4:

Table 4.5: Employment outcomes for volunteers motivated by employment

Claiming JSA at:	Volunteers	Non volunteers	Volunteers for employment reasons	Volunteers with specific jobs/courses in mind
July 2000	41.2%	41.0%	40.9%	36.3%
Survey	26.1%	28.1%	27.8%	22.5%
January 2001	29.0%	28.7%	27.2%	26.3%
Difference July–Jan	12.2%	12.3%	13.7%	10%
% change (July-Jan) /July	29.6%	30.0%	33.5%	27.5%

Source: CPC/System Three Telephone survey

- 4.4.6. The proportion claiming JSA falls more for those who have volunteered for employment reasons than for other groups, which would suggest that if used as part of an employment strategy, volunteering does make a difference. Indeed the ‘additional’ fall in claiming JSA for this group compared to non volunteers represents 12%.

- 4.4.7. However, for those who have specific jobs or courses in mind as part of their employment motivation, the fall is slightly less from a lower base. So while they are less likely to be claiming JSA in the first place they are also less likely to leave the Register – perhaps they are prepared to wait longer for their ‘ideal’ job or training course to turn up. However, the numbers falling into these categories (151 and 80 respectively in the telephone survey) and the small differences involved means that this result cannot be considered significant or ‘robust’.

Duration of last spell more than 6 months

- 4.4.8. In total, there are 606 individuals in the telephone survey who have been on the Register for six months or more. Not surprisingly, there is a higher proportion of people with such durations among volunteers (39%) compared to non-volunteers (29%). However, it is interesting to note that proportionately more of the non-volunteers were claiming JSA at both points in time. The accompanying analyses in this section of the report have found no significant evidence to suggest that this is due to volunteering itself. A more detailed analysis of the two groups suggests that the difference is due to other factors: the non-volunteer group contains proportionately more people without any or higher level qualifications and the non-volunteer group has 50% more people with a criminal conviction. The following table shows their JSA outcomes over three points in time:

Table 4.6: JSA Claimants for durations over 6 months

	Volunteers	Non-volunteers	Volunteers for employment reasons
	288	335	66
July 2000	65.7%	76.1%	62.1%
Survey	40.7%	54.0%	34.8%
January 2001	46.6%	51.0%	33.3%
Difference July-Jan	19.1%	25.1%	28.8%
% change (July-Jan) /July	29.1%	33.0%	46.4%

Source: ESED & CPC/ System 3 telephone survey

Although the numbers are not large, it certainly does not appear as though volunteers experience quicker returns off the Register than those who are non-volunteers. However, the 66 individuals who have volunteered for

employment reasons are some 50% more likely than volunteers in general and non-volunteers to have left the Register between July 2000 and January 2001. The numbers involved in this group do raise doubts about the robustness of this result. It would appear that volunteering may serve two purposes: for some unemployed it can provide an effective route back into employment but for others (a larger group) it provides something to do while remaining unemployed.

Age of volunteer

- 4.4.9. Volunteering appears to make a positive difference for those between the ages of 25 and 44, whereas for older age groups it appears to make them less likely to move off JSA, with the effect for 18-24 year olds negligible. For 25-44 year old volunteers, the positive impact is stronger if they have been motivated by employment reasons. This does not tally well with results according to individuals' perceptions of the benefits of volunteering, which suggested that those *least* likely to report benefits were in the 35-44 age range, although those in the 25-34 ageband were the second most likely group to report benefits (see 4.2.6.). The proportionate changes in percentage are shown for the different age groups and by whether they have volunteered or not in the following table:

Table 4.7: Proportionate change in percentage on JSA from July 2000 to January 2001

	Non volunteers (1024)	Volunteers (681)	Volunteers motivated by employment (151)
18-24	41.9	38.1	41.2
25-34	22.3	39.3	42.9
35-44	15.5	27.8	37.5
45-54	28.7	19.2	22.2
55+	52.6	24.1	0.0

Source: ESED & CPC/ System 3 telephone survey

Personal characteristics

- 4.4.10. Beyond that, those with certain characteristics appear to benefit from volunteering according to this measure. Women who volunteer appear to be less likely to move off JSA in this period than those who do not volunteer (respective drops of 35% and 46%), but for men the impact is reversed,

although less marked (the proportion on JSA for men who volunteer drops by 26% as against that for those who have not volunteered which drops by 23%).

- 4.4.11. Those who live with a partner and who volunteer are *more* likely to move off JSA than those who do not volunteer (36% change against a 30% change), and the opposite is true for those who live on their own (26% against 30%). This appears to contradict other results which suggest that those who live on their own are far more likely to attribute to volunteering increased chances of moving back into work (see 4.2.4.).
- 4.4.12. For those with a criminal record, volunteering appears to make a difference: the proportion of those with a criminal record who have not volunteered who are on JSA is exactly the same in January 2001 as it was in July 2001; but for those with a criminal record who have volunteered, the proportion on JSA has dropped by 25% in the same period.
- 4.4.13. There appears to be a positive impact from volunteering on this measure for those who are 'non white': of those who have volunteered, the proportion on JSA has dropped from 53.8% in July 2000 to 30.8% in January 2001, a proportionate drop of 43%. For those who have not volunteered, the drop is from 53.3% to 33.7%, a proportionate drop of 37%.
- 4.4.14. However, on two other measures of labour market disadvantage, possession of a driving licence and having a condition that affects one's ability to work, volunteering does not appear to make a difference. In both cases, those who have the respective characteristic are not more likely to move off JSA between July 2000 and January 2001 if they volunteer than those who do not.
- 4.4.15. Those who have no qualifications who volunteer appear more likely to move off JSA than their counterparts who do not volunteer. Those who have qualifications at NVQ level I and II (or equivalent) who volunteer, however, appear to be less likely than those who do not volunteer to move off JSA, an effect that is especially marked for those with qualifications at level II. Those with degree level qualifications who have volunteered are likewise less likely to have moved off JSA between July 2000 and January 2001 than those who have not volunteered. Bucking this trend quite noticeably, however, are those

who have NVQ III level qualifications (or equivalent), where those who have volunteered are much more likely to have moved off JSA than those who have not volunteered. Again, the numbers are small and as such these results are not statistically robust – but they nevertheless pose interesting questions. The results are shown in Table 4.8

Table 4.8: Proportionate change in % on JSA from July 2000 to Jan 01

	Volunteers	Non volunteers
No qualifications	25.0	22.6
NVQ I or equivalent	12	19.2
NVQ II or equivalent	22	35.5
NVQ III or equivalent	41.7	30.9
Degree or equivalent	32.5	37.1

Source: System 3/CPC telephone survey

- 4.4.16. The small numbers involved makes reaching robust conclusions unwise but a complicated picture emerges from this analysis. Volunteering does appear to make a difference, but only to specific groups. It would seem that those who have specific disadvantages (no qualifications, possession of a criminal record and being from an ethnic background) are more likely to move off JSA if they volunteer, although the fact that this is not repeated across other characteristics that are similarly acknowledged to have a negative impact on labour market outcomes mitigates against this finding. It is impossible to reach any conclusions regarding the finding that those at NVQ III or equivalent and those in the age range 25-44 in particular appear to benefit from volunteering – however, it is possible to speculate that particular attitudes towards the labour market may be what is crucial here. Such are the base numbers in these categories that we cannot rule out the hypothesis that these results are statistical quirks. On the one hand they present a complex and intriguing picture, but on the other they are at the very limits of the information available from our survey and strongly suggest that other factors such as individual's attitudes and aspirations have a major role to play.

4.5. Regression Analysis of the link between Volunteering and Employability

- 4.5.1. The final element in the analysis of the relationship between voluntary activity and employment uses linear regression techniques to estimate the contribution of a wide variety of factors to increased employability (employment). The advantages of this approach are that it provides a degree of statistical rigour to our analysis. The disadvantages are that it requires a fairly large number of cases to achieve statistical significance and is traditionally better suited to longitudinal (time series) data rather than the cross-sectional data we have in this study.
- 4.5.2. The main finding from this section of the analysis is that neither volunteering or number of hours volunteered are significant variables in any of the specifications of the model used for the regression. This is consistent with our other analyses of the survey data – in aggregate we can discern no appreciable impact on individuals’ employment outcomes from voluntary activity.
- 4.5.3. The analysis focused on three dependent variables:
- The duration of the individual’s last spell of unemployment;
 - The number of days spent on the Register between July 2000 and January 2001; and,
 - Those clients who were on the Register in July 2000 but who had secured employment in January 2001.
- 4.5.4. On the whole, the model results have been somewhat disappointing. All three models are able to explain more of the variation in the dependent variables than was possible when we regressed individuals’ characteristics against their decision to volunteer. However, we have been able to explain only 41% of the variation at best – still some way below a satisfactory level for cross-sectional data. Increasing the number of variables can marginally increase the overall level of explanation, although this does not mean we are adding factors which are statistically significant – while they increase the ‘fit’ of the model to the data they clearly do not add explanation.

4.5.5. Table 4.9 shows the principal results from the regression analysis. The first column gives the dependent variable – the outcome the regression is attempting to explain. The second column presents an indicator of the degree of variation in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables (a value of 1.0 would mean that the independent variables describe the dependent variable perfectly). The final column gives those variables which are statistically significant within 10% confidence limits (i.e. +/- 10%).

Table 4.9: Results of the Linear Regression Analysis

Dependent variable	R Square	Significant independent variables (at 10% level)
In employment at survey	.418	Possession of a driving licence Prior duration of unemployment Ethnicity Team work in voluntary activity Variety in voluntary activity
In employment at survey (Prime motive charitable only)	.510	Prior duration of unemployment Ethnicity Partner activity Work experience in voluntary activity In education/training Review process as part of voluntary activity
In employment at survey (Prime motive Social/personal only)	.455	Ethnicity Work experience in voluntary activity In education/training
In employment at survey (Prime motive Employment only)	.561	Prior duration of unemployment Age In education/training
Unemployment duration (last spell)	.372	Ethnicity Possession of a driving licence Work experience in voluntary activity Team work in voluntary activity Level of voluntary activity not sufficiently challenging Variety in voluntary activity
Transition from claiming at July 2000 to not claiming at January 2001	.289	Prior duration of unemployment Age Sex Level of voluntary activity not sufficiently challenging Supervisory experience as part of voluntary activity

4.5.6. The results present no real surprises. The main set of regressions were run against employment status (at time of survey) – i.e. what variables can best explain individuals' employment status. Prior duration of unemployment, ethnicity and the possession of a driving licence are all factors which typically arise as explanatory variables. However, other factors such as highest qualification, age and sex were not significant in the better fitting runs

of the model. Variety in the nature of the voluntary activity and an element of team work both were consistently statistically significant or close to significance, suggesting that the nature of the voluntary activity may have an impact on employment status (although as already noted not voluntary activity or the extent of activity itself).

4.5.7. We ran the same linear regression model for people who expressed their primary motive for volunteering as charitable, social/personal reasons or employment related. This produced progressively better fits of the data to employment status with fewer significant variables. Prior duration and ethnicity figure in two of the three runs and the activity of the individual's partner also became significant for those expressing charitable motives. Having a work experience component in the voluntary activity was significant for people who had volunteered for both charitable and social/personal reasons, whereas no characteristics of the voluntary activity were significant for those who volunteered for employment-related reasons.

4.5.8. Using the duration of unemployment as a dependent variable the regression model was consistently less able to explain variations in unemployment durations. However, significant independent variables were very similar to those using the previous model – a mix of personal characteristics (ethnicity and driving licences) and features of the voluntary activity (team work, variety and work experience). This specification of the model also found that those who said they had found the voluntary activity demanding and stretched their capabilities were more likely to have shorter durations of unemployment. This factor was also significant in the final version of the model which investigated those who were on the Register in July 2000 but who had left by January 2001. This gave the worst fit of all the models but again a similar group of variables were found to be statistically significant.

4.5.9. While these results of the modelling analysis have highlighted some issues, they do nothing to alter the impression from the descriptive analysis of the data that other factors come into play in determining the precise link between voluntary activity and employability. We have tried a wide variety of model specifications without ever managing to explain the majority of the variation in employment patterns. Overall, two factors emerge from this analysis as being significant in effecting peoples' chances of leaving unemployment:

- Personal characteristics (Prior duration, age, sex, possession of a driving licence)
- Characteristics of the voluntary experience (team work, work experience, review procedures, supervisory role)

It is interesting to note that while the influence of personal characteristics is no great surprise, the factors which are perceived by volunteers themselves to make a difference to the quality of the voluntary experience do match the characteristics identified as significant in the regression analysis.

5. CONCLUSIONS

- 5.1. This final section of the report highlights the principal findings of the research.
- 5.2. Overall more than half of all volunteers perceive that voluntary activity has had a positive impact on their chances of finding work. This perception is, however, much stronger amongst those who are still unemployed. Furthermore, those who do not have a driving licence, those who are younger, living on their own, without dependants and who have been unemployed for more than six months are especially likely to credit their volunteering activity with boosting their employability. It is reasonable to suppose that these people are less likely to have well developed informal networks and support structures.
- 5.3. The nature of the volunteering experience itself does make a difference – more people perceive that volunteering activity is improving their chances of getting a job if the activity has one or more of the following features:
- volunteering for a greater number of hours
 - working with the public, even if only for a small amount
 - being motivated by an employment strategy
 - whether training was received, particularly ongoing informal training
 - having one's volunteering contribution reviewed or discussed (a strong correlation)
 - working with others
 - variety within the volunteering activity
 - hearing about employment or educational/training opportunities through the volunteering activity (a strong correlation).
- 5.4. This strong endorsement of the impacts of voluntary activity on an individual's employment prospects is not matched to anything like the same extent by an objective analysis of the differences in employment outcomes for volunteers compared to non-volunteers. At the time of the survey, slightly more volunteers are in employment than non-volunteers, but of those in work, volunteers are more likely to be part-time. This may be because characteristics which appear to make individuals more likely to volunteer,

such as being female and being older, may also be behind this employment pattern. This highlights the difficulty generally for this study of isolating the impact of volunteering from what may be other crucial causal factors.

- 5.5. On some quantitative measures it would appear that volunteering does have a positive impact on an individual's employability, on others it would appear either to have a negligible impact and on others still to have what appears to be a negative impact. These overall apparently contradictory findings in fact point to complex layers of patterns experienced by different sorts of people. The scope of this research has not enabled a full analysis of these patterns and for many of them the numbers available are insufficient to produce robust results. We suspect strongly in any case that the critical factors lie in unobserved and quite probably unobservable characteristics, such as determination, dynamism and how personable an individual is.
- 5.6. Importantly, volunteers take longer to (re-)enter employment than non-volunteers. This may be because volunteering is obstructing a return to work in some way, for example by limiting time for jobsearch. However, there is some evidence from our survey that this delay is for positive reasons. At least some people who volunteer do so for employment reasons (about a quarter). Of those who have already made the transition into work and who believe that they could have got another job without the volunteering, half believe their current job is more interesting than it would have been without volunteering, and half also report that they are less well paid than they would have been. In other words, there is evidence that people are using and/or experiencing volunteering as a way of gaining not just *any* job, but jobs that they enjoy doing. In other words, it is part of a career building strategy.
- 5.7. That this can work is backed up by the findings that those who begin their volunteering for employment reasons are in fact more likely to move off the JSA Register between July 2000 and January 2001. This applies in particular to those between the ages of 25 and 44, those who can be assumed to be more likely to be at the 'career building' stage. Although numbers in the analysis are small, 12% more volunteers for employment reasons leave the Register than non-volunteers.

5.8. There appears to be a discrepancy here, however, given that overall volunteers stay on the Register for longer (although it should be noted that length of time on the Register and whether they move off the Register between July 2000 and January 2001 are not related). A hypothesis which accommodates these conflicting findings allows for two groups of volunteers who benefit from volunteering:

- on the one hand, there is a group who are relatively detached from the labour market: they are younger, less likely to live with a partner or have children or be mobile; moreover, they may also have specific barriers: they are less well qualified and may have a criminal record. For them, it appears that volunteering helps by compensating for these labour market deficiencies. They are likely to attribute employability benefits to their volunteering experience, but that may not have yet had time to filter through into improved employment outcomes.
- On the other hand, there is a group who are well qualified and using volunteering possibly only as one part of an overall career building strategy. Although they may stay on the Register for longer, overall they are less likely than those who do not volunteer to be (back) on the Register in January 2001 relative to their status at July 2000. However, they are less likely to attribute such benefits to volunteering.

5.9. However, it must be stressed that the measure comparing whether an individual is on the Register at July 2000 and January 2001 only suggests that for a few groups (those volunteering for employment reasons, those who are 25-44, those who have a criminal record and are from an ethnic minority) volunteering *may* have a positive impact. The measure is imperfect in that it is not a case history – we cannot fully know what has happened to them in between. Furthermore, other statistical measures, such as the median time on the Register and regression analyses, suggest that volunteering does not make a difference.

5.10. The crucial finding is that many people perceive it to make a difference. There is no especial reason in this survey to think that they should not be taken at their word. There is clearly a difference between an individual's perception of the contribution of voluntary activity to their chances of finding work and a quantitative measure of employability which is taken to be leaving the Register to find work. It is reasonable to suppose, however, that those who feel that their ability to be employed has increased may not have yet fed through into positive labour market outcomes, or that they have not yet achieved a level which enables them to move into a job. In particular, it is

reasonable to speculate that because the volunteering experience is enjoyable, is perceived to be delivering benefits and is raising aspirations for what is a 'good job', people are prepared to continue with the volunteering until they find a job of sufficient quality, rather than using their developed employability to move into the next job available. That is, the link between voluntary activity and employability may be complicated by individual career aspirations and doing work that they enjoy.

- 5.11. This means that those organisations that provide volunteering opportunities and are using the employability aspects of volunteering to 'sell' themselves to potential volunteers should bear in mind those factors that this work has shown are valued by volunteers at 5.3. Being able to provide a structured voluntary experience clearly makes a difference.
- 5.12. This study has shown that volunteering experience, particularly if it contains certain features, is often perceived to have boosted employability. However, only some statistical analyses suggest that this impact has fed through in the timescale available to this study into improved employment outcomes. The research has not been able to establish a baseline of employment outcomes for different groups within the unemployed and then test the 'additional' impact of volunteering. As a consequence we can say little from quantitative analyses about how far voluntary activity has moved individuals towards entering employment (other than through the volunteers' own perceptions).
- 5.13. Volunteering may, therefore, be worthy of public support (not counting the positive impact which may accrue to wider society as a result of volunteering activity). The findings would suggest, however, that if public support for volunteering is appropriate, it should be as much as a means of supporting on-going self-development and widening of horizons as a welfare-to-work mechanism. Voluntary activity can provide a broad range of positive benefits for unemployed people but we have found no overwhelming evidence that it leads directly to entry into employment – other factors such as the support environment and individuals' aspirations and personal barriers all play a part and these need to be addressed either as part of the voluntary experience or through other support mechanisms.

ANNEX A FIELDWORK TECHNICAL REPORT

Introduction

- A1 DfEE (now DfES) commissioned Cambridge Policy Consultants to carry out a survey comparing people who had participated in voluntary activities whilst unemployed with people who had been unemployed but not participated in any volunteering, to examine the impact of volunteering on employability.
- A2 Public Attitude Surveys (PAS) was commissioned to conduct the fieldwork. Since the survey was commissioned, PAS has started trading under the name NFO System Three Social Research (STSR), and is referred to as this throughout the following report.
- A3 This technical report describes the research methodology, including details of sampling, fieldwork and response rates.

Methodology

Introduction

- A4 The methodology used combined telephone and postal self-completion surveys. The telephone survey using computer aided telephone interviewing (CATI) was designed to survey 1800 respondents sampled from the Employment Service Evaluation Database (ESED), who had been unemployed for a period in the previous 15 months. Of these, 900 respondents were to have taken part in voluntary activities. Their responses were to be compared with a further 900 respondents, who had also been unemployed in the previous 15 months, but who had not taken part in any volunteering.
- A5 A postal self-completion survey was also carried out, which featured key questions from the telephone interview. This was designed to survey a further 200 respondents, all of whom had experienced a period of unemployment in the previous 15 months. Of these 100 would have taken part in voluntary activities whilst unemployed and the remaining 100 would not. The postal survey was carried out with a sample from the ESED of respondents who did not list a telephone number. The purpose of this part of the exercise was to check whether there was any bias in only interviewing respondents who had given a telephone number.

Sampling

- A6 DfEE provided Cambridge Policy Consultants with records of people who had been unemployed for a period in the previous 15 months. These were taken from the Employment Service Evaluation Database. From this a

sample was selected at random and passed to STSR for use in the two surveys.

- A7 In order to define which respondents were volunteers and which were non-volunteers, a minimum amount of volunteering experience was set, at least part of which had to have been carried out whilst unemployed. To qualify as a ‘volunteer’ respondents had to have at least 24 hours volunteering experience in total and have done at least two hours per month on average.
- A8 The telephone survey required 900 interviews with people who had experience of volunteering and a further 900 interviews with people who had no experience of volunteering. To achieve this, it was calculated that an initial sample of 18,000 would be required, based on the following:
- Nine per cent of unemployed people had taken part in voluntary activities.⁵
 - A predicted response rate of 55 per cent for the telephone survey.
- A9 The postal survey required 100 self-completion interviews with people who had experience of volunteering and a further 100 self-completion interviews with people who had no experience of volunteering. To achieve this, it was calculated that a sample of 5,000 would be required, based on the following:
- Nine per cent of unemployed people had taken part in voluntary activities.
 - A predicted response rate of 22 per cent for the postal survey.

The Telephone Survey

- A10 The method of data collection for the telephone survey was computer aided telephone interviewing. A letter from DfEE was sent to every respondent to introduce the survey and to offer them the opportunity to opt out if they did not wish to take part. The names of those that did not wish to take part were removed from the sample before the telephone survey took place.
- A11 A pilot survey was carried out from 3rd to 6th October with a separate sample, to test the questionnaire.
- A12 Interviews were carried out only with named respondents and the survey ran from 16th October until 4th December 2000.

The Introductory Letter

- A13 A letter was sent to every person named in the sample, which explained the nature and purpose of the survey, verified that STSR would be conducting the survey on behalf of DfEE and gave the necessary assurances of confidentiality. It also offered the opportunity to opt out of the survey by

⁵ Figures provided by DfEE in their Invitation to Tender.

writing to STSR and gave the telephone number of the lead researcher at DfEE to answer any queries.

- A14 The introductory letter was sent out two weeks prior to the commencement of the telephone survey to allow time for opt outs to be removed from the sample.

The Questionnaire

- A15 Cambridge Policy Consultants, in consultation with both DfEE, representatives of the Home Office and DSS, and STSR, designed the questionnaire. The final version was then entered onto the STSR system as a CATI script. The CATI script was checked thoroughly by STSR research executives and piloted before the commencement of the main stage of the survey.

- A16 The questionnaire consisted of two main sections, one for those with volunteering experience and the other for those with little or no volunteering experience. Both sections were further divided into separate sections for respondents who were employed, those who were not working and those not working but taking part in education or training.

- A17 Each respondent would answer questions from three sections: the first to establish which group they belonged to and whether they were ‘volunteers’ or ‘non-volunteers’, the second to answer questions specific to their group and experience and a third section containing demographic questions.

The Pilot

- A18 Fifty-six pilot interviews were carried out to check the flow and content of the questionnaire. Five of these interviews were carried out with volunteers and 51 with those who had no experience of volunteering. A separate sample was used for the pilot.

- A19 Interviewers and their supervisor were provided with written instructions and fully briefed by the research executive managing the survey. They were also fully de-briefed after the pilot about the questionnaire, responses given and any problems they might foresee with the main stage. Taking their comments into account, final amendments were made to the script and approved by DfEE before the main stage of the survey.

The Main Stage

- A20 The interviewers and their supervisors were provided with written instructions and fully briefed by the research executive managing the survey. Respondents were encouraged to take part in the survey at the time the interviewer called, but were also given the opportunity to make an appointment for a later date or time if it was inconvenient. Interviews were held from 16th October until 4th December.

Response Rates

- A21 A total of 1,708 interviews were completed. Of these a total of 682 were with volunteers and 1,026 with non-volunteers. A breakdown of employed, unemployed and others for each is shown in Table A.1.

Table A.1: Respondent breakdown – Telephone survey

Respondents	N	%
<i>Volunteers</i>		
Employed	384	22
Unemployed	225	13
Other	73	4
<i>Sub total</i>	682	40
<i>Non-volunteers</i>		
Employed	546	32
Unemployed	412	24
Other	68	4
<i>Sub total</i>	1,026	60
Total	1,708	100

Source: Volunteering and Employability Survey, 2000

- A22 Of the original 18,000 sample, 728 people opted out following the introductory letter and 4,107 were found to be out of quota (they had no volunteering experience and were called after this quota had been filled). A further 7,439 cases were out of scope, for example because the telephone number was unobtainable or wrong, or because the respondent had moved away. This left a total of 5,726 respondents in scope of fieldwork.
- A23 Of those in scope, eight per cent were not contacted after 20 calls, 30 per cent were successfully interviewed and 61 per cent refused. This refusal rate is higher than had been anticipated. There are a number of possible reasons for this. Firstly, the large majority of those refusing would not have taken part in any voluntary activity and might, therefore, have perceived the research to have been of little relevance or interest to themselves; secondly, those refusing who were now in employment might similarly have failed to perceive the relevance of the study; thirdly, the fact that the survey asked questions relating to activities carried out during periods of unemployment might have caused concern, for some respondents, in spite of assurances to the contrary, that their participation might affect their benefit payments.
- A24 Full response rate details are shown in Table A.2 below.

Table A.2: Response rates – Telephone survey

	N ^o	Population in scope of study (%)	Population in scope of fieldwork (%)
Number Sampled	18,000		
Out of quota [^]	4,107		
<i>In scope of study</i>	<i>13,893</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>-</i>
Cases not issued (opt outs)	728	5	-
<u>Invalid cases</u>			
Unobtainable numbers	4,585	33	-
Respondent moved away	1,501	11	-
Wrong number	1,248	8	-
Respondent died	12	*	-
Fax/modem	91	1	-
Other	2	*	-
<i>In scope of fieldwork</i>	<i>5,726</i>	<i>41</i>	<i>100</i>
Non contact after 20 calls	478	3	8
<u>Refusals</u>			
Respondent	3125	22	55
Proxy/other	28	*	*
Terminated mid-interview	330	2	6
<u>Other reasons for non interview</u>			
Respondent sick	35	*	1
Unavailable for duration of survey	22	*	*
Successful interviews	1,708	12	30

[^]Respondents with no volunteering experience who were telephoned after their quota had been filled.

* Less than one percent

Source: Volunteering and Employability Survey, 2000

The Postal Survey

A25 A postal self-completion survey was sent to 5,000 people named in the sample who did not have a telephone number. Also included was a letter from DfEE to introduce the survey and a reply paid envelope addressed to STSR. This was followed up two weeks later by a reminder letter and additional copy of the questionnaire and reply paid envelope, which was sent to those from whom a response had not yet been received.

The Introductory Letter

- A26 An introductory letter was included with the self-completion questionnaire, which explained the nature and purpose of the survey, verified that STSR were conducting the survey on behalf of DfEE and gave the necessary assurances of confidentiality. It also gave the telephone number of the lead researcher at DfEE to answer any queries.

The Questionnaire

- A27 The postal self-completion questionnaire featured selected key questions from the telephone survey, with certain structural changes to make the questionnaire suitable for self-completion. It was designed by Cambridge Policy Consultants in consultation with STSR and approved by DfEE. Once finalised the questionnaire was reformatted into the STSR house style and printed by STSR.

Processing the Postal Survey

- A28 The CATI system used for the telephone interviews automatically calculated whether a respondent had the minimum volunteering experience required to qualify as a 'volunteer'. As the postal survey was based on a self-completion questionnaire however, it was considered too complex and hence off-putting to expect respondents to calculate whether they qualified before going on to answer the appropriate section. For this reason, respondents with any volunteering experience were directed to all the questions about voluntary work, and their qualification calculated later when the questionnaires were processed. Any questionnaires returned by respondents who did not actually qualify on later inspection were simply added to the 'non-volunteer' questionnaires.
- A29 A total of 743 self-completion questionnaires were returned of which 103 qualified as volunteers. A random method was used to select 100 of the remaining 640 questionnaires from non-volunteers to be processed.

Response Rates

- A30 Of the 5,000 questionnaires originally sent out a total of 743 completed questionnaires were returned representing a gross response rate of 14 per cent. Of these a total of 103 were from respondents qualifying as volunteers and 640 from non-volunteers, of which 100 were randomly selected for processing. A breakdown of employed, unemployed and others for each is shown in Table A.3.

Table A.3: Respondent breakdown – Postal survey

<i>Respondents</i>	N	%
Volunteers		
Employed	43	21
Unemployed	46	23
Other	14	7
Total	103	51
Non-volunteers (processed)		
Employed	27	13
Unemployed	62	31
Other	11	5
Total	100	49

Source: Volunteering and Employability Survey, 2000

Outputs

- A31 Two SPSS system files were produced by STSR, the first for the telephone survey and a second containing data from the postal survey. Both files were thoroughly checked by both the data processing executive and the research executive managing the research. Finally, demographic data from the original sample files was then merged into the SPSS files before being sent to Cambridge Policy Consultants for analysis.

Quality Control

- A32 STSR are ISO 9001⁶ and MRQSA⁷ accredited. Annual independent inspections ensure that we continue to meet the high standards demanded by the scheme. All projects are carried out in accordance with the MRS Code of Conduct, which ensures that respondents' rights of privacy are respected and their anonymity preserved.

⁶ ISO 9001 is a quality mark awarded to the service industry by the International Standards Organisation.

⁷ The Market Research Quality Standards Association scheme ensures the highest standards are met throughout the research process by subjecting research agencies to regular independent quality audits. MRQSA is a BSA approved quality scheme (BS 7911) and incorporates the former Interviewer Quality Control Scheme (IQCS), which lays down standards for interviewer recruitment, training and supervision and back-checking completed work. The Market Research Quality Standards Association scheme ensures the highest standards are met throughout the research process by subjecting research agencies to regular independent quality audits. MRQSA is a BSA approved quality scheme (BS 7911) and incorporates the former Interviewer Quality Control Scheme (IQCS), which lays down standards for interviewer recruitment, training and supervision and back-checking completed work.

Data Collection

- A33 Data for the telephone survey was collected through computer aided telephone interviews (CATI). All interviewers were fully trained in telephone interviewing, having received a minimum of 12 hours basic training and having been tested to ensure that they understood and assimilated the training given. Interviewers were supervised at all times at a ratio of no greater than 10 interviewers to one supervisor and continuously appraised throughout the survey. Both visual and audio monitoring of interviewers was used to ensure the quality of interviews, with particular attention being paid to:
- Politeness in all circumstances
 - Correct research and interviewer introduction
 - Professional interviewer manner
 - Good explanations
 - Clear, well placed speech
 - Script adherence
 - Unbiased questioning and response acknowledgement
 - Accuracy in resolving issues
- A34 Respondents were given the assurance that the research was being carried strictly in accordance with the Market Research Society (MRS) Code of Conduct, and that their rights to privacy were being respected and their anonymity preserved.

Coding, Data Entry and Editing

- A35 All coding of the open-ended and “other – please specify” responses for both the telephone and postal surveys, was carried out personally by an experienced coding team who refer any queries directly to the research executive responsible for the survey. The code frames were constructed by the coding supervisor and checked and approved by both the research executive and Cambridge Policy Consultants.
- A36 The telephone interviewers automatically entered data, as the interviews were carried out using computer-aided telephone interviewing (CATI). The questionnaire was entered onto the system in the form of a CATI script with the relevant skips and filters programmed in. In this way practically all interviewer error is eliminated as the computer directs the interviewer to the next relevant question and will not allow the interview to proceed if the question has not been answered. Respondent error was also reduced as the programme was set up to check the logic and consistency of the answers given. When inconsistent answers were given the interviewer was prompted to double-check that the respondent understood what information we wanted. In this way, errors were rectified at the time of interview avoiding the need to re-contact the respondent at a later point.

- A37 The postal survey employed a self-completion questionnaire. Once checked and fully coded, the data was entered onto computer by STSR data entry staff. Each data entry operator's work was randomly verified by re-entering a proportion of the entered data and comparing the two data sets. Results of verification were fed back to each operator. Quality records are maintained for every data entry operator's work.
- A38 A bespoke edit program was written for this survey and, as well as a manual edit, which was carried out at the coding stage, the data were subjected to a thorough computer edit. Any discrepancies identified by the edit were referred back to the relevant questionnaire for resolution.

ANNEX B SAMPLE SELECTION AND SURVEY BIAS

B1 Employment Service (ES) provided CPC with the full ES Evaluation Database (ESED) on September 11th 2000. The database contains some 950,000 individual records stretching back into the 1980s. All these records represent an individual who has used the services of ES at some stage. By no means, therefore, have they all necessarily experienced a spell of unemployment.

B2 It had been agreed that the study was to focus on those who had experienced at least one spell of unemployment in the most recent year available. Given that ESED goes up to June 2000, it was decided that the appropriate frame, therefore, was those who had experienced at least one spell of unemployment between July 1st 1999 and June 30th 2000. We also excluded individuals who according to ESED:

- fell into Scotland or Northern Ireland as their Standard Statistical Region;
- had failed their all work disability test;
- had left the country;
- were retired;
- had gone abroad;
- started claiming Incapacity Benefit or ‘other benefit’ (other than IB or IS);
- were deceased;
- were in prison or attending court; and
- had a defective claim.

We also excluded those for whom “reason for claim end”⁸ was “other reason”. 223,164 individuals remained, who are referred to as the population. A random sample of 32,700 contacts were selected from the database for the pilot and main surveys.

B3 The following Tables set out the principle characteristics of the telephone and postal samples with those of the population. In order to check that the sample, drawn randomly, reflected the population, a number of frequencies were run on both databases to enable comparison. The comparisons are outlined in the Table below.

8 i.e. ending their JSA claim

Table B.1: Comparison between population and sample across key variables

	Target	Actual
Initial population	-	223,164
Population for survey	-	32,700
Telephone (total)	1,800	1,708
<i>Volunteers</i>	900	682
<i>Non-volunteers</i>	900	1,026
Postal	200	203
<i>Volunteers</i>	100	103
<i>Non-volunteers</i>	100	100

- B4 The postal element was conducted in order to ensure that there was no bias against those who did not have a telephone. In fact, many of those who did not have a telephone contact according to ESED did actually have a telephone: only 46% of those who did not have a phone number on ESED actually confirmed this in their postal questionnaire. A full technical report on the survey achievements is included in Annex A.
- B5 Any survey should aim for the sample interviewed to represent the wider group (the population) who are of interest to the study. Where it becomes apparent that the sample does not reflect the population then the data needs to be weighted to ensure that the statistical results can be applied with confidence to the population.
- B6 From this base, 32,700 were selected *at random* for the survey. They in turn were contacted at random initially, until sample quotas (the ‘targets’) were reached. The quotas were set at levels which would provide a sufficient set of responses for a statistically significant analysis. This over-sampling of volunteers needs to be borne in mind throughout the analysis, however, as if certain characteristics are correlated in people who volunteer, these will be exaggerated amongst the sample as a whole.
- B7 What is important from a sampling point of view is for the non-volunteer sample to match the non-volunteer population, and the volunteer sample to match the volunteer population. However, we do not have the volunteer population. What we have been able to do is check that the non-volunteer sample matches the population closely enough for us to have confidence that there has not been any bias *in the sampling*. With regard to the volunteer sample, significant differences will prompt non-linear regression analyses in order to ascertain whether the fact of volunteering experience, or some other relevant factor (such as motivation or nature of experience), appears to be a causal factor, or whether it is down to bias in the sampling of the volunteers.
- B8 Overall, we are satisfied that the sampling process has not been biased. There are observable differences in gender, age, disability, marital status, whether they live in a rural area and whether the client is ‘active’ in their involvement with ES:

- A higher proportion of females
- Higher proportions of older age groups (45+) and lower 25-34s
- Similar proportions of ethnic minority and people with disabilities
- More married but fewer single respondents
- Very similar regional breakdown but with slightly higher proportions from rural areas
- Similar reasons for ending claim in general but fewer “failed to attend”
- Similar durations of claiming and actively seeking.

B9 However, we believe that these differences will arise because of differences in the characteristics of those who volunteer, and not by sample bias *per se*. For example, more women volunteer – hence the sample, which contains an over-sample of volunteers, has a higher proportion of women. But there is nothing to suggest that the sample was biased towards women apart from this.

B10 The following tables do reveal differences between the population and the samples in terms of basic characteristics as outlined in section 2 of the report. However, we do not believe they are as a result of bias in the sampling or survey process. Chi Square tests support there are differences between the telephone sample and population in ethnicity, region of residence and whether they are active on the Register at 5% confidence limits. The Chi Square test also identified a significant difference between the telephone sample and population for peoples’ unemployment duration, but this was only significant at the 25% level.

B11 There are also considerable differences in basic characteristics between those participating in the survey who do have telephones and those who do not. The following Tables present the percentage of the population, telephone and postal sample in each category.

Comparisons between population and samples (ESED variables)

Table B.2: Gender

	Population	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
Female	29	34	42	33
Male	71	66	58	67
Total	100	100	100	100

Table B.3: Age

	Population	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
under 18	1	0	2	4
18-24	28	28	16	13
25-34	28	23	29	28
34-44	20	19	20	28
45-54	15	20	23	17
55+	7	10	10	10
Total	100	100	100	100

Table B.4: Disability

	Population	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
Disabled	11	14	12	22
Not disabled	89	86	88	78
Total	100	100	100	100

Table B.5: Ethnicity

	Population	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
not known	20	18	25	19
White	71	73	64	69
non-white	9	9	10	12
Total	100	100	100	100

Table B.6: Marital status

	Population	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
Not Known	6	5	8	4
Single	59	53	62	62
Married	22	31	11	15
Widowed	0	1	0	0
Divorced	6	7	14	11
Separated	4	2	4	5
Cohabiting	2	1	0	2
Total	100	100	100	100

Table B.7: Client still ‘active’ user of ES

	Population	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
Active	41	45	49	73
Inactive	59	55	51	27
Total	100	100	100	100

Table B.8: Possession of fixed line telephone

	Population	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
Yes	77	100	100	0
No	23	0	0	100

Table B.9: Standard Statistical Region

	Population	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
North	8	9	13	17
Yorkshire and Humberside	11	11	14	17
East Midlands	7	8	0	0
East Anglia	3	4	0	0
South East	31	29	38	31
South West	8	10	10	15
West Midlands	10	10	0	0
North West	14	13	12	13
Wales	6	7	12	6
Total	100	100	100	100

Table B.10: Rural Ward Flag

	Population	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
Not rural	81	76	85	85
Rural	19	24	15	15
Total	100	100	100	100

Comparisons between samples (survey variables)

Table B.11: Possession of driving licence

	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
Yes	62	67	34
No	38	33	65
No response	0	0	1
Total	100	100	100

Table B.12: Problems accessing necessary transport

	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
Yes	14	18	29
No	86	82	69
No response	0	0	2
Total	100	100	100

Table B.13: Highest qualification

	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
None	21	25	41
NVQ level I or equivalent	6	5	15
NVQ level II/GCSE or equivalent	28	20	23
NVQ level III/A level/HNC or equivalent	22	20	8
Degree/HND or equivalent	22	29	9
Total	100	99	95
Missing		1	5
Total		100	100

Table B.14: Currently living with spouse

	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
Yes	41	31	13
No	59	69	87
Total	100	100	100

Table B.15: Possession of criminal record

	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
Yes	11	14	22
No	88	86	78
Refused	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100

Table B.16: Number of dependants

	Telephone	Postal, with phone	No phone
0	68	69	83
1	13	17	9
2	12	9	5
3	4	2	3
4	2	2	0
5	1	0	0

ANNEX C

Table C.1: Whether volunteers have a disability

	Volunteers	Non-volunteers
Not disabled	84%	87%
Disabled	16%	13%
Total	100%	100%

Source: Combined postal and telephone survey

Table C.2: Duration of Unemployment

	Volunteers	Non-volunteers
New claims	17%	20%
13 weeks	8%	9%
6 months	11%	10%
12 months	4%	3%
18 months	2%	2%
2 years	2%	1%
2 years +	6%	4%
Other	50%	51%
Total	100%	100%

Table C.3: Ethnicity of Volunteers and Non-volunteers

	Volunteers	Non-volunteers
not known	20%	18%
white	71%	73%
non-white	9%	10%
Total	100%	100%

Source: Combined postal and telephone survey

Table C.4: Marital Status

	Volunteers	Non-volunteers
Not Known	4%	6%
Single	54%	54%
Married	30%	28%
Widowed	1%	0%
Divorced	8%	7%
Separated	2%	3%
Cohabiting	1%	1%
Total	100%	100%

Source: Combined postal and telephone survey

Table C.5: Possession of a driving licence

	Volunteers	Non-volunteers
Yes	58%	61%
No	42%	39%
Total	100%	100%

Source: Combined postal and telephone survey

Table C.6: Problems in access to transport

	Volunteers	Non-volunteers
Yes	14%	16%
No	86%	84%
Total	100%	100%

Source: Combined postal and telephone survey

Table C.7: Convicted of a criminal offence

	Volunteers	Non-volunteers
Yes	11%	13%
No	89%	87%
Refused	0%	1%
Total	100%	100%

Source: Combined postal and telephone survey

Table C.8: Residence by region

	Volunteers	Non-volunteers
North	10%	10%
Yorkshire and Humberside	12%	11%
East Midlands	7%	7%
East Anglia	4%	3%
South East	29%	31%
South West	11%	10%
West Midlands	10%	9%
North West	11%	13%
Wales	7%	7%
Total	100%	100%

Source: Combined postal and telephone survey

Table C.9: Rural and non-rural locations

	Volunteers	Non-volunteers
Non-Rural Ward	75%	78%
Rural Ward	25%	22%
Total	100%	100%

Source: Combined postal and telephone survey