nzier
authoritative analysis

Volunteer-related training in emergency services

Findings from a literature review

Report to FRSITO (final version)

April 2008

Preface

NZIER is a specialist consulting firm that uses applied economic research and analysis to provide a wide range of strategic advice to clients in the public and private sectors, throughout New Zealand and Australia, and further afield.

NZIER is also known for its long-established Quarterly Survey of Business Opinion and Quarterly Predictions.

Our aim is to be the premier centre of applied economic research in New Zealand. We pride ourselves on our reputation for independence and delivering quality analysis in the right form, and at the right time, for our clients. We ensure quality through teamwork on individual projects, critical review at internal seminars, and by peer review at various stages through a project by a senior staff member otherwise not involved in the project.

NZIER was established in 1958.

Authorship

This report has been prepared at NZIER by Sharon Pells and reviewed by John Yeabsley. The assistance of Gail Dallimore and Deborah O'Connor is gratefully acknowledged.

We also thank Liz Hamilton and other staff at FRSITO, as well as staff at LGITO and Learning State for their assistance.

8 Halswell St, Thorndon
P O Box 3479, Wellington
Tel: +64 4 472 1880
Fax: +64 4 472 1211
econ@nzier.org.nz
www.nzier.org.nz

NZIER's standard terms of engagement for contract research can be found at www.nzier.org.nz.

While NZIER will use all reasonable endeavours in undertaking contract research and producing reports to ensure the information is as accurate as practicable, the Institute, its contributors, employees, and Board shall not be liable (whether in contract, tort (including negligence), equity or on any other basis) for any loss or damage sustained by any person relying on such work whatever the cause of such loss or damage.

Executive Summary

Introduction

This report presents NZIER's findings from the first stage of a study into volunteer-related training in emergency services. The study has been commissioned by FRSITO, is a collaborative venture between FRSITO and other ITOs which cover emergency services, and is part-funded by TEC. This first stage, conducted in April 2008, comprised a literature review. The second (and final) stage will comprise interviews with a sample of emergency services volunteers, their employers and other stakeholders.

The main objective of the entire study is to identify ways in which volunteer-related training can be improved to enhance the delivery of selected emergency services. Other objectives include describing the profile and characteristics of volunteers in emergency services, and identifying barriers which inhibit training participation or completion and how those barriers might be overcome. The particular focus of this first stage is to set the scene for the next stage of the study.

Training and service delivery

Volunteers in emergency services undertake a wide range of direct and support roles. Compared with volunteers in other sectors, many emergency services volunteers are undertaking very demanding (and potentially dangerous) activities which require high time commitments. For example, volunteer fire fighters are expected to perform to the same standard as paid fire fighters, and public expectations are high in this regard. The specialist skills required in these roles may entail a significant amount of training.

Profile and characteristics

Volunteers differ from paid workers in important ways. Volunteers have a high degree of control over their time. The supply of volunteer time is linked to the extent to which the voluntary activity *consistently* provides the benefits sought by volunteers. This means that managing volunteers is challenging. It also means that training must relate directly to the underlying benefits if it is to be effective. Understanding volunteer motivations is therefore vital to the success of training and service provision. We identified three broad motivations for volunteering:

- *the consumption motivation.* This is concerned with the current satisfaction received by the volunteer from the act of volunteering, and includes an inherent love of the voluntary activity itself, or the "warm glow" from giving
- *the investment motivation.* The individual invests volunteer hours out of current available leisure for future rewards. These rewards include skills, experience, contacts etc, which may be useful to the volunteer in entering the specific voluntary service or more generally in the labour market
- *the public goods/altruism motivation* - a genuine selfless act benefiting others.

The "public goods/altruism" motivation appears to be foremost for emergency services volunteers, who are driven by a strong sense of community. The key point here is that training only relates directly to the "investment" motivation. Training is therefore likely to be a hard sell to emergency services volunteers.

Evidence on the demographic profile of emergency services volunteers suggests that the workforce is not a homogenous group. For example, the profile of volunteer fire fighters is similar to that of their paid counterparts (e.g. predominantly male). However the profile of ambulance service volunteers is similar to that of volunteers in general (predominantly female, in the middle age bands, and in paid employment). Overall this implies that tailored training strategies may be required for specific volunteer segments.

More importantly, there is some evidence that emergency services volunteers are often engaged in several voluntary activities, in particular more than one emergency service. This means that the training burden is likely to be high, as volunteers may have to undertake training for each voluntary role in which they are involved.

Barriers to training

In Table 1 we summarise the findings in relation to barriers to training for emergency services volunteers, and suggestions from the literature on how those barriers might be overcome. Note that the barriers relate primarily to training participation and completion rather than training outcomes.

Table 1 Overcoming barriers to training

Barrier	Strategy to overcome barrier
Time constraints – juggling jobs, family and voluntary activity	Ensure training is relevant and directly relates to the role Do not overload the volunteers with training (e.g. conduct short courses)
Cost – direct costs of training, travel, childcare	Cover the costs of training and provide financial support Conduct training on-site/locally (to minimise travel costs)
Lack of flexibility in timing/ delivery of training	Offer accessible, flexible delivery (e.g. at a time when volunteers are available such as evenings and weekends, rather than when trainers are available)
Challenges in rural areas – e.g. travel times to training courses	Conduct training on-site/locally (to minimise travel and disruption to volunteers) Cover the costs of training (which may be greater for rural volunteers)
Intimidating/threatening requirements - e.g. formal assessment	Target the right people for recruitment, and only ask people to do what they are capable of Train volunteers' managers (to provide support to volunteers)
Individual volunteer characteristics – some volunteers are more receptive than others to training	Ensure training is relevant to the needs of the individual (e.g. reinforces the underlying motivations of the volunteer) Keep the enthusiasm up by getting volunteers involved in the voluntary activity itself as soon as possible

Source: NZIER

Time constraints is the most important of the barriers we identified. Training can be seen by some volunteers as an imposition when it is on top of the time associated with the underlying voluntary activity.

There is therefore a dilemma facing emergency services organisations using volunteers. On the one hand, skill needs may be high, in line with the often demanding roles undertaken by those volunteers. On the other hand, training strategy needs to be pragmatic and recognise the constraints on many volunteers to undergo significant training. Changing training delivery methods, and the timing and location of training, may be more feasible in terms of offering volunteers some flexibility and choice, compared with changing training content.

In our view, appealing to the underlying motivations for volunteering is vital to the successful engagement of volunteers in training. Tailored training strategies may be required for different volunteer segments. And managers have a crucial and ongoing role in ensuring a good fit between the volunteers' needs and motivations and the organisation's requirements, and in allocating appropriate tasks to individual volunteers and training those volunteers accordingly.

Next steps

The next stage of the study (interviews with emergency services volunteers, their employers and other stakeholders) will build on the findings from this literature review. Key areas of focus are to:

- *identify the specific mechanisms by which training enhances service delivery,* as most of the material we uncovered relates to training outputs rather than training outcomes
- *better understand the role of management training,* as managing volunteers is challenging and has a substantial impact on the effectiveness of the volunteer workforce
- *concentrate on actual experiences, rather than intentions*, as some evidence suggests there may be a divergence between the two
- *identify the relationship between training and other strategies,* as there is a strong (and multi-directional) relationship between training and recruitment/ retention of volunteers.

Contents

1. Introduction ... 1

1.1 Background ... 1

1.2 Objectives ... 1

1.3 Approach ... 2

1.4 Structure of the report ... 2

2. Definitions and concepts ... 3

2.1 Definitions ... 3

2.1.1 What is a volunteer? ... 3

2.1.2 What is training? ... 3

2.1.3 What is an emergency service? ... 3

2.2 Concepts ... 4

2.2.1 Why do people volunteer? ... 4

2.2.2 Why do organisations use volunteers? ... 5

2.3 What is the role of training? ... 6

3. Volunteering in general ... 7

3.1 Role of volunteers ... 7

3.2 Motivations ... 7

3.3 Profile and characteristics ... 8

3.4 Trends ... 8

3.5 Management of volunteers ... 10

3.6 Training ... 11

3.6.1 Training needs ... 11

3.6.2 Barriers to training ... 11

3.6.3 Overcoming barriers ... 12

4. Emergency services volunteering ... 13

4.1 Role of volunteers ... 13

4.1.1 Overview ... 13

4.1.2 Health, safety and liability ... 15

4.2 Motivations ... 16

4.3 Profile and characteristics ... 17

4.3.1 Fire services ... 17

4.3.2 Ambulance services ... 17

4.3.3 CDEM ... 18

4.4 Trends ... 18

4.5 Management of volunteers ... 20

4.6 Comparison with volunteering in other sectors ... 21

5. Training volunteers in emergency services ... 22
5.1 Training requirements ... 22
5.1.1 Role and tasks of volunteers ... 22
5.1.2 Legislative requirements ... 22
5.1.3 National standards ... 23
5.1.4 Learner needs ... 23
5.2 Training impacts ... 24
5.3 Training provision and activity ... 24
5.3.1 Overview ... 25
5.3.2 Role of ITOs ... 25
5.3.3 Fire and rescue services ... 25
5.3.4 Ambulance services ... 26
5.3.5 CDEM ... 27
5.3.6 Coastguard ... 28
5.3.7 LandSAR ... 28
5.4 Barriers to training ... 29
5.5 Overcoming barriers ... 30
5.6 Implications - matching training to motivations ... 31
6. Conclusions ... 33

Appendices

Appendix A Bibliography ... 34
Appendix B Theory of volunteer motivations ... 38
B.1 Individual studies ... 38
B.2 Summary ... 41
Appendix C Risk management framework ... 42

Figures

Figure 1 The risk management domain 42

Tables

Table 1 Overcoming barriers to training ii

Table 2 Motivation matrix 4

Table 3 Volunteers in emergency services 13

Table 4 Emergency services volunteering v volunteering in general 21

Table 5 Volunteer segments and training 32

Table 6 Volunteer motives 40

Table 7 Motivation matrix 41

1. Introduction

1.1 Background

Emergency services in New Zealand are heavily reliant on a volunteer workforce.

Fire and Rescue Services Industry Training Organisation (FRSITO) has engaged NZIER to conduct research into volunteer-related training in emergency services. The study is a collaborative venture between FRSITO and other ITOs which cover emergency services. The study is part-funded by the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC).

This report presents our findings from the first stage of the study – a literature review. The second stage of the study will comprise interviews with a sample of volunteers in selected emergency services, their employers and other stakeholders.

1.2 Objectives

The primary objective *of the entire study* is to identify ways in which volunteer-related training can be improved to enhance the delivery of selected emergency services. The term "volunteer-related training" recognises that better outcomes in relation to volunteers may not just come from training the volunteers themselves, but also from training paid workers who need to recruit, retain, and marshall volunteer resources.

Secondary objectives of the entire study are to:

- identify barriers which inhibit training participation or completions in relation to volunteers in general and specifically in relation to selected emergency services, and identify ways in which these barriers may be overcome
- describe the profile and characteristics (demographic, occupation in paid employment, participation in more than one volunteer role, qualifications held, current engagement in training, willingness to undertake training etc, depending on information available) of volunteers in general and specifically in relation to the selected emergency services.

The focus *of this first stage* of the study is to set the scene for the second stage i.e. to inform the design of the sample structure and questions for the interviews with emergency services volunteers, their employers and other stakeholders. In particular, the aim of this first stage is to unearth existing information in relation to the above objectives for the entire study, so that the subsequent interviews can be focused on priority areas. A further aim is to identify relevant economic frameworks, to provide structure to our analysis.

1.3 Approach

We conducted a review of relevant New Zealand and overseas literature to undertake a comprehensive search of key bibliographic and full text databases. These databases included:

- NZIER's library collections – catalogues for texts, journals, websites, articles and contracts
- EconLit – global coverage with an economics focus
- RePec – global coverage of abstracts of journals and working papers from university and government departments
- Te Puna – Australasian libraries, texts, websites and journals
- ERIC – global coverage with an educational focus
- SSRN – global coverage with a social science focus
- websites for volunteer focused organisations for central and local government in Australia and New Zealand
- applicable legislation
- data from the NZ Official Yearbook and Statistics New Zealand, and
- Google to ensure nothing was missed.

The key words searched were: "emergency services", "emergency services AND defin*", "emergency AND volunteer", "volunteer* AND train*", "training", volunteer* AND motivation", "non-profit/nonprofit AND train*", "volunteer*", "volunteer* AND time allocation and labour supply".

1.4 Structure of the report

We start with definitions and concepts in relation to volunteering and training (section 2). We then examine findings from studies on volunteering in general (section 3) and in emergency services (section 4), before considering training issues (section 5) and providing conclusions (section 6).

2. Definitions and concepts

2.1 Definitions

This study is concerned with volunteer-related training in emergency services.

2.1.1 What is a volunteer?

There are three generally recognised elements to volunteering – free will, benefit to others and lack of payment.

> *"Those who, of their own free will, undertake unpaid work outside of their immediate household, to benefit the common good." (Ministry of Social Development (MSD), 2002)*

2.1.2 What is training?

Training is instruction that is directly related to the employment activities of the trainees, and usually given in their place of employment. This differentiates training from education, which is typically less specific to the trainees' work tasks and most often (but not always) undertaken prior to employment. Both training and education are a subset of the more inclusive concept of learning. Formal learning is characterised by a defined curriculum and often leads to a qualification. Informal learning requires some form of systematic instruction but usually only for a single instance or infrequently (Crampton, 2004).

In this study, whilst we are primarily concerned with industry training (work-based training facilitated by ITOs – see section 5.3.1 for further details), identifying improvements in the wider network of training provision is relevant in the context of the ITOs' strategic leadership role in matters of skill and training.

2.1.3 What is an emergency service?

There appears to be no common definition of emergency services in New Zealand. The definition used in the Civil Defence and Emergency Management (CDEM) Act 2002 is stated below.

> *"Emergency services means the New Zealand Police, New Zealand Fire Service, National Rural Fire Authority, rural fire authorities, and hospital and health services." (CDEM Act, 2002)*

However, for the purposes of this study when we refer to emergency services we add coastguard, CDEM and search and rescue activities to the above services.

2.2 Concepts

2.2.1 Why do people volunteer?

People do not normally supply their time and effort (outside their household) without being paid. So how do we explain volunteering?

We have drawn together the findings of various studies on volunteer motivations into Table 2 (see Appendix B for further details).

Table 2 Motivation matrix

Volunteer motivation

		Broad motivation		
		Consumption	**Investment**	**Public goods/altruism**
Degree of involvement	**Highly involved**	Love of volunteer activity per se Joy and "warm glow" from giving Express deeply held convictions	Labour market skills, experience and contacts specific to voluntary activity (to enable entry into that career)	Provide something that otherwise may not be provided Help others/community
	Marginally involved	Prestige/power Social interaction Overcome guilt from being more fortunate than others Sense of achievement	Increase earnings potential General labour market skills, experience and contacts Signal altruistic behaviour (desired by firms) to prospective employers Ability to influence volunteer activity to benefit self/family Gather information on the volunteer activity before making donation	"Conscience good" – response to requests to volunteer

Source: NZIER, drawn from Ziemek (2005) and other studies (see Appendix B)

In the columns of Table 2, the "consumption" motivation is concerned with the *current* satisfaction received by the volunteer from the act of volunteering. Under the "investment" motivation, the individual invests volunteer hours out of current available leisure for *future* rewards (primarily in the labour market). The "public goods/altruism" motivation is a genuine selfless act for the benefit of others.

We have added an additional dimension - "degree of involvement" - in the rows. Whilst there is likely to be a spectrum of commitment to volunteering, we have attempted to characterise motivations under "highly involved" and "marginally involved", as this will assist the analysis of training strategies later in the report.

Interpretation: Table 2 suggests that if volunteers can be segmented according to their motivations, then tailored strategies can be developed for their effective training, as well as for attracting, retaining and managing the volunteer workforce. We use the segmentation framework above throughout this report to suggest how different types of training can be matched to different groups of volunteers.

Table 2 also implies that volunteers *are* paid in a non-monetary form. The supply of volunteer time is linked to the extent to which the voluntary activity consistently provides the relevant benefits to volunteers, and how those benefits compare to other ways volunteers can use their time. So there is a constant choice being made by volunteers – for example whether to attend the voluntary activity (including training), or to spend that time in other ways such as with family and friends. Volunteers retain a high degree of control over their time, ultimately with the right of veto. If training does not relate directly to the underlying benefits sought by volunteers, it is unlikely to be undertaken and/or completed.

2.2.2 Why do organisations use volunteers?

Organisations' demand for labour generally increases as the price (wages) falls. So theoretically the demand for (volunteer) labour is infinite when the wage rate is zero. But the demand for volunteers is *not* infinite. How do we explain this?

Organisations are faced with choices of how much to use of the various inputs of production. The demand for one input – in this case hours of volunteer labour – will depend on its price, its productivity, and the availability of substitutes (namely paid workers and other inputs such as capital and equipment). And the demand for volunteer labour will be influenced by the organisation's objectives, as well as historical precedents of who has done the task traditionally (Steinburg, 1990; Handy and Srinivasan, 2005).

Although volunteers do not impose direct wage costs, they generate other costs. The day-to-day operating costs of employing volunteers include recruitment, screening, training, managing and providing office space, materials and so on. Depending on the service being provided, these costs may be quite significant (Handy and Srinivasan, 2005). There are also costs in terms of paid employee morale, liability issues and risks to service continuity and integrity (Ferris, 1988).

In general, we would expect volunteers to be less productive than their paid counterparts. This is because the market for compensated labour places workers in their most productive use and pays them accordingly (Steinburg, 1990). In other words, individuals are likely to be more productive in their "day jobs" than in their volunteer role. And volunteers are likely to have less relevant experience or training, and may not be applying those skills as regularly, than paid equivalents.

By definition, volunteers can be expected to be highly dedicated and motivated. This can be a double-edged sword, however, as volunteers may have their own views on what is a valuable way of spending their time, and management does not have the same levers to drive performance standards as it has with paid staff. The management of volunteers is complicated by the lack of a contract for volunteers' time; so volunteers have a very high degree of control over when they can be available and for how long.

Interpretation: The management of volunteers can be challenging. Managers need to understand (and respond to) volunteers' motivations if the volunteer resource is to be used effectively. This implies that the training of volunteers' *managers* is as important (if not more important) than the training of *volunteers themselves*, in terms of enhancing the delivery of services which use volunteers.

Overall, we would expect to see volunteers used in roles:

- that contribute to the community or are for "good causes"
- which require relatively easily acquired skills, rather than highly specific skills with a long lead time to train
- where the demand for labour time is flexible or infrequent.

2.3 What is the role of training?

Training is an investment in human capital; the returns to training may accrue over an extended period of time. An individual will invest in training if the benefits (higher earnings in the future, new skills etc) are sufficiently high to offset the costs (direct training costs, opportunity costs of time etc). Firms will also invest in training if the benefits they receive (productivity gains from the trainee's increased skills etc) are sufficiently high to offset the costs (direct training costs, increased supervision time for on-job training, time the trainee spends away from the workplace at off-job training) (Becker, 1962).

Interpretation: In general, training is likely to be a "hard sell" to volunteers. Training only speaks directly to the "investment" motive in Table 2. Individuals who volunteer for other reasons may be reluctant to invest in training. Overall, volunteers are likely to be a relatively critical audience – they may be unwilling to engage in training activities which they see as irrelevant.

And volunteer training may also be a hard sell to organisations which use volunteer labour. These organisations may be hesitant to expend significant resources into training a workforce which might not stay long enough for the organisation to receive a return on its training investment.

3. Volunteering in general

In this section we present the findings on patterns and trends in volunteering *in general*, in other words, across a range of voluntary activities. This provides some context for the findings on volunteering in emergency services (sections 4 and 5).

3.1 Role of volunteers

Broadly speaking, volunteers fill two roles (Hartenian, 2007).

- *Direct service.* Volunteers work alongside paid staff, performing point-of-service activities and having contact with agency clientele. Direct volunteers often possess specialist skills in order to fulfil these role; without these skills, tasks cannot be completed.
- *Indirect roles.* Volunteers answer phones, prepare mass mailings, raise funds, maintain facilities etc.

Interpretation: The size of the training task is likely to be higher in relation to direct services than indirect services. The skills required in indirect services are likely to be generic skills, such as problem solving and communication. By their nature, these skills are found in a range of settings and volunteers may already possess these skills. However, direct services are likely to require more specialist or technical skills, which may require specific training.

3.2 Motivations

Altruistic reasons are the most consistent finding in the empirical literature on the motivations of volunteers (Slaughter and Home, 2004). Altruistic motives are related positively to length of volunteer service (Papadakis, 2004).

The “consumption motive” is supported by the empirical findings from some studies (Ziemek, 2005; Prouteau and Wolff, 2005), whilst the “investment motive” is supported by others (Ziemek, 2005; Hackl et al, 2007).

More generally, volunteers who receive benefits relevant to their primary motivations are most likely to be satisfied with their service and to continue to volunteer (various studies cited in Papadakis, 2004). And people have different “tastes” for volunteering and charity work (Freeman, 1997), which means an individual may be involved in more than one voluntary activity.

Interpretation: There is evidence to support each of the three broad motivation types in section 2.2. Each individual may have a range of motivations relevant to his/her volunteer activity/ies. If (s)he is going to invest his/her time in training, the rewards will need to be sufficiently powerful to appeal to the various motivations.

3.3 Profile and characteristics

The Time Use Survey (Statistics New Zealand, 1999) provides a snapshot on volunteering in New Zealand. The survey differentiates between various paid and unpaid activities; "formal unpaid work outside the home" is the closest approximation to the voluntary sector in New Zealand.

People engaged in formal unpaid work outside the home are more likely to be:

- *Women.* Females undertook more hours on average than males in each age group except 12-24 year-olds
- *Older, but not very old.* The average time spent by age shows a rising level for both sexes until age 75, followed by a rapid decrease in time spent
- *Maori*. Maori spent more time than non-Maori on each of the major types of formal unpaid work outside the home, especially administration.

Overseas evidence shows that volunteers tend to be women, aged 35-54 years, highly educated, employed, married, and those with larger families (Freeman, 1997; Yoshioka et al, 2007). Freeman concludes that much volunteer activity comes from those with high productivity and opportunity costs of time.

However, the overall demographic profile can mask a number of sub-groups. A survey conducted for Volunteering New Zealand (2006) suggests that the typical "charity volunteer" is female, aged 56 plus, retired, with no children at home. The typical "sporting volunteer" is male, aged 36 to 55, employed full time, with three children at home. And Wilson (2001) notes that whilst people from higher socio-economic groups are more likely to volunteer for formal organisations, people from lower socio-economic tend to become involved in informal volunteering.

Interpretation: There appear to be distinct volunteer segments, as suggested by the "motivation matrix" in section 2.2. The key point here is to identify the demographic profile and characteristics of volunteers in emergency services, to determine in which segments emergency services volunteers fit, and the implications for training. These issues are discussed in section 4 and 5.

3.4 Trends

Key social and economic trends which affect volunteering in general, both from a demand and a supply perspective, are identified below.[1]

- *Increasing accountability and professionalism.* The reforms of the 1980s and 1990s in New Zealand led to increased accountability for social services (Wilson et al, 2001). Voluntary roles have become increasingly "professionalised", with increased training and supervision (MSD, 2002).

[1] No trend data is available in New Zealand on volunteering - the Time Use Survey (Statistics New Zealand 1999) has not been repeated. Whilst recent Censuses have gathered some volunteering information, different definitions have been used, so it is difficult to track trends in the level and nature of volunteering. Most New Zealand studies therefore draw from time series data and studies in other Western countries.

- *Trends in paid/unpaid work*. Women's increasing labour force participation has reduced this "traditional" pool of volunteer labour (Wilson et al, 2001). Previously unpaid work associated with household activities (childcare, cleaning, care for the elderly) is becoming progressively marketised; jobs are becoming more specialised. The demand for work-life balance is becoming more prominent (Department of Labour, 2001; NZIER, 2005). Longer working hours, more pressure to work etc, has impacted on the ability or willingness of people to take up volunteering (MSD, 2002).
- *Competing causes*. Over the decades there has been a diversification and specialisation of good causes for potential volunteers to choose among, such as green and wildlife concerns, and various specific social, medical, and disability causes (Tennant et al, 2006).
- *Episodic volunteering*. Increasing time pressure means volunteers may be more interested in finite, project-based, team-based activity than a long commitment (Slaughter and Home, 2004). People may now be more episodically involved in volunteering, coming together for brief but intense periods of civic activity. Examples include "social enterprise" volunteers, who tend to be young, highly skilled professionals employed full-time (Wilson et al, 2001).
- *Professional management.* Increasingly, volunteer-based organisations are employing professional management, to improve effectiveness, reduce costs, and manage liabilities associated with the use of volunteer labour; this has implications for funding models (Handy and Srinivasan, 2005).
- *Ageing population*. Population ageing brings both an increased demand for volunteers to address the needs of older people (meals on wheels etc), and a potential source of volunteers (Wilson et al, 2001).
- *Rise of individualism.* A decline in societal ties and "sense of community" may have reduced the desire to volunteer. This has been linked to a range of factors, including increased mobility, women's increased participation in the workforce, economic policies stressing individualism (Wilson et al 2001) and increased TV watching (Haddad, 2004). Some believe that the volunteering ethos has been undermined by user-pays policies and a greater emphasis on making money as a demonstration of personal success (MSD, 2002).
- *Rural decline*. The flight to the cities is putting increasing pressure on the supply of volunteers in rural communities (MSD, 2002; Office of the Minister for the Community and Voluntary Sector, 2002; McLennan et al, 2004).

Overall, the increasing difficulty of recruiting and retaining volunteers is thought to be not just about finding any volunteers, but finding volunteers with the right skills to assist the organisation in a professional corporate framework. Demand for volunteers in many organisations is more and more targeted to volunteers with specialist skills and professional expertise, such as contract negotiation and performance reporting (Wilson et al 2001).

But it is hard to be sure how the supply of volunteers in New Zealand is changing relative to demand. Some voluntary organisations report shortages of volunteers, but others have waiting lists and more potential volunteers than they need (Office for the Community and Voluntary Sector, 2007). Although some organisations have an increasing demand for volunteers, in other organisations volunteers are becoming increasingly redundant and are being replaced by paid workers (Wilson et al, 2001).

Interpretation: Many of the above trends raise questions about the long term future of volunteering in some sectors. Some organisations which have traditionally used volunteers appear to be questioning the continued viability of their reliance on a volunteer workforce.

Some organisations are struggling to recruit volunteers, whilst others appear to have an over-supply of potential volunteers. This has implications for training. Organisations have more ability to encourage volunteers to train in an environment where there is competition for volunteer places.

3.5 Management of volunteers

To help ensure the volunteer has a satisfying experience and ultimately decides to continue to volunteer, managers need to determine motivations for volunteering, and changes in motivations (Slaughter and Home, 2004). More generally, there should be an alignment between the volunteer's goals and that of the organisation (Liao-Troth, 2005).

Managers need to clearly explain the "psychological contract" (the informal reciprocal agreement of a work environment) beyond the formal job description. This is particularly important in loosely structured volunteer organisations where roles are poorly defined. Volunteers' efforts can be effectively spurred through either informal social controls or explicit bureaucratic ones, but not if both are absent (Pearce, 1993).

Volunteers would like clear and accurate information about their rights, and what conditions they can reasonably expect from organisations they are involved with. Job descriptions are useful for clarifying mutual expectations (MSD, 2002). However, organisations which use volunteers are often afraid to provide negative performance feedback, fearing that volunteers might quit (Hartenian, 2007).

Interpretation: As discussed earlier, managing volunteers is a complex task which requires diverse skills. There is an apparent trade-off between ensuring minimum standards of service are met and maintaining volunteer morale. This presents a delicate management challenge for organisations reliant on volunteers.

3.6 Training

3.6.1 Training needs

Training requirements of volunteers will vary depending on the role the volunteers fulfil. Volunteers that provide highly specialist direct services will require significant training (Hartenian, 2007).

The cost of training volunteers encourages organisations to recruit people who will volunteer for a long period of time. One difference between long term and short term volunteers is that, for the former, the opportunity to learn new skills and to gain experience is a distinct motive. Although not a highly rated motive, it does suggest that what encourages volunteers to continue volunteering is the opportunity for personal development (Slaughter and Home, 2004).

However, factors such as increased training requirements which have increased the motivation of some volunteers may also contribute to the demotivation of others. Some volunteers may be demotivated by fundamental changes in their roles, or may become concerned that the essential characteristics of voluntary activity appear to be changing (Wilson et al, 2001).

Some volunteers and organisations stress the need for high quality, New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) accredited and transferable training for volunteers. Other feel that training requirements have forced volunteers out and asked too much of volunteers in terms of time and commitment (MSD, 2002).

Some volunteering organisations see training as a way of giving back something to their volunteers in terms of work-related skills and qualifications. However, some organisations put significant resources into induction and training for volunteers, but the volunteers leave for paid employment soon after reaching the required standard (Wilson et al, 2001).

Interpretation: Training is likely to appeal to individuals who are using their voluntary activity as a means of increasing their human capital. But once they have marketable skills, they may leave the volunteer organisation. This may make firms reluctant to train and result in sub-optimal training activity (from society's perspective).

3.6.2 Barriers to training

The main barrier to training identified by various studies is the competing pressures on volunteers' time (see for example Wilson et al, 2001).

Cost is another barrier to training. For example, training was the second most costly item identified in a survey of volunteers and voluntary organisations (Victoria University, 2007).

Note that barriers to training (in emergency services) are discussed more fully in section 5.

3.6.3 Overcoming barriers

In brief, ways to overcome training barriers for volunteers in general include the following.

- *Short outreach courses.* One to two day non-formal courses are often preferred to other types of training (Office of the Minister for the Community and Voluntary Sector, 2002).
- *Reduce direct costs of training.* Volunteers need their training to be affordable or free. Suggestions include training subsidies, tax rebatable training and more funding for training (MSD, 2002).
- *Cover training expenses*. Petrol and transport (especially for rural volunteers), childcare and training were most commonly mentioned as significant expenses for volunteers. However, there is confusion about how the reimbursement of expenses is taxed (MSD, 2002).
- *Generic training.* Some volunteer organisations suggest that there could be generic training for volunteers, particularly in management, governance and administration (MSD, 2002).

Note that overcoming barriers to training emergency services volunteers is discussed in detail in section 5.

4. Emergency services volunteering

Here we examine volunteering patterns and trends in emergency services. Note that training issues are covered in the next section. Also note that all the studies referred to in this section specifically relate to emergency services.

4.1 Role of volunteers

4.1.1 Overview

Emergency services in New Zealand are heavily reliant on a volunteer workforce.

Table 3 Volunteers in emergency services

Service/ organisation	No of volunteers	No of paid workers	Role of volunteers	Source (see note1)
Urban fire (NZFS)	9,000	2,000 (1,600 career fire fighters)	Direct services – fire fighting, operational support Indirect services – non-operational support, admin, fire safety, promotion	www.fire.org.nz
Rural fire (NRFA)	3,000 (includes part-time fire fighters)	N/k	Direct services – fire fighting	www.nrfa.fire.org.nz
Ambulance (St John) see note 2	7,070	2,148	Direct services – ambulance officer Indirect services – welfare, support, fundraising	www.stjohn.org.nz
CDEM	Not known – "a few thousand". 17 councils have active volunteers, ranging from 8 to 450+ per council	N/k	Direct services - emergency operations centre (EOC) roles, sector post establishment and running, rescue Indirect services - welfare, registration "Spontaneous volunteers" (who offer help on the day of a disaster)	Williams, 2004
Coastguard	2,550 "active" volunteers, 18,000 "supporters"	N/k – a few	Direct services – sea search and rescue, radio operations Indirect services - support	www.nzcoastguard.org.nz
Police search and rescue (LandSAR)	2,500	N/k	Direct services – land search and rescue Indirect services – base support	www.landsar.org.nz

Notes: (1) Information drawn from websites as at April 2008

(2) Note there are also the Wellington Free Ambulance, the Wairarapa Ambulance Service and ambulance service in Wanganui. St John covers around 85% of the population in New Zealand (see www.stjohn.org.nz)

Source: See final column of table

Often, however, the paid workforce undertakes most direct service activity. For example, 1,600 New Zealand Fire Service (NZFS) career fire fighters, although heavily outnumbered by volunteers, handle around 68% of incidents.[2]

[2] See www.fire.org.nz

The roles of volunteers in emergency services are many and varied, and cover both direct and indirect services. Direct services include most of the “4 Rs” of emergency management (see Appendix C). In some cases, there is a relatively devolved structure of service provision, which means local organisations have considerable flexibility in how they configure resources, again increasing the diversity of volunteers’ roles among and between individual emergency services (see for example Williams, 2004). The range of skills and complexity of tasks range from unskilled tasks undertaken under supervision (spontaneous CDEM volunteers – see Ministry of CDEM, 2006) to highly skilled tasks requiring considerable and ongoing training (ambulance volunteers – see the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania, 2002).

Overall, key features of the roles of volunteers in emergency services compared with those of volunteers in other sectors are as follows.

- *Demanding roles/high expectations*. In emergency services, expectations of volunteers are high. For example, volunteer fire fighters, and Chief Fire Officers in particular, have clear and demanding accountabilities. The Fire Service Act 1975 makes no distinction between paid and volunteer forces. In a callout situation, volunteer crews are expected to and do perform to the same standard as paid fire fighters. Public expectations are high in this regard (NZIER, 2000).
- *High time commitments*. Time supplied by volunteers in emergency services is often very high compared with other voluntary activities. The University Department of Rural Health Tasmania (2002), in their study of Volunteer Ambulance Officers (VAOs) (including VAOs in New Zealand), note that VAOs provide an average of 1,344 hours of service per annum (72 hours training, 1,152 hours on-call and 120 responding to call-outs), compared with 75 hours for volunteers in general.

Interpretation: The diverse activities undertaken by volunteers in emergency services suggests that a key role for managers is allocating volunteers to appropriate tasks. Aligning tasks with the motivations, aptitudes and skills of the individual volunteer is crucial to the retention of volunteers, and (more importantly) to effective service delivery. Again, this reinforces the importance of good management skills in enhancing services delivered by volunteers.

The diversity of volunteer roles also has implications for training. Rather than train every volunteer in all the tasks which may be required, there may be an opportunity for (further) role specialisation and “fit for purpose” training. This could keep the load of training for each individual volunteer to a minimum, and avoid the organisation investing in training for tasks which may rarely be undertaken.

4.1.2 Health, safety and liability

The amended Health and Safety in Employment Act covers volunteers by a general duty of care, but enforceable duties are only owed to volunteers who are employees in all but name (Ministry of CDEM, 2006). Volunteers are excluded from the Employment Relations Act (2000), but are included under the Human Rights Act (1993) and the Privacy Act (1993) (Ministry of CDEM, 2006).

The CDEM Act protects CDEM personnel, including volunteers, *during declared states of emergency only*.[3] There are three provisions that protect volunteers:

- Compensation for loss or damage to property
- Protection from liability
- Absence on duty not to affect employment rights.

However, local authorities can be liable for negligence for CDEM volunteers if the volunteer is acting on behalf of the local authority in the course of his/her commitment to that authority. This point has been reaffirmed in the amended Health and Safety in Employment Act, which states duties toward volunteers extend only where that person has an ongoing relationship with an organisation.[4]

There is some confusion around volunteers' rights, conditions, liabilities etc, and ACC cover (MSD 2002). Some volunteers who perform statutory duties have legislative protection from civil action (e.g. fire fighters) while others with comparable duties (notably ambulance drivers) do not (Office of the Minister for the Community and Voluntary Sector, 2002). Many volunteers are unsure of their situation under OSH liability (Cumberworth and Ford, 2003).

Increasing concerns around liability and health and safety may make people reluctant to volunteer (Williams, 2004). They also act as a catalyst for organisations to review their training requirements, as was the case in Australia after the death of five volunteer fire fighters in 1998 (McLennan et al, 2004).

Interpretation: Compared with volunteers in general, emergency services (direct service) volunteers are working in a dangerous environment, where their own personal safety, and the safety of others, is potentially at risk. Clarifying issues of safety, liability etc is therefore an important role for volunteers' managers. And a key role for training is to improve workforce health and safety.

[3] See http://mcdem.govt.nz/memwebsite.nsf/Files/VolunteersandtheCDEMAct/$file/VolunteersandtheCDEMAct.pdf.

[4] Ibid

4.2 Motivations

For volunteer fire fighters, the main motivations for joining the service have been identified as follows (UMR, 2001).

- *Community obligation* – by far the most frequently cited main reason, and especially strong for Maori volunteers
- *Family and friends* – being encouraged by a friend or family member who are themselves involved in the service
- *Environmental obligation* - which is especially strong for rural volunteers
- *Excitement* – riding on "the big red truck"
- *Physical/different to other jobs.*

Social aspects, often thought to be a main driver of volunteer motivations, were relatively unimportant (UMR, 2001). However, the same study cites camaraderie, the excitement, the opportunity to help the community, the life skills, and the social aspects as the most significant rewards and positive aspects of being a volunteer fire fighter.

Ambulance volunteers identify "assisting the community", "gaining a sense of achievement" and "learning new skills" as the strongest of eight motivations in a survey of VAOs (the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania, 2002).

In a study of rural fire and ambulance service volunteers, Cumberworth and Ford (2003) found "community service", "helping other people" and "commitment to hapu/iwi/whanau" were the most significant motivations. They conclude that volunteers in rural areas are driven by a strong sense of community service.

A range of motivations for CDEM volunteers is identified by Williams (2004). These include: social reasons; time on hands (retired); a genuine desire to help their community; a way to meet people; a way to integrate (new migrants); free courses for their CV; a desire to be involved in everything in their community; pay back for help they themselves received in an emergency.

A mixture of community-oriented and individually oriented-motives for volunteering in emergency services is identified in a review of numerous studies (McLennan et al, 2004). The authors note there is a relatively wide literature on emergency service volunteer motivations, with relatively consistent findings, and that little would be gained from further research.

However, the lack of homogeneity in the personality type of emergency services workers is discussed by Wagner (2005). Whilst these workers are often seen as inner-directed, action oriented, obsessed with high performance standards, traditional, socially conservative, easily bored and highly dedicated, there is little evidence to support a distinct personality type.

Young volunteer fire fighters are likely to have quite different motivations and aspirations than older ones. Although helping others is still a main reason for volunteering, young volunteers are particularly concerned with the personal benefits derived from their volunteer activity, such as career building skills and work experience (McLennan et al, 2004).

Interpretation: Emergency services volunteers appear to be driven by a strong sense of community, and so fit predominantly in the "highly involved/altruistic" cell of our motivation matrix (see section 2.2). Training may be a hard sell to people with these motivations.

Having said that, there are a range of motivations and distinct volunteer segments that exist in emergency services. For example, the excitement of the role is appealing to some volunteer fire fighters. Again, training needs to recognize this motivation, for example by being delivered in an exciting way.

4.3 Profile and characteristics

4.3.1 Fire services

A study of urban and rural volunteer fire fighters (UMR, 2001) included a survey of 500 respondents. However, limited information on the demographic profile of respondents is contained in the report. What we *do* know is that 9% of respondents were female, and 9% Maori.

Volunteer fire fighters have traditionally been employed in practically-oriented trades such as farming, building, manufacturing and driving (McGill, 1996, cited in Reinholtd and Smith, 1998).

4.3.2 Ambulance services

The survey of (2,500+) VAOs in Australia and New Zealand (the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania, 2002) provides some demographic data and other characteristics on ambulance volunteers, outlined below.

- Women are over-represented in the VAO workforce (55%); the middle age bands (30-54 years) are over-represented; the majority of VAOs are employed (54% worked full-time and 29% part-time).
- The highest qualifications held by VAOs are: high school (36%), HSC (16%), a trade certificate (17%), a diploma/degree (23%), postgraduate study (6%).
- Many VAOs are involved in other voluntary work – 33% volunteer in a second emergency service, and 7% volunteer in a third emergency service.
- The average length of time as a VAO was 6.9 years. 2.5 to 5 years was the most frequent length of stay, with a decline after 5 years.

The authors conclude VAO have similar characteristics to the volunteer workforce in general, perhaps more than with other emergency services.

4.3.3 CDEM

CDEM volunteers involved in welfare activities tend to be aged 50 plus. Other volunteers are aged 30-50. The average age of CDEM volunteers is increasing. Volunteers are generally in employment, although in rural areas up to 25% have retired (Williams, 2004; note that this demographic data is based on discussions with CDEM personnel rather than a quantitative study).

Many CDEM volunteers are involved in other voluntary areas in the community (Williams, 2004).

However, the same author notes that information on current CDEM volunteers, such as length of service, background and training, is lacking, as is information about volunteering for CDEM in the context of volunteer work generally.

Interpretation: There is some evidence that emergency services volunteers are involved in several volunteer activities, in particular more than one emergency service. This has several implications for training. Firstly, the "training burden" is likely to be high, as volunteers may have to undertake training for each volunteer role in which they are involved. Secondly, there might be an opportunity to consider overlaps in training needs across different emergency services, with the possibility of developing a joint qualification. This strategy is implied in the reference to generic volunteer training made by MSD (2002) (see section 3.6).

Having said that, emergency services volunteers are not a homogenous group. There are distinct differences in the profile and characteristics of volunteers in different services. For example, the profile of volunteer fire fighters appears to be closer to that of their paid counterparts (e.g. predominantly male) than to volunteers in general, whereas the profile of volunteers in ambulance services appears to be reasonably similar to that of volunteers in general. This in turn suggests differing motivations of volunteers in individual emergency services, and the need for tailored training strategies for different volunteer segments.

4.4 Trends

Many of the trends affecting volunteering in general (see section 3.4) appear to be impacting on emergency services.

- *Increasing professionalisation.* The role of volunteers in CDEM is shifting towards a more professional and highly trained workforce, which in turn means that civil defence officers are taking more of a management role (the Leigh report, 1997, cited in Williams, 2004). Whilst some councils use CDEM volunteers, others instead rely on council staff or arrangements with other agencies (Williams, 2004; Australian Emergency Management Volunteers Summit, 2005). Increasing professionalism is noted in many other studies of emergency services volunteers (see McLennan et al, 2004).
- *Competing demands.* Volunteer fire fighters note the challenges of balancing increasingly busy lifestyles, work responsibilities and family responsibilities

with their volunteer activities. Chiefs and officers are most likely to feel overburdened by fire service responsibilities (UMR, 2001). Similar constraints and competing demands on volunteers' time are noted by McLennan et al (2004).

- *Recruitment and retention difficulties, especially in rural areas.* The challenge of recruiting and (especially) retaining volunteers, including a rapid turnover of VAOs and at times inadequate roster cover, is noted by the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania (2002). The particular difficulties of service provision in rural areas is also noted in relation to ambulance services (University Department of Rural Health Tasmania, 2002; Cumberworth and Ford, 2003) and in rural fire forces (UMR, 2001). The ability to recruit and retain CDEM volunteers is seen as one of the most critical factors affecting many CDEM organisations' ability to operate (Australian Emergency Management Volunteers Summit, 2005).
- *Social and economic changes.* Fundamental demographic changes such as rural/urban drift, ethnic and migrant groups and fluctuating population, and the challenges they impose on volunteering, need to be taken into account by the CDEM sector (Williams, 2001).
- *Ageing population.* The future volunteer pool in general will largely comprise people aged over 55 years. However, emergency services volunteers are often in the younger "prime working age" group, and so organisations will struggle to recruit volunteers (McLennan et al, 2004).

As with volunteering in general, the key issue is how supply of volunteers is moving relative to demand. In some emergency services, the role of volunteers may be becoming increasingly untenable (Williams, 2004).

Interpretation: Some emergency services (e.g. fire fighting) are likely to be generally more attractive to prospective volunteers than others. Some may face an over-supply of volunteers in certain locations (e.g. urban areas) and an under-supply in others (e.g. rural areas). Managers are more likely to be able to encourage volunteers to train, for example as a prerequisite to joining the voluntary activity, in a situation of volunteer over-supply. Given this, and that rural emergency service volunteers face additional costs and barriers to training compared with urban volunteers (discussed in section 5), there may be an argument for cross-subsidising the training of rural volunteers.

4.5 Management of volunteers

Managing volunteers involves the normal management functions – recruiting in a way which ensures a good fit between the individual and the organisation, providing support and development opportunities, ensuring job performance through appropriate rewards and incentives etc.

However, management *style* is important in relation to emergency services volunteers (from Reinholtd and Smith,1998, unless stated otherwise), such as:

- recognising the contribution made by volunteers, including recognising the support from families and employers (UMR, 2005). Such recognition may include saying "thank you", certificates of achievement, publicity, "volunteer of the month" and progressive awards (the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania, 2002)
- involving volunteers in planning and decision-making
- providing support structures necessary to meet the needs of volunteers
- managing the friction which may occur between volunteers and paid staff.

The importance of management style/organisational culture is reinforced by the finding that volunteer fire fighters who remain in the organisation do so primarily because they feel "part of a family" (National Volunteer Fire Council, 1993, cited in Reinholtd and Smith, 1998).

However, in practice managing volunteers may not be easy. The need to improve the management of volunteers in emergency services is implied in several studies.

- Volunteer fire fighters feel marginalised and at the very bottom of the organisational hierarchy. Some describe NZFS management as "bureaucratic" and out-of-touch with volunteers. Rural volunteers feel even more marginalised than urban volunteers (UMR, 2001).
- General management skills (rather than command skills) was considered by the NZFS to be a weakness in the organisation (Deloitte, 2005).

The increasing expectations placed on managers from the rising professionalism of the volunteer workforce is also noted in the context of the CDEM sector (the Leigh report, 1997, cited in Williams, 2004).

Interpretation: The management of volunteers is challenging. Volunteers need to be persuaded, cajoled and rewarded in ways which may be alien to managers more used to a "command and control" type organisational structure.

The ways in which volunteers are managed will affect volunteer retention rates. This in turn will affect the return on training investment. The costs of training are generally borne at the beginning of the training period, whilst the benefits largely accrue at the end and beyond. So the longer the volunteer stays with the organisation, the higher the return to the organisation.

4.6 Comparison with volunteering in other sectors

Here we summarise the findings on emergency services volunteering (this section) and volunteering in general (section 3) and draw out the implications for training.

There are important differences between volunteers in emergency services and volunteers in other sectors, summarised below.

> *"The professionalism required of them, the dangers they face, the trust they place in other volunteers, the unpredictable time requirements, and the emotionally challenging incidents they attend all make being a fire fighter a unique voluntary role." (UMR, 2001)*

Table 4 Emergency services volunteering v volunteering in general

Feature/trend	Emergency services volunteering compared with volunteering in general	Implications for training in emergency services
Reliance on volunteers	High reliance in many cases	Training volunteers is vital to organisational success
Volunteer role	Diverse roles Often highly demanding	Opportunity for training to reflect role specialisation High skill requirements
H&S	Varies, but activities can be dangerous	High skill requirements
Length of organisation/ volunteer relationship	Long term	Training may affect (increase or reduce) retention rates, which is important when a long term commitment is sought from volunteers Once recruited, volunteers are making a long term commitment, and therefore may be prepared to undertake relatively long term training programmes
Motivations	Skewed towards "altruistic/highly involved" Some "consumption/highly involved" motivation - inherent love of activity (e.g. fire fighting)	Training will be a hard sell, as training is most likely to appeal to the "investment" motive Training needs to appeal to predominant motivations
Demographic profile	Varies by individual emergency service	Tailored training strategies may be required for each segment
Involvement in other volunteer activities	Volunteers likely to be involved in more than one voluntary activity, especially more than one emergency service	Individuals may feel overwhelmed by training requirements Opportunity to review training of individual emergency services to ensure consistency and reduce overlap
Volunteer supply relative to demand	Varies, but some services (e.g. fire fighting) likely to be relatively attractive Especial challenges in rural locations	Increased training leverage where there is an over-supply of volunteers Opportunity to cross-subsidise rural volunteer training
Management of volunteers	The "involving" style of managing volunteers may not fit well with a '"command and control" culture which may exist in some emergency services	Training volunteers' managers is crucial to the successful deployment of the volunteer resource

Source: NZIER

5. Training volunteers in emergency services

In this section we discuss training issues in relation to emergency service volunteers. Note that all the studies referred to in this section specifically relate to emergency services.

5.1 Training requirements

Conducting detailed training needs analyses is part of ITOs' and training providers' core activities and beyond the scope of this study. However, here we touch briefly on some of the training requirements for volunteers in emergency services that we have identified in the literature.

5.1.1 Role and tasks of volunteers

The tension between 1) the (high) skill requirements of the emergency services volunteers' role and 2) the need for a pragmatic approach for training volunteers is highlighted by Deloitte in its review of training in the NZFS (2005). Some of the participants in the review suggested a "TAPS Lite" approach for volunteers. (Note that TAPS is NZFS' Training and Progression System.) However, Deloitte did not support this suggestion, presumably because in many cases volunteers and paid fire fighters are undertaking the same tasks. Instead, Deloitte recommended that the reasons for and advantages of a common training approach need to be much more strongly "sold", and efforts made to find ways around the challenges created by the greatly enhanced (TAPS) training package for volunteers.

> *"The NZFS has a fine line to tread between meeting the volunteers' desire for high quality training that mirrors that on offer to career fire fighters, whilst accommodating the reality within which this training has to take place. In particular, the issues of time commitment, attitudes and abilities to study, and levels of support and guidance required are ones where a mix of more effective leadership, "selling the benefits", and some practical change is needed." (Deloitte, 2005)*

5.1.2 Legislative requirements

Some of the training requirements for volunteers in emergency services are enshrined in legislation. For example, in the rural fire service, the Fire Service Amendment Act requires the National Rural Fire Authority (NRFA) to set, in consultation with Rural Fire Authorities (RFAs), minimum standards for RFAs in relation to various matters including training. The Forest and Rural Fires Regulations 2005 requires RFAs that have established voluntary rural fire forces to set out how ongoing training of members will be provided, including ongoing training in relation to the operation and use of fire fighting equipment.[5]

[5] See http://www.legislation.govt.nz/browse_vw.asp?content-set=pal_statutes

The proposed Fire and Rescue Act would stipulate that minimum national standards for training, equipment and overall performance in fire and rescue services had to be put in place by the new Fire and Rescue Service. This would ensure that the overall quality of services provided across the country was satisfactory. However, despite the establishment of standards, service capacity may vary throughout the country due to varying local needs and ability to meet those needs (Department of Internal Affairs (DIA), 2007).

CDEM Groups in New Zealand have a statutory responsibility, under the CDEM Act 2002, to ensure the competence and suitable training of CDEM personnel, and provide for the training of volunteers. The CDEM Act does not, however, specify particular duties or training standards, and the intention of the Act is for CDEM organisations to determine the needs of their region (Ministry of CDEM, 2006).

New Zealand does not have legislation under which ambulance services are provided, but there are New Zealand Ambulance Standards, which outline service levels and expectations (Cumberworth and Ford, 2003).

5.1.3 National standards

The need for national standards and quality commitments in the NZFS is noted by Deloitte (2005). Deloitte states that the alignment of NZFS' TAPS with NZQA standards and qualifications, and the NZFS' Government Training Establishment (GTE) status, are consistent with the quality expectations of TAPS. One of the review's recommendations is NZFS' continued support of the NZQA framework and GTE registration. Implementing national standards for qualifications and training of Urban Search and Rescue (USAR) is noted by the Steering Committee established by the Ministry for Emergency Management (now the Ministry of CDEM) and the NZFS (2000).

5.1.4 Learner needs

Some studies suggest that emergency services volunteers perceive current levels of training to be "about right" (UMR, 2003). However, others have identified quite diverse perceptions, partly driven by the quality/quantity of training actually experienced (the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania, 2002).

Interpretation: There is a dilemma facing emergency services organisations using volunteers. On the one hand, skill needs may be high, in line with the often demanding roles undertaken by those volunteers. On the other hand, training strategy needs to be pragmatic and recognise the constraints on many volunteers to undergo significant training. These issues are discussed further below.

The need to keep training requirements to a minimum whilst ensuring service standards are met is a key implication. Overall, this suggests a need to take a long hard look at training programmes and curricula to ensure that only the content which is absolutely necessary is retained. It also implies an opportunity for role specialisation of volunteers, discussed in section 4.1.

5.2 Training impacts

There are two apparently contradictory views presented in the literature on the impacts of training on volunteer recruitment and retention: firstly, that increased training demands and minimum skill requirements are a burden on volunteers and are likely to lead to them leaving emergency services; secondly, that increased training provides personal and professional development opportunities which will enhance both volunteer recruitment and retention (McLennan et al, 2004).

A paradox is noted by Cumberworth and Ford (2003) between 1) increasing skill requirements/accreditation which restricts the volunteer pool and 2) the desire to provide a professional service and increase capability. Increased training requirements (higher standards and more time required) is seen as one of the "root problems" facing volunteer fire departments in the US (Bush, 2000, cited in McLennan et al, 2004).

The two-way relationship between training and recruitment/retention is discussed by the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania (2002). The authors note that providing training for VAOs requires a significant financial investment by the organisation, and ambulance services may be wary of training volunteers who may not stay long within the service. They also note that overly high training requirements contribute to the loss of new volunteer recruits and act as a disincentive to join. But they also suggest that appropriate training provision can be management's most effective recruitment and retention tool.

Interpretation: The apparently polarised views on the impacts of training on volunteer recruitment and retention can be reconciled in the context of volunteer motivations. Training may be an incentive to join emergency services for "investing" volunteers. However, once they have acquired the desired skills and certification these individuals may quit their volunteer role. Training may be a turn-off for "consuming" or "altruistic" volunteers, who may be more interested in the inherent activity, and who may leave the service (or not join in the first place) as training expectations increase.

Given that emergency services organisations are seeking a long term commitment from volunteers, it is important that they provide clear guidance up front to prospective volunteers on training expectations.

5.3 Training provision and activity

An assessment of training activity can normally be undertaken by obtaining data directly from the Ministry of Education or TEC (re government funded provider-based training), NZQA (usage of unit standards on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF)) and individual providers (non-government funded training). However, for the purposes of this study volunteers would need to be separated out from other learners; we understand that this is not possible. So here we identify the information on training activity we have unearthed in the literature.

5.3.1 Overview

All the emergency services identified in section 4.1 fall under the gazetted coverage of an ITO. A wide number of national qualifications have been developed in emergency services, although not in all cases. However, many of the qualifications are likely to be targeted at paid workers rather than volunteers.

Training in emergency services is provided by a range of organisations – GTEs (e.g. NZFS, New Zealand Army), private training establishments (PTEs) (e.g. St John, Emergency Management Academy of New Zealand (EMANZ)) and institutes of polytechnics (ITPs) (Tai Poutini seemingly particularly active).

The type of training arrangements in emergency services include informal on-job training, formal on-job training (via ITOs), off-job training (block courses, correspondence).

5.3.2 Role of ITOs

ITOs are the standard setting body for the industries in their coverage. This means that they develop and quality assure nationally recognised qualifications such as national certificates and diplomas, and their components unit standards, on the NQF. ITOs may also develop limited credit programmes (LCPs) and supplementary credit programmes (SCPs) which lead towards, or add to, national certificates and diplomas. These LCPs and SCPs need to be a minimum of 20 credits to qualify for TEC funding. Note that in very broad terms one credit requires around ten hours of learning.

ITOs also manage arrangements for industry training in the industries they cover. They do not themselves provide training, but instead arrange the assessment of on-job training and the provision of off-job training via ITPs and PTEs. And ITOs have a leadership role in matters of skills and training in the industries they cover.[6]

5.3.3 Fire and rescue services

FRSITO has developed national qualifications covering various aspects of fire and rescue services, ranging from a level two national certificate to a level five diploma and a level six national certificate. FRSITO also offers a wide range of LCPs and SCPs. A large number (50+) of training providers are accredited to deliver fire and rescue unit standards. These providers include GTEs (e.g. NZFS' training department, New Zealand Army), PTEs and ITPs.[7]

[6] See www.itf.org.nz for further information on the role of ITOs

[7] See www.frsito.org.nz and http://www.nzqa.govt.nz/framework/explore/domain.do?frameworkId=75193#nqf-top

The NZFS training department, a GTE, is a key provider of training in the urban fire service. The NZFS notes the following on its website re volunteer training.[8]

> *"Recruit firefighters are required to attend a 7 day recruit course or the equivalent 3 day basic skills, 1 day first aid, 2 day breathing apparatus and 1 day Realistic Fire Training Building. Some pre course learning is required, but on station help is available. Attendance at brigade weekly training nights is required. The Fire Service operates a Loss of Wages Policy when attending training. Some Regions vary the structure of courses to weekends rather that 7 days continuous, depending on needs."*

Cumberworth and Ford (2003) state that training activity is varied in the fire service but nevertheless requires a significant time commitment. Rural volunteers are increasingly being required to attend formal training sessions to achieve minimum standards under the NZQA unit standard system. The authors note that the requirement for urban volunteers is less strict although volunteers are encouraged to undertake specific training in areas such as first aid etc.

In a study of women urban and rural fire fighters (UMR, 2003), three quarters of urban volunteers claimed to have attended a national (presumably NZFS) training course, whilst less than half of rural volunteers had. Relatively low take up of training among rural volunteers was also identified in a survey by Ignite Research (2007). This survey of personnel at 62 Fire Regions, RFAs and Territorial Local Authorities (TLAs) suggested that less than 50% of rural volunteer fire fighters are signed up to FRSITO training.

5.3.4 Ambulance services

Electrotechnology ITO (ETITO) is the ITO covering ambulance services, as well as pre-hospital emergency care. ETITO has developed two national qualifications in relation to ambulance services – the level four National Certificate in Ambulance (Patient Care and Transport) (120 credits), and the level six National Diploma in Ambulance (Paramedic) (120 credits). A few providers (PTEs and ITPs) are accredited to deliver ambulance unit standards.[9]

St John (a PTE) is a key training provider in ambulance services.[10] Some volunteer training is compulsory. St John requires new recruits to carry out 16 hours first-aid training during weekends, and to attend ten days of training over the first three months of service to achieve unit standards (Cumberworth and Ford, 2003). The high level of training activity is reinforced by VAOs' own statements – 88% of New Zealand VAOs stated that they receive training at least every month (the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania, 2002).

---

[8] See http://www.fire.org.nz/volunteer/faq.asp

[9] See http://www.nzqa.govt.nz/framework/explore/domain.do?frameworkId=75193#nqf-top

[10] See http://www.stjohn.org.nz/training/course.aspx?cid=106

Most volunteers join St John with the prerequisite first aid certificate, and gain qualifications as they increase their experience (the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania, 2002). In reality, ambulance officers hold different qualifications depending on how much study they have successfully completed.[11]

Training comprises a blend of classroom block courses, extramural study and on-the-job training (the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania, 2002). First-aid training is carried out during weekends (Cumberworth and Ford, 2003).

5.3.5 CDEM

Local Government ITO (LGITO) is the ITO covering CDEM activities. It has developed the level three National Certificate in Civil Defence (Response) (52 credits) and the level five National Certificate in Civil Defence Management (70 credits). Several ITPs and PTEs are accredited to deliver civil defence unit standards.[12]

LGITO also offers several local government certificates with smaller credit values. In addition, FRSITO offers Coordinated Incident Management System (CIMS) unit standards, relevant to CDEM and other emergency services.[13]

LGITO has entered into a partnership with the Ministry of CDEM for *Project RAPID*. The objective of *RAPID* is to encourage increased training activity and ensure greater consistency in CDEM training. The project involves reviewing existing qualifications and unit standards in CDEM. LGITO is also involved in the development of a common training materials resource.[14]

A number of universities and polytechnics offer local diplomas and certificates in emergency management.[15]

Williams (2004) notes that training provision for volunteers in CDEM is determined by the level of resource available in the council. It varies widely across councils, from the provision of written materials and refresher weekends every four years, to structured courses of five days followed by monthly training sessions. She notes that Environment Canterbury (the area with the most CDEM staff) undertakes the most intensive training programme including six unit standards totalling 14 credits. CDEM training also reflects the diverse roles of volunteers within emergency services. For example, in CDEM, some councils train volunteers in First Aid only, others train volunteers in EOC skills, whilst others cross-train volunteers in all CDEM functions.

---

[11] Ibid

[12] See http://www.nzqa.govt.nz/framework/explore/sub-field.do?frameworkId=75331#nqf-top

[13] See www.mcdem.govt.nz

[14] See http://www.lgito.org.nz/site/About_LGITO/About_us.aspx#Initiatives

[15] See www.mcdem.govt.nz

5.3.6 Coastguard

Coastguard New Zealand, on its website, refers to regular and rigorous training schedules for its volunteers.[16] However, we were unable to uncover details on the nature of that training.

5.3.7 LandSAR

Learning State is the ITO for the public service, government departments, Crown Entities etc, with certain exceptions. It therefore covers search and rescue activities related to the Police. To date, Learning State has not developed any national qualifications in relation to search and rescue.

LandSAR provides standards and guidelines for all its volunteer roles. LandSAR has approved a number of Tai Poutini Polytechnic courses, delivered in association with Search and Rescue Institute of New Zealand (SARINZ), for its members' training. Most of the SARINZ courses are two days and one night.[17]

Interpretation: There is a wide variety of training arrangements available in emergency services. National qualifications and unit standards have been developed in most of the services by different ITOs. And numerous training providers deliver training in a range of ways – residential training courses, distance learning etc. Overall this suggests a number of "natural experiments" in terms of training provision. In other words, in the next stage of this study (stakeholder interviews), we can consider several different types of training arrangements, to try and identify how training most effectively contributes to the enhancement of the delivery of emergency services.

Despite the training on offer, it is not always clear exactly what is available specifically to volunteers. Nor is it clear the extent of the uptake of training by volunteers. Training participation by volunteers appears to be higher in some services (e.g. ambulance) than others (e.g. rural fire). But in other cases it is hard to know what the uptake has been.

On the surface, the ability of volunteers to undertake a national certificate (or even a LCP, which effectively requires around 200 hours of learning) seems limited. This level of commitment appears to be a very big ask of people who are already giving up their leisure time to undertake the voluntary activity itself.

[16] See http://www.nzcoastguard.org.nz/ourvolunteers

[17] See http://www.landsar.org.nz

5.4 Barriers to training

We identified the following barriers to training emergency services volunteers.

- *Time constraints.* Volunteers face competing time pressures and time management issues. Training requirements, expectations, obligations and commitments are increasing (Australian Emergency Management Volunteers Summit, 2005). Expectations such as committing annual leave to training are unrealistic for volunteers juggling jobs and family responsibilities (the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania, 2002). And volunteers in emergency services may be involved in a range of study (Ignite, 2007).
- *Cost.* Financial constraints, and the costs incurred in attending training courses, such as travel and childcare, can be a barrier to training (UMR, 2001; UMR, 2003). Costs may be especially high for rural volunteers, who may have long distances to travel to attend training courses (UMR, 2001).
- *Lack of flexibility in timing/delivery.* Volunteer fire fighters' biggest complaint about training is not being able to attend all the training sessions they want. Courses are considered by many as fairly difficult to attend, as they may require several days away from home and work and a great deal of travel time (UMR, 2001). VAOs also commented on a lack of flexibility in training delivery (the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania, 2002).
- *Challenges in rural areas.* Travel times to training courses are a hindrance in rural areas. This usually means that training for (CDEM) volunteers is infrequent and provided in written format (Williams, 2004). Training requirements for some rural ambulance officers can only be met in a city, away from home, for a significant period of time (MSD, 2002).
- *Intimidating/threatening requirements*. Training can seem threatening to some volunteers, as it introduces a formal structure to an informal work arrangement (Reinholtd and Smith, 1998). Some methods of achieving consistent standards and expectations are seen as offensive, heavy-handed and an imposition to some VAOs (the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania, 2002). Whilst rural volunteer fire fighters are hopeful that new training requirements will help standardise skills across the rural forces, the extent of the new training requirements can seem intimidating and overwhelming (UMR, 2001). The stress of having to quickly pick up new concepts in training was also noted in a study of women fire fighters (UMR, 2005).
- *Individual volunteer characteristics.* Some volunteers are less interested in participating in training than others. For example, 16 to 29 year olds, women and Maori volunteer fire fighters were the *most* likely to say that ongoing learning and training is very important to them (UMR, 2001).

However, it is important to note that many emergency services volunteers are generally happy with the training they receive. NZFS training is generally highly rated by volunteer fire fighters (see for example UMR, 2001). Indeed, the review of NZFS training conducted by Deloitte (2005) indicated *higher* levels of satisfaction with training amongst volunteers than amongst paid fire fighters. And training via FRSITO was highly rated by female fire fighters (UMR, 2005).

Interpretation: These barriers imply that training can be seen by some volunteers as an imposition (both in terms of the time taken and financial costs) when it is on top of the time and costs associated with the underlying voluntary activity.

A further implication for organisations undertaking formal assessments of volunteers' competency levels (e.g. ITOs), is the need for such assessment to be undertaken in as approachable/unthreatening a way as possible.

5.5 Overcoming barriers

Suggestions to overcome the barriers in section 5.4 are identified below.

- *Ensure training is relevant to the needs of the individual and the organisation.* Training needs to reinforce the underlying motivations of the volunteer (the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania, 2002). The amount and type of (CDEM) volunteer training needs to relate directly to the role of the volunteer and the frequency with which the volunteer's services will be used (Williams, 2004).
- *Cover the costs of training*. If training for volunteer fire fighters continues to be conducted off-site, volunteers would like more financial support from the NZFS (UMR, 2001). More financial support for training was noted in a study of female volunteer fire fighters, especially by those in rural locations (UMR, 2005).
- *Do not overload volunteers with training.* This is one of the suggestions made by council staff in relation to CDEM volunteers (Williams, 2004). It is also implied in the comments made by some volunteer fire fighters in a study by UMR (2001) - that there is a "big chunk" of initial training, then a big gap, then another big chunk of training.
- *Offer accessible, flexible delivery.* Train when volunteers are available, not the trainer. Flexible training rosters is one way of alleviating the pressures caused by increasing training requirements and expectations. This includes weekend training and distance learning (Australian Emergency Management Volunteers Summit, 2005). Flexible training delivery to meet the needs of shift workers, single parents etc, is a feature of US volunteer fire departments (Aldridge, 2003, cited in McLennan et al, 2004). E-learning is suggested as a possible alternative delivery method to the current reading and writing content of delivery of TAPS for volunteers in the NZFS (Deloitte, 2005).
- *Conduct training on-site/locally.* Volunteer fire fighters would like to see more training courses offered at their individual fire stations. Unless a course requires special equipment or resources, training instructors could travel to individual brigades. More training courses should be held on the brigade's training night and trainers should come to them (UMR, 2001; UMR, 2003). The desire for local training is voiced by some rural fire and ambulance volunteers, who believe that service levels from local trainers are higher than those received from a visiting trainer (Cumberworth and Ford, 2003).
- *Keep the enthusiasm up*. Some fire fighter volunteers believe it is important for new recruits to go to incidents to observe. This keeps new volunteers

enthusiastic and gives them an opportunity to see what they have volunteered for first hand (UMR, 2001). The importance of focusing on the volunteer activity itself is implied by Cumberworth and Ford (2003); rural fire and ambulance volunteers suggested that roles be rationalised so that volunteers focus solely on response activity, and professionals are used for administration, personnel and management functions. And the importance of not putting off new recruits with training, making them active as soon as possible, and making training as interesting and varied as possible is noted by the University Department of Rural Health Tasmania (2002).

- *Train volunteers' managers*. Investing more organisational resources in the management and support of (fire fighter) volunteers is recommended by McLennan et al (2004). The importance of improving management training is also noted in a review of NZFS training (Deloitte, 2005).
- *Change the training audience*. Instead of a pool of volunteers, instead train the community itself; this is a more radical solution to the challenges of volunteer training. In America, the Community Emergency Response Team (CERT) training programme has been designed and developed to help protect individuals, families and neighbours in an emergency situation.[18]
- *Link training and recruitment strategies*. Only ask people to do what they are capable of; if more complicated tasks need to be filled, then recruitment needs to target the right quality people for those roles (Williams, 2004).

Interpretation: This study is concerned with training *outcomes* – improving volunteer-related training to enhance service delivery. In this sense training participation and completion are seen as intermediate outputs only. However, most of the literature we have unearthed on barriers to training, and ways to overcome those barriers, relate to training participation. Overall this means that the second stage of this study (stakeholder interviews) needs to have a strong focus on identifying the mechanisms by which training enhances service delivery.

5.6 Implications - matching training to motivations

Table 5 draws together the findings from section 5.5 and elsewhere, to identify how different training strategies might be relevant to different volunteer segments.

The purpose of Table 5 is not to provide prescriptive suggestions for specific training strategies, but instead to show the general principle of matching training content, delivery etc to different volunteer segments. The table suggests that different training strategies are likely to be needed for different groups of volunteers. In other words, a "one size fits all" approach to volunteer training is unlikely to be effective. This is also reinforced by the existence of other volunteer segmentation dimensions (e.g. urban volunteers and rural volunteers) not captured in the matrix.

[18] See www.cert-la.com

Table 5 Volunteer segments and training

Training feature

		Broad motivation		
		Consumption	**Investment**	**Public goods/altruism**
Degree of involvement	**Highly involved**	Exciting delivery style Content emphasises voluntary activity itself On-job training	Training leads to a formal qualification Formal assessment of skills Off-job training	Content emphasises community value
	Marginally involved	Role specialisation/training "fit for purpose" Flexible delivery Short courses Local training On-job training Free/minimal cost	Role specialisation/training "fit for purpose" Flexible delivery Short courses Local training Free/minimal cost	Role specialisation/ training "fit for purpose" Flexible delivery Short courses Local training Free/minimal cost

Source: NZIER

Table 5 basically outlines a simple market segmentation strategy. In a practical sense, market segmentation is most effective when an individual can be allocated to a particular segment, and marketing strategies tailored accordingly. Given that the segmentation in Table 5 is based on volunteer motivations, this implies conducting some sort of assessment of each volunteer's motivations (e.g. as part of the volunteer recruitment process), which is unlikely to be practical. However, it may be possible to identify the appropriate segment based on an individual's demographic and other characteristics. For example, young emergency service volunteers may be relatively highly represented in the "investment" and "consumption" motive segments (see section 4.2).

However, again note that Table 5 is primarily concerned with training participation and completion rather than training outcomes. The strategies which lead to improved outcomes may not necessarily be the same as those that lift participation and completion rates. For example, although some volunteers may want minimal training, the requirements of their role may dictate a significant volume of training. And training content will largely be determined by the needs of the organisation. Therefore training delivery methods (tutorials, distance learning etc), the timing of training (evenings, weekends etc) and training location (on-site or at a local training provider) are probably the areas where there is more flexibility and ability to offer choices to volunteers.

Not directly covered in the table, but implicit in it, is the link between training strategies and other strategies. Probably most important to service delivery is the management of volunteers. For example, managers have a vital and ongoing role in ensuring a good fit between the volunteer's needs and motivations and the organisation's requirements, and in allocating appropriate tasks to individual volunteers and training those volunteers accordingly.

6. Conclusions

This study is concerned with identifying ways in which volunteer-related training can be improved to enhance the delivery of selected emergency services.

We identified a number of suggestions in the literature for overcoming barriers to training emergency services volunteers, but these suggestions relate primarily to improving training participation and completion rather than improving training outcomes.

What *is* clear is that in emergency services people volunteer for a range of reasons, the main one being community service. Appealing to the underlying motivations for volunteering is vital to the successful engagement of volunteers in training.

There is a strong training imperative for volunteers in emergency services, many of whom are working in demanding and potentially dangerous roles. However, there is also a need to recognise that there are pragmatic constraints on volunteers to undertake lengthy and time consuming training programmes.

The next stage of the study (interviews with emergency services volunteers, their employers and other stakeholders) will build on the findings from this literature review. Key areas of focus are to:

- *identify the specific mechanisms by which training enhances service delivery,* as most of the material we uncovered related to training outputs rather than training outcomes
- *better understand the role of management training*. Managing volunteers is challenging, and has a substantial impact on the effectiveness of the volunteer workforce. Identifying improvements to management training could have a big impact on service delivery
- *concentrate on actual experiences, rather than intentions*. The implication from many studies is that there may be a divergence between the (individual's or the organisation's) intention to train, and the training activity that actually takes place. The existence of a number of natural experiments, in terms of alternative training arrangements in emergency services, provides an opportunity to understand what works best
- *identify the relationship between training and other strategies*. There is a strong (and multi-directional) relationship between training and recruitment/ retention of volunteers. Training is one way of many to improve the quality of the volunteer workforce. It is important to understand how the organisation's skill requirements are met in services and locations where training provision or uptake is minimal.

Appendix A Bibliography

Australian Emergency Management Volunteers Summit (2005), *Value your volunteers*. Hosted by Emergency Management Australia (EMA) in April 2005: Canberra, Australia.
http://www.civildefence.govt.nz/memwebsite.nsf/Files/AEMVFSummitReportFinal/$file/AEMVFSummitReportFinal.pdf

Becker, Gary (1962), Investment in Human Capital: A Theoretical Analysis. *The Journal of Political Economy*, LXX 5, 2, 9-50, Chicago

Clary, E.G., M. Snyder, R. Ridge, R. Miene and J. Haugen (1994), Matching messages to motives in persuasion: A functional approach to promoting volunteerism. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*. Vol. 24: 1129-1149.

Crampton, Keith (2004), *Employer sponsored learning: re-reading the texts.* University of South Australia: Australia.

Cumberworth, S. and S. Ford (2003), *Rural Volunteerism: A report on the Voluntary Contribution to Rural Emergency Services.* The Agribusiness Group, MAF Policy, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry: Wellington, NZ.

Deloitte (2005), *New Zealand Fire Service: Review of training – Final report.* Deloitte: Wellington, NZ.

Department of Internal Affairs (2007), *New Fire Legislation: A framework for New Zealand's fire and rescue services and their funding*. DIA: Wellington, NZ.

Department of Labour (2001), *Future of Work.* Department of Labour: Wellington, NZ

Ferris, J. (1988), The use of volunteers in public service production: some demand and supply considerations. *Social Science Quarterly*. Vol. 69 no. 1: 3-23.

Hackl, F., M. Halla and G.J. Pruckner (2007), *Volunteering and Income – The Fallacy of the Good Samaritan?* University of Linz: Austria.

Haddad, M. (2004), Community determinants of volunteer participation and the promotion of civic health: The case of Japan. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly Supplement*. Vol. 33 no. 3: 8S-31.

Handy, F. and N. Srinivasan (2005), The demand for volunteer labor: A study of hospital volunteers. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*. Vol. 34 no. 4: 491-509.

Hartenian, L. (2007), Nonprofit agency dependence on direct service and indirect support volunteers: an empirical investigation. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership.* Vol. 17 no. 3: 319-34.

Ignite Research (2007), *Barriers to Training Among Rural Volunteers.* Report to FRSITO. Ignite Research: Wellington, NZ.

Katz, E. and J. Rosenberg (2005), An economic interpretation of institutional volunteering. *European Journal of Political Economy*. Vol. 21 no. 2: 429-43.

Knox, T.M. (1999), The volunteer's folly and socioeconomic man: some thoughts on altruism, rationality and community. *Journal of Socio-Economics*. Vol. 28 no. 4: 475-92.

Liao-Trith, M.A. (2005), Are They Here for the Long Haul? The Effects of Functional Motives and Personality Factors on the Psychological Contracts of Volunteers. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*. Vol. 34 no. 4: 510-530.

McLennan, J., F. Acker, R. Beatson, A. Birch and R. Jamieson (2004), *Report Number 4. Volunteer Recruitment and Retention Issues: A Review of the Literature.* Bushfire CRC Enhancing Volunteer Recruitment and Retention Project (D3). School of Psychological Sciences. La Trobe University, Bundoora, Australia.http://www.bushfirecrc.com/research/downloads/Annotated-Bibliography-Multiculturalism-February-2007.pdf

Ministry for Emergency Management and the New Zealand Fire Service (2000), *Planning the Future of Urban Search and Rescue in New Zealand.* Report by the Steering Committee established by the Ministry for Emergency Management and the New Zealand Fire Service: Wellington, NZ

Ministry of Civil Defence & Emergency Management website. *The CDEM Act 2002: What it means for emergency services. http://www.civildefence.govt.nz/memwebsite.nsf/wpg_URL/For-the-CDEM-Sector-CDEM-Act-2002-Index?OpenDocument*

Ministry of Civil Defence & Emergency Management website. *Volunteering general information. http://www.civildefence.govt.nz/memwebsite.NSF/wpg_URL/Being-Prepared-Volunteering-Index?OpenDocument*

Ministry of Civil Defence & Emergency Management (2007), *National Civil Defence Emergency Management Strategy.* Ministry of CDEM: Wellington, NZ.

Ministry of Civil Defence & Emergency Management (2006), *Spontaneous volunteer management: A guide for CDEM Practitioners. Best Practice Guide [BPG3/06]*. Ministry of CDEM: Wellington, NZ.

Ministry of Social Development (2002), *Volunteers and Volunteering Policy Project: Summary of Submissions*. Community Policy Unit, MSD: Wellington, NZ.

NZIER (2006), *Research to support the ITOs' leadership role: Analysis of economic and social environment*. NZIER: Wellington, NZ.

NZIER (2000), *Fire Service Volunteers: Valuing their contribution.* NZIER: Wellington, NZ..

Office of the Minister for the Community and Voluntary Sector (2007), *Volunteers and Volunteering Policy Project: Paper Two – Key Issues Impacting on Volunteering*. Cabinet Paper. Social Development Committee, Parliament: Wellington, NZ. http://www.ocvs.govt.nz/documents/work-programme/paper-two-impacting.pdf

Papadakis, K. T. Griffin and J. Frater (2004), Understanding volunteers' motivations. *Proceedings of the 2004 Northeastern Recreation Research Symposium*: 321-326.

Pearce, J.L. (1993), *Volunteers: the Organizational Behaviour of Unpaid Workers.* Routledge: London.

Prouteau, L. and F.C. Wolff (2006), Does volunteer work pay off in the labor market ? *Journal of Socio-Economics.* Vol. 35 no. 6: 992-1013.

Reinholdt, S. and P. Smith (1998), *Directions in volunteer development in Australian emergency services.* Country Fire Service (CFA): Mt Waverly, Victoria, Australia.

Slaughter, L. and R. Home (2002), *Motivations of long term volunteers: human services vs events.* School of Tourism and Leisure Management, University of Queensland: Australia.

Statistics New Zealand (2001), *Around the Clock: Findings from the New Zealand Time Use Survey 1998-99.* Statistics New Zealand: Wellington, NZ.

Steinberg, R. (1990), Labor economics and the non-profit sector: a literature review. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*. Vol.19 no. 2: 151-169.

Tennant, M., J. Saunders, M. O'Brien and C. Castle (2006), *Defining the Nonprofit Sector: New Zealand. Working Paper No. 45.* The John Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project. John Hopkins University Center for Civil Studies: Baltimore, USA.http://www.jhu.edu/~ccss/publications/pdf/newzealand.pdf

The University Department of Rural Health Tasmania (2002), *Emergency Services in Australia and New Zealand: Problems and Prospects for Volunteer Ambulance Officers.* The University Department of Rural Health Tasmania: Australia.

UMR Research (2003), *Recruitment and retention of women volunteers within the fire service.* New Zealand Fire Service Commission research report number 36. UMR Research: Wellington, NZ.

UMR Research (2001), *Developing a strategy to nurture, enhance, and expand the volunteer fire brigade.* New Zealand Fire Service Commission report number 23. UMR Research: Wellington, NZ.

Vaillancourt, F. (1994), To volunteer or not: Canada, 1987. *Canadian Journal of Economics.* Vol.27 no. 4: 813-26.

Victoria University (2007), *A step towards resolving the dilemma surrounding the tax treatment of volunteers reimbursement and honorarium – an inquiry into the cost of volunteering in New Zealand.* Victoria University: Wellington, NZ.

Volunteering New Zealand (2007), *Facts & Figures on Volunteering in New Zealand.* http://www.volunteeringnz.org.nz/files/IVDToolkit/facts_figures.doc

Wagner, S.L. (2005), The "rescue personality": fact or fiction? *The Australasian Journal of Disaster and Trauma Studies.* Vol. 2. Health Sciences, University of Northern British Columbia: Canada.http://www.massey.ac.nz/~trauma/issues/2005-2/wagner.htm

Wilson, C., A. Kerslake Hendricks and R. Smithies (2001), "Lady bountiful" and the "virtual volunteers": The changing face of social service volunteering. *Social Policy Journal of New Zealand.* No. 17.

Yoshioka, C.F., W.A. Brown, and R. Ashcraft (2007), A functional approach to senior volunteer and non-volunteer motivations. *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration.* Vol. 24 no. 5: 31-43.

Ziemek, S. (2006), Economic analysis of volunteers' motivations: A cross-country study. *Journal of Socio-Economics*. Vol. 35 no. 3: 532-55.

Appendix B Theory of volunteer motivations

B.1 Individual studies

The following identifies the findings from individual studies on volunteer motivations

Clary et al, 1994

Five "functions" of volunteering:

- Knowledge function – a sense of understanding of the world. Includes learning experiences and opportunities to exercise knowledge, skills and experience that otherwise might go unpractised
- Value expressive function – deeply held values, dispositions and convictions
- Ego defensive function – protecting a person from accepting undesirable or threatening truths about themselves. Includes reducing guilt about being more fortunate than others
- Utilitarian function – rewarding experiences. Includes opportunities for job preparation and career development
- Social adjustive function – fitting in with important reference groups and social situations. Includes gaining friends and being viewed favourably by others.

Freeman, 1997

- Labour supply substitution behaviour, which predicts that people will volunteer less when the opportunity cost of time is high, explains only a minor part of differences in volunteer activity among individuals. Demographic and other characteristics of volunteers show that there is a tendency for people with a high value of time to volunteer. Many people volunteer in response to a request to do so – in this case volunteering is a "conscience good"
- The tendency for the same people to volunteer and donate money to charity suggests that there are large differences in "tastes" for charity
- Several factors predispose individuals to respond positively to requests to volunteer:
  - The person values the particular charitable activity
  - The request carries some social pressure with it
  - The activity benefits them or their family

Hackl et al, 2007

Two broad groups:

- Intrinsic motivation of helping others (consumption model)
- Extrinsic rewards (investment model)

Home, 2004

Three types of volunteer, those motivated by:

- Achievement. These seek feedback, respond to challenges and are driven to excel
- Affiliation. These seek companionship and social interaction through their volunteering experience
- Power. These want to stimulate achievement in others.

Katz & Rosenburg, 2004

- Altruists will be more productive in the workplace – they are team players, they are co-operative, they are not by their nature “free-riders”
- Firms will aim to hire altruists, but may struggle to screen prospective employees to identify altruistic characteristics. Volunteering is used by the firm as a proxy for altruism
- Volunteering behaviour is therefore elicited from non-altruists who wish to be seen as altruists

Knox, 1999

- (Economic theory suggests that) altruistic volunteers are either not truly altruistic or not rational. There are no valid altruistic reasons for preferring to donate time rather than money (because of specialisation and exchange). A true altruist wants to satisfy someone else’s desires, whereas the “economic altruist” wants only to satisfy his/her desire that someone else be aided
- “Socio-economic rationality” explains the altruist’s choice to volunteer by recognising nonconsequentialist reasons, constitutive choices, pricelessness, nonrational motivation and community preference production

Prouteau and Wolff, 2005

Two motives:

- Consumption
- Investment

Srinivasan, 2005

Several models of the supply of volunteer labour:

- Consumption model – volunteering is a utility-yielding activity, and the individual receives satisfaction from the very act of volunteering
- Investment model – volunteering is undertaken to enhance future income potential. The individual invests volunteer hours out of available leisure to maximise future earnings
- Output of volunteering is a public good – the volunteer receives satisfaction from the output produced by his/her volunteering efforts

Steinburg, 1990

Personal benefits from volunteer work:

- "Psychic income":
  - prestige associated with their position
  - the joy of altruism
- Directly observable
  - ability to influence the composition and allocation of charitable output for personal and familial benefit
  - ability to develop (or signal) market skills
- Gather information on the quality and efficiency of competing non-profit organisations before allocating monetary donations

Vaillancourt, 1987

Two models:

- The time allocation/household production model – relates to the household esp child-rearing activities. An individual's (household) time can be used not only in leisure activities but also in non-market work. Volunteer work is one such activity to which individuals will allocate time until its return equals, at the margin, the returns from other types of time use
- The human capital model – relates to the workplace. Learning experiences etc.

Ziemek, 2005

Table 6 Volunteer motives

Model	Benefit	General motivation
Public goods	Altruistic benefit	To do something meaningful for the community and that otherwise may not be provided
Private consumption	Self-value benefit	Joy from the act of volunteering, "warm glow"
Investment	Exchange benefit	To gain labour market experience, skills and contacts

Source: Ziemek, 2005

B.2 Summary

We have drawn together the findings from the above studies into Table 7.

Table 7 Motivation matrix

Volunteer motivation

		Broad motivation		
		Consumption	**Investment**	**Public goods/altruism**
Degree of involvement	**Highly involved**	Love of volunteer activity per se Joy and "warm glow" from giving Express deeply held convictions	Labour market skills, experience and contacts specific to volunteer activity (to enable entry into that career)	Provide something that otherwise may not be provided Help others/community
	Marginally involved	Prestige/power/achievement Social interaction Overcome guilt from being more fortunate than others Sense of achievement	Increase earnings potential General labour market skills, experience and contacts Signal altruistic behaviour (desired by firms) to prospective employers Ability to influence volunteer activity to benefit self/family Gather information on the volunteer activity before making donation	"Conscience good" – response to requests to volunteer

Source: NZIER, drawn from Ziemek (2005) and other studies (see Appendix B)

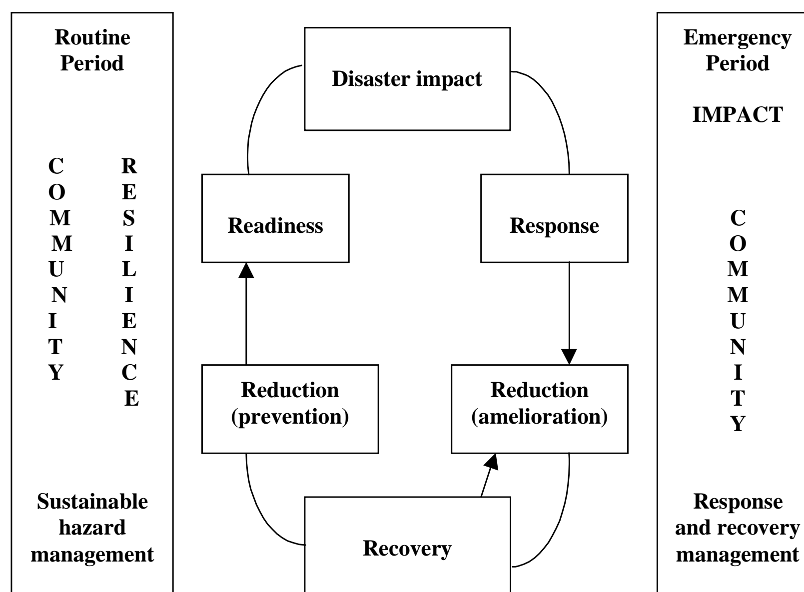
Appendix C Risk management framework

Britton and Clark (1999) describe the "4 Rs" of emergency management. The "4 Rs" framework is used widely throughout emergency management services in New Zealand.

- ***Reduction*** of emergencies. There is a distinction between short term risk reduction (amelioration) and long term risk reduction (prevention).
- ***Readiness*** policies and programmes are usually involved with the development of response plans, identification of resources, the training of emergency services personnel, and public awareness programmes.
- ***Response*** policies and programmes are those that become operational once a disaster occurs or threatens.
- ***Recovery*** policies and programmes address the immediate problems of stabilising the affected community and assuring that life-support systems are operational. These programmes also extend into the longer-term programmes for community rehabilitation and restoration.

Figure 1 illustrates the major components of this domain.

Figure 1 The risk management domain



Source: In Britton and Clark, 1999. Adapted from Britton (Wellington Earthquake Lifelines Group, 1994)