# WORKING WITH VOLUNTEERS

**2**

35p

# Training

## INTRODUCTION

The four booklets in this series have been produced in response to many requests to The Volunteer Centre for guidance on working with volunteers— a subject about which much more has been said than written. We have tried to make our contribution as practical as possible. The breadth of the subject and the openendedness of the answers to some of the most relevant questions make it impossible to produce itemised how-to-do-it instructions, but we have included well-tried advice and 'solutions' as well as conceptual discussion.

We hope that the series will be of use to everyone involved in work with volunteers, officially or unofficially, full or part time. Readers with experience in the field will be able to bring their own ideas and expertise to the questions posed and the real-life examples given; newcomers will find the booklets a useful introduction to a complex subject.

The authors and I would like to thank our colleagues and the board of The Volunteer Centre and the many professionals in the field who have contributed their valuable time and ideas to the content of the series.

**Ian Bruce**
*The Director*
The Volunteer Centre
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# WORKING WITH VOLUNTEERS

# 2 Training

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## The Volunteer Centre

IMPLANTING IDEAS AND INFORMATION IN THE MINDS OF THE LEARNER

# Contents

# Introduction

In recent years an increasing number of workers in the social, health, penal and education services, both statutory and non-statutory, have been given or have assumed responsibility for training volunteers. Many of them have a designation that indicates their function—for example, voluntary help organisers, voluntary service co-ordinators. There are many others whose responsibility for volunteers is only part of their workload: social workers, teachers, probation officers, secretaries of countless voluntary organisations. This booklet is written for everyone in the personal caring services who is responsible for training volunteers, or for seeing that someone else trains them.

To suppose that there are specific answers to the many questions that surround the training of volunteers is unrealistic. But the questions do need asking: it is only by attempting to answer them, both in theory and in practice, that we will be able to clarify the confused areas. To this end the booklet attempts to take the reader through a process. It makes no pretence to be a definitive manual on training volunteers. Rather its purpose is to raise issues and demonstrate that tackling problems in logical steps can help the trainer do his or her job.

I should like to acknowledge the help of colleagues in preparing this booklet, in particular David Jones of the University of Surrey for the material on the lecture as a teaching method, and Bert Foley of Norwich City College for the material on role plays and Appendix E.

# Training—What Is It?

We often become obsessional in striving for the perfect definition of words such as 'training' and 'volunteer': it's a wonder we do not spend more time debating what we mean by the word 'mean'.

I was once a member of a discussion group of volunteers, paid workers and the managers of some voluntary organisations. We were discussing how we saw the business of training volunteers. Many members of the group, both volunteers and paid staff, felt that 'training' was an inappropriate word to use in relation to volunteers because it brought to mind lengthy formal training courses, professionalism, the attitudes (undefined) of professionals and the erosion of the qualities that make a volunteer special—for example, friendliness, not being from the 'welfare'.

On the other hand the group felt that it was essential that volunteers should have the opportunity, and in some settings the responsibility and the right, to be informed about what they were doing, how they could do it better and how they could increase their knowledge and skills to enhance not only their effectiveness but, just as important, their job satisfaction.

We produced a list of alternative descriptions of the process, including orientation, briefing, preparation and induction, but none was acceptable to the whole group. The group spent, some would say wasted, a lot of time and energy in coming to the conclusion that because it consisted of people from a variety of experiences, trainings, roles and responsibilities it would have to compromise on the meaning of words, and the meaning of the word 'training' in particular.

The meaning of words is important, but since most workers in the caring services are not philosophers, we usually have to be satisfied with arriving at an understanding of a concept such as training which, though not perfect, is a useful theoretical base. As we test our ideas, our understanding will be modified and expressed in improved practice. Two extremes are to be avoided at all costs: the one where we become paralysed by our own confusion; the other where, to resolve our confusion, we ignore the complexity and confusion of the task we have to do. In the first case nothing gets done, in the second something may get done—for instance, a service may

be delivered—but from a narrow and restricted theoretical base that excludes the possibility of change, especially change for the better.

Lots of us have met someone who plays the piano by ear and complains, 'if only I knew a bit more theory I could develop my playing or even write my own music'. Practitioners in many fields have found that if they are comfortable with their understanding of the concepts behind their activity they can begin to ask the right questions about their practice. The right questions are those that increase understanding, awareness and sensitivity, the ones that stimulate the search for knowledge, improved skills, and ways of solving problems.

The more we are at ease with the theories and concepts on which our practice is based the more confident and enthusiastic we can be in talking to others about what we do and how we do it, both important attributes for a trainer.

The following set of concepts is one that I have found useful in describing to others what I mean by 'training'. Training is a process by which ideas and the opportunity to develop skills are offered and accepted. In a sense these ideas and opportunities are shared by one person with another; sometimes it is the teacher who learns from the student.

The sharing can operate at very different levels of sophistication—for example, from giving information about the duties of a volunteer receptionist in a legal advice centre to giving information about the skills, knowledge, and attitudes that a volunteer counsellor to the bereaved needs. Ideas can be shared in all sorts of ways, some of which we discuss later on, but whatever the method, the ideas must be reviewed and modified in the light of practice. The basis of this sharing is the belief that when people are informed about what they are doing the chances of their being more effective and getting more satisfaction from their work are increased.

The ideas shared come under three major headings.

*Knowledge:* factual information—for example, volunteers working with this agency need to give up one evening a week; most normal children can hop by the age of six; volunteers in this hospital are encouraged to maintain contact with patients after their discharge from the ward.

*Skills:* information and ideas about how and when to do things—for example, when working in a play group, have two or three quiet activities immediately before the children go home; when accompanying a blind person ask him whether he prefers to have his arm under yours or yours under his; advice is the last thing that most people want when they are very upset, depressed or feel that they have made a mess of their lives.

*Attitudes:* ideas about the factors that cause us to do things at certain times in our lives in certain ways—for example, people may volunteer to help other people for any of the following reasons: to gain power, authority, status; because of compassion, politics, having the time to spare, feeling lonely, wanting to feel useful. Our total life experience affects the way in which we relate to other people: if four-letter words are never used in your family, hearing a five-year-old using the language of his family, language that to you is foul and obscene, can be hard to bear; volunteers often describe themselves as 'only' or 'just' volunteers: is this because they see themselves as 'second class' citizens or because paid staff have a vested interest in making sure that volunteers perceive themselves in this way? Or is it because they have respect for the professionals and do not understand the characteristics of the contribution non-professionals can make?

This is a description of 'training' that I find acceptable: I can work with it and use it to raise questions for myself. For example, the process of 'ideas sharing' is sometimes at odds with the notion that a professional worker is someone who has a discrete body of knowledge. Is this apparent conflict one of the reasons that some professionals resist the training of volunteers? By training the volunteer the aspiring professional may feel that he is diminishing the expertise peculiar to his calling and often demystifying the expertise he has shared.

The description is also useful in that it emphasises that training is not necessarily a one-off affair. The process may be short, as for example, in briefing a volunteer to drive to pick up a patient from a day centre. Or it may take much longer, starting before the volunteer begins work and not stopping until he's finished. The idea of continuous training inevitably raises questions about the relationship between training and continuing support; how far is one part of the other?

Like 'training', 'volunteer' is a word with many definitions. The following is one that I found helpful, as a practitioner, though not perfect; it describes the sense in which the word is used in this book: a volunteer is someone who undertakes a job for no monetary gain, and of his own volition.

One advantage of this description is that the answers to the question 'Who works for nothing?' are so diverse as to cause one to question one's stereotype of the volunteer. Councillors, lifeboatmen, doctors who attend functions in their own time but in their professional role, the child who clears the snow from an old person's path—these are all volunteers.

The phenomenon of stereotyping is important for the trainer to question. He may have to get used to holding other people's stereotypes in check during

training sessions—for example, when older volunteers comment about youngsters these days having no respect. Such comments may indicate an attitude towards young people that could prove unhelpful. A trainer who adopts his agency's stereotype that volunteers are unreliable may find himself discouraging volunteers from using their initiative (or raise in them an expectation that they will be firmly controlled even when they are doing a job where such control is inappropriate).

# Preparing To Train

This section suggests some of the preparation that the trainer should do before embarking on the training of volunteers.

One of the most devastating things that can happen to anyone who trains volunteers is to discover at the end of a series of training meetings that there is no work for the volunteer. Initially the trainer may accuse his agency and/or his colleagues of lack of commitment or interest, but when he stops to ask why the volunteers were not used, or not used to their full potential, he may come up with some salutary answers.

Anyone who is going to train volunteers needs a thorough knowledge of his agency and of his colleagues. Obtaining that knowledge takes time— sometimes years. Trainers cannot spend years getting to know an agency, but they can ask questions that will heighten their awareness of the environment in which they will be training volunteers to work. Since he is in a position to influence policies and attitudes to volunteers, the trainer should be very well aware of the aspirations, skills, attitudes, and potential of volunteers. Where there are gaps in the understanding between agency, paid staff and volunteer, the trainer is well placed to help communication and to train colleagues as well as volunteers.

## THE AGENCY

Training does not happen in isolation, outside the agency. Volunteers are trained within an organisation. Often, if the organisation is large, it consists of several formal hierarchical levels and several 'vested interest' groups: in social services departments, for example, residential care, fieldwork, and administration sections. The task of training volunteers is a very small part of the function of many agencies, and of the process whereby an agency manages and works with volunteers. The trainer of volunteers needs to know his agency.

Training makes demands on agency resources, workers' time, space, administration and so on. The trainer should know whether his agency has allocated resources for training volunteers, and from what level.

There is a world of difference between responding to a ward sister's request

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to 'lay on some training sessions for a few volunteers ... I think the day room might be free . . . oh no! it's Monty Python night', for example, and responding to a hospital management team's decision 'that the hospital will be aiming to recruit a minimum of 100 volunteers in the next 6 months to do certain tasks, that this will require a budget of x pounds and the commitment of n staff over y period of time'.

The trainer should be knowledgeable about how the agency management perceives the task of training and managing volunteers and the importance it attaches to it. This knowledge is important for three prime reasons. It indicates the limits of the trainer's work, and suggests what is expected of him, and what he can expect.

It is a base from which he can work if he feels that priorities should be changed. And it means that he can ensure that volunteers get clear messages about what is expected of them, what they cannot do and what areas of discretion they have.

It is important at the training stage to know, for example, whether an agency expects its volunteers to keep records, and whether there are categories of patients or clients with whom they will not be allowed to work.

There is much talk of the volunteer's responsibility and accountability to the agency; it is essential that, in return, paid staff at all levels should recognise the responsibility and accountability owed by the agency to the volunteer. Agency policy on this reciprocal responsibility should be known before training (or even recruitment) begins. Some examples will illustrate the point. Does the agency pay volunteers' expenses and if so which expenses? Would the agency contribute to the cost of a volunteer's going on a short course? Does the agency insure volunteers? How far will the agency make its resources—clerical help, transport, and so on—available to the volunteer? Does the agency hold volunteers accountable for doing a job without giving them access to the necessary resources?

## COLLEAGUES

An agency's policy reflects a range of decisions that, on the whole, are binding on all its paid workers. Within these decisions very considerable discretion is accorded to individual workers. The manner in which this discretion is exercised by immediate colleagues and seniors can radically influence a worker who has the responsibility for training volunteers and the way he trains them.

The manner in which colleagues exercise their discretion will reflect many

factors—their workload, status, hierarchical pressures, theoretical background and attitudes.

If we train volunteers without being aware of our colleagues' opinions and attitudes, we could well be acting irresponsibly. We might be raising expectations in the volunteers that are at odds with the expectations of colleagues. We work as members of a team and there is no point in stating that we know what is right for volunteers and then demanding that colleagues who disagree with these views work with the volunteers. That course of action might well confirm our colleagues in the opinion that we are dogmatic, and that volunteers are not worth working with; most importantly, it might demonstrate to the volunteer that 'professionals don't talk to one another'.

## SELF

Those with a responsibility for training others need to be honest with themselves about their own competence. In large agencies it would be a remarkable worker who was competent to train volunteers in all the specialisations; most people would accept that in such an agency specialists should be brought in to help.

Individual trainers should try asking themselves 'what *teaching* skills have I, and how can I improve my existing ones and gain others?' Some of the relevant techniques are mentioned in the later part of this booklet: suffice it here to say that it is important for the trainer to be aware of his limitations as a teacher before he starts upon a training programme with volunteers.

Finally, trainers need to ask themselves 'What are we looking for in the trained volunteer?' and 'What do we want training to achieve?'

Some of the most commonly offered responses are:

the realisation that different people have different experiences, expectations, ways of communicating and values, and that working with these differences can be annoying, saddening, joyous, satisfying, or all four;

the confidence and ability to work with people in a way that will increase or maintain their enthusiasm, job satisfaction and self confidence;

the capacity to try out new ideas, and judgement and skill in doing so;

an awareness of the numerous limitations on one's wish to help: the limitations to do with the management of the agency and the volunteer's skills/attitudes/knowledge, the limitations associated with the volunteer's paid job, or family, the limitations of what is possible;

a capacity to find and use resources, both internal and external to the client and volunteer relationship;

increased knowledge about the agency, and about where the volunteer fits into the organisation;

increased knowledge and skill in particular fields of voluntary activity.

These and other statements of expectations are important, in that they describe how the trainer sees his task. Individuals can identify those areas where they are most able as trainers and those where their priorities may conflict with those of the agency or even of the volunteers themselves: forewarned is forearmed.

## THE VOLUNTEER

So far we have talked about preparing for the task of training by informing ourselves about our agencies, our colleagues and ourselves. The missing ingredient is the volunteer.

A lot can be learned about the volunteers who are going to attend a series of training meetings from several sources, the primary one being one's own observation. Many volunteers are referred to organisations from voluntary workers' bureaux or CABs, and brief personal details will have been sent on a referral form. Others refer themselves and have at least one interview before they join a training course. A surprising amount of information can be gleaned from one or two meetings. After a first meeting, for example, the following information might be available: the age, sex, marital status, job, education and verbal ability of potential volunteers, whether they are doers or thinkers, how they dress, whether they are comfortable in a group, how they regard you, the trainer, their expectations or lack of them, their ability to listen, to share a conversation, to respond appropriately.

There are other ways of learning about the volunteers. The most obvious is to ask them what they want; if they are a group of established volunteers it might be that the training meetings you are running for them have been organised in response to a demand from them.

New volunteers often have ideas about what they want from a training programme. And if you are working in an agency that has employed volunteers for some time you can learn from the experiences of other groups.

Some readers may be questioning this apparently clinical assessment and its relevance for the trainer. Of course, the trainer will have some clear ideas about the content of training but the observations are relevant for several reasons. First, though the job a person has and his verbal ability may not give

an accurate picture of his ability to communicate they do say something about how he communicates. Secondly, if the trainer's style is one that employs the experience and presence of the volunteer in the group, he has to make quick accurate decisions about how to enable the volunteer to share his experience and 'being' with the group. Third, this initial assessment of the volunteer enables the trainer to see in what ways, if any, a volunteer is affected by the training he receives.

The following example is taken from a group of volunteers in a family casework agency that included a middle-aged 'respectable' married woman and a young 'respectable' widower with children. When the group was discussing the notion of helping, the woman said, 'It's simple, if I want help I ask for it, and I don't feel beholden to anyone or ashamed'. The group agreed; there was a pause, and the worker said to the widower, 'Is that right, Brian?' Brian's reply was that it was not, that going to the Supplementary Benefits office had made him feel ashamed, that he had given up asking for help in his bereavement because no one responded, death being a taboo topic among his friends. He said that it had taken him four years to get back on his feet, and then it was only because the kids were old enough to go to school and he could start work again. Brian said all this quietly, not accusingly; without any intervention from the worker, the woman said to Brian, 'You're much younger than me but you seem to be older somehow—you seem to know more somehow'. By assessing the volunteers accurately the worker had been able to help group members learn from each other by his brief question to Brian.

# Training Resources

Having arrived at some conclusions about the objectives he hopes to achieve in training volunteers and the methods he is going to employ with any particular group the trainer has to consider the training resources available. The most valuable resource in training volunteers is people. Since people bring their own styles and methods of communicating with them, this section of the booklet tends to blur the boundaries between methods and resources.

It is important for the trainer to think imaginatively about the people who can help him in the training task. The word 'imaginatively' is used advisedly because most of us tend to enlist the help of those people with whom we are familiar. In training volunteers we are dealing with a potentially very disparate group; the trainer needs not only to know his subject, but to be able to communicate it and enthuse others with a wish to learn about it. When thinking about people who can help the trainer train, it is often worth considering what authority they bring to the situation.

An example of imaginative thinking is as follows: a self-help community group on a housing estate was getting into a mess because it did not understand the importance of keeping well-ordered minutes, nor did it understand the function of an elected committee, which had responsibility for tens of thousands of pounds allocated under an urban aid scheme. The initial thought of some of the professional workers concerned was to encourage the committee to invite someone from the local university or the management studies department of a local polytechnic to talk about the ways in which it should conduct its business and its legal responsibilities, and the importance of being seen to act in a responsible manner.

As soon as the suggestion had been made it was recognised that there might well be communication difficulties between the committee and the staff from formal educational institutions. The answer to the problem lay in the local working men's club. The secretary of the club was a paid official, a local resident who had been brought up on the estate. He was eventually invited by the self-help group to talk about the responsibilities of running a large organisation. Only too willing to help, he went along and spoke to them about fairly sophisticated concepts without using jargon and in a way that enabled them to identify with what he was saying.

The meeting had a spin-off, in that the secretary of the club learnt more about a committee on the estate that had previously been seen by his own membership with at best suspicion and at worst apprehensive patronage. The secretary had an authority in that situation that no outsider to the estate could have had.

As another example, many new volunteers are apprehensive about what they are letting themselves in for, and although a professional nurse, say, or VSC or probation officer can assure them that thousands of volunteers have survived this apprehension to make a useful and enjoyable contribution, the new volunteer is often more likely to accept that reassurance from a volunteer who has been through the experience.

## OTHER PAID STAFF

The phrase 'other paid staff' is used because it includes a wider band of people than the trainer's immediate colleagues. Any paid member of staff, including the VSC, is surrounded by ever widening concentric circles of colleagues. Such is the nature of the modern welfare state that many workers have a closer working relationship with paid staff in other agencies and organisations than with colleagues in their own.

Where appropriate, it is important to involve workers from as wide a variety of settings as possible in the training process. It is important for the following reasons. First of all, it is a demonstration to the volunteers that you are able to share, and that you recognise that you don't have a monopoly of skills. Next, workers come from different agencies, backgrounds, trainings and experiences and bring different attitudes and ways of looking at things. This can demonstrate to volunteers that there are no absolute answers, no failsafe ways of working, usually no one agency with the complete cure. Third, from the trainer's point of view, involving colleagues in training is one of the most effective ways of dispelling doubts about working with volunteers.

The proviso in involving colleagues in training is that the trainer must take the trouble to brief them. My experience of bringing in professional staff from a wide variety of agencies to talk to groups of volunteers is that they have always found it enjoyable and rewarding. Many were at least mildly surprised at how stretching an experience they had found it: comments made to me by visiting speakers have included remarks such as 'If I'd known they were going to ask questions like that, I'd have done a bit more homework', or 'Do you know, I'd never thought of looking at it from that point of view'.

Those of us in fieldwork agencies often seem to omit from our considerations of possible resources the people who are based in and work in a particular

building: people in residential establishments, penal institutions, and hospitals, many of them living in, others building-based; people in sheltered workshops, the staff of day care centres, teachers in a wide variety of schools, the workers in organisations like the Institute for the Blind, or missions for the deaf, where the building often serves as a community centre for a part of the population. One of the attractions of involving these workers in training is that they are often very willing to invite volunteers to a training session in their own setting.

The teacher can use visits to establishments as a positive teaching aid. There is a world of difference between sitting in an office talking to a group of volunteers about residential care and what it's like to live in, and holding the conversation in the establishment. The difference is being in the setting: it is to do with the smell, the sounds, interruption by patients or children as they burst into the room and withdraw with an embarrassed apology, or more often than not, a giggle. It is to do with the sound of the television or record-player blaring away next door, or the evening drink being prepared in the kitchen. If a volunteer has attended a session in a residential setting, the discussion of such notions as privacy or individual attention or the subjecting of individual freedom to institutional demands will assume a very different meaning for him.

It is just as important for the volunteer who wishes to work in a residential setting to be exposed to the work and attitudes of the fieldworker. At a hypothetical level, one example of why this is important could be that it is helpful if a volunteer working in an institution can be informed about some of the things that happened to a patient or a client before he came into the institution and what might happen to him when he leaves it.

## ESTABLISHED VOLUNTEERS

Earlier, the question of the authority that people bring to training was mentioned. Established volunteers bring a very particular authority and it is always helpful if they can demystify the work of an agency or of the professional staff to potential volunteers. A good trainer will have tried to ensure that he doesn't start off on an ego trip, or use too much jargon, but from time to time most of us are less thoughtful than we should be about the way we communicate to volunteers. In my experience, a volunteer who has been working for some time is a great help in bringing me down to earth, sometimes with a bump.

## THE CLIENT/PATIENT

Perhaps the individual who has most authority in persuading new volunteers

that the task they are about to undertake is a very basic one, namely that of helping people, and not some mystical operation whose intricacies are known only to a privileged few is the patient or the client—the consumer. But there are potential problems in involving a client with a group of new volunteers. One has to beware of the goldfish bowl syndrome, where the client feels that he is being looked at as if he were some strange fish. But a client can often have his self confidence boosted, and be enabled to give instead of receive, if he is asked to help with new volunteers.

## THE VOLUNTEERS IN TRAINING

Perhaps the most important personnel resource that the trainer has is the people he is training. A common experience among people who have trained volunteers is that the new volunteer protests loud and long that he knows nothing about the social services, or probation or health service or whatever service he's attached to. Only when it's pointed out that the caring services are about people, and that volunteers have, in varying degrees, the same experience as the people they are going to work with, do they begin to realise that they know more about how to help than they originally thought. One of the saddest things about working with volunteers is that so much effort has to go into demonstrating that this is so. Perhaps the most important task for the trainer is to take the experience of volunteers and to show them how, perhaps by looking at it from a slightly different point of view, they can make use of it.

Some examples will illustrate the point. Many volunteers will claim that they have had a very easy, middle-class life and have never had to face any extreme difficulties. The trainer might respond by asking whether anybody in the group of volunteers has ever been made redundant, or been bereaved; very likely some of the people in the group will say that they have suffered one at least of the crises that most of us have to face at some time in our lives. They probably hadn't thought of it as anything particularly unusual because on the whole they had coped. They will probably be able to identify, within their own families, among their colleagues at work or among their friends somebody who has had a similar crisis and, by society's norms at least, dealt with it less successfully. In enabling a group of volunteers to talk about things in this way the trainer is demonstrating to them from their own experience that people are different, that they cope in different ways, and have different values, but that in spite of their differences, they tend to use, to greater or lesser effect, the same mechanisms for dealing with problems in their lives.

One could go on to ask volunteers not what they found helpful in dealing with a person in severe stress, but what they found helpful when they were experiencing severe stress themselves. That question having been answered in

different ways, one could then ask why the methods of coping they described as working for themselves should be any different from the ways in which their potential clients/patients might cope.

On the other hand a trainer might be involved with a group of people who have expressly said that they 'don't want to get too involved' with the people they will be working with, people who say they will be quite content to staff a library, man a tea-urn, transport an old person. Even in these situations it is important to sow the seed of the idea in the volunteer's mind that he is not just 'driving an old person about' or 'dishing out books from a book trolley' or whatever the apparently simple task might be. By doing what they are doing volunteers are in contact with other people and it can matter very much to those other people how the book is offered and what words and facial expressions and gestures accompany handing over the book.



THEY DON'T WANT TO
GET TOO INVOLVED

An example can be taken from a professional worker running a group for mothers and young children. She recruited two volunteers to help her, one to drive the minibus to pick the mothers and children up, and the other to look after the toddlers in a playroom while she was working with the mothers in the group. The volunteer who drove the van did so because she said she didn't want to get involved with the mothers. After the group had been going for six or seven sessions, the professional worker began to realise that one of the most positive inputs was what happened on the way to and from the group

meeting. The volunteer, perhaps intuitively, had recognised that she could manipulate the order in which she dropped the mums off at their homes; if she felt it appropriate she could spend time alone with a mother who seemed on that day to be particularly upset.

The example illustrates that volunteers are in an organic relationship with other people; it is important that they have the space and the freedom to let that relationship grow, to test its boundaries, as they feel more confident to take more risks. I am sure that there are many volunteers who are rather surprised at how deeply they've got involved and how skilful and helpful they have become.

Volunteers can teach one another and the professionals to look at their work from a different point of view. I got into a pickle trying to get a group of volunteers to see that situations can be perceived in very different and sometimes confusing ways and that problems sometimes arise when one feels that although there must be another view of a situation one just can't perceive it. I was getting nowhere until one of the volunteers who had experience of designing window displays helped me out. He told the group that one of the techniques he often used so that people on the pavement could see the back of an article in a window was to arrange it against a mirror. By tilting the mirror in various ways, he said, or using combinations of mirrors, the person on the pavement could see more or less of the object. The analogy was clear. I was grateful to that volunteer, not just for digging me out of a mess, but also because for the first time in that group, one of the volunteers was taking an initiative in teaching.

Had his illustration not got through to people, however, the spokesman might have been made to feel foolish. The atmosphere or ambience created in a group is very important: it can offer volunteers direct shared personal experience of working together, of achieving, of being confused, of being anxious, of wanting support, and a host of other feelings common to all situations where a group of people is under some form of stress, be it ever so slight. If they can be enabled to deepen their understanding of how other people feel by an honest consideration of how they themselves have felt in similar situations, the trainer will have achieved a considerable amount. This is not the only way of training a group of volunteers, and in many situations it may be inappropriate. But the premise of this section holds: the volunteer brings an actual, and a latent resource, and it is the trainer's job to develop those resources.

# Training-Objectives & Methods

The worker who trains volunteers has rarely been trained as a teacher himself. Usually his training responsibilities have been tacked on to a host of other tasks. He is often expected to train volunteers who vary in motivation, experience, capacity and age; he may be expected to train them in a wide variety of skills and knowledge. Trainers bring their own experience of education to the training task. For many this can be inhibiting, in that most of us have experience of being educated in the rather formal British education system. The problem this poses is one of attitude: it is very easy to assume that the experience we had as pupils or students can be applied without modification to the role of trainer. There are several important differences.

Most volunteers are adults, and are coming for training voluntarily, not like children 'unwillingly to school'. And, if we are not careful we will be circumscribed by the experience of unimaginative learning by rote, which in so many instances represses the teacher/pupil relationship. We are often in danger of forgetting that volunteers come for training for satisfaction and even enjoyment and that we have fewer restrictions than the formal classroom teacher/lecturer in using our training opportunities imaginatively.

## OBJECTIVES

Before asking 'how do I train volunteers?' the trainer has to make some attempt to clarify his objectives. 'What do I want the volunteers to do?' Below is a list of some subsidiary questions that will help to clarify overall aims; it is important to answer them as realistically as possible;

1  What is the objective of the training for these volunteers
a) to impart knowledge—if so, what knowledge?
b) to impart skills—if so, what skills?
c) to modify attitudes?
d) to help them select a task?
e) to tell them what they will be doing?
f) to influence how they will do their work?
g) to enable them to identify with the agency?
h) to 'socially educate' them?

i) to increase their self-confidence?
j) to respond to their needs?
k) to tell them how to do the job?
l) to offer them a chance to opt out?
m) to accord them status?
n) to enable them to recognise their potential as helping people?
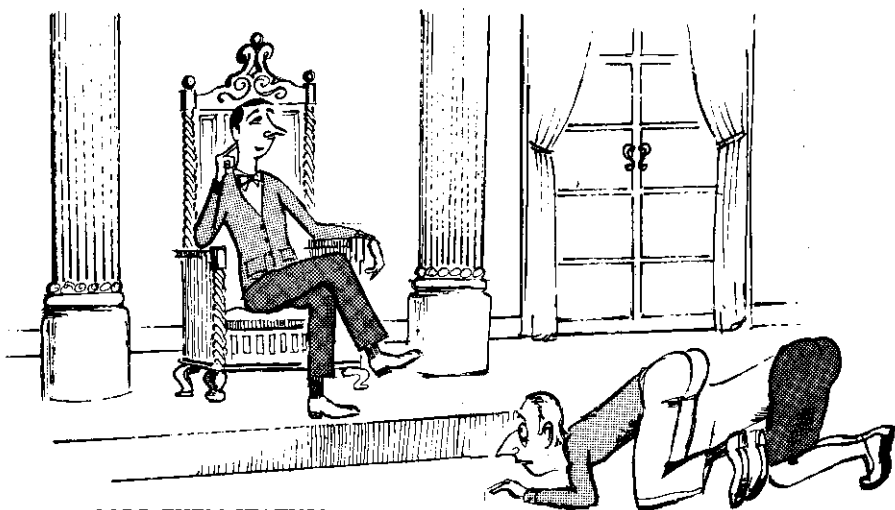


TO ACCORD THEM STATUS?

2  Which of the points above (not an exhaustive list) are most important?

3  How many volunteers will I be training?

4  What potential do the volunteers bring to the group?

5  What are the volunteers' expectations of training?

Let's say that the answers to some of these questions were as follows, in relation to a group of volunteers who wanted to work in an advice centre:

1a) to impart knowledge about welfare rights, and the way people behave under stress
1b) to impart skills in advocacy and counselling
1g) to enable them to identify with the agency
1 i) to increase the volunteers' self-confidence

3  eight

4  three have experience of applying for benefits, two for family allowance, one a death grant; one has worked as a GP's receptionist.

Once the objectives, and some details about the group, have been identified, appropriate training methods can be decided upon; in this case

1 short, information-giving talks, followed by questions and discussion

2 role playing and simulations

3 use of reference material and handouts

4 talk from practising welfare rights workers, paid and volunteer, talk from an officer of a benefits dispensing agency, for example, DHSS, Housing Department, Education Department

5 'apprenticeship' training—that is, working as a learner alongside an experienced welfare rights worker, who can also teach and support the newcomer.

In planning such a course careful consideration must be given to the demand on agency resources and to the timing and quantity of the introduction of new information.

If this method of designing training programmes around training objectives is used, one of the largest potential barriers to effective training, that of irrelevance, is diminished. The volunteers must feel that what they are learning is relevant to them and what they want to do. If they do not see the relevance of the course, at best they will learn little, and at worst they will leave.

## THE RELEVANCE OF TEACHING METHODS

'Teaching' involves creating opportunities for learning to take place. The volunteer organiser may well find two ways of looking at teaching helpful.

'Instruction' consists of the teacher's implanting ideas and information in the mind of the learner: demonstrations, lectures, and programmed texts are examples. This tends to be a popular form of learning among older people, many of whom expect this approach, and feel insecure without a model to identify with. But a great deal of instruction of this type is incidental: the teacher may not intend the learners to pick up all his habits, attitudes and approaches, and the learners may not realise that they are doing so.

'Education' is concerned with drawing out the potential of the learner, enabling him to extend his competence. It emphasises self direction, the use of the trainees as important resources in the learning environment, reflection of experience and the exploration of alternative ways of acting by asking more fundamental questions about why we do what we do. It is characterised

by discussion, projects, seminars, problem-centred activities and a wide variety of approaches that actively involve the learner. It has the potential disadvantage, however, that the learner learns best the contribution that he or she makes; unless the situation is carefully structured, monitored and revised, it can involve a rehearsal of ignorance or the learning or reinforcement of inappropriate forms of behaviour.

In both the above forms of teaching, the teacher is a resource. He is also a decision maker about other resources and the ways in which they are used. Normally in a training programme both methods of teaching will be used.

The lecture is probably the most widely used method of teaching. Generally it is more suitable for adults than for children; for more academically experienced groups; when the subject matter is difficult to obtain from texts or articles—for example, when it is new, or specific to an individual teacher; when the course participants either do not have well-developed study skills or cannot create time for their own study; when a lecturer can interest individuals by his personal style and experience. It is suitable for giving participants an overview of a field, or a summary of the important ideas and principles of a subject. It is also a social occasion, and can give security to the group.

A problem that even skilled lecturers face is that most people, even when highly motivated, cannot concentrate for more than 20 minutes. After that time the amount and quality of learning decline rapidly. The teacher must attempt to maintain a high level of involvement and interest. For this reason a skilled lecturer will raise questions for further work by individuals or groups; he will organise his talk in blocks of information with pauses for the group to assimilate it. He will illustrate his talk by examples, using chalkboards, flipcharts, overhead projector transparencies, slides, clips from films and so on, timed according to the subject matter and to give variety.

The method is, however, highly teacher and subject centred, often presenting solutions to problems not yet perceived by the audience. A skilled teacher will use the lecture as a basis for more student-centred work. He will modify the formal, traditional lecture by asking questions of the group and encouraging them to question him, especially if they do not understand. He will devote short periods of time to very small group discussions to enable the participants to review what has been said and clarify problems or raise questions. He will present problems for groups within the lecture, which will enable members to work out answers for themselves, applying new information and their own experience to the problem; he will collect ideas from the groups to clarify misunderstandings, support group members, and take the subject further. In these ways he will be able to modify his approach

by using feedback on how the group is learning, and on the needs they express.

The skilled teacher will give handouts as a summary of the course, an overview of a subject; as a skeleton around which note taking can be organised; as a set of questions to be followed up; or as a guide to the individual's own reading of texts or articles—one of the most important of learning methods.

## DISCUSSION GROUPS

Probably the most common method used in training volunteers is the discussion group. It is a method that is easy to use and difficult to use well. Many discussion groups leave members unsatisfied because little thought has gone into the preparation. The trainer should begin by asking himself the following questions:

1 What is the group for?
2 What is the leader's role?
3 Is the leader adequately prepared?

Below are some notes to show the careful planning that ought to go into running a discussion group.

| *Aims* | *Leader's task* |
|---|---|
| to improve understanding | to guide members through the facts, principles, concepts |
| to pool knowledge and experience | to elicit and maintain balance of participation |
| to find a solution (eg a course discussion) | to help the group to identify real problems, not just symptoms, to assemble and analyse data, to formulate and then evaluate courses of action, to arrive at conclusions, to initiate action |

The advantages of a discussion group are that participation brings acceptance, that everyone's knowledge is made use of, and that since they demand a high level of involvement learning is increased.

The disadvantages are that things can go wrong if the leader is unskilful, or ill-informed; that they are time consuming and require a great deal of preparation, and that they are not suitable for groups of more than 15 people. They are also unsuitable for certain types of teaching. Discussion

groups lend themselves to teaching from the 'here and now' experience of the group. It must be emphasised that to use this technique the leader must be skilled and sensitive to both the group's and the individual's tolerance.

Teaching in this way is not threatening, even to older people, provided it is handled tactfully. An example may illustrate the point. During the first two meetings of a group of volunteers I conducted a 'straight' discussion group. In the third week the notion of feeling anxious in new situations cropped up. Some members of the group denied that they felt anxious and I was able to remind them that at our first meeting some people had talked more quickly than in the present meeting, others who were joining in now had not said a word, and others had been sitting in a very unrelaxed way. Some weeks later the question of social norms was being discussed. By this time the members of the group were at ease with one another. Someone denied that he felt pressured by norms in the group until another group member asked him why he always sat in the same chair, and why all of us addressed one another by our christian names except for two pensioners whom we all addressed by their surnames.

This method of teaching is effective because it demonstrates at an emotional level that call us volunteer, client, member of staff, or what you will, we are all subject to the same frailties.

## ROLE PLAYING AND GAMES

Learning for many people is best achieved by methods that permit 'discovery' through doing and participation. The snag is that it is often impossible to be involved in a real situation, for practical and ethical reasons. So it is that first aid cadets are taught by dealing with simulated accidents, volunteers with organisations like The Child Poverty Action Group are taught at mock tribunals, or volunteers in counselling services are asked to role play some of the situations their clients have experienced.

Many trainers and students are wary of this method of teaching, the students because they are ill prepared and anxious about 'play acting', the trainers because they are not sure of the method and are uncertain as to whether they can cope with the students' anxiety as well as their own.

It is worth pausing to consider that as children we all played games and roles as an integral part of our learning, and teachers capitalise on the child's ability to role play in the infants' and primary school. Can we learn anything from our children? Surely one lesson stands out from all others. Role playing is safe. In a game the child can be angry with his 'older brother' (a teddy bear) and perpetrate a vast array of physical and verbal abuse upon his

person, safe in the knowledge that he will not have to support the vengeance which would be swift and sure if he were doing it 'for real', hurting his brother. The child can learn about being angry in a safe way.

Similarly, the sister who has forgotten what it was like to be a first year student nurse can find herself being told what to do in a simulation where she is role playing a student nurse. She can relive being given conflicting instructions from a variety of people who all feel more authoritative and competent than she does. This experience can be gained safe in the knowledge that after the simulation she will be a sister again with her authority and status intact.

Role playing should take place in a relaxed, friendly atmosphere. At first the rules governing the role play should be simple and explained clearly to the students, situations which the students have experienced should be used. If the role plays are to be criticised, by the rest of the group, then the criticism should be directed to the situation not the individual. Use the most able and confident members of the group in the first role plays.

Explain to students that by acting a role in a variety of ways participants can evaluate different forms of relating to people and that by acting a role other than their own they can gain understanding of the roles of those they have to work with.

## PROJECTS

Projects can help individuals and groups focus on and share key issues and problems. They can be structured by a teacher in the form of a hand out listing, say, several questions. Together with individual case discussions they can enable the individual to gain more from his practical experience—the most effective method of learning for adults. Usually, however, an individual is left to learn from his own experience, which will often be of little benefit.

## ASSESSMENT

Where there is good teaching, there is learning; the good teacher focusses his attention on the learning that he inspires in others. He thinks less about his performance as a teacher than about how his students' learning can be assessed and extended.

The following list suggests ways of assessing the effectiveness of a particular training exercise.

1 Build into any training programme opportunities for the volunteers to comment on process and content.
2 At the end of the course ask them to comment verbally in a brief report or to complete a simple questionnaire.
3 Ask the volunteers if they would be willing to comment again after they have been working for several months. If they agree make sure that they are asked.
4 Informally, note the feedback from colleagues, and the manner in which the volunteers apply their training to practice.
5 Note which parts of the training need reinforcing when the volunteers are working.
6 Note feedback from clients/patients.

Feedback is essential if training courses and methods are to be modified and made more effective. The trainer has to be prepared to admit his mistakes and errors of judgement.

## SUBSEQUENT TRAINING

Earlier in the booklet training is described as a process. The process does not or should not stop after the initial period of training. Opportunities for training should be an integral part of the support the volunteer receives while he is working with an agency. Many workers report that as a volunteer becomes more practised and confident his demands for more sophisticated knowledge and skill development increase. This means that some volunteers make increasingly heavy demands on those who train and supervise them.

# The Time Factor

One of the commonest cries of workers is that they have not got enough time. In a sense, it is as though time were the matrix within which the different elements of the training process mix, and it is essential to make the matrix the right consistency. If it is wrong, no matter what or how high the quality of the other ingredients of the training process the whole thing will fall apart. Perhaps it is enough to raise briefly some of the issues that arise out of a consideration of the question 'When do I train these volunteers?'

The answer, inevitably, is going to involve a consideration of some of the factors already discussed—objectives, methods and resources—and there are others. For example, the time the worker has available, the time the volunteers have available, their willingness to offer a commitment to spend time in the training process (experience has shown that volunteers are usually very willing to offer this commitment). Other pressures are to do with the demands of a client group, or an agency, or the volunteers themselves to get something done. Colleagues who are impatient to start working with a volunteer can exert insidious and persistent pressure. In taking decisions about timing, the trainer has to consider and balance all these factors.

The range of alternatives is vast and varies from the new volunteer who is simply told to go and do a job with the barest factual information—for example, Mrs Bloggs lives at such and such an address and wants someone to dig her garden, to the lengthy selection/training/preparation policies pursued by agencies such as the Marriage Guidance Council. These two styles may be appropriate at different times, to the task to be performed and the particular volunteer concerned. I wonder, however, how many volunteers have come away from digging somebody's garden wishing that somebody had bothered to comment on the personality of the old person concerned, or his severe arthritis, or offered advice on talking with somebody who had suffered a stroke that had badly affected his speech. To take the example of the Marriage Guidance Council, how many volunteers have withdrawn from that setting because they became impatient and wanted to get on with the job? Of course, it might well be argued by agencies such as the Marriage Guidance Council that the volunteer's withdrawal indicated that he was perhaps not suited to the sort of work that agency could provide.

The trainer is in the very delicate and difficult business of striking the right balance for different potential volunteers performing a wide variety of tasks. If, however, some of the questions raised earlier in this booklet can be answered fairly clearly, a balance is easier to reach. For example, if the organiser feels that a particular group can learn on an apprenticeship 'model'—in other words by getting on with the job, so long as they get advice and instruction while they are getting on with it, he may plan for them to start work very quickly after joining the agency.

That decision has all sorts of implications for the agency: for example, making preparation to use the volunteers soon after their arrival. If, however, the agency insists that volunteers have a clear understanding of where the limits of their role lie the trainer must not give in to the volunteer's demand to start work immediately. He should insist that one or two sessions are spent talking about agency expectations and the areas of discretion the volunteers will have.

Time very strongly influences the method of training used: a series of groups for volunteers is a commitment on the part of the agency, the trainer and the volunteers for several weeks, even months. In an agency working under extreme pressure, that commitment can often be regarded as a very large input of resources, and the trainer must ensure that it is justified in terms of the quality and the amount of the work that volunteers are going to do.

Earlier we suggested that, in many instances, training was a continuous process. As a rule, we suggest that the more the volunteer is working with people in stress the more he is likely to need continuing training from the agency. He will need to understand what has happened to other people and himself, and to know what methods and resources can be brought to bear. It is important, therefore, that the trainer should be able to give the volunteer realistic expectations about the support he is going to receive after his initial training.

Another booklet in this series deals with supporting volunteers. Training is an important element of support and the person who initially trains volunteers must ensure that the agency is aware of this. It isn't good enough for the volunteer to be noticed only when he's doing something wrong.

One final point on the question of time. It can be an ally. Some trainers of volunteers deliberately space out their training sessions over several weeks so that the volunteers have time to think about some of the things that are said as the sessions go by week by week. My experience is that this can often be very helpful, although volunteers may often recognise it as such only *several* months later. Many have commented to me that they at first thought that

spending time on a particular notion—for example, that when we offer people help we somehow diminish them—was a waste of time. As the weeks have gone by, they have found themselves thinking about it in a whole variety of settings, in the family, at the office, and when they start work. The passage of time enables us to worry away at an idea at our own pace in a way that is comfortable to us. We gradually build up an understanding that can influence the way we behave, and, in this context, the way we offer our service to somebody else.

# Appendix A

**Resource suggestions**

From own and similar statutory and non-statutory agencies:

**People**

Colleagues
Staff of other agencies
Volunteers
Clients
Patients

Finance officers
Treasurers
Committee members
Senior and middle managers

**Institutions**

Trade unions
Consumer groups
Co-ordinating bodies—for example,
CVS, RCCs
Churches
Academic institutions
Industry
Chamber of commerce
Pressure groups
Central government departments
Teachers' centres
Community Relations Council

**Teaching material**

Films and projectors (spare lamp
and fuse)
Case material
Tapes
Video
Diaries
Simulations
Role play briefs
Books
Hand outs
Legislation acts and circulars
Agency policy documents

# Appendix B

## Planning guide

Planning the first training session for up to 20 volunteers:

### Administration

1 Book suitable rooms well in advance.
2 Notify volunteers well in advance.
3 Ensure they know where to go—provide maps, bus routes, parking facilities.
4 If an outside speaker is required, advise him of date and venue; make arrangements for any fee and expenses.
5 Nearer the time, if possible, meet and brief the speaker.
6 Ensure you can gain access to the room on the night.
7 Find out when you have to leave.
8 Arrange payment for the room.
9 Make arrangements for volunteers' expenses.
10 Let volunteers and speaker know how long the session will last.

### Content and programme

1 Know what you would like to achieve in the first session.
2 Plan the training techniques and methods you will use.
3 Introductions, main content, conclusion, negotiate arrangements for next meeting, finish on time.

### The venue

Is it easy to find?
Is it warm?
Is it too big or too small?
Is it well lit?
Are the chairs comfortable?
If you need tables or a blackboard, are they there?
Are lavatories available—are they easy to find, are they unlocked?
Are there facilities for making tea or coffee?
If there's a speaker, is there a glass of water for him?

# Appendix C

**Tips for the first timer.**

1 Remember that the volunteers want what you have to offer.
2 They want training.
3 Be relaxed.
4 Take it slowly.
5 Listen to the volunteers so that you can make the session relevant.
6 Make constant links between parts of the course—for example, have nurseries anything in common with old people's homes, prisons with hospitals, young children with the elderly?
7 Refer to previous parts of the course to remind the volunteers of relevant learning.
8 Don't try to cram too much in.
9 Have a plan for each session, but be prepared to modify it.
10 Do the administration well before so that it's out of the way.
11 'A comfortable setting makes a comfortable group.'
12 Use your imagination.
13 Remember that volunteers have a wealth of experience that you can draw on—for example, they have all been frightened, happy, sad; all been children, all had parents.
14 If a session has a break for tea or coffee, get the discussion started before the break so that it doesn't have to start cold afterwards.
15 Use visual aids, charts, and blackboards wherever possible.
16 Don't use teaching methods you are uncomfortable with, practise first on colleagues.
17 Ask professional adult education teachers for advice.
18 Be able to say 'I don't know' and promise to find out or indicate how the questioner can find out.
19 Enjoy yourself.

# Appendix D

Example outline of a course for new volunteers that can be adapted to most organisations.

*From an unpublished paper by Martin Edis*

a) About the job

b) About the people involved

c) About the setting

d) About the project
(if volunteers are to work in a particular project)

e) About the agency

f) About the community

g) About being a volunteer

h) About support and communications

## INDUCTION TRAINING

| 'FOREGROUND' INFORMATION | 'BACKGROUND' INFORMATION |
|---|---|
| Aims<br>Tasks<br>Progress so far | |
| The clients or patients—who they are—their details and needs<br>The paid staff—who they are—their jobs<br>The volunteers—who they are—what they do | The clients or patients—their general difficulties—why they need help<br>The paid staff—their functions |
| Conditions of working<br>Problems | |
| Aims<br>Jobs and structure<br>Progress so far<br>Opportunities | Relation to other projects |
| Aims, local policy<br>Local activity and services<br>Climate<br>Difficulties | Overall aims<br>Services provided<br>Structure |
| Local conditions<br>Local services<br>Local problems and needs<br>Local attitudes | Social and economic factors<br>Public services |
| Commitment required<br>Responsibilities<br>Entitlements—expenses etc<br>Insurance<br>Conduct expected<br>Accountability of agency to volunteer | Opportunities for further involvement<br>Opportunities for meeting other volunteers |
| Arrangements for contact<br>Support and guidance<br>Sources of help<br>Meetings<br>Social events<br>Training | |

# Appendix E

## LEARNING AND THE ADULT LEARNER

**Learning ability of the older person**—Many adults think that their learning ability is not as it was when they were young. They refer to such things as their inability to remember phone numbers, faces, names etc. To some extent it is likely that this is a defensive process indicating that they need reassurance. The legend that the older person cannot learn, reinforced by sayings like 'you can't teach an old dog new tricks', needs to be revealed for the lie it surely is! Perhaps the rate of learning declines but the adult is certainly capable of far more learning than he gives himself credit for! Remember also that the adult brings experience to the situation which may benefit him greatly. It is true that the older learner may need to work at a slower pace than the younger ones. Allow them to set their own timetable. Similarly encourage them to set their own standards but *do* make sure that standards are set. People respond to *known* standards.

**Use of the Senses**—Learning is most likely to take place when as many senses as possible are involved. There is plenty of evidence that to only listen is a very inefficient learning method—yet consider how much emphasis we place on teaching by the spoken word. People can learn by rote or by imitation but adults learn best by discovering for themselves. This means they must *do*— they must be actively involved in the learning process. The basic framework of TELL THEM; SHOW THEM; LET THEM TRY is very sound—particularly if the learner is encouraged to DISCOVER for himself. However, a word of caution—remember the learner can just as easily learn the wrong things (habits, attitudes etc) so guidance is still needed.

**The Adult's Feelings**—We are all apprehensive of change. The adult en-countering a new situation is particularly likely to fear loss of status if he can't immediately cope. Bear in mind this possible attitude to learning and ensure the learner is not plunged into what *he* perceives as a competitive situation with younger people. Extreme emotional arousal interferes with learning. We want them to relax—not tense up on us! Remember that the older person's schooling may have been very different from the young person's. Older people are likely to be well aware of this. On the other hand

they have had the opportunity to learn from the best school of all—the school of life. Make quite sure that your starting point is known to the learner before proceeding into the 'new and unknown'.

**Motivating the Learner**—Perhaps the biggest single factor in the learning process is the learner's need to learn. It is essential to maintain interest. Constantly show the learner how the learning fits into the performance of the job. People are likely to be motivated most by achieving success, so structure your learning process so that they can be successful. *Let them know how they are doing.* Endeavour to set challenging but realisable objectives, so that the learner can use his natural competitive nature in a constant endeavour to improve on his *own* past performance. Keep the learner interested by making each learning session end not with complete solutions but with some questions left unanswered to puzzle him.

One way to retain interest is to make sure that the learner can see how the particular 'part' being taught fits into the 'whole'. This is the familiar question that vexes teachers everywhere—should one teach from the 'whole' to the 'part' or vice versa? Opinions differ on this and it is probably wise to use the following guidelines. Teach the 'whole' if possible; if the subject is too complex to allow this, outline the 'whole' followed by 'part 1' in detail, then outline the 'whole' including 'part 1' before going on to 'part 2' and so on.

This systematic approach will help ensure that the learning is following a logical sequence. People get 'demotivated' when they can't see where they've been nor why they've been there! A useful principle to observe is that offered by the sergeant major who, asked how he was able to teach so well, said, 'Well Sir first I tells 'em what I'm going to tell 'em, then I tells 'em, then I tells 'em what I've told 'em!' This pragmatic approach is rather more, I feel, than mere repetition!

**The Problem of Memory**—It is probably true that memory begins to drop off in efficiency as we get older. Certainly our short term memory does. If the job entails using memory the best thing is to see if 'check lists' or algorithms can be designed to minimise this. If this is impossible it will be necessary to incorporate frequent self tests during the training. More than ever, it will be necessary for the learner to understand 'why' rather than just 'what'.

Finally, teaching adults can be a very rewarding experience. Generally they are most appreciative of the teacher's efforts. We must bear in mind that their anxieties are different from those of the young learner and constantly seek to reassure them. The results will amply repay us.

**Bert Foley** Senior Management Studies Lecturer,
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# Appendix F

## SELECTED READING LIST

The books and articles listed below have been selected because: they are easily read by busy people; they offer ideas and information about what can and is being done; they are a rich source of teaching material; volunteers will enjoy reading them.

### 1 Volunteers with families and young children

Humphries, B. *Only Connect. Lone Parents and Volunteers.* Edinburgh Guild of Service, 1976.

Sparks, I. Voluntary Family Counsellors. *The Channel Project,* Barnardos, 1973. Full length pamphlet on volunteers working with families in difficulty in Liverpool.

Davies, M. Volunteers with Families and Children in Manchester's Special Schools. Summary: article in Social Work Today, 15.5.1976, of a book.

*Family Groups,* London Council of Social Service, 1975. Pamphlet on scheme involving mainly indigenous women to lead support groups for isolated mothers.

Knight, L. 'When the crying will not stop', *Community Care,* 9.7.1975. Article describes emergency phone-in schemes for mothers at breaking point.

### 2 Young volunteers

Ball, C. & M. *Education for a change,* Penguin, 1973. Book. Lively account of involving young people.

*Pupils and Patients,* Kings Fund/London Council of Social Service, 1972. Pamphlet. Young volunteers in hospitals.

Ball, M. *Young People as Volunteers,* The Volunteer Centre, 1976. Full length detailed report on in-depth interviews in various settings.

### 3 Volunteers in other special projects

Barr, H. *Volunteers in Prison After Care.* Allen & Unwin, 1971, full-length book outlining the stages of involving volunteers; applicable to most social services department situations.

Eaton Griffith, V. *Volunteer Scheme for Stroke Patients.* Chest, Heart and Stroke Association, 1975. This booklet outlines the unusual method of organising a group of volunteers around a single household; applicable to many social services department situations. Summarised in Darvill, G. 'Volunteers with the speech handicapped', *Age Concern Today.* Spring 1975. This article also describes laryngectomy clubs.

Meacher, M. 'After 1½ million years in hospital', *Social Work Today,* 10.6.1976. Article outlines the role of volunteers in after care.

Manning, M. 'Living with Death', *Community Care,* 5.3.1975. Article describes scheme where volunteers visit the recently bereaved.

*Grapevine, Community Sex Education Project,* Family Planning Association, 1974. Booklet, full outline of the first two years.

Dove, R. 'A case for community involvement', *Community Care,* 20.11.1976. Article: puts the case for and provides ideas on involving volunteers in intermediate treatment.

Katz, A. H. 'Self help and the handicapped', *New Society,* 10.4.1975. Article: two medical projects in Yugoslavia involving parents with their children's treatment.

Papers from a Working Probation Office. Shelton Probation Office (Stoke). First report, April 1973—March 1975. Second report, March 1976. Two booklets: description of work-sharing between probation officers, volunteers and probationers.

### 4 Volunteers in residential and day care settings (including some items in other sections)

'Come and be a Granny', *Daily Telegraph Weekend Supplement,* 28.11.1975. Exciting American project inviting people to make long-term contact with very handicapped patients.

Finzi, E. *et al. Volunteers in Hospitals,* Kings Fund, 1971. Series of useful articles collected into a book.

Darvill, G. *Bargain or Barricade?* The Volunteer Centre, 1975. Booklet.

*Creative Partnerships,* The Volunteer Centre, 1977. Central section of full length study.

Marcovitch, A. 'Refuges for Battered Women', *Social Work Today* 15.11.1976. Article discusses how sensitively to involve volunteers.

## 5 Community involvement in the neighbourhood

*Time to Care*, National Council of Social Service, 1972. Booklet: how to set up neighbourhood schemes, mainly applicable to 'established' localities.

Kettle, D. and Hart, L. *Health of the Elderly Project*, Newcastle, Kings Fund, 1974. This booklet is a closely researched account of practical visiting.

Ferguson, J. and McGlone, P. *Towards Voluntary Action*. Manchester Council of Voluntary Service. Booklet: Part 1 outlines the establishment of the volunteer bureau network in Manchester. Part 2 describes setting up community care schemes.

Bayley, M. 'The community can care', *New Society*, 25.10.1973. Article on how statutory services fail to support existing good neighbours.

Twelvetrees, A. 'North Braunstone Age Concern Group', *Time to Consider*. Family Service Unit, 1975. Interesting detailed account of the process of establishing a group in a stigmatised working class area.

Darvill, G. *Paid Visiting and Street Warden Schemes*. The Volunteer Centre, 1975.

Law, P. 'The gentle persuaders', *Community Care*. 28.7.1976. Article: description of a wide ranging community care network in Thetford.

## 6 Setting things up

Sidney, E. and Brown, M., *Skills of Interviewing*, Tavistock. Out of print, but available in libraries. (Lengthy).

Geoffrey Drain Committee, *Guidelines for Relationships between Volunteers and Paid Non-Professional Workers*, The Volunteer Centre, 1975. Leaflet.

Bruce, I. and Darvill, G., 'Over the defences', *Social Work Today*. 5.8.1976. The volunteer in the social services department area team, how to encourage interdependence. Article.

Hooper, D. and Tyndall, N., 'Selecting volunteers', *Social Work Today*. June 1972, Vol. 2, No. 19. Article on rigorous selection procedures of the Marriage Guidance Council.

Murphy, G., *Voluntary Social Work*. Leicester Council of Social Service and Family Service Unit, 1972. Useful training document for induction of new volunteers. Booklet.

Nicholson, D., 'In practice', *Community Care*, 19.2.1975. Article outlining how a social work student prepared a group of volunteers.

## 7 Developing the developers

*Pivot*, report of a working party on the National Association of Voluntary Help Organisers, The Volunteer Centre, 1976.

Alinsky, S., *Rules for Radicals*. Wildwood House, 1975.

## 8 Think-pieces on volunteers etc

Leat, D., *Towards a Definition of Voluntary Activity*. The Volunteer Centre, 1977. Paper dissecting the conceptualisation about voluntary activity.

Rankin, M., (1) *A Professional Use of Volunteers*
         (2) *A Creative Use of Volunteers*
The Volunteer Centre, 1976. Papers discussing the involvement of the community, especially in the penal services.

## 9 Background on people in need

Axline, V., *Dibs: In Search of Self*. Penguin, 1971.
Norman, F., *Banana Boy*. Secker and Warburg, 1969.
Green, H., *I Never Promised You A Rose Garden*. Pan, 1972.
Winnicott, D., *The Child, the Family and the Outside World*. Pelican, 1964.
Caplan, G., *An Approach to Community Mental Health*. Tavistock, 1969.
Laing, R. D., *Self and Others*. Tavistock, 1967.
Hinton, J., *Dying*. Penguin, 1967.

## 10 Background on method

a) *Social work and group work*

Brandon, D., 'Zen social work', *Social Work Today*, 23.1.1975. plus useful booklist.

Jordan, W., *Client-Worker Transactions*. Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1975.

Bion, W.R., *Experience in Groups*. Tavistock, 1961.

Butler, Janet, 'Casework by objectives', In *Time to Consider*. Family Service Unit, 1975.

Craig, Yvonne, 'Bereavement work and behaviour therapy', *New Psychiatry*, 10.6.1976.

b) *Management aspects*

Cooper, R., *Job Motivation and Job Design*. Institute of Personnel Management, 1974.

## 11 Background to the social services departments

Kogan, M. and Terry, J., *The Organisation of a Social Services Department*. Bookstall Publications, 1971. Booklet.

Leissner, A. *et al.*, *Advice, Guidance and Assistance*. Longman, 1971. The work of family advice centres. Full length book.

## 12 Aspects of policy on community involvement

East Sussex Social Services Department, *A Discussion Document on Community Work*. East Sussex Social Services Department, 1976.

Marris, P. and Rein, M., *Dilemmas of Social Reform*. Penguin, 1974. Description and conceptualisation of community action.

Aves Report, *The Voluntary Worker in the Social Services*. Allen & Unwin, 1969.

Seebohm Report, *Local Authority and Allied Personal Social Services*. HNSO, 1968.

Darvill, G., *Encouraging the Community*. The Volunteer Centre, 1976. Report of a survey of 100 social services departments on grant aiding, liaison and specialist staffing. The slow pace of change.

## 13 Journals, etc. A few suggestions

*Social Work Today*
*Community Care*
*New Society*
*Social Services*
*Social Worker*
*Municipal Review*
*Municipal Journal*
*Health and Social Service Journal*
*Case Con*
*Community Action*
*Association of Community Workers' Newsletter*

*Age Concern Today*
*Voice:* National Association of Voluntary Help Organiser's Newsletter
*Community Health Council News*
*MIND Information Bulletin*
*London Council of Social Services Bulletin*
*National Council of Social Services Bulletin*
*inVOLve —Volunteer Centre Bulletin*

## USEFUL ADDRESSES

BBC Film Hire
Woodston House
Oundle Road
Peterborough PE2 9PZ

Concord Films Council Ltd
Nacton
Ipswich
Suffolk IP10 0JZ

Bookstall Services
169 Malden Road
London NW5 4HT

The Volunteer Centre
29 Lower Kings Road
Berkhamsted
Herts HP4 2AB

# Volunteer Centre Publications

### VOLUNTEER CENTRE CASE STUDIES

1 'Volunteers' and 'clients' in a neighbourhood care project

2 Involving the housebound in the provision of neighbourhood care

3 Voluntary drivers in a continuum of care scheme for the elderly

4 Community care in a rural general practice

5 The involvement of volunteers in family casework

6 A co-ordinated approach to juvenile delinquency

7 The role of radio in stimulating neighbourhood care

8 Volunteer involvement in an education and treatment programme for problem drinkers

9 'Coffee-shop caring'

10 Shared work in an office (the Shelton probation office, Staffordshire probation service)

11 Discontinuity and community involvement: the role of temporary staff in stimulating volunteer involvement

12 Volunteers in a primary school

13 A day centre that enables the elderly infirm to leave a hospital setting with security

**Working with Volunteers**
1 Support
2 Training
3 Selection and recruitment (available spring 1978)
4 Frameworks (available spring 1978)

**The Volunteer, Community and Society**: report of a Volunteer Centre conference attended by representatives of the health, social, probation and after-care services, and voluntary organisations.

**Encouraging the Community**: the contribution made by the social services departments.

**Pivot**: report of a working party on the National Association of Voluntary Help Organisers (NAVHO), produced on behalf of NAVHO.

**Voluntary Service Co-ordinators in the Health Services, 1975**: a statistical analysis and directory of posts.

**Young People as Volunteers**

**The Role of Television in Stimulating Voluntary Action**

**Creative Partnerships**: a study of voluntary community involvement in Leicestershire.

**Volunteer Involvement in the National Health Service**: evidence to the Royal Commission.

A response to the DHSS consultative document *Priorities for Health and Social Services in England.*

**Current Research**: a directory of research into voluntary activity since 1970.

**Bargain or Barricade?**: the role of the social services in meeting social need through involving the community.

**Government Policy on Community Involvement and the Health and Personal Social Services**: address by The Rt Hon David Ennals MP, Secretary of State for the Social Services, at The Volunteer Centre AGM, 1977.

*For a full list of titles and prices, please send a stamped addressed A4 envelope to the administrative officer at The Volunteer Centre, 29 Lower Kings Road, Berkhamsted, Herts HP4 2AB.*

# The Volunteer Centre

## INVOLVING THE COMMUNITY IN MEETING SOCIAL NEED

The Volunteer Centre was opened in September 1973; registered as a charity, it is financed by government and voluntary trusts. The Centre was established in response to the Aves report on the role of the voluntary worker in the social services. The report had called for the setting up of a body to promote volunteering and to encourage opportunities for individual volunteers, voluntary agencies and community groups; the demand was supported by representatives of the statutory and voluntary sectors.

The Centre concentrates on three areas of activity: collecting and disseminating information on voluntary and community involvement; advising on the training of volunteers and of the people who work with them, and discussing, with statutory and voluntary authorities, possibilities for extending voluntary participation.

Now and over the next three years the broad focus of the Centre's work will be neighbourhood care. The study of current and potential caring resources will be an important theme: the Centre will also be examining ways of interweaving the activities of statutory and voluntary groups and of supporting 'informal carers'—families, neighbours, and friends.