As the competition for volunteers becomes more acute and volunteer managers become increasingly concerned with the recruitment and retention of volunteers, marketing techniques are playing an ever more important role. Using the findings of a series of focus groups, this article examines the recruitment and retention of volunteers in north-eastern England. The findings indicate that volunteer behaviour goes through a number of stages. A 'volunteer life cycle' model is developed which emphasises the relevance of voluntary organisations using marketing communications, recruitment and retention strategies to facilitate the volunteer's experience, so that it results in continued volunteering rather than an exit from the activity.

The volunteer life cycle: a marketing model for volunteering

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Introduction

Despite estimates that half the population of the UK volunteer time to community activities (Palmer, 2000), there are signs that this level of involvement may have peaked (Gaskin, 1999). Public sector and voluntary sector organisations are now striving to recruit from a decreasing pool of volunteers (Jackson, 1999). As the competition for volunteers has grown more acute and volunteer managers have become increasingly concerned with the recruitment and retention of volunteers, marketing techniques are playing an ever more important role. Consequently, there is much interest in this area among marketers. Although a great deal of work has been carried out in the United States (see, for example, Wymer and Self, 1999), far less attention has been paid to this issue in the UK. The aim of this paper is to examine the current situation confronting voluntary organisations that wish to recruit and retain volunteers. In particular, it explores the key marketing issues facing the voluntary sector in the north-eastern region of England.

For an organisation, the key to success in recruiting and retaining volunteers is to understand the motives of its target group of volunteers (Chambre, 1987). Many studies have been undertaken to discover why people volunteer and what benefits volunteers gain from helping others. Altruism is frequently seen to be the central motivation, where the reward is intrinsic to the act of volunteering. It is undoubtedly true that many people find voluntary activity to be a rewarding experience, but Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) demonstrate that, in addition to altruistic motives, people tend to volunteer for egoistic reasons. They volunteer to satisfy important social and psychological goals. These goals are so diverse that Mueller (1975) uses four main categories to classify the benefits gained. As well as altruism, he cites the family unit consuming the collective good (for example, having a child in the unit), the volunteer enjoying a 'selective incentive' (for example, prestige, social contact), and the improvement of human capital.

Although there are clear benefits available from volunteering, why do some people volunteer when others do not? A crucial element here is word of mouth recommendation: people volunteer because someone they value asks them to. People are more than four times as likely to volunteer when asked than when not (Wymer, 1997). This personal contact is extremely important, as it reduces the perceived social risk that deters some people from volunteering (Riecken, Babakus and Yavas, 1994). Some people may want to volunteer, but volunteering may conflict with their paid work and their family commitments; individuals have finite resources to devote to organisations (McPherson and Rotolo, 1996). For some, the image of volunteering (Davis Smith, 1999) or the fear of not being accepted by an established group (Nichols and King, 1999) might be off-putting.

Having acquired volunteers, the organisation must seek to retain their support. In a dynamic and changing environment, where the number of voluntary organisations is growing and the pool of volunteers is diminishing, organisations must understand not only what motivates people to volunteer but also what keeps them volunteering. Hobson and et al (1996) suggest that a volunteer-friendly environment is more likely to support retention. This is enhanced by positive relations between paid staff and volunteers (Mitchell and Taylor, 1997), showing appreciation (Britton, 1999), providing training (McCudden, 2000) and having fun (Wright, 1995). Increasing the

satisfaction derived from volunteering has been shown to increase the length of service (Omoto and Snyder, 1995).

As demonstrated above, people volunteer for specific benefits and will only continue with the activity if they are satisfied. In this way, volunteers are no different from any other consumer of a service. The relationship between the volunteer and the organisation is crucial. It is therefore valuable to consider marketing in the voluntary sector using a relationship marketing approach, as this places the focus on customer retention, orientation on product (service) benefits, high customer contact and commitment (Christopher et al, 1991), all of which are evident here. The Customer Relationship Life Cycle presented by Gronroos (2000, page 237) is particularly relevant to an appreciation of volunteering (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: The Customer Relationship Life Cycle (Gronroos, 2000)
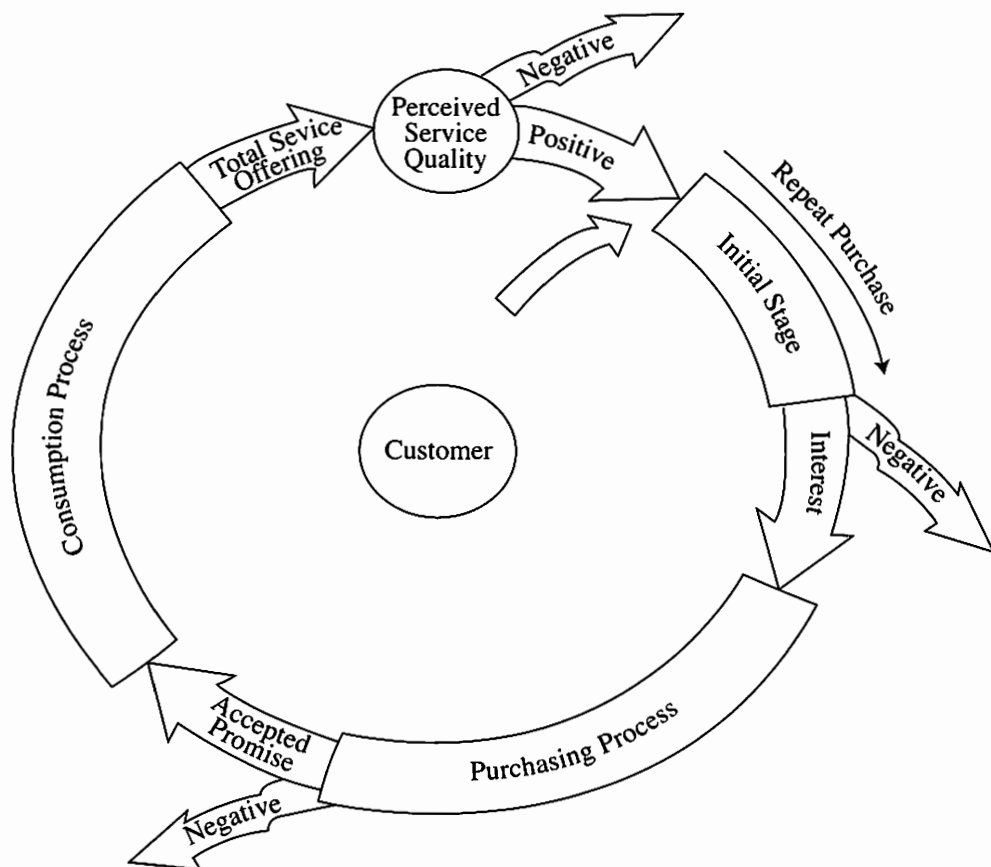
Gronroos views the progress of a customer relation as a life cycle during which each stage provides a different marketing challenge to the organisation. At the 'initial stage' the marketing objective is to 'create interest' in the organisation. At the next stage ('purchasing process'), this interest should be converted into action.

During the consumption process (usage process) the customer should get positive experiences ... Thus resales, cross sales and enduring customer relationships should be achieved (Gronroos, 2000).

These phases can be seen to relate closely to volunteer behaviour.

Methodology

Given the limited previous research in this area, we deemed an exploratory research strategy to be the most suitable. Data were collected by means of focus group interviews, which allowed respondents to identify and expand on what they considered to be key marketing issues and to discuss aspects of volunteer management derived from a review of the literature. A total of six group sessions were run in six different parts of the region. Group size was kept within the range of six to nine so that participants felt neither pressured into speaking nor ignored (Mendes de Almeida, 1980). The participants of five of the groups included both volunteers and volunteer co-ordinators, mainly from community-based organisations and local branches of national voluntary organisations. In order to obtain the views of those operating at a more strategic level, the sixth group was made up of directors and project organisers employed in Volunteer Bureaux and Local Development Agencies (most of these were also active volunteers). Fifty-two people contributed to this research and over seventy voluntary organisations were represented.

Each of the group interviews lasted just over two hours. The moderator followed an interview guide that covered the definition of a volunteer, the context of volunteering, volunteer characteristics and motivation, as well as retention issues and ways of reactivating volunteers. The focus groups were taped and transcribed. After transcription, the interview data was analysed using data reduction techniques (Strauss, 1987). To enable comparisons to be made while preserving the uniqueness of the views and experiences of each participant, a cross-case analysis was also carried out (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The tapes were transcribed and analysed by both authors. The findings presented below are applied to Gronroos's (2000) Customer Relationship Life Cycle, and a

Volunteer Life Cycle has been developed demonstrating a number of stages:

- Determinants of volunteering (corresponding to Gronroos's 'initial stage')
- The decision to volunteer ('purchasing stage')
- Volunteer activity ('consumption process')
- The committed volunteer ('repeat purchase')

Determinants of volunteering

Although a central motive suggested in the literature is altruism, the groups agreed that, in the majority of cases they were familiar with, this was definitely not the case. However, they acknowledged that there were volunteers who wanted to 'pass on skills', 'to give something back' or to enable people (for example, by helping them become employable). All participants felt that volunteering normally only occurs if a person has a need which he or she feels will be satisfied by becoming a volunteer. There was a consensus that, in most cases, 'why they volunteer is to do with the direct benefits they receive', although participants did acknowledge that 'there must be a dual benefit for both the volunteer and the organisation'.

Mueller's (1985) typology was certainly apparent among the benefits identified. Participants believed that some people are motivated by the experiences of a family member: for example, they may become a parent helper to prevent the closure of a Beaver club or they may volunteer in an Alzheimer's group. There was also evidence that some individuals volunteered for more egotistical reasons: 'do-gooder' or 'to make themselves feel good' were two comments made. Volunteering to enhance one's status was also mentioned. This was particularly important for unemployed people, retired people and those on long-term sickness benefit. The need to belong and to make friends was noted. Volunteering was also a way of meeting like-minded people: one project leader met his future wife through volunteering.

For many volunteers, both employed and unemployed, one of the benefits of volunteering is the acquisition of additional skills and knowledge. All participants stated that, in their experience, unemployed people placed a continual emphasis on developing skills to increasing the possibility of future employment. People who are in employment may be looking to change careers or to develop new skills. For example, a teacher requested a volunteering position in anything but childcare, as she 'wanted to try something

different'. One volunteer with a youth organisation gave up his job, remortgaged his house, went back to university and is now training to be a social worker.

For people wishing to take a particular course of study, previous experience is sometimes a prerequisite – and this kind of practical experience can be gained through volunteering. Sometimes it is part of the course content. There was also evidence that recent graduates:

want to volunteer because ... they haven't yet got a job and employers think they are keeping busy, trying to do something through volunteering. It's better than doing nothing at all.

For some, volunteering was a way to fill free time. For others, it enabled them to try different types of employment.

Lack of time was seen as a barrier to volunteering:

I think there are a lot of pressures on people now, which make it easy not to volunteer, especially younger people.

But some participants were less sympathetic:

I do feel ... if you really wanted to volunteer, you could volunteer on an evening or at the week-end ... I think

if you are really committed and wanted to do it, you'll do it.

Marketing strategies
The staff of Volunteer Development Agencies and some of the volunteer co-ordinators saw part of their role as promoting the concept of volunteering. They targeted various groups to encourage them to become volunteers. For example, those involved with Millennium Volunteers projects gave presentations in schools, sixth form colleges and universities. However, these campaigns were not always successful: for example, stalls at Freshers' Fairs had little impact on students. One volunteer bureau did succeed in increasing its recruitment of volunteers by 36 per cent in 2000; this was the result of an active promotion campaign by the co-ordinator.

All agreed that the best results were achieved in places where people spent their leisure time:

I go to supermarkets, health centres. I give talks to church groups. I put up posters ... visit leisure centres ... I would say that the most successful is the leisure centre, because people there have a lot of free time.

The decision to volunteer
Having raised awareness of the need for volunteers, it is important to

move this awareness through to the next stage: acceptance. A dialogue needs to be developed, and it is here that volunteers evaluate the organisation to establish the fit between their individual needs and what it has to offer. For some, the decision is linked to the reason for volunteering. They give their time to an organisation because they wish to support the specific cause it represents. They may wish to support a campaigning organisation, or:

It could be that they want to volunteer maybe in a hospital because there's been a relative who's been very sick and the hospital helped.

Sometimes those who had used a service returned as a volunteer 'to put something back in'. It may be that only one particular organisation will satisfy the volunteer's need, as in the case of this volunteer:

My brother has a disability. My relationship with my brother was difficult, so I circumnavigated that by going to Mencap and volunteering.

Potential volunteers of this type are likely to approach the organisation. There is an interest already, but the outcome may not necessarily be positive. Much depends on their reception. Some organisations are not as welcoming as they could be,

and so may deter the volunteer. This is well illustrated by one potential volunteer:

You've got someone who comes into an organisation and they say, 'I'd like to help out, what can I do?' And if they're not given something worthwhile to do, you lose them ... I've sat there wanting to do something and I've sat around and I've said, 'Can you give me something to do?' I wasn't given it.

Competition
For those who do not have a specific organisation in mind, there is a plethora of voluntary organisations to choose from. Some people approach local Volunteer Bureaux, which act as agencies matching potential volunteers to appropriate voluntary organisations. Potential volunteers are given a list of organisations and it is left to them to make contact. There appears to be little follow-up on what happens to people after they leave the Bureau.

The marketing strategies of Volunteer Bureaux vary according to the priorities and interests of the Development Officer and the resources available to the Bureau. The Bureaux have two marketing tasks: firstly, to market the concept of volunteering to potential volunteers; and secondly, to market themselves to the voluntary

organisations – for the Bureaux need to be aware of opportunities within those organisations if they are to inform the potential volunteers. There were conflicting views about whose responsibility it was to provide this information. Some Development Officers felt that it was up to the organisations to tell them about their opportunities; others believed that they could only provide a quality service to volunteers if they were aware of all the opportunities in their area, and so they regularly contacted the organisations and actively marketed their service. However, there was general agreement that voluntary organisations could do more to keep Bureaux informed.

The organisations themselves felt that the Bureaux were useful in recruiting volunteers for some activities, but could not be relied upon to fill all the roles in the organisation. There was a general lack of knowledge about what Bureaux did, and few voluntary organisations had an enduring or positive relationship with their local Bureau.

Potential volunteers were also directed to organisations by Citizens Advice Bureaux and by Job Centres. However, the people in the latter category were occasionally reluctant volunteers.

Nearly all participants realised that they were in a competitive situation where the recruitment of volunteers was concerned:

It's going to be the one which is most appealing to that volunteer or which one that volunteer can get to.

The methods organisations used to raise their profile – and therefore a potential volunteer's awareness that the organisation could fulfil a need – were quite diverse. However, there was little evidence of an integrated marketing communications strategy behind these initiatives, but rather an ad hoc and intuitive approach evolved over time. The size of an organisation's financial resources was the main factor determining the tools it used: for example, to advertise in two theatre programmes cost one volunteer group £85. In some instances promotional budgets were given as £150 per year!

Marketing strategies
Most groups acknowledged that trying to obtain positive publicity was a must for raising their profile, and that sometimes new volunteers were the result. Success often depended upon the nature of the organisation's activities, and upon whether they happened to be newsworthy. For example, one organisation training disabled riders

cultivated the local press and obtained frequent publicity, as horses were considered to be photogenic. A major problem participants identified was competition between voluntary groups, which led to newspapers being inundated with requests for sponsorship deals, prizes or editorials. The consensus was that obtaining support from a key local and/or political player, such as the mayor, a visiting pantomime celebrity or the local MP was often successful, but it required time and resources, which were often in short supply. An extremely successful method was to use the free community broadcast slot on local television: one organisation managed to recruit fifty volunteers in this way, plus a further fifty for a neighbouring group. However, another group that used local radio stated that volunteers were just 'not coming through'.

Although several methods were regarded as successful, there had been no real investigation into which ones resulted in organisations achieving their recruitment targets. Word of mouth and personal referrals were perceived as the most successful – sometimes directed towards people who use the service, as a way of encouraging them to help out. This was one of the few attempts at targeting. Although organisations acknowledged that 'it's very difficult

to get the right type of people', mass marketing was the approach they most frequently adopted. This did not seem to be very fruitful in bringing in new volunteers: one organisation did a 4,000 house-to-house leaflet drop that resulted in just one positive response; another was currently knocking on every door in the community (over 3,000), but to date had attracted no new volunteers.

Several Development Officers were aware of the need to encourage organisations to target specific groups of potential volunteers. They gave some examples:

An organisation requires a volunteer who is a good listener. Think about who is a good listener. Think about your hairdresser. You sit there in front of a mirror for an hour and tell him all your problems. He actually listens to you. That's a person to target.

If you want drivers, go to the car parks. Blitz cars with stickers saying you want drivers.
We wanted people to help with a homework club, so we targeted people like retired teachers, retired social workers ... we got more people than we needed.

Paid employees and volunteers within the volunteer organisation take on

the role of personal selling, becoming salespeople – although participants did not refer to themselves as such. They initiated dialogue with potential volunteers in order to match needs with the opportunities available. They gave potential volunteers an opportunity to experience the organisation (taster sessions) before making a final choice. Open days were seen as a method of tasting.

These open days and presentations about the organisation only proved successful when they had been well promoted and presented to a targeted audience. This raises the question of which methods and locations are most suitable. Those who wanted younger volunteers went into schools and colleges. One organisation offered work experience placements to 14-year-olds, who often returned as volunteers when they were older.

Traditional methods such as posters and newspapers were still widely used, but rather as a way of raising awareness or reminding people of the organisation's continuing presence. One group used the back of its newsletter to invite responses from interested people. Some organisations were more adventurous than others – one even offered free beer to attract volunteers.

In this way potential volunteers become aware of organisations seeking their support. However, some organisations were quite specific about who would be acceptable as a volunteer. Thus evaluation is carried out by both the volunteer and the organisation (police checks, for instance). Although some organisations were able to attract volunteers, they had difficulty in 'getting the volunteers to do what we need them to'. For certain roles, specific skills are required: for example, an organisation may 'need somebody who knows about the disease. So we couldn't just take anybody off the street'. In these circumstances a potential volunteer might be interested in an organisation but the outcome could still be negative.

Volunteer activity

This raising of awareness may result in a positive outcome: the individual decides to volunteer for the organisation (in other words, to make a first purchase). This takes the volunteer into the third phase of the life cycle. Of prime importance to a new volunteer will be the initial experience and how the organisation presents. The organisation's aim is to ensure that the volunteer is satisfied and will continue with the activity. All participants agreed that it was vitally important not to lose a willing volunteer.

Retention strategies
Whether a volunteer was retained or not was seen to be closely linked to that person's motivation for volunteering and the benefits they expected to derive. For example, there are volunteers:

who get involved because there's an issue which affects them. You sort the problem out and they stop volunteering – they're not bothered any more.

Then there were those who 'volunteer for employability'. Once they had found employment, they would leave. This kind of outcome was viewed with mixed feelings: on the one hand, project leaders could consider it as a success, as the individual had found work and there had been an increase in social capital; on the other hand, the organisation had lost a volunteer. This did not always have to be the case. One co-ordinator cited instances of where women continued to volunteer after finding employment in supermarkets, rearranging their working hours to accommodate voluntary work:

People move, but if they are sympathetic to the project, if they have time, they will come back. They become friends.

However, it was acknowledged that

natural wastage did occur: people moved away from the area, or their need to be affiliated to the organisation ended (for example, a child volunteer might become too old for the organisation).

You volunteer to have your needs met. And when your needs are met, perhaps the challenge goes out of it – you go on to something else.

Social events were seen as important for encouraging friendships and so increasing commitment. One project leader complained that 'We don't party enough', but there were many examples of attempts to meet the social needs of volunteers: birthday cards, Christmas dinners, coffee mornings and other events. These were seen as a key element in maintaining team spirit and shared goals. Organisers also recognised that obstacles should not be put in the way of willing volunteers: expenses should be reimbursed and child care facilities provided. Organisers were also aware of their responsibility to prevent cliques developing that excluded new volunteers or certain groups.

This was particularly important where volunteers worked alongside paid staff. The relationship between paid and unpaid workers could be viewed in a number of ways. There

were some volunteers who needed 'that back-up of someone who is paid ... to take that responsibility'. Others worked harder than paid staff, as they had no agreed working rules. Participants felt that 'they are open to abuse and are abused. Sometimes I think we've got to be mindful about that, because that's how we lose people.' On the other hand, volunteers are unpaid and therefore were sometimes not as committed as paid staff. It had to be remembered that 'a volunteer volunteers for different reasons from the reasons that somebody applies for a paid job'.

However, participants agreed that the management of volunteers was crucial to their retention. Organisations demonstrated varying degrees of sophistication in their approach to this issue. Many provided induction and training courses for volunteers. Some were developing volunteer policies and volunteering contracts, and had issued volunteers with handbooks. One organisation had developed action plans to marry skills with role, to identify training needs and to establish how the organisation could meet these needs.

It was evident from the discussions that volunteers acquired skills and knowledge both informally and formally. Making cups of coffees did not necessarily require training, but using the photocopier, answering the telephone or preparing food hygienically did. The training was delivered in a range of settings. Some volunteers were encouraged to combine voluntary work with attendance at college courses. However, certain volunteers (such as women returners, long-term unemployed people, people over 55 and those lacking in self-confidence) perceived colleges as formal, cold and hostile places. A solution to this was to provide training at the organisation's premises or in community halls and drop-in centres, using external providers. Trainees found these alternatives more relaxing:

It comes back to really listening to what people really want and then perhaps the organisation providing support for it.

Organisations should aim to ensure that the volunteer's experience matches their perceptions of the benefits of volunteering. More importantly, this matching should continue throughout the 'life cycle' of that volunteer. The key to retaining volunteers was summed up very well by one project co-ordinator:

Fundamentally, in any relationship people need three things – they need to be valued, recognised and appreciated. If people get that in a voluntary sector setting, then they will stay with the organisation.

The committed volunteer

Through their own marketing strategies and those of Volunteer Bureaux, voluntary organisations attempt to interest people in donating time. When a potential volunteer contacts the organisation, that person's specific needs have to be addressed. If the 'purchasing process' comes to a successful conclusion, the person will become a volunteer. However, the organisation cannot stop considering that person's needs, as they want them to remain active as a volunteer. Therefore volunteer management becomes a vital element. At this third and final stage, there may still be negative outcomes that prevent the volunteer from 'repurchasing'.

Voluntary organisations may wish to consider strategies for reactivating volunteers. Many of the participants tried to maintain contact with ex-volunteers in the hope that they would come back to volunteering in the future. Those who had developed databases kept ex-volunteers on their mailing lists, continued to invite them to social events and sent them

newsletters, birthday cards or Christmas cards. One organisation invited ex-volunteers to become members, giving them voting rights. Another met with ex-volunteers to discover why they had left and to see if there were problems that could be rectified.

Participants felt that 'there are very few people who volunteer who don't want to stay involved'. One co-ordinator told of a volunteer who gave up to start a family, but still attended social events – it was hoped she would return to volunteering when her children were older.

The Volunteer Life Cycle

On the basis of this study we have developed a Volunteer Life Cycle (Figure 2).

The 'volunteering determinants' stage involves attracting the volunteer and understanding their motivation. Our research has confirmed the findings of other studies that altruism is not the prime motivator for all volunteers. People have a variety of motivations – social reasons, egotistical reasons, the desire for self-development and the wish to respond to family circumstances were amongst those we identified.

Figure 2: The Volunteer Life Cycle
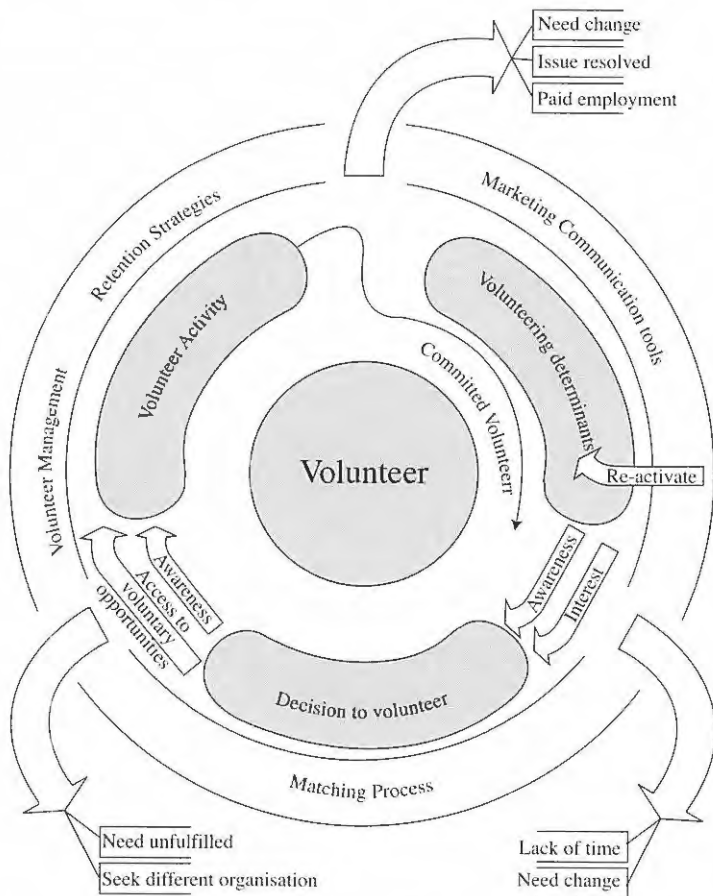
Organisations need to use marketing communications throughout the Volunteer Life Cycle. They are particularly important at this stage, for creating interest in volunteering and raising awareness of specific organisations and their volunteering opportunities. Some volunteers exited the cycle at this stage, because of other commitments or because their

need had been satisfied by a different activity. Those who feel that their need will be satisfied through volunteering take the decision to volunteer and so enter the second phase in the Volunteer Life Cycle.

The 'decision to volunteer' stage involves a volunteer being recruited by a specific voluntary organisation,

thus turning interest and awareness into positive action. In this phase marketing was seen to be playing an ever increasing role, as voluntary organisations seek to differentiate themselves from the competition in order to attract what appears to be a decreasing resource – volunteers. Organisations used a variety of communication tools to recruit volunteers, including brochures, local media and public relations, but participants felt that the most effective method was word of mouth. However, there was little evidence of a strategic approach – there was very little targeting and even less evaluation of the methods used. The discussions showed that at this stage it was necessary to match the needs of the organisation with those of the volunteer.

People who were provided with an appropriate volunteer activity passed on to the third phase of the Volunteer Life Cycle, which places the emphasis on volunteer management. Voluntary organisations must ensure over time that the needs of volunteers are fulfilled, and they must give them access to alternative opportunities if required. However, as the findings show, these needs can change, for a variety of reasons: entry into paid employment, moving house or changes in personal circumstances, to

name but a few. Nevertheless, the ultimate goal and final phase of the Volunteer Life Cycle is a *committed volunteer* – one who is nurtured by the organisation, allowed to grow and develop, and when necessary permitted to exit.

At all stages in the model there is the option of exiting from volunteering. The 'reactivation' of people who have previously volunteered needs to be addressed. Participants suggested strategies such as newsletters, membership schemes and invitations to social events, but more effort clearly goes into recruitment strategies than into renewing links with ex-volunteers.

Conclusions
This article has endeavoured to build upon the findings of previous research (Bussell and Forbes, 2001; Bussell and Forbes, 2002) which identified the need to investigate the recruitment, retention and reactivation of volunteers. We considered relationship marketing, and in particular the concept of the customer relationship life cycle (Gronroos, 2000), to be a useful model to apply to the volunteer workforce. The model shows that the customer travels through three phases in this relationship, during which the experience is evaluated and the result may or may not be

repeat purchases. Participants clearly felt that volunteers travel a similar path. However, voluntary organisations exhibit differing levels of sophistication in their use of marketing communications, recruitment and retention strategies. This may facilitate or hinder the volunteer's experience, resulting in their continued involvement in or exit from volunteering.

Practice implications
The Volunteer Life Cycle shows the points at which volunteers may enter or leave the organisation. The model clearly demonstrates the importance of integrated marketing communications, as at each stage the marketing communications strategy needs to be implemented to recruit, retain and reactivate the volunteer. It also illustrates the importance to both the organisation and the volunteer of a needs analysis that will ensure a matching process at each stage. If the needs of volunteers are unfulfilled, they might either seek a different organisation, where their needs would be satisfied, or leave volunteering altogether. Similarly, if the organisation cannot benefit from the skills offered by the willing volunteer, it will not take up the offer.

Identifying training needs and reviewing personal development are particularly important. One

organisation had recently received Investors in People (IIP) accreditation and another was currently undergoing the process. Strategies such as mentoring, induction packages, initial training and socialising were all seen as imperative in 'tying in' the volunteer to the organisation. Developing a relationship with volunteers in these early stages helps to ensure their loyalty to the organisation. The organisation is working towards developing a committed and loyal volunteer who can become an advocate of the organisation (and so recruit other volunteers). If voluntary organisations fail to employ these approaches and fail to develop a relationship with their volunteers, they are likely to attract fewer recruits and more of their volunteers will take the opportunity to exit.

Further research
Although a wide variety of organisations were represented in the focus groups, we accept that the Volunteer Relationship Life Cycle should be tested in a larger scale study and amongst a broader cross-section of organisations. This article reports on the exploratory stage of the research. In the next stage we intend to conduct a larger survey of volunteers and ex-volunteers which, it is hoped, will confirm the findings from these initial group discussions

and literature review.

There is an absence in the literature of any discussion on how to reactivate volunteers. This issue, together with retention, seems to require further research. Also, there is some evidence to suggest that the relationship between volunteer and organisation may continue in some way after the volunteer has left: for example, as a money donor rather than a time donor (Riecken et al, 1994). The development of this relationship requires closer examination.

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