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REACHING OUT

*Donating and Volunteering
in the Republic of Ireland*

The 1997/98 Survey

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Table of Contents

Overview of the Study	5
CHAPTER 1: Background, Aims and Methodology of the Study	11
CHAPTER 2: Historical, Policy and Fiscal Context	19
CHAPTER 3: Extent, Nature and Patterns of Donating	30
CHAPTER 4: Extent, Nature and Patterns of Volunteering	53
CHAPTER 5: Attitudes Towards Donating and Volunteering	88
CHAPTER 6 Conclusions and Issues	104
REFERENCES	111
APPENDIX ONE Interview Schedule	114
APPENDIX TWO Additional Tables	129

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

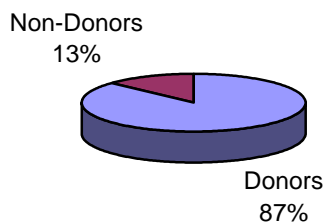
INTRODUCTION

This Report presents an in-depth picture of the extent and nature of donating and volunteering behaviour over a 12-month period from February 1997 to January 1998. The findings are based on data collected in face-to-face interviews with a national, random sample of 1,181 respondents. The Report is the third in a series; the first two carried out in 1992 and 1994. The series of studies is designed to provide accurate systematic data over time and is intended to be of value to managers and staff of voluntary organisations, policy makers and researchers interested in the voluntary sector.

DONATING

How Many People Donate?

Figure One: How Many People Donate?



The great majority of respondents (87%) gave money and gave more than once (79%) in the month prior to interview. There were no significant changes in the proportion donating in 1997/98 compared with 1992 and 1994. Most donations (86%) may be described as prompted giving; occurring in response to an appeal. Very few respondents gave in a planned way (8%) through covenant, standing order or pay-roll deduction scheme. The low level of planned giving is no different from 1992 and 1994.

How Much Do People Give?

The amount of money that respondents gave in the month prior to interview varied enormously from nothing up to £100 or more. The average monthly donation was £7.85. It is 95 per cent probable that in the full population of adults in the country, somewhere between £270.073 million and £210.917 million was donated between February 1997 and January 1998.

The average amount donated in 1998, either through planned or prompted means, is not significantly different from 1994.

How Are Donations Made?

The most frequent channels of prompted giving remain as in the previous surveys: the church gate collection (43% of donors), the street collection / flag day (30% of donors) and raffle tickets / lines (29% of donors). Purely philanthropic giving is more common but buying raffle tickets / lines and lottery tickets where there is the possibility of gain to the donor are the third and fourth most frequent means of giving.

The largest amounts of money were raised by raffle tickets / lines (14% of total monies raised in the month), the church gate collection (12% of total monies raised in the month) and sponsorship and lottery tickets (each accounting for 9% of the total monies raised in the month). This is the same pattern as observed in the previous surveys.

Where Does the Money Go?

The foremost beneficiaries of prompted donations are organisations in the social services field (29% of all monies donated) particularly those dealing with physical/sensory handicap and the poor. The second major beneficiary is the health field (23% of all monies donated); in particular organisations concerned with specific diseases. The other major beneficiaries are international activities (13% of all monies donated) and the sports and recreation field (10% of all monies donated).

The money from planned giving shows a different pattern to that observed with prompted giving; being concentrated in two main fields. Almost three-quarters of all planned donations go to international activities and to the health field, particularly hospitals.

Men and women are very similar in terms of where their money is given; the only difference of any significance being that men give more money to sport (14% of all monies donated) compared with women (8% of all monies donated).

Who Gives Money?

Men and women are equally likely to donate and they give similar amounts of money.

People living in rural and town areas give significantly more money than those in urban areas.

Younger (18-24 years) and older people (70-90 years) give significantly less money than other age groups.

Giving is directly related to gross household income and is also related significantly to gross personal income. Giving is also related to the donors' perception of their relative income size with those who consider their income relatively high giving significantly more than those who consider their income to be relatively low.

Giving is related to level of educational attainment. People with primary education only give significantly less than people with higher levels of education.

Giving is related to employment status. Those working outside the home (full-time or part-time) and those working inside the home (full-time) give significantly more than people who are unemployed, retired or sick/disabled or who are in full-time education.

Giving is related to social class with those at the upper levels giving significantly more than those at the lower levels.

People who attach importance to religion give significantly more than those for whom religion is unimportant.

Attitudes are a significant influence on giving. People who agree that 'as a citizen I feel a moral obligation to give', give almost twice as much as those who do not feel such an obligation. People who say they are 'tired of being asked to give money for all sorts of causes' give significantly less than others.

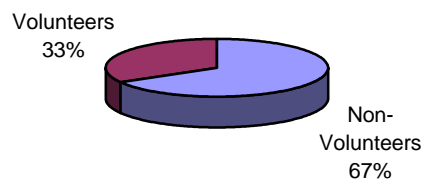
Why Do People Give?

People give when they perceive that it is for a good cause (60%). But around one-third of donors give simply because they are asked. The main consideration in deciding where to give their money is whether they know the organisation involved (42%).

VOLUNTEERING

How Many Volunteer?

Figure Two: How Many Volunteer?



One-third of respondents had carried out some kind of voluntary activity in the month prior to interview. Twenty-one per cent had engaged in formal volunteering (in an organisational setting) and 21 per cent had been involved in informal volunteering (independently).

The proportion volunteering in 1997/1998 is only slightly lower than that reported in 1994 (35%) but is significantly lower than in 1992 (39%).

Whether volunteering is formal or informal the majority of volunteers stick to one activity.

On average the volunteers of the study had been doing voluntary work for four years.

How Much Time is Given?

The amount of time that respondents gave in the month prior to interview varied enormously from nothing to the equivalent of a week's work or more. The average time given in the month was 5.07 hours. More time was given to formal (3.11 hours on average) than to informal volunteering (1.95 hours on average).

There is a 95 per cent probability that volunteering among the full population of adults in the country from February 1997 to January 1998 amounted to between 114,042 and 78,866 work years.

The average time per month given to volunteering in 1997/98 (5.07 hours) is not significantly different from that given in 1994 (4.64 hours) or 1992 (5.03 hours).

What Kinds of Activity Are Undertaken?

In the case of formal volunteering, the most commonly undertaken activity is committee work (41% of volunteers). The next most frequent activity is fundraising (26% of volunteers) followed in third place by church-related activities (16% of volunteers). There are some differences between men and women in the kinds of formal voluntary work undertaken. For example, far more men (32%) than women (3%) engage in sports activities while far more women (21%) than men (8%) engage in church-related activities. The gender gap is evident in administrative/secretarial activities which is a very 'female' area (13% and 2% for women and men respectively) and in transport which is a 'male' area (13% and 6% for men and women respectively).

In the case of informal volunteering, the predominant activity is visiting; 36 per cent of volunteers visited older people and 26 per cent visited the sick in the month prior to the interview. Women are more likely than men to visit the sick (29% and 18% respectively), to baby-sit (19% and 10% respectively) and to collect things for charity (18% and 4% respectively). In comparison, informal sports activities are the preserve of men (6% and 0% for men and women respectively).

In the case of formal volunteering, the greatest amount of time was given to committee work (23% of total formal volunteering time). The second greatest amount of time was given to sports activities (15% of total volunteering time) while third place was shared by fundraising and supervisory activities (11% each of total volunteering time).

In the case of informal volunteering visiting activities were given the most time; accounting for 41 per cent of total volunteering hours. In second place was babysitting (16% of total volunteering hours).

What Causes Benefit From Volunteering?

The predominant beneficiary of formal volunteering is the sports and recreation field which accounts for close on one-third of total volunteering time. The second major beneficiary is the social services field (24% of total formal volunteering time). Between them these two causes account for over half (56%) of all volunteering in 1997/98.

How and Why People Get Involved In Volunteering.

Most frequently, people find out about volunteering through family, friends and neighbours (39%) and they become involved because they are asked (58%).

People take up voluntary work for a variety of altruistic, personal and functional reasons but the most frequent motivation is belief in the cause (43%).

The most usual rewards are the satisfaction of seeing the results (54%), the feeling that one is doing good (49%) and the opportunity for meeting people (41%).

The results suggest a contented body of volunteers with 90 per cent reporting that they experienced no dissatisfactions. When volunteers did report dissatisfaction, the most frequent reason was that too much was expected of them (26%).

Twenty-one per cent of the respondents of the study were ex-volunteers. The main reason for giving up voluntary work was new demands on their time (35%).

The results show that it is not lack of belief in its value that leads people not to volunteer. The primary reason for not volunteering is lack of spare time (52%).

One in five of the non-volunteers indicated that they would consider volunteering in the future and a further third said that they 'didn't know'. The percentage of non-volunteers who indicated that they would not volunteer in the future increased directly with increasing age.

Who Volunteers?

Significantly more women than men engage in volunteering, particularly in informal voluntary work. Women also give significantly more time to informal volunteering than men.

Middle-aged people (40-59 years) give significantly more time to volunteering than those in their twenties and thirties and those over 70 years of age.

People with primary certificate level of education only give significantly less time to volunteering compared with those with higher levels of educational attainment.

Formal volunteering (but not informal) is related to social class with those at the upper levels giving significantly more time than those at the lower levels.

People living in towns give significantly more time to volunteering than those living in rural or urban areas.

People who are relatively generous in giving money are also relatively more generous in giving time to voluntary work.

People for whom religion is important give significantly more time to informal volunteering than those who attach little or no importance to religion in their lives.

What Do People Think of Charities and Volunteering?

The majority of respondents felt that looking after people in need is principally the responsibility of government (80%). However, the principle of charitable giving seems to be widely supported with a large majority disagreeing with the statements 'I pay taxes why should I give to charity too' (73%) and 'people should look after themselves and not rely on charity' (64%). The effect of charity is more disputed than the principle of it with 29 per cent of respondents agreeing that 'charity reinforces helplessness' and 49 per cent agreeing that 'charity is a token gesture that does not solve the actual problem'. The majority of respondents feel a moral responsibility to give (68%) and to become involved sometime (69%). However, many respondents (80%) find that 'there are so many charities it is difficult to decide where to give'.

Attitudes towards volunteers and the value of voluntary work are positive with the majority disagreeing that volunteers are simply 'do-gooders' (81%) or that they are 'amateurish' (67%). Respondents perceive that 'volunteers offer something different' (72%) and that even if the government fulfilled its responsibilities there would still be a need for volunteers (48%).

While half of the respondents (52%) perceive that charities are honest, around one-third (31%) are concerned about the accountability of such organisations.

The causes given the highest rankings of importance were child welfare, physical disability and older people in the general social services field and hospitals/hospices/clinics in the general health field. The lowest rankings were giving to religion and culture and the arts.

Where respondents expressed a preference for particular causes there was a clear hierarchy of preference for local causes (81%) then, much farther down the hierarchy, national causes (12%) and finally overseas causes (7%). People felt that 'local needs should get priority' and they like to 'know where the money is going'.

Respondents feel that 20p in the pound (£) is an acceptable level of administration costs but they believe that in the case of home-based organisations only 50p of each pound (£) donated goes to the cause while in the case of overseas organisations it is believed that only 40p gets to the cause.

CHAPTER ONE BACKGROUND, AIMS AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

Increasingly the significance of the role and contribution of voluntary organisations is being acknowledged and voluntary organisations are now often regarded as society's third sector with a legitimate place alongside the two traditionally acknowledged public and private sectors. As the voluntary sector grows in size and complexity and as it begins to take on an expanding range of responsibilities, the availability of reliable up-to-date data becomes ever more important. Research literature on the voluntary sector in Ireland is relatively young; the most substantive writings dating from only the beginning of this decade (Donoghue 1998). In an attempt to address a patchy and unsystematic database, in the early 1990's the Policy Research Centre (PRC) embarked on a programme of research exploring a number of dimensions of the voluntary sector including partnership arrangements with the public sector, income and employment levels and sources of funding. The study described in this report is part of that programme.

Individual giving is an important source of funding of voluntary organisations; the primary sources being government grants and service fees. Individual giving to the voluntary sector takes place in two distinct ways: the giving of money (donations) and the giving of time (voluntary work). This report describes the findings from the third national survey in a series (1992, 1994, 1997/1998) designed to monitor over time the extent and nature of individual donating and volunteering among Irish people. By using the same research methods and procedures across the series, the survey enables any patterns and changes over time to be detected and allows a comprehensive picture of giving to be built up. The findings also establish a benchmark against which the levels of donating and volunteering among Irish people can be compared with those obtained in other countries.

An essential precondition for productive debate on and assessment of the significance and effectiveness of the voluntary sector is the availability of appropriate information. The purpose of this study is to provide systematic and reliable data on a particular dimension of the resourcing of the sector and to present those data in a form accessible to a broad audience including policy-makers, voluntary organisation managers, service-providers and academic researchers and others outside the voluntary sector arena.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The specific objectives of the 1997/98 survey were to:

- Determine the extent of donating and volunteering in each month over the period February 1997 - January 1998

- Determine if there are any variations in the extent of donating and volunteering according to the time of the year
- Measure the amounts of money and time given
- Identify the means through which donations are made
- Identify the types of voluntary activity undertaken
- Identify the causes/fields of activity which benefit from donating and volunteering
- Provide a profile of those who engage in donating and volunteering in terms of socio-economic characteristics such as gender, age, educational level, occupational status, income level, household composition and religious and political affiliation
- Explore motivations for donating and volunteering
- Explore experiences of volunteering in terms of induction, training, supervision and support, satisfactions and dissatisfactions
- Explore perceptions of the role, effectiveness, accountability and trustworthiness of voluntary organisations and the role and effectiveness of volunteers
- Compare the findings from 1997/98 with those obtained in 1992 and 1994 and identify any changes occurring.

Definitions of Donating and Volunteering Used in the Study

In attempts to provide reliable data on donating and volunteering one obstacle encountered is the lack of precise and agreed definitions in this particular area of study. In this kind of research, giving to individuals (such as people begging) does not count as donating, and volunteering (in the formal sense) also implies an organisation as the recipient of the activity. The kind of organisation served by the activity is then a central criterion for determining what counts as donating and what counts as formal volunteering. Different terms are used in Ireland to describe that set of organisations that are distinct from both the private and the public sectors; terms such as charities, voluntary organisations and, more recently, voluntary and community organisations.

The giving of money is typically described in terms of giving to 'charity' although donations are frequently made to organisations, such as sports clubs or community development groups, not commonly seen as 'charitable organisations'. The term charity has no statutory definition but derives from a court ruling dating back to 1891 when charitable trusts were classified under four main categories of charitable purposes: the advancement of religion; the advancement of education; the relief of poverty; and other purposes 'beneficial to the community'. It has been recently estimated that approximately 4000 organisations with charitable recognition are still

in operation but it is also important to note that the voluntary sector covers more than just those organisations with charity numbers (Donoghue 1998).

In an attempt to address the problem of definition so that international comparative analyses could be carried out, the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project (Salamon and Anheier 1997) has proposed the term nonprofit sector and has provided structural/operational criteria for its definition. The 'nonprofit sector' as defined by these criteria is more widely encompassing than would be implied in typical usage of the term 'charitable' or 'voluntary' in this country. In the interests of allowing Ireland to place itself in the international context, the defining criteria of the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project have been adopted in this study to define the area of study, but the more common term 'voluntary' has been retained rather than 'nonprofit'. The five crucial structural/operational criteria for deciding whether an organisation belongs to the nonprofit or voluntary sector are that it be: organised, private, non-profit distributing, self-governing and that it embody some degree of meaningful voluntary participation (Salamon and Anheier 1997).

Organisations belonging to the nonprofit sector are categorised in the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project according to the following fields of activity (International Classification of Nonprofit Organizations; ICNPO): Culture and Arts; Sports and Recreation; Education and Research; Health; Social Services; Environment; Community Development; Civil and Advocacy; Philanthropy and Voluntarism Promotion; Religion Related; International Activities; and Other (Salamon and Anheier 1996). In the present study, for purposes of analysis, the ICNPO has been adopted.

Prompted Versus Planned Donations

In the study, a distinction has been made between donations that are made spontaneously in response to an appeal or approach – prompted donations – and money given in a regular planned fashion – planned donations.

Formal Versus Informal Volunteering

The defining characteristics of volunteering adopted in the study were that it be unpaid, carried out by free choice, for the benefit of people other than or in addition to oneself or one's own immediate family or for the benefit of animals or the environment. Within this definition, a distinction was made between activities carried out in an organisational setting – formal volunteering – and activities carried out independently, outside of any organisation, club or association – informal volunteering.

SAMPLE SELECTION

A representative sample of 1,181 adults (persons aged 18 years and over) were interviewed in the course of the study. This sample was selected using the ESRI RANSAM system (Whelan 1979). This procedure selects persons from the electoral

register with equal probability of selection throughout the country. The RANSAM procedure incorporates explicit stratification by county and implicit stratification within county. Rather than taking a simple random sample from the names on the electoral register, RANSAM first selects a set of primary sampling units (PSU's). The PSU's are the polling districts into which the electoral register is divided. In this study 50 clusters were selected and 24 persons within each of these clusters were to be interviewed.

A new feature of the present study was the distribution of the fieldwork over 12 months, from March 1997 to February 1998; two persons within each cluster were to be interviewed each month. The procedure for selecting interviewees was as follows: the first two of the 24 persons listed were interviewed in the first month, the third and fourth person listed in the second month and so on. As in the 1992 and 1994 surveys replacements were selected to allow for non-response of various kinds: for example, where respondents were deceased, moved away permanently, temporarily absent, house vacant, ill/senile, respondent never at home, refusal etc. Because of the demanding target (two named persons in each cluster each month) it was anticipated that a substantial number of replacements would be required; accordingly a replacement list of 24 names was randomly selected for each cluster. The majority of completed interviews, 610 (51.7%) of the total of 1181, were selected from the first choice list and 571 (48.3%) were replacements. The reasons for these 571 replacements were as follows: resident but never at home 168 (29.3%), permanently moved from address 119 (20.8%), temporarily absent - on holiday or in hospital 94 (16.5%), refusal 92 (16.1%), too ill / senile to be interviewed 48 (8.3%), could not locate address 40 (7.1%), other 10 (1.9%).

Comparisons were made between those interviewees selected from the first choice list and replacements in respect of a number of key variables. For example, the average value of all donations made by first choice interviewees was £7.76 compared with £7.93 for replacements; the corresponding standard deviations were £13.55 and £13.52. This difference was not significant. Neither was there a significant difference in the average amount of time given to volunteering by these groups; first choice interviewees averaged 5.47 hours while replacements averaged 4.64 hours; the corresponding standard deviations were 13.57 hours and 12.27 hours.

The age/sex profile of the achieved sample was compared with that of the national population. Key variables – value of donations and time – were weighted to compensate for any distortion in the sample profile in accordance with recommendations made for taking account of non-sampling error by Snedecor and Cochran (1980).

Seasonal Variations in Donating

In the 1992 and 1994 surveys sampling had taken place during one month only, March in both cases, when respondents were asked to recall their donating behaviour during February. However seasonal variation in donating behaviour was known to occur and while February was selected because it was thought to be less exceptional than other months, there was no conclusive evidence readily available to confirm or deny this. The results (Table 1.1) show that the average value of donations in February 1997 was virtually the same as the average over the 12 months February

1997 - January 1998. This suggests that the selection of February as the target month in the 1992 and 1994 surveys was a good choice.

Table 1.1 Value of Donations by Month : February 1997- January 1998.

Month	Average Value of Donations (£'s)	n
January	4.27	98
February	7.77	100
March	7.67	99
April	6.83	100
May	7.48	100
June	8.30	99
July	6.63	95
August	7.22	99
September	8.62	99
October	8.19	100
November	9.91	96
December	11.36	96
12 Months	7.85	1181

From the above it can be seen that the average value of donations was greatest during December (£11.36) and least during January (£4.27). During the above 12 months the average value of donations made in February (£7.77) was closest to the average value for donations made over the 12 months (£7.85).

DATA COLLECTION

Collection of Data by Interview

The primary means used to collect the data on donating and volunteering was face-to-face interviews. The interviews were conducted by a team of PRC professional fieldworkers located in different centres around the country. The majority of the fieldworkers had participated in the two previous surveys and, accordingly, were given a short refresher training session. Fieldworkers not already familiar with the interview schedule were given an intensive training session covering: the purpose of the study; how to make contact with the respondents and how to introduce the survey; familiarisation and practice with the interview schedule; keeping records of progress; checking and completing schedules; and review of completed work.

During the first three days of each month, two respondents in each of the 50 clusters throughout the country were surveyed on their behaviour in the previous month. Fieldwork began in March 1997 and was completely in February 1998. Typically, interview duration was between 30-40 minutes.

In investigating donating, rather than depend on unprompted recall respondents were presented with a list of 17 different ways of donating (for example, sponsorship, raffle tickets, door-to-door collections) and asked for each one whether they had been approached to donate in that way and whether they had given a donation as a result of the approach. The list presented in 1997/98 was refined down to 17 from the 20 presented in the 1994 survey: collection boxes in work, in business premises and in pubs, which were investigated separately in the earlier survey, were amalgamated in the 1997/1998, survey and radio and television appeals, which were previously treated separately, were amalgamated as broadcast appeals. For each means of donating, there was space for the interviewer to record up to five donations in the month; previous experience with the first survey revealed that some individuals make several donations through the same means in the course of a month but more than five donations through a particular means is rare.

Again when investigating volunteering, rather than depend on unprompted recall respondents were presented with a list of 22 different kinds of volunteering (for example fundraising, committee work) and for each one were asked whether they had been involved in that activity in the previous month. The list presented in the 1997/98 survey was refined down to 22 from the 29 presented in the 1994 survey: visiting the sick and visiting the lonely were collapsed into one category; all fundraising activities were treated as one category; administrative and secretarial assistance were treated as one category; and Sunday school teacher was included in the teaching /tutoring category.

In regard to the collection of data on general attitudes towards voluntary organisations, the 1997/98 survey extended the exploration of the earlier surveys by including additional questions related to trustworthiness, accountability and appropriate role.

Collection of Data by Diary

Another new feature of the present study was the use of a diary procedure to record the value of donations made. All those interviewed were requested to record the value of all donations made within the month of interview. (Interviews took place within the first few days of each month.) This procedure was introduced because of uncertainty about the ability of people to recall accurately what they had donated in the previous month. Four hundred and fifty three (38%) of those interviewed complied with the request to undertake this procedure. A comparison of the average value of donations reported by these respondents, whether through recall in interviews or through using the diary procedure, shows no significant difference. The average value of donations in the month prior to interview reported by these respondents in interview was £8.00, compared with an average recorded value of £9.34 in their diary in the month of interview. The corresponding standard deviations were £13.19 and £15.56. This difference in means was not statistically significant (t (comparison of paired means) 1.88, df 452, $p < .061$). First choice interviewees were just as likely to return diaries as replacement interviewees, 36.6 compared with 40.3 per cent respectively. Neither was there any significant difference in the total value of recorded donations reported by the two groups. First choice interviewees recorded donations with a total value of £9.21 compared with £9.46 for replacements; the

corresponding standard deviations were £13.44 and £17.38 respectively ($t = -1.17$, $df = 430$, $p < .866$).

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE DESIGN

The interview schedule comprised a mix of quantitative and qualitative questions. In collecting the qualitative data, rather than ask totally open-ended questions, the findings of the earlier studies were used to construct lists of possible answers from which respondents choose those which best applied in their particular case. In the course of the interview each of the themes outlined below was covered.

General Profile of Respondent

- Gender
- Geographical location
- Marital status
- Age
- Household composition and number of dependants
- Educational level
- Employment status
- Occupation
- Income level (and of spouse where applicable)
- Disposable income
- Political affiliation

Extent and Nature of Charitable Giving

- Whether respondent had made a donation to charity in the previous 12 months; in the previous month
- Whether the respondent had given, if prompted to do so, in the case of 17 different means of making a donation. If the respondent had given; how often had s/he done so, how much was given and to which charities
- Whether respondent had donated through planned means in the past month: through standing order, through covenant or payroll deduction schemes. If so how much had been given and to which charities
- Whether respondent had made a will, and, if so, whether any charitable bequests had been made or whether respondent would consider such a bequest
- Motivation for giving
- Factors in deciding to which charity to give
- Perceptions of own level of giving in comparison with others

Extent and Nature of Volunteering

- Whether the respondent had been involved in voluntary work over the past 12 months; in the previous month

- Whether respondent had been involved in each of 22 different types of voluntary activity. If so, whether this activity had been carried out informally or through a group or organisation; how much time had been given; and which charitable causes were beneficiaries
- Length of time volunteering
- Routes to getting involved in volunteering
- Motivation for and rewards in volunteering
- Any dissatisfaction experienced
- Whether volunteers had been given interviews, job descriptions, training, supervision and support
- Whether out-of-pocket expenses were reimbursed
- Reasons for not volunteering and whether respondent would volunteer in the future
- Perceptions of own level of volunteering in comparison with others

General Attitudes on Donating and Volunteering

- Opinion on who should bear prime responsibility for people in need
- Whether respondent has any particular favourites among charities. If so, what are the reasons for these preferences
- Which approaches are most likely and least likely to make the respondent want to give money
- Whether respondents have any particular preferences for local, national or overseas charities
- Perception of acceptable and actual level of administrative costs among Irish and overseas charities
- Perception of accountability of charities
- Perception of effectiveness and efficiency of charities
- Perception of role and effectiveness of volunteers
- Perception of trustworthiness of charities
- Perception of the importance of different causes and preferences among causes

STRUCTURE OF REPORT

The report comprises six chapters. In this chapter the background to and aims and methodology of the study have been described. Chapter Two outlines the historical, policy and fiscal context within which the voluntary sector operates. Chapters Three and Four present detailed findings on extent, nature and patterns of donating and volunteering. Findings on attitudes towards voluntary organisations and the contribution of donations and voluntary activity are described in Chapter Five. The final chapter – Chapter Six – draws conclusions from the findings of the study and highlights the issues that need to be addressed.

CHAPTER TWO HISTORICAL, POLICY AND FISCAL CONTEXT

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a context for examining and making sense of the findings of the study and for placing them in an international comparative context. The chapter seeks to do this by briefly outlining the main historical influences on the present-day development of the nonprofit or voluntary sector in this country. The chapter reviews current policy related to donating and volunteering and identifies legal and fiscal issues influencing these activities.

WHAT IS THE VOLUNTARY SECTOR?

One of the main challenges in research on the voluntary sector is to define where its boundaries lie. It could be argued that, with the present state of knowledge, use of the term 'sector', which implies a body of organisations which share a number of clearly identifiable and distinguishable common features, is presumptuous. However, research currently being carried out by the Policy Research Centre as part of the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project provides clear criteria for determining whether organisations share common features; the use of which criteria gives substance to the argument for the existence of a recognisable sector (Donoghue 1998). The criteria used in the Johns Hopkins Study for defining the boundaries of the nonprofit sector are that the organisations included within it should be: organised; private; non-profit distributing; self-governing; and voluntary (Salamon and Anheier 1997). Using these criteria, Donoghue (1998) identifies the different types of organisations which may be regarded as part of a nonprofit or voluntary sector in Ireland (Table 2.1).

In Donoghue's study, the range of organisations identified as belonging to the nonprofit sector span many different fields. These fields of activity may be classified according to the International Classification of Nonprofit Organizations (ICNPO) which includes the following categories: culture and arts; sports and recreation; education and research; health; social services; environment; community development; civil and advocacy; philanthropy and voluntarism promotion; religion-related; and international activities (Salamon and Anheier 1996).

Organisations belonging to the Irish nonprofit or voluntary sector can range in size from large national organisations, such as those operating in the fields of disability and mental handicap, to local social service organisations based on the village or parish unit. The type of work which voluntary organisations carry out is also diverse, including mutual support and self-help, service provision, representation, co-ordination, resourcing and campaigning and advocacy.

Table 2.1 Nonprofit Sector Organisations in Ireland*

Type of organisation	Examples
<i>Charities and charitable trusts:</i>	Hospitals, schools, sporting bodies, community-based organisations, partnership companies, social service organisations
<i>Friendly societies:</i>	Benevolent societies, trade unions, agricultural societies
<i>Community organisations:</i>	Partnership companies, community development organisations

* Source: Donoghue, F (1998), *Defining the Nonprofit Sector: Ireland*, Working Papers of the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project, No 28. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Institute for Policy Studies.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

Dating back to the middle of the last century, there is a long tradition in Ireland of giving, in terms both of the giving of money and the giving of time. This deep-rooted tradition has been shaped and influenced by cultural, religious, political and economic factors; some of which are shared with other countries and some of which are particular to Ireland.

As in many other countries, the tradition here has its origins in the philanthropic spirit with its notion that the rich have a duty to the poor. In this country religion has been a major influence on the development of charitable service. Particularly following the Catholic Emancipation Act in the early nineteenth century, the Catholic Church began to play a prominent role in voluntary service provision. For example, in the 1830's voluntary hospitals under the management of religious orders began to appear, although the Catholic Church was preceded in this area by Protestant, Quaker and non-religious philanthropists (IPA 1996). At this time also, Catholic relief-giving agencies such as the Society of St Vincent de Paul were set up. The instigation for much early Catholic charitable service was the passing of the Poor Relief Act in 1838 which, though it introduced statutory welfare provision to the country, was so rigidly enforced that many were still left in dire need. By the early years of the twentieth century, as well as health and educational services, Catholic religious orders began to develop special residential services for people with mental handicap.

Following independence in 1922, although many state-provided health and welfare services were introduced, the influence of Catholic social teaching with its Principle of Subsidiary Function ensured a continued prominent role for Catholic charitable organisations. The Principle of Subsidiary Function dictated that services should be provided at the lowest level of community; in the first instance by family and, if not

by family, then by voluntary organisations and the church and only as a final resort should the state step in. The historical dominance of Catholic organisations in meeting social welfare needs which could not be met at the level of family continued up to the 1960's. Following the Second Vatican Council, Catholic social teaching changed in emphasis and the Church, rather than warning against state encroachment, began to encourage state expansion and even take-over of the voluntary role (White 1980). Despite this, however, religious bodies still play an important role in social service provision. The early Catholic Church-dominated tradition hindered the development of a critique of the social origins of poverty and the role of the state and it is only in the last thirty years that the voluntary sector has become active in social criticism (Donoghue 1998).

Apart from the notion of charity and the influence of the Catholic Church, a second very important influence on the development of Ireland's present-day voluntary sector is its tradition of self-help. Self-help, which according to Luddy (1995) was a tenet of Protestant and secular voluntary action in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, was evident at community level in this country from the late nineteenth century. One of the strongest expressions of the early spirit of self-help was the development of the dairy co-operative movement, designed to counteract exploitation of the poor. The principle of co-operation found expression again in the 1930's when a Catholic priest initiated a second major wave of local community self-help in the form of Muintir na Tíre. This organisation, based on the parish unit, was designed to revive local community spirit through co-operative effort. While the 1930's to the 1950's marked its heyday, the organisation still operates at local level, encouraging local enterprise and the development of community identity. While Muintir na Tíre was essentially conservative in its ideology, it was the principles of empowerment and direct democratic participation which fuelled another wave of community self-help which emerged in the 1970's (Kelleher and Whelan 1992). This type of self-help found expression in, for example, tenant associations, women's groups, housing groups and self-help organisations concerned with different disabilities and mental health. The focus was on rights particularly for unemployed and marginalised groups and a campaigning approach began to emerge which made use of the techniques of local community self-help and the language of empowerment. In the beginning, this kind of community self-help was characterised by independence from the state but the emphasis now is more on partnership with statutory agencies.

A third major influence on the present-day development of the voluntary sector emerged between the mid 1960's and the mid 1970's when state provision of social services was greatly expanded. Up to the 1960's, the state operated almost at arm's length with regard to many social services, leaving them in the hands of philanthropists and the religious orders (Donoghue 1998). During its period of expansion, the state began to enter into new relationships with voluntary organisations, taking over financial responsibility for, and hence more control over, voluntary provision of health and education services (O'Mahony 1985). From this time, the role of the voluntary sector began to change from playing the lead in welfare provision to the role of complementing or providing an alternative to the state system. A distinct trend emerged of increasing incorporation of voluntary activity into statutory policy. For example, in the area of health, the 1968 Report on the *Care of the Aged* recommended that the health authorities should take an active

role in encouraging and financially supporting voluntary organisations to provide services for older people (Department of Health 1968). Twenty years later, a second report on the care of older people – *The Years Ahead: A Policy for the Elderly* – again strongly promoted the role of the voluntary sector (Department of Health 1988), as did the 1994 Health Strategy (Department of Health 1994). When the present health boards were established under the 1970 Health Act they had the power under the 1953 Health Act to give financial and other forms of aid to a voluntary body providing a service similar or ancillary to a service which they themselves might provide. This is the basis for the ‘Section 65 Grants’ upon which so many present-day voluntary organisations in the social welfare field depend for funding. In the area of housing, under the 1962 Housing Act, local authorities were empowered to encourage and give financial support to philanthropic and charitable organisations providing housing for older people. The voluntary sector role in housing was again promoted in the 1991 Plan for Social Housing and the 1992 Housing Act.

In summary, the profile of the voluntary sector in Ireland has changed in the past century from a situation where philanthropists and religious bodies battled on their own against poverty, motivated by ideas of charity and duty. Over the century, the idea of self-help has developed and found different expressions; from a concern with alleviation of poverty to empowerment and social participation. The state’s role *vis-à-vis* the sector has changed from being the final resort in the provision of services to increasing incorporation of voluntary organisations into statutory policy and finally to the promotion of the partnership ideal. The current voluntary sector includes religious organisations and the successors to the philanthropists of previous times, along with a burgeoning community movement and independent voluntary organisations. While it could be said that poverty is still a focus, contemporary voluntary concern is with the wider issues of social and economic marginalisation rather than working non-critically within the more narrow confines of poverty (Donoghue 1998).

POLICY CONTEXT

Since the 1960’s several government policy documents have emphasised the role of voluntary activity, for example, in housing – Plan for Social Housing (1991) – and particularly in health care – *The Care of the Aged Report* (1968); *The Years Ahead Report* (1988); and *Shaping a Healthier Future* (1994). However, there is no overall government policy on the role of the voluntary sector and despite pronouncements from individual Departments on the importance of voluntary activity, the approach to the development of the voluntary sector in Ireland up to recent times has been largely tentative and piecemeal. In the mid 1980’s, the National Council for the Aged (now the National Council on Ageing and Older People) referred to the policy vacuum in which voluntary bodies then operated and the National Social Services Board on several occasions complained of the absence of a coherent policy framework (National Council for the Aged, 1983; National Social Services Board, 1982, 1986). A report in 1987 from the National Economic and Social Council highlighted the absence of any kind of agreed framework for the involvement of the voluntary sector

in either consultation or the planning of services (National Economic and Social Council 1987). Similarly, *The Years Ahead Report* referred to the uneasy relationship between the voluntary and statutory sectors and concluded that the voluntary sector had not been sufficiently recognised or supported and had little opportunity to influence the planning of services (Working Party on Services for the Elderly 1988). A recent review of the implementation of the recommendations of *The Years Ahead Report* found that there is still little involvement of voluntary organisations in policy development and service planning and such involvement as exists tends to be ad hoc involving only the larger more highly-structured organisations (Ruddle, Donoghue, and Mulvihill 1997).

Green Paper: Supporting Voluntary Activity

An attempt by the government to address the issues around the role of the voluntary sector *vis-à-vis* the state is evident in the publication in May 1997 of the Green Paper called *Supporting Voluntary Activity* (Department of Social Welfare, 1997). This document had been a long time in gestation, having been promised, in some form, since the 1980's. The *Programme for Government 1981-1986*, contained a commitment to produce a charter for voluntary service; a promise subsequently reiterated in both the *Programme for Economic and Social Progress* in 1991, and the *1994 Programme for Competitiveness and Work*. In 1994 a White Paper and Charter were drafted by an Inter-departmental Task Force with the assistance of an Expert Group and involving an extensive consultation process with the voluntary sector. The publication of the White Paper, however, was overtaken by other events which had the potential to influence the relationship between the voluntary and statutory sections. These events included the Local Development Programme (which funds many community organisations), the establishment of the National Economic and Social Forum and the development of the National Anti-Poverty Strategy. Given the changes occurring, government decided that a Green Paper rather than a White Paper was more appropriate at the time (Donoghue 1998).

The objective of the Green Paper is to 'suggest a framework for the future development of the relationship between the state and the community and voluntary sector and to facilitate a debate on the issues relevant to that relationship' (Department of Social Welfare, 1987). The Green Paper acknowledges the need for government to formally recognise the role of the voluntary sector. The value of the voluntary sector is described in terms of its ability to facilitate active citizenship and participation and to help government realise its vision of a more participatory and cohesive democratic society:

“An active voluntary and community sector contributes to a democratic, pluralist society, provides opportunities for the development of decentralised institutional administrative structures and fosters a climate in which innovative solutions to complex social problems and enhancement of quality of life can be pursued and realised” (Department of Social Welfare 1997 :24).

The Green Paper has been welcomed as one step in the right direction but criticisms have been made of its perceived lack of substance (Donoghue 1998). A significant limitation of the Green Paper is that although it acknowledges the existence of a

whole range of voluntary organisations the document focuses on those concerned with poverty and social exclusion and excludes very significant elements of the overall voluntary sector, such as voluntary public hospitals, mental handicap organisations, sporting organisations, educational institutions and church-based institutions (Donoghue 1998). A White Paper is promised in 1998 but it appears that the narrow focus of the Green Paper will be maintained.

State Support of the Voluntary Sector: Structures

Few structures currently exist for state support of the voluntary sector. One of the earliest structures to be established was the National Social Service Council, which was set up in 1971 as the result of recommendations on stimulating voluntary activity made in the *Care of the Aged Report*. The remit of the National Social Service Council was: to simulate and encourage the formation of voluntary social service councils; to provide an advisory and information service to voluntary bodies; to co-ordinate the work of bodies engaged in community social services; and to provide liaison between statutory and voluntary organisations (National Social Services Board, 1984). The National Social Service Council was reconstituted as a Board in 1981 and given a statutory basis in 1984 but in 1988, following an abortive attempt by government to disband it altogether, its remit was cut back to the provision of information services and advice on social services. In 1995 the National Social Services Board (NSSB) was transferred from the Department of Health to the Department of Social Welfare, where its responsibilities include greater public awareness of provision of and entitlement to social services and support for Citizens' Information Centres. The Green Paper proposes that the role of the NSSB in providing an infrastructure of support for the voluntary sector should be reviewed with the possibility of including such responsibilities as: further development of community information, training for voluntary and statutory agencies and fostering of volunteering.

The Green Paper proposes a number of new support structures at national, regional and local level. At national level, it is proposed to establish a National Support and Development Unit which would co-ordinate the activities of the various agencies already providing support for the voluntary sector. In addition, it is proposed that Voluntary Activity Units be set up in those Government Departments which have significant contact with the voluntary sector, in order to facilitate dialogue about problems, solutions and implementation of policies. At regional level, it is proposed to strengthen the existing Regional Support Agencies, which support the Community Development Programme. At local level it is suggested that attempts should be made to support volunteering through the establishment of Volunteer Centres which would provide an opportunity for volunteers and organisations to indicate their interests and needs. Results from a 1995 Pan-European Study of volunteering in the social welfare area reveal that Ireland was placed sixth among the 11 countries studied in terms of the rates of volunteering (25% of Irish people had volunteered in the past year compared to the overall rate for all 11 countries of 27%) (Gaskin and Smith 1995). Studies carried out by the PRC in 1992 and 1994 found that support for volunteers was lacking in terms of payment of out-of-pocket expenses, training, supervision and affirmation of work done (Ruddle and O'Connor 1993; Ruddle and Mulvihill 1995).

Research by Ruddle and Donoghue (1995) found that two of the main issues for voluntary organisations are, firstly, their need for formal recognition of voluntary effort and acknowledgement of the value and strength of the voluntary sector and, secondly, their need for effective partnership structures that would allow greater access to the decision and policy-making processes. The Green Paper is in itself a step towards recognising the voluntary sector and it also specifically acknowledges its important contribution and role in society. With regard to the second issue, at national level the establishment of the National Economic and Social Forum with representatives from the 'third strand' along with government and the traditional social partners and the participation of the voluntary sector in the negotiations for Partnership 2000 are two expressions of government attempts to create a more fruitful partnership with the voluntary sector. At regional level, an important development in partnership has been the establishment of 38 Local Development Partnerships (LDPs) which comprise representatives of the community sector along with the social partners and state agencies. Other examples of new structures at regional level facilitating voluntary sector involvement in planning are: the Child Care Advisory Committees involving voluntary representation which the health boards are obliged to establish under the Child Care Act 1991 and the formal service agreements agreed between the Department of Health and mental handicap organisations in *Enhancing the Partnership* (1996). Proposals for similar arrangements have been put forward in relation to the care of older people (Ruddle, Donoghue and Mulvihill 1997) and hospice care (Haslett 1998). The Green Paper also suggests that consideration be given to the establishment of local statutory/voluntary advisory committees that would act to promote co-ordination at local level.

State Support of the Voluntary Sector: Funding

While recognition, support and partnership structures are important issues for voluntary organisations, the Ruddle and Donoghue (1995) study shows that their most urgent concern is with funding. Of the three sources of funding available to voluntary organisations – private giving, fees for services and state funding – it appears that the latter is the most important in this country. (Precise data on funding sources await publication of the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project in 1999.) Results from the first phase of the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project show that in 1990 state funding was also the single most important source of funds in Germany and France, whereas in other countries, such as the United Kingdom, United States, Italy and Sweden, private earned income was the dominant source of funds (Kendall 1996). Funding from the state in Ireland comes through a variety of sources, the most important being: Department of Health funding of public voluntary hospitals and Section 65 grants paid to voluntary organisations through the health boards; Department of Education funding of the voluntary secondary schools; Department of Social, Community and Family Affairs grants to voluntary and community groups; Department of Enterprise and Employment funding through Community Employment Schemes; Department of the Environment grants for housing projects; and Combat Poverty Agency grants. Voluntary organisations are also major beneficiaries of the National Lottery and EU funding.

Arrangements for state funding of certain areas of the voluntary sector, outside of hospital and educational services, have been the subject of widespread, adverse criticism. For example, Section 65 grants paid by health boards have been criticised for their discretionary nature and for the absence of established criteria for their allocation. When the National Lottery was first introduced, voluntary organisations were intended to be the principal beneficiaries but Harvey (1995) found that the voluntary sector receives only about one-third of lottery money. The Harvey study also found that the general operation of the Lottery lacks transparency. EU funding has been criticised for delays in drawing down funds; leading to difficulties for the sustainability and long-term accountability of voluntary organisations. On a general level, government funding has been criticised for its focus on service-provision and lack of attention to the voluntary sector's other roles in development, campaigning and advocacy. Questions have also been raised about state control and loss of voluntary sector autonomy. The Green Paper acknowledges that there are problems with current funding arrangements and proposes certain solutions such as the publicising of eligibility criteria, the application of consistency in procedures for grant applications and improvement of information about, and access to, Lottery funding.

Support of the Voluntary Sector: Private Giving

A recent pan-European study of the social welfare field of the voluntary sector found that a distinguishing feature of Irish organisations, compared with their European counterparts, is the extent to which the volunteers who work for them are engaged in fundraising (Ruddle and Donoghue 1995). This emphasis on fundraising has negative consequences for the recruitment of volunteers who do not want to be trapped in this one role and it also leads to under-utilisation of the many other skills that volunteers bring to an organisation. One of the concerns of voluntary organisations, expressed in the Ruddle and Donoghue study, is that if greater and more stable government support is not provided then the energies of the voluntary sector will continue to be diverted to fundraising to the detriment of quality service-provision and consumer satisfaction.

Fundraising from private sources has two elements: fundraising from private companies and from individuals. To date there is very little information on corporate support of the Irish voluntary sector, although a small-scale study carried out in 1997 among the top 1,000 companies in the country suggested that, on average, companies give between 0.2 and 0.3 per cent of their turnover to charitable causes (Lucey, Donnelly-Cox and O'Regan 1997). (A more comprehensive study of corporate giving is currently being undertaken by the Policy Research Centre.) In its discussion of funding, the Green Paper proposes the establishment of Community Trusts or Foundations which are used in other countries to raise donations from the private sector and also from government.

Studies carried out by the Policy Research Centre in 1992 and 1994 into individual giving show that Irish people are relatively generous compared with other European countries and that the majority of people do give (85% in the last survey) (Ruddle and Mulvihill 1995). These studies have also shown, however, that most individual giving is unplanned and planned giving is underdeveloped compared with, for example, the United Kingdom. Although individual giving may be relatively small

compared with government funding, nevertheless it is an important resource to the voluntary sector, not only in monetary terms but also because it confers a degree of autonomy and affirms the voluntary sector's identity distinct from the state and the world of business.

Incentives for Giving

The legal framework in Ireland does little to encourage or facilitate private giving, although some changes in this regard have been initiated in recent years. For fundraisers there is an advantage to be gained where the organisation has been granted a charity number by the Revenue Commissioners. Under the Income Tax Act 1967 and the Corporation Tax Act 1976, organisations with a charity number are exempt from paying income tax and corporation tax on interest, annuities, dividends and shares, rents on property, gifts and profits from trade or land owned. Recognised charities are also exempt from certain other taxes such as Capital Gains Tax, Deposit Interest Retention Tax, Government Stamp Duty on property sold, Capital Acquisitions Tax and Probate Tax. According to Article 13 of the European Union 6th VAT Directive charitable organisations that are exempted from VAT include educational and vocational training establishments, hospitals and childcare services. Other organisations covered include those involved in the supply of goods and services related to welfare and also political, trade union, religious and philanthropic organisations. Not all charitable organisations are covered under this Directive. The exception under Article 13 applies to goods and services supplied by charitable and welfare organisations but does not apply to goods and services purchased by these organisations and, accordingly these may have a substantial irrecoverable VAT charge (Cousins 1997; Donoghue 1998).

Tax incentives for private giving are limited. A covenant system does exist whereby the taxes donors would pay on income used for donations are rebated to the donors. However, this provision applies only in the limited circumstances where donations are made to universities and colleges for research or teaching natural sciences and human rights bodies having consultative status with the United Nations or the Council of Europe. Under the Finance Act 1995, certain charities that deal with the Third World can receive the income tax paid by qualifying donors on donations between £200 and £750 per year from the Revenue Commissioners (Cousins 1997). This provision allows for extra contributions to the charity, however, rather than a tax benefit to the donor. The most recent Finance Bill (1998) introduced a new tax relief on corporate donations to recognised charities. Companies donating between £IR100 and £IR10,000, or up to 10 per cent of their income, will be allowed tax relief as an ordinary business expense. This latest tax relief follows lobbying by a network of Irish charities who have been aiming for some form of relief since 1991. The Green Paper suggests a review should be carried out of the position concerning the recognition of charities for tax purposes and the tax treatment of charities.

LEGAL CONTEXT

Regulation of Voluntary Organisations

There is no specific legislation for the voluntary sector (Cousins 1997; Donoghue 1998). Voluntary organisations can take several legal forms; they can be companies limited by guarantee or industrial and provident societies, or they can be incorporated under the Charities Act of 1993 or they can be unincorporated associations, trusts or friendly societies (Cousins 1994). Of the legal forms listed above only three – company limited by guarantee, industrial and provident society and incorporation under the Charities Act 1973 – bestow a separate legal personality on the organisation. Whether or not the organisation has a separate legal personality has implications for accountability: where it exists, members of the organisation are not held individually responsible for the organisation's activities but where it does not exist each member is individually responsible for the organisation should anything arise, such as the organisation being wound up as a result of going into receivership (Donoghue 1998). In 1994, Cousins prepared a report for the Combat Poverty Agency documenting the legal structures for voluntary organisations in Ireland and suggesting changes which would be appropriate to the needs of such organisations but, to date, these suggestions have not been acted upon.

Many organisations in the voluntary sector have been granted a charity number but this does not confer a separate legal status on the organisation. Charity numbers are granted by the Revenue Commissioners purely for the purposes of tax exemption. In order to apply for a charity number, the organisation must submit a formal Governing Instrument to the Revenue Commissioners including its name, objects, powers, details of its area of operations and its rules. The organisation must ensure to include annual audited accounts, proof that it does not distribute income to members, and a prohibition on the payment of fees and/or salaries, other than out-of-pocket expenses to members of the management or governing body. Included, too, must be a note on the winding up of the organisation and the transfer of its assets to another charitable body and also recognition that the Revenue Commissioners must be contacted for approval for any changes made to the Governing Instrument. Once an organisation applies for and is granted tax exemption along with a charity number, this exemption lasts for 18 months in the first instance. After this period, the organisation must provide details to the Revenue Commissioners of any additions to governing instrument, paid employees, activities undertaken, accounts, property owned and current directors. Once these have been furnished, the Revenue Commissioners decide on whether tax exemption status is retained. Although the Revenue Commissioners issue charity numbers they do not have an ongoing role with regard to charities.

There is no general legislation in Ireland governing fundraising activities. There is also no requirement for organisations which raise funds from the public for charitable purposes to account to any authority in relation to them (Cousins 1997). There are three pieces of legislation, developed in a fairly ad hoc manner, which address specific aspects of fundraising: the Street and House to House Collections Act of 1962 requires that fundraising through these means must be authorised by the senior garda officer in the area; the Gaming and Lotteries Act of 1956 sets out a series of controls in relation to gaming and the promotion of lotteries; and the

National Lotteries Act of 1986 provides the statutory framework for the National Lottery. The lack of any overall control of fundraising activities and concerns about the adequacy of existing statutory provisions led to the establishment in 1989 of a Committee on Fund-Raising Activities. In its report in 1990, this committee recommended *inter alia* a system of registration for all organisations raising funds for charitable purposes. To date, this recommendation has not been implemented. An Advisory Group on Charities/Fund-Raising Legislation was appointed and reported in 1996 but it is unclear whether, and if so when, this will lead to significant reforms (Cousins 1997).

CHAPTER THREE

EXTENT, NATURE AND PATTERNS OF DONATING

INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the extent to which people donate, the size of the donations given, the channels through which donations are made and the causes that benefit. In presenting the findings, a distinction is made between donations made spontaneously in response to an appeal (prompted giving) and donations which are paid regularly through set means (planned giving). Within prompted giving, a further distinction is made between purely philanthropic giving, in which there is no direct material return to the donor and giving, such as purchasing a raffle ticket, in which there is at least the possibility of material gain for the donor. A profile of donors is presented in terms of gender, age, education, occupational status, income level and geographical location. Finally, the chapter explores motivation for giving and the considerations taken into account in deciding to which charitable causes donations will be made.

Extent of Donating: Prompted and Planned

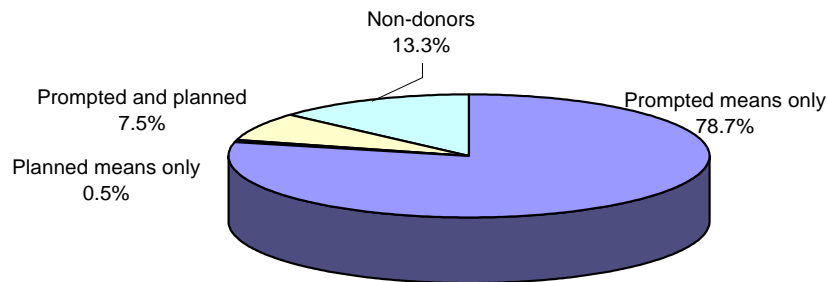
Prompted donating was investigated by presenting the respondent with a list of 17 different means of giving (plus an 'other' category to allow for means of giving not listed) (see Appendix One) and, for each one, asking whether any donation had been made in that way in the month prior to interview. The number of donations made and the amount given in each donation (up to five donations) through each means of giving was recorded. The beneficiary of each donation was also recorded.

Planned donating was measured in the survey in terms of standing orders, pay-roll deduction schemes and covenant schemes. As in the case of prompted donations, respondents were asked whether they had given in any of these planned ways in the month prior to interview. Where respondents were giving in a planned way, they were asked how much they had given in the previous month and which voluntary organisations had benefited.

Eighty-seven per cent of the respondents of the survey had donated money through some means in the month prior to interview. Most donors had given in response to a prompt or an appeal (86%) with only a very small group (8%) giving in a planned way. The vast majority of those who gave through planned means also gave through prompted means (94%) (Figure 3.1).

The proportion giving in 1997/98, either through planned or prompted means, is not significantly different from that reported in 1994 or 1992. In 1997/98, 86 per cent of respondents reported giving at least one prompted donation in the month prior to interview compared with 85 and 89 per cent in 1994 and 1992 respectively. Eight per cent donated through planned means in the month prior to interview in 1997/98 compared with the nine per cent who donated through such means in 1994 and 1992.

Figure 3.1: Percentage Donating Through Prompted and Planned Means



Number of Prompted Donations Made

In the majority of cases (79%), people who gave through prompted means did so more than once in the course of the month (Table 3.1). Over 10 per cent of respondents gave four (11%) and five times (11%) and in a small number of cases (6%) 10 or more donations were given. But the typical number of donations per month was three. There are no significant differences between men and women in the number of donations made.

Channels Through Which Prompted Donations Were Made

Table 3.2 below presents the different channels of prompted donating in rank order according to the percentage of respondents donating.

The most frequent channel for making donations is the church gate collection, with 43 per cent of respondents having given in this way in the month prior to interview. In second place is the street collection/flag day (30%), followed closely by raffle tickets/lines (29%). These three long-established channels of giving were also the ones most frequently used in the 1992 and 1994 surveys. Five further means of giving were used by at least 15 per cent of respondents: charity lottery (20%); buying a flower/token (20%); sponsorship of an event (18%); door-to-door collection (16%); and collection box (15%). These five means of giving were again in the top eight in the 1994 survey.

The least frequent channels of giving, used by less than five per cent of respondents, include: buying in a charity shop (4%); postal appeal (3%); buying in a jumble sale (3%); appeal in print (2%); radio/TV appeal (1%); and telethon-type event (0.3%). The low level of donating through broadcast and print appeals and through jumble sales was also evident in the 1994 survey.

Table 3.1 Number of Prompted Donations Made

Number of donations	Frequency	Per cent
1	211	20.7
2	176	17.3
3	160	15.7
4	113	11.1
5	116	11.4
6	65	6.4
7	53	5.2
8	40	3.9
9	28	2.7
10	15	1.5
11	19	1.9
12	8	0.8
13	7	0.7
14	3	0.3
16	2	0.2
17	2	0.2
19	1	0.1
21	1	0.1
TOTAL	1020	
Median	3	

Table 3.2 Percentage Donating Through Different Prompted Means

Means of donating	Number of Donors	% donating*	Number of donations
<i>Church gate collection</i>	513	43.4	861
<i>Street collection / Flag Day</i>	355	30.1	547
<i>Raffle tickets /lines</i>	347	29.4	588
<i>Charity lottery</i>	240	20.3	486
<i>Buy Flower / other token</i>	239	20.2	273
<i>Sponsorship of event</i>	214	18.1	275
<i>Door-to-door collection</i>	194	16.4	256
<i>Collection box</i>	172	14.6	266
<i>Charity greeting cards</i>	82	6.9	95
<i>Attend charity event</i>	79	6.7	90
<i>Bucket collection</i>	64	5.4	77
<i>Other appeal</i>	52	4.4	93
<i>Buy in a charity shop</i>	46	3.9	67
<i>Buy in a jumble sale</i>	34	2.9	38
<i>Postal appeal</i>	32	2.7	41
<i>Appeal in print</i>	26	2.2	30
<i>Radio/TV appeal</i>	12	1.0	13
<i>Telethon-type event</i>	4	0.3	6

* Percentages based on n = 1181

The list given in Table 3.2 includes 11 channels of giving which may be described as purely philanthropic since they do not involve any direct material gain to the donor. There are, however, certain means of giving where a purchase is involved and there is at least the possibility of a material return to the donor. In Table 3.2, purchases include raffle tickets/lines, charity lottery, attending a charity event, buying charity greeting cards, buying in a charity shop and buying at a jumble sale. Consideration of the eight most frequent channels of giving – used by at least 15 per cent of respondents – reveals that six of the eight are philanthropic in nature. However, channels of giving involving the possibility of gain to the donor occupy third and fourth place in the order of frequency, with 29 per cent buying raffle tickets/lines, and 20 per cent buying a charity lottery ticket.

The majority of donors (72%) gave in more than one way in the month prior to interview (Table 3.3). Some (13%) gave in five or more ways but, on average, people gave through two different channels. There are no significant differences between men and women in the number of channels used.

Table 3.3 Number of Different Channels Used to Make Prompted Donations

Number of channels	Frequency	Valid per cent
1	289	28.3
2	261	25.6
3	205	20.1
4	132	12.9
5	72	7.1
6	35	3.4
7	19	1.9
8	6	0.6
9	1	0.1
TOTAL	1020	
Median	2	

Channels of Planned Donating

Among the channels of planned donating investigated, standing orders were the most frequent, with six per cent of respondents having given in this way in the previous month. A very small minority of respondents (2%) had donated through pay-roll deduction schemes. When respondents not working outside the home are excluded from the calculations, the percentage of workers donating in this way rises to five per cent. Just one quarter of respondents knew of the existence of covenant schemes; an increase of five per cent from the 1992 and 1994 surveys. Among this group four people were donating in this way. Comparison of the 1992 and 1994 figures with those for 1997/98 reveals little or no change in the extent or nature of planned giving in the intervening years. In each of the three surveys six per cent reported that they had donated through standing orders in the previous month. In 1997/98 two per cent had donated through pay roll deduction schemes compared with three per cent in

both 1994 and 1992. Exactly the same number of respondents, four, had contributed by covenant in each of the three surveys.

Mean Individual Monthly Donation

The overall amount which individuals donated in the month prior to interview varied enormously from the extremes of 10p up to £100 and more. Thirteen per cent of donors had given £1 or less while, at the other end of the scale, seven per cent had given amounts in excess of £25 in the course of the month (Table 3.4). The overall mean amount given by donors in the month was £9.04.

Consideration only of prompted donating reveals that the mean amount given by donors in the month in this way was £8.31. The mean monthly donation for planned giving was £8.39 (Table 3.5).

Table 3.4 Size of Individual Monthly Donations

Amount	N	% of donors
10p – 50p	25	2.4
51p - £1.00	105	10.3
£1.01 - £2.00	113	11.0
£2.01 - £5.00	259	25.3
£5.01 - £10.00	250	24.4
£10.01 - £25.00	202	19.7
£25.01 - £50.00	53	5.2
£50.01 - £100.00	12	1.2
Over £100.00	5	0.5
TOTAL	1024	
Mean	£9.04	

Table 3.5 Mean Monthly Individual Donation

Type of donations	Mean donation	Sum	N
Prompted and planned	£9.04	£9,266.91	1024
Prompted giving	£8.31	£8,469.87	1019
Planned giving	£8.39	£797.05	95

Taking account of the 1,181 respondents of the study and not donors only, the mean amount given in the month by the sample as a whole was £7.85. It can be concluded at the 95 per cent confidence level that the mean monthly donation for the population at large lies within the range £6.88-£8.82. In the case of prompted donations, the mean donation for the full sample was £7.17. At the 95 per cent confidence level it can be concluded that the mean monthly donation for prompted giving for the population at large lies between £8.04-£6.30. In the case of planned donations, the mean monthly donation for the full sample was 67p. At the 95 per cent confidence level, it can be concluded that the mean monthly donation for planned giving in the population at large lies in the range 44p-91p.

Total Amount Donated in Month Prior to Interview

The total amount given by the sample of 1,181 respondents across all the different means of prompted and planned donating in the month prior to interview was £9,266.91. If the sample respondents are representative of the population of 2,554,115 persons aged 18 years and over in the country (Census 1996), then by simple multiplication it can be calculated that a total of £240.495 million was given by all adults in the course of a year. Taking account of sampling error, it can be concluded at the 95 per cent confidence level that the total value of all prompted and planned donations given by adults in the course of 1997/98, was in the range of £270.073 million to £210.917 million.

Consideration only of prompted donations reveals that the total amount donated in this way in the month prior to interview was £8,469.87. Calculation for the full population of adults in the country indicates that £219.81 million was given to voluntary organisations through prompted means in the course of the year 1997/98. Taking account of sampling error, it can be concluded at the 95 per cent confidence level that the total value of prompted donations in 1997/98 was in the range £246.55 million - £193.07 million.

Consideration only of planned means reveals that the total amount donated in the month prior to interview was £797.05. Using the same procedures as above, it can be calculated that £20.685 million was given through planned means in the course of the year 1997/98. Taking account of sampling error, it can be calculated at the 95 per cent confidence level that the total value of planned donations in 1997/98 was in the range £27.969 million - £13.401 million.

Comparison of Average Amounts Donated in 1997/98 and 1994

The average amount donated by individuals through prompted means in 1997/98 was £7.17. This is 14p less than the estimate for 1994 - £7.31; however this difference is not statistically significant¹. The corresponding standard deviations were £12.24 and £14.83 respectively. The average individual amount donated through planned means in 1997/98 was 67p. This is 13p less than the estimate for 1994 - 80p; however this difference is not statistically significant either. The corresponding standard deviations were £3.33 and £6.13 respectively. If the 1997/98 estimates are adjusted for the 7.1 per cent inflation over the period February 1994 - August 1997², the differences between the estimates obtained in the two surveys are naturally increased. The 1997/98 estimates for average individual amounts given through prompted and planned donations are reduced to £6.69 and 63p respectively. However, even when this inflation is taken into account the differences between the average amounts donated through prompted or planned means in 1997/98 and 1994 are not statistically significant.

¹ As noted in Chapter One the data for the 1997/98 survey were collected over 12 months while the 1994 survey took place during one month (March 1994). Accordingly the 1997/98 data relate to donating behaviour over 12 months while the 1994 data relate to donating behaviour in one month only (February 1994).

² Derived from Table 2, page 271, Statistical Bulletin, Central Statistics Office, Dublin, June 1998.

Amounts Raised by Different Prompted Means

Table 3.6 presents the different means of prompted giving in rank order according to the percentage of the total amount raised through all prompted means. The largest sum of money was raised by raffle tickets/lines, which account for 14 per cent of the total of £8,469 donated in the month through prompted means. In second place is the church gate collection, which accounts for 12 per cent of the total donated. Third place is shared by sponsorship and charity lotteries; each accounting for nine per cent of the total donated. A very similar pattern was observed in the 1992 and 1994 surveys, although the percentage of the total amount obtained through raffle tickets/lines dropped from 25 per cent in 1994 to 14 per cent in 1997/98.

The channels of giving bringing in the smallest amounts include appeals in print (3%), jumble sales (3%), collection boxes (3%), broadcast appeals (1%) and bucket collections (1%). The smallest amount in the month was brought in by telethon-type events, which account for less than one per cent of the total yield. Jumble sales and bucket collections were again among the lowest yielding means of donating in the 1994 survey.

The total sum of money raised by a particular means is, of course, a function both of the number of donors and the size of the donations made and the yield from the means can be increased through an increase in either factor. Considering firstly mean donation size, Table 3.6 shows that appeals in the print media on average raised the largest donations (mean = £9.49), followed by postal appeals (mean = £9.30) and broadcast appeals (mean = £9.22). While each of these means of raising money accounted in 1997/98 for only a relatively small percentage of the total raised in a month, the size of the average donation they elicit suggests that attempts to increase the numbers donating in these ways could be valuable in increasing yield.

Consideration, on the other hand, of the numbers donating through different means (Table 3.6) reveals that in 1997/98, church gate collections prompted the largest number of donors (513 in the month), followed by street collections (355), raffle tickets/lines (347), charity lotteries (240) and buying flower/token (239). In the case of the church gate collection, the size of the average donation is relatively small (£1.22); suggesting that there is scope to increase the yield from this means through attempts to raise donation size. Similarly, the relative smallness of donations elicited by street collections (£0.87) and buying flowers/tokens (£1.14) suggests scope for the yield to be increased by attempts to raise donation size. In the case of raffle tickets/lines, there may be less scope to increase yield further since not only are relatively large numbers donating in this way but the size of the donations elicited is already fairly large (£2.05).

Amounts Raised from Men and Women through Different Prompted Means

Consideration of the top three means of prompted donating in terms of the total amount raised in the month, reveals a very similar pattern between men and women (Table 3.7). In both cases raffle tickets/lines and church gate collections produce the first and second highest yields respectively. Among women sponsorship is the third highest yielding means of giving, whereas for men this means of giving ranks fifth in terms of yield. At the other end of the scale, consideration of those means with the

lowest yields again reveals a very similar pattern among men and women. In both cases, the three lowest-ranking means include telethon-type events, broadcast appeals and bucket collections.

Table 3.6 Amounts Raised and Number of Donations Through Different Prompted Means In Month Prior To Interview

Means of Raising money	Absolute amount raised (£)	% of total prompted donations amount	Mean amount donated (£)	Number of donations	% of total number of prompted donations	Number of donors
Raffle tickets/lines	1,203.94	14.21	2.05	588	14.33	347
Church gate collection	1,047.41	12.37	1.22	861	21.00	513
Charity lotteries	742.90	8.77	1.53	486	11.80	240
Sponsorship of event	739.50	8.73	2.69	275	6.70	214
Attend charity event	649.83	7.67	7.22	90	2.19	79
Other	638.78	7.57	6.87	93	2.27	52
Door-to-door collection	570.95	6.74	2.23	256	6.20	194
Street collection/flag day	476.21	5.62	0.87	547	13.33	355
Postal appeal	381.18	4.50	9.30	41	1.00	32
Charity greeting cards	377.89	4.46	3.98	95	2.32	82
Charity shop	360.06	4.25	5.37	67	1.63	46
Buy flower/other token	311.27	3.67	1.14	273	6.66	239
Print media appeal	284.85	3.36	9.49	30	0.73	26
Jumble sale	253.22	2.99	6.66	38	0.92	34
Collection box	221.72	2.62	0.83	266	6.48	172
Radio/TV appeal	119.85	1.41	9.22	13	0.32	12
Bucket collection	75.86	0.89	0.98	77	1.88	64
Telethon-type event	14.45	0.17	2.41	6	0.15	4
TOTAL	8469.87	100	2.06	4102	100	

Comparison between men and women on each individual means of prompted donating in Table 3.7 reveals few instances of significant difference. The most striking differences are that the amount of money raised through charity shops is greater for women (6% of the total) than for men (1% of the total), while the amount raised through 'other' means is greater for men (12% of the total) than for women (5% of the total). Less significantly, more is raised from women (8% of total) than men (5% of total) through door-to-door collections while, on the other hand, more is raised from men than women from raffle tickets/lines (16% and 13% of total for men and women respectively) and church gate collections (14% and 11% of total for men and women respectively).

**Table 3.7 Amounts Raised From Men and Women
By Different Prompted Means In Month Prior To Interview**

Means of Prompted donating	MEN		WOMEN	
	Amount raised in month	% of total amount	Amount raised in month	% of total amount
Door-to-door collection	179.18	5.37	391.77	7.63
Raffle tickets/lines	532.27	15.94	671.67	13.09
Street collection/flag day	173.40	5.19	302.81	5.90
Sponsorship of event	274.55	8.22	464.95	9.06
Church gate collection	471.45	14.12	575.96	11.22
Collection box	113.05	3.39	108.67	2.12
Charity lotteries	317.47	9.51	425.42	8.29
Jumble sale	80.75	2.42	172.46	3.36
Charity shop	46.75	1.40	313.31	6.11
Greeting cards	122.89	3.68	255.00	4.97
Buy flower / token	120.87	3.62	190.40	3.71
Bucket collection	34.51	1.03	41.35	0.81
Attend charity event	231.20	6.92	418.62	8.16
Radio/TV appeal	16.15	0.48	103.70	2.02
Print media appeal	121.55	3.64	163.30	3.18
Postal appeal	104.08	3.12	277.10	5.40
Telethon-type event	12.75	0.38	1.70	0.03
Other	385.57	11.57	253.23	4.94
TOTAL	3,338.44	100.00	5,131.42	100.00

Amounts Raised by Different Planned Means

The most common means of planned giving in 1997/98 and the one which raised the largest amount of money in the month (£611) was the standing order (Table 3.8). Although the percentage of respondents donating in this way in 1997/98 (6%) was identical to that reported in 1992 and 1994, the amount raised in this latest survey was greater than in previous years.

While the numbers giving through planned means are very low relative to prompted donating, the average donation size, particularly for covenant schemes (£14.24) but also for standing orders (£7.84), is high by comparison with most means of prompted giving.

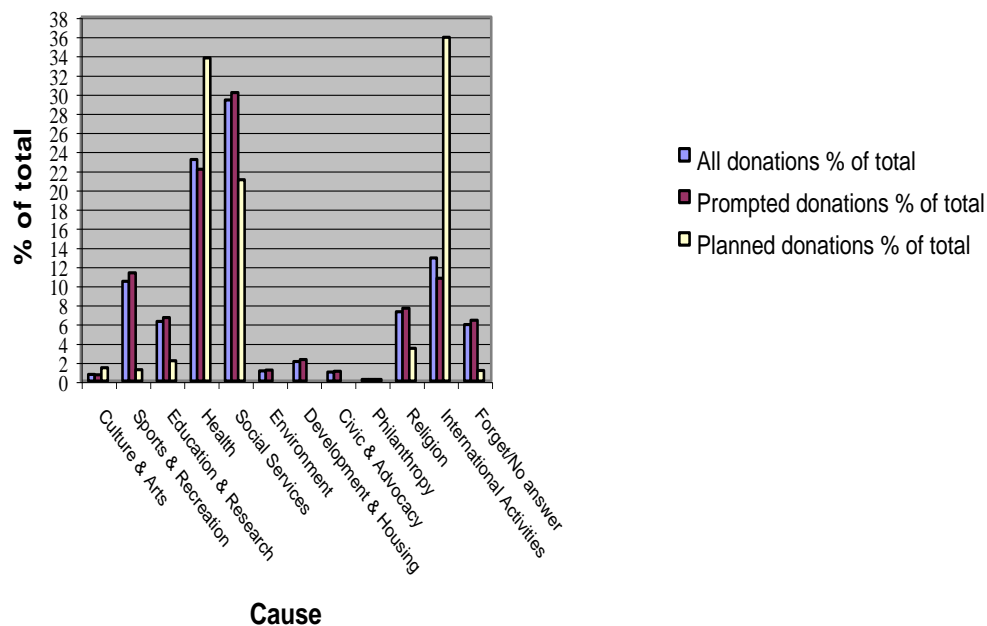
Table 3.8 Amounts Given Through Different Planned Means

Means of donating	Absolute amount raised in month (£)	Mean Donation In month (£)	Number of donors	Number of donations
Standing Order	611.83	7.84	71	78
Pay-roll deduction	128.27	4.42	25	29
Covenant scheme	56.95	14.24	4	4
TOTAL	797.05		100	111

Beneficiaries of Donations

For the purposes of analysis, the variety of causes recorded as benefiting from donations were classified according to the International Classification of Nonprofit Organizations (Salamon and Anheier 1996). Using this classification it emerges that the foremost beneficiary of donating (prompted plus planned) in 1997/98 was the social services category, accounting for 29 per cent of all monies donated in the month prior to interview (Figure 3.2). Within this category, the two main beneficiaries were organisations dealing with physical/sensory handicap (9% of total monies donated) and those dealing with the poor (8% of total monies donated) (Table 3.9). The second major beneficiary was the health category, accounting for almost one quarter of the total amount donated in the month. Within this category, organisations concerned with specific diseases were the main beneficiaries (9% of total monies donated). In the third and fourth place were international activities (13% of total monies donated) and the sports and recreation category (10% of the total monies donated). The only other categories accounting for at least five per cent of the total amount donated in the month were religion related (7% of total) and education/research (6% of the total).

Figure 3.2 Allocation of Donations By Cause In Month Prior To Interview



Separate consideration of prompted donations reveals the same pattern as that evident for all donations. However, when planned donations are considered separately, a different pattern emerges. In the case of planned donations, the two outstanding beneficiaries are firstly the international activities category, which accounts for 36 per cent of all planned donations (compared to 11% of prompted donations) and, secondly, the health category, accounting for 34 per cent of all the money given through planned means (compared to 22% for prompted means). Within the health category, the largest percentage of donations goes to hospitals; this cause accounting for almost one quarter of all planned donations compared to three

per cent of prompted donations. The third and only other significant beneficiary of planned donating is the social services category, accounting for 21 per cent of planned donations, compared to 30 per cent of prompted donations. Within this category, the main beneficiary of planned donating, similar to prompted donating, is the poor (11% and 8% of the total monies for planned and prompted giving respectively). Unlike prompted donating, however, the percentage of planned donating within the health category allocated to physical/sensory handicap is very low (1% and 10% for planned and prompted donating respectively).

Table 3.9 Allocation of Donations By Cause In Month Prior To Interview

Cause	All Donations		Prompted Donations		Planned Donations	
	Amount	% of total	Amount	% of total	Amount	% of total
Culture & Arts	65.53	0.71	54.48	0.64	11.05	1.39
Sports & Recreation	965.09	10.41	955.74	11.28	9.35	1.17
Education & Research	577.49	6.23	560.49	6.62	17.00	2.13
Health	2,143.33	23.14	1,874.29	22.12	269.02	33.74
First aid/rescue	58.22	0.63	58.22	0.69		
Hospices	400.32	4.32	337.42	3.98	62.90	7.89
Hospitals	472.64	5.10	283.26	3.34	189.38	23.76
Rehabilitation	295.72	3.19	291.46	3.44	4.25	0.53
Specific diseases	828.45	8.95	816.38	9.64	12.07	1.51
Other health	87.98	0.95	87.55	1.03	0.42	0.05
Social Services	2,716.49	29.35	2,548.86	30.10	167.60	21.03
Child welfare	329.65	3.56	316.90	3.74	12.75	1.60
Elderly	109.69	1.18	109.69	1.30		
Homeless	69.36	0.75	69.36	0.82		
Mental handicap	384.37	4.15	328.27	3.88	56.10	7.04
Needy/poor	757.05	8.17	669.50	7.90	87.55	10.98
Physical/sensory handicap	815.53	8.80	807.03	9.53	8.50	1.07
Youth development	80.75	0.87	80.75	0.95		
Victim support	79.90	0.90	79.90	0.94		
Counselling	11.47	0.12	11.47	0.14		
Other social services	78.72	0.85	75.99	0.90	2.72	0.34
Environment	97.41	1.05	97.41	1.15		
Development & Housing	188.02	2.03	188.01	2.22		
Community development	179.95	1.94	179.94	2.12		
Employment & Training	8.07	0.09	8.07	0.10		
Civic & Advocacy	87.21	0.94	87.21	1.03		
Philanthropy	16.07	0.17	14.7	0.17	1.36	0.17
Religion	670.61	7.24	643.41	7.60	27.20	3.41
International Activities	1,192.65	12.86	906.71	10.71	285.94	35.88
Forget/No answers	547.01	5.91	538.64	6.36	8.52	1.08
TOTAL	9,266.91	100.00	8,469.87	100.00	797.04	100.00

Beneficiaries of Donations from Men and Women

Comparison between men and women, in terms of the causes which benefit from their donations, reveals a very similar pattern in both cases (Table 3.10). For both, the social services category is the primary beneficiary (28% and 31% of the total donated for women and men respectively), while the health category is the second major beneficiary (24% and 22% of the total donated for women and men respectively). The international activities category is the third main beneficiary of women's donations while it is in fourth place for men. In both cases, however, it accounts for 13 per cent of the total donations. The only difference of any significance between men and women is the percentage of donations allocated to the sports and recreation category, which is eight per cent in the case of women, and 14 per cent in the case of men.

**Table 3.10 Allocation of Donations (Prompted Plus Planned)
From Men and Women**

Cause	Male and Female		Male		Female	
	Amount	% of total	Amount	% of total	Amount	% of total
Culture & Arts	65.53	0.71	39.58	1.09	25.59	0.46
Sports & Recreation	965.09	10.41	503.77	13.88	461.32	8.18
Education & Research	577.49	6.23	212.99	5.87	364.50	6.47
Health	2,143.33	23.14	808.14	22.26	1335.19	23.69
First aid/rescue	58.22	0.63	37.72	1.04	20.50	0.36
Hospices	400.32	4.32	145.74	4.01	254.58	4.52
Hospitals	472.64	5.10	151.61	4.18	321.03	5.70
Rehabilitation	295.72	3.19	89.15	2.46	206.57	3.66
Specific diseases	828.45	8.95	298.79	8.23	529.66	9.40
Other Health	87.975	0.95	85.13	2.34	2.85	0.05
Social Services	2,716.49	29.35	1,117.68	30.79	1,598.81	28.37
Child welfare	329.65	3.56	183.49	5.05	146.16	2.60
Elderly	109.69	1.18	33.05	0.91	76.64	1.36
Homeless	69.36	0.75	20.03	0.55	49.33	0.87
Mental handicap	384.37	4.15	193.25	5.32	191.12	3.39
Needy/poor	757.05	8.17	309.79	8.53	447.26	7.94
Physical/sensory handicap	815.53	8.80	241.19	6.64	574.34	10.19
Youth development	80.75	0.87	49.40	1.36	31.35	0.56
Victim support	79.90	0.90	26.71	0.74	53.19	0.94
Counselling	11.47	0.12	6.00	0.17	5.47	0.10
Other social services	78.72	0.85	54.77	1.52	23.95	0.42
Environment	97.41	1.05	24.70	0.68	72.71	1.29
Development & Housing	188.02	2.03	103.16	2.84	84.86	1.51
Community Development	179.95	1.94	99.49	2.74	80.46	1.43
Employment & Training	8.07	0.09	3.67	0.10	4.40	0.08
Civic & Advocacy	87.21	0.94	1.34	0.04	85.87	1.52
Philanthropy	16.07	0.17	6.70	0.18	9.37	0.17
Religion	670.61	7.24	137.79	3.80	532.82	9.45
International Activities	1,192.65	12.86	455.16	12.54	737.49	13.08
Forget/No answers	547.01	5.91	219.40	6.03	327.61	5.81
TOTAL	9,266.91	100.00	3,630.41	100.00	5,636.50	100.00

Bequests to Charity

Among the minority of respondents (23%) who revealed that they had made a will, 10 per cent indicated that they had included a bequest to charity.

PATTERNS OF DONATING

This section presents findings from the study with regard to variations in the amounts donated associated with a number of socio-demographic variables. The variables examined here include gender, type of area lived in, age, gross household and personal incomes, perceived relative income, educational, employment and occupational status, importance attributed to religion, political party preference and frequency of worry about money. A number of tests were used to test the statistical significance of relationships. Firstly, the cross tabulations presented were tested with the chi-square (Pearson) test. Secondly, Cramer's V was calculated to indicate the degree of association between the variables concerned. In some instances - where both variables were ordinal - the Spearman correlation was used instead of Cramer's V. The values shown in respect of both Cramer's V and the Spearman correlation indicate the strength of the relationship - the closer it is to 1, the stronger it is. The results of these tests are given at the foot of the tables.

The above tests serve to indicate whether or not a statistically significant relationship obtains between the variables concerned and provide some measure of the strength of that relationship. However they do not provide any information concerning the relationship between the different categories within variables. For example, they can indicate whether in overall the observed relationship between amount donated and perceived relative income is statistically significant, but they cannot without further analysis indicate whether there is a significant difference between the amount donated by those who consider their income to be very low and those who consider it to be medium. To test such relationships paired comparison tests were used - principally the Mann-Whitney¹ (after screening by the Kruskal-Wallis test (H statistic) for k independent samples). In other instances, where appropriate, the t test for independent samples was used.

Donating and Gender

The donating patterns of men and women are broadly similar. Women were, however, more likely to give larger amounts than men and a higher proportion of

¹ The Mann-Whitney tests the assumption that two independent samples come from populations having the same distribution. To compute the test, observations (or values) from both samples are first combined and ranked from smallest to largest value. The statistic for testing the hypothesis that the two groups are equal is the sum of the ranks for each of the two groups. If the two groups have the same distribution their sample distribution of ranks should be similar. If one of the groups has greater than expected share of small or large ranks, a difference in mean ranks, there is reason to suspect that the two underlying distributions are different.

them gave in the £5.01-£10 range (Table 3.11). However, there was no significant difference between the average total amounts given by men and women. On average men and women donated a total of £7.06 and £8.45 respectively in the month prior to interview while the corresponding standard deviations were similar at £13.01 and £13.91. There were no significant differences in the average amounts donated by men and women through planned or prompted means. On average men and women contributed 57p and 76p respectively in the month prior to interview through planned means, the standard deviations were £2.83 and £3.68 respectively. On average men and women contributed £6.49 and £7.69 respectively through prompted means, the corresponding standard deviations were £11.88 and £12.48.

Table 3.11 Amount Donated by Gender

Amount	Gender		
	Male	Female	All
Nothing	14.4	12.3	13.2
£5 or less	44.9	40.0	42.6
£5.01-£10.00	17.5	24.0	21.2
over £10.00	22.2	23.7	23.0
Total	514	677	1181

Chi-Square (Pearson) 9.4, df 3, $p < .05$; Cramer's V .09, $p < .05$

Donating and Area of Residence

Some differences in donating are evident among respondents categorised by area of residence. Higher proportions of those living in urban areas reported that they gave nothing, 17 per cent compared with eight and 12 per cent in town and rural areas respectively (Table 3.12). Higher proportions of respondents living in towns reported giving up to £10 while a higher proportion of respondents living in rural areas reported giving more than £10. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$): respondents living in rural and town areas gave more than those living in urban areas.

Donating and Age

Some differences were found in the donating patterns of the different age groups. However, variation among the different age groups in respect of the proportions who reported that they gave nothing in the previous month is quite small (Table 3.13). The biggest difference from the sample average is the size of the proportion of the 18-24 age group who reported that they gave nothing: 20 per cent, compared with the sample average of 13 per cent. More variation is evident in respect of those who reported giving in excess of £10. The proportion of those who reported giving in excess of £10 increases from 11 per cent in the 18-24 age group to 33 per cent in the 50-59 age group; it then declines to 26 and 11 per cent in the 60-69 and 70-90 age

groups respectively. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$): those in the age groups 18-24 and 70-90 gave less than those in all other age groups.

Table 3.12 Amount Donated by Area of Residence

Amount	Type of Area Lived In			
	Urban	Town	Rural	All
Nothing	17.4	8.0	11.8	13.2
£5 or less	42.0	46.0	41.6	42.6
£5.01-£10.00	18.7	25.2	21.6	21.2
Over £10.00	22.0	20.8	25.0	23.0
Total	455	226	500	1181

Chi-Square (Pearson) 16.8, df 6, $p < .00$; Cramer's V .08, $p < .00$.

Table 3.13 Amount Donated by Age

Amount	Age Groups							
	18-24	25-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	70-90	All
Nothing	20.4	11.0	10.8	9.4	13.9	13.2	18.5	13.2
£5 or less	54.1	40.2	43.1	40.1	30.6	41.7	54.2	42.6
£5.01-£10.00	14.3	31.7	20.5	23.5	22.8	19.2	16.7	21.1
over £10.00	11.2	17.1	25.6	27.1	32.8	25.8	10.7	23.1
Total	98	82	195	277	180	151	168	1151

Chi-Square (Pearson) 64.7, df 18, $p < .00$; Cramer's V .14, $p < .00$.

Donating and Gross Household Income

There is a significant statistical association between amount donated and gross household income (Table 3.14). Higher proportions of those in the lower income categories, up to £161-£200, reported giving nothing, 20, 18 and 15 per cent respectively compared with the sample average of 13 per cent. Respondents in only one income category, £301-£500, are less likely to give nothing than the sample as a whole, five per cent compared with 13 per cent. More respondents in the three highest income categories, £201-£300 and upwards, report giving in excess of £10 than the sample average of 24 per cent, 28, 32 and 36 per cent respectively. The proportions of those in the three lower income categories, less than £100 to £151-£200, who reported giving more than £10 were six, 15 and 15 per cent respectively. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$). Respondents in the two highest income categories, £301-£500 and over £500 per week, gave more than those in all other income categories. Respondents in the £201-£300 category gave more than those in the two lowest

income categories, less than £100 and £101-£150. Those in the categories £101-£150 and £151-£200 gave more than those in the lowest category, less than £100.

Table 3.14 Amount Donated by Household Gross Income

Amount	Household Gross Income						All
	<£100	£101-£150	£151-£200	£201-£300	£301-£500	>£500	
Nothing	19.6	17.5	14.7	13.0	4.6	13.7	13.0
£5 or less	58.8	48.1	52.9	38.6	38.6	27.9	42.2
£5.01-£10	15.5	19.5	17.6	20.1	25.4	23.0	20.8
Over £10.00	6.2	14.9	14.7	28.3	31.5	35.5	24.0
Total	97	154	136	184	197	183	951

Chi-Square (Pearson) 81.8, df 15, $p < .00$; Spearman Correlation .25, $p < .00$.

A positive association between household disposable income and donating was also found (Spearman correlation: .22, $p < .000$). However because of uncertainty regarding the interpretation of household disposable income gross household income is the preferred measure.

Donating and Personal Gross Income

A significant statistical association was found between amount donated and the respondents' own gross income (Table 3.15). The proportion who reported they gave nothing was much the same in all five income groups; the only notable difference being that 19 per cent of those in the income group less than £101 reported giving nothing compared with the sample average of 14 per cent. Higher proportions of those in the two highest income groups, £201-£300 and more than £300, gave more than £10 than the sample average of 23 per cent, 28 and 40 per cent respectively. Those in the lowest income group, less than £101, were least likely to report giving more than £10; 12 per cent did so compared with the sample average of 23 per cent. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$). Respondents in the highest income category, more than £300 per week, gave more than those in all other categories. Those in the lowest income category, less than £101, gave less than those in all other income categories.

A positive association between personal disposable income and donating was also found (Spearman correlation: .20, $p < .000$). However, because of uncertainty regarding the interpretation of personal disposable income gross personal income is the preferred measure.

Table 3.15 Amount Donated by Own Gross Income

Amount	Own gross income					All
	<£101	£101-£150	£151-£200	£201-£300	> £300	
Nothing	19.4	11.4	12.0	9.2	11.3	13.7
£5 or less	51.0	47.7	45.6	38.0	32.5	43.9
£5.01-£10	17.9	18.9	20.0	25.4	16.6	19.4
Over £10.00	11.8	22.0	22.4	27.5	39.7	23.0
Total	263	132	125	142	151	813

Chi-Square (Pearson) 56.6, df 12, p<.00; Spearman Correlation .23, p<.00.

Donating and Perception of Relative Income Size

A significant statistical association was also found between respondents' perceptions of the relative size of their incomes and donating (Table 3.16). Respondents who considered that their income, compared with that of others, was very low were most likely to report that they had given nothing, 31 per cent compared with the sample average of 13 per cent. Respondents who rated their income very high/high were most likely to report that they had given more than £10, 47 per cent compared with the sample average of 23 per cent. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences (p<.05). At all levels those who considered their income relatively high gave more than those who considered it to be relatively low. Thus the respondents who considered their income very high / high gave more than all others. Those who considered it to be medium gave more than those who considered it low or very low but less than those who considered it very high/high. Those who considered it low gave more than those who considered it very low but gave less than those who considered it very high/high or medium.

Table 3.16 Amount Donated by Perceptions of Relative Income

Amount	Income Comparison				All
	Very High /High	Medium	Low	Very Low	
Nothing	9.7	9.3	14.3	30.6	13.3
£5 or less	22.6	41.7	52.3	43.1	42.9
£5.01-£10	20.4	22.4	19.4	16.0	20.7
Over £10.00	47.3	26.5	14.0	10.4	23.1
Total	93	611	279	144	1127

Chi-Square (Pearson) 105.0, df 9, p<.00; Cramer's V .18, p<.00.

Donating and Educational Level

Significant differences were also found between the donating levels of respondents categorised by level of educational attainment (Table 3.17). More respondents with primary level and third level education reported that they had given nothing compared with the sample average of 13 per cent, 19 and 16 per cent respectively. Respondents with Leaving Certificate, Intermediate Certificate and third levels of

formal education were more likely to have given in excess of £10, 32, 24 and 27 per cent respectively compared with the sample average of 23 per cent.

Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$): respondents who have attained Intermediate or Leaving Certificates in formal education gave more than those with Primary or Group level Certificates. Those with third-level education gave more than respondents with Primary level education only.

Table 3.17 Amount Donated By Educational Status

Amount	Educational Status					
	Primary	Group	Inter	Leaving	Third level	All
Nothing	18.5	13.4	7.3	9.1	15.9	13.1
£5 or less	50.0	48.2	42.7	36.7	37.6	42.6
£5.01-£10	17.2	25.0	25.7	22.4	19.2	21.2
Over £10	14.3	13.4	24.3	31.8	27.3	23.1
Total	314	112	218	286	245	1175

Chi-Square (Pearson) 58.5, df 12, $p < .00$; Cramer's V.13, $p < .00$.

Donating and Employment Status

More respondents categorised as sick/disabled, full-time students, unemployed or retired than the sample average of 13 per cent reported they had given nothing in the previous month; 40, 37, 21 and 15 per cent respectively (Table 3.18). Respondents working outside the home, full-time (Osh-ft) or part-time (Osh-pt), were more likely than the sample average of 23 per cent to report that they had given in excess of £10; 28 and 32 per cent respectively. Full-time students, sick/disabled and unemployed respondents were least likely to report that they gave more than £10, 3, 8 and 8 per cent respectively. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$). Respondents working outside the home, part-time or full-time, or working inside the home full-time (Ish-ft), gave more than respondents who were unemployed, retired, full-time students or sick/disabled. Unemployed and retired respondents gave more than full-time students, the latter gave more than sick/disabled respondents.

Table 3.18 Amount Donated by Employment Status

Amount	Employment Status.							All
	Osh - pt	Osh - ft	Is h - ft	Retd	Unemp	Sick/ dis	Student	
Nothing	7.6	1.0	11.0	14.9	20.5	40.0	37.1	13.2
£5 or less	39.1	39.7	41.2	51.3	50.7	36.0	51.4	42.6
£5.01-£10.00	21.7	21.6	25.8	13.0	20.5	16.0	8.6	21.1
Over £10.00	31.5	27.6	22.0	20.8	8.2	8.0	2.9	23.1
Total	92	463	337	154	73	25	35	1179

Chi-Square (Pearson) 77.7, df 18, $p < .00$; Cramer's V.15, $p < .00$.

Donating and Social Class

Variations among respondents categorised by social class in respect of the proportions reporting that they gave nothing in the previous month are quite small (Table 3.19). The biggest difference, that between respondents on the lowest level of subsistence (Sub) and the sample average is only 7.5 per cent. The greatest variation is observed in respect of the proportions who gave more than £10 in the previous month. The proportions of the upper middle classes A (A um) and B (B um) and farmers [(50 acres or more (F50+)] who gave more than £10 is well above the sample average of 23 per cent, 50, 42 and 39 per cent respectively. The proportion of respondents categorised as lower middle class (Lrmc), skilled working class (Skwc) and farmers [(less than 50 acres (F<50)] giving more than £10 was close to the sample average. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$). Respondents categorised as upper middle class A or B and farmers (50 acres or more) gave more than all other respondents. Respondents categorised as lower middle class, skilled working class and other working class (Owc) gave more than those on the lowest level of subsistence.

Table 3.19 Amount Donated by Social Class

Amount	Social Class								
	A um	F50+	B um	Lrmc	Skwc	F<50	Owc	Sub	All
Nothing	16.1	5.8	7.6	10.7	11.8	17.9	15.1	20.7	13.2
£5 or less	21.4	30.4	31.4	47.7	40.0	46.4	47.3	50.0	42.6
£5.01-£10.00	12.5	21.7	22.0	18.1	28.2	14.3	22.0	20.2	21.3
Over £10.00	50.0	42.0	39.0	23.5	20.0	21.4	15.6	9.1	22.9
Total	56	69	118	281	220	186	28	208	1166

Chi-Square (Pearson) 108.8, df 21, $p < .00$; Cramer's V.18, $p < .00$.

Donating and Importance of Religion

Respondents who reported religion as unimportant were more than twice as likely as the sample average of 12 per cent to have given nothing, 26 per cent; they were less likely to report having donated at all levels (Table 3.20). Those who reported religion as very important were most likely to have given more than £10, 25 per cent compared with the sample average of 23 per cent. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$). Those who considered religion very important/important or fairly important gave more than those who considered religion unimportant.

Donating and Political Preference

One-third of the sample admitted to having a preference for a political party. More than half (54%) claimed not to have such a preference while the others (13%) preferred not to disclose such information. Nearly all of those who expressed a preference nominated either Fianna Fail, Fine Gael, the Labour Party or the Progressive Democrats. Eighteen respondents named a variety of other parties. No

significant statistical association was found in respect of amount donated and political party affiliation (Table 3.21).

Table 3.20 Amount Donated by Importance Attached to Religion

Amount	Degree of Importance Attached to Religion			
	Very Important	Fairly Important	Not Important	All
Nothing	12.3	8.3	25.8	12.4
£5 or less	44.1	43.8	38.1	43.1
£5.01-£10	19.2	24.9	18.1	21.4
Over £10.00	24.5	23.0	18.1	23.0
Total	506	482	156	1143

Chi-Square (Pearson) 36.9, df 6, $p < .00$; Cramer's V .13, $p < .00$.

Table 3.21 Amount Donated by Political Party Affiliation

Amount	Political Party Preference				All
	Fianna Fail	Fine Gael	Labour	Progressive Democrats	
Nothing	11.0	10.7	10.5	11.1	10.9
£5 or less	36.5	39.3	45.6	27.8	38.3
£5.01-£10	26.0	16.1	17.5	22.2	21.5
Over £10.00	26.5	33.9	26.3	38.9	29.3
Total	181	112	57	18	368

Chi-Square (Pearson) 7.2, df 9, $p < .62$; Cramer's V .08, $p < .62$.

Donating and Worry About Money

One third of respondents admitted to worrying very often (13%) or often (19%) about money (Table 3.22). However, no association was found between the frequency of worrying about money and the value of total donations.

Table 3.22 Amount Donated by Worry About Money

Amount	Frequency of worry				All
	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Rarely / never	
Nothing	16.7	16.0	11.4	12.4	13.3
£5 or less	37.8	41.3	46.3	40.3	42.4
£5.01-£10	21.8	24.0	20.9	19.9	21.3
Over £10.00	23.7	18.7	21.4	27.3	23.0
Total	156	225	430	362	1,173

Chi-Square (Pearson) 13.1, df 9, $p < .15$; Cramer's V .06, $p < .15$.

MOTIVATION FOR DONATING

The outstanding reason for donating, cited by 60 per cent of donors, was that the beneficiary was perceived as being ‘a good cause’ (Table 3.23). For around one-third of donors, one of the motivations for donating was the sense of wanting ‘to help out’. Again for around one-third of donors, the fact that it was friends or local people who were collecting was a motivating factor. It is of note that one-third of donors were motivated to give simply because they were asked, while 16 per cent gave on impulse.

There are few substantial differences between men and women in respect of reasons given for donating (Table 3.24). More women than men indicated they were motivated by such considerations as the ‘goodness’ of the cause, knowing who the beneficiaries might be, or spiritual or religious factors. More men than women cited such considerations as whether local people or friends were collecting, being asked, a liking to support local projects, or the difficulty of refusing. However, none of these differences is statistically significant. The greater proportions of women compared with men who referred to such considerations as liking to help out ($Z = 2.11, p < .05$) and compassion ($Z = 2.31, p < .05$) were statistically significant.

Table 3.23 Reasons for Donating

Reason	N	%*
<i>It's a good cause</i>	611	59.7
<i>I like to help out</i>	370	36.1
<i>Local people/friends collecting</i>	338	33.0
<i>I was asked</i>	328	32.0
<i>Out of compassion</i>	216	21.1
<i>Like to support local projects</i>	201	19.6
<i>It's hard to refuse</i>	192	18.8
<i>Know who might benefit</i>	181	17.7
<i>On impulse</i>	168	16.4
<i>Out of a sense of duty</i>	111	10.8
<i>Spiritual/religious motive</i>	94	9.2
<i>Self or family benefited</i>	51	5.0
<i>To end annoyance</i>	22	2.1
<i>Other reason</i>	14	1.4

*Percentages based on 1,024, which is the number of donors in the sample who provided at least one reason for donating. Respondents could give up to three reasons.

Table 3.24 Reasons for Donating by Gender

Reasons	Men (%)	Women (%)	All (%)
<i>It's a good cause</i>	58.2	60.8	59.7
<i>I like to help out</i>	32.5	38.9	36.1
<i>Local people/friends collecting</i>	35.7	31.0	33.0
<i>I was asked</i>	34.5	30.1	32.0
<i>Out of compassion</i>	17.7	23.6	21.1
<i>Like to support local projects</i>	20.7	18.8	19.6
<i>It's hard to refuse</i>	20.9	17.1	18.8
<i>Know who might benefit</i>	16.8	18.3	17.7
<i>On impulse</i>	16.1	16.6	16.4
<i>Out of a sense of duty</i>	10.7	11.0	10.8
<i>Spiritual / religious motive</i>	7.5	10.4	9.2
<i>Self or family benefited</i>	5.5	4.6	5.0
<i>To end annoyance</i>	2.5	1.9	2.1
<i>Other reason</i>	2.0	0.9	1.4
<i>Total</i>	440	584	1,024

Some differences in respect of reasons given for donating are evident between the various age groups (Table 3.25). Those less than 30 years of age are significantly more likely than older respondents to cite local people / friends were collecting, 40 compared with 32 per cent respectively ($Z = 2.01$, $p < .05$). Those less than 40 years of age were significantly more likely than older respondents to cite giving on impulse, 24 compared with 13 per cent respectively ($Z = 4.09$, $p < .05$). Those less than 40 years of age were also significantly less likely than older respondents to cite a liking for supporting local projects, 12 compared with 23 per cent respectively ($Z = 4.27$, $p < .05$). Those over 59 years of age were significantly more likely than younger respondents to refer to spiritual or religious reasons, 15 compared with seven per cent respectively ($Z = 3.48$, $p < .05$).

In choosing where to give their money, by far the most frequent consideration of donors was whether they knew the organisation involved (42%) (Table 3.26). In a related vein, an important consideration for one in five donors was knowing the people collecting the money. The second most frequent considerations were concerned with the effectiveness of the organisation – knowing the work done by the organisation (25%) and knowing how the money is spent (18%). For a smaller group (17%), the important considerations were whether they perceived the cause as ‘deserving’ and whether the cause was a local one (16%). Some donors gave when a group with whom they have some particular affinity was the beneficiary, such as children (13%), poor people (10%), the sick (5%), people with a handicap (4%) or older people (3%). A small minority (9%) said they take nothing into consideration when they give, while a similar-sized group (9%) appears to treat all appeals equally and ‘never refuse anyone’.

Table 3.25 Reasons for Donating by Age

Reasons	18-24 (%)	25-29 (%)	30-39 (%)	40-49 (%)	50-59 (%)	60+ (%)	All (%)
<i>It's a good cause</i>	61.5	68.0	56.6	60.6	68.0	52.2	59.7
<i>I like to help out</i>	29.5	40.0	37.1	35.3	40.5	35.4	36.1
<i>Local people/friends collecting</i>	42.3	37.3	33.7	30.9	29.4	32.1	33.0
<i>I was asked</i>	28.2	33.3	41.1	29.7	23.5	33.9	32.0
<i>Out of compassion</i>	23.1	24.0	17.1	19.3	23.5	23.5	21.1
<i>Like to support local projects</i>	11.5	9.3	13.1	25.7	29.4	17.5	19.6
<i>It's hard to refuse</i>	21.8	18.7	17.7	19.7	11.1	20.9	18.8
<i>Know who might benefit</i>	12.8	12.0	17.1	18.5	21.6	17.5	17.7
<i>On impulse</i>	32.1	22.7	20.6	16.9	11.1	11.6	16.4
<i>Out of a sense of duty</i>	7.7	8.0	9.1	9.6	17.6	11.9	10.8
<i>Spiritual/religious motive</i>	6.4	6.7	6.9	7.6	7.8	14.5	9.2
<i>Self or family benefited</i>	3.8	4.0	8.6	4.0	5.9	4.1	5.0
<i>To end annoyance</i>	1.3	4.0	1.1	3.2	1.3	1.9	2.1
<i>Other reason</i>	1.3	0.0	2.9	2.0	1.3	0.3	1.4
Total	78	75	175	249	153	268	1024*

*The total of the 'all' column 1024 is greater than the sum of the other column totals (998) because the age of some respondents was not ascertained.

Table 3.26 Considerations On Choosing A Beneficiary

Consideration	N	%*
<i>Knowing the charity</i>	432	42.4
<i>Knowing the work done</i>	253	24.8
<i>Knowing the people collecting</i>	220	21.6
<i>Knowing how the money is spent</i>	179	17.5
<i>Whether cause is deserving</i>	173	17.0
<i>Whether the cause is local</i>	167	16.4
<i>Whether children are involved</i>	129	12.6
<i>Whether the poor are involved</i>	98	9.6
<i>Never refuse anyone</i>	91	8.9
<i>Nothing in particular</i>	90	8.8
<i>Whether the sick are involved</i>	49	4.8
<i>Whether handicapped people are involved</i>	39	3.8
<i>Whether elderly people are involved</i>	35	3.4
<i>Collecting approach</i>	23	2.3
<i>Whether personal/family benefit</i>	9	0.9
<i>Other</i>	4	0.4

* Percentages based on 1020, which is the number of donors who cited at least one consideration. Respondents could give up to three considerations.

CHAPTER FOUR EXTENT, NATURE AND PATTERNS OF VOLUNTEERING

INTRODUCTION

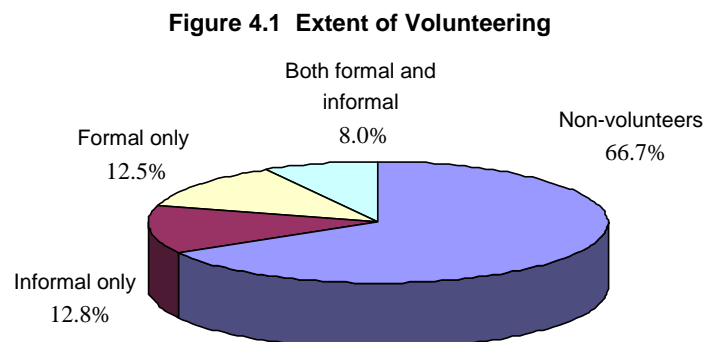
This chapter presents the findings on the extent of volunteering in the Republic of Ireland. It describes the nature of the voluntary activities carried out, the amount of time given and the causes which benefit from the work. In presenting the findings, a distinction is made between informal and formal voluntary activity. Informal volunteering refers to work carried out by the individual independently of any organisation, whereas formal volunteering refers to work carried out on behalf of, and managed by, an organisation. The chapter further explores how people get involved in volunteering, their motivation for doing the work and the rewards and dissatisfactions they experience. Findings are also presented on formal volunteers' experience of the manner in which voluntary organisations manage voluntary activity, including recruitment, induction, training, payment of expenses and support. Finally, the chapter presents a profile of volunteers in terms of gender, age, education, occupational status, income level and geographical location.

RATES AND NATURE OF VOLUNTEERING

Rates of Volunteering

In order to investigate the extent of volunteering, respondents were presented with a list of 22 different kinds of voluntary activity (plus an 'other' category, to allow for activities not listed) (see Appendix One) and asked for each one whether they had engaged in that activity in the previous month. In the case of each activity carried out, respondents were asked whether it had been done through an organisation (formal volunteering) or on their own (informal volunteering).

One-third of respondents had carried out some kind of voluntary activity (formal or informal) in the month prior to interview. When the setting in which the volunteering occurred is examined, it emerges that 21 per cent had carried out work through a formal organisation and 21 per cent had been involved in informal volunteering (Figure 4.1).



The proportion of respondents engaged in any kind of volunteering in 1997/98 was 33 per cent compared with 35 per cent in 1994. This difference is not significant but the reduction in volunteering between 1997/98 and 1992 (39%) is ($Z = 2.91, p < .05$).

Separate consideration of the figures for men and women reveals that while both were almost equally involved in formal volunteering (19% and 22% for men and women respectively), a significantly greater percentage of women (26%) were involved in informal volunteering compared with men (14%) ($Z = 4.91, p < .01$).

Whether volunteering is formal or informal, the majority of volunteers stick to one activity (61% and 59% for formal and informal volunteering respectively) (Table 4.1). There was, however, a sizeable group of volunteers in both settings who were involved in two (19% and 25% for formal and informal volunteering respectively) and even three activities (10% and 11% for formal and informal volunteering respectively). In both cases, the average number of voluntary activities carried out was one. Men and women display a very similar pattern with regard to the number of formal activities carried out. In the case of informal volunteering men are more likely than women to stick to one activity (66% and 56% for men and women respectively) but the difference between them is not significant.

Table 4.1 Number of Voluntary Activities Undertaken

Number of activities	Formal		Informal	
	n	%*	N	%*
1	148	61.2	145	59.2
2	47	19.4	62	25.3
3	24	9.9	26	10.6
4	11	4.5	7	2.9
5	6	2.5	2	0.8
6	4	1.7	3	1.2
7	1	0.4	0	0.0
11	1	0.4	0	0.0
TOTAL	242		245	
Median	1		1	

* Percentages based on the number of volunteers in each setting.

Amount of Time Devoted to Voluntary Work

Respondents who were volunteers were asked how much time they had given in the previous month to each of the voluntary activities in which they were engaged. Quantifying the amount of time given can be more difficult with some activities, such as collecting or distributing goods, than for other activities, such as training or counselling and, accordingly, the figures presented below in Table 4.2 should be interpreted with caution.

The amount of time in the month that the volunteers gave to their activities varied enormously from less than one hour (7%) to the equivalent of a week's work or more (12%). The average (median) amount of time given was 8.67 hours in the month.

Table 4.2 Amount of Time per Month Given to Volunteering

Amount of time	All volunteering		Formal volunteering		Informal volunteering	
	n	%*	N	%*	n	%*
Less than one hour	26	6.6	12	5.0	28	11.4
1.00 – 2.00 hours	35	8.9	29	12.0	36	14.7
2.01 – 5.00 hours	82	20.9	47	19.4	57	23.3
5.01 – 10.00 hours	69	17.6	41	16.9	50	20.4
10.01 – 20.00 hours	82	20.9	56	23.1	38	15.5
20.01 – 30.00 hours	51	13.0	27	11.2	25	10.2
30.01 – 50.00 hours	29	7.4	22	9.1	7	2.9
More than 50 hours	19	4.8	8	3.3	4	1.6
TOTAL	393		242		245	
Median	8.67 hours		10 hours		5.2 hours	

* Percentages based on number of volunteers in each setting

When the figures for formal and informal volunteering are examined separately, a different pattern emerges in each case. Fewer volunteers gave small amounts of time in the formal compared with the informal setting while, at the other end of the scale, more volunteers gave large amounts of time of over 30 hours in the formal compared to the informal setting. This is reflected in the average (median) volunteering time which at 10 hours per month for formal volunteering was twice the average time (5.2 hours) for informal volunteering.

Taking account of the full sample of 1,181 respondents and not just those who were volunteers, the mean amount of time per month given to all volunteering, formal and informal, was 5.07 hours while the standard deviation was 12.96 hours. It can be concluded at the 95 per cent confidence level that in the population at large between 5.99-4.14 hours in the month was given to voluntary activity. In the case of formal volunteering the mean for the sample as a whole was 3.11 hours in the month with a standard deviation of 10.17 hours. At the 95 per cent confidence level it can be concluded that in the population at large between 3.84 – 2.39 hours in the month was given to formal voluntary work. In the case of informal volunteering, the mean in the sample as a whole was 2.00 hours in the month with a standard deviation of 6.8 hours. At the 95 per cent confidence level it can be concluded that in the population at large between 1.47 and 2.44 hours was given in the month to informal volunteering.

The average time given to all volunteering in 1997/98 (5.07 hours) was not significantly different from the average time given in 1994 (4.64 hours) or in 1992 (5.03 hours).

Volunteering In the General Population

Among the 1,181 respondents of the study, a total of 5,983.75 hours was given to volunteering (formal and informal) in the month prior to interview. Assuming the respondents are representative of the 2,554,115 persons aged 18 years and over in the country (Census 1996), then by simple multiplication, it can be calculated that 155.29

million hours were devoted to voluntary work in the course of 1997/98. Assuming a working day of seven hours and a working year of 230 days, the total amount of time given over the year was equivalent to 96,454 work years. Taking account of sampling error, it can be calculated at the 95 per cent confidence level that the time given to volunteering in 1997/98 was in the range of 114,042 – 78,866 work years.

Self-Perceptions of Own Level of Volunteering

In an attempt to discover how respondents viewed their own level of volunteering, they were asked whether, relative to others, they felt they were more or less involved or about the same as others. Around one in five respondents (22%) felt that they participated in voluntary work to about the same extent as others like themselves and a small group (8%) felt they did more than others. However, most frequently (56%) respondents perceived themselves as doing less voluntary work than others.

NATURE OF VOLUNTEERING

Type of Voluntary Activities Undertaken

Consideration of volunteering regardless of setting (formal or informal) reveals that the nature of the activities undertaken was quite diverse with no one activity being carried out by much more than a quarter of volunteers (Table 4.3). The two most frequent activities were committee work (26%) and visiting the elderly (26%). Visiting the sick was also a relatively common activity (17%). Other activities carried out by at least 15 per cent of volunteers were fundraising (18%) and church-related activities (17%).

Separate consideration of formal and informal volunteering indicates that the pattern of activities undertaken was very different in each case (Table 4.4). In formal volunteering the predominant activity was committee work with 41 per cent of volunteers having undertaken this activity in the month prior to interview. The next most frequent formal voluntary activity was fundraising, which 26 per cent of volunteers had carried out. In third place was church-related activities; performed by 16 per cent of formal volunteers. Other activities carried out by at least 10 per cent of formal volunteers were sports coaching (15%) and supervisory activities (14%).

In the case of informal volunteering, the predominant activity undertaken was visiting; with 36 per cent of volunteers having visited older people and 26 per cent having visited the sick. By contrast, visiting activities were undertaken by a very small percentage of formal volunteers (7%). The second most frequent informal activity was babysitting; an activity undertaken by 16 per cent of informal volunteers, but not at all by formal volunteers. Other activities carried out by at least 10 per cent of informal volunteers were collecting things for charity (14%), caring for the elderly (13%), giving blood (12%), providing transport (12%) and church-related activities (11%). Apart from the latter two, none of these other activities were performed with any comparable frequency by formal volunteers. Of the two most common types of formal voluntary work, informal volunteers were (as

expected) not at all involved in committee work and only to a very minor extent in fundraising (3%).

Table 4.3 Nature of Voluntary Activities Undertaken (Formal and Informal)

Activity	All volunteers (n=393)	
	N	%
<i>Visiting elderly (not family)</i>	101	25.7
<i>Visiting the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	66	16.8
<i>Caring for the elderly (not family)</i>	36	9.2
<i>Caring for the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	18	4.6
<i>Committee work/meetings</i>	101	25.7
<i>Administrative / Secretarial</i>	21	5.3
<i>Fundraising/including organisation of</i>	70	17.8
<i>Collecting things for charity</i>	49	12.5
<i>Distributing money/goods for charity</i>	10	2.5
<i>Campaigning/Advocacy</i>	4	1.0
<i>Providing transport</i>	50	12.7
<i>Supervising/assisting activities</i>	37	9.4
<i>Sports coach/official</i>	40	10.2
<i>Advising / counselling / guidance / psychotherapy</i>	21	5.3
<i>Providing information</i>	18	4.6
<i>Teaching/training/tutoring</i>	11	2.8
<i>Conserving/improving environment</i>	16	4.1
<i>First-Aid/rescue services</i>	1	0.3
<i>Blood donor</i>	30	7.6
<i>Babysitting</i>	40	10.2
<i>Church helper</i>	67	17.0
<i>Other community activity</i>	23	5.9
<i>Other</i>	5	1.3

Type of Activities Undertaken by Men and Women

In the case of formal volunteering, men and women are alike in that for both groups committee work was the foremost activity (37% and 43% for men and women respectively) (Table 4.4) although more women than men were involved in this kind of work. The second most common formal voluntary activity among women was fundraising (30%). While this activity was also frequent among men (20%), for them it took third place after voluntary sports activities (32%). By contrast, very few women (3%) engaged in sports activities. Among women the third most common formal voluntary work was church-related activities (21%); a type of work that few men (8%) carried out. Two further striking gender differences are that administrative/secretarial activities were a predominantly 'female' area (13% and 2% for women and men respectively), while transport was mainly a 'male' domain (13% and 6% for men and women respectively).

Some similarities but also some striking differences are again evident in the informal volunteering activities undertaken by men and women. For both groups visiting activities were the most common type of informal voluntary work undertaken, although somewhat more women than men visited older people (38% and 32% for women and men respectively), and substantially more women than men visited the

sick (29% and 18% for women and men respectively). Among women the third most frequent type of informal volunteering was babysitting (19%); an activity that was undertaken to a lesser extent among men (10%). After visiting activities, the next most common kind of informal voluntary work among men was giving blood (18%); an activity undertaken to a lesser extent among women (10%). Some further striking differences are that collecting things for charity was work done primarily by women (18% and 4% for women and men respectively), while sports activities were the preserve of men (6% and 0% for men and women respectively).

Table 4.4 Types of Formal and Informal Voluntary Activities Undertaken Among Men and Women

Activity	Formal Volunteers			Informal Volunteers		
	% of all formal volunteers (n=242)	% of males (n=97)	% of females (n=145)	% of all informal volunteers (n=245)	% of males (n=73)	% of females (n=172)
<i>Visiting elderly (not family)</i>	5.4	3.1	6.9	35.9	31.5	37.8
<i>Visiting the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	1.2	1.0	1.4	25.7	17.8	29.1
<i>Caring for the elderly (not family)</i>	2.1	1.0	2.8	12.6	9.6	14.0
<i>Caring for the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	1.2	1.0	1.4	6.1	4.1	7.0
<i>Committee work/meetings</i>	40.5	37.1	42.8			
<i>Administrative/Secretarial</i>	8.7	2.1	13.1			
<i>Fundraising/including organisation of</i>	26.0	19.6	30.3	2.9	4.1	2.3
<i>Collecting things for charity</i>	6.2	3.1	8.3	13.9	4.1	18.0
<i>Distributing money/goods for charity</i>	4.1	2.1	5.5			
<i>Campaigning/Advocacy</i>	1.7	2.1	1.4			
<i>Providing transport</i>	8.7	13.4	5.5	11.8	12.3	11.6
<i>Supervising/assisting activities</i>	14.0	13.4	14.5	1.2		1.7
<i>Sports coach/official</i>	14.9	32.0	3.4	1.6	5.5	
<i>Advising/counselling/Guidance/psychotherapy</i>	5.4	5.2	5.5	3.3	6.8	1.7
<i>Providing information</i>	5.4	6.2	4.8	2.0	2.7	1.7
<i>Conserving/improving environment</i>	3.3	2.1	4.1	1.2	2.7	0.6
<i>Teaching/training/tutoring</i>	2.9	4.1	2.1	3.7	6.8	2.3
<i>First-Aid/rescue services</i>	0.4		0.7			
<i>Blood donor</i>				12.2	17.8	9.9
<i>Babysitting</i>				16.3	9.6	19.2
<i>Church helper</i>	16.1	8.2	21.4	11.4	8.2	12.8
<i>Other community activity</i>	8.3	9.3	7.6	1.2	2.7	0.6
<i>Other</i>	1.2		2.1	0.8	1.4	0.6

Time Given to Different Kinds of Voluntary Activities

Of course the overall time given to an activity is not independent of the numbers of volunteers involved nor of the nature of the activity. Accordingly, a relatively large

amount of time may just reflect the numbers undertaking the activity and does not necessarily signify the greater importance of the activity. On the other hand, if a relatively infrequent activity accounts for a large amount of volunteering time this can reveal an otherwise unrecognised significance in the overall volunteering activity carried out. If an activity ranks highly in terms of both numbers involved and time allocated then this is a double indication of its importance.

Table 4.5 Reported Time Given to Formal Volunteering in Month Prior to Interview Categorised by Activity

Activity	Male and Female volunteers	
	Time given (hours)	% of total formal volunteering time
<i>Visiting elderly (not family)</i>	138.00	3.76
<i>Visiting the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	8.00	0.22
<i>Caring for the elderly (not family)</i>	23.00	0.63
<i>Caring for the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	73.00	1.99
<i>Committee work/meetings</i>	830.50	22.60
<i>Administrative/Secretarial</i>	135.50	3.69
<i>Fundraising/including organisation of</i>	416.50	11.33
<i>Collecting things for charity</i>	91.50	2.49
<i>Distributing money/goods for charity</i>	22.50	0.61
<i>Campaigning/Advocacy</i>	29.00	0.79
<i>Providing transport</i>	204.00	5.55
<i>Supervising/ assisting activities</i>	412.00	11.21
<i>Sports coach/official</i>	562.00	15.29
<i>Advising/counselling/guidance/psychotherapy</i>	83.50	2.27
<i>Providing information</i>	74.00	2.01
<i>Teaching/training/tutoring</i>	59.00	1.61
<i>Conserving/improving environment</i>	33.00	0.90
<i>First-Aid/rescue services</i>	56.00	1.52
<i>Blood donor</i>		
<i>Babysitting</i>		
<i>Church helper</i>	193.00	5.25
<i>Other community activity</i>	185.00	5.03
<i>Other</i>	45.50	1.25
TOTAL	3,674.50	100.00

Consideration, firstly, of formal volunteering reveals that in 1997/98, the greatest amount of time was given to committee work; this activity accounting for close to one quarter of the total formal volunteering hours in the month (Table 4.5). In terms of numbers engaged in the activity, committee work was also in the first rank. The second greatest amount of time was given to sports activities – accounting for 15 per cent of total formal volunteering hours – whereas in terms of numbers involved, this activity was in fourth place. Time wise, third place was shared by fundraising (11%) and supervisory activities (11%). In terms of numbers, fundraising had a higher rank (second place), whereas supervisory activities had a lower one (fifth place). Church-

related activities were in third place in terms of numbers involved but accounted only for five per cent of total formal volunteering hours.

By comparison with formal voluntary work, consideration of informal volunteering reveals not only very different time allocation patterns but also more consistency between the rankings of different activities for the numbers involved and the time given. Visiting activities (older people 28%; the sick 13%) were given the greatest amount of time; between them accounting for 41 per cent of the total informal volunteering hours (Table 4.6). Visiting activities were also in the first rank in terms of the number of informal volunteers involved. Next in rank in terms of time allocation was babysitting (16%), which was also in second place in terms of the number of people involved. The only other activity accounting for at least 10 per cent of the total informal volunteering hours was caring for the elderly, which at 12 per cent of volunteering time was in fourth place; a rank it also occupied in terms of number of volunteers involved.

Table 4.6 Reported Time Given to Informal Volunteering in Month Prior to Interview Categorised by Activity

Activity	Male and Female volunteers	
	Time given (hours)	% of total informal volunteering time
<i>Visiting elderly (not family)</i>	648.95	28.10
<i>Visiting the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	305.84	13.24
<i>Caring for the elderly (not family)</i>	286.54	12.41
<i>Caring for the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	90.17	3.90
<i>Committee work/meetings</i>		
<i>Administrative/Secretarial</i>		
<i>Fundraising/including organisation of</i>	46.82	2.03
<i>Collecting things for charity</i>	73.05	3.16
<i>Distributing money/goods for charity</i>		
<i>Campaigning/Advocacy</i>		
<i>Providing transport</i>	187.71	8.13
<i>Supervising/assisting activities</i>	13.00	0.56
<i>Sports coach/official</i>	23.41	1.01
<i>Advising/counselling/guidance/psychotherapy</i>	27.74	1.20
<i>Providing information</i>	19.94	0.86
<i>Teaching/training/tutoring</i>	13.01	0.56
<i>Conserving/improving environment</i>	15.61	0.68
<i>First-Aid/rescue services</i>		
<i>Blood donor</i>	29.04	1.26
<i>Babysitting</i>	373.24	16.16
<i>Church helper</i>	143.05	6.19
<i>Other community activity</i>	4.34	0.19
<i>Other</i>	7.79	0.36
TOTAL	2,309.25	100.00

Time Given to Different Activities by Men and Women

Comparison between men and women in terms of the amount of time they give to different kinds of formal voluntary work reveals many similarities but also some notable differences (Table 4.7). For the most part, for both men and women, patterns of time allocation reflect patterns of numbers involved. In both cases, committee work accounts for almost one-quarter of total formal volunteering hours (22% and 23% for men and women respectively); this activity occupying first rank in terms of time allocation for women and second for men. For both groups, supervisory activities occupy third place for time allocation and account for a similar proportion of total volunteering hours in each case (12% and 10% for men and women respectively).

Table 4.7 Reported Time Given to Different Formal Voluntary Activities by Men and Women

Activity	Male		Female	
	Time (hours)	% of total	Time (hours)	% of total
<i>Visiting elderly (not family)</i>	22.00	1.29	116.00	5.88
<i>Visiting the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	3.00	0.18	5.00	0.25
<i>Caring for the elderly (not family)</i>	4.00	0.23	19.00	0.96
<i>Caring for the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	3.00	0.18	70.00	3.55
<i>Committee work/meetings</i>	382.00	22.43	448.50	22.75
<i>Administrative/Secretarial</i>	12.00	0.70	123.50	6.26
<i>Fundraising/including organisation of</i>	150.00	8.81	266.50	13.52
<i>Collecting things for charity</i>	9.00	0.53	82.50	4.18
<i>Distributing money/goods for charity</i>	4.00	0.23	18.50	0.94
<i>Campaigning/Advocacy</i>	20.00	1.17	9.00	0.46
<i>Providing transport</i>	156.00	9.16	48.00	2.43
<i>Supervising/assisting activities</i>	209.00	12.27	203.00	10.30
<i>Sports coach/official</i>	460.00	27.01	102.00	5.17
<i>Advising/counselling/guidance/psychotherapy</i>	40.00	2.35	43.50	2.21
<i>Providing information</i>	46.00	2.70	28.00	1.42
<i>Teaching/training/tutoring</i>	24.00	1.41	35.00	1.78
<i>Conserving/improving environment</i>	15.00	0.88	18.00	0.91
<i>First-Aid/rescue services</i>			56.00	2.84
<i>Blood donor</i>				
<i>Babysitting</i>				
<i>Church helper</i>	36.00	2.11	157.00	7.96
<i>Other community activity</i>	108.00	6.36	77.00	3.91
<i>Other</i>			45.50	2.32
TOTAL	1,703.00	100.00	1,971.50	100.00

The most striking difference between men and women is in the amount of time given to sports activities. Among men, sports activities were in first place in terms of time

allocation; accounting for 27 per cent of total formal volunteering time. By contrast, among women sports activities were in seventh place for time allocation; accounting for just five per cent of total volunteering time. A less marked difference is evident between men and women in relation to fundraising. This activity occupied second place in terms of time allocation for women and accounted for 14 per cent of women's total volunteering time, but among men it occupied fifth place and accounted for nine per cent of men's total volunteering time.

Consideration of informal volunteering reveals little difference between men and women in the amount of time given to different types of activities (Table 4.8). In both cases visiting older people occupied first place for time allocation, although the percentage of overall informal volunteering time accounted for by this activity was greater for men (34%) than for women (26%). Again in both cases, visiting the sick occupied third place for time allocation and accounted for a similar proportion of overall volunteering time in each case (12% and 14% for men and women respectively). The main gender difference arises in relation to babysitting which, among women, occupied third place for time allocation and accounted for 18 per cent of total volunteering time, whereas for men this activity was in fifth place and accounted for nine per cent of total volunteering time.

Table 4.8 Reported Time Given to Different Informal Voluntary Activities by Men and Women

Activity	Male		Female	
	Time (hours)	% of total	Time (hours)	% of total
<i>Visiting elderly (not family)</i>	175.57	33.64	473.38	26.49
<i>Visiting the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	60.26	11.55	245.58	13.74
<i>Caring for the elderly (not family)</i>	66.76	12.79	219.78	12.30
<i>Caring for the lonely / sick (not family)</i>	6.94	1.33	83.23	4.66
<i>Committee work/meetings</i>				
<i>Administrative/Secretarial</i>				
<i>Fundraising/including organisation of</i>	15.61	2.99	31.21	1.75
<i>Collecting things for charity</i>	5.64	1.08	67.41	3.77
<i>Distributing money/goods for charity</i>				
<i>Campaigning/Advocacy</i>				
<i>Providing transport</i>	46.82	8.97	140.89	7.88
<i>Supervising/assisting activities</i>			13.00	0.73
<i>Sports coach/official</i>	23.41	4.49		
<i>Advising/counselling/guidance/psychotherapy</i>	17.34	3.32	10.40	0.58
<i>Providing information</i>	4.33	0.83	15.61	0.87
<i>Teaching/training/tutoring</i>	12.14	2.33	0.87	0.05
<i>Conserving/improving environment</i>	12.14	2.33	3.47	0.19
<i>First-Aid/rescue services</i>				
<i>Blood donor</i>	12.57	2.41	16.47	0.91
<i>Babysitting</i>	45.95	8.80	327.29	18.31
<i>Church helper</i>	7.80	1.49	135.25	7.57
<i>Other community activity</i>	3.47	0.66	0.87	0.05
<i>Other</i>	5.19	0.99	2.60	0.15
TOTAL	521.94	100.00	1,787.31	100.00

The Proportion of Time Given to Volunteering Activities Accounted for by Men and Women

There are some substantial differences in the proportion of time given to different kinds of formal volunteering accounted for by each sex. Women accounted for more than a half (54%) of all formal volunteering time (Table 4.9). However, they accounted for more than 80 per cent of the time given to a number of activities. These included: first aid (100%), caring for the sick (96%), visiting (84%) and caring (83%) for the elderly, administrative and secretarial work (91%), collecting (90%) and distributing (82%) for charity, and helping in the church (81%). They were also disproportionately engaged in visiting the sick (63%) and fundraising (64%). Men accounted for 46 per cent of all formal volunteering time. They too were over represented in some areas including sports coach/official (82%), providing transport (77%), campaigning and advocacy (69%) and providing information (62%).

Table 4.9 The Proportion of the Time Given to Different Formal Voluntary Activities Accounted for by Men and Women

Activity	Male		Female	
	Time (hours)	% of time	Time (hours)	% of time
<i>Visiting elderly (not family)</i>	22.00	15.94	116.00	84.06
<i>Visiting the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	3.00	37.50	5.00	62.50
<i>Caring for the elderly (not family)</i>	4.00	17.40	19.00	82.60
<i>Caring for the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	3.00	4.10	70.00	95.90
<i>Committee work/meetings</i>	382.00	46.00	448.50	54.00
<i>Administrative/Secretarial</i>	12.00	8.86	123.50	91.14
<i>Fundraising/including organisation of</i>	150.00	36.00	266.50	64.00
<i>Collecting things for charity</i>	9.00	9.84	82.50	90.16
<i>Distributing money/goods for charity</i>	4.00	17.80	18.50	82.20
<i>Campaigning/Advocacy</i>	20.00	69.00	9.00	31.00
<i>Providing transport</i>	156.00	76.50	48.00	23.50
<i>Supervising/assisting activities</i>	209.00	50.73	203.00	49.27
<i>Sports coach/official</i>	460.00	81.85	102.00	18.15
<i>Advising/counselling/guidance/psychotherapy</i>	40.00	47.90	43.50	52.10
<i>Providing information</i>	46.00	62.16	28.00	37.84
<i>Teaching/training/tutoring</i>	24.00	40.68	35.00	59.32
<i>Conserving/improving environment</i>	15.00	45.46	18.00	54.54
<i>First-Aid/rescue services</i>			56.00	100.00
<i>Blood donor</i>				
<i>Babysitting</i>				
<i>Church helper</i>	36.00	18.65	157.00	81.35
<i>Other community activity</i>	108.00	58.38	77.00	41.62
<i>Other</i>			45.50	100.00
TOTAL	1,703.0	46.35	1,971.50	53.65

There are also substantial variations in the proportion of informal time given to various activities accounted for by men and women. Women accounted for three quarters (77%) of all time given to informal volunteering (Table 4.10). They accounted for a similar proportion of the time given to such major activities as visiting the sick (80%), caring for (77%) and visiting (73%) the elderly, and baby sitting (88%). However, they contributed in excess of 90 per cent of all informal time given to supervising and assisting (100%), helping in the church (95%), caring for the sick (92%) and collecting things for charity (92%). Men accounted for only a quarter of all time given to informal volunteering. However, they accounted for substantial proportions of the time given to a number of minor activities including sports coach/official (100%), teaching/training/tutoring (93%), other community activities (80%), conserving/improving the environment (78%), advisory/counselling (63%) and blood donating (43%).

Table 4.10 The Proportion of the Time Given to Different Informal Voluntary Activities Accounted for by Men and Women

Activity	Male		Female	
	Time (hours)	% of time	Time (hours)	% of time
<i>Visiting elderly (not family)</i>	175.57	27.05	473.38	72.95
<i>Visiting the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	60.26	19.70	245.58	80.30
<i>Caring for the elderly (not family)</i>	66.76	23.30	219.78	76.70
<i>Caring for the lonely/sick (not family)</i>	6.94	7.70	83.23	92.30
<i>Committee work/meetings</i>				
<i>Administrative/Secretarial</i>				
<i>Fundraising/including organisation of</i>	15.61	33.34	31.21	66.66
<i>Collecting things for charity</i>	5.64	7.72	67.41	92.28
<i>Distributing money/goods for charity</i>				
<i>Campaigning/Advocacy</i>				
<i>Providing transport</i>	46.82	24.94	140.89	75.06
<i>Supervising/assisting activities</i>			13.00	100.00
<i>Sports coach/official</i>	23.41	100.00		
<i>Advising/counselling/guidance/psychotherapy</i>	17.34	62.50	10.40	37.50
<i>Providing information</i>	4.33	21.72	15.61	78.28
<i>Teaching/training/tutoring</i>	12.14	93.31	0.87	6.69
<i>Conserving/improving environment</i>	12.14	77.77	3.47	22.23
<i>First-Aid/rescue services</i>				
<i>Blood donor</i>	12.57	43.29	16.47	56.71
<i>Babysitting</i>	45.95	12.31	327.29	87.69
<i>Church helper</i>	7.80	5.45	135.25	94.55
<i>Other community activity</i>	3.47	80.00	0.87	20.00
<i>Other</i>	5.19	66.62	2.60	33.28
TOTAL	521.94	22.60	1,787.31	77.40

BENEFICIARIES OF VOLUNTEERING

Respondents involved in formal volunteering were asked to indicate the organisations to which they had given their time. As with donations, the variety of fields of activity of the organisations recorded as benefiting from voluntary work were classified according to the *International Classification of Nonprofit Organizations* (ICNPO) (Salamon and Anheier 1996). Since, by definition, informal volunteering takes place independently of any organisation, analysis using the ICNPO applies only to formal volunteering.

The predominant beneficiary of formal volunteering was the sports and recreation field which accounts for almost one-third (32%) of total volunteering hours (Table 4.11). The second major beneficiary was the social services field (24%). Between them, these two fields of activity account for over half (56%) of all formal volunteering time in 1997/98. After these two major beneficiaries, the next most frequent beneficiaries were given far less time; the religion-related field and the community development field accounting for 11 per cent and nine per cent of total volunteering time respectively. Three-quarters of all formal volunteering was taken up by these four fields.

Comparison between the causes benefiting from donating and volunteering reveals that three of the top five beneficiaries were common to both but the rank ordering was different in each case (Table 4.12). The social services field was a major beneficiary of both donating and volunteering; being in the first rank for donating and second rank for volunteering. The sports and recreation field also benefited from both donating and volunteering, but the major contribution was from volunteering. The religion-related field again benefited from both donating and volunteering, but it did not account for a large proportion of either the overall time or money contributed. The health field and the international field were the second and third major beneficiaries of donating but did not appear among the top five for volunteering. On the other hand, the community development and education and research fields were the fourth and fifth ranking beneficiaries of volunteering but were not among the top five beneficiaries of donating

Beneficiaries of Voluntary Work of Men and Women

Separate consideration of the beneficiaries of volunteering among men and women reveals a different pattern for the two groups (Table 4.13). Among men, two fields of activity were dominant: sports and recreation (50%) and social services (23%). Between them, these two fields account for almost three-quarters of all men's formal volunteering time in 1997/98.

By contrast, women's volunteering time was much more widely spread among causes. The social services (25%), and sports and recreation fields (15%) were, as in the case of men, the top beneficiaries, but between them account for 40 per cent of women's total volunteering time compared to 73 per cent among men. Three further fields receiving a significant percentage of women's time were the religion-related field (15%), education and research (12%) and community development (10%).

Table 4.11 Reported Formal Volunteering Time Given to Different Causes

Cause	Male and Female volunteers	
	Time (hours)	% of total
Culture and Arts	129.00	3.51
Sports and Recreation	1,159.50	31.56
Education and Research	242.50	6.60
Health	228.50	6.21
First aid/rescue	83.00	2.26
Hospices	9.00	0.24
Hospitals	6.00	0.16
Rehabilitation	70.50	1.92
Specific diseases	51.00	1.39
Other health	9.00	0.24
Social Services	892.5	24.29
Child welfare	173.00	4.71
Elderly	138.00	3.76
Homeless	69.00	1.88
Mental handicap	74.50	2.03
Needy/poor	70.00	1.91
Physical/Sensory Handicap	117.00	3.18
Youth development	207.00	5.63
Victim support	18.00	0.49
Counselling	20.00	0.54
Other social services	6.00	0.16
Environment	171.00	4.65
Community development	326.00	8.87
Civic and Advocacy	11.00	0.30
Philanthropy	28.00	0.76
Religion	404.50	11.01
International Activities	54.50	1.48
Other	27.50	0.76
Total (hours)	3,674.50	100.00

Table 4.12 Top Five Beneficiaries of Donating and Volunteering

Beneficiaries	Donating % of all monies donated	Rank order	Volunteering % of all formal volunteering time	Rank order
Sports and Recreation	10.00	4	32.00	1
Education and Research			7.00	5
Health	23.00	2		
Social Services	29.00	1	24.00	2
Community Development			9.00	4
Religion	7.00	5	11.00	3
International	13.00	3		

Table 4.13 Reported Formal Volunteering Time Given to Different Causes by Men and Women

Cause	Male		Female	
	Time (hours)	% of total	Time (hours)	% of total
Culture and Arts	102.00	5.99	27.00	1.37
Sports and Recreation	856.00	50.26	303.50	15.39
Education and Research	3.00	0.18	239.50	12.15
Health	76.00	4.46	152.50	7.74
First aid/rescue	24.00	1.41	59.00	2.99
Hospices			9.00	0.46
Hospitals			6.00	0.30
Rehabilitation	28.00	1.64	42.50	2.16
Specific diseases	24.00	1.41	27.00	1.37
Other health			9.00	0.46
Social Services	393.00	23.08	489.50	25.30
Child welfare	126.00	7.40	47.00	2.38
Elderly	36.00	2.11	102.00	5.17
Homeless	58.00	3.41	11.00	0.56
Mental handicap	34.00	2.00	40.50	2.05
Needy/poor	8.00	0.47	62.00	3.14
Physical/Sensory Handicap	41.00	2.41	76.00	3.85
Youth development	90.00	5.28	117.00	5.93
Victim support			18.00	0.91
Counselling			20.00	1.01
Other social services			6.00	0.30
Environment	26.00	1.53	145.00	7.35
Community Development	122.00	7.16	204.00	10.35
Civic and Advocacy organisations			11.00	0.56
Philanthropy	15.00	0.88	13.00	0.66
Religion	110.00	6.46	294.50	14.94
International Activities			54.50	2.76
Other			27.50	1.43
Total (hours)	1,703.00	100.00	1,971.50	100.00

EXPERIENCES OF VOLUNTEERING

Length of Time in Formal Volunteering

Around one in 10 of the formal volunteers of the study were relatively new recruits to volunteering, having been involved for one year or less (Table 4.14). At the other end of the scale, there was a small group (5%) who had given more than 20 years to voluntary work. The great majority of volunteers, however, were involved from two to 10 years (73%); most typically from two to five years (46%). On average, the volunteers of the study had been doing voluntary work for four years.

Table 4.14 Length of Time in Formal Volunteering

Length of time	N	%
<i>One year or less</i>	27	11.2
<i>2 – 5 years</i>	111	46.1
<i>6 – 10 years</i>	64	26.6
<i>11 – 15 years</i>	11	4.6
<i>16 – 20 years</i>	16	6.6
<i>21 – 25 years</i>	1	0.4
<i>26 – 30 years</i>	6	2.5
<i>31 – 35 years</i>	1	0.4
<i>36 – 40 years</i>	3	1.2
<i>41 – 45 years</i>	1	0.4
TOTAL	241	100.0
Median	4 years	

How Volunteers Find Out About Formal Voluntary Work

By far the most frequent route into formal volunteering was through family, friends and neighbours, with 39 per cent of volunteers having found out about volunteering opportunities in this way (Table 4.15). Three other important ways of finding out about voluntary work were through membership of the organisation involved (18%), through meetings arranged by the organisation (11%) and through the church or religious organisations (11%). Media advertising, whether through newspapers, radio or television, was rarely noted (3%) as the means through which the volunteer found out about voluntary opportunities. Neither were other non-personal means of information, such as literature distributed by the organisation, noted as a frequent route into volunteering.

Table 4.15 How Volunteers Found Out About Voluntary Work

Means by which people found out	n	%
<i>Family, friends, neighbours</i>	91	38.9
<i>Membership of organisation</i>	41	17.5
<i>Church/religious organisation</i>	26	11.1
<i>Meetings of organisation</i>	25	10.7
<i>Other</i>	17	7.3
<i>School</i>	12	5.1
<i>Paid work</i>	8	3.4
<i>Papers / radio / television</i>	8	3.4
<i>Literature of organisation</i>	5	2.1
<i>Forget</i>	1	0.4
TOTAL	234	

There were significant differences between men and women in the routes by which they entered volunteering (Table 4.15a): men were more likely than women to find out about volunteering through membership of the organisation, while women were more likely than men to become involved through friends and through school.

The routes into volunteering were also significantly different for different age groups (Table 4.15b). Among the youngest age group (18-24 years), the most frequent means of finding out about voluntary work were through school (25%) and friends (25%). Friends were also the most frequent source of information among the 25-29 year old age group (31%). Organisational membership and family (20%), along with friends, emerged as the most frequent routes for the 30-39 and 40-49 year old age groups. Among middle-aged volunteers (50-59 years), church and organisation meetings emerged as significant routes along with family and friends. Among older people (60-90 years), neighbours and the church were the most frequent routes into volunteering.

How Volunteers Get Started in Formal Voluntary Work

When asked how they had become involved in voluntary work, more than half of volunteers said it had been in response to being asked to help (Table 4.16). Just over one-third took the initiative themselves and applied or offered to help.

Table 4.16 How volunteers got started in voluntary work

Means by which people got started	n	%
<i>Applied / offered to help</i>	86	35.8
<i>Asked to help</i>	138	57.5
<i>Started the group</i>	7	2.9
<i>Other</i>	9	3.8
TOTAL	240	

Training, Support and Supervision for Formal Volunteers

Very few volunteers (7%) were given an interview by the organisation involved before embarking on their voluntary work; although the number interviewed has increased slightly compared with the 1992 and 1994 surveys. Just over one-quarter (28%) of volunteers were given a job description when starting out on the work. The great majority (80%) had received no training for the work they were doing but such training was perceived as unnecessary by most (76%). However, around one-quarter of volunteers felt that training was necessary (15%), or was at least fairly necessary (9%). Most volunteers (85%) felt that the supervision and support available to them was adequate (71%), or at least fairly adequate (14%), but 13 per cent reported that they had no support systems at all available to them. Over one-third of volunteers (39%) reported that out-of-pocket expenses were incurred in the course of their work; most of these (81%) did not have any of their expenses reimbursed, while the remaining 19 per cent were reimbursed for some, but not all, expenses.

Reasons for Getting Involved in Volunteering

All respondents who had done any kind of voluntary work – formal or informal – in the month prior to interview were asked why they had become involved. The responses reveal a mixture of altruistic, personal and functional reasons for volunteering.

The most frequently mentioned reason was belief in the cause; noted by 43 per cent of volunteers (Table 4.17). Around one-third volunteered because they had been

asked (35%) and they wanted to help out (32%). A fourth frequently noted altruistic reason for volunteering was to be neighbourly (30%). Some volunteered because of personal contact: they knew the people involved (29%), or family members or relatives were already volunteering (7%), or there had been benefit to self or family from the organisation (6%). For around one in five volunteers, having had time to spare was a reason for getting involved. Again, one in five volunteers did the work just for the enjoyment of it. Functional reasons – such as to meet people (11%) or to develop one’s skills (5%) – were relatively infrequent by comparison with altruistic and personal reasons. Volunteering out of a sense of duty or religious belief, characteristic of traditional charitable work, was not frequent (13%) among the volunteers of this study.

Table 4.17 Reasons for Volunteering

Reasons	n	%*
<i>Belief in the cause</i>	168	42.9
<i>Was asked to help out</i>	136	34.7
<i>Want to help out</i>	126	32.1
<i>To be neighbourly</i>	117	29.8
<i>Knew the people involved</i>	113	28.8
<i>Had time to spare</i>	87	22.2
<i>For the enjoyment of it</i>	77	19.6
<i>Sense of duty/religious belief</i>	50	12.8
<i>It’s an interest outside of the home</i>	46	11.7
<i>To meet people</i>	41	10.5
<i>Family/relatives were involved</i>	29	7.4
<i>Already in the organisation</i>	29	7.4
<i>Benefits to self/family</i>	22	5.6
<i>Only one available</i>	21	5.4
<i>To develop skills</i>	19	4.8
<i>Other reason</i>	10	2.6

*Percentages based on 392, which is the number of respondents volunteering minus one non-respondent. Respondents could note more than one reason.

There are few substantial differences between men and women in respect of reasons given for volunteering (Table 4.18). More women than men indicated they were motivated by such considerations as wanting to help out, wanting to be neighbourly, having spare time, or a sense of duty or religious belief. More men than women indicated that they were motivated by such considerations as believing in the cause or being asked to help out. However, none of these differences is statistically significant. There is a substantial and significant difference in the proportion of men and women who volunteered because they had already been in the organisation, 14 compared with four per cent respectively ($Z = 3.9, p < .01$)

Table 4.18 Reasons for Volunteering by Gender

Reasons	Men (%)	Women (%)	All (%)
<i>Belief in the cause</i>	45.3	41.5	42.9
<i>Was asked to help out</i>	39.6	32.0	34.7
<i>Want to help out</i>	27.3	34.8	32.1
<i>To be neighbourly</i>	24.5	32.8	29.8
<i>Knew the people involved</i>	28.8	28.9	28.8
<i>Had time to spare</i>	18.7	24.1	22.2
<i>For the enjoyment of it</i>	20.1	19.4	19.6
<i>Sense of duty/religious belief</i>	10.1	14.2	12.8
<i>It's an interest outside of the home</i>	12.9	11.1	11.7
<i>To meet people</i>	7.2	12.2	10.5
<i>Family/relatives were involved</i>	5.8	8.3	7.4
<i>Already in the organisation</i>	14.4	3.6	7.4
<i>Benefits to self/family</i>	6.5	5.1	5.6
<i>Only one available</i>	5.0	5.5	5.4
<i>To develop skills</i>	6.5	3.9	4.8
<i>Other reason</i>	2.9	2.4	2.6
Total	139	253	392

Some differences are evident between different age groups in respect of the reasons given for volunteering (Table 4.19). Those less than 50 years of age were significantly more likely than older respondents to volunteer for 'enjoyment', 26 and 12 per cent respectively ($Z = 3.43, p < .01$). More of those over 50 years were significantly more likely to do so because of a sense of duty or religious belief, 21 compared with six per cent respectively ($Z = 4.43, p < .01$). More of those over 50 years were also influenced by having spare time, 35 compared with 19 per cent respectively ($Z = 3.08, p < .01$). Those less than 30 years old were more likely than others to have become involved because their family or relatives were involved, 19 compared with five per cent respectively ($Z = 3.703, p < .01$); they were also less likely than others to have been influenced by considerations of neighbourliness, 15 compared with 31 per cent respectively ($Z = 2.41, p < .01$).

The Rewards of Volunteering

The most frequent reward of volunteering, noted by more than half of the volunteers, was the satisfaction of seeing the results (Table 4.20). The second most commonly noted reward was the feeling of doing good (49%). For around one-third of volunteers, one of the rewards was the sheer enjoyment got from volunteering.

Apart from these personal rewards, there was also an important social side to volunteering for the volunteers of the study: it was a way of meeting people (41%); of feeling appreciated by others (21%); and a chance to forget your own problems for a while (17%). It is interesting that while only five per cent of volunteers had got involved in volunteering for the purpose of developing their skills, 18 per cent found that this was actually one of the rewards of the work. For a small group of volunteers (11%) there was no evident reward while others said their reward would come later in heaven (14%).

Table 4.19 Reasons for Volunteering by Age

Reasons	Age Group					All (%)
	18-29 (%)	30-39 (%)	40-49 (%)	50-59 (%)	60+ (%)	
<i>Belief in the cause</i>	43.4	29.8	47.3	50.6	34.6	42.9
<i>Was asked to help out</i>	39.6	40.4	34.5	33.3	29.6	34.7
<i>Wanted to help out</i>	32.1	31.6	33.6	34.6	27.2	32.1
<i>To be neighbourly</i>	15.1	35.1	25.5	33.3	38.3	29.8
<i>Knew the people involved</i>	24.5	24.6	35.5	25.9	30.9	28.8
<i>Had time to spare</i>	17.0	22.8	15.5	23.5	34.6	22.2
<i>For the enjoyment of it</i>	24.5	28.1	25.5	11.1	12.3	19.6
<i>Sense of duty/religious belief</i>	9.4	1.8	6.4	22.2	19.8	12.8
<i>Its an interest outside of the home</i>	9.4	14.0	17.3	8.6	9.5	11.7
<i>To meet people</i>	15.1	12.3	10.0	9.9	7.4	10.5
<i>Family/relatives were involved</i>	18.9	7.0	2.7	7.4	4.9	7.4
<i>Already in the organisation</i>	9.4	10.5	6.4	8.6	4.9	7.4
<i>Benefits to self/family</i>	3.8	10.5	8.2	0.0	6.2	5.6
<i>Only one available</i>	5.7	5.3	7.3	3.7	4.9	5.4
<i>To develop skills</i>	9.4	1.8	5.5	6.2	1.2	4.8
<i>Other reason</i>	1.9	1.8	1.8	6.2	1.2	2.6
Total	53	57	110	81	81	392*

* The total of 392 is greater than the sum of the other column totals (382) because the age of some respondents was not ascertained.

Table 4.20 Rewards of Volunteering

Reward	n	%*
<i>Seeing the results</i>	212	54.1
<i>Feeling of doing good</i>	191	48.7
<i>Meeting people</i>	161	41.1
<i>Enjoyment of it</i>	135	34.4
<i>Being appreciated</i>	82	20.9
<i>Experience/development of skills</i>	71	18.1
<i>Forget your own problems</i>	68	17.3
<i>Reward in heaven</i>	54	13.8
<i>No rewards</i>	44	11.2
<i>Don't know</i>	14	3.6

* Percentages based on n = 392: the number of volunteers minus one non-respondent. Respondents could note more than one reward.

In most cases similar proportions of men and women referred to each of the rewards for volunteering listed (Table 4.21). However, women were significantly more likely to refer to the 'feeling of doing good' ($Z = 3.34, p < .01$), and to 'it helps you to forget your own problems' ($Z = 2.26, p < .05$). More men were motivated by the enjoyment of it ($Z = 2.24, p < .05$).

Table 4.21 The Rewards of Volunteering by Gender

Rewards	Men (%)	Women (%)	All (%)
<i>Seeing the results</i>	58.0	52.6	54.1
<i>Feeling of doing good</i>	37.7	55.4	48.7
<i>Meeting people</i>	44.9	39.4	41.1
<i>Enjoyment of it</i>	42.0	30.7	34.4
<i>Being appreciated</i>	21.0	21.1	20.9
<i>Experienc/development of skills</i>	20.3	17.1	18.1
<i>Forget your own problems</i>	11.6	20.7	17.3
<i>Reward in heaven</i>	10.9	15.5	13.8
<i>No rewards</i>	14.5	9.6	11.2
<i>Other reasons</i>	2.9	2.0	2.3
Total	138	251	389

There are some differences between the different age groups in respect of the rewards experienced by them (Table 4.22). More respondents under 40 years of age indicated that enjoyment was one of the rewards of volunteering, 46 compared with 29 per cent of those over 40 ($Z = 3.1, p < .01$). Most other significant differences refer to those under 30 years of age compared with all older age groups. More of those under 30 years cited the feeling of doing good as a reward of volunteering, 62 compared with 45 per cent of others ($Z = 2.36, p < .05$). More of those under 30 years also identified 'being appreciated' as a reward, 45 compared with 17 per cent of others ($Z = 4.76, p < .01$).

Table 4.22 Rewards of Volunteering by Age

Rewards	Age Group					All (%)
	18-29 (%)	30-39 (%)	40-49 (%)	50-59 (%)	60+ (%)	
<i>Seeing the results</i>	47.2	66.1	62.4	53.8	40.7	54.1
<i>Feeling of doing good</i>	62.3	35.7	46.8	55.0	45.7	48.7
<i>Meeting people</i>	24.5	41.1	42.2	42.5	49.4	41.1
<i>Enjoyment of it</i>	41.5	50.0	33.0	26.2	32.0	34.4
<i>Being appreciated</i>	45.3	19.6	14.7	22.5	14.8	20.9
<i>Experience/development of skills</i>	22.6	17.9	23.9	15.0	13.6	18.1
<i>Forget your own problems</i>	13.2	14.3	18.3	17.5	19.8	17.3
<i>Reward in heaven</i>	13.2	5.4	11.9	15.0	21.0	13.8
<i>No rewards</i>	9.4	12.5	13.8	13.7	6.2	11.2
<i>Other reasons</i>	3.8	3.6	0.0	2.5	3.7	2.3
Total	53	56	109	80	81	392*

* The total of 392 is greater than the sum of the other column totals (379) because the age of some respondents was not ascertained.

The Drawbacks of Volunteering

The results suggest a contented body of volunteers, with just 10 per cent indicating that they had experienced any dissatisfactions with volunteering. The most commonly reported drawback was that too much was expected of volunteers (26%) (Table 4.23). Related complaints were that there were not enough volunteers for the work (16%), and volunteering took up too much time (8%). Among 21 per cent of those who were dissatisfied, the major drawback was the sense of being taken for granted. There were also drawbacks arising from organisational issues, such as negative outlook (16%), poor organisation (8%) and lack of government support (3%).

Table 4.23 Drawbacks of Volunteering

Drawback	n	%
<i>Too much expected of volunteers</i>	10	26.3
<i>Volunteers taken for granted</i>	8	21.1
<i>Negative outlook of organisation</i>	6	15.8
<i>Not enough volunteers</i>	6	15.8
<i>Takes up too much time</i>	3	7.9
<i>Things badly organised</i>	3	7.9
<i>Lack of government support</i>	1	2.6
<i>Other</i>	1	2.6
Total	38	100.0

Reasons for Giving up Voluntary Work

Twenty-one per cent of the respondents of the study had been involved in voluntary work at some time but had given it up. The most outstanding reason for no longer volunteering, as noted by over one-third of ex-volunteers (35%), was that there had been new demands on their time (Table 4.24). Changes in personal circumstances and other personal issues, such as getting older and becoming ill, were noted by around one in 10 ex-volunteers. Some (10%) said they just lost interest in the work.

Table 4.24 Reasons for Giving Up Voluntary Work

Reason	n	%
<i>New demands on time</i>	85	34.7
<i>Got older</i>	25	10.2
<i>Change in personal circumstances</i>	25	10.2
<i>Lost interest</i>	25	10.2
<i>Got sick</i>	22	9.0
<i>Moved away from area</i>	19	7.8
<i>Other reason</i>	15	6.1
<i>No longer needed</i>	12	4.9
<i>Stopped when left school</i>	10	4.1
<i>Activity abandoned</i>	6	2.4
<i>New committee</i>	1	0.4
TOTAL	245	100.0

Reasons for Not Volunteering

The results show that it is not lack of belief in its value that stops people from volunteering (apart from a tiny minority of 2%). The primary reason for not volunteering was lack of time to spare, with over half of non-volunteers citing this reason (Table 4.25). Other practical obstacles were: lack of transport (13%); illness or disability (7%); and old age (18%). It is of note that around one-quarter of non-volunteers said that their reason for not being involved was that they had simply never thought about it (27%), or that they had never been asked (22%). These two latter groups represent considerable potential for future volunteering; especially combined with the finding that 58 per cent of volunteers started the work simply because they were asked.

There is only one significant difference between men and women in respect of reasons given for not volunteering; more men than women indicated they had not thought about it, 33 compared with 21 per cent respectively ($Z = 3.56$, $p < .01$) (Table 4.26).

Age differences in reasons for not volunteering mainly refer to those less than or more than 60 years of age (Table 4.27). More of those less than 60 years indicated they had no time to spare, 63 compared with 22 per cent ($Z = 10.55$, $p < .01$). More of those over 60 years indicated they were ill or disabled, 19 compared with two per cent ($Z = 8.44$, $p < .01$). More of those over 60 also indicated they did not believe in volunteering, 11 compared with two per cent ($Z = 5.33$, $p < .01$). Those over 60, and especially those over 70, were far more likely than others to indicate they thought they were too old.

Table 4.25 Reasons for Not Volunteering

Reason	n	%*
<i>No time to spare</i>	405	52.0
<i>Never thought about it</i>	208	26.7
<i>Was never asked</i>	171	22.0
<i>Too old for it</i>	143	18.4
<i>No transport</i>	102	13.1
<i>Don't think I'd like it</i>	88	11.3
<i>Ill/disabled</i>	56	7.2
<i>Other reasons</i>	55	7.1
<i>Don't believe in it</i>	14	1.8

* Percentages based on 779: the number of non-volunteers, minus nine non-respondents. Respondents could note more than one reason.

Table 4.26 Reasons for Not Volunteering by Gender

Reasons	Men (%)	Women (%)	All (%)
<i>No time to spare</i>	51.5	52.5	52.0
<i>Never thought about it</i>	32.6	21.3	26.7
<i>Was never asked</i>	23.5	20.6	22.0
<i>Too old for it</i>	17.3	19.4	18.4
<i>No transport</i>	12.4	13.7	13.1
<i>Don't think I'd like it</i>	13.2	9.6	11.3
<i>Ill/disabled</i>	5.1	9.1	7.2
<i>Other reasons</i>	7.3	6.9	7.1
<i>Don't believe in it</i>	2.2	1.5	1.8
Total	371	408	779

Table 4.27 Reasons for Not Volunteering by Age

Reasons	Age Group						All
	18-29 (%)	30-39 (%)	40-49 (%)	50-59 (%)	60-69 (%)	70-90 (%)	
<i>No time to spare</i>	68.0	65.2	66.9	58.6	34.0	12.1	52.0
<i>Never thought about it</i>	35.2	33.3	27.7	23.2	25.0	14.4	26.7
<i>Was never asked</i>	26.4	26.8	20.5	26.3	20.0	13.6	22.0
<i>Too old for it</i>	0.0	0.7	0.6	6.1	33.0	75.0	18.4
<i>No transport</i>	14.4	15.9	8.4	23.2	13.0	8.3	13.1
<i>Don't think I'd like it</i>	12.0	10.9	12.6	11.1	12.0	9.8	11.3
<i>Ill/disabled</i>	0.8	2.9	1.8	3.0	15.0	22.0	7.2
<i>Other reasons</i>	8.0	5.1	9.0	9.1	6.0	4.5	7.1
<i>Don't believe in it</i>	0.8	1.4	2.4	4.0	12.0	9.8	1.8
Total	125	138	166	99	100	132	779

Potential Volunteers

When non-volunteers were asked if they might volunteer in the future, almost half (47%) said 'no'. However, a potential pool of volunteers is indicated by the one in five who gave an unqualified 'yes', and the further third who replied that they 'didn't know'. Men and women displayed a very similar pattern in regard to future volunteering (Table 4.25a) but there were some significant differences between different age groups (Table 4.25b). The percentage of non-volunteers who indicated that they would not volunteer in the future increased directly with increasing age; most (96%) of those aged 70-90 years and three-quarters of those 60-69 years said 'no' compared to 46% of middle-aged non-volunteers and 18 per cent of those aged 18-24 years.

PATTERNS OF VOLUNTEERING

This section presents findings from the study with regard to variations in the amount of volunteering time according to various socio-demographic variables, including gender, area of residence, age, total value of donations made, educational, employment and occupational status, importance attributed to religion and political party preference. A number of tests were used to assess the statistical significance of relationships. Firstly, the cross tabulations presented were tested with the chi-square

(Pearson) test. Secondly, Cramer's V was calculated, together with its significance level, to indicate the degree of association between the variables concerned. In some instances – where both variables were ordinal – the Spearman correlation was used instead of Cramer's V. The values shown in respect of both Cramer's V and the Spearman correlation indicate the strength of the relationship – the closer it is to 1 the stronger it is. The results of these tests are given at the foot of the tables.

The above tests serve to indicate whether or not a statistically significant relationship obtains between the two variables concerned and provide some measure of the strength of that relationship. However, they do not provide information concerning the relationship between the different categories within variables. For example, they can indicate whether in overall the observed relationship between time given to volunteering and area lived in is statistically significant, but they cannot without further analysis indicate whether there is a significant difference between the time given by those living in towns and those living in rural areas. To test such relationships paired comparison tests were used - principally the Mann-Whitney¹ (usually preceded by the Kruskal-Wallis test for k independent samples). In other instances, where appropriate, the t-test for the means of independent samples was used.

Volunteering and Gender

Significantly more women than men volunteer, 38 per cent of women do so compared with 27 per cent of men ($z = 3.89, p < .01$). Women are also more likely to give more than 10 hours (18%) compared with men (12%) (Table 4.28). Greater proportions of women also contribute up to five hours and between five and 10 hours. However, the statistical test used in this case (the t-test for means of independent samples) indicates that gender differences in the average time given to volunteering are not statistically significant: the mean time given by males and females was 4.33 and 5.63 hours respectively; the corresponding standard deviations were 12.7 and 13.14 hours.

Table 4.28 Volunteering and Gender

Time	Gender		
	Male (%)	Female (%)	All (%)
<i>No time given</i>	72.8	62.1	66.7
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	9.5	14.1	12.1
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	5.4	6.1	5.8
<i>More than 10 hours</i>	12.3	17.7	15.3
Total	514	667	1181

Chi-Square (Pearson) 15.8, df 3, $p < .01$; Cramer's V .12, $p < .01$.

¹ The Mann-Whitney tests the assumption that two independent samples come from populations having the same distribution. To compute the test, observations (or values) from both samples are first combined and ranked from smallest to largest value. The statistic for testing the hypothesis that the two groups are equal is the sum of the ranks for each of the two groups. If the two groups have the same distribution their sample distribution of ranks should be similar. If one of the groups has greater than expected share of small or large ranks, a difference in mean ranks, there is reason to suspect that the two underlying distributions are different.

More women (22%) than men (20%) engage in formal volunteering but this difference is not statistically significant. Neither are gender differences in the average amount of time given to formal volunteering statistically significant: the average formal volunteering time given by males and females was 3.31 and 2.96 hours respectively; the corresponding standard deviations were 11.38 and 9.14 hours.

Significantly more women than men engage in informal volunteering; 26 per cent of women compared with 14 per cent of men ($z = 4.92, p < .01$). Women are more likely than men to give more than 10 hours and are also more likely to give up to 10 hours (Table 4.29). The statistical test used in this case (the t-test for means of independent samples) indicates that gender differences in the average amount of time given to informal volunteering are statistically significant ($t = 4.56, df = 1004, p < .01$): the mean time given by men and women was 1.02 and 2.68 hours respectively and the corresponding standard deviations were 3.95 and 8.28 hours.

Table 4.29 Informal Volunteering Time and Gender

Time	Gender		
	Male (%)	Female (%)	All (%)
<i>No time given</i>	85.8	74.2	79.3
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	8.2	11.8	10.2
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	2.7	5.4	4.2
<i>More than 10 hours</i>	3.3	8.5	6.3
Total	514	667	1181

Chi-Square (Pearson) 26.35, $df = 3, p < .001$; Cramer's V .15, $p < .01$.

Volunteering and Area of Residence

There is a statistically significant association between time given to volunteering and area of residence. Those living in towns are most likely to have given some time to volunteering, 43 per cent compared with the sample average of 33 per cent (Table 4.30). They are also most likely to report giving more than 10 hours. The profiles of urban and rural respondents are virtually identical to each other and to the overall sample profile. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant difference ($p < .05$): respondents living in towns gave more time than those living in rural or urban areas.

Table 4.30 Volunteering Time and Area of Residence

Time	Type of Area lived In			
	Urban (%)	Town (%)	Rural (%)	All (%)
<i>No time given</i>	69.9	57.5	68.0	66.7
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	11.9	14.2	11.4	12.1
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	4.6	7.1	6.4	5.8
<i>More than 10 hours</i>	13.6	21.2	14.2	15.3
Total	455	226	500	1181

Chi-Square (Pearson) 13.1, $df = 6, p < .05$; Cramer's V .07, $p < .05$.

Consideration only of formal volunteering reveals no statistically significant association between the time given and area of residence. However, there is a statistically significant association between informal volunteering time and area of residence. Those living in towns are most likely to engage in informal volunteering, 27 per cent compared with the overall sample average of 21 per cent (Table 4.31); they are also most likely to report giving more than 10 hours. The profiles of urban and rural respondents are broadly similar; however, the proportion of rural respondents giving more than 10 hours is greater. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant difference ($p < .05$): respondents living in towns gave more time to informal volunteering than those living in urban areas.

Table 4.31 Informal Volunteering Time and Area of Residence

Time	Type of Area Lived In			
	Urban (%)	Town (%)	Rural (%)	All (%)
<i>No time given</i>	82.0	73.0	79.6	79.3
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	10.5	11.9	9.2	10.2
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	4.0	5.3	4.0	4.2
<i>More than 10 hours</i>	3.5	9.7	7.2	6.3
Total	455	226	500	1181

Chi-Square (Pearson) 14.0, df 6, $p < .05$; Cramer's V .08, $p < .05$.

Volunteering and Age

There is a statistically significant relationship between time given to volunteering and age. More respondents in the 40-49 and 50-59 age groups reported giving time; 40 and 45 per cent respectively compared with the sample average of 33 per cent (Table 4.32). More respondents in these two age groups than in other groups reported giving in excess of 10 hours. The oldest category of respondents, those in the 70-90 age group, were least likely to report giving time; however, 19 per cent of them reported doing so, and seven per cent reported giving in excess of 10 hours compared with the sample average of 16 per cent. Only 27 per cent of respondents in the 25-29 age group reported giving time; with the exception of those over 70 this is the lowest proportion of volunteers in the age groups considered. However, the proportion of the 25-29 age group giving in excess of 10 hours, 16 per cent, is the same as the sample average. The profiles of the 18-24, 30-39, and 60-69 age groups are broadly similar to the sample profile. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$). Those in the age categories 40-49 and 50-59 gave more time than those in the categories 25-29 and 30-39 and 70-90 years. Those in the category 50-59 gave more time than those in the category 60-69 years. Those in the categories 18-24, 30-39 and 60-69 also gave more time than those in the 70-90 age category.

Consideration only of formal volunteering also reveals a statistically significant association between amount of time given and age (Table 4.33). More respondents in the 40-49 and 50-59 age groups, 27 per cent in both cases, engaged in formal volunteering compared with the sample average of 21 per cent and more of them reported giving in excess of 10 hours, 13 per cent and 12 per cent respectively,

compared with the sample average of 10 per cent. Those in the 70-90 age group were least likely to volunteer, eight per cent compared with the sample average of 21 per cent; however five per cent of them reported giving in excess of 10 hours - half the sample average of 10 per cent. The profiles of those in the 18-24, 25-39 and 60-69 age groups are broadly similar to the sample profile. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$): those in the age category 60-69 gave less time to formal volunteering than those in the categories 40-49 and 50-59, those in the category 70-90 years gave less time than all others.

Table 4.32 Volunteering Time and Age

Time	Age Group							All (%)
	18-24 (%)	25-29 (%)	30-39 (%)	40-49 (%)	50-59 (%)	60-69 (%)	70-90 (%)	
<i>No time given</i>	67.3	73.2	70.8	60.3	55.0	68.2	81.0	66.8
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	9.2	7.3	13.3	13.0	15.0	11.9	8.3	11.8
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	7.1	3.7	4.6	6.9	8.9	5.3	3.6	5.9
<i>More than 10 hours</i>	16.3	15.9	11.3	19.9	21.1	14.6	7.1	15.5
Total	98	82	195	277	180	151	168	1151

Chi-Square (Pearson) 40.82, df 18, $p < .001$; Cramer's V .10, $p < .001$.

Table 4.33 Formal Volunteering Time and Age

Time	Age Group							All (%)
	18-24 (%)	25-29 (%)	30-39 (%)	40-49 (%)	50-59 (%)	60-69 (%)	70-90 (%)	
<i>No time given</i>	83.7	80.5	79.5	72.6	73.3	82.8	91.7	79.5
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	1.0	2.4	9.2	9.0	11.1	8.6	3.6	7.4
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	3.1	4.9	3.6	5.1	3.9	2.6	0.0	3.4
<i>More than 10 hours</i>	12.2	12.2	7.7	13.4	11.7	6.0	4.8	9.7
Total	98	82	16.9	277	180	151	168	1151

Chi-Square (Pearson) 44.9, df 18, $p < .00$; Cramer's V .11, $p < .00$.

Consideration only of informal volunteering also reveals a statistically significant relationship between amount of time given and age (Table 4.34). Those in the 50-59 age category were most likely to give time to informal volunteering, 30 per cent compared with the sample average of 22 per cent and were also most likely to report giving more than 10 hours, nine per cent compared with the sample average of six per cent. Virtually equal proportions of those in the 25-29, 30-39 and 70-90 age groups reported giving no time to informal volunteering, about 15 per cent in each case, compared with the sample average of 21 per cent. Those in the 25-29 age group were, however, least likely to report giving more than 10 hours. The profiles of the 18-24, 40-49 and 60-69 age groups are broadly similar to the sample profile. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$). Those in the age categories 40-49 and 50-59 gave more time to informal volunteering than those in the categories 30-39 and 70-90 years. Those in the category 50-59 years also gave more time than those in the categories 18-24 and 25-

29. Those in the category 60-69 gave more time than those in the category 30-39 years.

Table 4.34 Informal Volunteering Time and Age

Time	Age Group							
	18-24 (%)	25-29 (%)	30-39 (%)	40-49 (%)	50-59 (%)	60-69 (%)	70-90 (%)	All (%)
<i>No time given</i>	80.6	85.4	85.6	76.9	70.0	76.8	85.1	79.4
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	9.2	11.0	7.7	10.8	13.9	9.9	7.1	10.0
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	7.1	2.4	2.1	3.6	6.7	4.6	4.2	4.3
<i>More than 10 hours</i>	3.1	1.2	4.6	8.7	9.4	8.6	3.6	6.3
Total	98	82	16.9	277	180	151	168	1151

Chi-Square (Pearson) 31.7, df 18, $p < .05$; Cramer's V .09, $p < .05$

Volunteering and Amount Donated

There is a statistically significant positive linear relationship between volunteering time and the amount of money that people give (Table 4.35). Those donating more than £10 are most likely to volunteer, 50 per cent compared with the sample average of 33 per cent and they are also most likely to give more than 10 hours, 29 per cent compared with the sample average of 15 per cent. Those who gave nothing are least likely to volunteer, 17 per cent compared with the sample average of 33 per cent and they are also least likely to give more than 10 hours, nine per cent compared with the sample average of 15 per cent. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$): those who gave more than £5 gave more time than those who gave less or nothing, also those who gave more than £10 gave more time than those who gave between £5 and £10.

Table 4.35 Volunteering Time and Amount Donated

Time	Amount donated				All (%)
	Nothing (%)	£5 or less (%)	£5 - £10 (%)	> £10 (%)	
<i>No time given</i>	82.7	75.7	56.4	50.4	66.7
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	5.8	8.9	20.0	14.3	12.1
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	2.6	5.6	8.0	6.3	5.8
<i>More than 10 hours</i>	9.0	9.7	15.6	29.0	15.3
Total	156	503	250	272	1181

Chi-Square (Pearson) 103.1, df 9, $p < .00$; Spearman correlation .260, $p < .00$.

Consideration of formal volunteering only reveals a statistically significant positive linear relationship between volunteering time and the value of donations made (Table 4.36). Those donating in excess of £10 are most likely to volunteer formally, 34 per cent compared with the sample average of 21 per cent; they are also most likely to give more than 10 hours, 17 per cent compared with the sample average of 10 per cent. Respondents who gave nothing were least likely to volunteer formally, 12 per cent compared with the sample average of 21 per cent; they were also least likely to

give more than 10 hours, six per cent compared with the sample average of 10 per cent. The profiles of those who gave up to £10 are consistent with this linear relationship. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$): those who donated more than £5 gave more time than those who gave less or nothing, also those who donated more than £10 gave more time than all others.

Table 4.36 Formal Volunteering Time and Amount Donated

Time	Amount donated				All
	Nothing (%)	£5 or less (%)	£5.- £10 (%)	>£10 (%)	
<i>No time given</i>	88.5	86.9	73.2	66.5	79.5
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	3.8	4.2	12.0	11.4	7.5
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	1.9	2.6	4.8	4.8	3.5
<i>More than 10 hours</i>	5.8	6.4	10.0	17.3	9.6
Total	156	503	250	272	1181

Chi-Square (Pearson) 64.1, df 9, $p < .00$; Spearman correlation .212, $p < .00$.

A statistically significant linear relationship was also found between informal volunteering and the amount of money donated (Table 4.37). Those donating more than £10 were most likely to volunteer informally, 34 per cent compared with the sample average of 21 per cent; they were also most likely to give more than 10 hours, 14 per cent compared with the sample average of six per cent. Those who gave nothing were least likely to volunteer informally, nine per cent compared with the sample average of 21 per cent; they were also least likely to give more than 10 hours, two per cent compared with the sample average of six per cent. The profiles of those who gave up to £10 are consistent with this linear relationship. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$): those who gave more than £10 gave more time informally than those who gave less or nothing; those who gave between £5 and £10 gave more time than those who gave less or nothing; finally, those who gave up to £5 gave more time than those who gave nothing.

Table 4.37 Informal Volunteering Time and Amount Donated

Time	Amount donated				All
	Nothing (%)	£5 or less (%)	£5 - £10 (%)	> £10 (%)	
<i>No time given</i>	91.0	84.5	75.2	66.5	79.3
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	5.1	8.7	14.0	12.5	10.2
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	1.9	3.6	4.0	7.0	4.2
<i>More than 10 hours</i>	1.9	3.2	6.8	14.0	6.3
Total	156	503	250	272	1181

Chi-Square (Pearson) 66.0, df 9, $p < .00$; Spearman correlation .214, $p < .00$.

Volunteering and Level of Educational Attainment

A statistically significant association was found between volunteering time and level of educational attainment (Table 4.38). Respondents with third-level education

(including those currently in full-time education) were most likely to volunteer, 45 per cent compared with the sample average of 33 per cent. Those with third-level education were also most likely to give more than 10 hours, 22 per cent compared with the sample average of 15 per cent. Respondents with primary level education only were least likely to volunteer, 22 per cent compared with the sample average of 33 per cent; they were also least likely to give more than 10 hours, seven per cent compared with the sample average of 15 per cent. The profiles of those with Group / Intermediate and Leaving Certificate levels of education were broadly similar to each other and to the sample profile. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$): those whose highest formal educational level was primary certificate gave less time than all others; those with or currently in third-level education gave more time than all other groups with the exception of those whose highest formal educational level was the leaving certificate.

Consideration only of formal volunteering also reveals a statistically significant association between time given and level of educational attainment (Table 4.39). Respondents with third-level education (including those currently in full-time education) were most likely to engage in formal volunteering, 21 per cent compared with the sample average of 21 per cent. They were also most likely to give more than 10 hours, 15 per cent compared with the sample average of 10 per cent. Respondents with primary education only were least likely to engage in formal volunteering, only nine per cent compared with the sample average of 21 per cent. They are also least likely to give more than 10 hours; only two per cent do so compared with the sample average of 10 per cent. The profiles of those with group/intermediate and leaving certificate levels of education were broadly similar to each other and to the sample profile. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$): respondents whose highest formal educational level was primary certificate gave less time to formal volunteering than all others; those with or currently in third-level education and those with the leaving certificate gave more time than those with the intermediate certificate only. Consideration only of informal volunteering fails to reveal any statistically significant association between time given and level of educational attainment.

Table 4.38 Volunteering Time and Level of Educational Attainment

Time	Educational Attainment					
	Primary	Group	Inter	Leaving	Third level	All
<i>No time given</i>	77.7	69.6	66.5	62.9	55.5	66.6
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	10.8	11.6	12.4	10.5	15.9	12.2
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	4.1	2.7	6.4	7.3	6.9	5.8
<i>More than 10 hours</i>	7.3	16.1	14.7	19.2	21.6	15.4
N =	314	112	218	286	245	1175

Chi-Square (Pearson) 42.6, df 12, $p < .00$; Cramer's V .11, $p < .00$.

Table 4.39 Formal Volunteering Time and Educational Attainment

Time	Educational Attainment					
	Primary	Group	Inter	Leaving	Third level	All
No time given	91.4	76.8	80.7	73.8	71.0	79.5
Up to 5 hours	5.1	7.1	9.2	8.7	7.8	7.5
5.01 - 10 hours	1.3	1.8	2.8	4.2	6.5	3.4
More than 10 hours	2.2	14.3	7.3	13.3	14.7	9.6
Total	314	112	218	286	245	1175

Chi-Square (Pearson) 58.0, df 12, p<.00; Cramer's V .13, p<.00.

Volunteering and Employment Status

No significant statistical relationship was found between total volunteering time and employment status. However, separate consideration of formal volunteering time does reveal a statistically significant association (Table 4.40). Those working outside the home part-time, students and those working inside or outside the home full-time were more likely to engage in formal volunteering than the sample as a whole, 26, 26, 23 and 22 per cent respectively compared with the sample average of 21 per cent. Those who were sick/disabled, unemployed or retired are less likely to engage in formal volunteering, 8, 11 and 14 per cent respectively. However, these differences were most pronounced in respect of those who give up to 10 hours as virtually equal proportions of all groups except students give more than 10 hours. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences (p < .05): those working outside the home, full-time or part-time, gave more time to formal volunteering than the unemployed or retired; those working inside the home full-time or students gave more time than the unemployed.

Table 4.40 Formal Volunteering Time and Employment Status.

Time	Employment Status.							
	Osh - ft	Osh -pt	Unem	Retd.	Ish - ft	Student	Sick/dis	All
<i>No time given</i>	78.0	73.9	89.0	86.4	77.4	74.3	92.0	79.5
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	6.5	8.7	2.7	2.6	12.5	2.9	4.0	7.5
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	4.5	8.7	1.4	1.9	1.8	2.9	4.0	3.5
<i>More than 10 hrs</i>	11.0	8.7	6.8	9.1	8.3	20.0	0.0	9.6
Total	463	92	73	154	337	35	25	1179

Chi-Square (Pearson) 45.7, df 18, p<.00; Cramer's V .11, p<.00.

A statistically significant association between informal volunteering time and employment status was also found (Table 4.41). Those working outside the home part-time, those working inside the home full-time, and students were more likely to engage in informal volunteering, 32, 25 and 23 per cent compared with the sample average of 21 per cent. Those who were unemployed, sick or disabled, or working outside the home full-time were less likely to engage in informal volunteering than the sample as a whole, nine, 12 and 18 per cent respectively compared with the sample average of 21 per cent. The proportion of retired people engaged in informal volunteering was the same as the sample average. Those working outside the home

part-time or inside the home full-time were most likely to give more than 10 hours, 11 and nine per cent respectively compared with the sample average of six per cent. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$): those working outside the home part-time or inside the home full-time gave more time to informal volunteering than those working outside the home full-time or the unemployed.

Table 4.41 Informal Volunteering Time and Employment Status

Time	Employment Status.							
	Osh - ft	Osh - pt	Unemp	Retd.	Ish - ft	Student	Sick/ dis	All
<i>No time given</i>	82.5	68.5	90.4	79.2	74.8	77.1	88.0	79.2
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	9.9	16.3	2.7	2.7	9.8	11.4	4.0	10.3
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	3.0	4.3	1.4	1.4	6.2	11.4	0.0	4.2
<i>More than 10hrs</i>	4.5	10.9	5.5	5.5	9.2	0.0	8.0	6.3
Total	463	92	73	154	337	35	25	1179

Chi-Square (Pearson) 39.0, df 18, $p < .00$; Cramer's V .11, $p < .00$.

Volunteering and Social Class

There is a statistically significant association between total volunteering time and social class (Table 4.42). Farmers (50 acres +) (F 50+) and members of the upper middle class B (B um) and A (A um), lower middle class (Lr mc) and skilled working class (Skwc) were more likely to engage in volunteering than the sample as a whole, 48, 39, 36, 40 and 36 per cent respectively compared with the sample average of 33 per cent. Farmers with less than 50 acres (F<50), those categorised as being entirely dependent on the state for their income (lowest level of subsistence) (Subs), and other working class (Owc) were less likely to engage in volunteering than the sample as a whole, 11, 24 and 27 per cent respectively compared with the sample average of 33 per cent. A broadly similar pattern was found in respect of those who give more than 10 hours. Those categorised as farmers with less than 50 acres, those entirely dependent on the state for their income, unskilled working class and skilled working class were less likely to give more than 10 hours than the sample as a whole, four, 12, 12 and 14 per cent respectively compared with the sample average of 15 per cent. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$): respondents categorised as upper middle class B, lower middle class and farmers (50 acres or more) gave more time to volunteering than those categorised as other working class, lowest level of subsistence or farmers with less than 50 acres; those categorised as skilled working class gave more time to volunteering than those categorised as lowest level of subsistence or farmers with less than 50 acres.

Separate consideration of formal volunteering also reveals a statistically significant association between time given and social class (Table 4.43). Farmers with more than 50 acres, members of the upper middle classes B and A, lower middle class and skilled working class were more likely to engage in formal volunteering than the sample as a whole, 30, 29, 29, 23 and 22 per cent respectively compared with the sample average of 21 per cent. Those categorised as farmers with less than 50 acres,

those entirely dependent on the state for their income and unskilled working class were less likely to engage in formal volunteering than the sample as a whole, 0, 13 and 15 per cent respectively compared with the sample average of 21 per cent.

Table 4.42 Volunteering Time and Social Class

Time	Social Class								
	A um	B um	F 50+	Lr mc	Skwc	Owc	Subs	F<50	All
<i>No time given</i>	64.3	61.0	52.2	61.2	64.1	73.1	76.0	89.3	66.6
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	8.9	16.1	17.4	13.2	15.5	8.1	9.1	7.1	12.3
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	3.6	6.8	8.7	6.8	6.4	6.5	3.4	0.0	5.8
<i>More than 10 hrs</i>	23.2	16.1	21.7	18.9	14.1	12.4	11.5	3.6	15.4
Table	56	118	69	281	220	186	208	28	1166

Chi-Square (Pearson) 38.9, df 21, $p < .01$; Cramer's V .11, $p < .01$.

Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$). Upper middle classes A and B, those categorised as lower middle class and farmers with 50 acres or more gave more time to formal volunteering than those categorised as other working class, those entirely dependent on the state for their income, or farmers with less than 50 acres. Skilled workers gave more formal volunteering time than those in the categories lowest level of subsistence or farmers (less than 50 acres). Those in the categories other working class and those entirely dependent on the state for their income gave more formal time than farmers with less than 50 acres.

Table 4.43 Formal Volunteering Time and Social Class

Time	Social Class								
	A um	B um	F50+	Lr mc	Skwc	Owc	Subs	F<50	All
<i>No time given</i>	71.4	71.2	69.6	76.9	78.2	84.9	87.0	100.	79.9
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	8.9	11.0	13.0	6.8	7.7	5.4	7.2	0.0	7.5
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	5.4	5.9	4.3	3.9	3.2	3.8	1.0	0.0	3.4
<i>More than 10 hrs</i>	14.3	11.9	13.0	12.5	10.9	5.9	4.8	0.0	9.5
Total	56	118	69	281	220	186	208	28	1166

Chi-Square (Pearson) 38.5, df 21, $p < .05$; Cramer's V .10, $p < .05$.

Separate consideration of informal volunteering failed to reveal a statistically significant association between time given and social class.

Volunteering and Importance Attached to Religion

No statistically significant association was found between the degree of importance attached to religion and either total volunteering time or formal volunteering time. However, there is a statistically significant association between time given to informal volunteering and degree of importance attached to religion (Table 4.44). This pattern is demonstrated at all time levels. Paired comparisons tests (Mann-Whitney) revealed the following significant differences ($p < .05$): those who

considered religion very important/important gave more time to informal volunteering than those who considered it fairly important or not important. Also those who considered religion fairly important gave more time than those who considered it unimportant.

Table 4.44 Informal Volunteering Time and Importance Attached to Religion

Time	Degree of Importance Attached to Religion			All
	Very Important / Important	Fairly Important	Not Important	
<i>No time given</i>	74.1	81.3	88.4	79.1
<i>Up to 5 hours</i>	11.1	10.6	7.1	10.3
<i>5.01 - 10 hours</i>	5.3	4.1	1.3	4.3
<i>More than 10 hrs</i>	9.5	3.9	3.2	6.3
Total	506	482	155	1143

Chi-Square (Pearson) 24.8, df 6, p<.00; Cramer's V .10, p<.00.

Volunteering and Preferred Political Party

One third of the sample admitted to having a preference for a political party, more than half (54%) claimed not to have such a preference while others (13%) preferred not to disclose such information. Nearly all of those who expressed a preference nominated Fianna Fail, Fine Gael, the Labour Party or the Progressive Democrats; 18 respondents named a variety of other parties. No significant association was found between party political preferences and time given to volunteering.

CHAPTER FIVE ATTITUDES TOWARDS DONATING AND VOLUNTEERING

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the findings on respondents' attitudes towards giving – whether donating or volunteering – in terms of its contribution to society and its role *vis-à-vis* government. The chapter also explores people's preferences; preferences for different types of causes, for different kinds of approaches to collecting money, for different kinds of voluntary organisations. Public perceptions of the efficiency and effectiveness of voluntary organisations are examined, along with views on accountability and trustworthiness. Finally, the chapter presents findings on respondents' views and practice in relation to the National Lottery.

WHO SHOULD BE RESPONSIBLE FOR SOCIAL NEED?

When asked who should bear responsibility for social need, the highest percentage of respondents saw it as the role of government, either through central government (43%) or local government (50%), or through government funding of voluntary organisations (34%) (Table 5.1). To a much lesser extent, respondents noted the role of voluntary organisations (25%) and of local community groups (24%) in meeting social need. Twenty per cent of respondents noted that 'everybody' should play their part.

Table 5.1 Opinions on Responsibility for Social Need

Locus of responsibility	n	%*
<i>Local government agencies</i>	586	49.8
<i>Central government</i>	510	43.3
<i>Government via voluntary organisations</i>	397	33.7
<i>People with money</i>	330	28.0
<i>Charitable organisations</i>	298	25.3
<i>Local community groups</i>	283	24.0
<i>Everybody</i>	240	20.4
<i>Family</i>	203	17.1
<i>Church/clergy</i>	198	16.8
<i>Friends/neighbours</i>	181	15.4
<i>The needy themselves</i>	99	8.4
<i>Don't know</i>	37	3.1

* Percentages based on n = 1177: the number of respondents who noted at least one body / institution. Respondents could nominate up to three bodies/institutions.

Few respondents (8%) identified those in need as having the main responsibility for meeting their needs. It was also relatively infrequently that family (17%), or friends and neighbours (15%) were seen as having a primary responsibility in meeting social need. In 1994, when respondents noted one body/institution only, the majority of respondents thought the Government should bear primary responsibility for social need; either directly (45%), or through local groups or charities (10%), or through local government agencies (2%). The pattern revealed in the 1994 survey was similar to that which was found in 1992. Responsibility for social need is further addressed below.

ATTITUDES ON DIFFERENT DIMENSIONS OF GIVING

The reactions of respondents were sought in respect to 22 separate statements on different dimensions of giving. On the basis of an exploratory factor analysis responses to these statements were grouped into the following categories: general attitudes towards donating and volunteering, government responsibility, moral responsibility, comparative trustworthiness, honesty and accountability of charities and annoyance with charitable giving. Reactions of respondents to some of these statements were also obtained in 1994 and these are compared with the 1998 reactions. In some instances, to facilitate international comparison, the wording of statements was changed for the 1998 survey.

General Attitudes Towards Donating and Volunteering

Statements included in this category refer to the value of volunteering, obligations in respect of donating and the effects of charitable giving. It emerges that attitudes towards volunteers are favourable; more than three quarters (81%) of respondents disagree that 'people involved in charitable work are do-gooders without real understanding of people in need' (Table 5.2). More than two-thirds (67%) disagree that 'organisations using volunteers are usually amateurish'. This positive attitude towards volunteering is also indicated by the very small proportion (2%) of respondents who did not engage in volunteering because they did not believe in it (Table 4.25, Chapter Four). However, a third (33%) of respondents agreed that 'volunteers replace workers'. The principle of charitable giving seems to be widely supported as nearly three-quarters (73%) of respondents disagreed with the statement 'I pay taxes, why should I give to charity too'. Furthermore, nearly two-thirds of respondents (64%) disagreed with the statement 'people should look after themselves and not rely on charity'. The efficacy of charity is more disputed than the principle of it; more than a quarter (29%) of respondents agreed that 'charity reinforces helplessness'. Moreover, nearly half (49%) of all respondents agreed that 'charity is a token gesture that does not solve the actual problem'.

In 1994 significantly more respondents had agreed that 'people involved in charitable work are do-gooders without real understanding of people in need', 16 per cent compared with 11 per cent in 1998 ($Z=5.37:P<.01$). In 1998, however, significantly

more respondents agreed that ‘people should look after themselves and not rely on charity’, 25 per cent compared with 18 per cent in 1994($Z=3.83$; $P<.01$) Also, in 1998 significantly more agreed that ‘charity reinforces helplessness’, 29 per cent compared with 23 per cent in 1994($Z=3.49$; $P<.01$)

Table 5.2 General Attitudes Towards Donating and Volunteering

Statement	Strongly agree %	Agree %	Not Sure %	Dis-agree %	Strongly disagree %
<i>People involved in charitable work are ‘do-gooders’ without real understanding of people in need.</i>	2.5	8.2	8.8	55.0	25.5
<i>Organisations using volunteers are usually amateurish</i>	2.4	13.8	16.7	52.0	15.1
<i>Volunteers replace paid workers</i>	4.9	28.5	14.5	45.6	6.5
<i>I pay taxes, why should I give to charity too</i>	1.9	9.6	15.5	63.4	9.2
<i>People should look after themselves and not rely on charity</i>	4.9	19.9	11.5	55.2	8.5
<i>Charity reinforces helplessness</i>	4.1	24.9	16.7	46.4	8.0
<i>Charity is a token gesture that does not solve the actual problem</i>	12.2	36.4	13.9	34.5	2.9

Need for Charity and Government Responsibility

Nearly two-thirds (61%) of respondents agreed that ‘the need for charity is greater now than five years ago’(Table 5.3). More than three-quarters of respondents(80%) also agreed that ‘Government has the principal responsibility for taking care of people in need’. This supports what was revealed in Table 5.1 above, where it was shown that nearly half of all respondents thought that local government agencies and central government were responsible for social need, while a further third thought that government acting through or with voluntary organisations was responsible. Nearly half of respondents agreed that ‘if the Government were responsible there would be no need for charitable giving’. However, even if the Government played its ideal role volunteers would still be needed as a similar proportion (48%)of respondents agreed that even if the Government were to fulfil all its responsibilities volunteers would still be needed.

The statement included in the 1994 survey, ‘if the Government were doing its job properly we wouldn’t need to give to charity’, is similar to the 1997/98 statement ‘if the government were responsible there would be no need for charity.’ More respondents had agreed with the former than with the latter, 55 per cent compared with 47 per cent in 1997/98.

Table 5.3 Need for Charity and Government Responsibility

Statement	Strongly agree %	Agree %	Not Sure %	Disagree %	Strongly Disagree %
<i>The need for charity is greater now than five years ago</i>	21.3	39.9	16.7	20.2	1.9
<i>Government has the principal responsibility for taking care of people in need</i>	27.7	52.4	8.2	10.7	1.0
<i>If the government were responsible there would be no need for charitable giving</i>	12.4	34.9	17.4	31.3	4.1
<i>If the government fulfilled all its responsibility there would be no need for volunteers</i>	8.1	27.7	16.6	43.8	3.8

Moral Responsibility

The majority of respondents agreed that ‘as a citizen I have a moral obligation to give’ and that ‘everyone has a moral responsibility to become involved sometime’ (68%) (Table 5.4). A substantial majority (84%) disagreed that ‘charitable giving is a thing of the past’. Nearly three-quarters (72%) agreed that ‘volunteers offer something different’.

Table 5.4 Moral Responsibility

Statement	Strongly agree %	Agree %	Not Sure %	Disagree %	Strongly disagree %
<i>As a citizen I feel a moral obligation to give</i>	13.0	54.6	11.3	19.0	2.1
<i>Everyone has a moral responsibility to become involved sometime</i>	12.7	56.1	15.2	13.2	2.1
<i>Charitable giving is a thing of the past</i>	1.8	7.1	6.9	64.2	20.1
<i>Volunteers offer something different</i>	15.7	56.5	15.4	11.6	0.8

Honesty and Accountability of Charities

The majority of respondents (52%) agreed that ‘charities are honest’; however a substantial proportion (35%) are not sure about this (Table 5.5). There is greater concern about the accountability of charities; while more than a third (37%) of respondents agreed that ‘charities are accountable’ around the same proportion (31%) disagreed with the statement.

Table 5.5 Honesty and Accountability of Charities

Statement	Strongly agree %	Agree %	Not Sure %	Disagree %	Strongly disagree %
<i>Charities are honest</i>	5.9	46.1	34.6	11.1	2.3
<i>Charities are accountable</i>	4.0	32.8	32.7	25.3	5.2

While some respondents are uncertain about the honesty of charities, a substantial majority consider them at least as trustworthy as political parties or ‘big business’. Around two-thirds of respondents disagreed that they were less trustworthy than political parties or ‘big business’, 67 and 59 per cent respectively (Table 5.6). Forty-two per cent of respondents agreed that charities ‘are more trustworthy than trade unions’ but 48 per cent were ‘not sure’ about this.

Table 5.6 Comparative Trustworthiness of Charities

Statement	Strongly agree %	Agree %	Not sure %	Disagree %	Strongly disagree %
<i>Charities are <u>less</u> trustworthy than political parties</i>	1.4	5.2	26.8	54.4	12.2
<i>Charities are <u>more</u> trustworthy than trade unions</i>	4.7	37.5	48.3	8.4	1.1
<i>Charities are <u>less</u> trustworthy than big business</i>	1.1	6.4	33.4	50.6	8.6

Charitable Giving and Annoyance

Opinion is fairly evenly divided in respect of the statement ‘I am tired of being asked to give money for all sort of causes’ (Table 5.7). However, a substantial majority (80%) agreed that ‘there are so many charities that it is difficult to decide where to give’. In 1994 significantly more respondents had agreed with this statement, 85 per cent compared with 80 per cent in 1997/98 ($Z= 4.98; P<.01$).

Table 5.7 Charitable Giving and Annoyance

Statement	Strongly agree %	Agree %	Not sure %	Disagree %	Strongly disagree %
<i>I am tired of being asked to give money for all sorts of causes</i>	11.0	38.6	9.1	36.6	4.7
<i>There are so many charities that it is difficult to decide which to give to</i>	20.3	59.3	3.6	15.5	1.4

Relationship between Attitudes and Value of Donations Made

Statistical tests were carried out to determine whether any relationship existed between the value of donations made and the reactions to some of the above statements. Three of the statements in the category 'general attitudes towards charitable giving and volunteering' were investigated. It emerges that there was a significant difference in the average amount donated by respondents who disagreed that 'people should look after themselves and not rely on charities' and others; the mean donations were £8.72 and £6.28 respectively and the corresponding standard deviations were £14.91 and £10.52 (t 3.29, df 1127, $p < .001$). There was also a significant difference in the average amount donated by those who disagreed with the statement 'charity reinforces helplessness' and others; the average amounts donated were £8.74 and £6.78 respectively and the corresponding standard deviations were £15.15 and £11.22 (t 2.55, df 1161, $p < .01$). There was a difference also in respect of those who agreed and disagreed with the statement 'charity is a token gesture which does not solve the actual problem' but this difference was not statistically significant.

In the area of 'moral responsibility', there was a significant difference in the average amount donated by those who agreed that 'everyone has a moral responsibility to become involved sometime' and others; the mean donations were £8.62 and £6.10 respectively and the corresponding standard deviations were £14.38 and £11.27 (t 3.25, df 889, $p < .001$). There was a very substantial and significant difference in the average amount donated by those who agreed that 'as a citizen I feel a moral obligation to give' and others; the mean donations were £9.35 and £4.71 respectively and the corresponding standard deviations were £14.72 and £9.93 (t 6.38, df 1049, $p < .000$).

In the area of 'government responsibility' differences in the average amounts donated by those agreeing that 'government has the principal responsibility for taking care of those in need' and others were slight and insignificant. In the category 'honesty of charities' there were virtually no differences in the average amounts donated between those holding contrary views on the accountability or honesty of charities. There was a significant difference, however, between those who agreed and disagreed that 'I am tired of being asked to give money for all sorts of causes'; the means were £6.63 and £9.36 respectively and the corresponding standard deviations were £11.11 and £16.36 (t 3.06, df 829, $p < .002$).

Felt Obligation To Give and Amount Donated

The biggest effect of attitude on amount donated was found in respect of those who agreed 'as a citizen I feel a moral obligation to give'. Those who agreed with the statement gave nearly twice as much as others, an average of £9.35 compared with £4.71. When the effect of demographic variables on donating was investigated it was found that household gross income had the strongest association with amount donated (see Chapter Three). The effect of a sense of obligation to give is evident at all levels of household gross income. Felt obligation has the weakest effect on those with the lowest gross household incomes: at this level an average of £3.26 was donated by those who felt such an obligation compared with £2.83 by those who do not feel obligated (Table 5.8). However, those in the income groups £101-£150, £201-£300 and £301-£500 who feel an obligation to give, donate more than twice as much as those who do not feel such an obligation. Those in the highest income group (>£500) also give more when they feel an obligation to give. Half of those in

the lowest income group (<£100) feel obliged to give. Two-thirds of those with incomes in the range £101-£300 feel an obligation to give while about three-quarters of those with incomes in excess of £300 feel such an obligation.

Whether or not respondents agree with the statement ‘as a citizen I feel a moral obligation to give’ is related to the importance attributed to religion in their lives. The latter was found to have a positive association with the average value of donations made in the month prior to interview (see Chapter Three). More than three-quarters (77%) of those who consider religion very important/important report feeling an obligation to give compared with about half (54%) of those who do not consider it important and two-thirds (66%) of those who consider it fairly important (Table 5.9).

Table 5.8 Average Donation, Obligation to Give and Household Gross Income Level

	Feel Obligated to Give				All	
	Yes		No		%	N
	%	n	%	n	%	N
<£100	3.26	49	2.83	48	3.04	97
£101-£150	7.41	101	2.60	53	5.75	154
£151-£200	5.82	89	4.51	47	5.37	136
£201-£300	9.63	121	4.28	63	7.80	184
£301-£500	12.24	146	5.25	51	10.43	197
>£500	12.98	138	8.95	45	11.99	183

Table 5.9 Obligation to Give and Importance Attributed to Religion

Feel Obligation	Importance Attributed to Religion			All
	Very Important/ Important	Fairly Important	Not Important	
Yes	76.5	65.6	54.2	68.9
No	23.5	34.4	45.8	31.1
Total	506	482	155	1143

Chi-Square (Pearson) 31.7, df2, P<.00000; Cramer’s V .17, p<.00000.

The sense of obligation to give is also related to perceived comparative income. Three-quarters of those who consider their incomes relatively very high / high (79%) or medium (73%) feel an obligation to give compared with three-fifths (62%) and half (50%) of those who regard their incomes as relatively low or very low respectively (Table 5.10). The rating of importance of religion is not positively related to perceived relative income; there is a weak negative correlation between both variables (Spearman -.08, p<.007).

Table 5.10 Obligation to Give and Perceived Relative Income

Feel Obligation	Perceived Relative Income				All
	Very High/ High	Medium	Low	Very Low	
Yes	78.5	73.3	62.0	50.0	68.0
No	21.5	26.7	38.0	50.0	32.0
Total	93	611	279	144	1127

Chi-Square (Pearson) 38.7, df 3, P<.00000; Cramer's V .19, p<.00000.

Perceived Importance of Different Causes

In order to explore respondents' perceptions of the importance of different causes/fields of voluntary activity, they were presented with a list of 24 separate causes and asked to rate each one on a scale from one ('very important') to five ('not at all important').

Table 5.11 Mean Rating of Importance of Different Causes/ Fields of Activity

Cause / field of activity	Mean rating
Culture & Arts	3.08
Sports & Recreation	2.37
Education & Research	1.86
Health	
First aid/rescue	1.67
Hospices/hospitals/clinics	1.37
Specific diseases	1.53
Other Health	1.45
Social Services	
Child welfare	1.35
Elderly	1.36
Homeless	1.55
Mental handicap	1.44
Needy/poor	1.42
Physical/sensory handicap	1.36
Youth development	1.77
Counselling	1.60
Other social services	1.65
Environment	1.89
Community Development	1.89
Religion	2.76
International Activities	1.98

None of the causes explored was given a mean rating that would indicate little (3.5 up to 4.4) or no importance (4.5 up to 5.0) (Table 5.11). The cause given the highest rating of importance was child welfare in the social services general field. Public perception of the importance of this cause has increased since the 1994 survey, when it was placed fifth in rank order. The second highest rating was again given to causes

in the social services field – physical disability and the elderly. Both these causes were similarly highly placed in the rank of order of importance in the 1994 survey. Closely following in third place were hospitals/hospices/clinics in the general health field; this cause being first in order of importance in the 1994 survey.

Those causes accorded the lowest ratings of importance were religion related and culture and arts; these also being at the end of the rank ordering in the 1994 survey. Also towards the bottom, in terms of rated importance, was the sports and recreation field. The low rating of importance given here is noteworthy in view of the fact that this field is, in practice, the main beneficiary of volunteering and is also an important beneficiary of donations.

There are no significant differences between men and women, nor between the different age groups, in the ratings of importance given to different causes.

Personal Preferences for Particular Causes

When asked whether they had a particular preference for any one of the causes listed, over two-thirds of respondents (70%) said ‘yes’. People’s preferences varied greatly with no one cause being chosen by more than 20 per cent of respondents (Table 5.12).

Table 5.12 Percentage of Respondents Preferring Different Causes

Cause	N	%*
Culture & Arts	14	1.7
Sports & Recreation	27	3.3
Education & Research	18	2.2
Health		
First aid/rescue	9	1.1
Hospices/hospitals/clinics	114	13.8
Specific diseases	24	2.9
Medical research	86	10.4
Social Services		
Child welfare	164	19.8
Elderly	70	8.5
Homeless	27	3.3
Mental handicap	20	2.4
Needy/poor	43	5.2
Physical/sensory handicap	70	8.5
Youth development	20	2.4
Counselling	15	1.8
Employment	25	3.0
Environment	28	3.4
Community Development	8	1.0
Religion	9	1.1
International activities	35	4.2
Other	1	0.1

* Percentages based on n = 827: the number of respondents who indicated that they had a preference.

Three causes stand out above the others as being frequently preferred: child welfare (20%) in the social services field; and hospitals/hospices/clinics (14%), and medical research (10%) in the health field. With the exception of hospitals/hospices/clinics, these were also the causes most likely to be preferred in the 1994 survey.

Those causes least likely to be preferred include community development, religion related and first aid/rescue services.

Personal Preferences for Particular Voluntary Organisations

Not only did many respondents have particular preferences for certain causes, but over half (54%) also said that there were specific organisations for which they had a particular liking. Two reasons stand out as to why a respondent preferred one organisation over another (Table 5.13). The most frequently given reason was that it was the most deserving cause; this being cited by one-third of those with an expressed preference. The second outstanding reason was that the preferred organisation related to the needs of family or friends; this reason being given by one quarter of those with a preference. Among 13 per cent, the reason for their preference was that the organisation catered for the needs of children. Between them these three reasons account for close on three-quarters of all respondents who expressed a preference. These were also the reasons most frequently given in the 1994 survey.

The approach most frequently nominated as least likely to elicit a donation was the postal appeal (71%), followed by appeals in print (67%) and broadcast appeals (63%).

Table 5.13 Reasons for Preferring one Organisation Over Others

Reason	N	%*
<i>It's the most deserving cause</i>	207	32.8
<i>Relates to the needs of family/friends</i>	157	24.8
<i>Children are involved</i>	85	13.4
<i>Poor are involved</i>	34	5.4
<i>Know where the money goes</i>	34	5.4
<i>People who can't help themselves</i>	26	4.1
<i>Personal involvement</i>	25	4.0
<i>Other</i>	24	3.8
<i>The charity is a local one</i>	21	3.3
<i>Might need it myself sometime</i>	13	2.1
<i>The charity is well known</i>	6	0.9

* Percentages based on n = 632: the number who expressed a preference and gave a reason for the preference minus seven non-respondents.

Perceived Effectiveness of Different Types of Approach for Donations

In an attempt to explore the effectiveness of different types of approaches for money, respondents were presented with a list of approaches (17 in total plus an 'other' category) and asked to indicate those 'most likely to make you want to give money', and those 'least likely to make you want to give money'.

Being asked to buy a flower/other token got the highest number of nominations as one of the approaches most likely to make respondents want to give money; this being nominated by three-quarters of respondents (Table 5.14). In second place was being asked to sponsor someone in an event, with 70 per cent of respondents nominating this approach as one of those most likely to make them want to give money. In third and fourth place were raffle tickets/lines and church gate collections, with 64 per cent and 61 per cent of respondents respectively nominating these as among the approaches most likely to elicit donations.

Table 5.14 Effectiveness of Different Types of Approach for Donations

Type of Approach	Most likely to give (%)	Least likely to give (%)	Not mentioned (%)
Door-to-door collection	47.2	45.5	7.3
Raffle tickets / lines	63.5	24.9	11.6
Street collection / flag day	56.3	32.9	10.7
Sponsorship	69.9	20.3	9.8
Church gate collection	60.7	29.4	9.9
Collection box	36.8	48.2	15.0
Charity lotteries	38.9	45.3	15.8
Jumble sale / Sale of work	26.4	57.4	16.0
Charity shop	26.2	57.6	16.2
Greeting cards	51.8	35.6	12.4
Buying a flower / token	74.3	14.1	11.5
Bucket collection	33.8	52.2	14.1
Charity event	43.0	42.4	14.6
Radio / TV appeal	25.7	62.7	11.6
Appeal in print	19.8	67.0	13.2
Postal appeal	16.5	70.9	12.6
Telethon-type event	21.1	61.8	17.0
Other approach	3.8	24.6	71.5

In the case of seven of the 17 different approaches, there were significant differences between men and women in the extent to which they considered the particular approach as being most/least likely to make them want to give money (Table 5.14a). For example, in the case of the approach which was regarded as the most likely to elicit a donation – buying a flower/other token – it was women more than men who responded positively to this approach. In the case of postal appeals and appeals in print, which were seen as least likely to elicit a donation, it was men more than women who responded negatively to these approaches. In the case of three other approaches which were perceived as among those methods least likely to elicit a donation, it was men more than women who responded negatively; these approaches being jumble sale/sale of work, charity shop, charity greeting cards. Finally, men were also more likely than women to respond negatively to an approach to attend a charity event.

There were significant differences also between the different age groups in their response to nine of the 17 different approaches investigated (Table 5.14b); these differences being mainly in the way people in the youngest (18-29) and oldest (60-90) age groups responded compared with those in the middle-aged groups (30-39, 40-49, 50-59). Young people were less likely than all other age groups to respond

with a donation to door-to-door collections and church gate collections, while older people were less likely than others to respond to sponsorship, collection boxes, charity shops, greeting cards, bucket collections, charity events and telethon-type events.

Preferences for Local, National, Overseas Causes

When asked if they had any particular preference for giving to local, national or overseas causes, 58 per cent of respondents said 'yes'. Where respondents had a preference, local causes were by far the most likely to be preferred (81%). National causes were preferred over others by 12 per cent, while overseas causes were the preference among seven per cent. These figures are almost identical to those obtained in the earlier surveys.

There were different reasons for preferring local, national or overseas causes. Where local causes were preferred the most frequent reasons for the preference were belief that 'local needs should get priority' (39%) and a sense that 'you know where the money goes' (37%) (Table 5.15). The most frequent reasons for a preference for national causes were the sense of 'greater need' (27%) and being 'able to see the work being done' (21%). Where overseas causes were preferred the single, outstanding reason for the preference was the perception of 'greater need' (81%).

Table 5.15 Reasons for Preferences for Local, National and Overseas Causes

Reason	Local		National		Overseas	
	N	%*	n	%*	N	%*
Local needs should be a priority	207	38.5	7	9.0	0	0.0
You know where the money goes	201	37.4	11	14.1	3	7.0
Can see the work being done there	67	12.5	16	20.5	0	0.0
More of the money gets to the cause	3	0.6	7	9.0	0	0.0
Greater need	19	3.5	21	26.9	35	81.4
People locally also in need	28	5.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
Other	12	2.2	16	20.5	5	11.6
TOTAL	537		78		43	

* Non-respondents excluded.

Opinions on Administration Costs

In response to a question on acceptable administration costs, there were some respondents who felt that nothing from the money donated should be spent on administration (7%) (Table 5.16). The great majority, however, did allow for administration costs; these were clustered in three main groups of 1p–10p (26%), 11p–20p (28%) and 21p–30p (23%). The average acceptable level of administration costs was 20p per pound donated or, in other words, 80p per pound donated should go to the cause.

Table 5.16 Acceptable Administration Costs per Pound Donated

Costs per pound	N	%*
NIL	78	7.2
1p – 10p	279	25.7
11p – 20p	306	28.2
21p – 30p	253	23.3
31p – 40p	72	6.6
41p – 50p	82	7.6
51p – 60p	9	0.8
61p – 70p	0	0.0
71p – 80p	6	0.6
TOTAL	1085	100.00
Median costs per pound	20p	

- Percentages based on n = 1085: the number of respondents minus 96 non-respondents.

In the case of Irish voluntary organisations, the majority of respondents believed that at least 41p of each pound donated went to the cause; the main clusters being 41p–50p (32%) and 51p–60p (14%) (Table 5.17). A small minority believed that 81p or more went to the cause. The average amount per pound donated believed to get to the cause in the case of Irish organisations was 50p. Accordingly, the respondents perceived that Irish voluntary organisations spend two and a half times the acceptable level on administration costs.

Table 5.17 Perceptions of Amount per Pound Donated Received by Cause

Amount received by cause	Irish voluntary organisations		Overseas voluntary organisations	
	N	%*	n	%*
NIL	1	0.1	5	0.5
1p – 10p	35	3.4	59	6.1
11p – 20p	45	4.4	101	10.4
21p – 30p	81	8.0	176	18.1
31p – 40p	81	8.0	152	15.8
41p – 50p	320	31.5	270	27.8
51p – 60p	138	13.6	83	8.5
61p – 70p	94	9.3	40	4.1
71p – 80p	140	13.8	61	6.3
81p – 90p	42	4.1	10	1.0
91p – 100p	39	3.8	14	1.4
TOTAL	1016	100.0	971	100.0
Median	50p		40p	

*Non-respondents excluded from sample of 1181

In the case of overseas voluntary organisations, the amount going to the cause was perceived as being less than in the case of Irish organisations (Table 5.17). Ten per cent of respondents felt that only 11p–20p went to the cause, while almost one in five felt the cause only got 21p–30p. The most frequent perception was that 41p–50p went to the cause (28%). The average amount per pound donated believed to reach the cause, in the case of overseas voluntary organisations, was 40p. Accordingly, the respondents perceived that overseas organisations spend three times the acceptable level on administration costs.

Two other frequent, but more vague, suggestions were to remove political interference from funds distribution (27%), and to ensure more equitable distribution (26%). Over one-quarter of respondents felt that more of the money should be spent on health. Almost all of the remaining suggestions were concerned with allocating a greater amount of funds to particular groups in society, in particular the elderly (19%), people with handicaps (16%), the poor (15%), children (14%), the unemployed (12%), the homeless (11%), and young people (10%).

Views and Practice in Relation to the National Lottery

Thirty-nine per cent of respondents had bought National Lottery scratch cards in the month prior to interview, while 62 per cent had participated in the Lotto. Overall, 70 per cent of respondents had spent money, in one way or another, on the National Lottery in the month prior to interview.

When asked their views on the distribution of lottery funds, over half of the respondents (55%) indicated they were dissatisfied with how funds are distributed, 26 per cent said they were satisfied, while around one in five (19%) gave a ‘don’t know’ response. The percentage of respondents who were dissatisfied has increased significantly since the 1994 survey (47%) ($Z=3.77$; $P<.01$). As in the earlier survey, the most common cause of dissatisfaction was that funds were perceived as not being distributed fairly (21%) (Table 5.18). The next most frequent sources of dissatisfaction were that “you don’t know where the money goes” (17%) and a feeling that “the money is not being used as intended” (16%). Around one in 10 of those who were dissatisfied thought that too much of the lottery money went to the government, or felt there was political interference, or that the money was being spent on the ‘wrong causes’. In the earlier survey, a frequent source of dissatisfaction was that too much money was being given to sport (22%), but in the 1997/98 survey this complaint was much less common (4%).

When asked how they would like to see the National Lottery improved, a wide range of responses was obtained (Table 5.19). The most frequent suggestion, put forward by 38 per cent of dissatisfied respondents, was to publicise where the money goes. The second most frequent suggestion, given by 30 per cent of respondents, was to establish an independent committee to oversee the distribution of funds.

Table 5.18 Reasons for Dissatisfaction With Distribution of Lottery Funds

Reason	N	%*
<i>Funds not fairly distributed</i>	134	20.5
<i>Don't know where the money goes</i>	110	16.8
<i>Money not used as intended</i>	102	15.6
<i>Too much goes to government</i>	76	11.6
<i>There's political interference</i>	76	11.6
<i>Money going to wrong causes</i>	71	10.8
<i>Money not given to people in need</i>	46	7.0
<i>Too much goes to sport</i>	29	4.4
<i>Other reasons</i>	11	1.7
TOTAL	655	100

* Percentages based on n = 655: the number who expressed dissatisfaction and cited a reason for their dissatisfaction.

Table 5.19 Suggested Improvements for Distribution of National Lottery Funds

Suggested improvement	N	%*
<i>Publicise where money goes</i>	249	37.8
<i>Establish an independent committee</i>	199	30.2
<i>Remove political interference</i>	178	27.0
<i>Give more to health</i>	178	27.0
<i>Ensure more equitable distribution</i>	170	25.8
<i>Give more to the elderly</i>	128	19.4
<i>Give more to the handicapped</i>	106	16.1
<i>Give more to the poor</i>	98	14.9
<i>Give more for children</i>	94	14.3
<i>Reduce government involvement</i>	87	13.2
<i>Give more to the unemployed</i>	80	12.1
<i>Give more to the homeless</i>	69	10.5
<i>Give more to youth projects</i>	65	9.9
<i>Give more to education</i>	60	9.1
<i>Give more to other groups</i>	60	9.1
<i>Give more to sport</i>	41	6.2
<i>Give more for local development</i>	37	5.6
<i>Give more for the arts</i>	13	2.0
<i>Other suggestions</i>	11	1.7

*Percentages based on 659: the number of respondents who suggested at least one improvement. Up to three answers could be given.



CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND ISSUES

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this final chapter is to review the main findings of the study in relation to: the giving of money, the giving of time and attitudes towards giving. The chapter discusses the conclusions which may be reached and identifies the key issues to which the results give rise.

THE EXTENT OF DONATING

The findings show that the majority of people give in response to being approached (86%) and, typically, give several times in a month. Although the primary sources of funding for voluntary organisations are government grants and service fees, the findings show that a substantial amount is raised through individual giving; the estimated amount for February 1997-January 1998 being between £270.073 - £210.917 million. Apart from its financial significance, individual donating has an added value for voluntary organisations through helping them to maintain their independence.

Comparison of the percentages donating across the three surveys carried out to date reveals a significant drop from 1992(89%) to 1994 (85%) with a slight recovery in 1997/98 (87%). In the context of the 'Celtic Tiger' economy, with rising income and employment levels, the lack of significant positive change over time in the extent of donating must be a cause for concern.

Most donating is purely philanthropic in nature without direct material gain to the donor. However, of the top five most frequent means of prompted donating, two – raffle tickets/lines and charity lottery tickets – may be described as 'purchases' where there is at least the possibility of material gain to the donor.

The Extent of Planned Donating

If planned donating is defined as donating through regular set means such as pay-roll deduction schemes, covenants and standing orders, then the findings show that few Irish people (8%) give in this way. The level of planned giving has remained virtually unchanged since the first survey in 1992. Although the majority of respondents agree that 'as a citizen I have a moral obligation to give' (68%), this attitude does not translate into the kind of pro-active behaviour implied in planned giving and, as the findings show, most donating is not an active choice but a response to an approach. However, planned donating may be somewhat higher than the definition used in the study allows for. It may be, for example, that the purchase of

charity lottery tickets is planned and occurs in a regular way or that certain church gate collections occur at set times and are planned for by the donor.

Clearly, planned giving has many advantages for voluntary organisations in terms of financial management and planning and, accordingly, its promotion and facilitation are important issues. With regard to government support, although there have been some new initiatives since 1994 on tax relief for charities, there are still few incentives for donors for planned giving. Covenanting is one of the few tax-effective means of giving but it applies only in very limited circumstances and can be complicated to implement. Apart from incentives, there is also an issue of communication involved for voluntary organisations, as only a quarter of respondents had even heard of covenants; although this represents an improvement of five per cent from 1992 and 1994. Wider application of tax-relief for individual giving could do much to encourage planned giving but tax relief is not the only significant factor. Voluntary organisations themselves need actively to promote this way of giving and need to make it more accessible and easier to implement for donors.

The Amount People Give

The findings show that the average individual monthly prompted donation in 1997/98 was £7.17. Comparison of prompted donation size across the three surveys shows a significant drop from 1992 (£8.87) to 1994 (£7.31) and a further, though non-significant, decrease in 1997/98 (£7.17). When inflation is taken into account these decreases become even greater. While the figures for 1997/98 are based on data collected over a 12-month period in contrast to 1992 and 1994 when data were collected in one particular month (February), nevertheless the decreases in donation size over time must be a cause for concern. This is particularly so in the context of a thriving economy. It may be that people develop a sense of what is an 'acceptable donation size' and, if so, voluntary organisations need to ensure that this sense keeps pace with economic developments. This may be particularly important with the advent of the Euro coin which if it is seen as equivalent to present coinage could lead to a 20 per cent drop in donations.

The People Who Donate

Clearly, people cannot give what they have not got and, not surprisingly, there is a significant relationship between donation size and both the donor's personal and household gross income. Donating is also significantly related to the donor's perceived relative income level. However, differences in donation size cannot be attributed wholly to the amount of money the person has. If income were the only determinant then when there is a boom in the economy, as there is at present, an increase in donation size would be expected rather than the decreases observed from 1992 to 1994 and 1997/98. The findings give an indication of what other factors might be involved. For example, the findings show that the importance the donor attaches to religion is a significant influence on the amount of money given. This raises the question for voluntary organisations of how to maintain the spirit of giving in a climate where religious adherence is declining. But the strongest influence on donation size is the sense of moral obligation: people who agree that 'as a citizen I have a moral obligation to give' donate almost twice as much as those who do not

feel such an obligation. The sense of moral obligation is shown by the findings to be a powerful motivator but what it is and how it operates is not known. Further research is required to enable voluntary organisations answer such questions as: why do people feel such an obligation; what are its sources; what keeps it alive; is it changing; how do you encourage it?

Motivation for Donating

The findings show that if voluntary organisations want to attract donations they must demonstrate the worthiness of their cause. When asked why they donated, the most frequent reason given by donors was that the beneficiary was perceived as being 'a good cause'.

Voluntary organisations must also demonstrate that they are efficient and trustworthy. The major considerations for donors in deciding where to give their money are knowing the organisation, knowing the work being done and how the money is spent and knowing the people collecting the money. While the present study provides some clues as to why people donate, further in-depth exploration is required to provide a real understanding of the motivation to give.

While it is likely that motivation to give will be shown by further research to be complex and multifaceted, it should be noted that in the present study one-third of donors say that they were motivated to give simply because they were asked. It is important then for voluntary organisations to 'make the ask' and to take note of those ways of asking that are shown to be more likely to lead to a donation. However, account must also be taken of some findings which signal the danger of asking too often. Eighty per cent of respondents agreed that 'there are so many charities that it is difficult to decide which to give to'; although voluntary organisations can take some consolation from the fact that the percentage feeling this way is down from 1994 (85%). Half of the respondents agreed that 'I am tired of being asked to give money for all sorts of causes'. The danger of over-exploitation of people's willingness to give is also signalled by the finding that the majority of people (80%) feel that it is government which has the primary responsibility for social need and almost half of respondents (47%) feel that 'if the government were responsible there would be no need for charitable giving'.

The Effectiveness of Different Fundraising Approaches

Since most giving is not an active step but a matter of approach, the effectiveness of different approaches is an important issue for voluntary organisations. The effectiveness of different fundraising methods can be assessed in different ways: the numbers giving through the particular method; the absolute amount of money raised by the method; and the size of the average individual donation elicited by the method. The findings show that, as in previous surveys, the most frequent means of giving are the church gate collection (43% of donors), the street collection / flag day (30% of donors) and raffle tickets/lines (29% of donors). These are the traditional fundraising approaches and all involve personal contact between the fundraiser and the donor. The continued use of the church gate collection by voluntary organisations does not necessarily reflect proven effectiveness but instead may reflect ease of use, the availability of volunteers for fundraising and the fact that there is in some sense a

‘captive audience’. It is not possible from the present study to detect why more donors gave through the church gate collection than through any other means: it may be simply that the approach is made more frequently, or that the people collecting are more likely to be known to the donor or that there is a certain social pressure to give in these circumstances. Further more in-depth exploration is required to understand the process involved.

In terms of total amounts raised, the findings show that, as in previous surveys, the largest sums were raised by raffle tickets/lines (14% of total monies), the church gate collection (12% of total monies) and sponsorship and charity lottery tickets (9% each of total monies). It is of note that while the most frequent means of giving entail personal contact, the means which elicited the highest individual donations were appeals in print (mean donation £9.49), followed by postal appeals (mean donation £9.30) and broadcast appeals (mean donation £9.22).

Since the total amount raised by a particular means is a function both of the number of donors and the size of the donations made, voluntary organisations need to consider both factors when attempting to maximise the effectiveness of fundraising approaches. For example, in the case of the most frequent means of giving – the church gate collection–voluntary organisations need to consider the possibility of increasing the perception of what is an ‘acceptable’ donation. On the other hand, in those cases where the donation given is typically high but where the number of donors is low, such as appeals in print, voluntary organisations should consider how to widen the appeal of such approaches.

The Extent of Volunteering

The findings highlight the social and economic contribution to society of unpaid work. One-third of respondents were involved in voluntary activity; on average giving five hours per month. It can be estimated from the findings that between January 1997 and February 1998 volunteers contributed the equivalent of between 114,042 and 78,866 work years.

Comparison of the percentages volunteering across the three surveys reveals a decrease from 1992 (39%) to 1994 (35%) and a further drop in 1997/98(33%); the difference between 1992 and 1997/98 being statistically significant. In view of the widely acknowledged value of volunteering, this must be a cause of concern not only to voluntary organisations but also to government and the general public. It is not possible from the present study to detect the reasons for decreasing volunteering. It could be hypothesised that with the boom in the economy people have to work harder and for longer hours and no longer have time to spare or people have more opportunities for paid work or it could be a motivational issue. Further in-depth research is required to explore the factors involved.

While the percentage of people volunteering may be declining, commitment in terms of time given is not: the amount of time given in 1997/98 (5.07 hours) has not changed significantly from 1992 (5.03 hours) or 1994 (4.64 hours). For some people the commitment of time is very great, amounting to the equivalent of a week's work or more in the month. But, on average, the time involved is modest amounting to five hours per month.

The People Who Volunteer

The findings suggest that scope exists for drawing more people into voluntary work. At present those giving most time to volunteering are women, middle-aged people, people with higher levels of education, people in the upper social classes and people living in towns. People who are unemployed give less time than others. These results show that it is not necessarily those with the most time who volunteer. There may, however, be an economic issue involved in volunteering. One frequently touted value of voluntary activity is that it promotes social participation and inclusion. But results of the present study, which indicate that those who are less well-off volunteer less than others, cast some doubt on the current ability of voluntary work to perform this role. Voluntary organisations need to question whether they may be focusing on a particular pool of volunteers to the exclusion of others; whether they may be doing enough to allay fears among potential volunteers about being out-of-pocket; whether they are promoting volunteering in a way that maintains its traditional middle-class image.

Older people with their accumulated skills and experience are another group of potentially valuable volunteers who are currently under-represented in voluntary work. Volunteering among older people could be an area for fruitful collaboration between voluntary organisations and the private business sector through, for example, pre-retirement schemes and release schemes. Voluntary organisations must also give consideration to drawing people in the younger age group into the volunteering network. Of course, every voluntary organisation has its own history and ethos which will influence the type of volunteer they need to recruit and volunteers need to be matched with the job to be done. But, while taking such factors into account, the findings suggest that voluntary organisations need to be more proactive in making volunteering attractive to a wider range of people.

The Recruitment of Volunteers

As with the giving of money, 'being asked' is a major factor in the giving of time. Fifty-eight percent of the volunteers in the 1997/98 survey said they became involved in voluntary work because they were asked to do so while, on the other hand, 22 per cent of non-volunteers said they were not involved because they had never been asked. How voluntary organisations do the asking is, then, an important issue. At present, much of the asking is done through family, friends and neighbours, through meetings and through the church. While recruitment through word of mouth may be cost-effective and work well for many voluntary organisations, it needs to be considered whether this method of recruitment may exclude certain groups of potential volunteers. If voluntary organisations wish to widen the net of volunteers, they need to consider also using other potentially valuable routes into volunteering such as the workplace and the school. 'Doing the asking' in a way that draws in people other than the traditional female, middle aged, middle-class volunteer poses a challenge to voluntary organisations to be more proactive and more creative in their recruitment approaches.

There are several findings from the study which voluntary organisations could use to 'market' volunteering. The nature and range of the rewards experienced – both altruistic and personal – and the difference that voluntary work can make should be highlighted. Attempts to make volunteering attractive could also build on the

findings that few volunteers (10%) experience any dissatisfaction and when people give up volunteering they do so for reasons extraneous to the work such as new demands on their time or illness or other changes in their personal circumstances.

There is evidence from the study that a more proactive approach to recruitment by voluntary organisations might attract more of the 67 per cent who do not currently volunteer. The findings show, for example, that only a tiny minority (2%) expressed a distinct opposition to volunteering and 20 per cent of non-volunteers said they would volunteer in the future if asked, while a further one-third were unsure. The finding that over one-quarter of respondents were non-volunteers because they 'had never thought about it' challenges voluntary organisations to make people more aware of volunteering opportunities and to ask them to become involved. The findings show that the major obstacle to volunteering is not lack of belief in its value (apart from a tiny minority of 2%) but lack of spare time (52% of non-volunteers). In recruiting new volunteers it should be emphasised that the commitment required is not very great; typically being around five hours per month.

The finding that the percentage of non-volunteers who indicated that they would not volunteer in the future increased directly with increasing age points to the need for voluntary organisations to give more consideration to the issue of volunteering in older life. In order to use the skills and experience of this potentially large group of volunteers, voluntary organisations need to consider how to target older people and how to make volunteering an attractive option for them.

Attitudes Toward Giving

The findings show that the principle of donating is widely supported. For example, a large majority of the respondents disagreed with the statements 'I pay taxes why should I give to charity too' (73%) and 'people should look after themselves and not rely on charity' (64%). The majority of respondents feel a moral responsibility to give (68%). However, while people are willing to give, there is a widespread view that the primary responsibility for people in need lies with the government (80%).

It appears from the study that the effect of donating is more disputed than the principle of it with 29 per cent of respondents agreeing that 'charity reinforces helplessness' and 49 per cent agreeing that 'charity is a token gesture that does not cure the actual problem'. It must also be a cause for concern that only around half of respondents perceive charities as honest and 31 per cent are concerned about the accountability of such organisations. There is also a perception that voluntary organisations spend far more than is considered acceptable on administration costs (two and a half times and three times the acceptable level in the case of home-based and overseas organisations respectively).

The findings show that the principle of volunteering is also widely supported. For example, the majority of respondents (69%) agree that 'everyone has a moral responsibility to become involved sometime' and they feel that 'volunteers offer something different' (72%). However, around one-third of respondents feel that 'if the government were fulfilling all of its responsibilities there would be no need for volunteers' and there is some concern that 'volunteers replace paid workers' (33%).

Supporting Giving

The positive attitudes expressed by respondents provide support for voluntary organisations seeking to promote giving; whether this be the giving of money or the giving of time. In promoting giving, voluntary organisations must present themselves as honest, accountable and efficient and they must be open and accessible so the public can understand their work and their aims and objectives. But responsibility for the promotion of giving must not rest solely with voluntary organisations. If, as the findings of this and other studies indicate, individual giving makes a major contribution to society and serves to implement important social values, then its promotion and facilitation are also the responsibility both of private business and government. The private business sector needs to be more innovative in supporting the voluntary sector as it is, for example, in the United States where schemes have been developed to encourage and facilitate volunteering among employees and where financial assistance is more widely recognised as part of corporate social responsibility. Government has a critical role in promoting a positive image of giving and in facilitating it through appropriate legal and fiscal frameworks.

Giving is frequently seen as synonymous with 'charity', but the voluntary organisations which are the recipients of giving comprise a much wider range than charities and include, for example, self-help, community development, educational and sporting organisations. In this context, the relationship involved in giving cannot be seen solely in traditional terms as a 'gift' from the more advantaged to the disadvantaged but must include dimensions of equality and reciprocity.

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APPENDIX ONE

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

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Policy Research Centre
National College of Ireland
Sandford Road, Ranelagh, Dublin 6

INTRODUCTION

This survey is about people's views and experiences of charities. Giving to charity can mean either giving money or giving time in terms of voluntary activity. People have different opinions on the value of giving to charity and people also differ greatly with regard to the amount of time or money they can afford to give. This is the third National Survey in the Republic of Ireland on **CHARITABLE GIVING AND VOLUNTEERING** and is a very important study. All your answers will remain completely confidential and anonymous. We would be very grateful for your help and co-operation.

Schedule No

Card No

- Q1 Interviewer record whether:
1. Male 2. Female
- Q2.a Interviewer record area:
1. Urban 2. Town 3. Rural
- b. Interviewer record county _____
- c. Interviewer record month of interview _____

Charitable Giving

I'd like now to turn to your views and experiences on charitable giving. People can have very different views with regard to the value of giving money to charity and, even among those who do believe in its value, the amount they can afford to give can vary enormously. Sometimes, people want to give but simply do not get around to it. Some people give clothes or other goods rather than money but here we are focusing on giving money. We are talking here about giving to charitable organisations and not about giving directly to individuals such as people begging on the street.

- Q3.a Over the past 12 months have you made any donations to charity?
1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget/Don't know 4. Don't want to say
- b. In the last month (**month boundary prompt**) have you made any donations to charity?
1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget/Don't know 4. Don't want to say

If yes:

Focusing now on the past month, (**repeat month boundary prompt**) I want to ask you about the donations you made

Here is a list (**Present LIST 1: Approaches**) of different ways of giving to charity. Can I just check whether you have given through any of these means.

If no:

Here is a list (**Present LIST 1: Approaches**) of different ways of giving to charity. Can I just check whether you have given through any of these means.

- Q4 In the past month have you given in the following ways:

A. **DOOR-TO-DOOR COLLECTION**

- B. RAFFLE TICKETS/LINES**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?
- C. STREET COLLECTION / FLAG DAY**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?
- D. SPONSOR SOMEONE IN AN EVENT**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?
- E. CHURCH GATE / OR IN CHURCH COLLECTION BUT NOT FOR CHURCH**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?
- F. COLLECTION BOX (COLLECTION) IN PUB, SHOP, WORK, SCHOOL/COLLEGE**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?
- G. CHARITY LOTTERIES (not national lottery)**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?
- H. BUY IN A JUMBLE SALE / SALE-OF-WORK**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?
- I. BUY IN A CHARITY SHOP (E.G., SIMON)**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?
- J. BUY CHARITY GREETING CARDS**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?
- K. BUY FLOWERS OR SOME OTHER TOKEN FOR CHARITY (E.G. DAFFODIL DAY)**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?
- L. BUCKET COLLECTION**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?
- M. ATTEND CHARITY EVENT (E.G. FASHION SHOW / BRIDGE MORNING / ANTIQUE EVENING / CONCERT / RACE NIGHT / QUIZZES)**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?
- N. RADIO / TV APPEAL**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?
- O. APPEAL IN PRINT**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?
- P. POSTAL APPEAL**
How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?

time?

Q. TELETHON TYPE EVENT

How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?

R. OTHER (Specify)

How often did you give? How much did you give each time? To which charity did you give on each occasion?

S. Interviewer record total number of donations given: _____

T. Interviewer record number of means through which donations were given: ___

U. Interviewer record overall amount given: _____

Planned Giving

Some people prefer to plan the money they will give to **charity** rather than just give when asked to do so. I'd like to ask you now about your views on giving in a planned way.

Q5.a At present, do you have a bank standing order for any charity?

- 1. Yes 2. No → f

b. How many _____

c. For which charities Charity Amount

(record up to 3) _____

d. How much did you give to each in the **last month**? Total: _____

e. Why did you decide to give in this way?

f. Why do you not contribute in this way?

Q6.a Do you contribute to any charity through a pay-roll deduction scheme?

- 1. Yes 2. No → d 3. Not working → Q.7

b. Which charity is involved and how much did you give in the last month? Charity Amount

c. Why did you decide to give in this way? _____ → Q7

d. Why did you not contribute in this way? _____

e. If tax-relief were allowed on pay-roll deduction for charity, would that be important factor for you in deciding to give in this way?

- 1. Very important 2. Important 3. Not Sure 4. Not very important 5. Not at all important

Q7. a Have you heard of giving to charity by covenant?

- 1. Yes 2. No → 8

b. Did you contribute to any charity through covenant?

- 1. Yes 2. No → e

c. How much do you give **per month** and to which charity? (Record up to 2)

Amount Charity

d. Why did you decide to give through covenant?

e. Why do you not donate through covenant?

For all who made at least one donation during month

- Q8.a **(Present LIST 2: Reasons for giving)** These are some reasons why people give to charity: which three of them (if any) apply most to you?
- b. **(Present LIST 3: Factors taken into account)** Which three of the following factors (if any) do you take into account most when deciding which charities to give to?
- c. **For all who made no donation to charity during month**
Why did you make no donation to charity?

All Respondents

- Q9 Compared to others like yourself, do you think you give more, or less, or about the same to charity?
1. More 2. Less 3. About the same 4. Don't know
- Q10.a May I ask if you have made a will?
1. Yes 2. No → Q.11 3. Don't want to say → Q.11
- b. Does your will include any bequests to charity
1. Yes 2. No → (c) 3. Don't want to say → Q.11
- If No**
↓
- c. Would you consider making a bequest to charity?
1. Yes 2. No 3. Don't know
- If No**
- d. May I ask why not?
- _____
- _____

- Q11.a **Support of Priests, Ministers, Church**
In the past month, have you given money for the support of priests/ministers/church

Through church gate collections for church/clergy (during mass/service)

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget/Don't know

If yes:

How much did you contribute in the past month?: _____

- b. Through regular envelope collections e.g. (building funds)
1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget/Don't know

If yes:

How much did you contribute in the past month? _____

- c. Special Easter/Christmas or other Festival dues or offerings:
1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget/Don't know

If yes:

How much did you contribute in the past month? _____

- d. Through special offerings: candle/light stands, donation boxes in church, offerings for masses/services, christenings, funerals, weddings, or equivalent or any other means (but not for purchase of books in churches).

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget/Don't know

If yes:

How much did you contribute in the last month?: _____

Volunteering

I'd like now to ask you about your views and experiences of volunteering.

By voluntary work we mean any activity that is **unpaid** and is carried out **by free choice** for the **benefit of people, other than or in addition to yourself or your own immediate family, or for the benefit of animals or the environment.** These

activities may be carried out **through or with an organisation or group**, church group, society or association, sports club, self-help group, voluntary group. (Just being a member of an organisation or group doesn't count - what we're talking about here is the **activity** you carry out to help others for no monetary pay). These activities may also be carried out **on your own and not** arranged through an organisation or group.

Note for Interviewer: Activities for which the respondent is paid expenses or a small symbolic honorarium, but which are otherwise unpaid, count as voluntary work.

Q12 Thinking back over the past 12 months have you been involved in any voluntary work?

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget/don't know 4. Don't want to say

Q13 **(Present LIST 4:Activities) In the past month (repeat boundary prompt) have you been involved in the following activities?**

A. Visiting elderly (not family)

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget

1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?

Name of Organisation Amount of time

On Own Amount of time

B. Visiting the lonely/sick (not family)

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget

1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?

Name of Organisation Amount of time

On Own Amount of time

C. Caring for the elderly (not family)

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget

1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?

Name of Organisation Amount of time

On Own Amount of time

D. Caring for the lonely /sick (not family)

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget

1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?

Name of Organisation Amount of time

On Own Amount of time

E. Committee work / meetings

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget

1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?

Name of Organisation Amount of time

On Own Amount of time

F. Administrative / Secretarial

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget

1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?

Name of Organisation Amount of time

On Own Amount of time

G. Fundraising / including organisation of

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?

Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

H. Collecting things for charity

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?

Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

Distributing money / goods for charity

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?

Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

J. Campaigning/Advocacy

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?

Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

K. Providing transport

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?

Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

L. Supervising assisting/activities

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?

Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

M. Sports coach / official

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?

Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

N. Advising / counselling / guidance / psychotherapy
1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?
Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

O. Providing information
1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?
Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

P. Teaching / training / tutoring
1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?
Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

Q. Conserving / improving environment
1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?
Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

R. First Aid / Rescue Services
1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?
Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

S. Blood donor
1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?
Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

T. Baby-sitting
1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?
Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

U. Church helper
1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?

Name of Organisation Amount of time
On Own Amount of time

V. Other community activity

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?
Name of Organisation Amount of time

On Own Amount of time

W. Other

1. Yes 2. No 3. Forget
1. With organisation 2. On Own 3. Both

How much time was given and to whom?
Name of Organisation Amount of time

On Own Amount of time

Q13.x Interviewer record total amount of time given to volunteering?

- with organisation: _____
- on own: _____

y. Interviewer record total number of activities carried out:

- with organisation: _____
- on own: _____

Respondents not involved in any voluntary activity → Q.21.

Respondents involved in at least one voluntary activity but not through organisation → Q.18.

For respondents involved in at least one voluntary activity through/ within an organisation.

I want to ask you a few questions about the organisation with which you are involved - if you are involved with more than one answer the questions with regard to the organisation with which you are most involved.

Q14.a How long have you been doing this voluntary work?

b. How did you first learn about the opportunity for doing this work?

c. How did you get started in the organisation?
1. Applied/offered to help
2. Asked to help
3. Started the group myself
4. Other

Q15.a Were you asked to go for interview before beginning your voluntary work?
1. Yes 2. No

b. Were you given a job description when you started?
1. Yes 2. No

Q16.a Were you given any training/induction?

1. Yes 2. No
- b. Do you feel training was necessary?
1. Necessary
2. Fairly necessary
3. No necessary
- c. Do you feel the supervision, advice and support available to you has been adequate?
1. Adequate 2. Fairly Adequate
3. Not Adequate 4. None Available
- Q17 Do you incur any 'out of pocket' expenses in the course of your voluntary work?
1. Yes 2. No 3. Don't know
- If Yes:** Are these expenses reimbursed?
1. All 2. Some 3. None
- Q18 **(Present LIST 5: Reasons for involvement)** Which three of the following reasons for becoming involved in voluntary work (if any) apply most to you?
- Q19 **(Present LIST 6: Rewards for work)** Voluntary workers have identified the following rewards for voluntary work, which three of them (if any) apply most to you?
- Q20 Have you experienced any dissatisfaction or drawbacks in carrying out the voluntary work you do?
1. Yes 2. No
- If Yes**
- What causes dissatisfaction?
- All Respondents**
- Q21 Compared to others like yourself, would you say you are more or less involved in voluntary work or do you do about the same as others?
1. More involved 2. Less involved
3. About the same 4. Don't know
- Q22 Have you ever been involved in voluntary work and then given it up for some reason?
1. Yes 2. No
- If Yes**
- Why did you stop?

Non-Volunteers only

- Q23 **(Present LIST 7: Reasons for not being involved)**
People have given the following reasons for not engaging in voluntary work; which two of them (if any) apply most to you?
- Q24 Do you think you would like to volunteer in the future?
1. Yes 2. No 3. Don't know

General attitudes towards charitable giving and volunteering

- Q25 **(Present LIST 8: Responsibility)** It has been suggested that the following groups/institutions should take primary responsibility for people in need; which three of them (if any) do you think should take primary responsibility?
- Q26.a Do you have a preference for any particular **charity**?
- (Note for interviewer: it is the particular charity not the kind of approach that's of concern here.)**
1. Yes 2. No
- b. What is your preference (name of charity)?

- c. What is the reason for your preference?

Q27.a **Present LIST 1: Approaches**) Which of these **approaches or appeals** for donations are most likely to make you want to give money to charity?

(Note for interviewer: it is the approach not the charity/cause that's of concern here.)

b. Which of them are least likely to make you want to give money for charity? (**all approaches as in q4 to be listed here**)

Approaches	1. Most likely	2. Least likely
a. door to door collection		
b. Raffle tickets/lines		
c. Street collection/flag day		
d. Sponsor someone in an event		
e. Church gate/or in church collection but not for church		
f. Collection box (collection) in pub, shop, work, school/college		
g. Charity lotteries		
h. Buy in a jumble sale/sale-of-work		
i. Buy in a charity shop (eg. Simon)		
j. Buy charity greetings cards		
k. Buy flowers or some other token for charity (eg. Daffodil day)		
l. Bucket collection		
m. Attend charity event (eg. fashion show/bridge morning/antique evening/concert/race night/quizzes		
n. Radio/TV appeal		
o. Appeal in print		
p. Postal appeal		
q. Telethon type even		
r. Others (specify)		

Q28.a Do you have any particular preference for giving to local, national or overseas charities?
1. Yes 2. No

If Yes

- b. What's your first preference?
c. What's the reason for your preference?

Q29.a For every pound donated what would you consider an acceptable amount to be spent on administration and other expenses?

- b. With regard to Irish-based charities, for every pound donated, how much do you think actually gets to the needy cause?
c. With regard to overseas charities, for every pound donated, how much do you think actually gets to the needy cause?

Q30 **(Present LIST 9: Opinions) The following statements describe different opinions which have been expressed on charitable giving and volunteering. For each statement, please say how much you agree or disagree with the opinion expressed.**

STATEMENT	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I am tired of being asked to give money for all sorts of causes	1	2	3	4	5
There are so many charities that it is difficult to decide which to give to	1	2	3	4	5
Charity is a token gesture that does not solve the actual problem	1	2	3	4	5
Charities are honest in their use of donated funds	5	4	3	2	1
Charities are sufficiently accountable to the public for how donated money is spent	5	4	3	2	1
Charities are less trustworthy than political parties	1	2	3	4	5

Charities are more trustworthy than trade unions	5	4	3	2	1
Charities are less trustworthy than big business	1	2	3	4	5
People should look after themselves and not rely on charity	1	2	3	4	5
I pay taxes, why should I give to charity, too	1	2	3	4	5
Charity reinforces helplessness	1	2	3	4	5
The need for charitable giving is greater now than five years ago	1	2	3	4	5
Government has the principal responsibility for taking care of those in need	1	2	3	4	5
As a citizen, I feel a moral obligation to give	5	4	3	2	1
Charitable giving is a thing of the past	1	2	3	4	5
If the government were more responsible there would be no need for charitable giving	1	2	3	4	5
People involved in charitable work are 'do-gooders' without real understanding of people in need	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers offer something different which could not be provided by paid professionals	5	4	3	2	1
If the government fulfilled all its responsibility there would be no need for volunteers	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers replace paid workers	1	2	3	4	5
Everyone has a moral responsibility to become involved sometime	5	4	3	2	1
Organisations using volunteers are usually amateurish	1	2	3	4	5

Q31a How much did you spend in the last month on National Lottery scratch cards?

b. How much did you spend in the last month on National Lottery tickets (loto)?

Q32a Are you satisfied with the way National Lottery funds are distributed?

1. Satisfied 2. Dissatisfied 3. Don't know 4. Other

If Dissatisfied

b. **(Present LIST 10: Reasons for dissatisfaction with National Lottery)**
 People have given the following reasons for being dissatisfied with the National Lottery; which one of them (if any) applies most to you?

c. **(Present LIST 11: What needs to be done to improve National Lottery)**
 People have suggested that the following things need to be done to improve the National Lottery; which three of them (if any) applies most to you?

33. **(Present LIST 12: Importance of causes)**
Here is a list of different kinds of charitable causes. For each one listed, please tell me how important a cause you think it is.

Charitable Cause	Very Important	Important	Not Sure	Not very Important	Not at all Important
Supporting the arts	1	2	3	4	5
Helping children	1	2	3	4	5

Protecting the environment	1	2	3	4	5
Helping animals/birds/fish	1	2	3	4	5
Medical research	1	2	3	4	5
Helping people with physical disabilities	1	2	3	4	5
Helping people with learning disabilities	1	2	3	4	5
Sport and recreation	1	2	3	4	5
Disaster relief	1	2	3	4	5
Youth development	1	2	3	4	5
Hospitals/hospice/clinics	1	2	3	4	5
Housing/providing shelter	1	2	3	4	5
Helping elderly people	1	2	3	4	5
Helping people with psychological problems	1	2	3	4	5
Life-saving/first-aid/rescue services	1	2	3	4	5
Creating employment	1	2	3	4	5
Schools	1	2	3	4	5
Colleges/universities	1	2	3	4	5
Community improvement	1	2	3	4	5
Helping people with specific diseases	1	2	3	4	5
Helping the poor	1	2	3	4	5
*Third World development aid	1	2	3	4	5
Women's organisations	1	2	3	4	5
Religious organisations	1	2	3	4	5
Other (please specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5

(Present LIST 12 again)

- Q34.a Do you have a particular preference yourself for any of these causes?
 1. Yes 2. No
- b. Which one?

Socio-Economic Background

Can I ask you now some final questions about yourself and your household?

- Q35a How many people are living in this household? _____
 (include those living outside home for educational reasons)
- b How many are less than eighteen years old? _____
 (include those living outside home for educational reasons)
- c How many are economically independent? _____
- d How many are economically dependent? _____
 (include those living outside home for educational reasons)

- Q36 Are you:
 1. Married 2. Single 3. Widowed
 4. Divorced/Separated 5. Other

- Q37 Can you tell me your age? _____

- Q38 Do you have a preference for any political party?
 1. Yes 2. No 3. Prefer not to say

- 39 If Yes: What is the name of the Party? _____
 Are you:

1. Working outside the home full-time → Q.40
 2. Working outside the home part-time → Q.42
 3. Unemployed → Q.41
 4. Retired → Q.41
 5. Working within the home full-time → Q.43
 6. Full-time student → Q.44
 7. Sick/Disability → Q.41

For Respondents Working Outside the Home Full-time
 (include those temporarily out of work because of sickness)

- Q40 What is the exact nature of your job

If respondent is a farmer/ farm manager establish whether farm is 50 acres or more, or less than 50 acres.

→ Q.44

Respondents who are unemployed /retired/ sick/ disabled

Q41.a Have you previously been in paid employment?

1. Yes 2. No

b. If yes: What did you work at when employed?

Record Occupation in detail

c. Is there another wage earner in the household?

1. Yes 2. No

If yes: Record chief earners' occupational details

d. **If no:** Are you entirely dependent on State Unemployment benefit/pension?

1. Yes 2. No → Q.44

For Respondents Working Outside the home part-time

Q42.a What is the nature of your job?

b. Are you the chief earner in the household?

1. Yes 2. No

If No: What is the nature of the chief earners' job?

→ Q.44

Respondents Working Within the Home

Q43.a Is your spouse/partner?

1. In paid employment 2. Unemployed → (c) and
3. Deceased → (c)

b. What does s/he work at?

Record Occupation in detail

→ Q.44

c. What did your spouse/partner work at?

Record Occupation in detail

→ Q.44

Q44 At what stage did you finish your full-time education?

1. Primary certificate
2. Group certificate
3. Intermediate certificate
4. Leaving certificate
5. Third-level certificate/diploma
6. Third-level degree
7. Currently in full-time education

Q45 **(Present LIST 13: Income)**

Could you tell me in what bracket does your **own** gross weekly income from all sources fall?

- | | | |
|------------------|----------------|----------------|
| 1. less than £50 | 2. £50 - £75 | 3. £76 - £100 |
| 4. £101 - £150 | 5. £151 - £200 | 6. £201 - £300 |
| 7. £301 - £400 | 8. £401 - £500 | 9. £501 - £600 |

10. £601 - £1,000 11. more than £1,000

Q46 (Present LIST 13: Income)

Could you tell me what gross weekly income bracket applies to your **household**, thinking of all sources of income for all members of the household?

1. less than £50 2. £50 - £75 3. £76 - £100
 4. £101 - £150 5. £151 - £200 6. £201 - £300
 7. £301 - £400 8. £401 - £500 9. £501 - £600
 10. £601 - £1,000 11. more than £1,000

Q47 (Present LIST 14: Disposable Income)

After paying for whatever regular expenses you have, what would you say is your **personal** weekly disposable income?

1. £5 or less 2. £6 - £10 3. £11 - £25
 4. £26 - £30 5. £31 - £40 6. £41 - £50
 7. £51 - 75 8. £76 - £100 9. £101 - £150
 10. £151 - £250 11. £251 - £500 12. more than £500

Q48 (Present LIST 14: Disposable Income)

If you subtracted your household's regular commitments - eg. mortgage/rent, rates, pension, insurance etc from the household's weekly income, what would you say is the **households** weekly disposable income?

1. £5 or less 2. £6 - £10 3. £11 - £25
 4. £26 - £30 5. £31 - £40 6. £41 - £50
 7. £51 - 75 8. £76 - £100 9. £101 - £150
 10. £151 - £250 11. £251 - £500 12. more than £500

Q49 Compared to others, how would you describe your income level?

1. Very High 2. High 3. Medium
 4. Low 5. Very low 6. Other/don't know

Q50 Do you ever worry about having enough money?

1. Very often 2. Often 3. Sometimes
 4. Rarely/Never

Q51.a May I ask your religion?

1. Catholic 2. Protestant 3. Jewish
 4. Muslim 5. Quaker 6. Other Specify _____
 7. None → Q.53

b. How important would you say religion is in your life?

1. Very important
 2. Fairly important
 3. Not important

Present LIST 15: Organisational membership

Q52 Please read the following list of kinds of voluntary organisations and tell me which ones (if any) you belong to

Type of Organisation	Belong To	
	Yes	No
1. Culture, music, art association	Yes	No
2. Sport club	Yes	No
3. Recreational club, (Rotary club etc.) fraternity, social club	Yes	No
4. Youth club (scouts, guides)	Yes	Yes
5. Educational and scholarly association, Parent-Teach Association	Yes	No
6. Social welfare association, (Red Cross)	Yes	No
7. Health related association	Yes	No
8. Environmental association, (Greenpeace, etc.), animals	Yes	No
9. Housing association, tenant association	Yes	No
10. Local community group, citizen initiative	Yes	No
11. Human rights group, peace group, justice	Yes	No
12. Political party	Yes	No
13. Civic association, women's group	Yes	No
14. International friendship association	Yes	No
15. Religious organisation, church related group	Yes	No

16. Professional association, business group	Yes	No
17. Union	Yes	No
18. Other	Yes	No

Q53 Total value of donations to charity according to self-completion questionnaires

Thank you for your help and co-operation

Q54a Have you heard of the National College of Industrial Relations?
 1. Yes 2. No 3. Not sure

If Yes

b. Do you know what the College does?

c. What's your opinion of what the College does?

APPENDIX TWO ADDITIONAL TABLES

Table 4.15a How men and women find out about voluntary work

Routes		Male	Female
<i>Family</i>	n	18	17
	%	18.8	12.4
<i>Friends</i>	n	11	29
	%	11.5	21.2
<i>Neighbours</i>	n	5	11
	%	5.2	8.0
<i>Church / religious</i>	n	8	18
	%	8.3	13.1
<i>Organisation member</i>	n	25	16
	%	26.0	11.7
<i>School</i>	n	1	11
	%	1.0	8.0
<i>Through paid work</i>	n	5	3
	%	5.2	2.2
<i>Literature distributed by organisation</i>	n	1	4
	%	1.0	2.9
<i>Meeting by organisation</i>	n	10	15
	%	10.4	10.9
<i>Papers / Radio / Television</i>	n	1	7
	%	1.0	5.1
<i>Other</i>	n	11	6
	%	11.5	4.4
TOTAL	n	96	137

Chi Square (Pearson) 27.44, df 10, p<.0022; Cramer's V 0.34, P<.002

Table 4.15b Routes into volunteering among different age groups

Routes		Age Categories						
		18-24	25-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	70-90
<i>Family</i>	n	2	1	8	11	7	3	2
	%	12.5	6.3	20.0	14.9	15.9	13.0	13.3
<i>Friends</i>	n	4	5	6	16	7	2	
	%	25.0	31.3	15.0	21.6	15.9	8.7	
<i>Neighbours</i>	n		2	1	2	3	4	4
	%		12.5	2.5	2.7	6.8	17.4	26.7
<i>Church/religious</i>	n		2	2	5	7	4	4
	%		12.5	5.0	6.8	15.9	17.4	26.7
<i>Organisation member</i>	n	3	2	10	17	5	2	
	%	18.8	12.5	25.0	23.0	11.4	8.7	
<i>School</i>	n	4	1	2	4	1		
	%	25.0	6.3	5.0	5.4	2.3		
<i>Through paid work</i>	n		1	1	1	3	2	
	%		6.3	2.5	1.4	6.8	8.7	
<i>Literature distributed by organisation</i>	n			2	3			
	%			5.0	4.1			
<i>Meeting by organisation</i>	n	2	1	3	7	7	3	2
	%	12.5	6.3	7.5	9.5	15.9	13.0	13.3
<i>Papers/Radio/Television</i>	n	1	1	1	3	2		
	%	6.3	6.3	2.5	4.1	4.5		
<i>Other</i>	n			4	5	2	3	3
	%			10.0	6.8	4.5	13.0	20.0
TOTAL		16	16	40	74	44	23	15

Chi Square (Pearson) 79.81 df 60, p<.0456; Cramer's V 0.24, P<.045

Table 4.25a Whether would volunteer in the future by gender

		Male	Female
<i>Yes</i>	n	70	86
	%	18.6	21.0
<i>No</i>	n	190	187
	%	50.5	45.7
<i>Don't know</i>	N	116	136
	%	30.9	33.3
TOTAL		376	409

Chi Square (Pearson) 1.87 df 2, p<.3930; Cramer's V 0.05, P<.393

Table 4.25b Whether would volunteer in future by age categories

Routes		Age Categories						
		18-24	25-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	70-90
<i>Yes</i>	n	23	17	43	37	25	9	1
	%	34.8	29.3	30.9	22.0	25.0	8.9	0.7
<i>No</i>	n	12	13	39	57	46	75	128
	%	18.2	22.4	28.1	33.9	46.0	74.3	95.5
<i>Don't know</i>	n	31	28	57	74	29	17	5
	%	47.0	48.3	41.0	44.0	29.0	16.8	3.7
TOTAL		66	58	139	168	100	101	134

Chi Square (Pearson) 228.16 df 12, p<.00; Cramer's V 0.39, P<.000

Table 5.14a Significant differences between men and women in perceived effectiveness of different approaches

Approach	Effectiveness	Men		Women		Significance level*
		N	%	n	%	
<i>Buy flower/token</i>	Most likely	343	66.7	535	80.2	0.00000
	Least likely	103	20.0	64	9.6	
	Not mentioned	68	13.2	68	10.2	
<i>Jumble Sale/ Sale of Work</i>	Most likely	81	15.8	231	34.6	0.00000
	Least likely	351	68.4	328	49.2	
	Not mentioned	81	15.8	108	16.2	
<i>Charity shop</i>	Most likely	90	17.5	220	33.0	0.00000
	Least likely	336	65.4	344	51.6	
	Not mentioned	88	17.1	103	15.4	
<i>Greeting cards</i>	Most likely	223	43.5	389	58.3	0.00000
	Least likely	222	43.3	199	29.8	
	Not mentioned	68	13.3	79	11.8	
<i>Charity event</i>	Most likely	180	35.0	328	49.2	0.00001
	Least likely	250	48.6	251	37.6	
	Not mentioned	84	16.3	88	13.2	
<i>Print appeal</i>	Most likely	78	15.2	156	23.4	0.00206
	Least likely	363	70.6	428	64.2	
	Not mentioned	73	14.2	83	12.4	
<i>Postal appeal</i>	Most likely	65	12.6	130	19.5	0.00317
	Least likely	374	72.8	463	69.4	
	Not mentioned	75	14.6	74	11.1	

Table 5.14b Significant differences in perceived effectiveness of different approaches among different age groups

Approach		18-29		30-39		40-49		50-59		60-90		Cramers V
<i>Door-to-door collection</i>	Most likely	67	40.9	83	47.7	150	56.0	91	55.8	149	50.2	
	Least likely	97	59.1	91	52.3	118	44.0	72	44.2	148	49.8	0.10482*
<i>Sponsorship</i>	Most likely	132	82.5	151	85.3	211	83.4	133	80.6	178	63.6	
	Least likely	28	17.5	26	14.7	42	16.6	32	19.4	102	36.4	0.21073**
<i>Church gate collection</i>	Most likely	85	54.1	108	62.8	161	63.1	119	74.4	232	79.7	
	Least likely	72	45.9	64	37.2	94	36.9	41	25.6	59	20.3	0.19713**
<i>Collection box</i>	Most likely	95	62.1	73	44.5	115	47.5	63	40.9	82	31.4	
	Least likely	58	37.9	91	55.5	127	52.5	91	59.1	179	68.6	0.19994**
<i>Charity shop</i>	Most likely	45	30.8	53	32.5	95	39.6	47	31.1	63	24.1	
	Least likely	101	69.2	110	67.5	145	60.4	104	68.9	198	75.9	0.12042**
<i>Greeting cards</i>	Most likely	96	62.3	106	62.7	155	62.2	99	62.7	140	51.1	
	Least likely	58	37.7	63	37.3	99	37.8	59	37.3	134	48.9	0.10319*
<i>Bucket collection</i>	Most likely	75	49.7	63	38.7	110	45.3	66	42.0	76	28.0	
	Least likely	76	50.3	100	61.3	133	54.7	91	58.0	195	72.0	0.16010**
<i>Charity event</i>	Most likely	102	66.7	88	54.0	138	57.7	89	56.0	81	30.5	
	Least likely	51	33.3	75	46.0	101	42.3	70	44.0	185	69.5	0.26040**
<i>Telethon-type event</i>	Most likely	41	28.3	54	34.6	75	31.3	34	22.7	42	16.2	
	Least likely	104	71.7	102	65.4	165	68.8	116	77.3	217	83.8	0.15780**

* Significance level: 0.05 – 0.01

** Significance level: greater than 0.01