

Examining the Role of Volunteers in Community-Based
Restorative Justice Programs

by

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ABSTRACT

A survey study was conducted to investigate volunteerism in community-based restorative justice (RJ) programs. Participants were 76 active volunteers from 12 RJ programs throughout British Columbia. A descriptive model was presented to explore the relation between constructs relevant to volunteerism in RJ at three stages of the volunteer process. The aims of the study were to: (1) document the demographic characteristics of RJ volunteers; (2) examine the factors that motivate individuals to initiate and sustain RJ service; (3) examine the skills and qualifications of volunteers, and the quality and level of training they receive; and (4) determine how volunteers' experiences affect their satisfaction with their volunteer role and persistence in the organization. Results indicated that RJ volunteers were generally a homogeneous group, comprising of women and older community members of high socioeconomic status. Age was found to be an important factor in determining volunteers' motivations. The quality of training that volunteers received, as opposed to quantity, contributed to volunteers' perceptions of their own effectiveness in RJ. Finally, volunteers were generally satisfied with their roles, and this was associated with their intentions to sustain service in the RJ program. These findings have implications for RJ volunteer recruitment, training, and retention. First, informal recruitment methods have been unsuccessful thus far in attaining a wider, more inclusive resource base. Second, training curriculums may be more effective by incorporating role-specific tasks and training techniques, and covering a broader range of topics. Third, by

continuing to facilitate positive experiences with RJ programs, we can expect to retain volunteers for longer periods.

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Dedication

Dedicated to my family and friends,
for without their support and encouragement, this would not have been possible.

Chapter I – INTRODUCTION

Millions of Canadians volunteer their time to charitable and nonprofit organizations each year. In 2000, 6.5 million people contributed a total of 1.05 billion hours, an equivalent to 549 000 full-time jobs (Statistics Canada, 2000). The government has increased pressure on the nonprofit sector to broaden its service delivery to help alleviate national debt (Phillips, n.d.) and thus, the issue of engaging citizens in civic participation has become paramount. This is especially true in the legal sector, as community-based justice initiatives have gained considerable recognition. In light of the success of restorative justice (RJ) programs, they persistently face obstacles in obtaining financial support to launch and sustain programs, in creating partnerships with funding and referral agencies, and in recruiting, training and retaining volunteers (Dhami & Joy, in press). While each of these components are vital to a program's success, the volunteer aspect is arguably the most crucial: Volunteers form the foundation of these grassroots *community-based* justice initiatives, and are a valuable resource because funding for RJ programs is often scarce.

Growing interest in civic participation has spurred a breadth of research on volunteerism in psychology and other related disciplines. Much of the research in this tradition has investigated helping in various contexts and across a broad range of activities. Research on volunteerism in RJ is of particular value because relatively little is known about RJ volunteers and how they contribute to the justice process. The findings of such research can assist in providing recommendations for effective volunteer recruitment, training and retention in RJ.

The present paper examines volunteerism in community-based RJ programs. The paper begins with a brief history of the Canadian criminal justice system (CJS), followed by an evaluation of its practices. Next, an overview of RJ is presented, and three prominent models that operate under RJ principles and their proposed benefits are discussed. The proceeding section looks at past psychological research on volunteerism, focusing primarily on volunteers' characteristics, motivations, and skills and training. Following the literature review, the aims of the research are outlined, and a conceptual model exploring the relation between constructs relevant to volunteerism in RJ is presented. The subsequent chapters describe the methodology employed in the study, and provide a description of the analyses conducted that address the study's aims. The final chapter presents the findings and discusses their implications.

Chapter II – LITERATURE REVIEW

The Traditional Criminal Justice System

History

Prior to the 1960s, corrections and sentencing was marked by great optimism. The prevalent theme of rehabilitation rested on the assumption that antisocial behaviour had distinct underlying causes that could be treated (Cullen & Gendreau, 2001). The commitment to unveil root causes of criminality became known as the “medical model” of justice, and was reflected in the sentencing policies of its time. Indeterminate and discretionary release sanctions aimed at ‘individualizing’ intervention were imposed, thereby rendering offenders’ release dependent on their rehabilitative success.

The rehabilitative ideal was shattered in the following decade, however, by a series of evaluation studies that contested the effectiveness of various treatment programs (Lipton, Martinson, & Wilks, 1975; Whitehead & Lab, 1989). As Martinson (1974) concluded, “with few and isolated exceptions the rehabilitative efforts that have been reported so far have had no appreciable effects on recidivism” (p. 25). While his review suffered a number of methodological flaws (see Cullen & Gendreau, 2001; Haas & Alpert, 1989; MacKenzie, 2001), Martinson’s eminent claim that “nothing works” in corrections had a ripple effect. Rehabilitative efforts became perceived as a misguided effort, and trust in the justice system to reform offenders diminished. Attention shifted to accountability, and eventually redirected correctional philosophy to a retributive model of justice. Under the theory of *just deserts*, justice was carried out so that punishment was commensurate with the offender’s degree of blameworthiness (Darley, Carlsmith, & Robinson, 2000).

Determinate sentencing became prevalent under the retributive model, with the aim of controlling crime through incapacitation and deterrence. The argument for imprisonment strategies was twofold. First, prisons removed offenders from the community, thus incapacitating them from the ability to commit further crime (Barnett, 2003). Second, the threat of incarceration served to deter offenders from committing future offences (Griffiths & Verdun-Jones, 1994). Detainment also served as a general deterrence by reminding *potential* lawbreakers of the consequences of crime (Griffiths & Verdun-Jones). These “get tough on crime” strategies aimed to restore public confidence in the justice system, and demonstrate to the public that crime was taken seriously. This reform has fueled the public’s demand for the punitive responses to crime that exist today.

Contemporary Justice Practices

When a crime is committed, it is identified as a violation of the law and becomes a conflict between the accused and the State (Bonta, Wallace-Capretta, & Rooney, 1998). In Canada, adult offenders are prosecuted under the provisions of the Canadian Criminal Code, and if found guilty of an offence, retribution is sought through prescribed sentencing standards. As stated by the Canadian Sentencing Commission (1987, p. 151), the fundamental principles of sentencing are to maintain a “just, peaceful and safe society, [while preserving] the authority of and promoting respect for the law through the imposition of just sanctions.” Thus far, the traditional system has relied on incarceration to achieve the aims of sentencing jurisprudence which include separation, deterrence, denunciation, and rehabilitation (Griffiths & Verdun-Jones, 1994).

Cullen and Gendreau (2001) posit that failure to provide adequate intervention may actually *increase* the propensity for an offender to re-offend. Thus, to say that prisons are effective requires not only their ability to prevent further offences, but also their ability to rehabilitate offenders to become productive, law-abiding citizens upon release (Lowenstein, 1979). When considering the profound costs associated with re-arrests and re-vocational hearings, and the further potential harm to victims and the community, it becomes apparent that corrections and sentencing policies need to be reevaluated.

Shortcomings of the Traditional System

It is now widely recognized that imprisonment and lengthy sentences have minimal impact in deterring crime and reducing recidivism (Andrews & Bonta, 1998; Andrews et al., 1990; Gendreau & Goggin, 1996). In fact, Bonta, Ruge and Dauvergne (2003) conducted a two-year follow-up study on Canadian Federal offenders who were released during the fiscal years between 1994 and 1997, and found that the reconviction rates for each cohort was 44%, 42.8% and 40.6%. These findings suggest that incarcerating offenders to achieve sentencing objectives has only a minimal and temporary effect.

During judicial proceedings, victims and offenders are represented by justice professionals (e.g., prosecutors and defense attorneys, respectively). The onus is on the State to prove the offender's guilt, and blame casting becomes the key focus of this battle. This approach has been criticized, however, as being too "past-oriented," as fixation on *what happened* and *who is responsible* encumbers "forward-looking," constructive solutions to crime (Zehr, 1995). Braithwaite (2000) further cautions that

stigmatization “increases the attractiveness of criminal subcultures” (p. 287), suggesting that labeling offenders may actually *reinforce* their criminal behaviour.

Victims’ rights advocates have also criticized the system for being too “offender-focused” in that it often renders victims powerless and marginalized in judicial proceedings (Zehr, 2002). Christie (1977) describes this as “dual victimization,” declaring that victims not only suffer from the harms of the actual crime, but are further besieged by the neglect and trauma they experience through the justice process. Although Victim-Impact Statements were mandated in 1995, affording victims the right to convey the harms they suffered as a result of crime before the court, the decision-making process still ultimately rests in the hands of the judge. Thus, the extent to which victims influence the judicial process is unclear.

From an economic standpoint, critics contend that escalating costs associated with the rapid rise in prison populations are no longer sustainable (Umbreit, 1998). While the United States has by far the highest imprisonment rate among Western democracies (686/100,000), Canada is ranked third with its rate at approximately 102 inmates per 100,000 population (Motiuk, Boe, & Nafekh, 2003), and it is predicted that the federal prison population will increase 50% over the next decade (The Church Council on Justice and Corrections, 1996). With annual operational costs for adult correctional services exceeding two billion dollars (Statistics Canada, 1999), investing more resources in penal institutions is not a tenable approach, as it runs the risk of serving to “warehouse” offenders. Furthermore, by focusing exclusively on institutional interventions, the issues of rehabilitation and crime prevention are overlooked.

Potential Solutions

In 1996, the Canadian Criminal Code was amended to reduce the use of prison as a sanction, and expand community-based alternatives (Statistics Canada, 1999). Bill C-41 introduced the conditional sentence that enabled offenders to serve custodial terms under community supervision, and was aimed at reducing the high incarceration rate of non-violent, low-risk offenders, who represented approximately 48% of federal inmates and 83% of provincial inmates (Correctional Service Canada, 2001).

Another purpose of the Bill was to encourage the system to consider the unique circumstances of offenders in sentencing, especially with regards to aboriginal people. The number of incarcerated aboriginals is largely disproportionate to their representation in the community, such that while aboriginals account for only 2% of the total population, they represent 17% of inmates in federal institutions and 19% of inmates in provincial and territorial prisons (Correctional Service Canada, 2001).

The *R. v. Gladue* case highlighted the problem of the systemic discrimination of aboriginals in the CJS, and provided the first interpretation of section 718.2 (e) of the Criminal Code of Canada, which states: “all available sanctions other than imprisonment that are reasonable in the circumstances should be considered for all offenders, with particular attention to the circumstances of aboriginal offenders” (Canadian Sentencing Commission, 1987, p. 151). An important implication of this statement is that crime may reflect broader historical and social hardships. Perhaps a more promising solution to ameliorating the problem of aboriginal incarceration then is to address the economic and social crises that aboriginals face, while assisting them in reconnecting with their communities.

A New Direction

The Canadian CJS has undergone a myriad of reforms in the past two decades. The long-standing debate as to whether the traditional system alone is the most viable and cost-effective response to crime has initiated the pursuit of alternative measures. Community-based restorative justice programs have emerged as an innovative response to crime and victimization, and are progressively being incorporated into criminal justice systems worldwide (Miers, 2001). In Canada, there are approximately 191 RJ programs in operation to date, 59 of which are located in British Columbia (Umbreit, Coates, & Vos, 2002). While RJ initiatives continue to expand, however, the factors that contribute to the success of these programs remains to be seen.

In order to effectively resolve the harms caused by crime, three components are required: the injustice needs to be acknowledged, equity needs to be restored, and future intentions need to be addressed (Zehr, 2002). While traditional justice practices address the first component, RJ has the potential to resolve all three. The next section provides an overview of RJ and discusses some of its benefits.

Restorative Justice

What is Restorative Justice?

Restorative justice is a paradigm shift in the criminal justice system, in that it is a shift from a retributive to a restorative model of justice. In contrast to the traditional system that regards crime as an offence against the State, RJ conceptualizes crime as a conflict between persons; namely victims, offenders, and the community. In this aspect, RJ represents a humanitarian approach to justice. It recognizes crime as a breakdown of

social unity, and aims to restore relations among affected parties by promoting the principles of forgiveness, healing, reparation, and reintegration (Sharpe, 1998).

Origins

RJ ideologies can be traced to multiple historical and spiritual roots. For instance, it embraces the principles of forgiveness and forbearance that are central to the Christian faith (Allard & Northey, 2001). RJ also draws on such principles of Hinduism as the power of penance to “cleanse” sinners of bad *karma* (Neufeldt, 2001), and on Judaist beliefs of repentance to “escap[e] the momentum of past misdeeds, and [turn] over a new leaf” (Segal, 2001, p. 183).

Restorative principles also stem from indigenous cultures worldwide, with the most prominent being the First Nations in Canada, the Native Americans in the United States, and the Maori aboriginals of New Zealand (Umbreit, 1998). Many indigenous communities draw on the values and customs of their culture in holding wrongdoers accountable, without imposing sanctions that deprive and alienate them (Brunk, 2001). For instance, ceremonial traditions in Native communities provide spirituality and holistic healing to help strengthen the wrongdoer’s sense of self and community. The aim is to restore balance to the community as a whole.

Models of Restorative Justice

The term “restorative justice” is used to represent a wide range of initiatives that operate under restorative principles. These principles are manifested through various models and programs, among the most common of which are victim-offender reconciliation (also sometimes referred to as victim-offender mediation), family-group conferencing, and peacemaking circles (Umbreit et al., 2002). The distinction between

one model from another lies in the manner of facilitation, and in the number and type of key players involved.

RJ programs provide an opportunity for all parties affected by crime to come together and engage in dialogue to understand the impact of crime, communicate their needs and concerns, and negotiate a suitable restitution plan. Trained facilitators govern this process in a non-directive manner, and assist in fostering the exchange between all parties involved (Sharpe, 1998).

Victim-Offender Reconciliation. The first Victim-Offender Reconciliation Program (VORP) was implemented in Kitchener, Ontario in 1974, and is often recognized as the forerunner of programs that bring victims and offenders together (Peachy, 2003). Under the collaborative efforts of justice officials and the Mennonite community, two young persons were brought to justice by meeting with their victims of vandalism. The success of the “Kitchener experiment” played a pivotal role in the Canadian CJS, as it demonstrated that conflict could be resolved at a local level by embracing the peacemaking values of the faith community (Umbreit, 1995). VORPs were later replicated in Elkhart, Indiana, and eventually spread throughout the United States. To date, 1300 victim-offender programs have been launched throughout North America, Europe, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa (Umbreit et al., 2002).

Central to victim-offender programs is the face-to-face encounter between victims and offenders in the presence of a facilitator. The main objectives are to: support victims by fostering a safe environment in which they can ask questions of “why” and “how,” and express their thoughts, feelings and concerns about the impact of a crime; hold offenders directly accountable to the victim, and provide an opportunity for offenders to

take responsibility for their misconducts; and engage both parties in developing a restitution agreement (Umbreit, 1998). Other terms synonymous with victim-offender reconciliation are “victim-offender conferencing” and “victim-offender dialogue.” The term “mediation” has also been applied to this method of practice, but is misleading because it implies an ongoing dispute (Zehr, 2002). In conferencing, the offender’s guilt has already been established.

The success of VORPs can be attributed to a number of reasons. First, victims and offenders who are often marginalized in the traditional system now become key players in resolving conflict. Both parties are empowered to engage in dialogue to provide input on how the harms can be repaired. Second, victim-offender models can be implemented at different stages in the justice process (e.g., pre-charge, pre-conviction, pre-sentence, and post-sentence). Thus, VORPs work in conjunction with police, Crown, judges, and probation officers to contribute to a more effective and inclusive response to crime and victimization.

It is important to note that because VORPs center on the interaction between the victim and the offender, the role of the facilitator is paramount. The success or failure of the restorative process hinges on the facilitator’s ability to successfully engage both parties. In turn, the facilitator’s level of training and skills and qualifications are of vital importance to this process.

Family-Group Conferencing. The family-group conferencing model encourages participation from all persons affected by crime, which encompasses victims and offenders, their respective family members, and key supporters. A police representative may also be present, although their role is often limited, for example, to providing

summary reports of the offence (Morris & Maxwell, 2003). A unique feature of family-group conferencing is the group dynamic, which serves to convey to the offender the broader social impact of his or her actions. Since participation is not limited to immediate family members, the term “family-group conferencing” has given way to more descriptive terms such as “community conferencing” and “community accountability conferencing” (Sharpe, 1998).

Family-group conferencing originated in New Zealand and stemmed from the justice system’s failure to effectively respond to soaring youth crime rates (Zehr, 2002). In an attempt to ameliorate this problem, the system revolutionized the juvenile justice system by drawing on the practices of the local Maori aboriginals (Umbreit et al., 2002). In 1989, the Children, Young Persons, and Their Families Act was mandated in New Zealand as an innovative strategy to increase family involvement in child and youth issues. This reform transformed the system’s conceptualization of youth crime: Traditionally, youth crime was viewed as a product of individual and family dysfunction, whereas under the new Act, the family unit became recognized as a valuable resource in the justice process (Sharpe, 1998). Under this Act, the use of the court system became secondary to family-group conferencing as a response to youth crime. This policy is still in place in New Zealand today.

It is important to note that there are significant distinctions between the original family-group model from New Zealand and the models adopted in North America (Zehr, 2002). In North America, family-group conferencing is a standardized, scripted process that is facilitated by trained volunteers. In contrast, conferences in New Zealand are unscripted to allow flexibility in the exchange between participants, and are facilitated by

Youth Justice Coordinators who represent social services. Furthermore, because family-group conferencing in New Zealand precedes the use of courts, facilitators are often involved in decisions pertaining to the charges laid, custody arrangements, and appropriate restitution plans (Umbreit et al., 2002). In North American models, however, facilitators play a neutral role in guiding the dialogue process, and key decisions are made by victims and offenders.

Peacemaking Circles. In some aboriginal communities, an informal meeting is called when an injustice has taken place. These meetings are ‘facilitated’ by the community’s elders, and are flexible and unscripted to encourage participation in resolution through dialogue (Hadley, 2001). During the process, a “talking piece” is passed from person to person to provide everyone an opportunity to speak; a tradition that emphasizes the importance of values such as dignity and respect (Sharpe, 1998). This particular method of practice is identified in restorative justice as a peacemaking circle. Various circle models have since evolved that embrace indigenous traditions, and they vary in practice from community to community.

The defining feature of peacemaking circles is its extension to the wider community, thereby promoting the use of local resources (Sharpe, 1998). The process not only includes victims and offenders and their respective support systems, but also community members who have a vested interest in the outcome (e.g., business owners, public educators, and concerned citizens). The aims are to promote consensual decision making in responding to crime, to rebuild relationships, and strengthen community bonds (Zehr, 1995). Crime is situated in a social context, and the community becomes responsible for restoring balance and harmony amongst its citizens. It empowers citizens

from all walks of life to respond to crime and devise a way to prevent similar future occurrences.

Interestingly, circles have been suggested to be more effective in urban, rather than rural communities because of the greater number of resources available in larger geographical regions (Sharpe, 1998). This highlights the importance of broader community participation and support in RJ initiatives.

Proposed Benefits of Restorative Justice

RJ has numerous implications for victims, offenders and the community. First, RJ not only recognizes the tangible losses to victims of crime, but also the emotional and psychological harms they may have sustained (Johnstone, 2002). RJ gives victims a voice to convey to offenders the harms they endured and provide input on how the harms can be repaired. This can include monetary compensation and/or some form of direct service to the victim. Through facilitated conferences, victims can become directly involved in the justice process and outcome, which can help foster their healing process and serve to reduce their fear of crime and re-victimization. Second, through face-to-face encounters with victims, offenders can learn about the impact of their misdeeds, and take steps towards making positive changes by taking responsibility for making amends. RJ may also incorporate rehabilitative elements (e.g., support and treatment programs) which can help reduce future misdemeanors (Sharpe, 1998). Third, RJ “focuses on the settlement of conflicts arising from crime and resolving the underlying problems which cause it” (Ministry of Justice of New Zealand as cited by the Law Commission of Canada, 2003, p. 16). Thus, by situating the *problem* rather than the *person* at the forefront of the justice process (Braithwaite, 2000), RJ serves as a vehicle for transforming personal conflicts

into civic concerns. RJ recognizes the community as an important stakeholder in justice, and encourages participation from local resources (e.g., schools, businesses) in helping to make neighborhoods safer. This approach to conflict resolution is premised on the idea that those who have a strong sense of community instilled in them are less likely to violate the trust of fellow citizens (McCold, 1996).

Marshall (1998) asserts that crime originates from poor economic and social conditions within society. In turn, crime control and prevention requires an introspective community solution that is based on societal values and beliefs.

Past Research on Restorative Justice

Research demonstrates that RJ is effective in achieving victim and offender satisfaction and perceptions of fairness in the justice process and outcome; reducing re-offending; achieving high restitution completion rates; and reducing the public's fear of crime (Latimer, Dowden, & Muise, 2001; Umbreit, 1995; Umbreit et al., 2002).

Umbreit's (1995) assessment of mediation programs across four sites (Langley, Calgary, Winnipeg, and Ottawa) revealed that of 4445 cases that were referred, 39% resulted in mediation. Restitution agreements were successfully reached over 90% of the time across sites. It was found that victims and offenders were generally more satisfied with the process (78% and 74%, respectively), in comparison to victims (48%) and offenders (53%) who were referred to mediation but did not participate. Eighty-nine percent of victims and 91% of offenders were satisfied with the mediation outcome. Eighty percent of both victims and offenders perceived the process as being fair, compared to 43% and 56% of victims and offenders, respectively, who went through the criminal justice system. Among the factors that contributed to the satisfaction and

perceptions of fairness for victims were receiving answers from the offender about the crime, conveying to the offender the impact of the crime, receiving an apology, and providing input in the restitution agreement.

Across the four sites, fear of being re-victimized was expressed by 11% of victims who participated in mediation, in comparison to 31% of victims who did not participate (Umbreit, 1995). In addition, victims were significantly less distressed after participating in mediation compared to victims who were referred to mediation but did not participate.

Similarly, in their study across RJ programs, Umbreit et al. (2002) found that 90% of the cases that proceeded to conferencing reached restitution agreements that generally involved monetary payments, community service, and/or direct services to the victim. Over 80% of restitution agreements were successfully completed. Furthermore, high levels of satisfaction for both victims and offenders across sites, cultures, and seriousness of offence were observed. In victim-offender mediation, factors most related to victims' satisfaction were positive feelings about the facilitator, satisfaction with restitution agreements, and strong initial desires to meet the offender. A notable implication of these findings is the importance of the role of the facilitator. Given that the victim-offender exchange is critical to the success of the RJ process, to the extent that victims have a positive view of the facilitator, they are more likely to feel safe and supported in engaging in dialogue with the offender. Benefits reported by individuals who participated in peacemaking circles included having a voice in justice outcomes, mutual respect, and a renewed sense of community and cultural pride. This finding highlights the importance of social relationships and community bonds in RJ.

Community Volunteers in Restorative Justice

In light of their success, RJ programs continue to face challenges in increasing community participation. RJ volunteers are typically recruited through word of mouth or notices in the local media. However, it is unclear as to whether these informal recruitment strategies are effective in targeting the diverse sub-populations in a given community, which is crucial in promoting community inclusiveness and responsibility (Dhami & Joy, in press). Of equal concern is the *quality* of volunteers that are recruited. Volunteers need to be proficient in the tasks they are required to perform, and training can enhance these skills.

RJ initiatives rely on community volunteers to take on various roles within the organization. The program Chair oversees the operation of the program and its members, and is responsible for implementing program policies and setting program goals. The primary task of Administrators is to maintain program (e.g., volunteer) and financial records. Program Coordinators liaise with referral agencies such as the police, manage and delegate case files, and provide support to facilitators in conferencing. Community Coordinators liaise with other community-based referral agencies such as schools and organizations that provide mentorships to youth.

Facilitators play an integral role in the RJ process. During the pre-conference stage, facilitators meet with victims and offenders and their respective supporters separately to explain the process and its benefits and answer any questions that they may have. It is vital that facilitators build a rapport with participants to ensure the flow of the RJ process during conferencing. At the conference, facilitators are responsible for creating a safe and supportive environment in which victims and offenders can engage in

dialogue. Facilitators guide this discourse and record the decisions of the participants, which they later follow-up on.

Each role in an RJ program requires a considerable time commitment, use of particular skills, and a degree of training, especially for facilitators. General areas of training that are particularly relevant to RJ volunteers include a working knowledge of the criminal justice system, professional practice with clients, sensitivity to victims, conflict resolution skills and administrative skills (Department of Justice Canada, 2000). Volunteers typically undergo seminars and training workshops that involve lectures and audio-visual presentations on the philosophy and practice of RJ, discussion groups, and simulations of case conferences through role-play.

The length and content of training differs considerably, in that training is customized to address the specific needs of the RJ program. For instance, in Victoria, BC, volunteers who are interested in facilitating family-group conferences are required to undertake a two-day facilitator training workshop that employs the *Real Justice* training model (Dhami & Joy, in press). This training model centers on a script that facilitators use as a tool to guide conferences and foster dialogue between the conference participants. Hands-on practice with conference facilitation is achieved through role-playing techniques.

Generally, active volunteers participate in RJ programs by attending monthly meetings to share their knowledge and experiences in RJ, and discuss the program's progress and upcoming events. At a minimum, volunteers contribute approximately two hours per month to these meetings. Volunteers may also partake in intermittent RJ events such as fundraising galas and public awareness campaigns. The hours contributed to

these events will vary according to the availability of the volunteer and the volunteer's willingness to take on particular responsibilities. While there is no formal contract, RJ volunteers in BC are expected to commit to their program for a minimum of one year. Less active volunteers often contribute to the program by providing their services during special events (e.g., RJ week), and/or through monetary donations to the program.

In sum, past research on RJ has focused primarily on the effects on victims, offenders and the community. However, there is a lack of research, to date, that examines the role of volunteers in RJ programs. Who are volunteers for RJ programs? What factors motivate individuals to initiate and sustain volunteer service in RJ? Do volunteers' skills and qualifications, and the quality and level of training they receive significantly influence their role as volunteers? To answer these questions, we look to past psychological research on volunteerism.

What Do We Know About Volunteers?

Past Research on Volunteerism

Helping and prosocial behaviour have been studied extensively in social psychology. While there are numerous actions that can be considered prosocial, two distinct forms are discussed in the literature. Consider, for example, a person giving spare change to a homeless person on the street. This *unplanned, spontaneous* occurrence constitutes a prosocial act, in that it is intended to benefit another person, occurs without obligation and expectations of rewards (Piliavin & Chagn, 1990), and transpires in the absence of prior or future encounters between the donor and the recipient (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). A second form of prosocial behaviour that has received less attention involves a *long-term, planned* commitment, known as volunteerism. According to Penner

(2002), properties unique to volunteerism include longevity, planfulness, and a structured context. Thus, volunteerism involves a sustained commitment that requires thoughtful deliberation (e.g., in determining the extent and nature of participation), and occurs formally in an organization. It is the latter form of prosocial behaviour that is the focus of this paper.

Characteristics of Volunteers

Research on volunteerism has examined the demographic and personal characteristics of volunteers affiliated with a variety of agencies and organizations. Specifically, researchers have examined age (Chambre, 1993; Choi, 2003; Warburton, Terry, Rosenman & Shapiro, 2001), gender (Eagly & Crowley, 1986), and religiosity (Uslaner, 2002), as well as socioeconomic factors such as marital status, education, occupation, and income (Gillespie & King, 1985; Rosnow & Rosenthal, 1976; Warburton et al., 2001).

Age. Volunteer service is typically more pronounced in individuals between the ages of 30 and 40 (Fischer & Schaffer, 1993), but research indicates that there is a growing trend in volunteer activity among the older population (Chambre, 1993; Gottlieb, 2002). Studies demonstrate that older volunteers contribute more hours on average to volunteer service than their younger counterparts, and sustain service for longer periods of time (Warburton, LeBrocq, & Rosenman, 1998; Willigen, 2000). Factors that may account for this phenomenon are early retirement, improved health, and fewer familial obligations than compared to past generations (Chambre, 1993). Older adults are also more affluent and educated than in the past (Chambre, 1993), and therefore, may be attracted to more educational and contributory forms of leisure.

Warburton et al. (1998) support this notion by positing that volunteering serves as a substitute for paid work for retired individuals.

RJ programs require facilitators to contribute a considerable amount of time and effort in processing cases. Therefore, it is likely that sustained service would be more apparent in older volunteers, while younger volunteers may be less active and/or have shorter service periods.

Gender. Studies on gender differences in helping behaviour indicate that men and women do not differ in their *willingness* to volunteer, but rather, in the *type* of services that they choose to engage in (Choi, 2003). It is posited that men are more likely to participate in risky and physically demanding activities, while women tend to engage in more emotive and nurturing roles (Eagly & Crowley, 1986). The socially and emotionally supportive nature of RJ suggests that women may be more likely to volunteer for RJ programs than men. However, men may be attracted to RJ because it involves dealing with offenders and crime.

Religiosity. Studies have found that religiously motivated volunteering is especially salient in the older population (Willigen, 2000; Fischer & Schaffer, 1993). Religious affiliation may be characteristic of volunteers in that values such as self-sacrifice and compassion professed by particular faiths may increase a person's perceived obligation to help others (Mattis, Jagers, & Hatcher, 2000). Since RJ principles are drawn from the values and belief systems of many faiths, it is likely that RJ volunteers also practice religion or other spiritual activities.

Socioeconomic Factors. Socioeconomic factors have also been suggested to be relatively stable predictors of volunteer participation because they "imply differential

access to society's resources and opportunities" (Herzog & Morgan, 1993 as cited in Choi, 2003, p. 180). For instance, marital status may be indicative of volunteer service because conjugal partnerships serve as an enhanced social and financial support system (Warburton et al., 1998).

Likewise, education is also an indicator of an individual's volunteer potential. Mattis et al. (2000) found that men with college and professional degrees were significantly more likely than those with less education to engage in volunteer service. Similarly, Penner (2002) found that education was positively correlated with the number of organizations an individual was involved with, and the length of time served as a volunteer. It is proposed that people who are better educated are generally more knowledgeable about a broad range of social issues (Musick, Wilson, & Bynum, 2000), and are likely to be exposed to more volunteer opportunities (Warburton et al., 1998). The fact that RJ is a radical departure from the traditional CJS suggests that educated individuals are more likely to be aware of RJ initiatives in their community, and thus, more likely to become involved.

With regard to occupation, Choi (2003) proposes that volunteers are likely to be employed in positions that enable them the flexibility to allocate their time to volunteer service (e.g., professional and supervisory positions). Furthermore, Hochman and Rodgers (as cited in Unger, 1991) found a positive correlation between level of income and charitable giving, which supports the notion that individuals who are more financially secure are more likely to help others. It is posited that the various costs associated with volunteer service (e.g., transportation expenses, forgone wages) may be less of a barrier for more affluent individuals (Unger, 1991; Warburton et al., 1998).

Since RJ programs are often under-funded, its volunteers may be required to invest time, money and other tangible assets to the program (Dhami & Joy, in press). In turn, it is likely that volunteers for such programs are financially stable, not in full-time employment, are employed in positions with flexible working hours, or employed in professions that complement the work of RJ programs (e.g., social work). The nature of employment may also dictate the level of participation in the program.

Volunteers' Motivations

The role of motivations in volunteerism has been a topic of long-standing debate among social psychologists. On one hand, helping behaviour has been attributed to altruistic motives, in which empathy plays a significant role (Batson, Ahmad, & Lishner, 2002). Batson et al. (2002) found that even when presented with an easy opportunity to escape a helping situation, people offered assistance to strangers in distress. Batson et al. explained this finding by asserting that empathic arousal incited individuals to offer assistance. On the other hand, volunteerism has also been attributed to egoistic motives that are directed towards self-benefit such that people may engage in acts of helping in expectation of tangible gains (e.g., money), social rewards (e.g., approval or recognition), or self-rewards such as enhancing self-esteem (Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1998). A better understanding of people's motivations to volunteer for RJ programs can be useful in engaging volunteers in more meaningful roles, and thus, foster positive volunteer experiences.

Contemporary perspectives suggest that motivation is a multidimensional construct that is not mutually exclusive (Okun & Schultz, 2003). Clary et al. (1998) propose a functional theory in which six primary motives are identified via the Volunteer

Functions Inventory (VFI). The six motives are categorized as: *Values*, *Understanding*, *Career*, *Social*, *Protective*, and *Enhancement*. The basic premise underlying this theory is that people can engage in the same behaviour for different reasons, to serve different underlying purposes. Thus, in order to answer the question, “Why do people volunteer?” it is necessary to identify the functions that volunteering serves for each individual.

The *values* function of volunteerism relates to expressions of altruistic and humanitarian concerns. This is reflected in people who seek “to help others” and “benefit the community” through volunteering. The *understanding* function refers to individuals who engage in volunteering to employ their skills and abilities and/or gain new learning experiences. This resembles the *career* function, in which individuals strive to gain career-related experiences. The *social* function reflects motivations that are concerned with interpersonal relationships. It is proposed that people may engage in volunteering as an opportunity for socialization, or to partake in activities that are viewed favourably by important others (Clary et al., 1998). The *protective* function is egoistically motivated in that individuals may volunteer to avoid censure or guilt, for example, for being more fortunate than others. Finally, the *enhancement* function centers on personal growth and development (e.g., boosting self-esteem). Of the six motivations in the VFI, Clary et al. (1998) found that values, understanding and enhancement were ranked as most important for volunteers, suggesting that both altruistic and egoistic motives are equally important factors in a person’s decision to volunteer. Thus, RJ volunteers are likely to endorse reasons such as “to help improve public safety” (values), “to gain knowledge of the criminal justice system” (understanding), and “for a new experience” (enhancement) for becoming involved in RJ.

From an age-differential perspective, volunteering may be more “normative at various points in the life course,” such that it affects “who takes on the volunteer role, how much time is committed, and the types of organizations that benefit from volunteers’ efforts” (Willigen, 2000, p. 309). Research suggests that motivations such as striving for achievement in educational and occupational domains are more prevalent in early adulthood, whereas seeking emotional gratification (e.g., gaining meaning in life, strengthening social ties) increases with age (Okun & Schultz, 2003). Thus, with regard to the VFI, “knowledge-seeking” functions (i.e., understanding and career) may be more pronounced in younger volunteers, while social and enhancement functions may play a greater role in older volunteers. To support this notion, in their study of Red Cross volunteers, Gillespie and King (1985) found that younger volunteers were proportionately more likely than their older counterparts to report engaging in volunteer service to “obtain job training and skills,” and older volunteers were motivated by reasons such as “to help others” and “to contribute to the community.” Thus, younger individuals may use volunteering as an opportunity to develop vocational skills, since volunteering can occur with minimal costs, commitment, and accountability (Loughead, 1989).

Insight into volunteers’ motivations is beneficial for fostering continued involvement over time, as studies have found positive relationships between motivations and amount of time volunteered weekly (Nassar-McMillan & Lambert, 2003) and overall length of service (Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). To the extent that RJ volunteers’ motivations are fulfilled, they will contribute more time to performing their volunteer duties and sustain service for longer periods.

Skills and Training

Volunteers often require a set of skills and specialized training to help them carry out their roles effectively. It is important to note that while volunteers may be highly *motivated* to help, the extent to which they are *effective* helpers depends in large part on their capacity to help, as defined by their adeptness and preparedness (Clary & Orenstein, 1991). Carkhuff's (1968) review of 80 studies that investigated the efficacy of volunteers in programs for the mentally ill suggest that the quality of care provided by volunteers is related to their pre-service training and amount of supervision received. Thus, the effectiveness of volunteers may be dependent on the amount, level and quality of training and organizational support they receive. Since liability is often a concern for community organizations such as RJ, information on the skills and training of volunteers can help to develop more comprehensive training curriculums.

Kratcoski and Crittenden (1983) conducted a study on criminal justice volunteers and found that lower levels of volunteer satisfaction were correlated with volunteers' perceived lack of adequate training, scant knowledge about the agency's practices, and lack of clarity in their roles as volunteers. Thus, training programs should be competency-based so that volunteers can acquire knowledge and skills that are relevant to the tasks they are required to perform. Since interactive dialogue between victims and offenders is the crux of the RJ process, skills that are essential to facilitators in RJ include communication and effective listening, interpersonal and cultural skills, and proficiency in professional practice with clients.

Nassar-McMillan and Lambert (2003) found that volunteers' level of training was related to their frequency of service and positive perceptions of the program's practices.

Thus, to the extent that volunteers identify with the program's aims and have satisfactory volunteer experiences, they will be more likely to increase participation.

Chapter III – THE PRESENT STUDY

Aims

Community-based justice initiatives have gained considerable recognition over the past two decades, and thus, the need for the valuable resource of volunteers continues to increase. RJ programs rely on volunteers to carry out various tasks, yet little is known about who these people are, what their experiences in RJ are, and why they choose to become involved (and stay involved) in RJ. The present study has four aims as follows:

- (1) Document the demographic characteristics of individuals who volunteer for RJ programs.
- (2) Examine the factors that motivate individuals to initiate and sustain volunteer service.
- (3) Identify the skills that volunteers perceive to be useful for their role as RJ volunteers, and examine the quality of training received by RJ volunteers.
- (4) Determine how RJ volunteers' experiences affect their satisfaction with their volunteer role, willingness to increase involvement, and intentions to sustain volunteer service.

A conceptual model has been developed to guide the research and data analysis.

Model of Volunteerism in RJ

Figure 1 presents a conceptual model that identifies three sequential stages of the volunteer process. Adapted from Omoto and Snyder's (1995) Volunteer Process Model (VPM), these stages are *Antecedents*, *Experiences* and *Consequences*. The VPM has been modified by introducing constructs relevant to volunteerism in RJ that are represented at each stage of the volunteer process.

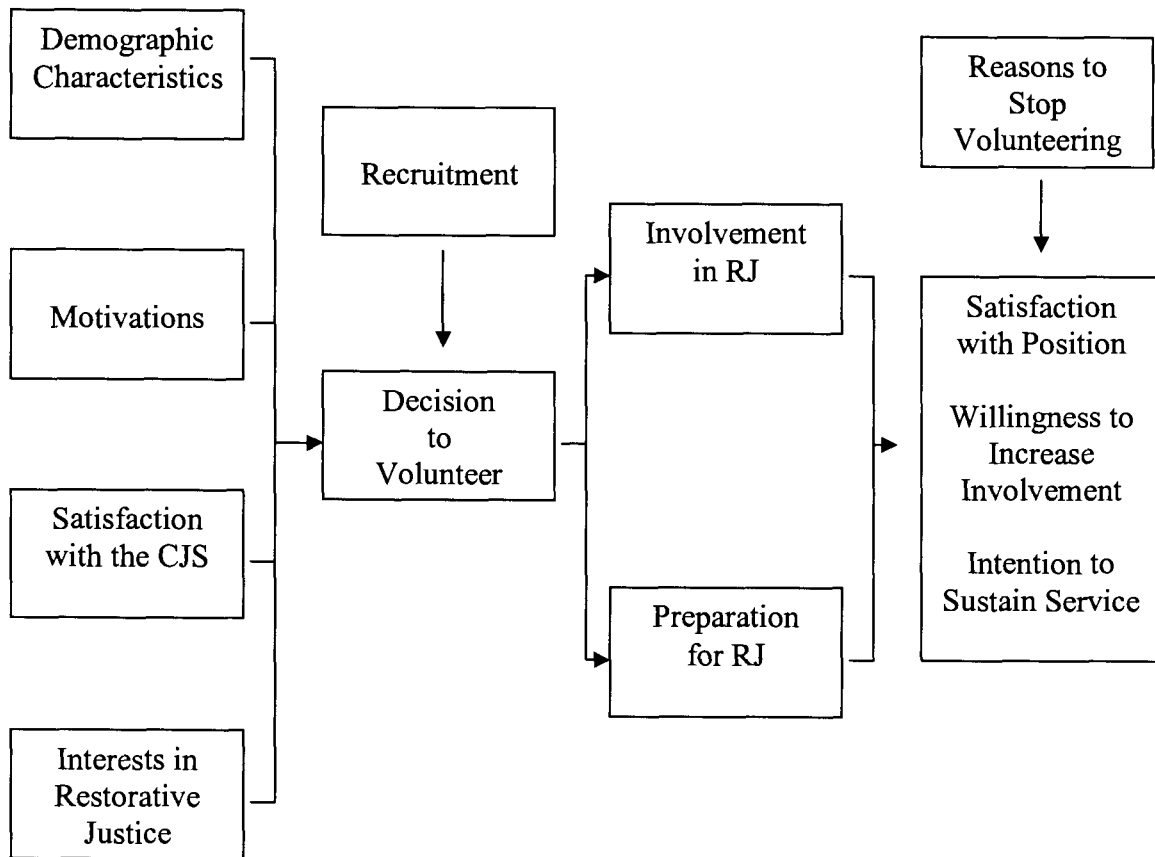


Figure 1. Antecedents, Experiences and Consequences of Volunteerism in RJ

Antecedents. At the antecedents stage, the model proposes that four constructs (demographic characteristics, motivation, satisfaction with criminal justice system, interests in RJ) influence initial volunteerism. Since there are few constraints on a person's initial decision to volunteer (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998), these "situational" (i.e., demographic characteristics) and "motivational" factors are likely antecedents to volunteering.

The first construct, demographic characteristics, is comprised of gender, age, ethnicity, religious and political affiliation, marital status, occupation, education and volunteer history. It is proposed that individuals with the highest "social capital" (Mattis, Jagers, Hatcher, 2000) are most likely to engage in volunteer service. Support for this has been found in studies that demonstrate that volunteerism increases with age (Fischer & Schaffer, 1993), is associated with religious affiliation (Mattis et al., 2000), is more prevalent among individuals who are married (Warburton et al., 1998), and in those who have higher levels of formal education and occupational prestige (Clary & Snyder, 1991).

According to Clary et al. (1998), involvement in volunteer activity is a function of the joint effects of the opportunities provided to the individual and the individual's motivations. Thus, the motivation construct aimed to capture volunteers' motivations for becoming involved in RJ. Adapted from Omoto and Snyder's (1995) VPM, reasons for volunteering in RJ may relate to career, enhancement, social, understanding, and values functions.

To the extent that volunteers invest their time and effort to the organization, it is likely that they share some of the core values of that organization (Farmer & Fedor, 2001). Thus, satisfaction with the CJS and interests in RJ are included as constructs that

influence initial volunteerism. Elements of these two constructs that may be relevant to RJ are reducing the risk of re-offending, aiding the victim, empowering the community, and the criminal justice response.

The construct, recruitment, also precedes volunteerism, as it reveals information on sources of knowledge about the RJ program, and the ways in which people are recruited.

Experiences. The Experiences stage is comprised of the constructs 'involvement in RJ' and 'preparation for RJ.' This stage is of particular importance because continued service is dependent on volunteers' experiences within the organization: To the extent that volunteers are satisfied with their roles and have positive experiences as a volunteer, they will be more willing to sustain service.

Involvement in RJ refers to the following factors: general information on volunteers' positions (i.e., primary position, time spent performing volunteer duties, whether their position is paid); volunteers' experiences (i.e., level of experience as a facilitator, number of cases facilitated, type of RJ models facilitated) and case-related factors (i.e., stage of case, type of offender, type of crime, success of cases, feelings and expectations before and after a conference); level of support (organizational and familial) and recognition (i.e., feelings of being respected and valued, importance of recognition); success of case conferences (i.e., success of restitution contracts, success of reducing offenders' risk, success of engaging victims and offenders) and dealing with unsuccessful cases (i.e., frequency of re-conferencing).

Preparedness for RJ incorporates information on volunteers' training, and specifically refers to: the level (i.e., general, facilitator, follow-up) and amount of training

that volunteers receive; the types of techniques involved in training (i.e., workshops, discussion groups, role-plays, training aids, lectures and presentations, reading, on-the-job training) and the helpfulness of these methods; and volunteers' clarity on their roles and responsibilities. Preparedness for RJ is also comprised of information on volunteers' skills and qualifications they perceive to be useful for their roles, volunteers' comfort level in dealing with particular aspects of cases, their opinions on important factors that contribute to successful programs, and their opinions on what makes a good/bad facilitator.

Consequences. To the extent that volunteers are satisfied with their experiences in the organization, they are more likely to continue and/or increase their involvement with the organization (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Furthermore, since RJ organizations rely on the contributions and long-term commitment of volunteers, two important consequences of volunteerism are *willingness to increase involvement* and *intention to sustain service*. The construct, reasons to stop volunteering, is added to the Consequences stage to tap "internal" factors (e.g., "stress from volunteering") and "external" factors (e.g., "moving away from area") that prevent people from continuing to volunteer in RJ.

Predictions

Moving from left to right in the model, a number of predictions are made. In relation to studies on gender differences in helping contexts (Eagly & Crowley, 1986), the emotive and supportive nature of RJ suggests that RJ volunteerism may be more prevalent in women than men. Furthermore, since RJ ideologies stem from many spiritual faiths, it is likely that RJ volunteers have a religious affiliation, and this may be more prevalent in older volunteers (Willigen, 2000).

Volunteering is an activity associated with “opportunity costs” (Snyder & Omoto, 2001), and thus, individual “resources” such as marital partnerships, post-secondary degrees, and professional positions are likely characteristics of RJ volunteers. Furthermore, these resources are likely to dictate the level of participation in the program such that marital status, level of education, and employment status are predicted to have an effect on degrees of volunteerism (i.e., length of service and amount of time dedicated to volunteering). Age may also dictate volunteers’ level of participation, such that older volunteers will have longer service periods due to fewer constraints (Chambre, 1993), while younger volunteers may be less active and/or have shorter service periods.

In terms of motivations, it is predicted that volunteers will endorse both altruistic (e.g., “to help improve public safety”) and egoistic (e.g., “to acquire new skills and abilities”) reasons for becoming involved in RJ, and the stronger the motivation, the longer their service period. In accordance with the age-differential perspective (Willigen, 2000), motivations related to career and understanding will be more salient in younger RJ volunteers, whereas older volunteers will provide reasons related to self-enhancement and social functions for becoming involved in RJ. Motivation fulfillment is important for fostering continued involvement over time (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Therefore, to the extent that RJ volunteers’ motivations are fulfilled, they are likely to dedicate more time to volunteering and sustain service in RJ for longer periods.

It is posited that individuals who identify with a program’s ideals and practices will be more likely to engage in service for that program (Farmer & Fedor, 2001). Thus, it is predicted that volunteers’ motivations to become involved in RJ, satisfaction with the CJS, and interests in RJ will be correlated. Specifically, the less satisfied individuals are

with the current CJS, the more interested they will be in RJ, and the more motivated they will be for becoming involved in RJ.

Volunteers often require a set of skills and specialized training to help them carry out their roles effectively. Thus, it is predicted that volunteers' effectiveness, as defined by their perceived success in conferencing, is dependent on the amount, level and quality of training they receive.

Finally, studies have found that commitment to volunteering is influenced by the volunteer experience, as defined by feelings of competency and job satisfaction (Ansari & Phillips, 2001). Thus, it is predicted that volunteers' satisfaction with their position will vary as a function of level of support and recognition (i.e., clarity of role, level of support, feelings of being respected and valued, importance of recognition) and perceived conferencing success. Satisfaction will subsequently be predictive of volunteer commitment, as measured by intention to sustain involvement and willingness to increase involvement.

Potential Implications

The findings of the present study have several potential implications. First, information on demographic and personal characteristics will help determine whether RJ volunteers are representative of the community in which the program serves. In turn, recruitment campaigns can focus on establishing a more far-reaching and inclusive program that reflects the broad social dynamics that lead to volunteer activity.

Second, research suggests that matching recruitment messages to the motivations of prospective volunteers is effective in increasing volunteer participation (Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Miene, & Haugen, 1994). Insight into the motivations that elicit RJ volunteerism

can be used to target particular groups in recruitment. Screening volunteers for motivations can also help program coordinators assign volunteers to positions that best serve their needs and interests. Engaging volunteers in meaningful and varied experiences can promote volunteer satisfaction, and ultimately increase service periods. Furthermore, appealing to the motivations that volunteering serves for each individual can help maintain volunteers' interests in RJ, which may substantially reduce the prevalent problems of absenteeism and attrition.

Third, RJ programs often invest a considerable amount of time and resources into training volunteers. However, there is a lack of consensus regarding the standards of practice in RJ, making it difficult to assess the quality and efficacy of the services being delivered. The present study aims to examine the length, method, and evaluation of training in RJ, to 1) help establish a set of criteria that could serve as the fundamental requirements of a training program, and 2) identify areas of training in which proficiency is lacking.

Information on the skills and qualifications that RJ volunteers perceive to be useful can be beneficial in screening volunteers for their suitability for particular roles, as volunteer effectiveness is likely dependent on the fit between volunteers' skills and abilities and the task at hand. This information can also be useful in avoiding the problem of volunteer burnout by aiding program coordinators in recognizing the limitations of their volunteers.

Overall, focusing on promoting community participation in RJ organizations presupposes that there is a need to promote involvement, and that there are benefits in doing as such (Clary & Snyder, 2002). It has been well-established that RJ has significant

benefits for victims, offenders, and the community, but little is known about how and what *volunteers* gain from their experience in RJ. At an individual level, among the numerous advantages to RJ service are the opportunity to gain a sense of community spirit, develop and exercise practical skills, gain knowledge about the criminal justice system, and reduce stigmatization and fear of lawbreakers. At a broader scope, research on volunteerism in RJ can promote awareness of and interest in community-based initiatives that address crime and victimization in local communities.

Chapter IV – METHOD

Respondents

Respondents were 76 volunteers from 12 restorative justice programs in British Columbia, recruited through appeals to the Chairpersons of the programs. One hundred and ten surveys were mailed out and the response rate was 69% (i.e., 76 out of 110). The characteristics of the sample will be provided in the Findings section.

Survey

Data was collected via a self-completion survey entitled, ‘Exploring the Role of Volunteers in Community-Based Restorative Justice Programs’ (see Appendix A). Survey questions were compiled through consultation with the Chairpersons of the Peninsula Cross Roads Community Justice Program, Restorative Justice Oak Bay, and Restorative Justice Victoria Program.

The survey consisted of five sections. ‘Background Information’ was the first section and aimed to identify the following demographic and personal characteristics of volunteers: gender, age, ethnicity, spiritual and political affiliations, marital status, occupation, and level of education. This section also incorporated questions regarding volunteers’ current level of volunteer activity (number and type of organizations they currently volunteer for), volunteers’ involvement in RJ (length of RJ service, primary position, average time spent per week performing volunteer duties), intention to sustain involvement, and reasons that would prevent them from continuing to volunteer (i.e., internal reasons such as “stress from volunteering” and external reasons such as “moving away from the area”).

The second section was 'Volunteer Training,' and inquired about volunteers' preparedness (operationalized as skills and training) for their role in RJ. In terms of skills, respondents were asked to rate the usefulness of eight skills for volunteering for RJ, namely specific communication skills (e.g., ability to engage in dialogue), leadership skills (e.g., ability to take charge) and interpersonal skills (e.g., ability to interact with diverse groups) on a 7-point scale anchored at the beginning, middle and end points (1 = "not at all useful," 4 = "somewhat useful," 7 = "extremely useful," respectively). With regard to training, respondents were asked to indicate whether they had received any general and/or facilitator training, and the number of hours of training (general and facilitator) they had received. Respondents were also asked to indicate the methods of observational training (e.g., reading) and interactive training (e.g., discussion groups) they had experienced, and to rate the helpfulness of each method using a 7-point scale anchored at the beginning, middle and end points (1 = "not at all helpful," 4 = "somewhat helpful," 7 = "extremely helpful," respectively). For volunteers who had not yet received training, they were asked to indicate why they had not yet received facilitator training and if they were interested in getting trained. Respondents were asked to indicate whether they had received any follow-up training and what this involved, whether they felt they required more training, and the topics they would like to see covered in training. Respondents were also asked to provide any qualifications, certifications, or accreditations that helped them in their role as an RJ volunteer. The last question in this section inquired about whether volunteers had undergone a criminal record check.

The third section was 'Involvement with the Volunteer Organization.' The first two questions in this section related to RJ recruitment. Respondents were asked how they

first heard about the RJ organization (e.g., word of mouth) and how they were recruited (e.g., through family/friends involved with the organization). Next, respondents were asked to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed with 21 statements that began with the stem, "*I became a restorative justice volunteer...*" These statements were compiled based on a review of the literature on motivations, and included items from the Volunteer Functions Inventory (Clary et al., 1998). Examples of statements included "...to help improve public safety" (values), "...to gain knowledge of the criminal justice system" (understanding), "because it corresponds with my career interests" (career), "to gain a sense of belonging in my community" (social), and "for a new experience" (enhancement). Agreement with each statement was rated on a 9-point scale anchored at the beginning and end points (1 = "completely disagree" and 9 = "completely agree," respectively). The remaining questions in this section inquired about respondents' experiences in RJ. Respondents were asked whether their positions were paid, unpaid, or had paid expenses only. Next, volunteers were asked to rate their satisfaction with their volunteer positions on a 7-point scale ranging from "completely unsatisfied" to "completely satisfied." Clarity of roles and responsibilities was measured on a 7-point scale anchored at the beginning, middle and end points (1 = "not at all clear," 4 = "somewhat clear," and 7 = "extremely clear," respectively). Level of support received from the organization and family/friends were both measured on 7-point scales ranging from "none," through "some," to "a lot." Respondents rated their feelings of being valued/respected on a 7-point scale ranging from "not at all," through "somewhat," to "extremely." Respondents were also asked to rate the importance of having their contributions/accomplishments recognized on a 7-point scale anchored at the beginning,

middle and end points (1 = “not at all important,” 4 = “somewhat important,” and 7 = “extremely important,” respectively), and the type of recognition they preferred (e.g., verbal, awards). The last question in this section asked respondents to rate their willingness to increase involvement with the organization on a 7-point scale ranging from “not at all willing,” through “somewhat willing,” to “extremely willing.”

‘Views on Justice’ was the fourth section and required respondents to rate their satisfaction with the current criminal justice system on a 9-point scale, anchored at the beginning and end points (1 = “extremely dissatisfied” and 9 = “extremely satisfied,” respectively). Examples of statements distributed across four subscales included “...assist in rehabilitating offenders” (reducing offenders’ risk), “...address the harms of crime” (aiding victims), “...encourage community involvement in justice processes” (empowering the community), and “...respond to crime in a timely manner” (criminal justice response). Next, respondents were asked to indicate their interest in aspects of restorative justice on a 9-point scale, anchored at the beginning, middle and end points (1 = “not at all interested,” 5 = “somewhat interested,” 9 = “extremely interested,” respectively). Examples of statements distributed across four subscales included “...increasing public safety” (reducing offenders’ risk), “...providing support to victims” (aiding victims), “...strengthening community ties” (empowering the community), and “...promote fairness in the justice process” (criminal justice response). Respondents were also asked to indicate the extent to which they thought their RJ program worked in partnership with other justice agencies and advocates (i.e., police, parole office, court system, school boards, educational institutions, other RJ programs and non-profit groups with similar interests such as the John Howard Society).

The fifth and final section on 'Effective Practice' was limited to volunteers who had (co)facilitated RJ conferences and/or served as a mentor. In this section, respondents were asked to indicate how experienced they were as a (co)facilitator/mentor on a 7-point scale ranging from "not at all experience," through "somewhat experienced," to "extremely experienced." Respondents were also asked how long they had served as a (co)facilitator/mentor, the number of cases they had (co)facilitated/mentored for, the number of hours they had contributed per week to conferencing, and the types of conferencing models they had (co)facilitated/mentored (e.g., victim-offender reconciliation, family-group conferencing, sentencing/healing circles). Two open-ended questions were included to inquire about respondents' feelings and expectations before and after a conference. Three questions inquired about the cases that respondents have (co)facilitated/mentored which pertained to the offenders' stage in the justice process, the type of offenders, and the type of crime, and were all measured on 7-point scales ranging from "none," through "some," to "all." Three questions were included to inquire about the outcome of conferencing sessions (i.e., "How often did the cases you (co)facilitated result in ...") and items from each aspect of conferencing success were measured on a 7-point scale ranging from "never," through "sometimes," to "always." Examples of statements distributed across three subscales included "...offenders' completion of community service" (success of restitution contract), "...offenders' breach of contract" (success of reducing offenders' risk), and "...victims offering forgiveness" (success of engaging victims and offenders). Two questions asked respondents to indicate on a 7-point scale anchored at the beginning, middle and end points (1 = "never," 4 = "sometimes," and 7 = "always," respectively) how often conference participants were

reconvened when a suitable restitution agreement could not be reached, or when offenders did not successfully comply with the restitution agreement. Next, respondents were asked to rate their comfort level in (co)facilitating cases where offenders have a history of fetal alcohol syndrome, substance abuse, being sexually abused, psychological disorders, and were of ethnic minority on 7-point scales ranging from “not at all comfortable,” through “somewhat comfortable,” to “extremely comfortable.” Respondents were then asked to rate nine items on their importance to the contribution of successful programs on 7-point scales ranging from “not at all important,” through “somewhat important,” to “extremely important.” Examples of statements distributed across five subscales included “community participation” (community involvement), “role of the (co)facilitator” (facilitators’ presence), “victim’s acceptance of apology/forgiveness” (victim related), “connection among victims and offenders” (victim-offender exchange), and “opportunity for reparation” (offender related). The last question in this section asked respondents to provide their opinion on what makes a “good” and “bad” RJ facilitator.

Procedure

The 12 RJ programs in the present study were selected from the Provincial Directory of Restorative Justice Programs provided by the Ministry of Public Safety and Solicitor General. Six of the 12 programs were selected because they were local RJ programs. The Chairpersons of these programs were contacted and visits to the programs’ monthly meetings were arranged to invite volunteers to participate in the study. A presentation outlining the nature of the study was given during these visits. Volunteers who agreed to participate were given a package that contained a consent letter, survey,

and stamped, addressed envelope. The remaining six programs were randomly selected from the directory. Chairpersons of these programs were contacted via email and survey packages were mailed to them to distribute to their volunteers.

All of the respondents were informed that mailing the completed survey to the return address constituted consent in participation, and that completed surveys would be stored in a research laboratory to protect their confidentiality. To further guarantee their anonymity, respondents were requested not to write their names or any other identifying information on the surveys. Respondents were informed that there were no anticipated risks to them in participating in the study.

Chapter V – FINDINGS

The data analyses and findings are reported below in order of the aims previously listed. An alpha level of .05 was used for all statistical tests.

Sample Characteristics

Descriptive statistics on demographic characteristics of RJ volunteers are presented in Table 1. As indicated, the majority of volunteers were females (73.7%), between the ages of 20 to 84 ($M = 52.49$), and described themselves as being Caucasian (94.7%). Approximately two-thirds (67.1%) were involved in a relationship. A little over half of the volunteers (53.9%) practiced some form of religion, and the majority reported having a political affiliation (77.6%). Seventy-eight percent of volunteers reported having a Bachelors degree or higher. Nearly one-third (31.6%) of volunteers were retired, while a little over half (55.3%) were employed in professional services and health care, business and consulting, education and training, government and justice agencies, and other domains such as journalism and filmmaking. Seventy-one percent of respondents reported volunteering for two or more organizations ($M = 2.28$ for whole sample). Other than RJ, volunteers reported being involved with organizations such as Child Find, Victims Services, the Boys and Girls Club, and church.

Fifty percent of volunteers reported that they first heard about RJ through word of mouth, while 18.4% read about RJ in an ad (e.g., in the newspaper), 10.5% heard about RJ at school or work, 7.9% attended an information session, 6.6% helped establish the program, 2.6% had personal experience with the organization's services, and 1.3% sought out information about RJ. Twenty-four percent of volunteers reported that they were recruited through family and friends involved with the organization, while 23.7%

Table 1 Demographic Characteristics of Volunteers

Variable	Percent (%)	Mean	SD
Gender			
Male	26.3		
Female	73.7		
Age		52.49	14.02
Ethnicity			
White	94.7		
Aboriginal	2.6		
Marital Status			
Married/Common-Law	61.8		
Boyfriend/Girlfriend	5.3		
Single	10.5		
Divorced/Separated	17.1		
Widowed	3.9		
Religious Affiliation			
Yes	53.9		
No	43.4		
Political Affiliation			
Yes	77.6		
No	17.1		

Table 1 Continued

Variable	Percent (%)	Mean	SD
Highest Level of Education			
High School	13.2		
Some College/University	7.9		
Bachelors	42.1		
Masters	21.1		
Diploma	14.5		
Occupation			
Employed	55.3		
Retired	31.6		
Student	6.6		
Unemployed	5.3		

Note: Due to missing data, percentages do not sum to 100.

sought out the program themselves, 17.1% were recruited through involvement with another organization and another 17.1% by RJ volunteers in the program, 5.3% were recruited by their employers and through school/work related activities, respectively, and 1.3% helped to establish the program.

Involvement in RJ

Volunteers' Positions. Volunteers' length of service in RJ ranged from 1 month to 10 years ($M = 2.73$ years). The majority of volunteers were (co)facilitators (71.1%), while 11.8% were coordinators, 6.6% were Chairpersons and another 6.6% were trainers, 5.3% were administrators, and 3.9% were public educator/recruiters. Twenty-six percent of volunteers held other positions such as webmaster, fundraiser, policy writer, and mentor. Seventy-eight percent of volunteers' positions were unpaid, while 5.3% were paid and 14.5% had paid expenses only. Volunteers reported spending an average of just over five hours per week ($SD = 6.93$) performing their volunteer duties. Ninety percent of volunteers had undergone a criminal record check.

Chi-square tests of independence were performed to examine the relation between both gender and age, and type of volunteer position (i.e., administrator, chair, trainer, (co)facilitator, coordinator, public educator, and other). Two categorical age groups were created using a median split. Respondents were classified as either younger volunteers ($n = 37$) ranging in age from 20 to 54 ($M = 41.08$, $SD = 9.75$), or older volunteers ($n = 38$) ranging in age from 55 to 84 ($M = 63.61$, $SD = 6.60$). While gender was independent of type of volunteer position ($p > .05$), age was not, $X^2(5, N = 75) = 12.63$. Older adults held more positions as chairs, facilitators and coordinators.

Volunteers' Experiences. Volunteers who were (co)facilitators and mentors reported an average service period of 32 months. Volunteers indicated that they were 'somewhat' experienced as (co)facilitators/mentors ($M = 4.33$, $SD = 1.87$), and had (co)facilitated/mentored an average of 10 cases. Volunteers reported contributing an average of four hours per week to conferencing ($SD = 5.10$).

Fifty percent of volunteers had (co)facilitated/mentored family-group conferences, while 38.2% had (co)facilitated/mentored victim-offender conferences, 13.2% had (co)facilitated/mentored sentencing circles, and 1.3% had (co)facilitated/mentored other models.

Of the cases that volunteers had (co)facilitated/mentored, most offenders were in the pre-charge stage ($M = 5.52$, $SD = 2.14$), followed by the post-charge/pre-conviction stage ($M = 2.42$, $SD = 2.16$), reintegration stage ($M = 1.63$, $SD = 1.50$), and post-conviction/pre-sentencing stage ($M = 1.25$, $SD = .76$), as measured on scales ranging from 1 ("none") to 7 ("all"). Most of the cases involved youth first-time offenders ($M = 5.10$, $SD = 1.82$), followed by adult first-time offenders ($M = 2.85$, $SD = 1.91$), youth repeat offenders ($M = 2.77$, $SD = 1.79$), and adult repeat offenders ($M = 1.83$, $SD = 1.53$), again measured on scales ranging from 1 ("none") to 7 ("all"). Four subscales were created by averaging items across types of offences, and comparing the means revealed that most of the cases volunteers (co)facilitated/mentored involved property crimes ($M = 3.22$, $SD = 1.30$), followed by violent crimes ($M = 2.23$, $SD = 1.22$), drug offences ($M = 1.99$, $SD = 1.22$), and sex offences ($M = 1.75$, $SD = 1.41$).

Support and Recognition. Volunteers reported being relatively clear about their roles and responsibilities ($M = 5.99$, $SD = .88$). For the most part, volunteers were

receiving at least 'some' support from family and friends ($M = 4.74, SD = 1.57$) and the organization ($M = 5.35, SD = 1.24$). Volunteers generally felt that they were respected and valued by other members of the group ($M = 5.73, SD = .93$), and indicated that having their contributions and accomplishments recognized was 'somewhat important,' ($M = 3.94, SD = 1.41$). Volunteers mostly preferred verbal recognition (77.6%), followed by other forms of recognition such as appreciation banquets, spontaneous feedback, certificates, and monetary assistance for training (18.4% collectively), and recognition in the form of awards (6.6%).

Factors Affecting Dedication to Volunteer Activity. Statistical analyses were conducted to examine the relation between volunteers' demographic characteristics and the length of time they had volunteered for the RJ program and the average number of hours dedicated per week to volunteer duties.

A between-subjects t -test indicated that length of service in RJ did not differ by gender ($p > .05$). Similarly, there was no significant difference between males and females in terms of the amount of time contributed to volunteering ($p > .05$).

It was found that older volunteers had significantly longer service periods ($M = 3.48, SD = 2.24$) than younger volunteers ($M = 1.98, SD = 1.98$), $t(71) = -3.04, p = .003$. Older volunteers also reported spending significantly more time per week performing volunteer duties ($M = 6.71, SD = 8.51$) than did younger volunteers ($M = 3.22, SD = 4.07$), $t(48.63) = -2.14, p = .038$.

Between-subjects t -tests indicated that length of service and amount of time dedicated to volunteering did not differ by religious affiliation ($p > .05$).

Between-subjects *t*-tests were conducted to examine the effects of marital status (i.e, whether volunteers were involved in a relationship or not) and level of education (high school vs. post-secondary) on dedication to volunteer activity. The effects of marital status on length of service and amount of time dedicated per week to volunteering were not statistically significant, $p > .05$. Similarly, length of service and amount of time spent volunteering did not differ by level of education, $p > .05$. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that while time spent per week performing volunteer duties did not differ by occupation ($p > .05$), there was a statistical difference between occupation and length of service $F(3,69) = 3.11, p = .032$. Retired volunteers had significantly longer service periods ($M = 3.64, SD = 2.19$) than volunteers who were employed ($M = 2.57, SD = 2.25$).

Motivations

Items were reduced to five motivation subscales: *Career, Enhancement, Social, Understanding, and Values*. The internal consistency of each subscale was assessed using Cronbach's coefficient alpha (see Appendix B). Although the reliabilities of the enhancement and values subscales increased slightly when items were removed ("volunteer for financial gain" and "volunteering to carry out religious duty of helping others," respectively), all items were retained. However, due to the low reliability for the social subscale (alpha = .40), it was omitted from further analyses. Means for the four remaining motivation subscales were calculated to determine the reasons most strongly endorsed by volunteers for becoming an RJ volunteer. Subscales ranged from 1 ("completely disagree") to 9 ("completely agree") and were ranked as follows: Values (M

= 5.96, $SD = 1.35$), Understanding ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 1.69$), Career ($M = 5.22$, $SD = 2.47$), and Enhancement ($M = 4.26$, $SD = 1.47$).

Effects of Demographic Characteristics on Motivations. Between-subjects multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVAs) were performed to examine the effects of demographic characteristics on four motivation (dependent) variables: career, enhancement, understanding, and values motivations. With the use of Wilks' criterion, gender (males and females) did not significantly affect motivations, $F(4, 69) = 1.23$, $p > .05$, but Wilks' criterion indicated that motivations were significantly affected by age, $F(4, 68) = 3.59$, $p = .010$, in that younger volunteers were more motivated by understanding and career functions, while older volunteers more strongly endorsed values and enhancement motivations. The results reflected a modest association between age and the combined DVs, partial $\eta^2 = .17$. The DV, career, made a unique contribution to predicting differences between younger and older adults, $F(1, 72) = 9.66$, $p = .003$, $\eta^2 = .12$. Career motivations were significantly more salient in younger volunteers ($M = 6.08$, $SD = 1.94$) than older volunteers ($M = 4.38$, $SD = 2.70$). In terms of religious affiliation, Wilks' criterion indicated that practicing religion did not significantly affect motivations to volunteer, $F(4, 68) = 1.61$, $p > .05$.

Satisfaction with the CJS and Interest in RJ. The relationship between volunteers' motivations, satisfaction with the CJS, and interest in RJ were also examined. Subscales for satisfaction with the CJS and interest in RJ were created using Cronbach's coefficient alpha with a cutoff of .7 (see Appendix C and D, respectively). Satisfaction with the CJS and interest in RJ were reduced to four subscales: *reducing offenders' risk* (alphas = .94 and .85, respectively), *aiding victims* (alphas = .95 and .88, respectively), *empowering the*

community (alphas = .81 and .86, respectively), and *criminal justice response* (alphas = .95 and .84, respectively).

Subscales for satisfaction with the CJS ranged from 1 (“extremely dissatisfied”) to 9 (“extremely satisfied”) and were ranked as follows: reducing offenders’ risk ($M = 3.29$, $SD = 1.73$), criminal justice response ($M = 3.17$, $SD = 1.91$), empowering the community ($M = 3.10$, $SD = 1.79$), and aiding victims ($M = 2.92$, $SD = 1.78$). Similarly, subscales for interest in RJ ranged from 1 (“not at all interested”) to 9 (“extremely interested”) and were ranked as follows: reducing offenders’ risk ($M = 7.75$, $SD = 1.08$), empowering the community ($M = 7.71$, $SD = 1.18$), criminal justice response ($M = 7.66$, $SD = 1.10$), and aiding victims ($M = 7.46$, $SD = 1.22$).

Subscales for satisfaction with the CJS and interest in RJ that were significantly inter-correlated were: *satisfaction with aiding victims* and *interest in reducing offenders’ risk* ($r = -.29$), *satisfaction with empowering the community* and *interest in reducing offenders’ risk* ($r = -.26$), and *satisfaction with empowering the community* and *interest in empowering the community* ($r = -.23$).

When the relationship between subscales of motivation and interests in RJ were examined, the values motivation was significantly correlated with all four subscales of interests in RJ: *reducing offenders’ risk* ($r = .46$), *aiding victims* ($r = .41$), *empowering the community* ($r = .51$), and *criminal justice response* ($r = .36$). The career motivation was also significantly correlated with the *reducing offenders’ risk* subscale ($r = .29$), as was the enhancement motivation and *aiding victims* subscale ($r = .23$). All other correlations between motivation and interests in RJ subscales were non-significant ($p > .05$).

Effects of Demographic Characteristics on Satisfaction with the CJS and Interest in RJ. Between-subjects multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVAs) were performed to examine the effects of demographic characteristics on the four satisfaction with the CJS subscales as dependent variables. Wilks' criterion indicated that gender did not significantly affect satisfaction with the CJS, $F(4, 70) = .24, p > .05$. However, Wilks' criterion indicated that satisfaction with the CJS differed significantly by age, $F(4, 69) = 2.97, p = .025$. Older volunteers were significantly more satisfied than younger volunteers with the CJS's ability to aid victims, empower the community, and respond to crime. The results reflected a modest association between age and the combined DVs, partial $\eta^2 = .15$. Wilks' criterion indicated that religious affiliation did not significantly affect satisfaction with the CJS, $F(4, 68) = 2.06, p > .05$.

Between-subjects multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVAs) were performed to examine the effects of demographic characteristics on the four interests in RJ subscales as dependent variables. With the use of Wilks' criterion, gender did not significantly affect interests in RJ, $F(4, 70) = 2.47, p > .05$. Likewise, Wilks' criterion indicated that age did not significantly affect interests in RJ, $F(4, 69) = 1.10, p > .05$, and nor did religious affiliation, $F(4, 68) = 1.41, p > .05$.

Training and Skills

Seventy-two percent of volunteers reported having received general training, 86.8% were trained as facilitators, and 44.7% had received follow-up training. Hours of general training ranged from 0 to 100 ($M = 22.40, SD = 27.12$), and hours of facilitator training ranged from 0 to 99 ($M = 22.37, SD = 19.09$). Fifty-eight percent of volunteers felt they still needed more training or education to perform their duties more effectively

and efficiently. Topics that volunteers wanted to see covered in training pertained to skills development and conference experience (38.2%), responses to crime and victimization (10.5%), special topics such as cultural diversity and addictions resources (10.5%), procedural and administrative matters (6.6%), and other topics such as personal safety, community partnerships, and the psychology of crime (5.3%).

Of the 11.8% who had not received facilitator training, over half (6.6%) were interested in getting trained. Volunteers provided reasons such as “unable to take on commitment at this time,” “lack of information about training opportunities,” and “waiting for the next training session” for not having received facilitator training.

Fifty-eight percent of volunteers had experienced all aspects of “interactive” training (i.e., workshops, discussion groups, role playing, on-the-job training) and 75% had experienced all aspects of “observational” training (i.e., training aids, lectures/presentations, reading). Comparing the means across subjects revealed that volunteers found interactive training ($M = 6.10$, $SD = .75$) more helpful than observational training ($M = 5.62$, $SD = .79$), and this difference was significant, $t(64) = 3.81$, $p = .000$.

In terms of skills, volunteers ranked communication skills ($M = 6.45$, $SD = .56$) as most helpful, followed by interpersonal ($M = 6.05$, $SD = .81$) and leadership skills ($M = 5.71$, $SD = .83$). Sixty-three percent of volunteers reported having special qualifications that helped them as an RJ volunteer. Qualifications that volunteers reported as being helpful included career-related experience (30.3%), certifications (14.5%), degrees/diplomas (11.8%), life experience (5.3%), and specialized training (1.3%).

As indicated in Table 2, forty-one percent of volunteers reported that being a good facilitator involved having adequate skills/being prepared, while 28.9% thought that good facilitators were objective/non-judgmental, 21.1% thought that good facilitators possessed characteristics such as patience, compassion and a sense of humanity, and 3.9% thought that a good facilitator should support RJ principles and practices. On the other hand, a little less than one-third of volunteers (30.3%) reported that being judgmental/biased was associated with bad facilitators, while 28.9% thought that bad facilitators were imposing/dominating, 19.7% thought that bad facilitators had inadequate skills and/or a lack of preparedness, 6.6% thought that bad facilitators had personal agendas, 5.3% thought that characteristics attributed to bad facilitators included a lack of integrity and intuition, impatience, and narrow-mindedness, and 1.3% thought that bad facilitators' values were incongruent with RJ.

Comparing means across subjects indicated that volunteers were most comfortable in dealing with cases where offenders were of ethnic minority ($M = 6.27$, $SD = .87$), followed by cases where offenders had a history of substance abuse ($M = 4.92$, $SD = 1.41$), fetal alcohol syndrome ($M = 4.50$, $SD = 1.65$) and sexual abuse ($M = 4.50$, $SD = 1.68$), and psychological disorders ($M = 4.31$, $SD = 1.61$).

Effects of Training on Perceived Conferencing Success. Three variables (success of restitution contract, success of reducing offenders' risk of re-offending, and success of engaging victims and offenders) were created by averaging items related to each aspect of perceived conferencing success. Using scales ranging from 1 ("never") to 7 ("always"), volunteers reported that the cases they (co)facilitated generally resulted in victims and offenders connecting ($M = 5.36$, $SD = .87$) and offenders completing

Table 2 Volunteers' Opinions on What Makes a Good/Bad Facilitator

	Percent
What makes a good facilitator?	
Adequate skills/being prepared	41.0%
Objective/non-judgmental	28.9%
Personal characteristics	21.1%
Support RJ principles and practices	3.9%
What makes a bad facilitator?	
Judgmental/Biased	30.3%
Imposing/Dominating	28.9%
Inadequate skills/lack of preparedness	19.7%
Personal agendas	6.6%
Personal characteristics	5.3%
Values incongruent with RJ	1.3%

restitution contracts ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 1.67$), and rarely resulted in offenders re-offending ($M = 2.08$, $SD = .88$). (Co)facilitators reported that victims and offenders were rarely reconvened when a suitable restitution agreement could not be reached ($M = 2.06$, $SD = 1.40$), and when offenders did not comply with restitution agreements ($M = 1.82$, $SD = 1.09$).

Standard multiple regression analyses were performed to examine the effects of four aspects of training and volunteer experiences (i.e., hours of facilitator training, (co)facilitator experience, number of cases facilitated, and average number of hours devoted to a case) on the three conferencing success variables (i.e., success of restitution contract, success of reducing offenders' risk of re-offending, and success of engaging victims and offenders).

When the predictors hours of facilitator training, (co)facilitator experience, number of cases facilitated, and average number of hours devoted to a case were entered simultaneously into the regression equation, R^2 was not statistically different from zero, $F(4, 33) = 1.67$, $p > .05$, indicating that the IVs did not affect success of restitution contract. Using the same predictors to examine the effects of training and volunteer experience on success of reducing offenders' risk of re-offending, R^2 was again not statistically different from zero, $F(4, 31) = 1.77$, $p > .05$, indicating that the IVs did not affect success of reducing offenders' risk. Again, when a regression analysis was performed between the independent variables hours of facilitator training, (co)facilitator experience, number of cases facilitated, and average number of hours devoted to a case, and success of engaging victims and offenders as the dependent variable, R^2 was not

statistically different from zero, $F(4, 35) = 1.62, p > .05$, indicating that the IVs did not affect success of engaging victims and offenders.

Volunteer Satisfaction, Increasing Involvement, Sustaining Service

A standard multiple regression analysis was performed between satisfaction with position as the dependent variable and the independent variables: primary position, need for more training/education, clarity of role and responsibilities, supervisory/organizational support, feelings of being respected/valued by other volunteers, interest in RJ, success of restitution contract, and success of reducing offenders' risk of re-offending. Results indicated that R^2 was statistically different from zero, $F(8, 41) = 5.10, p = .000$. As indicated in Table 3, four of the independent variables contributed significantly to prediction of satisfaction with position: primary position ($sr^2 = .06$), clarity of role and responsibilities ($sr^2 = .07$), supervisory/organizational support ($sr^2 = .07$), and interest in RJ ($sr^2 = .11$). The eight independent variables jointly contributed another .19 in shared variability. Altogether, 50% (40% adjusted) of the variability in satisfaction with position was predicted by scores on all eight predictors.

In a second regression analysis between intention to sustain service as the dependent variable and primary position, interest in RJ, success of restitution contract, success of reducing offenders' risk of re-offending, the four motivations subscales (values, understanding, career and enhancement), and satisfaction with position as predictors, R^2 was statistically different from zero, $F(9, 22) = 2.99, p = .017$. As indicated

Table 3 Summary of Standard Multiple Regression Analysis of Training and Volunteer Experience Variables on Satisfaction with Position

Variables	β	t	sr^2 (unique)
Primary position	.28	2.18*	.06
Need for more training/education	-.18	-1.46	
Clarity of roles and responsibilities	.30	2.36*	.07
Supervisory/organizational support	.29	2.30*	.07
Feelings of being respected/valued	-.08	-.58	
Interest in RJ	.37	3.03*	.11
Success of restitution contract	.03	.20	
Success of reducing offenders' risk	-.18	-1.48	
			$R^2 = .50, R = .71^*$

* $p < .05$

in Table 4, three of the independent variables contributed significantly to prediction of intention to sustain service: success of restitution contract ($sr^2 = .15$), understanding motivation ($sr^2 = .12$), and career motivation ($sr^2 = .27$). The nine independent variables in combination contributed another .01 in shared variability. Altogether, 55% (37% adjusted) of the variability in intention to sustain service was predicted by the nine predictors combined.

A third regression analysis indicated that primary position, interest in RJ, success of restitution contract, success of reducing offenders' risk of re-offending, motivations subscales (values, understanding, career, enhancement), satisfaction with position, and demographic variables (gender, age, and occupation), did not predict willingness to increase involvement with the organization, $F(12, 36) = 1.18, p > .05$.

Reasons to Stop Volunteering. To explore the reasons that would prevent volunteers from continuing service in RJ, items were reduced to "internal" (e.g., stress) and "external" (e.g., moving away) reasons by summing items related to each factor. Forty-two percent of volunteers provided internal reasons that would prevent them from continuing service, while 70% provided external reasons.

Table 4 Summary of Standard Multiple Regression Analysis of Volunteer Experience Variables on Intentions to Sustain Service

Variables	β	t	sr^2 (unique)
Primary position	-.38	-1.93	
Interest in RJ	.39	1.80	
Success of restitution contract	.42	2.69*	.15
Success of reducing offenders' risk	-.02	-.08	
Values motivation	.07	.30	
Understanding motivation	.45	2.39*	.12
Career motivation	-.72	-3.63*	.27
Enhancement motivation	-.02	-.11	
Satisfaction with position	.09	.42	
			$R^2 = .55, R = .74^*$

* $p < .05$

Chapter VI – DISCUSSION

The present study examines volunteerism in community-based restorative justice programs. Survey methodology was employed to address the following aims of the study:

(1) Identify the demographic characteristics of individuals who volunteer for RJ programs; (2) Examine the factors that motivate individuals to initiate and sustain volunteer service; (3) Explore the skills that volunteers perceive as useful for their role as RJ volunteers, and examine the quality of training volunteers receive; and (4) Determine how volunteers' experiences affect their satisfaction with their role in RJ, willingness to increase involvement, and intentions to sustain volunteer service. This chapter begins with a discussion of the results in the order that the aims are presented, followed by a consideration of their implications and directions for future studies.

Characteristics of RJ Volunteers

The findings of the present study indicate that RJ programs are comprised mostly of women and that RJ volunteers are primarily Caucasian. RJ volunteers also tend to be older, as service generally peaks at 60 to 65 years of age. The majority of RJ volunteers are involved in relationships, have post-secondary degrees, and are employed, particularly in professional services and health care. The majority of volunteers are also involved with more than one nonprofit organization, including RJ.

The high proportion of female volunteers found in RJ programs is consistent with Eagly and Crowley's (1986) social-role theory of helping, in that women may be more inclined towards emotionally supportive roles. Thus, the empathic and nurturing essence of being an RJ facilitator may appeal more to women. The finding that career-related motives for volunteering in RJ are more salient in women than men also coincides with

Jenner's (1981; 1982) notion that women may draw on community service as a means of career exploration. Through service in RJ, women can gain a variety of practical skills that are applicable to the work force.

Given that volunteers in the present study reported service primarily in RJ programs that operate under conventional models (i.e., family-group conferencing and victim-offender reconciliation), the finding that the vast majority of RJ volunteers are Caucasian should be viewed with caution. Future studies may obtain a more representative profile of RJ volunteers by including more non-traditional RJ programs such as First Nations community initiatives, which are known to promote the involvement of aboriginal individuals in particular.

The finding that RJ volunteerism peaks later in life corresponds with previous studies that have found a growing trend in volunteer activity among the older population (Chambre, 1993; Choi, 2003). Older RJ volunteers were found to have relatively longer service periods than their younger counterparts (approximately 42 and 24 months, respectively), and contributed twice as much time on average to service (almost seven hours per week). The finding that older volunteers tend to take on key positions that require a considerable time commitment (i.e., program chairs, facilitators and coordinators) suggests that fewer obligations and/or more flexible schedules enable them to volunteer for RJ. This is further substantiated by the finding that older RJ volunteers are mostly retired.

While socioeconomic factors did not affect degrees of volunteerism (i.e., service periods and the average number of hours dedicated to volunteering), RJ volunteers are generally married and have high levels of education and occupational status. Thus, since

RJ volunteers are generally an affluent group, their financial stability and enriched support systems may help negate the costs of volunteering that would otherwise prevent them from service. Interestingly, a large proportion of RJ volunteers who are employed are working in professional services and health care. Since these professions are generally concerned with improving the health and well-being of others (e.g., teachers, social workers, and psychologists), service in RJ may augment their everyday roles.

The present finding that RJ volunteers tend to dedicate their time and energy to more than one cause is consistent with past research (Warburton et al., 2001). Peters-Davis, Burant, and Braunschweig (2001) posit that individuals who engage in volunteer service tend to develop a set of values that promote the importance of civic participation. Furthermore, these values are often congruent with those professed by particular faiths (Fischer & Schaffer, 1993). Thus, the present finding that over 50% of RJ volunteers practice some form of religion suggests that RJ service may present an avenue for individuals to express their religious ideals. The implication here is that RJ recruitment efforts may benefit from targeting religious organizations.

For the most part, RJ volunteers reported that they heard about RJ through word of mouth or the local media, and were recruited by family members or acquaintances who were involved in RJ. This suggests that an individual's support network may influence his or her decision to volunteer for RJ. A large proportion (23.7%) of volunteers also indicated that they initiated contact with the RJ program themselves. Thus, recurrent public forums that provide general information on RJ and volunteer opportunities may increase the success of recruitment efforts.

In terms of involvement within the organization, results indicate that RJ volunteers often take on more than one role in a program. A large proportion of volunteers are facilitators and coordinators, while a smaller fraction is distributed across positions. While the vast majority of RJ volunteers' positions are unpaid, their duration of service lasts an average of 33 months, suggesting that they are generally content with their volunteer positions.

Although RJ facilitators and mentors have relatively long service periods (an average of 32 months) and an average caseload of 10 referrals, they reported being only "somewhat experienced." This highlights the need for on-going training to continually develop and improve volunteers' skills, thus building their proficiency and confidence as facilitators and mentors.

Results indicate that the most prominent model of RJ being implemented is family-group conferencing, followed by victim-offender programs and healing circles. Most of the cases that volunteers facilitate or mentor involve youth first-time offenders at the pre-charge stage, and the majority of cases involve property crimes. This is consistent with the notion that RJ is a customary response to youth and minor crime, and that RJ is apt for dealing with cases that are referred by the police when charges have not been laid (Sharpe, 1998).

Results indicate that RJ volunteers are reasonably clear about their roles and responsibilities in the organization. Results also indicate that volunteers generally receive ample support from the program, which is important since past research has found that strong, supportive relationships between program members can help to prevent volunteer burnout (Black & DiNitto, 1994).

Generally, RJ volunteers reported feeling fairly respected and valued by other volunteers in the organization. Volunteers reported that being recognized for their contributions to the program was somewhat important, and that the type of recognition they most preferred was verbal acknowledgment. Past studies suggest that recognition can serve to communicate respect and appreciation for individuals who support a cause, and in turn, elevate volunteer motivation (Fisher & Ackerman, 1998). Thus, RJ programs can foster volunteer commitment, for example, by periodically hosting special events (e.g., appreciation banquets, awards ceremonies) to acknowledge the work of its volunteers.

Motivations to Volunteer for RJ

The values motivation was found to be the most highly endorsed reason for becoming involved in RJ. This is consistent with previous studies that have found that volunteers rate the values motivation as the most important reason for engaging in volunteer service (Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). RJ volunteers are motivated by humanitarian ideals, which correspond with RJ principles of forgiveness, healing and reintegration.

Although results indicate that men and women do not differ in their length of service and the amount of time they dedicate to volunteering, women had higher ratings on all motivations subscales, suggesting that they are generally more inspired to become involved in RJ. In terms of age, younger volunteers rate knowledge functions (i.e., understanding and career motivations) more highly, while enhancement motives are more salient in older volunteers. This finding is consistent with the notion that career development may be more normative at earlier points in adulthood, such that younger

adults may become involved in RJ to acquire and/or refine marketable skills (Gillespie & King, 1985). On the other hand, older adults may be interested in RJ service as a meaningful alternative to leisure activities and/or to gain new experiences. These findings have implications for volunteer retention. Research suggests that because self-serving motivations (i.e., understanding, career, and enhancement) are easily invoked, incentives such as providing employment contacts and engaging volunteers in varied and meaningful experiences can be a pervasive and powerful means for sustaining volunteer service (Batson, Ahmad, Tsang, 2002).

A potential indication of program success is the length of time that volunteers serve with the organization. On average, RJ volunteers sustain service for three years and report that external factors such as moving away and returning to school, rather than internal factors such as stress and boredom would prevent them from continuing service. This suggests that volunteers are generally committed to their RJ programs.

Satisfaction with the CJS and Interests in RJ

Because of the time commitment and effort required in volunteer service, the appeal of RJ to particular individuals is likely related to the values and practices promoted by the organization. The findings of the present study indicate that there is a relationship between one's satisfaction with the justice system and his or her interests in RJ. Specifically, the less satisfied individuals are with the current criminal justice system's ability to provide aid to victims and empower the community to respond to crime and victimization, the more interested they are in aspects of RJ related to reducing offenders' risk of recidivism and engaging the community. Since it is now widely recognized that the punitive nature of the criminal justice system is ineffective in

compensating victims of crime and restoring balance within communities, it can be expected that people's interests in RJ will continue to grow.

The finding that the values motivation is related to one's interests in RJ is not surprising, given that it is attributed to altruistic and humanitarian concerns. For individuals who are strongly motivated by a need to help others and benefit the community, RJ service may be viewed as an opportunity to "help improve public safety," "reduce criminal behaviour," and "heal the effects of crime."

Skills and Training for RJ

While volunteers had received extensive general and/or facilitator training overall, more than half of the volunteers felt that they needed more training and education to perform their duties more effectively and efficiently. Areas of training that volunteers thought required additional attention included skills development and conference experience, justice responses to crime and victimization, and procedural and administrative topics (e.g., conferencing procedures and recordkeeping).

The skills reported as being most useful to volunteers' roles were communication and interpersonal skills. This suggests that hands-on approaches in training that enable volunteers to interact and exchange ideas with others may be effective. While proportionately more volunteers had undergone "observational" training methods (i.e., lectures, presentations), volunteers found interactive techniques (i.e., discussion groups, role playing) significantly more helpful. The implication here is that training curriculums may be more effective by incorporating role-specific tasks and training techniques. For instance, skills development (e.g., effective communication, professional practice with clients) should form the foundation of training for facilitators, and applied, interactive

training methods (e.g., job shadowing) should be implemented to help them gain conferencing experience. Additionally, training curriculums need to cover a broader range of case sensitive issues (e.g., addictions and abuse) in order for RJ programs to avoid the potential pitfall of an overreaching skills base.

A relatively small percentage of volunteers indicated that they had not received facilitator training and provided reasons such as being “unable to take on the commitment at this time,” having a “lack of information about training opportunities,” and “waiting for the next training session” for not being trained. Thus, in order to increase the much needed resource of facilitators, RJ programs need to continually promote and publicize RJ training workshops and provide more frequent facilitator training opportunities.

RJ volunteers reported being only somewhat comfortable in dealing with case sensitive issues pertaining to an offenders’ history, for example, of sexual abuse and psychological disorders. In order for conferences to be successful, it is necessary to ensure that facilitators are adequately trained in cases requiring specialized knowledge and skills. The implication here is that RJ training curriculums need to be broadened to incorporate a variety of topics such as addictions and abuse.

Of the cases that volunteers had facilitated, the majority of offenders were youth offenders at the pre-charge stage. Thus far, many schools have had much success in implementing RJ-based programs in their system (e.g., peer mediation and mentoring programs), suggesting that RJ programs may benefit from promoting more youth involvement. This is important because youth and young people are more aware of the social problems that they and their peers face (e.g., bullying, peer pressure) and can offer

a perspective to conflict resolution that is based on the values and ideals of this subgroup.

Training and Conferencing Success. Contrary to predictions, the amount of training that volunteers receive, their level of experience as a (co)facilitator, the number of cases they have (co)facilitated, and the average number of hours dedicated to conferencing do not affect volunteers' perceptions of overall conferencing success. The implication here is that perhaps more vital to the RJ process than the facilitators' level of preparedness is the emotional and dialectic exchange between victims and offenders.

Volunteer Satisfaction, Increasing Involvement and Sustaining Service

Results indicated that volunteers were generally satisfied with their position, and this was most related to their type of position, their clarity on their role and responsibilities, the organizational support they received, and their interests in RJ. Thus, the more clear volunteers are on the duties related to their position, the more support they receive from the program, and the more interested they are in RJ, the more satisfied they are with their position. Ansari and Phillips (2001) propose that one determinant of job satisfaction is one's feelings of competency. Thus, RJ coordinators can help foster volunteers' contentment by clearly delineating their tasks and objectives, and providing continual performance feedback to ensure their proficiency. For facilitators in particular, debriefing sessions with other volunteers can serve as a support network wherein any concerns or challenges that arise during conferencing can be addressed.

The present study found that volunteers' motivations and their perceptions of conferencing success contributed uniquely to predicting their intentions to sustain service. Specifically, volunteers intended to sustain service to the extent that they

perceived the restitution contracts to be successful and that their motivations to acquire knowledge and gain career-related experiences were fulfilled. The implication here is that volunteers' service periods in RJ may be prolonged, so long as they perceive the program's practices to be successful and they continue to gain new learning experiences and skills from volunteering.

Contrary to expectations, volunteers' satisfaction with their position did not predictive their willingness to increase their involvement in RJ. This may be due to the fact that volunteers are already highly active within the organization, as evidenced by the amount of time they contribute (approximately five hours a week), and therefore, they may be less inclined to take on more responsibility.

The Volunteer Process Model

Although the demographics construct did not contribute much to the volunteer process as a whole, age appeared to be an important factor at the antecedents and experiences stages in terms of distinguishing volunteers' motivations, satisfaction with the criminal justice system, type of position, and length of service. Furthermore, the motivations construct contributed significantly to predicting volunteers' intentions to sustain service. By linking antecedents to the experiences and consequences stages, the implication is that outcomes at later stages of the volunteer process may be affected by earlier events. Additionally, previous studies have found an association between motives and satisfaction. In the present study, I introduced constructs relevant to volunteerism in RJ; namely, satisfaction with the criminal justice system and interest in RJ. By finding an association between interests in RJ and volunteers' satisfaction with their position, this indicates that context specific factors may contribute to the volunteer process.

Surprisingly, volunteers' preparedness for their role in RJ was not predictive of their perceptions of conferencing success. Regardless of the amount and level of training that volunteers received, their perceptions of successful restitution contracts, reduction in recidivism, and successful engagement of victims and offenders were not affected. This finding can be attributed to the fact that the success of the RJ process depends entirely on the ability of *conference participants* to engage in dialogue and formulate an appropriate restitution plan.

Satisfaction with position was most influenced by volunteers' interests in RJ and aspects of their involvement in the program, but was a poor predictor of increased involvement in RJ. Incorporating a number of measures of satisfaction in future studies, however, may yield different results, as volunteers' satisfaction is likely influenced by various aspects of their experiences (e.g., satisfaction with the opportunities offered by the program and the programs' ability to meet their needs and interests).

Limitations of the Present Study and Future Directions

One limitation of the present study is its reliance on self-report measures. To detract volunteers from providing socially desirable responses, they were instructed to return the survey anonymously by mail.

Because respondents were all active volunteers, the RJ volunteerism model was unable to capture people's *decisions* to volunteer. Past studies examined this construct by comparing volunteers and nonvolunteers (Penner, 2002; Warburton et al., 2001). This approach may be problematic, however, as the two groups likely differ on a number of dimensions. For instance, Penner (2002) found that volunteers scored higher than nonvolunteers on scales of "other-oriented empathy" and "helpfulness" on the Prosocial

Personality Battery. Warburton et al. (2001) also characterized volunteers as having higher socioeconomic status, religious affiliations, larger social networks, and a past history of volunteer service, in comparison to nonvolunteers.

While the present study inquired about volunteers' *perceptions* of conferencing success, it was not designed to evaluate the *actual* effectiveness of volunteers. This is important because RJ programs often invest a considerable amount of time and resources into training their volunteers. Thus, future studies can evaluate the efficacy of volunteers by reviewing the volunteer evaluations carried out by program coordinators and comparing case records to facilitators' perceptions on the outcomes of conferencing sessions.

Summary

In sum, the profile of RJ volunteers, as documented by the findings of the present study, indicate that RJ programs in BC generally tend to attract women, and older, more prominent community members (i.e., upper-middle class citizens). Thus, RJ volunteers are generally not representative of the communities in which the programs serve. Sharpe (1998) cautions that the overrepresentation of professionals in RJ may be a potential pitfall, as it can detract from the importance of "collective efficacy" in community responses to crime and victimization. The success of RJ depends, in part, on its ability to reflect the different social dynamics within a community, and thus, requires the involvement of individuals from all levels of social class and diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds. Thus, RJ recruitment efforts need to be more vigilant in targeting a wider audience to include citizens from "all walks of life."

Volunteers' reasons for becoming involved in RJ are complex and represent a host of personal and social needs and interests. Reasons related to personal values and knowledge acquisition appear to be the most cited reasons for volunteering in RJ. Thus, volunteerism in RJ may be initiated by motivations to help improve public safety and reduce criminal behaviour, and to learn about criminal justice. Because age was found to be an important factor in determining why individuals volunteer for RJ, recruitment campaigns that promote opportunities to acquire and/or enhance marketable skills may be effective in targeting a younger audience, while recruitment messages promoting self-development and novel experiences may be influential in targeting older adults.

The quality of training that volunteers received, as opposed to quantity, contributed to volunteers' perceptions of their own effectiveness in RJ. Thus, RJ training can be enhanced by clearly delineating the tasks and objectives of volunteers' roles at the onset, and directing training curriculums and techniques to each given role. Volunteers also reported that they wanted training to focus more on skills development, conference experience, and special topics such as cultural diversity and addictions resources, suggesting that training curriculums need to cover a broader range of topics.

Finally, volunteers were generally satisfied with their roles, and this was associated with their intentions to sustain service in the RJ program. Thus, by continuing to facilitate positive experiences with RJ programs, we can expect to retain volunteers for longer periods.

Volunteers contribute to various areas that are vital to Canadian economic and social development. Community-based initiatives promote shared responsibility in dealing with local issues and have the potential to influence policy development. As a

result, there is a practical advantage to better understanding volunteerism in nonprofit organizations. The present study provides a conceptual framework to examine the volunteer process in RJ, and presents a profile of RJ volunteers and their experiences within the programs. In order to generalize the findings to volunteers across RJ programs and to the population of volunteers in general, however, further studies need to be conducted. Fortunately, because community-based justice initiatives continue to gain momentum, there will be ample opportunity in the future to study volunteerism in RJ.

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Appendix A

Exploring the Role of Volunteers in Community-based Restorative Justice Programs

Thank you for volunteering to participate in this study for restorative justice volunteers.

This study aims to examine the personal characteristics of volunteers, motivations for volunteering, and volunteer experiences.

This study is important because it will help us gain an understanding of volunteers, and how they contribute to the success of restorative justice programs. It will also assist in providing recommendations for effective volunteer recruitment, retention, and training.

This survey consists of five sections:

1. Background Information
2. Volunteer Training
3. Involvement with Your Volunteer Organization
4. Views About Justice
5. Perceptions on Effective Practice

To answer the questions, you will either be required to fill in a blank space, check a box, or mark an “X” on the scale provided.

At the end of the survey, you will be provided with an opportunity to tell us more about your involvement and experience with restorative justice, and any other information that you feel is relevant.

Please begin the survey now. Do not leave any questions blank. Answer all questions openly and honestly. I am interested in your opinions.

Thank you for your time and effort.

1. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. What is your gender? MALE FEMALE

2. How old are you? _____ YEARS

3. How would you describe your ethnicity?
 WHITE BLACK ASIAN ABORIGINAL OTHER – Please specify:

4. Do you practice any spiritual faiths? YES NO
 If yes, which faith do you practice?
 CATHOLICISM CHRISTIANITY JUDAISM BUDDHISM OTHER – Please state:

5. What is your political affiliation?
 LIBERAL
 PROGRESSIVE CONSERVATIVE
 NEW DEMOCRATIC PARTY (NDP)
 CANADIAN ALLIANCE
 OTHER – Please state:

6. What kind of relationship are you currently in?
 MARRIED/COMMONLAW BOYFRIEND/GIRLFRIEND SINGLE DIVORCED/SEPARATED
 WIDOWED

7. Are you currently:
 EMPLOYED
 What is your current occupation? _____
 RETIRED
 When did you retire? _____
 What was your occupation? _____
 STUDENT
 What are you studying? _____
 UNEMPLOYED
 What type of paid employment were you previously in? _____
 If not previously employed, what type of employment would you like to do?

8. What is the highest level of education that you have achieved?
 HIGH SCHOOL BACHELORS MASTERS PHD OTHER – Please specify:

9. How many organizations do you currently volunteer for? _____
Please state which ones: _____
10. How long have you served as a **restorative justice** volunteer?
_____ YEARS _____ MONTHS _____ WEEKS
11. How long do you intend to continue volunteering with your restorative justice organization? _____ YEARS _____ MONTHS _____ WEEKS _____ DAYS
12. Which of the following reasons do you think would prevent you from continuing to volunteer with the organization?
- MOVING AWAY FROM AREA
 - RETURNING TO EDUCATION
 - GAINING PAID EMPLOYMENT
 - STRESS FROM VOLUNTEERING
 - LACK OF TIME
 - NEED TO SPEND MORE TIME WITH FAMILY
 - BORED WITH VOLUNTEERING / BORED WITH THE ORGANIZATION
 - BURNT OUT FROM VOLUNTEERING
 - LACK OF RECOGNITION FOR ACCOMPLISHMENTS AS A VOLUNTEER
 - OTHER – Please specify:
13. What is your **primary position** as a volunteer in restorative justice?
- ADMINISTRATOR / SECRETARY / TREASURER
 - CHAIR
 - TRAINER
 - FACILITATOR / CO-FACILITATOR
 - COORDINATOR
 - PUBLIC EDUCATOR / RECRUITER
 - OTHER – Please state:
14. How much time do you spend on average **per week** performing your volunteer duties for the restorative justice organization? _____ HOURS

2. VOLUNTEER TRAINING

15. How useful do you find the following skills for your role as a restorative justice volunteer?

a. GOOD COMMUNICATION SKILLS (E.G. ABILITY TO ENGAGE IN EFFECTIVE DIALOGUE):

NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	EXTREMELY
USEFUL	USEFUL	USEFUL
I-----I	-----I	-----I

b. DECISION-MAKING SKILLS (E.G. ABILITY TO PROBLEM-SOLVE):

NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	EXTREMELY
USEFUL	USEFUL	USEFUL
I-----I	-----I	-----I

c. PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE (E.G. NON-JUDGEMENTAL ATTITUDE):

NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	EXTREMELY
USEFUL	USEFUL	USEFUL
I-----I	-----I	-----I

d. ORGANIZATION AND PLANNING SKILLS (E.G. ABILITY TO PREPARE FOR CONFERENCING):

NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	EXTREMELY
USEFUL	USEFUL	USEFUL
I-----I	-----I	-----I

e. EFFECTIVE LISTENING SKILLS (E.G. ABILITY TO ENGAGE IN ATTENTIVE LISTENING):

NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	EXTREMELY
USEFUL	USEFUL	USEFUL
I-----I	-----I	-----I

f. CULTURAL SKILLS (E.G. BEING SENSITIVE TO CULTURAL DIFFERENCES):

NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	EXTREMELY
USEFUL	USEFUL	USEFUL
I-----I	-----I	-----I

g. INTERPERSONAL SKILLS (E.G. ABILITY TO INTERACT WITH DIVERSE GROUPS OF INDIVIDUALS IN VARIOUS SETTINGS):

NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	EXTREMELY
USEFUL	USEFUL	USEFUL
I-----I	-----I	-----I

h. LEADERSHIP SKILLS (E.G. ABILITY TO TAKE CHARGE AND INSPIRE OTHERS):

NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	EXTREMELY
USEFUL	USEFUL	USEFUL
I-----I	-----I	-----I

16. Have you received any training **in general** as a restorative justice volunteer?

YES NO

If yes, how many hours of training have you received? _____ HOURS

What did this involve? _____

17. Have you received any **facilitator training** as a restorative justice volunteer?

YES NO

If yes, how many hours of training have you received? _____HOURS

18. If you have **not yet** received any facilitator training, are you interested in getting some? YES NO

19. If you have **not yet** received any facilitator training, **why not?**

- NOT INTERESTED IN FACILITATING
- TRAINING TOO EXPENSIVE
- UNABLE TO TAKE ON COMMITMENT AT THIS TIME
- LACK OF INFORMATION ABOUT TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES
- OTHER – Please state:

20. If you **have** received facilitator training, did your training involve any of the following:

- TRAINING WORKSHOPS: YES NO
- DISCUSSION GROUPS: YES NO
- ROLE PLAYING: YES NO
- TRAINING AIDS (E.G. VIDEOS): YES NO
- LECTURES/PRESENTATIONS: YES NO
- READING: YES NO
- ON-THE-JOB TRAINING: YES NO

21. How helpful did you find each of the training methods that you experienced?

	NOT AT ALL HELPFUL	SOMEWHAT HELPFUL	EXTREMELY HELPFUL
a. DISCUSSION GROUPS:	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		
b. ROLE PLAYING:	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		
c. TRAINING AIDS (E.G. VIDEOS):	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		
d. LECTURES/PRESENTATIONS:	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		
e. READING:	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		
f. ON-THE-JOB TRAINING:	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		

22. Have you received any follow-up facilitator training? YES NO

If yes, what did this involve? _____

23. Do you feel that you need **more** training or education to perform your volunteer duties more effectively/efficiently? YES NO

24. What topics would you like to see covered in your restorative justice training?

25. Do you have any special qualifications, certifications or accreditations that help you as a restorative justice volunteer? YES NO
If yes, please state: _____

26. Have you had a criminal record check as a volunteer for restorative justice?
 YES NO

3. INVOLVEMENT WITH YOUR VOLUNTEER ORGANIZATION

27. How did you **first hear about** the restorative justice organization that you currently volunteer for?
- ATTENDED AN INFORMATION SESSION
 - READ A PAMPHLET / BROCHURE / POSTING / ETC
 - THROUGH PERSONAL EXPERIENCE WITH THE ORGANIZATION'S SERVICE
 - WORD OF MOUTH (E.G. THROUGH AN ACQUAINTANCE, FRIEND, CO-WORKER, ETC)
 - OTHER – Please specify:

28. How were you **recruited** as a restorative justice volunteer?
- THROUGH FAMILY/FRIENDS INVOLVED WITH THE ORGANIZATION
 - BY OTHER VOLUNTEERS IN THE ORGANIZATION
 - THROUGH ANOTHER ORGANIZATION THAT YOU ARE INVOLVED WITH
 - BY YOUR EMPLOYER, WHO IS INVOLVED WITH THE ORGANIZATION
 - OTHER – Please state:

29. For the following question, please indicate how much you agree/disagree with each statement: *“I became a restorative justice volunteer.”*

- a. TO HELP OTHERS:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- b. FOR A NEW EXPERIENCE:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- c. BECAUSE IT CORRESPONDS WITH MY CAREER INTERESTS:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- d. BECAUSE IT CORRESPONDS WITH MY EDUCATIONAL INTERESTS:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- e. FOR SELF-DEVELOPMENT:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- f. TO BENEFIT THE COMMUNITY:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- g. TO CARRY OUT MY RELIGIOUS DUTY OF HELPING OTHERS:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

- h. TO HELP IMPROVE PUBLIC SAFETY:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- i. TO HELP REDUCE CRIMINAL BEHAVIOUR:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- j. TO GAIN A SENSE OF BELONGING IN MY COMMUNITY:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- k. FOR PERSONAL GRATIFICATION:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- l. FOR FINANCIAL GAIN:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- m. BECAUSE I AM PASSIONATE ABOUT JUSTICE AND FAIRNESS:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- n. TO SHARE MY KNOWLEDGE OF THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- o. TO GAIN KNOWLEDGE OF THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- p. TO ACQUIRE NEW SKILLS AND ABILITIES:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- q. TO SUPPORT RESTORATIVE JUSTICES' SPIRITUAL MOVEMENT:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- r. TO HELP HEAL THE EFFECTS OF CRIME:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- s. AS A CONTRIBUTORY FORM OF LEISURE:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- t. TO MEET NEW PEOPLE:
 COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

u. BECAUSE I WAS PERSONALLY AFFECTED BY CRIME:

COMPLETELY DISAGREE COMPLETELY AGREE

I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

30. Is your position as a restorative justice volunteer:

PAID UNPAID PAID EXPENSES ONLY

31. How satisfied are you with your position as a restorative justice volunteer?

COMPLETELY
UNSATISFIED

COMPLETELY
SATISFIED

I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

32. How clear are you on your role and responsibilities as a restorative justice volunteer?

NOT AT ALL
CLEAR

SOMEWHAT
CLEAR

EXTREMELY
CLEAR

I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

33. How much **supervisory/organizational** support do you receive in your position as a restorative justice volunteer?

NONE

SOME

A LOT

I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

34. How much support do you receive from your **family/friends** in your position as a restorative justice volunteer?

NONE

SOME

A LOT

I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

35. How much do you feel that you are respected/valued by other members of your restorative justice group?

NOT AT ALL

SOMEWHAT

EXTREMELY

I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

36. How important is it to you to have your contributions/accomplishments as a volunteer be recognized by other members of your restorative justice group?

NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	EXTREMELY
IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT
I-----I	-----I	-----I

37. What type of recognition would you prefer to receive for your contributions/accomplishments as a volunteer?

VERBAL (E.G. "THANK YOU")

GIFTS

AWARDS (E.G. PLAQUE)

OTHER – Please specify:

38. To what extent are you willing to **increase** your involvement with your restorative justice group?

NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	EXTREMELY
WILLING	WILLING	WILLING
I-----I	-----I	-----I

4. VIEWS ON JUSTICE

39. How satisfied are you with the current **criminal justice system** and its ability to:

- a. ASSIST IN REHABILITATING OFFENDERS:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- b. SUCCESSFULLY REINTEGRATE OFFENDERS INTO THE COMMUNITY:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- c. DETER REOFFENDING:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- d. PROVIDE REPARATIONS TO VICTIMS:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- e. PROVIDE REPARATIONS TO THE COMMUNTIY:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- f. PROMOTE RESPONSIBILITY IN OFFENDERS:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- g. TEND TO THE NEEDS/CONCERNS OF VICTIMS:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- h. ENCOURAGE COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN JUSTICE PROCESSES:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- i. REDUCE THE PUBLIC'S FEAR OF CRIME:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- j. CRIME PREVENTION:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- k. PROVIDE A COST-EFFECTIVE METHOD OF JUSTICE:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I
- l. RESPOND TO CRIME IN A TIMELY MANNER:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

m. PROMOTE FAIRNESS IN JUSTICE PROCESSES:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

n. PRACTICE EFFECTIVE SENTENCING POLICIES:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

o. ADDRESS THE HARMS OF CRIME:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

p. REINFORCE COMMUNITY VALUES:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

q. PROVIDE OPPORTUNITIES FOR DIALOGUE BETWEEN VICTIMS AND OFFENDERS:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

r. EFFECTIVELY RESPOND TO YOUTH CRIME:
 EXREMELY DISSATISFIED EXTREMELY SATISFIED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

40. How interested are you in each of the following aspects of **restorative justice**?

a. REHABILITATING OFFENDERS:
 NOT AT ALL SOMEWHAT EXTREMELY
 INTERESTED INTERESTED INTERESTED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

b. SUCCESSFULLY REINTEGRATING OFFENDERS INTO THE COMMUNITY:
 NOT AT ALL SOMEWHAT EXTREMELY
 INTERESTED INTERESTED INTERESTED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

c. REDUCING REOFFENDING:
 NOT AT ALL SOMEWHAT EXTREMELY
 INTERESTED INTERESTED INTERESTED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

d. PROVIDING REPARATIONS TO VICTIMS:
 NOT AT ALL SOMEWHAT EXTREMELY
 INTERESTED INTERESTED INTERESTED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

e. PROVIDING REPARATIONS TO THE COMMUNITY:
 NOT AT ALL SOMEWHAT EXTREMELY
 INTERESTED INTERESTED INTERESTED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

q. RESTORING HARMONY:
 NOT AT ALL INTERESTED SOMEWHAT INTERESTED EXTREMELY INTERESTED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

r. STRENGTHENING COMMUNITY TIES:
 NOT AT ALL INTERESTED SOMEWHAT INTERESTED EXTREMELY INTERESTED
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

41. To what extent do you think your restorative justice group works in partnership with the following?

	NEVER	SOMETIMES	ALWAYS
a. POLICE (MUNICIPAL, RCMP):	I-----	I-----	I-----
b. PAROLE OFFICE:	I-----	I-----	I-----
c. COURT SYSTEM (JUDGES, PROSECUTORS, DEFENCE):	I-----	I-----	I-----
d. SCHOOL BOARDS:	I-----	I-----	I-----
e. EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS (ELEMENTARY, HIGH SCHOOLS, ETC):	I-----	I-----	I-----
f. OTHER RJ GROUPS:	I-----	I-----	I-----
g. OTHER NON-PROFIT ORGANIZATIONS WITH SIMILAR INTERESTS: (E.G., JOHN HOWARD SOCIETY)	I-----	I-----	I-----

5. EFFECTIVE PRACTICE

42. Are you a: FACILITATOR CO-FACILITATOR MENTOR

43. How experienced are you as a facilitator/co-facilitator/mentor?

NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	EXTREMELY
EXPERIENCED	EXPERIENCED	EXPERIENCED
I-----I	I-----I	I-----I

44. How long have you served as a facilitator/co-facilitator/mentor?

____ YEARS ____ MONTHS ____ WEEKS

45. Approximately how many cases have you facilitated/co-facilitated/mentored?

____ CASES

46. On average, approximately how many **hours per week** do you contribute to **conferecing** (e.g., preparation, facilitation, follow-up)? ____ HOURS

47. What are your feelings and expectations **before** entering a conference?

48. What are your feelings and expectations **after** a conference?

49. What types of conferencing models have you facilitated/co-facilitated/mentored?

- VICTIM-OFFENDER RECONCILIATION
- FAMILY-GROUP CONFERENCING
- SENTENCING/HEALING CIRCLES
- OTHER – Please specify:

50. Of the cases that you have facilitated/co-facilitated/mentored, approximately how many of the offenders were in the following stages of the justice process?

	NONE		SOME		ALL
a. PRE-CHARGE:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
b. POST-CHARGE / PRE-CONVICTION:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
c. POST-CONVICTION / PRE-SENTENCING:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
d. POST-SENTENCING / PRE-REINTEGRATION:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----

51. Of the cases that you have facilitated/co-facilitated/mentored, approximately how many of the offenders were:

	NONE		SOME		ALL
a. YOUTH FIRST-TIME OFFENDERS:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
b. YOUTH WITH PREVIOUS OFFENCES:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
c. ADULT FIRST-TIME OFFENDERS:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
d. ADULTS WITH PREVIOUS OFFENCES:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----

52. Approximately how many cases that you facilitated/co-facilitated/mentored involved:

	NONE		SOME		ALL
PROPERTY CRIMES:					
a. VANDALISM:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
b. PUBLIC MISCHIEF:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
c. BREAKING AND ENTERING:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
d. BURGLARY:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
e. THEFT:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
f. ROBBERY:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
SEXUAL OFFENCES:					
g. SEXUAL ASSAULT:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
h. SEXUAL HARRASSMENT:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
i. SEXUAL ABUSE:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----
j. RAPE:	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----	I-----

	NONE	SOME	ALL
DRUG OFFENCES:			
k. POSSESSION:	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		
l. TRAFFICKING:	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		
VIOLENT OFFENCES:			
m. ASSAULT:	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		
n. ASSAULT WITH A WEAPON:	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		
o. MANSLAUGHTER:	I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		

53. How often did the cases that you facilitated/co-facilitated result in the offender's **completion of:**

a. PROPERTY RESTITUTION (E.G. REPAIRING DAMAGED PROPERTY):

NEVER SOMETIMES ALWAYS
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

b. MONETARY COMPENSATION (E.G. REPAYING COSTS TO LOSS OF/DAMAGED PROPERTY):

NEVER SOMETIMES ALWAYS
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

c. COMMUNITY SERVICE (E.G. ENVIRONMENTAL RESTORATION – LITTER PICK-UP):

NEVER SOMETIMES ALWAYS
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

54. To your knowledge, how often did the cases that you facilitated/co-facilitated result in:

a. OFFENDER'S NON-COMPLIANCE WITH RESTITUTION AGREEMENT / BREACH OF CONTRACT:

NEVER SOMETIMES ALWAYS
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

b. OFFENDERS REOFFENDING:

NEVER SOMETIMES ALWAYS
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

c. RECOMMENDATION TO RECONFERENCE:

NEVER SOMETIMES ALWAYS
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

55. When victims and offenders **cannot reach a suitable restitution agreement**, how often do you reconvene the conference?

NEVER SOMETIMES ALWAYS
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

56. When offenders **do not successfully comply with restitution agreements**, how often do you reconvene the conference participants?

NEVER SOMETIMES ALWAYS
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

57. How often did the cases that you facilitated/co-facilitated result in:

	NEVER	SOMETIMES	ALWAYS
a. OFFENDERS EXPRESSING REMORSE:	I-----	I-----	I-----
b. OFFENDERS OFFERING AN APOLOGY:	I-----	I-----	I-----
c. OFFENDERS EXPRESSING EMOTIONS :	I-----	I-----	I-----
d. OFFENDERS ACCEPTING RESPONSIBILITY:	I-----	I-----	I-----
e. OFFENDERS' ADMITTING GUILT:	I-----	I-----	I-----
f. OFFENDERS OFFERING TO MAKE AMENDS:	I-----	I-----	I-----
g. OFFENDERS PROMISING NOT TO REOFFEND:	I-----	I-----	I-----
h. VICTIMS EXPRESSING EMOTIONS:	I-----	I-----	I-----
i. VICTIMS ACCEPTING AN APOLOGY:	I-----	I-----	I-----
j. VICTIMS OFFERING FORGIVENESS:	I-----	I-----	I-----

58. How comfortable are you in facilitating/co-facilitating cases where offenders have a history of:

	NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	EXTREMELY
a. FETAL ALCOHOL SYNDROME:	I-----	I-----	I-----
b. SUBSTANCE ABUSE (ALCOHOL & DRUGS):	I-----	I-----	I-----
c. BEING SEXUALLY ABUSED:	I-----	I-----	I-----
d. PSYCHOLOGICAL DISORDERS:	I-----	I-----	I-----

59. How comfortable are you in facilitating/co-facilitating cases where offenders are of ethnic minority?

NOT AT ALL COMFORTABLE	SOMEWHAT COMFORTABLE	EXTREMELY COMFORTABLE
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		

60. In your opinion, how important are the following in contributing to successful programs?

a. CONNECTION AMONG VICTIMS AND OFFENDERS:

NOT AT ALL IMPORANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	EXTREMELY IMPORTANT
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		

b. COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION:

NOT AT ALL IMPORANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	EXTREMELY IMPORTANT
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		

c. ROLE OF THE FACILITATOR/CO-FACILITATOR:

NOT AT ALL IMPORANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	EXTREMELY IMPORTANT
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		

d. OFFENDER'S APOLOGY/REPENTANCE:

NOT AT ALL IMPORANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	EXTREMELY IMPORTANT
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		

e. VICTIM'S ACCEPTANCE OF APOLOGY/FORGIVENESS:

NOT AT ALL IMPORANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	EXTREMELY IMPORTANT
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		

f. OPPORTUNITY FOR REPARATION:

NOT AT ALL IMPORANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	EXTREMELY IMPORTANT
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		

g. OPPORTUNITY FOR VICTIMS AND OFFENDERS TO ENGAGE IN DIALOGUE:

NOT AT ALL IMPORANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	EXTREMELY IMPORTANT
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		

h. CHANGES IN OFFENDER'S VIEWS/ATTITUDES:

NOT AT ALL IMPORANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	EXTREMELY IMPORTANT
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I		

i. EXCHANGE BETWEEN VICTIMS AND OFFENDERS (E.G. EMOTIONAL EXCHANGE):

NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	EXTREMELY
IMPORANT	IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT

I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

61. In your opinion, what makes a **good** restorative justice facilitator?

62. In your opinion, what makes a **bad** restorative justice facilitator?

Thank you for participating in this study. Please ensure that you have answered all of the questions, and that you have not left any incomplete.

If you have anything else that you would share about your involvement and experience with restorative justice, please write them down below. Use the back of this page if necessary.

Appendix B

Reduction of Motivation Variable using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha

Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha
Career		.75
Corresponds with career interests	.60	
Corresponds with educational interests	.60	
Enhancement		.70
For new experience	.50	
Self-development	.58	
Personal gratification	.45	
Financial gain	.28	
Contributory form of leisure	.53	
Social		.40
Gain sense of belonging in community	.25	
Meet new people	.25	
Understanding		.71
Passionate about justice/fairness	.50	
Share knowledge of CJS	.39	
Gain knowledge of CJS	.65	
Acquire new skills/abilities	.45	
Values		.71

Appendix B Continued

Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha
Help others	.55	
Benefit community	.52	
Religious duty	.18	
Improve public safety	.45	
Reduce criminal behaviour	.54	
Support spiritual movement	.33	
Help heal effects of crime	.46	

Appendix C

Reduction of Satisfaction with CJS Variable using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha

Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha
Reducing offenders' risk		.94
Rehabilitating offenders	.86	
Reintegrating offenders	.91	
Deter reoffending	.92	
Promote responsibility in offenders	.82	
Prevent crime	.74	
Aiding Victims		.95
Reparations to victims	.93	
Reparations to community	.90	
Tend to needs/concerns of victims	.89	
Reduce fear of crime	.72	
Address harms	.84	
Opportunities for dialogue	.87	
Empowering the community		.81
Encourage community involvement	.69	
Reinforce community values	.69	
Criminal justice response		.95
Cost-effective method	.89	

Appendix C Continued

Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha
Timely response	.82	
Promote fairness in process	.88	
Effective sentencing policies	.83	
Effective response to youth crime	.87	

Appendix D

Reduction of Interests in RJ Variable using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha

Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha
Reducing offenders' risk		.85
Rehabilitating offenders	.62	
Reintegrating offenders	.68	
Reduce reoffending	.81	
Promote responsibility in offenders	.64	
Increase public safety	.61	
Aiding Victims		.88
Reparations to victims	.78	
Reparations to community	.83	
Support to victims	.79	
Reduce fear of crime	.56	
Address harms	.61	
Empowering the community		.86
Encourage community involvement	.54	
Reinforce community values	.78	
Restore harmony	.72	
Strengthen community ties	.82	
Criminal justice response		.84

Appendix D Continued

Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha
Cost-effective method	.56	
Timely response	.72	
Promote fairness in process	.77	
Effective response to youth crime	.70	
