

THE CONTRIBUTION OF VOLUNTEER MENTORING

IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE

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ABSTRACT

This thesis explores the potential of volunteer-based mentoring of offenders and victims in criminal justice in England and Wales. The research was based on four case-study organisations and involved analysis of the recruitment and training of volunteers and of their contribution in comparison with standards defined for mentoring as practiced in more generic professional mentoring circles.

Key findings from the research were of limited appreciation of the nature of mentoring among the four organisations; of significant reliance on college students as volunteers seeking work experience for their CVs (and who therefore were not always available to provide longer-term mentoring support); of rudimentary training programmes; and of supervisory staff who often seemed reluctant to empower volunteers to engage in proper mentoring roles. Indeed, rather than mentoring, the contribution of the volunteers was better described as a mix of practical assistance provision, coaching and clerical/administrative support.

Despite this, the main conclusion of the research was that volunteer-based mentoring does appear to offer valuable potential in criminal justice for both offenders and victims of crime. However, more strategic approaches to recruitment and more rigorous training in the principles and skills of mentoring are needed as well as greater support from supervising staff.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Concept and Nature of Volunteer Mentoring

Volunteers have been making contributions within criminal justice in various ways for many years; notably as magistrates and jurors. They have also been providing support to victims of crime in the community, to witnesses having to give evidence in the courts, and they have assisted the probation service on projects designed to steer offenders away from crime, for example, by addressing some of the circumstances that would so often form part of the context for their criminality such as joblessness, accommodation difficulties, drug and alcohol dependence, poor health and so on. This thesis focuses particularly on the contribution of volunteers as mentors working both with victims and offenders. Mentoring in general is usually understood in terms of the provision of guidance, instruction and encouragement with the aim of developing competence and character in a protégé (Goldson, 2008). However, in a criminal justice context it is typically associated specifically with victims and offenders; for victims in helping rebuild confidence of individuals who have been particularly traumatized by their victimization, and in relation to offenders, in providing help both during and after sentence towards crime-free lives, for example by assistance and support in finding employment and, resolving housing issues, addressing an alcohol or drug problem, capitalizing on particular talents and aptitudes, building self esteem and the like.

These days, the term ‘mentoring’ is frequently heard in and around criminal justice circles. But what the research underlying this thesis has set out to do is to examine

exactly what volunteer-based mentoring of victims and offenders involves in practice, what impacts it has and, most particularly, how volunteer mentoring in a criminal justice context compares with mentoring as discussed in the professional and academic literature and as provided in other social contexts by specialist mentoring practitioners. At the same time, the research has sought to understand better the potential contribution that volunteer mentors might make in criminal justice and the positive difference they might make for victims and offenders – an issue that would seem especially important at a time when financial resources in the public sector are so tight and when increasingly, attentions are being directed towards the independent sector and to volunteers for the provision of more such supporting services. Accordingly some of the key questions for this thesis have been quite practical; concerning, for example, the nature of the work undertaken by volunteer mentors; the training they receive; and the impacts and difference they have been able to make for victims and offenders.

Several years ago, in the United States, Gurr (2011) realized there was a need to find a way of ‘connecting’ with ‘at-risk’ and ‘high-risk’ children and young people. She felt large numbers of vulnerable youth needed help and she founded ‘Create Now’; a not-for-profit organisation dedicated to arranging for volunteers to mentor vulnerable youth and with a particular focus on working with them through the arts. Although she had no formal qualifications for this type of work - she was working as a script writer at that time - she had for many years helped a great many young people and had also written a guidebook for volunteer mentors based on her experiences (Gurr, 2011). Her advice to volunteer mentors included the comment *‘When you offer your time and guidance to disadvantaged youth, not only do you give back to your community, but you*

also touch someone's life in many ways that you could never have imagined. In return you'll be impacted and reap many rewards' (Gurr, 2011, p 11).

Mentoring, Gurr recognized might not always be successful, as much would depend on the nature of the mentoring relationship. However, experiences of volunteers like Gurr who, having tried it, have found success, suggest that as a method for helping people to steer away from crime and achieve what they want in life, it is at least worthy of exploration. As indicated, Gurr's experience as a volunteer was gained specifically in the context of working with children, but what of the potential for volunteer-based mentoring in other settings as well, and more particularly, as far as this thesis is concerned, in the context of criminal justice? Might volunteer mentors be able to make a worthwhile difference through working with offenders and supporting them towards crime-free lives, or with victims of crime in helping them through the practical and emotional difficulties following victimization?

Gurr also argued that success with mentoring depended on the nurturing of a close personal relationship between mentor and mentee (the person being mentored). Mentors, she suggested, would set an example that could motivate the mentee to try harder, giving them confidence to reach ambitious goals, and to make good choices. So a further question for this thesis would be of the potential of volunteers as mentors compared with paid and professionally-trained mentors. Gurr considered the particular advantages of using volunteers as follows;

'Most of these kids feel unwanted, especially children who have been abused and abandoned by their families. They may feel unloved, and guilty and responsible for what has happened to them, even though it wasn't their fault. While their teachers,

social workers, therapists, counselors and other adults that they interact with may have their best interests in mind, it's their mentors who support them without receiving any monetary gain. It's a powerful feeling to know that someone cares about you just because of who you are, without having any obligations or ulterior motives.' (Gurr, 2011, p.54)

She has further argued that volunteer mentors would need to be dedicated, persistent and to rely above all on their common sense. She found that youth generally regarded their mentor as a special friend and one they respected, indeed with whom they tended to be impressed because they were a volunteer who had chosen to befriend them, rather than an official who was being paid to be there as part of their job responsibility. She advised her volunteer mentors that:

'The most important thing to remember is that the trust you establish with your mentee is precious, it's the building block of your relationship. The mentor's role is to help them to feel more important and to develop their self-esteem and confidence. Do the very best that you can to support your mentee's needs. Commit yourself with the highest integrity and unconditional love (Gurr, 2011, p 21).'

These days there are many organisations now recruiting volunteer mentors to work with offenders and victims in criminal justice. But unfortunately, few volunteer mentors have followed Gurr's example and written about their experiences. So the research for this thesis has been prompted by the recognition of a knowledge gap to be filled concerning the potential of volunteer-based mentoring in criminal justice and of the extent to which such potential is currently being realized and a positive difference being made as a result.

1.2 The Research Questions

In order to understand better the nature and scope of mentoring provision in the criminal justice system in England and Wales at present and of its potential for making a positive contribution to the lives of victims and offenders, a number of key research questions were developed for this research, respectively examining the actual and the potential contribution of volunteer mentors, both in relation to offenders (in support of their rehabilitation) and for victims of crime following an episode of victimisation.

Volunteering has, in general, been increasingly encouraged in criminal justice, particularly so in the recent austere financial times in the public sector. But to what extent is such encouragement having the intended effects and making a difference for victims and offenders in criminal justice in practice?

In this context, questions are inevitably raised about the implications of the reliance on volunteers, as opposed to paid professionals, for the quality of mentoring work able to be provided by a growing volunteer work-force; about the time inputs, skills and expertise that volunteers, working mostly on a part-time basis, are able to offer. While volunteering in principle is to be welcomed for the commitment and altruistic contribution it can represent with time and skills offered freely, it is to be questioned whether such motivation could itself represent a sufficient benefit to counterbalance the inevitable downsides of reliance on voluntarism – notably of limited availability of time and of relative inexperience.

The use of volunteer mentors in the criminal justice system in England and Wales has been strongly encouraged by the apparent success of programmes in the United States such as ‘Big Brothers, Big Sisters of America’ (Grossman and Tierney, 1998) and ‘Create Now’ (Gurr, 2011). As a result, a number of criminal justice organizations are

now offering mentoring by volunteers in this country, although there has been little (published) research on the impact and effectiveness of such work.

That said, the concept of mentoring at the centre of this thesis – can be a slippery one; – one that presents significant definitional problems for any research in this field, not least because of the diversity of activities and differing intensities of support that is provided. Such definitional issues are explored more fully in Chapter 3.

In this research the selection of case-study organisations purposefully included some that encouraged ‘peer mentoring’ (i.e. where the mentors themselves have had personal experience as offenders or victims of crime). In this respect it was of interest to the research to understand how beneficial such similar personal experiences might be to the mentoring process and how this might impact on the quality of relationship with a mentee.

Measurement of the effectiveness of mentoring in criminal justice (e.g. in reducing recidivism or helping victims to get ‘back on track’ and put their victimization behind them) has become ever more significant in recent times as the funding and contractual arrangements for organisations providing such services have been reorganized and become subject to the discipline of ‘payment by results’. However, measuring such effectiveness would always be difficult. In the case of offenders, for instance, the mentoring organisation would be unlikely to know about a pattern of reoffending unless the perpetrator is apprehended again, and it would similarly be difficult to know for sure how well a victim of crime had recovered, or indeed at what point either for offenders or victims, the need for continuing support could safely be considered to have ended. It would also be difficult to assess the effectiveness of mentoring except against

very specific targets, such as the mentee finding a job or overcoming a drug habit.

However, such targets would be unlikely to reveal very much about other less specific issues such as the emotional state of mind of the mentee. Such problems of defining and measuring the effectiveness of mentoring will be discussed more fully in Chapter 3 but for the purposes of this research the definition that has been used is based on that described by Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) as follows:

'Mentoring relates primarily to the identification and nurturing of potential for the whole person. It can be a long-term relationship, where the goals may change but are always set by the learner. The learner owns both the goals and the process. Feedback comes from within the mentee – the mentor helps them to develop insight and understanding through intrinsic observation (i.e. becoming more aware of their own experiences).' (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 2005 p. 4)

Often the term mentoring is mentioned in conjunction with the term 'coaching' and the definition here that has been used for comparison is also one offered by Megginson and Clutterbuck, 2005, as follows:

'Coaching relates primarily to performance improvement (often over the short term) in a specific skills area. The goals, or at least the intermediate or sub-goals, are typically set with or at the suggestion of the coach. While the learner has primary ownership of the goal, the coach has primary ownership of the process. In most cases, coaching involves direct extrinsic feedback (i.e. the coach reports to the coachee what s/he has observed).' (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 2005 p. 4)

In summary, then, the overarching focus of concern in this thesis has been with developing a clearer understanding of the contribution that volunteer mentors can and do make within criminal justice. This challenge has been approached by addressing two main principal research questions (RQs), each of which in turn has called for consideration of three subsidiary-questions (SQs) as follows:

RQ1 What contribution do volunteer mentors make in criminal justice?

SQ 1.1 Who volunteers to provide mentoring and what is the motivation?

SQ 1.2 What training do volunteer mentors receive in preparation for their work in criminal justice?

SQ 1.3 What are the nature and demands of the work undertaken by volunteer mentors within criminal justice?

RQ2 What is the potential for a more significant contribution by volunteer mentors in criminal justice?

SQ 2.1 What do we know of 'best practice' and the potential impacts of high standards of volunteer mentoring within criminal justice?

SQ 2.2 What added value can volunteer mentors offer in criminal justice?

SQ 2.3 What are the key constraints on realizing the potential of volunteer mentoring in criminal justice in practice?

1.3 Thesis Structure

Following this introduction, the thesis is organized into eight further chapters. Chapter 2 reviews the literature on voluntarism, particularly in a public service context. The chapter considers the ‘why, what and who’ questions associated with public service volunteering. In examining why people offer their services in this context, the chapter reviews theories of altruism, self-help and involvement in different activities. The focus then shifts to consider the nature of the tasks and responsibilities for which individuals typically volunteer, before examining ‘who volunteers’, here particularly drawing on the findings from various empirical research studies of the background characteristics of volunteers. The chapter concludes by reflecting on, the significance of the social aspects of volunteering, both as a potential motivation for volunteering, and with regard to its implications for the nature of such contributions.

In Chapter 3 the focus turns more particularly to the subject of ‘mentoring’ and to reviewing the published literature on the subject, with regard to its theoretical underpinnings and the different models and applications in practice again, particularly within public service contexts. The chapter also considers the training requirements for mentoring and the practical skills and techniques typically forming the core subject matter of accredited mentor training programmes that in turn prepare mentors for practice.

Chapter 4 then considers the application of mentoring specifically within the context of criminal justice, discussing its use in relation both to offenders and victims of crime. Here again, the literature is reviewed, particularly highlighting empirical evidence of the effectiveness of mentoring although, to date, the various published studies have

focused largely on offender mentoring and impact on recidivism, with little written about mentoring (and its effectiveness) in relation to victims of crime.

Chapter 5 begins by highlighting the gap in knowledge about volunteer mentoring that this thesis sets out to address. It introduces more fully the principal and subsidiary research questions (RQs and SQs as outlined above) and details the methodological framework and research design that has been used to address them. Next, the chapter proceeds to discuss in more detail the research approach that was adopted – this, as indicated, involving a case study methodology, based on a sample of four volunteer based organisations each providing mentoring within the criminal justice sector. The methods deployed for data collection are described; these including: observation of volunteer mentor training, a series of in-depth qualitative interviews with personnel in each of the four case-study organisations, and documentary analysis of a range of publications and reports from each. Finally the chapter introduces the thematic analysis approach that has been used to construct a rigorous and objective synthesis of the interview data and reflects on a number of ethical issues raised in the research process.

Following on from this discussion of methodology, Chapter 6 introduces each of the four case study organisations in more detail; these being a womens' refuge organisation (Asha); two locally-based organisations working with offenders and supporting them towards crime-free lives (YSS and Sova) and a national organisation providing support for victims of crime (Victim Support).

In Chapter 7 the main findings of the research are presented in three main parts. The first part focuses on the findings of the thematic analysis and identifies the key issues that were raised through the case studies. The second part addresses the first of the two

research questions (i.e. what contribution do volunteer mentors make in criminal justice?) and reports the empirical evidence derived from the four case-studies. In the third part, attention turns to the second key research question (what is the potential for a more significant contribution by volunteer mentors in criminal justice?) and again considers the issues in light of the empirical findings.

The key findings and lessons from the research are summarized in Chapter 8 and these are considered in turn in relation to the published literature along with discussion of the implications for policy and practice in volunteer-based mentoring.

Then, finally, in Chapter 9, following a summation of the contribution of the thesis a number of recommendations are proposed both for the development of policy and practice in volunteer mentoring within criminal justice and for future research on this topic.

CHAPTER 2

PUBLIC SERVICE AND VOLUNTARISM

2.1 Introduction to Voluntarism

According to Rochester et al., (2010) the traditional definition of volunteering has tended to involve three elements. The first is ‘the gift of time’. The second is ‘the element of free choice’. The third is the ‘lack of payment’. In similar vein, more than twenty five years earlier, the Volunteer Centre had defined volunteering as ‘*work undertaken on behalf of self or others outside the immediate family, not directly in return for wages, undertaken by free choice; not required by the state or its agencies*’ (Volunteer Centre, 1983). This definition was somewhat diluted by schemes in the 1980s and early 1990s that involved ‘paid volunteering’, especially in the field of community care. Also, there was an increased use by the courts of community service orders as sanctions for offenders which were not ‘freely entered into’. According to Hall (1989), traditionally in Great Britain the three ‘C’s of voluntarism were Christ, Compassion and Community but the relevance of these today is clearly questionable as attitudes towards volunteering have changed in recent decades (Hall, 1989).

These days, as in the past, involvement in volunteering is generally regarded as important for the proper functioning of society (Decker & Halman, 2003) and volunteering and active participation in voluntary associations are considered to be key components of civil society. As Decker and Halman (2003) have suggested, volunteering helps to generate social cohesion and societal self regulation as well as

strengthening political democracy by developing individual citizenship and organizing countervailing powers. Issues such as these have gained momentum in recent years underlining the importance of voluntary civic engagement for the development and maintenance of civilized societal cohesion and political democracy. From the research tradition on voluntarism that has also emerged, it has been noted that volunteering takes many forms including social and political involvement, passive and active membership of voluntary associations, incidental political activism or individual involvement in public discourse (Decker & Halman, 2003). Volunteering may also involve such things as direct helping behaviour, service delivery and unpaid work. This can include many diverse fields such as sports, faith based organisations, human services and schools. There may also be an interrelationship of values or culture with volunteering at a societal and individual level.

2.2 Why Do People Volunteer?

Three general perspectives have been proposed as providing the motivation for volunteering. The dominant view has been that it is an altruistic act. People become volunteers in order to help others who are less fortunate than themselves. Such volunteers would most likely work in a field of social welfare where they can help to provide care, support, advice and other assistance for the benefit of people in need such as children, older people, people with disabilities or mental and physical health issues and people living in poverty or social exclusion. The opportunities for such volunteers are mostly provided by large, professionally staffed and formally structured organisations. These may be charities or third sector organisations and statutory agencies such as schools and hospitals. As such, volunteers provide a significant additional resource in the form of unpaid labour and are increasingly treated as ‘human

resources' needing formal and skilled management of a similar kind to that provided for paid staff. The work undertaken by volunteers in this respect is now generally thought of as having been defined in advance by the organisations, with people recruited to undertake specific roles, through a process of selection, induction and training (Rochester, Ellis Paine and Howlett, 2010).

The second view (Lyons, Wijkstrom and Clary, 1998) focuses on the motivation for voluntary action which is rooted in self-help and mutual aid. Volunteer activities are based on the ability of people to work together to meet shared needs and address common problems (Lyons et al., 1998). This type of volunteer may work in associations or self-help groups offering mutual support. Their activities may extend beyond social welfare to other areas of public policy such as transport and the environment (Rochester et al., 2010).

The third type of motivation for volunteering (Rochester et al., 2010) is intrinsic rather than extrinsic. Volunteers engage in serious leisure activities because of an enthusiasm for the specific form of involvement and a commitment to acquiring the knowledge and skills needed to practice it. For some it will involve the use of free time to create a substitute for the intrinsic rewards not available to them through mundane forms of employment. For others, it represents an opportunity to express other dimensions of their personality. These leisure volunteers are typically involved in the fields of arts and culture, sports and recreation where they form a major proportion of the volunteering population. Activities include performance art such as theatre, music and dance; painting and sculpture, archaeology, local history and heritage. It can also include a wide range of sports and recreations like rambling (Rochester et al., 2010).

Participation in voluntarism may also be affected by the values held by the individuals that volunteer and the values held at a collective level in the society in which they live. These values help to shape attitudes to voluntary action. Halman and de Moor (1994) defined values as ‘deeply rooted dispositions guiding people to act and behave in a certain way’ and describe them as ‘an important attribute of culture’ which ‘includes what we think, how we act and what we own’. Macionis and Plummer (1998) describe four key sets of values of this kind which may have a significant impact on volunteering. The first is that the principle of altruism or beneficence is based on the moral imperative of compassion or care for other people. The second is that the idea of solidarity expresses a feeling of identification with a group or society and a responsibility to contribute to the well-being of the group and its other members. The third is that reciprocity, the understanding that helping others may lead in some way and at some time in the future to being helped oneself when in need. The fourth is that the values of equity and social justice are based on the belief that inequality and injustice are morally and socially wrong and should be addressed or eliminated.

These values are encouraged in many cultures by religion. The imperatives of caring for other people both within one’s own community and beyond is common to all major faith groups, while social justice is arguably at the heart of some religious beliefs but not others (Rochester et al, 2010).

The degree to which individual or collective forms of action in a society are valued may also be affected by the cultural influence on the extent and nature of voluntarism. An individual may be expected to take full responsibility for looking after himself or herself or at the other extreme the individual depends totally on the institutions of the

state for their welfare. In the plural societies of the developed world, different value systems co-exist and provide the foundations for the different forms of voluntary action (Rochester et al, 2010).

2.3 Why Do People Act Altruistically?

Norman (2010) has written at length about why people act altruistically. Many people, he claims, explain it through self interest, that is, not because they want to help others but because it makes them feel good. He has claimed that as a society now we increasingly seem to believe that human beings are basically economic, rather than social animals, that our behaviour is always motivated and so to be explained, by self interest and the desire for personal gain. On this view people are calculating machines, always assessing the odds and possibilities for gain. They always want more wealth, power and status and so they fix their attention on the margin, where net costs yield higher net benefit. He has described how in recent years this view has received huge cultural reinforcement from a wide range of sources and the danger is that once people start to see each other as merely economically or financially motivated, they treat them so and they themselves will behave in the same perpetuating way. The self interest view can offer an explanation to some extent as everyone behaves selfishly sometimes and some people do so often.

Norman has also claimed that the self-interest view can sometimes explain, and occasionally predict, aggregate human behaviour very well which is what so much of modern economics is concerned with. However as a default view of human motivation, the self-interest view is profoundly and dangerously inadequate (Norman, 2010).

Standard economics is not a theory about how people actually are, but about how they

behave overall. He has claimed that the notion of 'Big Society' in Britain contains within it a far more positive and persuasive alternative view, both of human nature and of the sources of human wealth and well being; indeed suggesting that present economic theories of the last few decades exclude all the things that give human life meaning (Norman, 2010).

This recognition that what motivates human beings need not merely be a matter of 'the stick and the carrot';- complying with rules or achieving some collective goal, but of culture, identity and belonging. It is this new category of philic association that lays the philosophical groundwork for modern ideas of social capital, networking and connectivity and for the Big Society (Norman, 2010).

Norman (2010) has also argued that the human self and human well-being has three distinct components, which link the ideas of action, self-fulfillment and social institutions. In this view the human self is not static but a dynamic, active force. It is autonomous, imaginative and creative and its needs and interests constantly change and develop over time. It has actual and potential capabilities that naturally seek an outlet for self-expression. Moreover people are social beings. They have an instinct to change and personalize what is around them and to link with others. Over time human actions create habits, good habits become virtues, shared habits over time create practices and practices that have developed over time become institutions. This invites people to ask themselves what they stand for, what they care about, what they want to become and what they can achieve in seeking self fulfillment. It is both highly personalized and optimistic about human potential. Everyone has or can develop, his or her own distinctive skills or goals or capabilities. Personal success becomes a matter of

fulfilling one's potential, not simply of a status rat-race against others. It is egalitarian and non-hierarchical as we each have our own capabilities, so we can learn from each other. We are equals because humans have such astonishing potential in so many different directions that there is no single test on which different people can be comprehensively assessed. It is difficult to say though how these capabilities could or should be valued for policy purposes (Norman, 2010).

2.4 Public Service - Voluntarism and Public Policy

In recent years in the UK, there has been much political discussion and advocacy around voluntarism, not least under the banner of, 'the Big Society' (Blond, 2010; Cameron, 2010; Norman, 2010) and on the value of promoting more active volunteering in the arena of public service provision. While few would dissent from the general view that such voluntarism can represent a very positive aspect of the strength and depth of community bonds and state of society, a commonly expressed reaction to the idea of government initiatives to effect greater reliance on voluntarism is to suggest that the main motive is cost cutting and the substitution of properly trained and paid professionals in the public sector with amateur (and unpaid) workers. Is it possible that volunteers can do the same (or indeed, a better) job than a career practitioner, because they are inspired by altruistic rather than financial reasons (Norman, 2010; Rochester, Ellis Paine and Howlett, 2010)?

In a climate of reduced funding, many organisations have been considering the potential of volunteers in helping to fill the gap between demand and capacity to deliver services. Many people have been either ambivalent or, deeply concerned about the idea of greater reliance on volunteers in public service provision. For example, among

public sector unions the issue has been particularly concerning because of the prospect of their members, as paid professionals, potentially being replaced by ‘free’ labour. Further, a joint publication by the Trades Union Congress and the national charity ‘Volunteering England’ (www.tuc.org.uk/workplace/tuc-17329-f0.pdf) entitled ‘The Charter for Strengthening Relations Between Paid Staff and Volunteers’ states that:

‘The involvement of volunteers should complement and supplement the work of paid staff, and should not be used to displace paid staff or undercut their pay and conditions of service.’ (www.tuc.org.uk/workplace/tuc-17329-f0.pdf p1).

In what respects and circumstances might their potential be optimized and what are the limits and constraints to realisation of such a contribution and why?

A report by the National Council for Voluntary Organisations (NCVO) entitled ‘History of the Voluntary Sector in Public Service Delivery’ (1990) recognized how the voluntary sector has served as a provider and transformative force in public service. In similar vein, a Home Office report (1990) recognized both the inherent and instrumental value of volunteering when it recommended giving preference to community organisations that involved volunteers because:

‘volunteering is a desirable activity in its own right, and ... a very cost effective way of providing desirable services’ (Home Office, 1990: p.18).

As the department previously responsible for prisons and probation, the Home Office carried out a number of enquiries into the potential contribution that volunteers might make to improving the quality of life of offenders and ex-offenders and to reducing the likelihood of their reoffending, deciding indeed that volunteers should be involved in

this endeavour. More than twenty years earlier, in 1967 the Reading Committee had recommended more systematic involvement of volunteers in the probation service. The Committee's interest here was to re-integrate offenders into society by actions that would support and strengthen family ties, access useful employment, suitable housing and help foster a sense of a stake in the day to day life of the local community, and accordingly advocated the use of volunteers to act as 'representatives of the public' as key enablers and 'part of the plan'. At the same time the Committee also recognized the importance here of volunteer capability and recommended that there should be proper procedures in place for recruiting volunteers locally, (rather than, nationally) and for preparing (rather than training) them for the role, paying their travel and subsistence expenses and providing training to the paid professionals on the management of volunteers to ensure their effective deployment and supervision. (Home Office, 1967: pp 1, 5, 32, 38-43).

Sen (1979) argued that public policy should seek to benefit not just such things as a person's utility, or access to basic goods, or equality of outcome or opportunity, but rather their capabilities. Sen stressed the institutions, habits, practices and culture from which capabilities spring and to which they contribute, recognizing that human happiness is too varied to be precisely defined, but as a by-product of action, and especially of the drive to self-fulfillment. This brings out a two way relationship between freedom and capability. Capabilities need a certain freedom to be exercised but people must have an adequate range of basic capabilities in the first place to exercise their freedoms. A theory of capabilities can in respect of a connected society ground support for public services with a special focus on those at the margins of society and generate a richer conception of what a society as a whole can achieve.

Norman (2010) has pointed out that recent research has shown that the carrot and stick approach of conventional economics is often not a misreading of what actually drives people, but that it can be counter-productive. Rather than improving people's performance it risks undermining it. External rewards can encourage people to work harder in routine tasks but not in creative tasks. The effect of high rewards or similar in creative jobs often encourages people to misallocate their efforts between tasks, to fixate on a given target, to take too much or too little risk, to work to fore-shortened time horizons, to behave unethically for self-gratification, and to experience debilitating levels of stress and anxiety. Norman believes this to have been a particularly accurate description of the financial markets in recent years.

2.5 Compassion and the Big Society

Norman (2010) has further argued that only an active conception of self allows for the possibility of compassion. Only an active self can act in a way that expresses fellow feeling. The active self is the common prerequisite to both compassionate conservatism and the connected or Big Society. This view believes that people are naturally compassionate; their self-fulfillment involves the development and exercise of their capabilities and the expression of these capabilities in action is something for which they can be held properly responsible.

Research by Decety and Jackson (2004) suggests that there is a neural basis for compassion or empathy in the human brain. People, who observe other people in pain especially their partners, seem to process this recognition in part through their own pain centres. People who consider the emotional reactions of others process this through their own emotional neural systems. By contrast, certain autistic, narcissistic and anti-

social personality disorders manifest themselves in a lack of empathy, or may cause their victims to not even recognize others as people at all.

Compassion gives purpose to our lives and as such is deeply psychologically rewarding. People who regularly give money, time or support to others enjoy better physical and mental health, have lower levels of depression and suicide and have increased longevity, compared to those who do not. Those who donate to charity report higher levels of happiness than others. People who volunteer have lower mortality rates, greater bodily functioning and lower rates of depression later in life than those who do not volunteer, especially if they spend more than 100 hours per year in volunteering, and if it involves repeated personal contact in helping strangers (CNCS, 2007).

Norman has suggested that even though compassion is a natural human instinct, it is one that should still be nurtured. The instinct to engage and co-operate with others is mainly developed in the early teens and our willingness to treat others fairly and in a trusting way is heavily affected by the environment in which we grow up. High trust environments encourage high trust behaviour and low trust environments encourage low trust behaviour. Early life experiences create chemical pathways in the brain that reinforce feelings of fair dealing with others, and set expectations of such fair dealing in return or not. Many young people in Britain today grow up in conditions of great stress. They often live in cramped housing with limited access to green space and to regular exercise. Solitary TV and computer games dominate their free time. On average they spend only half an hour a day in purposeful outdoor activity. More than one in five young people suffer from mental health problems and rates of suicide and

self-harm continue to rise. It is possible that many young people today are finding it psychologically difficult to experience feelings of altruism, fraternity and compassion. Their inability to trust may lead to alienation and disaffection. Norman has emphasized the importance of people not losing their connection with others and with nature in a world where the personal dimension and human touch has largely been removed. This results in a squandering of so much talent and potential and possibly plays its part in sponsoring crime. A deep belief in the capabilities of others is a pre-requisite of a greater trust in government and society as a whole. Norman (2010), has seen this as the key potential for the Big Society as an idea.

2.6 Who Volunteers and Why?

How volunteering is defined, of course, makes a difference to the estimation of how many people do it. People also have their own views of what volunteering is and may not see themselves as doing voluntary work. Even if the same definition of volunteering is used within a survey, different questions lead to different answers (Hurley et al., 2008). In the United Kingdom if asked in a survey about their volunteering approximately 20% of people will say 'yes'; but if asked about participation in organisations or about helping in those organisations through a range of activities that may officially be defined as volunteering but are not recognized as such by the respondents then the figure rises to about 40% of people who volunteer (Rochester et al, 2010). This is the approach taken in the Citizenship Surveys in England and Wales. Also if respondents are given multiple opportunities to reflect on their engagement in different organisations, groups and communities and whether they have taken part in these volunteering activities, then the figure is higher still, as in

'Helping Out' a 2006/2007 national survey of volunteering and charitable giving in England (Low et al., 2007).

Few surveys have been conducted to ascertain the levels of volunteering across the whole of the United Kingdom. The World Values Survey conducted in 1999-2001, which asked respondents whether they belonged to any one of fourteen listed voluntary organisations and asked for which of these respondents currently were doing unpaid work they found that 43% of the UK population were volunteering. This was a reasonably high level of volunteering when compared with many other countries but not the highest (Musick and Wilson, 2008). In England 73% of England's adult population indicated volunteering in some way (including formal and informal volunteering) at least once in the year April, 2007 to March, 2008. Nearly half (48%) claimed to do this on a regular (i.e. at least once per monthly) basis. Informal volunteering (unpaid help between individuals other than family members) is more common across the United Kingdom than formal volunteering (unpaid help within groups and organisations), although the scale of the difference between the two groups is changing. According to the 2007/2008 Citizenship Survey, 43% of the adult population of England had volunteered formally at least once over the past twelve months, while 64% had volunteered informally. Regular volunteering (at least once a month) is less common, with 27% of adults being regular formal volunteers and 35% being regular informal volunteers. These figures represent an estimated 17.7 million people getting involved in formal volunteering each year, each volunteering an average 7.6 hours over a four-week period and so giving a combined annual population contribution of 1.75 billion hours, with an equivalent economic value of £22.7 billion (Rochester et al., 2010).

Levels of volunteering in Wales until recently were analysed through a sample-based Citizenship Survey. The sample size for Wales was small and in 2003 54% of the Wales' adult population, were found to have volunteered informally at least once in the previous 12 months. The formal volunteering figure was 40% of the Wales' adult population had participated at least once in the past year. The longitudinal evidence for the United Kingdom suggests that after a short period of gentle growth leading up to the mid 2000's, that by 2009 volunteering was either static or on the decline, despite considerable levels of investment by New Labour. Levels of formal volunteering which received a great deal of government attention rose between 2001 and 2007/2008 from 39% to 43% but levels of informal volunteering, which received less interest from government decreased from 67% to 64% (Rochester et al., 2010).

There is a widely held perception that women volunteer more than men and the evidence shows this to be true but not as marked as is perhaps often assumed, with men volunteering more than women for certain activities. In England in 2007/2008 the Volunteer Development Agency found that 29% of women were regular formal volunteers compared to 25% of men. The differences were greater for regular informal volunteering, with 39% of women participating compared with 31% of men. The youngest and oldest age groups are less likely to volunteer, and statistics for England show that those aged 20 to 34 and 75 and over were the least likely demographic groups to take part in regular formal volunteering. Similar patterns for volunteering were found in Scotland (Hurley et al., 2008), while in Northern Ireland those aged between 35 and 49 and between 16 and 24 were most likely to volunteer (Volunteer Development Agency, 2007).

People from white and non-white backgrounds in Scotland have been found to be equally likely to volunteer (Volunteer Development Scotland Research Team, 2007). Similarly, in England people from black, white and mixed race groups have been found to take part in regular, formal volunteering at similar levels. However, Asian and Chinese people were found less likely to be regular formal volunteers. People of mixed race origin were found to have the highest rates of regular participation in informal volunteering, at 42% followed by black people at 38% and then white people at 35%. There were differences within the ethnic groups in England with 22% of people with an Indian background being involved in regular formal volunteering in 2007/2008 compared with 16% Pakistani people and 15% Bangladeshi people. This difference may be explained to some extent according to whether people were born in the UK or not. The 2003 Citizenship Survey found no statistically significant differences in participation in formal volunteering among black, white and Asian people born inside the UK (Kitchen et al., 2006). Other studies in England show that, when considering all formal volunteering rather than regular formal volunteering there was no significant difference between different groups (Low et al., 2007).

Being actively religious has a particularly significant influence on the propensity to volunteer (Low et al, 2007) particularly amongst white and black people (Kitchen et al, 2006). There are also differences across different religious groups. In the 2007 'Helping Out' survey reported Hindu respondents achieving the highest levels of formal volunteering and the Citizenship Survey in 2005 found that Christians undertook higher levels of formal volunteering (Kitchen et al., 2006). A study in Northern Ireland by the Volunteer Development Agency (2007) found that Catholics were slightly more likely to volunteer than Protestants (Rochester et al., 2010).

Perhaps unsurprisingly, various studies in the UK have shown that employed people are less likely to volunteer (Hurley et al., 2008; Low et al., 2007; Volunteer Development Agency, 2007). The 2006/2007 'Helping Out' survey found that those who were looking after the home engaged in higher levels of volunteering than those who were unemployed but looking for work and those who were retired or sick and disabled (Low et al., 2007). A person's socio-economic status and their income can also affect their propensity to volunteer. The 2005 Citizenship Survey found that 59% of those in higher managerial and professional occupations volunteered, formally at least once in the last 12 months, compared to 26% of those in routine occupations (Kitchen et al., 2006). The higher the level of qualification, the more likely people are to volunteer. While 26% of those who had no formal qualifications volunteered (formally, at least once in the last year) and 47% whose highest qualification was GCSEs at grades A-C volunteered. This rose to 61% among those who had a degree or higher qualification (Kitchen et al., 2006). Increasing levels of volunteering among those who have no educational qualifications has been a key New Labour target in England (Rochester et al., 2010).

Married people are more likely to volunteer than those who are divorced or single (VDS, 2007). People who have dependent children are more likely to volunteer than those who do not, although this is probably related to the age of the children and the type of volunteering, with more people being more likely to volunteer when their children are of primary school or secondary school age. Geography (and associated culture) also appears to play a part in deciding who volunteers. People living in the north-east are the least likely people in England to volunteer. Those in the north of Scotland are more likely to volunteer than the rest of Scotland (Kitchen et al., 2006).

People living in rural areas are more likely to volunteer than their urban counterparts areas (Yates and Jochum, 2003), while deprived areas have lower rates of volunteering than more affluent areas. The 2003 Citizenship Survey found that the areas of England ranked as the 10% least deprived had volunteering rates of 52% compared to 31% in the 10% most deprived areas. However, the differences were less marked for informal volunteering than formal. Areas with the highest density of ethnic minority population were found to have the lowest levels of volunteering. In the areas with the 10% lowest minority ethnic population, 50% volunteered compared to 34% in the 10% of areas with the highest ethnic minority population (Home Office, 2004).

In 2003 levels of volunteering were found to be highest in 'Affluent Greys, Rural Communities' at 62% followed by 'Wealthy Achievers, Suburban Areas' at 53%. The lowest levels of volunteering were found in 'Council Estate Residents, High Unemployment' at 27% and 'Multi-ethnic Low Income Areas' at 28% (Home Office, 2004; Rochester et al., 2010). Liking where you live also makes a difference, showing in the Citizenship Survey (2003) that 45% of people who reported enjoying living in their neighbourhood volunteered, compared to 30% of those who did not. Those who trusted people who lived in their neighbourhood were also more likely to volunteer (49%) compared to the 27% who volunteered although they felt none could be trusted (Rochester et al., 2010).

2.7 Benefits of Volunteering

In the United States of America researchers have attempted to measure the benefits that volunteers receive, including the positive feeling referred to as 'helpers high', increased trust in others and increased social and political participation (CNCS, 2007). Over the

past two decades the research has indicated that volunteering provides individual health benefits. Those who volunteer have lower mortality rates, greater functional ability and lower rates of depression in later life than those who do not. Comparisons of the health benefits of volunteering for different age groups have also shown that older volunteers are the most likely to receive greater benefits from volunteering. At an age when they are more likely to face a higher incidence of illness, volunteering provides them with physical and social activity and a sense of purpose at a time when their social roles are changing. The studies have investigated whether volunteering leads to improved health or whether healthy individuals are more likely to volunteer. The findings are important as it may be that the act of volunteering allows individuals to maintain their independence for longer as they grow older and as they face increased health challenges.

The CNCS report in 2007 found that better health leads to continued volunteering and also demonstrated that volunteering leads to improved physical and mental health in a self-reinforcing cycle. The CNCS report also indicated that, in addition to volunteering having a positive effect on social psychological factors, such as a sense of purpose, positive social psychological factors correlated with lower risks of poor physical health. Indeed, it was tentatively concluded that volunteering through enhancing a person's social networks, might buffer stress and reduce risk of disease. This connection between volunteering, social psychological factors, and social networks has been termed 'social integration theory' or 'role theory' which holds that an individual's social connections, typically measured by the number of social roles that an individual has, can provide meaning and purpose to his or her life, while protecting him or her from isolation in difficult periods. However the research also suggests that volunteer

activities offer those who serve more than just a social network to provide support and alleviate stress. Volunteering also provides individuals with a sense of purpose and life satisfaction (CNCS, 2007). In a study of adults aged over 65, Herzog et al (1998) found positive effects of volunteering on physical and mental health due to the personal sense of accomplishment that an individual gained from his or her volunteer activities. Greenfield and Marks, (2004) found in a study of older adults that volunteering can provide a sense of purpose. Formal volunteering moderated the loss of a sense of purpose among older adults who had experienced the loss of major role identities, such as wage-earner and parent. Luks and Payne (2001) found that the volunteers had improved health largely because of decreased stress. The negative arousal of the body was buffered by the good feelings, emotional and physical which the volunteers experienced ultimately reducing the tension and distrust that can haunt a heterogeneous society.

2.8 Volunteering, Government Policy and Changes in Society

As a result of both Government policy and changing values in society, the 1980s saw a large increase in demand for volunteers. It was argued that the volunteer movement was in danger of losing its independence (Hall, 1989) and there was something of a crisis in the recruitment of volunteers. This had been affected by changes in: population structure; workforce changes; demographic trends, and the fall in the birth rate since the 1960s. Despite the aging population, older people were under represented as volunteers as only 12% of the regular volunteers were 65 or over (Social and Community Planning Research (SCPR), 1981). It was thought that the increasingly elderly structure of society would lead to an increase in demand for volunteers in the

health and social welfare field. That would mean a fall in supply at the same time as an increase in demand.

The workforce changed as more women were entering the paid labour market resulting in fewer available to do voluntary work. Moreover the trend was expected to continue as the falling birth rates meant employers were attempting to attract women into a tightening labour market. The break- up of traditional family structures also had an impact on volunteering as married people were more likely to volunteer than single people. Only 10% of volunteers were single people and the divorce rate was increasing.

The break- up of traditional ‘close-knit’ communities due to increase in personal and occupational mobility over the previous 25 years also affected volunteering as more people now spent leisure and work time outside their neighborhoods, resulting in less opportunities for community and neighborhood activity. There was also a trend toward the “privatization of home life” (SCPR, 1981) due to increasing at home entertainment like videos and cable and satellite television. This all meant less time out in the community and therefore less time for volunteering. Yet there was also a positive trend towards volunteering resulting from a shorter working week, more part-time work and more job sharing initiatives. A move towards early retirement had also started due to the tightening of the labour market.

Hall (1989) argued that the volunteer movement was in danger of being overtaken, or colonized, by the emerging new right ideology of the Conservative Governments of the 1980s. The new philosophy was one of self-reliance, consumer rights, economic efficiency and de-regulation, reducing the disabling effect on people’s self –reliance,

according to the Government, of welfare state institutions. The self help movements of the 1960s and 1970s had helped shape the volunteer movement of the period. The volunteer movement was also critical of state welfarism for being overly-bureaucratic, out of touch and unresponsive to change. Hall (1989) argued that the Conservative Governments wanted an increased reliance on charity and volunteering more in keeping with 19th century views of philanthropy and charity and at odds with the self help, consumer rights type philosophy of the volunteer movement by the end of the 1980s. Especially important was the growth of mutual aid and self help groups which had moved away from old notions of charity and dependency. In the self-help groups, people came together to help themselves and others and the old stereotype of volunteering as charity and dependency began to break down so that mutuality and plurality were the key words. It was this mutual assistance and reciprocity that was in danger of being lost.

Hedley and Davis Smith (1992) argued that organisations needed to widen the base from which they recruited volunteers in order to reflect better the more heterogeneous nature of society. Secondly the volunteer movement needed to rediscover its' identity, to begin to 'articulate and develop' a new kind of public culture, a new conception of welfare. Widening the base of the volunteer movement would rediscover its identity and develop a new public culture with volunteering open to all. The new public culture of volunteering would stress the important value of volunteering as self- help and involve advocacy and campaign work and not just as service delivery in the health and personal services. Sheard (1992) agreed that government policy shaped volunteering in the post war period, seen as a palliative to youth problems in the 1960s, as a way to deliver social services in the 1970s and as a sop to unemployment in the 1980s.

More recently still, interest in, and ideas about, the relevance of volunteering has been developing both nationally and internationally. The current weight of expectation about the contribution it can make to individual development, social cohesion and addressing social need has never been greater, and it has a more prominent place on the agenda of public policy than ever before (Rochester et al., 2010). Volunteering is also increasing globally. The potential for voluntary action to contribute to the fight against global issues was recognized by the United Nation General Assembly in 1997 by the designation of 2001 as the International Year of Volunteers. Volunteering has been seen by the United Nations Commission for Social Development to offer skills, energy, expertise and local knowledge which would also assist governments in delivering better public programmes and policy (Hodgkinson, 2003). There is a 'Manifesto for Volunteering in Europe' devised and promoted by a network of 38 volunteer development agencies and volunteer centres (European Volunteer Centre).

Rochester et al., (2010), argue that nationally, the promotion of volunteering is now more firmly established than ever as a priority for government action. The Volunteer Centre UK (now renamed 'Volunteering England') was established in 1973. The Conservative Government launched an initiative 'Make a Difference' in 1992 and in May, 2006 Tony Blair included in his list of key challenges for the government the need to 'increase overall levels of volunteering across all age ranges and backgrounds' (Blair, 2006). The then government aimed for a 5% increase in voluntary and community sector activity by 2006 and the second added a specific reference to greater involvement amongst those at risk of social exclusion including people with no qualifications, people from black and minority ethnic communities and people with disabilities or limiting long term illnesses (Harries, 2005). Volunteering was seen then

as a means of delivering a whole range of government policies over and above social including more sustainable communities, improved health and social welfare, increased support for rural communities, better education, criminal justice and tackling anti-social behaviour.

The promotion of volunteering led to funding for many initiatives aimed at specific groups and for measures aimed at strengthening the infrastructure of volunteering. These have included projects to rationalize the network of national and local bodies which promote and support volunteering and developing and disseminating expertise which represented a major investment in the effectiveness of the voluntary and community sector. The England Volunteering Development Council was set up in 2004 to provide a high level representative and advocacy mechanism for volunteering. This increased interest in volunteering was reflected in 2006 by the appointment of the Commission on the Future of Volunteering, whose remit was to develop a long-term vision for volunteering in England. The Commission collected a large amount of written evidence and oral testimonies from those within the volunteering world around the country.

It published its Manifesto in January, 2008 and a report on the response to its public consultation a little later in the same year (Gaskin et al., 2008). Many of the recommendations made by the Commission were accepted and acted upon by the Brown Government, including the agreed investment of £4 million in new training programmes for volunteers and volunteer managers, and a further £2 million to create a new access to a volunteering fund for disabled people. In June 2007 the Government appointment a volunteering champion, to look at how the public services could make

better use of volunteers. This interest has allowed Volunteer England and its counterparts in the rest of the United Kingdom to provide volunteering with a national infrastructure which has both raised its profile and helped to develop a more professional approach to recruiting and managing volunteers. The development of what is increasingly referred to as a 'volunteering industry' and the growth perception that volunteer management is a specialist profession has been underlined by the development of quality standards, training for those who manage the work of volunteers, and the establishment of a professional body for volunteer managers (Rochester et al., 2010). These managers have added to the increasing number of public sector workers during that period or charity workers funded by the government. Staff were paid to organize the volunteers. There has been a series of Citizenship Surveys conducted by the Home Office and the Department of Communities and Local Government since 2001 (Attwood, Singh, Prime and Creasey, 2003; CLG, 2008; Home Office, 2004; Low, Butt, Ellis Paine and Davis Smith, 2007) which surveyed volunteering and charitable giving.

The philosophical/political effect on voluntarism came by way of the 'third way', that found its place in political discourses (Giddens, 2000). The New Progressive Declaration, published by the Democratic Leadership Council in 1996, argued that a fresh beginning in politics was called for to cope with a world in fundamental change. It was argued that the 'big institutions' could no longer deliver on the social contracts as they had before by the collaboration between the state, the labour unions and big business. The advent of new global markets and the knowledge economy, coupled with the ending of the Cold War, had affected the capability of national governments to manage economic life and to provide an ever expanding range of social benefits. A

different framework was required that avoided both the bureaucratic top-down government favoured by the old left and the aspiration of the right to dismantle government altogether. The cornerstones of the new progressivism were said to be equal opportunity, personal responsibility and the mobilization of citizens and communities. With rights would come responsibilities. A way had to be found, it was said for people to take care of themselves as they could not rely on big institutions to do so. Public policy had to shift from concentrating on the redistribution of wealth to promoting wealth creation. Rather than offering subsidies to business, government needed to foster conditions that lead firms to innovate and workers to become more efficient in the global economy. The New Democrats referred to this new progressivism as 'the third way'. Such ideas drove the thinking of the Clinton administration and were also borrowed by the Labour Party in Britain which under Prime Minister Blair, broke with 'old progressivism' and started to refer to 'New Labour' as developing a third way (Giddens, 2000). The New Democrats, and New Labour, gave particular attention to changes in family life, rising crime levels and the loss of community. The argument was that a break away from old forms of welfare and social protection was required and a new political culture saw local and regional governments as becoming more effective than the national state in supporting an increasing role for non-profit voluntary agencies in the delivery of public services.

Until that time the political left viewed the voluntary sector or 'third sector' with suspicion and criticized them for being amateurish and dependent upon erratic charitable impulses (Giddens, 2000). The third way attitude was that delivered in an effective way, the third sector groups could offer choice and responsiveness in the delivery of public services. They could also promote local civic culture and forms of

community development. The third way would need to be active and entrepreneurial as social entrepreneurs can be highly effective innovators in the realm of civil society, at the same time contributing to economic development. They can 'operate as a kind of research and development wing of the welfare system, innovating new solutions to intractable social problems. They often deliver services far more efficiently than the public sector. Most importantly they set in motion a virtuous circle of social capital which gives them a better chance of standing on their own two feet' (Leadbetter, 1997).

In the United States a number of companies became involved in social development in ways different from the past. Businesses had usually supported the social sector either by giving money to community activities or by contributing their employees' time for volunteer work. They tended to treat the third sector as a dumping ground for spare cash, obsolete equipment and tired executives on the way out (Moss Kanter, 1999). This philanthropy had little effect on America's social problems. The new ideas however involved using social needs as a basis for the development of ideas, technologies and long term investments (Moss Kanter, 1999).

In the post economic crash context, there is renewed interest in how societies can recognize value, other than that which is susceptible to cost-benefit analysis, and cultivate virtues which promote the common good. The idea that market relations uphold both freedom and the maximization of welfare has been discredited by the banking collapse, and along with it the third way approach, with its emphasis on choices and incentives in all social relations. But how much scope is there for a rehabilitation of moral and cultural forms of regulation in a world in which each person's version of 'the good life' is to be given the same recognition as every others'

(Jordan, 2010)? Jordan argues that Third Way governments were convinced that their versions of social justice and equality could be achieved by a combination of economic arrangements and individual self-responsibility, and that community was relevant only for a residue of issues, mainly concerning deviance in deprived neighbourhoods (Jordan & Jordan, 2000). Jordan argues that the rights, regard and honour we accord each other all involve social value. Even though the individualization of social life has weakened and fragmented the collective expression of our sense of justice and injustice, it is still in ordinary people's consciousness that these moral principles can be most reliably found. The task is therefore to see how a political programme for public policies could be built going from a society where everything from schools, universities and hospitals to village halls and allotment associations are run as if they are businesses with business objectives, strategies and roles. The Third Way reforms made individualism and competition seem natural but now a more engaged and robust political and community life is required (Jordan, 2010).

Under New Labour there was a rapid expansion of public sector professional employment, in education, health and social work which had a big effect on the numbers of volunteers required. The volunteer work was taken over by the professional. New Labour acknowledged that it was trying to bring about a culture shift in the UK, notably through its reforms to public services (DSS, 1998, p 26). Political speeches and policy documents argued that its values and visions could penetrate both the methods used by staff of benefits agencies, health facilities, schools, social care services, child protection and asylum support teams, but also the people who used these services. However, this would also be affected by the organisational changes demanded by Third Way thinking which included increased managerial

control, new quality standards and performance indicators, targets for outcomes, rewards and penalties.

In the election campaign of 2010, David Cameron spoke of many of the themes of the Big Society especially the ideas of devolution to communities and cooperatives and his faith in local groups, voluntary associations and social entrepreneurs. Also the Third Way methods for providing services in the public sector by contract with private firms, has resulted in a number of scandals in the public sector over patient safety, social care homes, bail hostels and many other facilities. These have repeatedly seemed to suggest that commercial providers have little interest in improving the quality of their services, and underlined the difficulties for government agencies in ensuring that standards are consistently maintained. Also each level of sub-contracting will take several per cent of the money that could be helping those in need (Jordan, 2010).

Since 2010, the Coalition Government has a different approach to promoting and supporting volunteering from that of the preceding New Labour Government. While current programmes also target some of the groups which New Labour had selected as priorities (young people and the over 60s) the Coalition approach has taken a broader focus which encompasses informal as well as formal kinds of volunteering and emphasizes community action as well as the delivery of services. A further key difference is in the way in which policy is implemented and how progress is evaluated. The Coalition claimed that it would reject New Labour's 'culture of control'. It said it would abandon prescribed outputs, set targets and measured outcomes in favour of allowing the organizations it funds to operate with greater flexibility in implementing programmes as they judge fit. Meanwhile, the level of top-down accountability has

been scaled back to the provision of management information and self-assessment. In the interests of de-centralization it has also abolished a number of quangos set up by New Labour which were used to implement its initiatives and dismantled the network of 'strategic partners' through which New Labour spread its influence across the voluntary and community sector.

The Cameron (2010) plan now is for the individualism and authoritarianism of the Third Way to give way to the Big Society way of participation and civic virtue. The question is whether a different rationale for service work (and particularly for the division of labour between paid employment and voluntary communal work or self provisioning) could make a better contribution to quality of life. Cameron has urged people to take collective action to run their communities and services: saying that if social workers or job centre staff, want to join together in co-operatives to run their services they will encourage them. The same principles extend to welfare, to prisons, to drug rehabilitation, to early years support, abandoning 'the tangle of public sector targets that trap public sector workers' (Cameron, 2010).

The Big Society, and the need for public sector cuts following the economic crash required a radical devolution of the tasks performed by service workers (both public and commercial) to local communities and associations on a voluntary basis. Active participation and engagement in collective projects to improve the quality of life in such communities was considered not only feasible (because people are capable of cooperating for the common good by virtue of their endowments through evolutionary biology) but also desirable because well-being was as or more important than just the passive consumption of services (Jordan, 2010).

2.9 Social Capital

Blond (2010) claims that over years and decades, Britain has seen a piecemeal erosion of its social capital that has been far more costly, to our economy, to our public spending and ultimately to the quality of our lives, than the more immediate collapse of financial capital. Blond (2010) explains that social capital is a term that tries to express the value, both in terms of money and quality of life, that we derive from our reciprocal social relationships, through friendships, contacts, families, groups, neighbourliness, political membership, sports teams and churches. The theory and concept of social capital was popularized by Robert Putnam (2000). Putnam argues that the core idea of social capital theory is that social networks have value. Just as a screwdriver (physical capital) or a college education (human capital) can increase productivity, so too can social contacts.

Social capital may be either a private or public good as social connectedness improves not only the life of an individual connected to a community, but the life of the community as a whole. The total stock of social capital that we individually and collectively hold has been declining steadily, as the everyday personal and social connections of Britons have withered. ‘The social recession doesn’t just rob increasingly isolated citizens of a rich, varied and socially meaningful life, it fundamentally affects the way that society functions, not least the relationship between individuals and the state’ (Blond, 2010). Blond (2010) claims that we can see and feel the effects of this social crisis all around us, our receding trust in others, the normalization of antisocial behavior, our political and civic disengagement, spiraling rates of drug and alcohol abuse, high levels of dependency on state income and personal debt. These signals have been ignored, as they represent an insidious failure

of social capital which is less easily measurable than other forms of capital. The impact of social failure on children is particularly visible in terms of criminality. Tragically, risk factors cluster together in the lives of disadvantaged children, greatly increasing the likelihood that they will become offenders as teenagers or adults. Blond argues that, unlike the financial crisis where we have blamed the bankers and politicians, the social failure has been all our own. A failure of individuals and communities to organize, connect and support each other; hold the state to account; establish values and norms of reciprocity and pursue a common good. Blond (2010) claims that a great tragedy of the modern British welfare state has been the corrosion of the long-standing social values held by the working class, and thereby the effective erosion of the mutualism these values enshrined. Norms around community, work, familial obligation and civic and economic participation have been replaced by greater expectation of, and dependency on, state provision. Blond suggests that perhaps the greatest challenge facing the modern state is how to ensure adequate support for its citizens without compromising (and wherever possible, by cultivating and harnessing) horizontal social bonds and self-regulating communities.

The Big Society should allow volunteering to maintain its independence from the state. Governments can encroach on the autonomy of voluntary action in a variety of ways. These include direct means such as making some forms of volunteering compulsory or the recruitment of volunteers by government agencies for their own purposes and indirect impacts from attempts to set the agenda for volunteering (for example, by prioritizing certain social groupings or activities) and create an environment in which volunteering can flourish. The shrinking of the state is seen as allowing an increase in voluntary activity which has been 'crowded out' by the activity of statutory agencies.

A criticism of the Big Society is that it can be viewed as placing unwelcome burdens on ordinary citizens who may be ill equipped to shoulder them while increasing the gulf in the level and quality of civic participation between the most 'comfortable' areas and their more disadvantaged counterparts. It is possible that the new emphasis on informal volunteering, the deployment of community organizers in disadvantaged areas and the challenge of all citizens, wherever they live, to rise to the challenge of the 'Big Society' will help to change the image of volunteering and make it more socially inclusive. It is possible that these changes will have the effect of reinforcing the differences between those who participate and those who do not. If volunteers are to take responsibility for providing services and managing community resources this may result in the demands for accountability and the pressures of regulation to lead to more formal methods of organisation (Rochester et al., 2010).

The importance of devising an inclusive but robust concept of volunteering has been underlined by a number of studies which have found that an important barrier to participation in voluntary action is a general lack of knowledge or understanding of the diversity of the possible activities, organisational settings and the people involved (Hankinson & Rochester, 2005; Rochester & Hutchison, 2002). Clary et al., (1996) note that volunteering is often not easy as people have to overcome a series of obstacles to become volunteers. What then drives them to overcome these barriers?

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has introduced theories and presented empirical evidence from the literature as to why people volunteer. Some of the theories emphasize altruistic ideas of helping those less fortunate than themselves while others stress the fact that most

people like to work together to meet shared needs and address common problems by self-help and mutual aid. Volunteering can also include those engaging in leisure activities which involve acquiring knowledge and skills needed to practice it.

Volunteering can be affected by the values held by the individual and values held at a collective level in the society in which they live. Volunteers may believe that if they help others that it may lead to them being helped in turn when they are in need. Some people may volunteer in order to address inequality and injustice or maybe their religious beliefs make them want to care for others in their community and beyond.

The idea of why people might behave altruistically is considered and whether these people are people becoming more economically driven rather than social beings. Can government policies affect this and what effect, might ideas and initiatives like the 'Big Society', have on people's desire to volunteer?

The chapter then considered who volunteers and why. The definition of volunteering plays a part in deciding who is volunteering but can factors such as religion, socio-economic status, geography, education, income, race and marital status make a difference?

It has been recognised in the literature that the volunteer may derive various positive benefits from volunteering. Examples of benefits reported included: increased trust in others, positive feelings, health benefits, lower rates of depression and greater sense of purpose.

Next, the chapter considered the literature on how government policy and changes in society in recent decades have affected volunteering. In particular the chapter reported

on changes brought about by an ageing population, the increasing number of women joining the paid workforce, and government-driven changes in the public sector reviewed together with implications for volunteering.

Finally social capital was considered with questions raised about how social relationships, friendships, contacts, families, groups, neighbourliness, political and other memberships (e.g of sports teams and the church) were making a difference to volunteering; and what any reduction in social capital might imply for the nature of society.

The next chapter focuses on mentoring, on the underlying theory and its practice, with discussion of the techniques and skills involved before turning (in Chapter 4) to consider how it has been applied specifically within a criminal justice context. Volunteers perform many tasks in society but can they be effective mentors of offenders and victims of crime?

CHAPTER 3

Mentoring in Theory and Practice

This chapter will focus on mentoring initially considering the subject in its generic sense and then subsequently (in Chapter 4) as applied in criminal justice and the lessons that have been learned to date in this context.

3.1 What is Mentoring?

The term ‘mentoring’ can be traced back to the ancient Greeks (Dondero, 1997) has been described by Pawson (2006) as:

‘one of those bright ideas that take a periodic grip on the imagination of the policy community. Everyone appreciates that one learns from experience and so much the better if one can trade on the wisdom of others. Here, then, is the kernel of the mentoring movement. Creating a close relationship with a knowledgeable guide is seen as an all-purpose resource offering both opportunities for advancement and solutions to disadvantage. These are the small beginnings of a brain-child that has grown up in many social and public policy homes from the prison wing to the boardroom, and from the maternity ward to the hospice’ (Pawson, 2006, p. 122).

Mentoring has long been used as a method in career development and professional socialization. Industry, in particular, has seen an increase in the use of formal and informal mentoring and this has gradually spread to the public sector, to teaching and other professions. The basic principle is that the mentor provides guidance, instruction and encouragement with the aim of developing the competence and character of his or her protégé (Goldson, 2008).

The general feature of all mentoring programmes is the contact of a less experienced, (or in criminal justice 'at-risk') individual with a positive role model. The mentor is more experienced and often older, and therefore probably able to provide guidance, advice and encouragement that helps to develop the character of the mentee (Rhodes, Ebert and Fischer, 1992).

A mentor can be defined as 'someone who helps others to achieve their potential' (Shea, 1992) and may provide that help by a variety of modes of relationship (Pawson, 2006). However, a key difficulty here is identifying precisely what might be involved and what is to be expected. Developing a clear definition is complicated by the fact that mentoring practices vary considerably and may include one or more of the following: facilitation, coaching, buddying, befriending, counselling, tutoring, teaching, confidant, expert lifestyleing, role modelling and emergency hot-line number (Porteous, 1998; Skinner & Fleming, 1999; St James Roberts & Samlal Singh, 1999).

Mentoring is similarly summarised by Pawson (2006) as an elastic term, which encompasses a variety of approaches: helping, coaching, tutoring, counselling, sponsoring, befriending, bonding, trusting, role-modelling, mutual learning, direction-setting, progress-chasing, sharing experience, respite provision, sharing a laugh, widening horizons, resilience building, showing ropes, informal apprenticeships, providing openings, kindness of strangers (Pawson, 2006).

Befriending is almost always included in the definition of mentoring and, as such, ideally relies on the creation of bonds of trust and the sharing of new experiences, so that the mentee recognizes the legitimacy of other people's perspectives. Direction-setting promotes further self-reflection through the discussion of alternatives so that the

mentee reconsiders his/her own loyalties, values and ambitions. Coaching coaxes and cajoles the mentee into acquiring the skills, assets, credentials and testimonials required to enter the mainstream. Sponsoring works by advocating and networking on behalf of the mentee to gain the requisite insider contacts and opportunities (Pawson, 2006).

Added to this definitional difficulty, mentoring lacks a strong theoretical base. There is little consensus about what the mentoring role is and its theoretical basis has hardly been fully established (Gay & Stephenson, 1998). Philip (2000) claims that mentoring rests on an uncritical acceptance of traditional developmental theories of youth, and makes gender-bound assumptions about family and organization whilst neglecting structural conditions including poverty and social exclusion. Philip also concludes that mentoring is highly individualistic, having at its heart a relationship that is essentially private and isolated from a young person's stated needs. Other commentators have noted that the ways in which mentoring may be expected to bring about changes in people's attitudes, behaviours or lifestyles are far from clear. As such, it has been argued that mentoring needs to be more clearly theorized (Newburn and Shiner, 2005).

3.1.1 A Definition and History of Mentoring

Since the 1990s, there has been a transition from mentoring as a highly marginal activity to it becoming of mainstream interest for professional teachers, corporate and community policy makers and those interested in people development. But even as mentoring has become more integrated into work and community life there has remained some confusion over definitions. One definition that has become more widely accepted among the growing number of academics and professionals in this

field includes the idea of ‘helping people to become the person they want to be’ (Parsloe & Wray, 2000). This will, of course, mean different things to different people.

Some ‘professions’ have employed mentoring for many years as part of their professional qualification programmes. Some professions, like the Chartered Engineers use the term ‘mentor’ explicitly whereas others, like the Chartered Accountants identify the role but use the term ‘counsellor’. Over the years these types of professional organizations have not felt the need to change their thinking about the value of mentoring. Some have made mentoring more explicit not only in their qualification programmes but also in their approach to continual learning and lifelong learning generally. The importance of continual professional development is an increasingly highly organized aspect of many professional bodies and for which mentoring is now more often emphasised.

The role of the mentor has become central in the wider debate about vocational and lifelong learning as the key to, involvement in the world of work. In 2000 mentoring was actively promoted as part of the Government’s Fair Deal at Work scheme, aimed at helping unemployed young people in particular into work (Layard, 2001). There were schemes for other disadvantaged groups like one parent families, which aimed to help people to learn to join mainstream working life.

Also in 2000 underperforming school children (and schools) were being offered the services of at least 1,000 full-time professional ‘learning mentors’ by the Department of Education and Employment. The Home Office was sponsoring mentoring schemes to help people with drug, alcohol or other potential causes of crime or re-offending.

Mentoring to help tackle issues arising from race, gender and cultural diversity were

similarly sponsored by public money and, increasingly by employers who were recognizing that these were issues that could adversely affect their economic performance. In 2000 the Department for Education and Employment announced a programme to attract 1,000 volunteer business-to-business mentors, where senior executives from large organizations were invited to share their experiences with small entrepreneurs in start-up businesses. A similar scheme again run by the Department for Education and Employment aimed to recruit 3,000 senior executive mentors each year to help head teachers in a 'Partners in Leadership' programme.

The questions raised about definitions at this time concerned whether the vocational and community mentor was intended to be simply a valuable and important friend and sounding board, or one who should also possess expert knowledge that they are required to share. The mentors in connection with the 'New Vocational Qualifications' (NVQ's) were required to impart expert information, so too was the one parent family mentor. Did this mean that these mentors who were expert advisers were acting more as coaches than mentors? When a mentor is a paid professional, rather than a volunteer, there may be implications for perceptions of power and authority of the mentor. Parsloe and Wray (2000) also recognized the emerging 'community mentor' as a distinctly different type of mentor – indeed, they identified three broad categories of mentors: 1. vocational; 2. community; 3. corporate.

In recent years the word 'coaching' has often been used in conjunction with 'mentoring': or in a more or less interchangeable way. The question is whether mentoring and coaching are indeed distinctive and separate activities or essentially similar in nature (Garvey et al., 2009). Gibb and Hill (2006) insist that they are

distinctive and different, but debate continues on the similarities and differences between coaching and mentoring practice.

Garvey et al. (2009) suggest that “*mentoring practice today is associated with dialogue, questioning and developing self knowledge*”. While Cottingham (2007) draws on Aristotle’s triangle of knowing to explain the underlying philosophy:

1. The practical (as associated with political and ethical life).
2. The theoretical (the seeking of truth through thought, observation, consideration and the achievement of knowledge for its own sake).
3. The productive (making something)

3.1.2 Mentoring Today – Functional Issues

Research on mentoring, has tended to focus mainly on the functional issues and the measurement of mentoring as determined by the social context. The notion of ‘dimensions’ in mentoring was first suggested by Garvey (1994) by looking at the dyadic relationships in context and considering their characteristics not as fixed positions but in relation to movement and changing dynamics over time. An ‘objectivist’ tradition would favour definition over description but, by their very nature, definitions seek to simplify and condense. The range of contexts or domains in which mentoring is found suggests that definition alone cannot adequately reflect the complexity of meaning so that meaning is fundamentally determined by the social context. Looking at mentoring from a ‘subjectivist’ tradition, viewing it descriptively is aided by looking at the notion of ‘dimensions’. The following are Garvey’s (1994) five dimensions:

1. The open/closed dimension is about the content. What kind of things will be talked about? This is up for discussion. If it is open then anything is on the agenda. If it is closed, the discussion may be focussed on specific issues.

2. The public/private dimension is about who knows mentoring is going on. If the mentoring is in an organization, keeping it private may lead to speculation about its purpose and nature. Making it public is good for mentoring and good for the relationship in the organizational context.
3. The formal/informal dimension is about the administration and management of the relationship. In a formal arrangement, the mentoring pair may agree meetings in advance, take notes, time limit the discussion, agree to meet in a regular venue at regular intervals. If it is informal they will meet on an 'as required' basis and generally work on a 'go with the flow' basis.
4. The active/passive dimension is about activity. Who does what in the relationship? The mentee is the more active in the relationship as he/she is the one undergoing change and carrying out action plans. The mentor may also agree to take some actions, such as gathering information for the mentee, and may indeed ask the mentee for a meeting. If both feel the mentoring is passive, if not much is happening, it is probably time to review the mentoring relationship.
5. The stable/unstable dimension is about trust and consistency. It is about sticking to the ground rules while having prepared to jointly review them. It is about sticking to the meeting schedule and not changing it (particularly at the last minute). It is about developing momentum to the mentoring process and maintaining it.

By using the 'dimensions' framework mentoring can be described within a particular setting without the need to resort to definitional positioning, as there is no easy definition. In this way the mentoring may be sculpted to the environment in which it operates. Although mentoring is a changing dynamic certain elements remain constant and others change, which may explain the confusion over definitions.

3.1.3 Mentoring and Coaching

The skills of mentor and coach may overlap. In addressing the potential confusion between mentoring and coaching, Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) offer the following distinguishing definitions:

Mentoring – relates primarily to the identification and nurturing of potential for the whole person. It can be a long-term relationship, where the goals may change but are always set by the learner. The learner owns both the goals and the process. Feedback comes from within the mentee – the mentor helps them to develop insight and understanding through intrinsic observation (i.e. becoming more aware of their own experiences) (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005, p. 4)

Coaching – relates primarily to performance improvement (often over the short term) in a specific skills area. The goals, or at least the intermediate or sub-goals, are typically set with or at the suggestion of the coach. While the learner has primary ownership of the goal, the coach has primary ownership of the process. In most cases, coaching involves direct extrinsic feedback (i.e. the coach reports to the coachee what he/she has observed) (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005, p. 4).

Coaches may behave like mentors by asking questions that lead the learner to their own insights and conclusions, helping them to develop their own wisdom and experience. However, according to Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) mentors have other roles to play as well. They aim, for example, to help the mentee to build wider networks from which to learn and influence; they act as sounding boards and counsellors, responding to the individual's need for emotional support; and they act as advisors and frequently, also as role models. Most of these behaviours and roles are less appropriate or relevant for coaching which is more likely to be carried out by somebody with personal experience and experience of the particular skill needing to be developed in the coachee. In earlier work by Clutterbuck (1992) two dimensions to being a mentor are identified. The first is 'directiveness' which refers to the locus and extent of power in

the relationship and how it is managed. The second dimension is 'need' which refers to whether the relationship is primarily about assisting the mentee with rational or emotional issues.

That said Megginson and Clutterbuck (1995) have also acknowledged that coaching, mentoring counselling and 'other developmental functions' all occupy a relatively flexible and common area of developmental space, and that in addition to the dimensions described above the following dimensions need to be considered:

1. Doing – this is about achieving change in skills or performance.
2. Becoming – this is about changing one's ambitions, perspectives and sense of identity.
3. Extrinsic and intrinsic feedback – this relates to who observes, analyses, interprets and owns an experience.
4. Future, present and past – relate to the chronology of change. It can be argued that counselling is mainly about dealing with the past, coaching about the present and mentoring about the future.

Garvey, Stokes, and Megginson (2009) similarly suggest there are various 'archetypes' of research practice in coaching and mentoring research, and that these are aimed at different audiences and have different purposes in mind.

They argue that mentoring research archetypically:

1. Addresses interventions that counteract disadvantage in employment;
2. Is grounded in established theory and a research tradition;
3. Is positivist: examining relationships between variables and using analytical/inferential statistics to test hypotheses;
4. Uses questionnaires to survey a large sample;
5. Comes from a university research community and addresses other researchers and is peer reviewed;
6. Explores and seeks to control intervening variables;
7. Spells out limitations;
8. Is incurious about the nature of the relationships described;

9. Privileges statistical significance over subjective meaning;
10. Only touches on implications for practice and with caveats.

The archetype for coaching research, by contrast, involves:

1. Focus on business relevance;
2. Pragmatic enhancement of practice is the declared aim;
3. Carrying out an evaluation study of a particular scheme;
4. Insider account by a sponsor of the scheme;
5. All other measures are subordinate to roi (return on investment);
6. Summaries and examples are provided rather than detailed research protocols;
7. Small number of respondents;
8. Data gathered by interview;
9. Sources of bias not addressed;
10. No other studies cited.

3.2 Theories and Approaches to Mentoring

Hay (1995) has emphasised the quality of a relationship in coaching and mentoring that recognizes and values the subjective, adopts humanistic values and, because of its person centred approach, promotes transformation. A developmental alliance depends on genuine connection and she asserts that it will not work properly unless those involved believe that it is normal for people to want a close connection with each other (Hay, 1995). Hay has also identified a range of learning outcomes in mentoring, categorized as traditional, transitional or transformational. Traditional learning she has suggested is learning how to do things, by being taught or observing. Transitional learning, on the other hand, is learning how to do things differently, that is to improve, while transformational learning involves a complete change of perspective, altering the mentee's world-view and including a better appreciation of how to learn. Hay has also proposed, the skill set needed for transformational mentoring, albeit acknowledging that some of the skills are also common to other activities such as coaching and

counselling. However, the focus of Hay's definition includes a process she has called 'bonding' which she differentiates from coaching and counseling.

Cross (1999) has also differentiated between mentoring and being a friend or colleague because 'mentoring is neither mutual nor spontaneous. It is planned, contrived and one-way'. While not excluding the possibility of peer or co-mentoring she has emphasised that, *'during the actual process, the roles of mentor and mentee are clearly defined and mutually exclusive'*.

The method of mentoring may be influenced by the underlying philosophy although the theoretical base may in practice be implicit and undeclared. Mentoring has been described by Colley (2003) as a practice that remains ill defined, poorly conceptualized and weakly theorized, leading to confusion in policy and practice.

The change involved in the process often involves social and educational adjustment and to this end Burrell & Morgan (1979) have developed a matrix showing how organisations operate: with objectivity/subjectivity describing reality; and transformation/equilibrium, describing the learning outcome. The reality dimension describes an objectivist understanding of reality where the mentoring issues would give less consideration to the personal and social world of the mentee. This type of mentoring may favour more imposed objectives, based on perceived objective reality and may use personality profiles and learning styles inventories as they assume a set of fixed qualities. The subjectivist view assumes that social realities like learning and development are fundamentally different from natural phenomena and for which objective instruments are not that helpful. The social world of the mentee is seen as being continually constructed, reproduced and transformed through interaction with

others. The personal and social world of each individual mentee is therefore seen as the basis of the developmental process. Such mentoring recognizes the socially constructed nature of reality. These are idealised types and it is possible to recognize both views.

Four different approaches to mentoring have been discussed by Brockbank & McGill, (2006). These are:

1. Functionalist mentoring which focuses on efficiency and equilibrium, assumes an objective real world, aims at improved performance and, in order to maintain the status quo, tends to suppress challenge and questioning;
2. Engagement mentoring, which recognises the subjective world of the mentee and uses a non-directive approach to maintain the status quo, thereby promoting a functionalist agenda;
3. Revolutionary mentoring, which seeks to promote the transformation of society through radical change;
4. Evolutionary mentoring, which acknowledges the subjective world of the mentee, respects ownership of the individual's goals and invites an examination of embedded power structures that inhibit learning.

Each such approach is amplified in the following paragraphs:

3.2.1 A Functionalist Approach to Mentoring

Functionalist mentoring may be defined in terms of its purpose, process and learning outcome as an agreed activity between mentor and mentee with a prescribed purpose that may or may not be assented to by the mentee, using a directive process, and the learning outcome is improvement (Brockbank & McGill, 2006). Functionalist

mentoring adopts a rational reality model, promotes objectivity and is instrumental in maintaining equilibrium and the mentoring purpose is to keep this reality unchanged. The approach is hierarchical (Darwin, 2000). The functionalist intention is that the mentee will adapt and conform within the hierarchical structure, the older mentor will have more power than the mentee. Typical definitions of this would be 'a good enough mentor is a transitional figure who invites a young man into the adult world. He serves as guide, teacher and sponsor.... The protégé has the hope that soon he will be able to join or even surpass his mentor in the work they both value' (Levinson et al., 1978). Also a relationship between a young adult and an older, more experienced adult, that helps the younger individual learn and navigate in the adult world and the world of work (Kram, 1988). The process is typically didactic, emphasising the transmission of knowledge, and is typified by advice giving and direction, in contrast to the humanistic approaches which characterize engagement or evolutionary mentoring. The experienced mentor also provides the less experienced mentee with advice, support and encouragement (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 1995). Kram (1988) identified the psychosocial functions of mentoring which include friendship, counseling and role modeling which he claimed enhanced a sense of competence, identity and effectiveness.

Darling (1984) has characterised mentoring in terms of three components:

1. Attraction – means admiration and/or a desire to emulate the mentor;
2. Action – means that the mentor invests time and energy for and on behalf of the mentee;
3. Affect – means that the relationship has an emotional component, ie. the couple respect and like each other, and the mentor offers encouragement and support as well as challenge;

Darling claims that a mentor who is admired and invests time and energy, but is unconnected emotionally to the client, is likely to be functionalist as the relationship is focused on prescribed outcomes that are not informed by a close emotional bond.

The functionalist approach to mentoring which involves the necessity of maintaining equilibrium leads mentors to socialise their mentees ensuring that existing values and norms are preserved so that the imposed objectives may be easily aligned with the mentees own objectives.. This approach may reinforce the existing power relations between the mentor and mentee and may be criticized for overtly or covertly reproducing social inequalities. The equilibrium or status quo achieved with functionalist mentoring relies on ‘the prevailing discourse’. The functionalist mentor serves the perceived ‘needs’ of the organisation who requires the mentoring to take place or even society by ensuring (without necessarily realizing this) that power structures remain intact and continue to inform the prevailing discourse. The functionalist is usually used where mentoring is being used in the workplace and where those in power want to create improvements using mentoring but at the same time keeping the existing power structure intact.

3.2.2 An Engagement Approach to Mentoring

Engagement mentoring may be defined as an agreed activity where the purpose is prescribed and which the mentee may or may not be aware of, which takes a humanistic stance that respects the mentees subjective world and where the learning outcome is improvement leaving underlying values and systems unchanged (Brockbank & McGill, 2006). This describes mentoring in the subjective/equilibrium sphere where although the approach is humanistic and respects the subjective in nurturing ways, the intention

is maintenance of the status quo and a continuing equilibrium. This may involve the creation of programmes with stated objectives such as development of particular skills or enabling transitions or change initiative that may be problematic or meeting resistance. The support and encouragement in some programmes of engagement mentoring mask its hidden functionalist purpose (Colley 2003).

Colley, 2003 studied a mentoring scheme for disaffected young people being mentored by volunteer university undergraduates entitled 'New Beginnings' Engagement mentoring was the term Colley devised as an intervention which responds to disaffection and social exclusion. Targeted groups of young people were engagement mentored who were 'at risk' of disengaging or already disengaged from formal systems of education, training and employment. The programmes were explicitly seeking to re-engage the mentees with these systems to prepare them for the labour market. Colley saw this engagement mentoring in the UK as a development from the Big Brothers Big Sisters initiative in the USA (Grossman & Tierney, 1998) where a quarter of a million volunteers mentor young people 'at risk'. The multiplicity of roles required in a community mentor are identified as guidance, good parent, case worker and learning facilitator. They are likely to be an instrument of regulation and surveillance, while being required to commit to a concept of empowerment that has been described as an 'impossible fiction' (Colley, 2003).

It is mainly the presence of psychosocial functions that differentiates engagement mentoring from functionalist mentoring. Kram (1988) stated that when psychosocial functions are present the mentoring experience can include an intensity of emotion, risky self-transformation and development for both parties. The psychosocial functions

rely on the quality of the interpersonal bond between mentor and mentee, and the degree of trust that exists within the relationship. The factors identified by Kram that influence the psychosocial bonding include mutual liking, respect, exclusivity, counselling skill and the desire for friendship intimacy.

Engagement mentoring may exist when a social control mechanism is used, possibly to 'correct' non-conformity with the existing consensus of the organization (or society). An organisation may use this approach to bring about cultural change or restructuring. In this case the mentoring programme will probably be more humanist in their approach in order to minimize opposition. The distribution of power remains unaltered (Colley, 2003). The mentee ideally remains unaware of the power horizon involved in the relationship in which he/she is engaged with the mentor.

Colley (2003) suggests that engagement mentoring may be used when seeking to reform young mentees dispositions in line with employer's demands for employability and that for their mentors it seeks to engender devotion and self-sacrificing dispositions in mentors through the discourse of 'feminine nurture'. Dispositions are described as the 'habitual unconscious ways of thinking and feeling' which therefore dispose individuals to do, or think, or feel in particular ways. These are unconscious tendencies that are revealed in our inclinations towards particular ways of being.

3.2.3 The Revolutionary Approach to Mentoring

Revolutionary mentoring seeks to promote the transformation of society usually according to the ideas of those seeing a need for societal change for example through Marxism. This approach would adopt an objectivist view of reality. The subjective

world and views of the mentee is not considered important here, only the cause, which seeks to allow the mentee to recognize their false consciousness and mistaken ideas and then these may be altered through persuasion and rational argument by the mentor. This revolutionary intent can be addressed slowly through the normal process of one-to-one mentoring. Although it adopts an objective view of reality, seeing it as fixed and unchanging, it is seeking to enable individuals to transform their beliefs and in the fullness of time become part of a larger changed world. The process seeks disturbance and ultimately liberation from 'false consciousness'. Examples of where this may be used would be in the conversion of hostages and the radicalization of some young Islamic men.

3.2.4 An Evolutionary Approach to Mentoring

Evolutionary mentoring acknowledges the subjective world of the mentee. This approach respects their experience. The mentee is recognized as having ownership of their objectives and the mentoring allows an examination of embedded power structures that may inhibit learning. By working with the mentee's social reality which may include oppression and discriminatory behaviour they are enabled to evolve into their power thereby taking responsibility for their own learning and development and well as gaining the knowledge to challenge the underlying (taken for granted) power in their environment. Evolutionary mentoring allows mentees to identify a prevailing dialogue and challenge it through reflective dialogue. By this recognition of the mentees socially constructed world there are opportunities for transformation as desired, in a conscious, determined way. The mentee who owns his goals may transform them by reflective dialogue, if s/he wishes to do so.

3.3 The Skills and Practice of Mentoring

3.3.1 Mentoring models

A four-stage cycle to a mentoring relationship has been proposed by Kram, (1988) with progress from initiation, through cultivation separation and redefinition (Kram, 1988; Levinson et al., 1978). Initiation, Kram has suggested, would typically involve a period of six months to a year when the relationship was beginning and becoming important. Cultivation might then occupy a period of two to five years when the maximum range of career and psychosocial functions are provided. The emotional bond deepens and intimacy increases. There may be opportunities for continued interaction but psychosocial interactions are no longer provided. Redefinition is an indefinite period after the separation phase when the relationship ends or takes on significantly different characteristics, making it a more peer like friendship.

Bushardt, Fretwell and Holdnak, (1991) have likened this to the biological phases of development and mating behaviour as well as the status and dependency implicit in the mentoring relationship. All relationships carry an unconscious element, the deep energy in each partner that can fuel creativity and transformation as well as potential problems. The unconscious fantasies that each partner brings to the mentoring relationship can feed hopes and dreams as well as collusion and defensiveness.

Lapierre (1989), and Clarkson and Shaw (1992), have shown that the anxieties and defences in such situations are powerful echoes of early life experiences. Mentees may relive emotional experiences that they had with their parents as young children and if these are painful they can lead to behaviours that relate to 'projective identification'. Here both parties in the mentoring relationship may defend against inner pain by projecting troublesome aspects of themselves on to the other. A typical consequence of

this projection is that the receiver will feel and enact them as if they were his own. The projector is then able to disapprove of the troublesome quality when it is portrayed so exactly by another (Krantz, 1989). The parent/child analogy (Levinson et al., 1978) and psychoanalytical analyses of mentoring have concentrated on the early life stages (including the Oedipal stage) with all the anger and aggression this implies (Phillips-Jones, 1982).

Carruthers' (1993) model showed the stages through which both mentor and mentee pass, as the mentor's influence wanes and the mentee's personal power increases with the power balance moving gradually from the mentor to become wholly with the autonomous mentee. This mirrors the parent/child analogy and includes all the unconscious elements that may be ignored or denied by the mentees and mentors. Carruthers maintained that these unconscious elements would change as the mentoring relationship progressed. At first the mentee would be dependent on the mentor's guidance but then cautiously begins to feel confident in completing tasks alone. Eventually the mentee's opinion is respected as much as the mentor's. Both will then recognize the expertise of the other and is openly acknowledged beyond which the relationship evolves into a friendship of equals.

The models, skills and techniques of mentoring have developed in recent years largely due to the experiences of practitioners in generic mentoring. See Appendix 3 for more examples of models, skills and techniques of mentoring.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter together with the supporting Appendix 3 on 'Models, Skills and Techniques of Mentoring' has provided a generic review of mentoring, in theory and in

practice. Mentoring, which has been widely used, and for a considerable length of time, in career development and professional socialization in the private sector, gradually spread to public sector contexts such as, teaching in recent years.

Although a number of authors have described the basic principles there has been little agreement about the precise definition and scope of mentoring.

The chapter has reviewed some of the history of mentoring to show how it has been defined in the past and how it has developed.

It has also highlighted the sources of confusion and differences of opinion as to distinction and overlap between mentoring and coaching.

From the literature review of the theories and approaches to mentoring it was highlighted that mentoring relationships may be described as subjective, adopting humanistic values, person centred and promoting transformation (Hay, 1995).

Mentoring may also involve a range of learning outcomes, categorized as traditional, transitional and transformational. The philosophy or theoretical base may in practice be implicit or undeclared, but there is disagreement as to how this might influence both training for mentors and its practice. Different approaches to, and techniques of, mentoring have been reviewed (both in this chapter and in the supporting Appendix 3) and it is clear that there is an abundance of preferred and proposed practices and points of view on the subject.

The intriguing question for this thesis, then would be which such approaches and techniques might be practiced and characterize mentoring in criminal justice – the subject to which the next chapter now turns.

CHAPTER 4

Mentoring in Criminal Justice

Current Criminal Justice Policy and Practice

4.1 Mentoring and the Rehabilitation of Offenders

4.1.1 How is Mentoring Defined for the Purposes of Rehabilitation in Criminal Justice.

Interest in mentoring as an intervention in the rehabilitation of offenders can be traced back at least to the influential report *Misspent Youth* (Audit Commission, 1998) which highlighted mentoring as a promising form of intervention. Goldson (2008) says mentoring provides a means of working with ‘disaffected’ young people that typically involves a relationship between an older, more experienced mentor and an unrelated young protégé (mentee). Mentoring is also being used in other situations, for example in helping people of any age adjust back into life in the community after being released from prison or from young offenders’ institutions. The general feature of all mentoring programmes is the contact of a less experienced, or in criminal justice ‘at-risk’, individual with a positive role model. The mentor is usually more experienced and often older in the hope that the mentor can provide guidance, advice and encouragement that helps to develop the character of the mentee (Rhodes, Ebert and Fischer, 1992).

A mentor has been defined as someone who helps others to achieve their potential (Shea, 1992) and may provide that help by a variety of modes of relationship (Pawson, 2006). As the research for this thesis has found one of the main difficulties is pinning

down precisely what is involved and what is to be expected in mentoring. Mentoring is described by Pawson (2006) as an elastic term, which encompasses a variety of approaches; helping, coaching, tutoring, counselling, sponsoring, befriending, bonding, trusting, role-modelling, mutual learning, direction-setting, progress-chasing, sharing experience, respite provision, sharing a laugh, widening horizons, resilience building, showing ropes, informal apprenticeships, providing openings, kindness of strangers, treats for bad boys and girls, power play and tours of middle-class life (Pawson, 2006).

Befriending ideally creates bonds of trust and the sharing of new experiences so that the mentee recognizes the legitimacy of other people and of other perspectives. Direction-setting promotes further self-reflection through the discussion of alternatives so that the mentee reconsiders their loyalties, values and ambitions. Coaching coaxes and cajoles the mentee into acquiring the skills, assets, credentials and testimonials required to enter the mainstream. Sponsoring works by advocating and networking on behalf of the mentee to gain the requisite insider contacts and opportunities. (Pawson, 2006)

Added to this definitional difficulty, mentoring is criticized for lacking a strong theoretical base. There is a lack of consensus about what the mentoring role is (Gay & Stephenson, 1998). What Philip (2000) describes as ‘the classical model of mentoring’ is said to rest on an uncritical acceptance of traditional developmental theories of youth, and makes gender-bound assumptions about family and lifestyles whilst neglecting structural conditions such as poverty and social exclusion. Philip concludes that the classical model of mentoring is highly individualistic having at its heart a relationship that is essentially private and isolated from a young person’s stated needs. Other commentators have noted that the way in which mentoring may be expected to bring

about changes in young people's attitudes, behaviours or lifestyles is far from clear. As such, it has been argued that mentoring needs to be more clearly theorized (Newburn & Shiner, 2005).

The centralist top-down approaches over the last decade are increasingly being criticized as ineffective in reducing reoffending and in particular the 'one size fits all approach' (Brayford, et al., 2010). Critics of this argue that those in control of probation and the youth justice service are generally not practitioners and this has led to an over reliance on 'cognitive behaviouralism' and 'group delivery' while the effectiveness of the relationships between the supervisor and supervisee, as part of the community order, has tended to be downplayed. Mentoring practitioners, however, would see this relationship as fundamental to effectiveness (Dowden & Andrews, 2004). But in recent years performance targets for probation, have been given more prominence and these, it has been argued have tended to "skew practice and become an end in themselves, rather than a means to improved practice overall" (Raine, 2002; p.338).

4.1.2 Mentoring as an Interaction in Criminal Justice

Can mentoring be considered to be a constructive approach to working with offenders and what is meant by a constructive approach? Blanchette and Lynn Brown (2006) define this as the use of effective methods and techniques of behaviour change in working with offenders and the application of theory and research in order to develop practice aimed at bringing about a change in the offender's functioning. Blanchette and Lynn Brown maintain that the word 'constructive' is important and can be set against approaches to behaviour change that seek to operate by destructive means. Such

destructive approaches are typically based on the principles of deterrence and punishment, seeking to suppress the offender's actions through fear and intimidation whereas a constructive approach, seeks to bring about changes in an offender's functioning that will produce, say, enhanced possibilities of employment, greater levels of self control, better family functioning, or increased awareness of the harm they have caused to victims.

The lack of research into mentoring in the UK, means that the popularity of mentoring here has been based largely on its 'commonsense' appeal rather than convincing evidence of its effectiveness. Indeed there have been surprisingly few studies on the subject (Goldson, 2008).

In criminal justice, as indicated, the term mentoring is usually used to describe a formal relationship between two strangers, instigated by a third party, who intentionally matches the mentor with the mentee according to the needs of the latter as part of a planned intervention or programme. It is in the development of essential interpersonal skills and behavioural competencies that mentoring is seen as a means of helping vulnerable young people and as compensating for a variety of perceived inadequacies in areas such as family life, parental support and educational provision (Rhodes et al., 1992). Adult mentors it has been suggested (Home Office, 1997) can offer young people from unstable family environments an alternative source of emotional support, practical help and guidance and care, as well as providing them with a positive role model. The theoretical foundations for this view is found within developmental psychology (Hamilton & Darling, 1989).

The official Home Office guidance on mentoring schemes was that youth offending teams might also find that referrals to a mentoring scheme would be a useful way of reinforcing a rehabilitation programme, either as part of it or in support. Mentoring schemes, it suggested, are designed to help support young people, assisting them to achieve their goals and resist negative peer pressure. Mentors are trained to be supportive and non-judgmental. Some schemes are designed specifically for young offenders (Home Office, 2002).

As more generally, mentoring in youth offending usually involves pairing a young person with an older volunteer who acts as a role model and friend, and aims for constructive changes in the life and behaviour of the young person. Evidence suggests that the impact of mentoring on young people is strongest when emotional support forms a key element of the process (Tolan et al., 2008). The focus for mentoring young people is on those who for varying reasons, are considered to be at risk of offending. This may be because of disruptive behaviour, non-attendance at school or contact with the youth justice system. The aim of these programmes was for mentors and mentees typically to interact for around two hours a week, meet for a coffee, help with schoolwork, give advice and offer help in searching for a job or providing advice and support towards achieving some other set of previously agreed objectives. These objectives were to vary according to the needs of the mentee but ideally combine with leisure activities and some form of education, training or pastoral support. The plan was for mentoring to be linked to other forms of intervention such as bail supervision, or drugs advice with the mentor's role adjusting accordingly. The official Home Office opinion is that one of the benefits of mentoring is that it is flexible, so that the mentor's role and the mentoring model can include older to younger peer and group mentoring as

well as the more usual adult to young person relations. The Home Office comments that mentoring is adaptable to the circumstances of the mentee which may range from being in prison to designated at risk of offending.

Mentoring may also vary according to who has responsibility for organising the programme as this may be a national voluntary agency, a youth offender team or a local community group. The mentoring scheme may be part of a wider project or a 'stand-alone' initiative. It is usually a project coordinator's task to recruit and train volunteer mentors and match them with mentees referred to the project. The Home Office acknowledges that the structure and organisation of mentoring support roles can vary markedly from one mentoring scheme to another. The Home Office advise that the nature, structure and content of the mentoring role be determined by a number of factors, such as the specific aims and objectives of the programme, the perceived needs and problems experienced by the target group of potential mentees, the nature of the institutional or community context in which the scheme operates and the resources available for supporting it (Home Office, 2008). In other words the Home Office is acknowledging that there is no national agreement about the form that mentoring takes in criminal justice.

Dubois (2002) found that practice design theory was significant in the success of mentoring with the key factors being:

- Initial and on-going training for mentors;
- Structured and varied activities for mentors and young people;
- Developmentally sensitive goal setting with young people;
- Clear expectations for the frequency of contact;
- The support and involvement of parents;
- Structured support and supervision for the relationship.

4.1.3 Previous Evaluations of Mentoring as a Criminal Justice Intervention

Mentoring within criminal justice was first pioneered in a significant way in the USA with the Big Brother Big Sisters of America (BBBSA) initiative. This was established by Ernest Coulter a court clerk from New York City in 1904 and BBBSA now claims to be one of the biggest mentoring programmes in the world and one targeting young people with 'associated risk factors', including residence in a single-parent home, or a history of abuse or neglect. The young person is paired with an unrelated adult volunteer, whom they meet between two and four times a month for at least a year, with an average meeting lasting approximately four hours. The programme is not aimed at specific 'problems' but rather focuses on developing the 'whole person' (Grossman & Tiernay, 1998; Tiernay et al., 1995). Tiernay et al.'s evaluation of this long-standing programme drew from a pool of 959 young people aged 10 – 16 years who had applied to the project. The researchers compared outcomes for a randomly assigned 'treatment' group of young people – those who were matched with a mentor - and a control group who were placed on a waiting list. After 18 months, the young people in the first group were found to be 46% less likely to use illegal drugs and alcohol, 52% less likely to miss a day at school and 27% less likely to hit someone. Few other studies have replicated the experimental approach used here by Tiernay et al., or, indeed the size of the sample.

Relatively few studies of mentoring schemes in the UK have been conducted but what little research has been undertaken has certainly also yielded some positive results (Jolliffe & Farrington, 2007). The Dalston Youth Project (DYP) was one of the first mentoring programmes to be established in England and was set up in 1994 by Crime

Concern in the London Borough of Hackney. DYP targets 'disaffected' young people and mentoring here was reported as forming a key component of a wider programme that includes two residential courses and education, training and careers advice. Notices were placed in local libraries, shops, banks and building societies to attract volunteer mentors from the local community and also advertisements were placed in a wide range of publications. The first part of the project was aimed at 15 – 18 year olds and part two was aimed at 11 – 14 year olds. This is an ongoing project, which aims to build skills and confidence through one-to-one mentoring relationships with adult volunteers, alongside a structured education and careers programme. Its stated aims are to reduce youth crime and other at-risk behaviour within the target group; to help 'at-risk' young people back into education, training and employment, to increase motivation to learn, to encourage young people to adopt a safer, more socially acceptable lifestyles; and to reduce conflict with parents and other adults. The initiative also sets out to enable community members to become involved in solving community problems through volunteering (Goldson, 2008), and being trained and supported by the project. The justification for this project is based on the belief that young people are at risk of offending if they come from unstable family backgrounds and have poor relationships with their parents (Grossman & Tierney, 1998; Newburn & Shiner, 2005; O'Donnell, Lydgate and Fo, 1979). The researchers found that young people who received inadequate parental supervision and had delinquent siblings and peers were more likely to offend. Poor performance at school and truancy, together with disruptive behaviour and low levels of achievement were also associated with delinquency.

Mentor and mentees are matched following the first residential scheme which includes outward-bound activities, action planning exercises, games, videos etc. The education

and careers component includes a college ‘taster’ course, a pre-employment training programme and classes on interpersonal skills. DYP is widely considered to be a successful project and, within two years of being set up, was cited as an example of good practice in the Audit Commission’s (1998) *Misspent Youth* – a major review of youth justice - but as a ‘mentoring plus’ model it was recognized as one requiring significant resources (Home Office, 2008).

Mentoring was given a boost by the election of a Labour government in 1997 as it was seen to fit well with the policy agenda of social inclusion, civic renewal and community responsibility. As a result, by 2000, the Youth Justice Board had funded almost 100 mentoring schemes and the Home Office had also become a significant funder of local mentoring programmes. Many of these schemes simply delivered the mentoring component of the Dalston model, arranging matches and providing ongoing support to mentors and mentees. When it was part of a youth offender team package, the mentor’s role might also include attendance at court with a young person as part of the focus not only on preventing further crime but also on rehabilitation.

4.1.4 What is the Impact of Mentoring?

Tarling et al.’s (2004) national evaluation of the Youth Justice Board’s mentoring projects is the largest study of the impact of mentoring undertaken in the UK. The evaluation involved over 3,500 young people referred to mentoring schemes and over 1,700 mentors. One year later in 2005, 359 young people were followed up. Of those, 55% had been reconvicted, a figure much higher than the 26% obtained in Home Office reconviction studies for young people who had committed offences nationally. There was also a slight increase in offending after the project, an estimated 2.1 offences per

person before and 2.6 per person afterwards. There was no clear evidence that the seriousness of the offending had changed. The study concluded that, even taking into account some differences between the comparison cohorts, those on mentoring projects had slightly higher reconviction rates. The age of the young person at the time they joined the project was found to be significant, with those aged between 10 and 13 less likely to receive a further caution or conviction for a subsequent offence than those aged between 14 and 17. The age at which the young people started offending was highly significant with 62% of those committing their first offence between the ages of 10 and 13 reoffending compared with 42% of those committing their first offence between the ages of 14 and 17. Only 30% of those who had committed just one offence reoffended, whereas just over 80% of those with at least 10 previous offences committed further crimes. The lowest rates of reoffending were associated with those young people who had been given a reprimand or caution or a final warning (less than 40%). Young people who had received community orders or a custodial sentence were much more likely to reoffend (Stephenson et al., 2007).

Young people excluded from school and thereby deemed to be at risk of offending have also often been referred for mentoring so as to try and ensure there would be no deterioration in their behaviour. Several such schemes are now established in young offender institutions where the aim is to assist the young person in finding work, somewhere to live and other essentials needed for re-settling back into society when they leave custody. At the 'Trailblazers' project at Feltham, for example, volunteers visit young people on a two weekly basis towards the end of their sentence and continue to meet them for a period of up to six months following their release. They

report only 17% of the 210 young offenders they had worked with had reoffended (Trailblazers, 2002).

The Ministry of Justice published a report in 2013 entitled “Intermediate Outcomes of Mentoring Interventions” which summarized the findings from a rapid evidence assessment (REA) which sought to identify intermediate outcomes from mentoring projects. This was described as the first stage in a wider project funded by the National Offender Management Service (NOMS) to develop a framework for measuring intermediate outcomes which could be adopted by organisations that deliver mentoring to offenders. They reported that there were many different kinds of mentoring and the programmes varied considerably in aims, content and the nature of the mentor-mentee relationship. In their view this diversity made it difficult to generalize about effectiveness and good practice. It was noted that there was a lack of good quality research evidence on the impact of mentoring projects with offenders but that available studies indicated that some kinds of mentoring may influence reoffending through acting as a ‘bridge’ to other services and providing continuity of support ‘through the gate’. A key point of the report was that tentative evidence indicated that mentoring projects may be associated with improvements in mentees’ housing situation and very limited evidence suggested they may be associated with reductions in substance misuse. They found that there was very limited evidence that mentoring programmes can increase coping abilities, improve family and peer relationships and reduce pro-criminal attitudes. The report claimed that all of these ‘intermediate outcomes’ can be theoretically linked to reductions in reoffending behaviour but most related to criminogenic or protective factors identified widely in the academic and research literature, and hence likely to contribute to the process of desistance from crime. The

research team recommended that these intermediate outcomes were considered for inclusion in a proposed toolkit which could be adopted by organisations delivering mentoring interventions to measure their activities and impacts (Taylor, Burrowes, Disley, Liddle, Maguire, Rubin, and Wright, 2013).

Evaluations have been criticized for their mostly small scale and low design and methodological quality (Jolliffe & Farrington, 2007). Jolliffe and Farrington did a rapid evidence assessment and using a number of searching strategies found 18 studies that met their inclusion criteria. Some studies showed that mentoring was most effective when there was greater average duration of contact between mentor and mentee. In smaller scale studies, and when mentoring was combined with other interventions re-offending was reduced by approximately 4 – 11 %. In studies with higher methodological quality however, little evidence was found to suggest that mentoring reduced reoffending. This raised questions about adequacy of the design of the study (and whether any pre-existing differences between those who received mentoring and those who did not were considered). In addition, only two of the studies (Newburn & Shiner, 2005; St.James Roberts et al., 2005) were conducted in the UK and were said to be of lower methodological quality, further limiting the scope for generalizing from the findings about the effectiveness of mentoring in this country.

4.1.5 The Benefits of Mentoring

Many young people talk positively about having had a mentor, and a number of other evaluations that have been conducted have yielded more positive results. As indicated, the evaluation of BBBSA, which had an experimental design, reported substantial benefits for participants in relation to drug and alcohol use, violent episodes and school

attendance (Sherman et al., 1997). Indeed, the largest evaluation of mentoring in Britain to date also pointed to some positive outcomes; specifically in relation to engagement in education, training and work, though not offending (Newburn & Shiner, 2005). Under these circumstances, mentoring can best be described as a ‘promising approach to crime prevention’ (Sherman et al., 1997).

Although evidence of usefulness in reoffending has been variable, mentoring programmes are widely felt to be effective in enhancing the positive development of youth. Mentored youth are likely to have fewer absences from, and better attitudes to school, fewer incidents of hitting others, less drug and alcohol use, more positive attitudes toward their elders and toward helping in general and improved relationships with their parents (Jekielek et al., 2002). Jekielek et al. also highlighted factors that can undermine the effectiveness of mentoring. Some of these are to do with the particular circumstances of the young person, and some are concerned with the organisation of the schemes; for instance, the level of supervision and training provided for mentors, the frequency of contact and the flexibility of agendas. Young people facing environmental risks or various disadvantages were found to benefit most from mentoring. On the other hand, it was found that young people with high personal risk factors could be damaged by mentoring unless extensive amounts of specialized assistance were carried out by relevant professionals prior to referral. (Dubois et al, 2002). In addition, young people with significant personal risks were only able to benefit from mentoring if very careful attention was paid to matching the young person with a suitable mentor, and if there was strong support on an ongoing basis as part of the relationship (Stephenson et al., 2007).

In the UK, St. James-Roberts and Singh, (1999) evaluated the outcomes from the CHANCE (UK) programme in which trained mentors worked one-to-one with primary school children exhibiting behavioural difficulties and allied risk factors. Early interventions with these children were intended to support and redirect them from more serious long-term problems. Preliminary findings revealed that both parents and teachers observed positive changes in the children's behaviour, claiming that they were better behaved, more controlled, more confident and better able to communicate their feelings and emotions. There was also some evidence of an improvement in academic work. However, the outcome evaluation (St.James-Roberts & Singh, 2000) showed no statistically significant impacts; the mentored children improved in their behaviours but equivalent improvements were also found in a control group who had not had mentors. Indeed, children from both groups continued to have serious problems.

4.1.6. Making Mentoring More Effective

Jolliffe and Farrington (2007) concluded that mentoring in general is promising although not a proven intervention. When combined with other interventions and where mentors and mentees were meeting at least weekly and spending longer than five hours together per meeting mentoring was regarded as successful in its impact on re-offending, but only for as long as the mentoring continued. This raises the question of what is the optimum period for mentoring. The 'connect project' in West Mercia, for instance, provided up to 12 hours one-to-one mentoring support for ex-offenders during the first three months in the community after release from prison. But some research suggests longer mentoring periods may be optimal in terms of reducing reoffending (Ministry of Justice, 2008). The duration of mentoring in the Newburn and Shiner, (2005) study was 10 – 12 months with weekly contact and a total mentoring time of

572 hours. The duration of the St. James-Roberts et al study, (2005) was seven months with monthly contact and an estimated total mentoring time of 8 hours. Jolliffe and Farrington (2007) found that the beneficial effects of the mentoring programmes did not increase with the total period of mentoring in that there was no relationship between the total duration of mentoring and the reduction in re-offending. The longer term mentoring programmes had less impact. It was suggested this may be because as mentoring programmes continue they become less effective possibly because identifying suitable mentors becomes more difficult or that more difficult mentees require longer term programmes. Their results suggest that the beneficial effects of mentoring on re-offending were limited to the time period when mentoring was taking place. Follow up after the mentoring period had stopped showed that the reduction in re-offending did not continue. Researchers found that the intensive type of mentoring during probation or when the mentee was on parole, were the most effective (Newburn & Shiner, 2005). Grossman and Rhodes (2002) confirmed that length and intensity of the mentoring relationship were additional key factors for success. The most successful mentoring relationships lasted 15 months on average. They found relationships lasting less than three months could be damaging to the young person, particularly if it was the mentor who gave up after forming a bond with the mentee, who was then disappointed.

Delaney and Milne (2002), describing two pilot projects developed in Sydney, Australia, observed that 'all young people involved in 'performing matches' (mentoring relationships) of six months and more reported reduced offending, increased community involvement, improved self esteem and communication skills and more motivation' ('performing matches' emphasised). Porteous, (1998, 2002) found case studies of successful mentor/mentee matches provided evidence of improved family

relationships, greater self-confidence, desistance from offending and new friendships. The successful relationships were characterized above all by friendship and mutual respect, which could only develop over time. In achieving results, mentors stressed particular factors and qualities such as the need for honesty and trust, agreement over boundaries, patience, and the ability to listen and not to judge. Porteous, (1998, 2002) suggested that while it was impossible to demonstrate empirically that it was the introduction of a mentor which had enabled young people to achieve positive changes, the testimony of project workers, mentors, mentees and their parents, strongly suggested that the combination of practical and emotional support which mentoring brings had been a decisive factor.

But Shiner et al. (2004) found the staff ‘burn-out’ rate was high with 49% leaving Mentoring Plus by the end of the evaluation. A relatively high ‘drop out’ rate was also noted by Delaney and Milne (2002) amongst the mentees. They observed that, whilst ‘most referrals were appropriate’ in the sense that they met the agreed criteria, ‘most young people were unsuitable for mentoring or not interested. They did not specify what they mean by ‘unsuitable’ but other studies suggest some young people may have multiple problems so deeply entrenched that a volunteer mentor proves ineffective (Youth Justice Board, 1999). Others have found that the ‘at riskiness’ of young people was negatively correlated with the success of the mentoring relationship – the more problematic the young person’s circumstances, the less likely the relationship was to work (Crimmens & Storr, 1998; Porteous, 1998).

4.1.7 Factors Affecting Mentoring Success

Shiner et al., (2004) also identified location as being a significant factor in the success of the Mentoring Plus programmes evaluated. Only one project had its own premises, which was considered important by the staff working there, particularly with respect to the young people feeling able to participate fully in the programme. The other projects shared premises with other community groups and staff raised concerns that the projects were inaccessible and/or unappealing because they were located a long way from where the young people lived and/or because they were based in unsafe and inappropriate locations. While, it may be important that the mentoring relationship is built around a young person's community, and work done within it is geared towards helping young people engage more effectively with it, this could also limit its scope. A mentor may bring new awareness and knowledge about the community or other communities.

Tarling et al. (2004) evaluation of the Youth Justice Board mentoring projects found a need for greater emphasis on the training of mentors and on how to motivate and engage young people in new activities that do have elements of new learning but are non-threatening. They recommended that mentors be trained in the aims of the programme and the methods to be used and there should be on-going support by supervision and monitoring to ensure that the aims do not become confused or diluted (Tarling et al., 2004).

Assumptions are sometimes made that a young person should automatically be matched with someone from the same gender group, ethnic origin, sexual orientation or religious belief. This may have advantages and disadvantages for example, a young male mentor may have greater empathy with a young male mentee's issues and experiences but have

more difficulty in helping them to take a different or broader perspective particularly when there are significant barriers, for example where the mentee may be a disadvantaged, person who has underachieved educationally.

Again the evaluation of the Youth Justice Board-sponsored mentoring projects indicated that parents/carers might be important in respect of the on-going success of a mentoring relationship (Tarling et al., 2004). There were a number of cases where parental resistance had been a factor that prevented matches from being started or sustained. Tarling et al thought that mentoring alone would not help a young person experiencing complex and multiple difficulties. Where young people were known to be at high risk of further offending, more intensive mentoring support in combination with other forms of intervention, might be required in order to produce positive results. For example the mentoring component is part of a broader programme of activities designed to prevent further offending. The challenge then that would be how far the effects of the mentoring inputs might be separated from the other aspects of the intervention (Tarling et al., 2004).

Tarling et al., (2004) emphasized that the nature and scope of mentoring relationships could vary widely across schemes, and indeed also within an individual scheme, leading to a variability in treatment that could possibly compromise the integrity of any research design. Their evaluation (Tarling et al., 2004) found that 42% of mentoring relationships had been ended prematurely, predominantly by the young people themselves. The primary reason attributed to this was that the young person had lost interest in the relationship and was no longer interested in having a mentor.

Compelling a young person to attend through an order would be one way of achieving

this, although many would argue that this would seriously compromise the voluntary nature of the relationship.

Pawson's (2006) review of the inner mechanisms of youth mentoring raises some further significant challenges for practice. Synthesizing the findings from nine evaluations of mentoring projects and initiatives, the following conclusions emerge. The functions of befriending practice, direction setting, coaching and sponsoring, within a mentoring relationship, become increasingly difficult to accomplish, as mentors attempt to move from the sharing of mundane activities, to seeking emotional, cognitive and skills gains. Where such movement does take place, it tends to be with mentees who arrive in a programme with in-built resilience and with aspirations about moving away from their present status. Selecting mentees with a motivation to change, or providing opportunities to generate such motivation, would seem to be a key learning point from these findings.

4.1.8 Mentoring Plus and Other Mentoring Projects

Shiner et al.'s (2004) evaluation of Mentoring Plus, in the UK, a voluntary, multi-modular programme comprising a pre-programme residential course, an educational and training programme and mentoring, showed that the programme produced substantial moves from social exclusion to inclusion. Social inclusion was defined as changes in engagement in education, training or employment. The proportion of young people who participated in education, training or employment increased substantially during the course of the programme. There was no such increase evident in the comparison group. However, this may have been due to the education and training component of the programme rather than the mentoring (though from the research

design this was not clear). There was some reduction in offending during the programme and in a six month follow-up there were similar reductions in offending by non-participants in the control group. There was no apparent relationship either between social inclusion and reductions in offending, although it was suggested that there might be longer-term effects. Similarly, changes in self-esteem appeared unrelated to changes in both social inclusion and offending (Stephenson et al., 2007).

Shiner et al.,'s (2004) evaluation of Mentoring Plus concluded that a mentoring project offered within a youth justice setting is likely to be more successful at achieving the aim of reducing offending if the approach has a clearly defined model of change. Most success is gained from the mentoring programmes where the structured activities related directly to the aims of the programme. Mentors and mentees should be clear what those explicit aims are and how the methods they are going to use will achieve those aims. Shiner et al., argued that work with young people is undertheorised. That is to say, there is often little explicit discussion of the aims of particular programmes, other than the most banal identification of 'reductions in offending' or something similarly general (Shiner et al., 2004).

One of the criticisms of the Mentoring Plus projects was that there were considerable gaps in the evidence with regard to time spent, in particular the degrees of engagement in education, training and employment (one of the programme's aims) were not able to be measured – commencing a very limited part-time programme apparently counted as much as full-time participation. It follows then that the amount of education, training or employment received is unknown which could have varied widely as a result of how much was actually arranged and differential attendance (Stephenson, 2007).

Stephenson et al commented that ‘raising young people’s expectations too high might be equally damaging if they don’t have the resources, both internal and external, to realize their expectations’.

Newburn et al. (2005) identified some difficulties in achieving an ‘idealized action-oriented approach’ in the mentoring relationships they studied. They have argued that most mentoring models tend to ‘overstate the centrality of goal-focused, instrumental activities’. This can lead to an expectation that young people will move more quickly into activities that challenge some aspect of their behaviour or provide skills and strategies they need, such as literacy and numeracy. What they found was that many rarely moved beyond a basic model of ‘contact-meeting-doing’ where the doing largely involved relatively mundane everyday activities. Where relationships did move on, this was usually as a result of some crisis in the young person’s life, a stage Shiner et al. (2004) describe as ‘firefighting’: Relationships may stay in the firefighting cycle, revert to the basic cycle or, in some cases progress beyond the reactive firefighting stage, to become genuinely action-oriented and closer to what often appears to be the ideal-typical conception of mentoring. What is not clear from their analysis, however, is whether this was due to inadequate training for mentors in moving things on relatively quickly.

Another Youth Justice Board funded project that focused on providing mentors/personal advisers for young people was ‘Keeping Young People Engaged’ (KYPE). The main aim of the project was to improve education, training and employment provision for all young offenders, but particularly for those subject to intensive supervision and surveillance programmes. (ISSPs) and (DTOs). (Youth

Justice Board 2005b:4). The apparent withdrawal of support for this project by the Connexions Service National Unit may have affected the outcomes but it appears to have been inconclusive.

It is not clear what type of mentoring scheme is most effective, in particular whether this is something that should be left to statutory bodies or independent agencies, the schemes vary greatly in their designs. The flexibility of mentoring, thought to be one of its potential strengths is also a potential weakness. The nature of the mentoring varies from programme to programme. There is no real consistency.

There are examples of peer mentoring programmes which make use of ex offenders as mentors (the St. Giles Trust Peer Mentoring Programme and the Prince's Trust 'One to One' scheme) but little hard evidence of effectiveness. There are also many examples of voluntary sector programmes for ex offenders and examples of projects with some evaluation which include the Revolving Door Agency Link Worker scheme and NACRO's Portland On Side project (Jolliffe & Farrington, 2007; NACRO, 2006; Revolving Doors Agency, 2003; NACRO, 2006).

Where mentees are disadvantaged young people, their chaotic lifestyles often militate against them sustaining a mentoring relationship. Patterns of offending behaviour illustrate different aspects of risk. There are links between poor basic skills, social exclusion, restricted life opportunities and the risk of becoming entrenched in an offending lifestyle (Farrow, Kelly & Wilkinson, 2007). Mentors need to act as persistent 'firefighters' of the tribulations faced by excluded young people. They must be prepared to rebuild their mentoring relationship with the young person, often over many occasions, in an attempt to regain the mentee's trust and imbue them with

resilience. The selection of mentors with this tenacious attitude is a key component of an effective mentoring scheme, (Pawson, 2006).

The European Mentoring Centre describes mentoring as a means of achieving development and personal growth (EMC, 1999 p.1). This suggests that everyone can benefit from having a mentor. The position is less clear though in the context of criminal justice. The opinion from the Dalston Youth Project (1997) was that mentoring offers at-risk young people a positive, non-judgmental and supportive role model. They argued that for the first time in their lives, those young people would have the undivided attention of an adult, trained to listen to them and to take their concerns, problems, hopes and accomplishments seriously (Dalston Youth Project, 1997). This sounds hopeful. It appears mentoring has the potential for making good the deficits of a young person's past, a lack of love, care and attention and/or inferior opportunities in education and employment.

4.1.9 Mentoring Women Offenders. Are Their Needs Different?

One of the case studies in this thesis, Asha, involves only women offenders and another, Sova, includes some women offenders. Are women's mentoring needs different from men's in what is needed to stop reoffending? Does mentor training need to differ when the mentor will be mentoring women offenders from that required to mentor male offenders who form the majority of offenders? What is it that makes some women offend and reoffend?

Blanchette and Shelley Lynn Brown (2006) claim that women offenders figure among the disregarded groups that are the focus of relatively little research. As a result, services for women offenders have often been adaptations of those developed primarily

for men. This approach assumes that what is known about male offenders applies equally to women. Equivalent assumptions are made about pathways into crime being similar for both sexes, and that risk factors are assumed virtually identical, and that treatments that work for men will also work for women. Blanchette and Lynn Brown call this a lazy, unscientific and dismissive approach to women offenders. A meta-analysis of what works specifically with women offenders was conducted by Dowden and Andrews (1999). This study highlighted an early longitudinal study of delinquency, the Cambridge Study in Delinquent Development, focused exclusively on boys, but more recently the data have been revisited to examine criminal careers of the girls in this study's families (Farrington & Painter, 2004). More recent longitudinal studies of antisocial behavior have included girls alongside boys from the outset as a focus of research (e.g. Fergusson & Horwood, 2002) suggesting an increase in gender-specific research in recent years.

In England and Wales, 17% of all arrests in 2003/2004 were attributed to women and girls. They were arrested most frequently for theft (41%) followed by violence against the person (24%) (Murray & Fiti, 2004). The Home Office (2000) reported that women, who make up 5.9% of the prison population in England and Wales are in general being incarcerated primarily for property, non violent and drug- related offences. One consistently concerning finding from this study was that incarcerated female offenders are poor, young, uneducated and lacking in employment skills. Also 55% of the adult female prison population consists of primary caregivers responsible for children and elders (HMPS, 2004). The nature of the crimes committed by women tends to be non-violent compared to those committed by men. This is explained by women committing crime out of economic necessity such as the need to feed and clothe

children (Belknap, 2001; Campbell, 2002; Carlen, 1988; Chesney-Lind, 1986; Gilfus, 1992; Hunnicutt and Broidy, 2004; Miller, 1986). A general appraisal on why women offend would be helpful in judging how women offenders may be helped and in particular could mentoring be focused on those needs.

4.2 Future Government Policy That May Impact on Volunteer Mentoring

Recent changes in patterns of responsibility and service provision in criminal justice across England and Wales are set to have a potentially significant impact of mentoring activity in the sector, and in particular, the plan announced on the 9th May, 2013 that the government intended to change the way probation services are organized. The official aim of the Ministry of Justice is to transform the way offenders are managed in the community, to achieve a greater reduction in the rate of re-offending whilst continuing to protect the public. It means that the majority of offender services will in future be delivered by a range of contracted private and voluntary organizations rather than as now, through local Probation Trusts. Trusts will be abolished and the work overseen at national level by the National Probation Service. Probation will still manage the most difficult and high risk offenders and provide services to courts. Every offender released from custody will receive statutory supervision and rehabilitation in the community. Legislation will extend this statutory supervision and rehabilitation to all 50,000 of the most prolific group of offenders, those sentenced to less than 12 months in custody possibly meaning more potential work for charities and voluntary organizations who win the contracts. Previously, these offenders had no statutory involvement with probation services after coming out of prison. A nationwide ‘through the prison gate’ resettlement service will be put in place, meaning most offenders are given continuous support by one provider from custody into the community. The

government is also planning to reorganize the prison system so that most offenders are held in a prison designated to their area for at least three months before release. The market will be opened up to a diverse range of new rehabilitation providers, voluntary and private sectors, at the local and national levels. Again this may be potentially more work for volunteer mentors.

The contracted-out section will take on management and responsibility for: all cases judged to be low risk of harm or medium risk of harm; delivery of community payback; delivery of accredited programmes; Integrated Offender Management (IOM) and delivery of all other interventions for low and medium risk offenders, including services for female offenders. This group of offenders judged to be low or medium risk may include offenders guilty of domestic violence, drug-addicted offenders, offenders with mental health issues and prolific offenders. A percentage of the contract will be awarded as 'payment by results' measured on proven reduction in reoffending.

4.3 Mentoring Victims in Criminal Justice

According to Walklate (2007) the emergence and development of, mostly volunteer-based, support services, designed to help an individual put their lives back in order both practically and emotionally after experiencing victimization reveals much about how, as a society, changes in emotional management have evolved. She also comments that the management of emotion constitutes an increasingly important feature of criminal justice policy responses to the victim of crime that has changed in its tenor from the 1960s to contemporary times. Not all those sharing the same level of vulnerability will deal with a similar victimizing event in the same way. Their needs will vary according to their own personal coping skills and those of people around them. In other words,

needs, even in the case of the most vulnerable, are not fixed entities. Matching service delivery to needs in any service delivery context is fraught with difficulties, and the same is true in the context of victims of crime (Walklate, 2007).

Maguire (1985) reviewed research evidence about victims' needs and identified three areas of need. These were; emotional support, practical help and information which became the main components of Victim Support's service (Walklate, 2007). Maguire and Corbett attempted to assess victims' emotional needs based on their understanding of the impact of the event. They concluded that about 1 in 4 of the crimes (excluding rape) found to have the greatest emotional impact (burglary, robbery, snatch thefts and serious assault) and 1 in 10 of all recorded offences against individuals, could be shown to "need" a visit from a volunteer to provide some form of psychological support or reassurance. 'Among these victims ... will be different levels of need according to their social characteristics' (Maguire and Corbett, 1987: 77).

One of the case studies in this thesis involves the mentoring of victims, giving them emotional support to, in the words of Victim Support, 'get victims back on track'. By that phrase is meant the provision of help to victims to the point where they can continue with their lives in the way they had before being a victim of crime. In this case study the help by volunteers was not always called mentoring but aspects of the provision did fall within the accepted definitions.

Over the past 40 years in the U.K. there has been a shift from a situation where the immediate needs of the victims were increasingly recognized, but where the voluntary sector was considered the most appropriate way of responding to such needs (Mawby and Gill, 1987) to one where public sector organizations now play a key role in relation

to a wide range of initiatives and commitments including respect for various rights now recognized for victims of crime and where voluntary agency involvement is expected to mirror that of the statutory sector. The Victim's Charter (Home Office, 1990) was described as setting out for the first time the rights and entitlements of victims of crime, although Spalek (2006) comments that in reality this document really only articulated a set of service standards. There is continued recognition that independent sector agencies like Victim Support have a crucial role to play in service delivery but, as Walklate has commented, recent developments have rather re-framed this role in terms of the support such agencies can give to the public sector in criminal justice.

Although the voluntary sector was accorded a central place in the provision of services, the state, principally through the police and Crown Prosecution Service have generally been accorded responsibilities for service delivery for victims, and in recent years this responsibility has been accentuated and the balance between public and voluntary sectors has correspondingly shifted (Walklate, 2007). There are a number of reasons for this, based on the gradual and growing acceptance that victims' needs are too important to be left the voluntary sector alone (Mawby & Walklate, 1994). One problem here, according to Mawby and Gill (1987) has been that some of the greatest needs for support for victims of crime occur in areas where voluntary sector provision is most problematic, for example metropolitan high-crime areas.

Some organisations including Support after Murder and Manslaughter (SAMM) and Victim's Voice (formerly the Suzy Lamplugh Trust) depend upon people identifying themselves as victims/survivors over a period of time. These groups demonstrate how victims themselves volunteer their time to self-help victims' groups. This may help

them to regain control of their lives by sharing their experience of victimization with others. Others are motivated by a desire to give something back in recognition of help they received when they needed it, or alternatively to ensure that a sympathetic service is available to others which was not available to them.

Some victims may underestimate the extent to which they are affected by crime. Claiming to be unaffected can in itself be a coping mechanism. There may be many needs of the victim which the support services are unable to meet. There are difficulties in reliably assessing needs. Victims who do not report crimes to the police will not be referred for support services; they would have to seek them out for themselves. Some needs may not emerge until a long time after the event. Some people may overstate their needs, or confuse needs with wants, while others understate them. Other victims may be unable to articulate their needs.

Janoff-Bulman and Frieze (1983) argued that coping with victimization is a process that involves rebuilding one's assumptive world and that even relatively minor victimizations can result in a great deal of suffering and disruption. They found that common emotional reactions to victimization include shock, confusion, helplessness, anxiety, fear, and depression; and that victimization can cause post-traumatic stress disorder. Assumptions are shattered and victims no longer see the world as a safe place. Victims are confronted with the reality of human malevolence and their own vulnerability. The trauma can activate guilt and a negative self-image. Recovery from victimization involves re-establishing a conceptual system that will allow the victim to once again function effectively. This involves coming to terms with the fact that bad things happen, but that does not mean the world is all bad. According to Janoff-

Bulman and Frieze victims can be helped to redefine the event to minimize the threat to the assumptive world and make sense of it. This means finding some purpose in the victimization or attributing the victimization, in part, to personal behaviour which can be changed in future as a means of regaining autonomy and control. The victim may engage in preventative behaviour, like fitting better home security, moving house, not going out alone at night, or getting a new unlisted phone number (Janoff-Bulman & Frieze, 1983). As a result, many victims feel they have suffered a fundamental loss of control, as well as losses of confidence in society, self esteem, or loss of faith in others (Spackman, 2000). All or some of these effects of victimization could possibly be helped by mentoring.

Maguire (1985) identified three areas of victim's needs. The first is information which may be information about the progress of the police investigation and court processes and information about crime prevention and insurance. The second was practical help, including short-term financial support, lock-fitting, claiming insurance or compensation. The third was emotional support, a need which, though evident, is difficult to quantify but which again may be helped by mentoring.

In the 2006 British Crime Survey (Jansson, 2006) 22,505 surveys were sent out and 12 % of those were completed and returned. In one area victims were much more satisfied with their contact with Victim Support than the other areas (91 %).

Respondents were asked whether they had received emotional support: 45 % had, and 42 % said they had not. Twelve per cent of respondents reported not having had emotional support, but said they would have liked it. Victims of violent crime or burglary were the most likely to have had emotional support. Respondents were asked

whether and how the emotional support had helped them: 47 % said the feeling of being understood was the best way of describing the effect of receiving emotional support, 35 % felt reassured, 32 % felt less anxious, and 23 % referred to experiencing an increase in confidence as a result of the emotional support they received; 21 % felt less angry about the crime. The survey form included a space for making written comments. The sense of being listened to and the fact that the supporter was neutral were seen by respondents as important. Respondents wanted more face to face contact, and they wanted Victim Support to be more proactive in offering further contact at a later date.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has reviewed the application of mentoring within criminal justice in particular in relation to offenders and victims of crime – the two aspects that are covered by the case studies and which provide the focus of this thesis. The first part of the chapter looked at mentoring in the rehabilitation of offenders. It considered the evidence to suggest that mentoring represents a constructive approach to working with offenders, how it has been used to date and the limited evidence available to date as to its effectiveness. From this review it is clear that more research into the use of mentoring in criminal justice would be beneficial particularly in assessing its impacts and effectiveness and to underpin the case for its usage, that to date has been largely based on its ‘commonsense’ appeal. As highlighted, the few evaluations that have been attempted have shown very mixed results but the desired outcome has been a decrease in offending and maybe other more positive outcomes like success in education,

training and work would show more positive results with the hope that reduction in offending would be a long term prospect. The literature shows that ideas for making the mentoring more effective have included altering the length of the mentoring, the most successful mentoring relationships lasting 18 months (Crossman and Rhodes, 2002). Mentoring success was also thought to be affected by the location and by including other opportunities such as education and training alongside the mentoring. As many mentees stop the mentoring before it is supposed to stop, mentors may need training in how to motivate people and make clear the incentives and benefits of mentoring.

In order to understand how mentoring may help to stop people reoffending it is necessary to understand why they start offending and maybe this should also be included in the mentor training. This chapter has included a short section on why people might or might not desist from crime and on the factors most likely to explain behavior in this respect (notably relationships, marriage and employment, on-going links with a criminal past, and will and determination to change. As most offenders are young men the age/crime curve is also a factor in understanding desistance. Also important is 'through the gate contact' which is offered by two of the case studies (YSS and Sova). The staff and volunteers are questioned about this.

A section on women offenders was included in this chapter as one of the case studies (Asha) offers its mentoring services only to women and also encourages ex-offenders to become volunteer mentors. Does the training need to be different, if the mentors are going to be mentoring women? Do women have different needs from mentoring relationships? In 2000 the Home Office reported that consistently incarcerated women

are poor, young, uneducated and lacking in employment skills. There is evidence to show that most women offenders are primary carers responsible for both children and elders (HMPS, 2004). How does this affect the mentoring process and the pattern of needs of women mentees to be met?

The final section of this chapter focused on victims of crime and their needs and whether these needs may be met by mentoring. Victims provide the subject of one of the four case studies in the research. What do the victims need from the volunteer mentors? How closely does the provision of practical and emotional support in recovery from a victimization ordeal, as provided by Victim Support, resemble the definitions of mentoring? What other needs do victims of crime have and how well are the volunteer mentors able to meet these? Does the help needed depend on the severity of the crime and are volunteers able to provide effective mentoring whatever the crime, or do victims of certain crimes require more specialist mentoring support by professionals with more experience and skill?

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

The methodology was designed to generate the knowledge required to meet the aims of the principal (and subsidiary) research questions as previously described which are:

1. What contribution do volunteer mentors make in criminal justice?
 - 1:1 Who volunteers to provide mentoring and what is the motivation?
 - 1:2 What training do volunteer mentors receive in preparation for their work in criminal justice?
 - 1.3 What is the nature and demands of the work undertaken by volunteer mentors within criminal justice?
2. What is the potential for a more significant contribution by volunteer mentors in criminal justice?
 - 2:1 What do we know of best practice and the potential impacts of high standards on volunteer mentoring within criminal justice?
 - 2.2 What added value can volunteer mentors offer in criminal justice?
 - 2:3 What are the key constraints on realizing the potential of volunteer mentoring in criminal justice in practice?

5.2 Theoretical Background to this Research

In order to address the research questions above the researcher considered the possible theoretical, ontological and epistemological position in terms of how to extract the required information by way of data considering the samples for the research and how this would link with the practical methodological issue of collecting the data. The epistemological approach consists of assumptions which the researcher makes, whether these are implicit or explicit, concerning the nature of the knowledge which is regarded as valid in order to address the research questions. There may be a number of epistemological positions which can be adopted which would reflect a different approach to the research questions.

The ontological issues are those that reflect whether the social world is to be regarded as something external to social actors or as something that people are in the process of fashioning. The epistemological issues are to do with what is regarded as appropriate knowledge about the social world or the theory of knowledge, that is, theory about what is true and how we come to believe that knowledge is true.

The different range of possible approaches included a positivist approach which places emphasis on establishing cause and effect relationships empirically and sees the role of theory as generating generalized explanations of the social world, and assuming that there is a single measurable reality. This epistemological position advocates the application of the methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond. Interpretivism is an approach that places emphasis on empirically establishing the meanings that people use to make sense of the world. It assumes the possibility of multiple realities and is often linked with qualitative research. Qualitative research

usually emphasises words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data. As a research strategy it is inductivist, constructionist and interpretivist. The methods are primarily concerned with stories and accounts including subjective understandings, feelings, opinions and beliefs. Interpretivism is an epistemological position that requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of social action. Social constructivism is a theory of knowledge that considers how social phenomena develop in particular social contexts. A social construction (social construct) is a concept or practice that may appear to be natural and obvious to those who accept it, but is regarded by the sociologist as an invention or artifact of a particular culture or society. Social constructivism is an ontological position that asserts that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors.

Positivism is also taken to entail the principle that only phenomena and hence knowledge confirmed by the senses can genuinely be warranted as knowledge. The purpose of theory in positivism is to generate hypotheses that can be tested and that will thereby allow explanations of laws to be assessed (the principle of deductivism). Knowledge is arrived at through the gathering of facts that provide the basis for laws (the principle of inductivism). In positivism science must (and presumably can) be conducted in a way that is value free (that is, objective). Also in positivism there is a clear distinction between scientific statements and normative statements and a belief that the former are the true domain of the scientist. This last principle implied by the first because the truth or otherwise of normative statements cannot be confirmed by the senses.

Interpretivism may be considered to be a contrasting epistemological position to positivism. The interpretivist view is that the subject matter of the social sciences, people and their institutions, is fundamentally different from that of the natural sciences. The study of the social world therefore requires a different logic of research procedure, one that reflects the distinctiveness of humans as against the natural order. Whereas the positivist approach might attempt to explain human behavior the interpretivist would attempt to understand human behavior. Interpretivism requires the researcher to grasp the subjective meaning of social action.

Social constructivism asserts that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors. It implies that social phenomena and categories are not only produced through social interaction but they are in a constant state of revision. In recent years, the term has come to include the idea that researchers' own accounts of the social world are constructions. The researcher always presents a specific version of social reality, rather than one that can be regarded as definitive. Knowledge is viewed as indeterminate.

5.3 Researcher's Approach to the Research

The researcher preferred a constructivist position of the ontology which asserts that the social phenomena making up our social world are only real in the sense that they are constructed ideas which are continually being reviewed and reworked by those involved in them (the social actors) through social interaction and reflection. This would assert that there is no social reality apart from the meaning of the social phenomenon for the participants. In this ontological position the social researcher, as

part of the social world brings their own meanings and understandings to the study (Matthews & Ross, 2010).

A positive approach was ruled out in this study as the researcher felt that it was not possible for the researcher to be objective and be independent of and have no impact on the data. Also large data sets would usually be used and quantitative data collected with this approach, which the researcher was not intending to use. An interpretivist epistemological approach was more acceptable as it sees that the understandings and explanations of social phenomena which are not necessarily observable by the senses can be interpreted by a fellow human being, the social researcher. This position prioritizes people's subjective interpretations and understandings of social phenomena and their own actions and can be linked to the ontological position of constructivism, where the nature of the social phenomenon is in the understanding and meanings ascribed to the social phenomenon by the social actors. The main focus here is on how people interpret the social world and social phenomenon enabling different perspectives to be explored. The researcher is interpreting other people's interpretations in terms of the theories and concepts of the social researcher's discipline, studying the social phenomenon as if through the eyes of the people being researched. The researcher works with the data gathered to generate theory. An interpretivist approach typically means collecting qualitative data, rich in detail and description, uncovering and working with subjective meanings, interpretation of meaning within a specific context and empathetic understanding, 'standing in the other's shoes' (Matthews & Ross, 2010).

The researcher felt that a constructionist approach best suited this research project, particularly in that constructivism informs qualitative research programs with the approach that the realities we study are social products of the actors, of interactions, and institutions. Schutz (1962, p.5) describes how the genesis of knowledge and its functions may be described from a constructionist viewpoint by starting with the following premise “All our knowledge of the world, in common-sense as well as in scientific thinking, involves constructs, i.e. a set of abstractions, generalizations, formalizations and idealizations, specific to the relevant level of thought organisation.” Schutz sees every form of knowledge as constructed by selection and structuring. The individual forms differ according to the degree of structuring and idealization and depends therefore on their functions. The constructions will be more concrete as the basis of everyday action or more abstract as a model in the construction of scientific theories. Schutz described different processes which have in common that the formation of knowledge of the world is not to be understood as the simple portrayal of given facts, but that the contents are constructed in a process of active production. Seen in this way, knowledge organizes experiences, which first permit cognition of the world beyond the experiencing subject. Experiences are structured and understood through concepts and contexts, which are constructed by this subject. It may not be possible to say whether the picture that is formed in this way is true or correct, but its quality may be assessed through its viability.

Four social constructivism concepts used in the processes of social interchange in the gathering of knowledge are formulated by Gergen (1994, p.49-50) in this way “assumptions for a social constructivism: The terms by which we account for the world and ourselves are not dictated by the stipulated objects of such accounts ... The terms

and forms by which we achieve understanding of the world and ourselves are social artifacts, products of historically and culturally situated interchanges among people ... The degree to which a given account of the world or self is sustained across time is not dependent on the objective validity of the account but on the vicissitudes of social processes. Language derives its significance in human affairs from the way in which it functions within patterns of relationship. To appraise existing forms of discourse is to evaluate patterns of cultural life; such evaluations give voice to other cultural enclaves.”

In this way knowledge is constructed in processes of social interchange, based on the role of language in such relationships, and above all, it has social functions. The eventualities of the social processes involved have an influence on what will survive as a valid or useful explanation. Research acts are also part of the social construction of what we can address and find in social research, and the acts of writing contribute to this social construction of worlds under study (Flick, 2009).

The researcher favoured a constructivist approach for this research as she did not want simply to look at social facts but wanted to look at the meanings of the elements involved in the research questions which up the social construction. The researcher did not want just to describe the actions of the staff and the volunteer mentors but to understand them. In order to address the research questions it was necessary to understand their views and it was thought that the best way to do this would be not only by observing them but by asking their views directly in interviews, which also meant using qualitative research methods of data collection rather than the quantitative research methods favoured by a positivist approach. Addressing the research questions

involved interviewing the volunteer mentors to see what they understood by mentoring and how they thought they could help. It involved finding out more about the volunteers to see what they had to offer in terms of understanding and experience. The staff were interviewed to see what they understood by mentoring and how they organized it and many other things but in interviewing both the staff and volunteers, more information emerged than could possibly have been expected if they had been answering questions on questionnaires. The researcher believed the constructivist approach was more likely to elicit attitudes which do not exist as fixed entities and develop with changing social relationships which it was thought would not have been possible with a positivist approach.

5.4 Preliminary Fieldwork - Mentoring and Coaching Course

A three day coaching and mentoring course was observed at the University of Western England in Bristol. This course was aimed at instructing those who wished to become a coach or mentor in an organization (or various functions) or who wished to start their own business as a life coach, or those people who wished to introduce coaching and mentoring into their businesses and organizations (whether large organisations like the NHS or small sized businesses like dental surgeries or solicitors' practices and areas such as sport and schools). The instructor who ran the course had thirty years experience of mentoring the engineering profession.

The researcher received high quality up to date training in mentoring and training skills suitable for a broad section of organisations based strongly on experience gained from industry, professions and other organizations especially in recent decades. This participant observation enabled the researcher to appreciate better how mentoring is

regarded and being used in many areas outside criminal justice and consider this in relation to the training of volunteers in different areas of criminal justice and contribute an understanding in looking at the use of mentoring as a tool in the rehabilitation of offenders and in helping the victims of crime. It helped the researcher to have an understanding of the areas where mentoring might be used effectively, what training the volunteers would need and particularly benefit from, whether the available training is sufficiently focused on the skills and techniques of mentoring and, would meet the needs of both mentor and mentee. It enabled the researcher to explore the benefits that might be gained from mentoring and to appreciate how highly the concept and provision of mentoring is regarded in many organisations and professions.

5.5 Research Design.

As the requirements of addressing the research questions required explanatory research rather than descriptive research the choice of research design was critical - explanatory research involving the search for causal understandings rather than simply the correlations as in descriptive research. 'Causality' cannot easily be observed but it can be inferred. The problem with inferences is that they are fallible. Most causal thinking in the social sciences is probabilistic rather than deterministic so that the researcher works at the level that a given factor increases or decreases the probability of a particular outcome. Despite the probabilistic nature of causal statements in the social sciences, much popular, ideological and political discourse translates them into deterministic statements (De Vaus, 2001).

Four broad types of research design; discussed in the social sciences research methods literature are: 'experimental', 'longitudinal', 'cross-sectional' and 'case study'.

Experimental: In this design there would normally be two groups, one that is exposed to the intervention (the experimental group) and one group that is not exposed to the intervention (the control group). The analysis of any effect of the intervention focuses on changes in the experimental group before and after the intervention and a comparison with the rate of change in the control group. If the change is greater in the experimental group than in the control group the researcher will attribute this to the impact of the independent variable. This design was thought not to be compatible with the aims of this research due especially to the difficulty of there needing to be a control group.

The second basic form of design is the *longitudinal* design. This design is similar to the experimental design except that there is no control group and typically only one experimental group. The analysis in this design compares the pre-intervention measures with the post intervention measures. This design was thought to be unsuitable to answer the research questions in this research due to the need for only one experimental group as the questions would be better answered by looking at a variety of groups, and the need to look at pre-intervention measures.

The third form of design is the *cross-sectional* design. Instead of interventions the cross-sectional design relies on existing variations in the independent variable in the sample. Data is collected at one point in time and are analyzed by examining the extent to which variation in the outcome variable is linked with group differences. That is, to what extent do those in different categories of the independent variable differ in relation to the outcome variable? Causal relationships are established by utilizing statistical controls rather than by random allocation of people to groups. The design is similar to

the post-intervention phase of the classic experimental design but without any random allocation to groups being made. This design was considered to be unsuitable for this research as it was thought unlikely that the researcher would be able to have such control over the groups.

5.6 Design of Study

The fourth design - the case study - relies less on comparing cases, than on an exhaustive analysis of individual cases, and then on comparing cases which was thought would better suit this research as the researcher wanted to compare different types of organizations assisting different types of mentee. A distinguishing characteristic of case studies is that contextual information is collected about a case so that there is a context within which to understand causal processes. A case study design can consist of a series of case studies with each case testing a theory from a different angle. In this research that would be due to the differences mainly in the type of mentee. If similar results are found in repeated case studies, or predictable differences in results are found for particular cases in the study, then there is greater confidence in the findings of the cases in the same way that there is confidence in experimental results that are found in repeated experiments (de Vaus, 2001). It was felt that using this design in this research would therefore strengthen the confidence in the findings. In the case study design the researcher seeks to understand the unit as a whole and that unit is the unit of analysis.

A multiple case study design would offer the most effective means to compare the differences between different agencies working for the rehabilitation of offenders and victims, in particular to consider the question of what contribution mentoring by

volunteers makes. Deciding between single and multiple case studies, selecting specific cases to be studied, developing a case study protocol and defining relevant data collection strategies, for example, the period to be covered, retrospective, prospective, are all part of case study design (Yin, 1993, p.33).

The units of analysis in this case, were the agencies being studied. This would include understanding the participants of the agencies, the process by which they function, their ethos, their aims and objectives and their successes and failures or their interpretations and opinions of supposed successes and failures (depending on how they would assess that) and the consequences if any. As each agency would consist of multiple levels and components such as paid staff at different levels of experience and seniority, voluntary staff, offenders of different age groups and gender and victims each agency can be conceived of at the 'holistic level' where one can focus on characteristics of the agency that apply to that level. Each agency exists as an entity with different characteristics such as size, type, location, structure, system of management, rules, philosophy, strengths and weaknesses. The holistic account of each case study would tell more and qualitatively different from anything which each constituent element could. Insights from different members in each agency (case study) would probably differ and then when taken together provide a much fuller, more complex understanding of the whole than would be the case than by looking at the perspective provided by a single element or member.

Although case studies may achieve good internal validity by providing a profound understanding of a case, they have been widely criticized as lacking external validity. The profound understanding of a case provides no basis, it is argued, for generalizing to

a wider population beyond that case. Is it representative of a larger number of cases?

Whilst it is correct that case study designs cannot provide a basis for making valid generalizations beyond that particular case, they are not claiming this type of external validity. There are two types of generalization: statistical and theoretical. Statistical generalization is achieved by using representative random samples and on the basis of statistical probability findings are generalized to a wider population that the sample is designed to represent. Theoretical generalization involves generalizing from a study to a theory. Rather than asking what the study says about the general population it questions what the study says about a particular theory or theoretical proposition. Case study designs are fundamentally theoretical. They are designed to help develop, refine and test theories.

The external validity of case studies is enhanced by the strategic selection of cases rather than by the statistical selection of cases. The strategic selection of cases contributes to literal and theoretical replication (Yin, 1989). Case study designs involve selecting cases for theoretical and targeted purposes. A case is selected to test whether a theory works in particular real world situations. A case may also be selected to disprove a proposition or to see if the theoretical proposition works under different conditions. The strategic selection of cases means that characteristics of a case is known before the case study proper begins. Cases may be selected because it meets particular requirements (as opposed to being randomly selected). This means cases may need careful screening before selection.

It is important that propositions are clear and that it is clear why a particular case is selected to test the proposition so that comparisons may be made between cases

resulting in generalizations or more refined propositions as a result of the case studies. This should show that there was a structure and logic to the selection of cases and that they were selected for a purpose, not just because they were available.

5.6.1 Theory Testing and Theory Building

Theory testing begins with a theory, or a set of rival theories regarding a particular phenomenon. A set of expectations is derived from previous research and/or theories and the case study is approached with the purpose of testing the theory in a real life situation. The selection of the real life situation (the case) would need to match the conditions under which the theory proposes particular outcomes. On the basis of the theory one predicts that a case with a particular set of characteristics will have a particular outcome. The theory may be simple or complex. In this case the theory may be that offenders will benefit from mentoring in altering their lives in preventing them from reoffending and in particular with the use of volunteer mentors. A theory might suggest that local control makes people more accountable and the agencies not under pressure from public service bureaucrats and government pressure with politically driven targets may be more successful by building a profile appropriate to its needs. For example, the possibility that volunteer mentors who want to be involved with an agency may be more successful in the agency's aims than employees who are there because they need to be to earn a living. This could make a difference to the agency's success rates. In short, the theory might be that there is a better predicted outcome for offenders mentored by volunteers. Implicitly is there something fundamentally different in the nature of volunteers that would make them more successful mentors who achieve the desirable outcomes of persuading offenders to desist in their lives of crime? How much of a difference to the outcome would the organisational structure,

management, resources (embedded elements), parental involvement and other factors that make up the holistic whole, make to the outcome? What difference does the nature of the offenders make and how do you judge and differentiate them? How much depends on the 'fit' between the mentor and the mentee? How much and what type of training do mentors require? All these questions and more could be answered giving a whole picture by the holistic approach of the case study.

The point of developing the theory or theories would be to see if they work in the real life situation of the case study, which would support the theory and if not seek to understand from a careful analysis of the cases why the predicted outcome did not eventuate. This may be because the theory is completely wrong, requires some refinement or may only be applicable under specific circumstances and these may be characteristics of the mentoring process that need refining and improving. A model of mentoring as a method in the reduction of reoffending may be created, for example, which might anticipate positive effects in particular aspects of mentoring, including the benefits or not of volunteers and the negative effects possibly of mentoring ending too soon. Other positive or negative effects may be the age of the mentee, the relationship of mentor to mentee, where the mentee is placed in their 'career of crime'. Other supportive interactions by the agencies working alongside the mentoring may also have positive effects. This model will then be compared to a devolved system that is implemented in a particular way, possibly with appropriate checks and balances thereby achieving improvement in reoffending rates over a period.

It is possible to use a theory building approach to case studies whereby propositions may be refined and a theory developed that fits the case studied. This would work quite

well in comparing the two different agencies. If one agency seems to produce better outcomes than the other the analysis of each case would aim to highlight differences between the cases/agencies. The commonalities between the cases would be examined. The case studies would be used to produce a set of propositions about the conditions, context and factors that led to positive outcomes.

The difference between the theory testing and theory building approaches is that the former one begins with a set of quite specific propositions and then see if these work in a real world situation. The theory building model begins with only a question and perhaps a basic proposition which by looking at real cases can end up with a more specific theory or set of propositions as a result of examining actual cases.

5.6.2 Variations in Case Study Design

Consultancy Case Studies – This design is typically used when a consultant visits an agency that recognises it is having problems and the consultant will have a range of possible explanations for this. The consultant will collect information from the agency to see which possible explanation is the best fit. This would not be suitable for this study.

Descriptive Case Studies - Descriptive case studies highlight the importance of theory in case study research. A case study deals with a whole case but this doesn't mean that the case study consists of everything about the case. It is impossible to describe everything so there must be a focus. Descriptions will highlight aspects of the case and then selection and organizing is carried out using explicit theories, pre-existing conceptual categories or implicit theories to show what is relevant and what categories are important. A method of reporting multiple descriptive case studies is to use

typologies and ideal types. Typologies may be theoretically derived or empirically derived. A theoretically derived typology is one that is logically or theoretically possible (de Vaus, 2001). Merton developed a typology of types of deviants based on the notions of cultural goals and institutionalized means of achieving those goals. The population being studied were divided into theoretical constructs. These were conformists, innovators ritualists and retreatists divided according to how they accepted and achieved goals. The deductive construction of typologies represented a set of ideal types. The ideal types being the theoretical descriptions of sets of characteristics that it is expected will go together in a case, representing a pure or theoretical type that is not necessarily found in that pure form in empirical reality. These deductive typologies and ideal types help to provide a way of analysing the case studies, the ideal type providing a template by which to investigate the case (Merton, 1968).

Typologies can also be inductive where you start with a question and then examine the cases. The comparison of cases can then highlight a cluster of similar cases and seeing the way the cases differ producing a range of dimensions and clusters of characteristics. Those cases with common elements can then be grouped into types.

Single or multiple case design - A single case design is normally less compelling than multiple case designs. Using the logic of replication a single case represents only one replication and does not necessarily provide a tough test of a theory. A single case study can be used where there is limited access to cases or where there is only one study example. However a single critical case can be relied on where there is a clear theory with well formulated propositions and the single case meets all the requirements

of the theory which can provide a moderately convincing test of a complex theory (Yin, 1989).

Multiple cases can provide a much tougher test of a theory and can help specify the different conditions under which a theory may or may not hold (de Vaus, 2001).

Multiple cases are essential if the case studies are being used for inductive purposes.

Given sufficient resources and access to cases, multiple case designs will normally be more powerful and convincing and provide more insights than single case study designs. In the multiple case design each case should be treated as a single case to establish a full account of that case before engaging in cross-case comparisons (Stake, 1994; Yin, 1989, p.56-57).

Parallel or sequential design - A parallel design is one where all the case studies are done at once and at the completion of the investigation of all the case studies the comparisons are made between them. This is appropriate where the project adopts a simple theory testing approach.

A sequential design is where the case studies are done one after another. The advantage of this approach is that the selection of each case and some of the issues examined can be informed by puzzles identified in earlier cases (de Vaus, 2001). One case can produce ideas that may influence the selection of subsequent cases and those ideas addressed in the subsequent cases.

When adopting a more inductive, theory building approach a sequential design is more appropriate than a parallel approach.

Retrospective or prospective - most case studies, and all explanatory case studies will incorporate a time dimension. Without this dimension any adequate causal explanation is not possible. Case studies can provide a good way of carefully mapping the sequence of events, which is the basis of causal explanations. The time dimension may be obtained retrospectively or prospectively.

The retrospective design means collecting on one occasion, information relating to an extended period. This requires the reconstruction of the history of the case, either through the use of archival records and documents or interviews with people who participated in or observed past events. This design will have problems with loss of evidence. There may be problems with reconstructing the past in the light of the present. Mistakes may be made remembering things like the sequence in which events occurred. These problems can be reduced to some extent by having multiple sources of evidence.

A prospective design involves tracking the changes as they travel forward over time thereby looking at events as they occur rather than relying on partial and reconstructed accounts. The disadvantage of this type of study is that they may go on for a long period and can limit the number and range of cases being studied and limit the testing of a theory.

In either case it is necessary to build up a clear and detailed picture of the sequence in which events take place and the context in which they occurred. This should result in meaningful causal explanations, producing a particular outcome.

Case study designs offer a flexible approach to create a particular and relevant design. They can use a wide variety of data collection methods and range of units of analysis. In social science research case studies should be fundamentally theoretical (de Vaus, 2001).

Case study designs are particularly suited to situations involving a small number of cases with a large number of variables. It is particularly appropriate for the investigation of cases when it is necessary to understand parts of a case within the context of the whole. Case studies are designed to study whole rather than parts. They are particularly appropriate in situations where a researcher cannot introduce intervention as in other research designs.

While experimentally based designs allow the exclusion of many variables, case study designs are particularly useful when we do not wish or are unable to screen out the influence of 'external' variables but when we wish to examine their effect on the phenomena being investigated. Therefore the case study research design was thought to be the most useful and appropriate to use for this thesis.

5.6.3 Context

The case also must be seen within the context in which it exists. By examining this context fully the researcher can gain a fuller and more rounded picture of the causal processes surrounding a particular phenomenon. The study of context is important because behaviour takes place within a context and its meaning stems largely from that context. The same behaviour can mean very different things depending on its context. 'Furthermore, actions have meanings to people performing those actions and this must form part of our understanding of the causes and meaning of any behaviour. To simply

look at behaviour and give it a meaning rather than take the meaning of the actors is to miss out on an important source of understanding of human behaviour' (de Vaus, 2001; p.235).

Since many cases will consist of different elements, different methods of data collection may be required for the different elements. In this study participant observation, interviews and analysis of documents were considered appropriate and worthwhile. This would provide information from the volunteers and staff but the documents would show how the agencies portray themselves and the essential elements of their volunteer training. By so doing it was thought that this would achieve a fuller and more complex explanation of phenomena.

It was thought that the case study approach would enable the researcher to see if the theories concerning the contribution of volunteer mentors and concerning the professionals taking over the volunteer work and the changes in types of volunteer worked in real life situations. This may then show whether the theories are supported or applicable under specific circumstances and possibly varying in the different agencies and therefore different areas of criminal justice. This may result in a more complex model where positive effects may be found in similar aspects of one agency but may be negative in another. A careful analysis may then try to understand why a predicted outcome did not eventuate. For example would different training methods or attitudes of staff to volunteers make a difference to how much the volunteer mentor felt able to help the victim or offender. Or would the attitudes of staff and staff practices of the different agencies make a difference to how much the volunteer mentors were allowed to do.

5.6.4 Analysis of Case Studies

In explanatory case studies theoretical propositions will either direct the analysis or be the goal of analysis. When multiple case studies are being conducted the aim of the first step in the analysis is to understand each case as a whole. Only after a picture of each case has been constructed is it appropriate to compare the cases (Stake, 1994; Yin, 1989).

5.6.5 The Choice of Case Studies for this Research

The four case studies; Victim Support; Youth Support Services (YSS); Asha and Sova were chosen because of their diversity. As described in previous chapters most of the research on mentoring in criminal research has been limited to young offenders that is people, usually male, under the age of 18. The main common denominator was their association within the criminal justice system and specifically with the delivery of supporting services in that context. The four case studies are described in detail in Chapter 6 but the following paragraphs provide short introductions to each in turn.

Victim Support was chosen because it provided an example of a national organisation, involved in the provision of mentoring as part of its wider supporting services for victims of crime. Although a charity, it is largely funded these days by government (the Ministry of Justice) – in 2012-13 receiving some £38 million in central government grant. This financing must have reduced their sense of independence and it was interesting, to see how such financial dependence on the centre affected their activities and modes of working, not least in relation to mentoring provision for victims. It was also of interest to explore the implications of such funding, and its steady growth over a number of years, for the organizational balance between volunteers and paid staff. Did their recognition and support by the Ministry of Justice mean Victim Support were now

more like public sector workers, or did the organisation's roots in voluntarism still shape and influence the culture? (an intriguing and relevant issue particularly in relation to Research Question 2.2). And what part would the volunteers play in relation to the provision of mentoring for victims? What training would they receive in this respect? And what was the evidence of impact of such mentoring work?

YSS was chosen as a case study because, in spite of its name, it is an organization that offers mentoring services to (mainly) male offenders of any age – not only those aged under 18 (at least it does so in the particular part of the country where the researcher conducted the fieldwork). It was also chosen because, unlike the national organisation, Victim Support, YSS is regionally-based in two Midland counties (Shropshire and Worcestershire). As it was not such a big organization it was interesting to see if this scale made a difference to how the services were offered and the relationships between staff and volunteers and what was expected of the volunteers and what they were allowed to do. Did this allow for more flexibility than the larger organization with its closer connection with central government and the Ministry of Justice in particular? The YSS case study was interesting also as there was direct contact between probation and the volunteer mentor coordinators and direct requests made for what they wanted done with the offender during the mentoring relationship. This would particularly assist in the answering of the first research question on the role and the effectiveness of the mentoring in criminal justice and what contribution the volunteer mentoring makes. This case study would show how much they are asked to make and allowed to make. This case study was also interesting because of the use of key workers who were paid staff doing similar work to the volunteers to see how this work was divided and how keen the key workers were to have volunteers working with them. This would also

help answer the second research question on how significant a contribution the volunteers were being allowed to make by staff and whether the staff are producing the obstacles in achieving the potential of volunteer mentoring in criminal justice in practice.

Asha was chosen as a case study because it provided services for women only – doing so with an all-female workforce. The Probation Service was the main source of referrals to *Asha* as part of their community sentence programme. This meant that some of the women offenders had no choice about the mentoring (and this was also the case with some of the offenders in the YSS case-study). *Asha* was an interesting organisation to study because, as discussed in Chapter 4, women may offend for different reasons to men and have different needs in order to help them to stop reoffending. It was interesting therefore if this made a difference to the training needs of the volunteer mentors and the content of the training. Also it was thought it might require the mentoring relationship being organised in a different way. *Asha* was also chosen because it was a very small organisation with only one centre located in Worcester. It was thought it would be interesting to see if a small charity with constant worries about withdrawal of financing would make a difference to the services offered. Would this make them less dependent on staff and more dependent on volunteers? It was thought that if this was so that a small organisation might be able to show the full potential that a volunteer mentor can make which would assist in answering question 1 on the contribution that volunteer mentors can make. Also as it is a service particularly aimed at a particular group, women; this would assist in answering question 1.2 on what particular attributes volunteers can bring to the process of mentoring in criminal justice.

Sova is a charity that is principally based in the Birmingham area and although a small charity it is funded by the national charitable organization, NACRO (the National Association for the Care and Resettlement of Offenders). And as such, it was interesting to study to see how it operated (being a small local charity working under contract for a large national agency). *Sova* is different from the other two offender-oriented case study organisations in offering mentoring (and other services) to both men and women and for which the volunteer force comprises roughly as many men as women. *Sova* is interesting too as there is not the direct contact with Probation since a further (private) agency acts as an intermediary. Might this give *Sova* more independence in relation to the nature of the mentoring services provided?

5.7 Methods of Data Collection

These methods of data collection were thought to suit the interpretative epistemological approach to answering the research questions as the knowledge is treated as created and negotiated between the people involved that is the volunteer mentors and members of staff and the researcher. In this research multiple methods of data collection were employed. The data collection should enable a build up of a full picture of the case study, its subunits (units of analysis and embedded designs) and its context. As this study consisted of different elements, different methods of data collection were required. This included observation at volunteer mentor training sessions, qualitative interviews with staff and volunteer mentors and analysis of documents as a source of data.

5.7.1 Volunteer Mentor Training Observation

As described previously in order to gain knowledge of mentoring and the training of mentors the researcher attended a mentoring course at the UWE. With this experience

and knowledge the researcher wanted to observe the training given to the volunteer mentors involved in the case studies. This allowed the researcher to observe the training given to see if it would be likely to meet the needs of the mentor but participant observation had other advantages. The researcher was able to become more acquainted with the organisation, finding out more about what they were trying to achieve and the philosophy of the organisation. It enabled the researcher to meet more members of staff and make notes of their comments and attitudes whilst running the training courses and witnessing their skills in training volunteers and how they behaved towards the volunteers. For example, were they kind, grateful or discourteous or rude? How would the attitudes of the staff affect the attitudes of the volunteers? Did this make them more likely to want to go on and volunteer or give up? The researcher felt it was important to talk to the volunteers at the training to seek their views of the training and how they felt they were being treated by the staff. The researcher also wanted to ask them why they were volunteering and how they felt they could help. The volunteers always appeared very happy to talk to the observer and did not appear to feel uncomfortable that they were being interviewed.

This was overt observation as the training staff asked all the volunteers by email before the training if they were happy for a researcher from the university attending. Also at the beginning of each training course, when each person in the room told everybody about themselves, the researcher gave a brief description of the research. In two of the case studies the member of staff seemed reluctant to allow the researcher to attend until they had obtained permission from someone much more senior in the organization and this caused a great deal of delay.

The researcher took a full part in the training courses, just as if she was a volunteer in training, and took every opportunity to make field notes. It was also necessary to make more field notes at the end of each day before the observations were forgotten. Of particular interest were notes made of the open discussions that occurred often during the training courses. At times the researcher made comments also in order to focus the discussion in a particular direction, in order to obtain views on matters pertaining to the research questions.

Spradley (1979) makes explicit suggestions for conducting this type of ethnographic interview:

'It is to best think of ethnographic interviews as a series of friendly conversations into which the researcher slowly introduces new elements to assist informants to respond. Exclusive use of these new ethnographic elements, or introducing them too quickly, will make interviews become like a formal interrogation. Rapport will evaporate, and informants may discontinue their co-operation' (Spradley, 1979, p.58-59).

5.7.2 Qualitative Interviews

Members of staff of the case study organisations were interviewed outside of the training course sessions and volunteer mentors. The researcher wanted to focus more in the interviews with staff on the details of the mentoring: how the mentees come to that organization, how are they introduced to it and by whom; who pairs up the mentors and mentees and what happens if they are not a good match; how long the mentoring goes on for and how does it end? The volunteer mentors were asked questions particularly on whether they thought the training equipped them adequately for the mentoring and what they were trying to achieve with their mentees and why they were

doing the mentoring. Questions that formed part of the semi-structured interviews may be found in the Appendix.

The semi-structured interviews enabled the researcher/interviewer to have a list of questions or fairly specific topics to be covered allowing the interviewee a great deal of leeway in how to reply. The interview process was flexible. The interviewer was aware of the emphasis on framing and understanding the issues and events, patterns and forms of behaviour. The researcher also felt that as this is multiple-case study research some structure was needed in order to ensure cross-case comparability. (e.g. Bryman et al., 1996).

5.7.3 Documents as Sources of Data.

The documents produced by the case study organisations were analyzed as they contained material which was representative of the organisations. They gave their official view of what they were doing and what they were trying to achieve. These documents took the form of leaflets available in the offices of the organisations and information on their web sites. This is information available to the public and so also mentors and mentees and prospective mentors and mentees, although it should be noted that although available to them, they may not have been read.

Documents also included the materials handed out to trainees (including the researcher) at each of the training sessions which generally followed the format of the training session but often gave additional information.

Table 1

Data Collected from the four case studies

Case Study	Data collected
Victim Support	<p>Attended and observed training sessions for volunteer mentors.</p> <p>Conducted interviews with 11 staff members.</p> <p>Conducted interviews with 15 volunteer mentors.</p> <p>Analysed documents for training purposes and information documents.</p>
YSS	<p>Attended and observed training sessions for volunteer mentors.</p> <p>Conducted interviews with 3 members of staff.</p> <p>Conducted interviews with 13 volunteer mentors.</p> <p>Analyzed documents for training purposes and information documents.</p>
Asha	<p>Attended and observed training sessions for volunteer mentors.</p> <p>Conducted interviews with 2 members of staff.</p> <p>Interviewed 8 volunteer mentors.</p> <p>Analyzed documents for training and information documents.</p>
Sova	<p>Attended and observed volunteer mentor training.</p> <p>Interviewed one member of staff.</p> <p>Interviewed 12 volunteer mentors.</p> <p>Analyzed documents for training purposes and information documents.</p>

5.8 Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis was chosen as the qualitative analytic method. One of the benefits of thematic analysis is its flexibility and is compatible with both essentialist and constructionist paradigms. Through its theoretical freedom, thematic analysis provides a flexible and useful research tool, which can potentially provide a rich and detailed, yet complex account of data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). By applying a method to data, researchers are making their epistemological and other assumptions explicit (Holloway & Todres, 2003). Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It minimally organizes and describes the data set in rich detail but frequently it goes further than this and interprets various aspects of the research topic (Boyatzis, 1998). Braun and Clarke (2006) argue that thematic analysis is often not explicitly claimed as the method of analysis, when, in actuality, a lot of analysis is essentially thematic, but is either claimed as something else such as discourse analysis or even content analysis, or not identified as any particular method at all. Attride-Stirling (2001) argue that if we do not know how people went about analyzing their data, or what assumptions informed their analysis, it is difficult to compare and/or synthesize it with other studies on that topic, and it can impede other researchers carrying out related projects in the future. Braun and Clarke argued that for this reason clarity on process and practice is vital. The researcher therefore used their guidelines on thematic analysis in this research.

Braun and Clarke argue that it is wrong to say that themes emerge or are discovered as this would be a passive process of analysis and it denies the active role the researcher always plays in identifying patterns/themes, selecting which are of interest, and reporting them. 'The language of 'themes emerging'; can be misinterpreted to mean

that themes ‘reside in the data, and if we just look hard enough they will ‘emerge’ like Venus on the half shell. If themes reside anywhere, they reside in our heads from our thinking about our data and creating links as we understand them’ (Ely et al.,1997 p.205-6).

Braun and Clarke note that there is no one ideal theoretical framework for conducting qualitative research, or indeed one ideal method. What is important is that the theoretical framework and methods match what the researcher wants to know, and that they acknowledge these decisions, and recognize them as decisions. Thematic analysis can be used within different theoretical frameworks and can be used to do different things within them. In this research it is used as a constructionist method, which examines the ways in which events, realities, meanings, experiences and so on are the effects of a range of discourses operating within society, thereby unpicking or unravelling the surface of ‘reality’.

5.8.1 What is a Theme?

“A theme captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.82). Researcher judgement is necessary to determine what a theme is, retaining some flexibility. The theme is not necessarily dependent on quantifiable measures, but rather on whether it captures something important in relation to the overall research question. The use of thematic analysis here aims to provide a detailed and nuanced account of one particular theme or group of themes, within the data relating to latent themes. Part of the flexibility of thematic analysis is that it allows you to determine themes and prevalence in a number of ways.

5.8.2 Inductive Versus Theoretical Thematic Analysis.

Themes or patterns within data can be identified in one of two primary ways in thematic analysis; in an inductive way or in a theoretical or deductive way. An inductive approach means the themes identified are strongly linked to the data themselves (Patton, 1990), as such, this form of thematic analysis bears some similarity to grounded theory. In this approach, if the data have been collected specifically for the research, the themes identified may bear little relation to the specific questions that were asked of the participants. They would also not be driven by the researcher's theoretical interest in the area or topic. Inductive analysis is therefore a process of coding the data without trying to fit it into a pre-existing coding frame, or the researcher's analytic preconceptions. In this sense, this form of thematic would be data driven (Braun & Clark, 2006). This inductive approach would not in the researchers' view have suited this research where the researcher already had a theoretical interest with research questions directing the research and therefore more explicitly analyst driven.

5.8.3 Semantic or Latent Themes.

The semantic or explicit level or the latent or interpretative level describes the level at which themes are to be identified (Boyatzis, 1998). A thematic analysis typically focuses exclusively or primarily on one level. The semantic approach would identify the themes within the explicit or surface meanings of the data, and the analyst is not looking for anything beyond what a participant has said or what has been written. Ideally the analytic process involves a progression from description, where the data have simply been organized to show patterns in semantic content, and summarised, to interpretation, where there is an attempt to theorise the significance of the patterns and

their broader meanings and implications (Patton, 1990) often in relation to previous literature.

In this research the researcher believed the thematic analysis should go beyond the semantic content of the data to a latent level and start to identify or examine the underlying ideas, assumptions, and conceptualizations and ideologies that are theorized as shaping or informing the semantic content of the data. For latent thematic analysis the development of the themes themselves involves interpretative work, and the analysis that is produced is not just description, but is already theorized. This would fit with the constructionist paradigm of the theoretical framework of the research.

From a constructionist perspective, meaning and experience are socially produced and reproduced, rather than inhering within individuals (Burr, 1995). Therefore, thematic analysis conducted within a constructionist framework cannot and does not seek to focus on motivation or individual psychologies, but instead seeks to theorize the sociocultural contexts, and structural conditions, that enable the individual accounts that are provided.

5.8.4 The Phases in Thematic Analysis

Phase 1 – Familiarizing with the Data

The data was collected through interactive means and thematic analysis therefore recognises that the researcher is becoming familiar with and analyzing the data whilst collecting the data and the researcher therefore came to the data analysis stage with some prior knowledge of the data and possibly some initial analytic interests or thoughts. Also the researcher repeatedly read the data in an active way searching for meanings and patterns.

For example some initial observations whilst collecting the data included the overall enthusiasm felt by volunteers in all the case studies and a desire to help people with their difficulties. By contrast the researcher encountered a rather different pattern in relation to staff who were often difficult to contact and telephone calls usually went to voice mail. Reasons for staff not answering their calls were generally because they were 'in staff meetings'. This applied also to email and reasons for not replying included 'sorry but you are not a target'. Although all four case studies declared themselves to be charities, it was the case that all four were dependent on funding directly or indirectly from government or local government. Funding was mentioned by all staff as a recurring pattern.

The aim throughout the analysis was to produce a detailed account of groups of themes within the data relating to the research questions using a theoretical or deductive approach, at a latent level. Therefore the development of the themes themselves involved interpretative work and the analysis produced would not only be descriptive, but would already be theorized. The researcher took notes throughout this phase and marking ideas for coding in preparation for subsequent phases. The researcher transcribed the verbal interviews that were recorded into written form which is necessary in order to conduct thematic analysis.

Phase 2 – Generating Initial Codes.

The initial codes identified a feature of the data that appeared interesting to the researcher and referred to the most basic segment, or element, of the interview transcripts that could be assessed in a meaningful way. This process of coding aimed to organise the data into meaningful groups. The coded data differed from the units of

analysis (themes) which were often broader. As the analysis was theory driven the data was approached with specific questions in mind. Coding was performed manually as part of the data included documents produced by the case study organizations. The researcher worked systematically through the entire data set, giving full and equal attention to each data item and identified interesting aspects in the data items that may form the basis of repeated patterns (themes) across the data set.

Table 2

Examples of Phase 2 - Coding

<i>Data extract</i>	<i>Coded for</i>
<p>Data 2. I have done some work on the Young Offenders Panel but I didn't feel the relationship was right for me. I didn't feel like I was helping so preferred the work I was doing for YSS. I worked until I was nearly 40 and I got an English degree. Then I got married and went to live in Germany. I was pregnant after that, I didn't go back to work. I'm a baby boomer and lucky, I don't need to earn. My husband works for Procter and Gamble. My daughter is at NottinghamUniversity doing a French and English degree.</p> <p>I don't expect quick results when trying to help people. I don't expect that they will come off the drugs and drink. It's a long process so you can't really measure that success and I don't think the volunteers should expect to but I try to make their lives a bit better than they are at the moment, and don't expect too much and don't look too far in the future. The more experience of life the volunteer has the better, to help with things like finding a place for them to live, applying for housing benefit. I'm not sure how helpful a younger volunteer might be. (Mature volunteer mentor for YSS)</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The older volunteers may not have so many commitments. Not working and children grown up. 2. Volunteers doing it because they want to help. 3. The volunteers realize what is needed by mentees and have a realistic attitude as to what can be achieved in a short time. 4. More experience of life may make a wiser mentor. 5. Know enough not to let the mentees think they have failed if they don't achieve everything. 6. Mature volunteers are aware that young volunteers with little life experience might not be so helpful to the mentee.

<p>Data 11. We've got to be very careful to protect volunteer mentors, because although I've said, we've all got to do a lot of homework and none of us know the answer to everything, I think there has to be an understanding that we've got to be constantly aware that mentors are not professionals, they are not paid members of staff and therefore don't have the same responsibility or the same level of understanding perhaps as a member of staff who's been working in this field for a significant period of time. We have some amazing mentors, who have a great understanding of what they're doing and actually if a paid position came up they wouldn't be far off getting a paid job. (Key worker for YSS)</p>	<p>7. Do staff have a patronizing attitude to</p> <p>8. volunteers, trying to insist that paid workers must be better. May be afraid to allow the volunteers to do work which will show that they are very competent.</p>
<p>Data 14. Sometimes the outcomes with mentors may be soft targets like helping with forms. We train the peer mentors. If the mentees are at a stage we don't want them to regress like keeping them free of drugs. We don't get sex offenders or hard violent offenders as peer mentors. It is a defensible decision. It would have to be a significant period of time since the offence. We consider vulnerability. It's a decision based on risk. (Project manager for Sova)</p>	<p>9. Frequently mentors are required to help mentees fill out forms, called soft targets.</p> <p>10. There may be risks involved in using peer mentors. Risk assessments by staff.</p> <p>11. Are the key workers being given work that the volunteers are very capable of doing especially with the new reorganisation of probation where they keep the higher risk offenders? Will the key workers be needed?</p>

<p>Data 34 I've been doing the mentoring for two years now. I can't count how many people I mentored for Sova. I'm a peer mentor and I wanted to give something back but I also wanted work experience, I thought it would help to get a job which I've now got but I want to carry on with the mentoring. We usually only mentor for four weeks. We help with things like helping them to find housing but also be a friend, a buddy. I think four weeks can be enough, it depends what they need but it's mentoring, they can't get dependent but we can do it for another four weeks if necessary. (Young peer mentor for Sova).</p>	<p>12. It can be a great benefit also for the peer mentor. 13. Peer mentor really thinks four weeks is long enough. Perhaps they know best.</p>
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<p>Data 56. It would be good to have volunteers but there are not enough domestic violence trained. I don't think we're planning to get more volunteers. (Hate crime worker for Victim Support)</p>	<p>14. VS does do domestic violence training for volunteers but then not used the paid staff do it.</p>
<p>P h a s e 3 : S</p> <p>Data 63. I've been volunteering for Victim Support for 14 years, meeting victims and helping them to deal with their emotional crisis. I do about 20 hours a month. I think it's a very worthwhile thing to do. The training is very comprehensive. There's a core training then special training for all types of crime. Also there's advanced training for more serious crimes. The best thing about being a volunteer for Victim Support is the sense of making a contribution and improving somebody's life in some way. The worst is that bureaucracy in an organization can be tedious. (Mature volunteer for Victim Support)</p>	<p>15. Volunteers want to do the emotional support work and the bureaucracy is tedious.</p>

earching for Themes.

Phase three began when all data had been initially coded and collated and there was a long list of different codes identified across the data set. Phase three re-focused the analysis at the broader level of themes, rather than codes which involved sorting the different codes into potential themes, and collating all the relevant coded data extracts within the identified themes. Essentially this was to analyze the codes and consider how different codes might combine to form an overarching theme. The aim was for this phase to derive a collection of 'candidate themes' and sub themes and all extracts

of data that had been coded in relation to them. At this stage there was a clear and emerging sense of the significance of individual themes.

Table 3. Candidate themes and related data. Showing the process of relating themes to data.

Candidate Themes	Related Data
Mentee Attitude	Data 1, 5, 37,44,46,47,69,70,71.
Volunteer mentor knowledge and experience	Data 3,4,5,7,9,16,18,23,25,28,29,33,34,35,37,40,41,48,49,51,59,60,63,67,68.
Help provided	Data 3,4,5,13,14,32,34,41,42,54,55,61,62,63,64,65,68,69,71.
Mentoring Structure	Data 5,9,12,19,20,21,26,31,32,40,41,42,49,50.
Training content understanding mentoring	Data 6,20,22,23,24,40,43,63,68.
Staff attitudes to volunteers	Data 10,11,13,14,16,17,19,33,52,53,57,65,66.
Student/work experience volunteers	Data 16,18,29,34,35,36,38,39,66.

Mentor attitudes	Data 3,4,19,25,35,37,38,40,41,44,46,47,48,49,50,51,54,59,60,63.
Volunteer trusted	Data 1,3,4,5,69.
Sub-themes	Related Data
Mentoring compulsory	Data 1,46.
Staff experience knowledge	Data 8,9,10,17,21.
Staff concern with costs	Data 9,13,15,24,39,53,61.
Lack of staff motivation	Data 10,13,15,52,57,59.

Cost of staff	Data 9,15.
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Mentee protection	Data 14,18,26.
Mentoring feedback	Data 23
Mentor protection	Data 11,26,27,45.
Volunteer recruitment	Data 29
Scale of volunteer mentoring.	Data 30.
Staff support	Data 41,53.
Mentor age/sex	Data 18,25.
Mentoring environment	Data 5,20.
Skills of mentoring	Data 21,22.

Phase 4: Reviewing Themes

Phase 4 began with an initial thematic and a refinement of the themes. During this phase it became evident if they are themes for example, if there are not enough data to support them, or the data are too diverse, while others might merge into each other (e.g. two apparently separate themes might form one theme. Conversely other themes needed to be broken down into separate ones. The aim was that data within each theme should cohere together meaningfully, while there would be clear and identifiable distinctions between each such theme.

The initial thematic map (see figure 1) showed themes arising out of the data concerning: a volunteer mentor's knowledge and experience and the fact that some volunteers were students or other mainly young people volunteering to gain work experience.

This phase involved two levels of reviewing and refining of themes. Level one involved reviewing at the level of the coded data extracts. This meant reading all of the collated extracts for each theme, and considering whether they appeared to form a sufficiently coherent pattern. If the 'candidate themes' appeared indeed to form such a coherent pattern the review then moved on to the second level of this phase. At the completion of this stage it was possible to construct a more developed thematic map (see figure 2) showed five main themes, one of which was volunteer recruitment where the sub-themes were showing that there were two main themes in the recruitment of volunteers. These sub themes highlighted the two main categories of volunteers which were the mature volunteer and the student/work experience volunteers.

Level 2 involved a similar process, but in relation to the entire data set. At this level consideration was given to the validity of individual themes in relation to the data set, but also whether the thematic map accurately reflected the meanings evident in the data set as a whole. At this stage any additional data within themes that may have been missed in earlier coding stages may be added. The need for re-coding from the data set is to be expected as coding is an ongoing organic process. Reviewing and refining of the coding may be required until a satisfactory thematic map is devised. At this stage it is possible to identify potential new themes and coding done for these (Braun and Clarke, 2006). At this stage the researcher completed the final thematic for the data.

In the final thematic (see figure three) of the two categories of volunteers (younger and older) it was the older volunteers who commented on how much the volunteers trusted them and respected them for doing the work to help them and not for a salary.

5.9 Ethical Issues

Various ethical issues arose in preparing for and conducting this study due to the nature of the case study design that involved in-depth information and participant observation. But these were all carefully considered and addressed in the detailed research design. In all the case studies, for example, informed consent was obtained although the researcher was aware that reactivity can threaten the internal validity of the case study design.

As mentioned in the foreword, the researcher had prior knowledge of the criminal justice system due to her work as a magistrate. This is mentioned here as this had the potential to create bias in the perspectives of the research because of prior socialization. However, equally, it would allow the researcher to see and understand the contribution of volunteers in criminal justice because, as a volunteer magistrate, the researcher herself operated in a similar context, with similar oversight and supervision by professional practitioners, as well as encountering many of the same issues on a regular basis.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter began by focusing on the research questions, and how these would be addressed in research design and methodological terms. The chapter proceeded to discuss the choice of methodology to address the research questions looking at possible ontological and epistemological approaches and the merits of each ahead of deciding upon a preferred approach. The third section described the design of preliminary fieldwork which entailed the attendance and observation of a mentoring and coaching course at the University of Western England, Bristol and following this the possible models of research design were considered from which the choice was made of a case study approach. The subsequent section discussed the methods to be used for qualitative data collection; these being observation of volunteer mentor training, qualitative interviews and documentary analysis. The principles of thematic analysis were discussed in the following section as the preferred method. Finally the chapter concluded with brief consideration of the key ethical issues for the research.

The Four Case Studies Introduced

6.1 Victim Support – Case Study 1

Victim Support describes itself an independent charity that helps victims and witnesses of crime across England and Wales (Victim Support exists as separate organisations in Scotland and Northern Ireland). Victim Support claim to give free and confidential support and information to over 1.5 million victims and witnesses every year to help them find the strength to carry on after crime. They say they support people from all communities whatever crime they have suffered, whenever it happened, and regardless of whether the police are involved.

Victim Support was established in 1974 amidst a growing awareness especially amongst offender-focused organisations such as the police, probation and NACRO that little attention was being focused on victims, especially in terms of their need for support in dealing with the impact of the crime and their recovery. As previously described in the literature review there has been a recognition in recent years that victims should be more involved in the criminal justice system, especially in respect of what happens in their particular case and that they should be given more support. As this is becoming a more significant area in criminal justice and as the volunteers are trained to mentor the victims to provide them with emotional support and ‘help them to find the strength to carry on after crime’ (Victim Support, 2013) the researcher thought this would make Victim Support a good example of how mentoring is used in the criminal justice system and therefore an important organisation to include as a case study in this research.

Currently over 1.75 million people are referred to Victim Support each year mainly by the police. Mawby (1988) found that at first the attention to victims was based more on the victim's rights to receive redress and protection from further victimisation and less on the victim's 'needs' in terms of recovery. There were problems with establishing and defining the needs of victims. Newburn (1993) argued that the concept of victim's needs are problematic as defining them is inevitably subjective and the state and criminal justice system may be identifying those needs rather than the victim. Victim Support made some effort to seek the views of victims and witnesses in an internal report dated January, 2010 but this was restricted to one region and was not theoretically or methodologically based research. Dunn (2007) claims that the effectiveness of Victim Support might be determined from the extent to which its services meet the outcomes described in its strap-line: 'helping people cope with crime'. Dunn states that as the major source of Victim Support's funding is the government, they would want it to be effective in contributing to public confidence in the criminal justice system and bringing more offenders to justice by supporting victims and witnesses through the criminal justice process. He says this may not be the best outcome for victims or a suitable imperative for an independent voluntary organisation. Rock (2004) questions whether it is possible to measure the cost-effectiveness of victim services unless it was known what condition victims were in before they received support, and how long after the event, if ever, recovery could be said to have taken place.

6.2 Case Study 2: YSS (Youth Support Services)

YSS describes itself as a leading independent charity that aims to work with children, young people, young adults and families at risk of social exclusion. It says it has been

described as the ‘glue’ (YSS, 2013) between young people and mainstream society; ensuring young people have increased opportunities to lead positive and constructive lives. In order to do this they have developed an ‘innovative’ (YSS, 2013) range of partnerships and projects with the voluntary, private and statutory sectors.

YSS works with young people who are at risk of entering the criminal justice system for the first time, as well as diverting those already in the youth and adult criminal justice system away from crime.

Through the strategic partnership, West Mercia Probation Trust have commissioned YSS to develop a service to target groups of offenders most at risk of reoffending across the West Mercia region. The purpose of Enhanced Support for Supervision (ESS) is for YSS to support West Mercia Probation Trust in reducing reoffending rates by increasing the level of engagement by targeted offender groups with their supervision or licence requirements. Offender managers are responsible for identifying the eligibility and suitability of individuals who can access this service and the service is offered to those most at risk of reoffending, on a prison licence or community order, who have complex needs and who have a degree of motivation to change. Referrals are split into two categories, according to individual need:

- High Intensity – 24 face to face contacts spread across 12 weeks, backed up with texts and phone calls.
- Low Intensity – 12 face to face contacts spread across 12 weeks, backed up with texts and phone calls.

Keyworkers undertake a Needs Analysis, a Perception Inventory and produce an agreed SMART (RRPs) with each offender. This is then shared with the offender manager to

ensure duplication of activity doesn't take place and the basis of the work undertaken with the offender will be driven by this support plan, during which:

- All appointments with keyworkers are to be enforceable.
- The initial appointment will be 2 hours.
- Contacts will be spread across the referral period and the length of appointments will be determined by the offenders' needs.
- Meetings between key workers and offenders will normally be community based unless risk or practical reasons prevent this.
- Pre-release visits can be arranged.
- It is recognised that some offenders may need support around family issues.

Volunteers are contributing to the ESS by providing mentoring, support, transporting and advice and guidance in Herefordshire and Worcestershire.

6.2.1 YSS: Non Statutory Support (NSS)

West Mercia Police have commissioned YSS to develop a bespoke, individual service to target groups of offenders most at risk of reoffending across Herefordshire, Worcestershire, Shropshire and Telford and Wrekin. The purpose of NSS is to work in conjunction with West Mercia Police (WMP) in reducing reoffending rates by increasing the level of engagement of targeted non statutory Integrated Offender Management (IOM) offender groups.

YSS key workers, specially trained volunteer mentors and West Mercia Police IOM coordinators work together to encourage individuals who are not being supervised by WMPT as part of a community order or licence to engage with the service. Key workers undertake a review of each individual's needs and supports them to address and overcome the factors and barriers that cause them to offend or reoffend. All appointments and meetings are arranged in participants' local communities.

YSS works with, and signposts to a number of other agencies who fall under the seven pathways known to reduce reoffending:

- Accommodation – that is housing problems;
- Health – that is G.P. surgeries.
- Drugs and Alcohol – that is alcohol intervention services.
- Education, employment and training – that is training providers.
- Finance, benefits and debts – that is debt advice services.
- Children and families – that is family intervention services.
- Attitudes, thinking and behaviour – that is counselling services.

Engagement with the service is on a voluntary basis.

6.2.2 YSS: Pathways Accommodation Mentoring (PAM)

YSS have been commissioned by Worcestershire Supporting People to deliver a county wide mentoring project for individuals who are in the criminal justice system who are having difficulties in either sustaining or obtaining suitable accommodation. YSS takes a lead on this project in partnership with both the Worcester YMCA and the Redditch YMCA. By working in partnership the three organisations are able to offer a far more comprehensive service than working in isolation by building on their key knowledge base and skills. The project offers intensive one to one mentoring support through dedicated key workers and/or a team of volunteer mentors across the county. Support is tailored to the individual and offered on a one to one basis in the community at flexible times and locations.

6.2.3 YSS: Work Programme for Short Sentence Prisoners on their Release.

The Employment and Skills Group, (ESG) a prime provider on the work programme, were awarded an additional payment by results contract in 2012 to work with short sentence prisoners. YSS were selected by ESG to deliver this work in their region.

YSS receives referrals directly from ESG (approximately 125 per year) and arranges to meet clients in the community after release for an initial assessment and action plan. The client is met at least fortnightly looking to support them into sustainable employment through a mix of face to face 1-2-1 support in the community (there is also significant additional telephone/text contact to provide motivational support) and advice and regular training programmes. The support continues for up to two years after a client has secured a job. Employment outcomes are closely monitored, as for all work programme delivery, but the Ministry of Justice will also be closely monitoring reducing reoffending outcomes for those accessing the service. They have committed to a payment by results model, if the cohort achieve an agreed reduction in reoffending in a 12 month binary period, using a control group as a benchmark.

6.2.4 YSS: Appropriate Adult

The Police and Criminal Evidence Act (P.A.C.E.) 1984 and the Youth Justice Board National Standards require that any young person aged 10 and 16 years of age, whilst being interviewed under caution at the police station, must have an appropriate adult in attendance. YSS developed a volunteer appropriate adult service for 10-16 year olds being detained in police custody in 1999 and have a team of volunteers throughout West Mercia delivering this service to young people and the service is now available to 17 year olds. The service is commissioned by West Mercia Youth Offending Service.

6.2.5 YSS: Transition 2 Adulthood (T2A)

YSS has received funding over a three year period from the Barrow Cadbury Trust to develop and deliver a pilot project called T2A. YSS initially delivered T2A across Worcestershire as one of three national pilots sponsored by Barrow Cadbury. The pilots will aim to develop best practice of working with young adults aged 16-24 in the

youth and adult criminal justice systems. T2A has now been rolled out across West Mercia working closely with West Mercia Probation Trust, Youth Offending Services, voluntary sector organisations and the police in addition to a wider range of agencies involved with the support needs of young adults.

Volunteers are used to mentor young adults aged 16-24 in the criminal justice system providing non-judgmental practical support and a listening ear.

6.2.6 YSS Volunteers

YSS believe that volunteers and the ethos and values that volunteering bring to YSS are hugely important. They aim to provide the highest standards of training and support to the volunteers that work alongside YSS and value the extra dimension and diversity they bring to their work. As well as providing a valuable service to their clients they say volunteering can open doors to employment by helping to build skills and experience giving a sense of worth and a way of meeting like minded and motivated people. It can make a huge difference to their clients if they know someone is motivated and cares enough to offer their time for free.

YSS look to recruit a diverse group of male and female volunteers aged 18 + who come from all kinds of backgrounds, cultures and interests with the common band of being motivated to work with young people, adults and families who are vulnerable, have complex needs and face difficult life challenges. They want their volunteers to reflect the communities they are working in. Although a Criminal Records Bureau (CRB) check on everyone who volunteers is done this does not exclude people with criminal convictions from applying.

At present YSS has 300 volunteers involved in a range of roles within the organisation. Volunteers are normally asked to give 2-3 hours of their time per week when they have an active case.

6.2.7 The volunteering relationship: what works: a recent survey (2012).

A recent survey commissioned by CLINKS has evaluated the volunteer impact and YSS is one of the organisations included. The results are based on interviews with a range of stakeholders. It makes the case for involving volunteers in work with offenders.

6.2.8 YSS: Mentor Training

YSS has a team of mentor trainers and have been recruiting and training volunteer mentors for 10 years. They are members of the Mentoring and Befriending Foundation (MBF) and all the processes around the recruitment, training and support of volunteer mentors had been externally accredited through the MBF 'Approved Provider' (YSS, 2013) scheme. The two day mentor training course is run at times and places that suit the delegates including weekends. The course includes:

- An understanding of the role of a mentor and its boundaries.
- An understanding of the particular issues the mentee may face.
- An understanding of risk issues, health and safety and safeguarding.
- An understanding of how to motivate people and build effective relationships.

6.3 Case Study 3: ASHA

The work of the Asha Centre is governed by the mission statement: 'The Asha centre aims to benefit women who are isolated by disadvantage from resources that will help them to achieve their potential. Through the provision of information, advice and

opportunities it will strengthen their social and economic proficiency and reduce the risk of offending and exclusion’.

6.3.1 Work with Women Involved in the Criminal Justice System.

Asha is a member of the Women’s Breakout Services and contributes regularly to forums, meetings and provides data to inform various organisations nationally about the work of places like Asha.

Women’s Breakout Services (formerly Women’s Centre Forum) was established in 2008 by the Ministry of Justice as an informal network to build the capacity of women’s centres in England and Wales which had been funded by the Diverting Women from Crime programme.

The aim and function of the Women’s Centre Forum was to develop a shared identity for third sector community based organizations working with women who were in contact with, or at risk of coming into contact with the criminal justice system.

During this time it has grown from supporting around eight projects to a national network of more than 50 independent Women’s Community Services (WCS) run largely by small or medium local or regional charities.

Women’s Community Services (WCS) work with women who are at risk of offending or who have offended in the past, to equip them with the skills needed to divert them from crime and prison. This can include services offering training and volunteer work opportunities, health care, drugs and alcohol treatment services, parenting skills and help with accessing welfare services. “This one-stop-shop approach is particularly successful when supporting women with complex needs” (Asha, 2013).

The need to tackle the underlying issues that lead to crime and reoffending is at the heart of WCSs work through the ‘wrap-around’ (Asha, 2013) women centred support they provide. WCS promotes women-centred solutions working holistically to empower women to take control of their lives and make good life choices based on improved opportunity. Asha works to address the causes and risk factors associated with offending behaviour offering:

- 1-1 support work
- Court work
- Prison in-reach work.
- Partnership work with West Mercia Probation Service

6.3.2 Mentoring and Volunteering Service

The mentoring and volunteering project is aimed to help, support and encourage women to create their own personal plan focusing on aspects relating to their future.

Asha look for volunteers from diverse backgrounds with various skills who can help support the running of the centre. “They can meet new people and have fun, in a very friendly environment, whilst learning new skills” (Asha, 2013).

6.3.3 Volunteer Mentors

Volunteers are asked to spend an hour per week if they are interested in offering support to someone (service user). They say mentors bring their own unique experience of life combined with a friendly interest in their mentee’s development. They say the mentor does not need to be highly qualified or perfect just honest and genuine. Useful skills being:

- Clear communication skills
- Personal organization
- Flexibility with a positive attitude

- Reliability

Asha offer to help the mentor to develop their existing skills and acquire new ones giving them an insight into the experience of others. “Helping someone move forward in a positive way is a rewarding experience” (Asha, 2013).

Mentors will receive:

- Mentor Training
- Regular support and supervision
- Ongoing awareness sessions
- Ongoing training
- Invite to quarterly network forums
- Peer support.

Specific training around volunteering and mentoring are provided. However to ensure continued support and development, Asha works in partnership with a variety of other agencies and local organizations to share information and deliver training to enhance the programme.

After accessing support at Asha, many women then go onto volunteer and mentor and become service providers themselves, assisting with groups, offering mentor support to other women.

6.4 Case Study 4: Sova (The Safeguarding of Vulnerable Adults)

Sova is a charity that aims to help people steer clear of crime. “We do this by making sure that when people find themselves in difficult situations they have someone on their side to help them make better choices so they can stay out of trouble and build better lives. Sova have been doing this for more than 35 years” (Sova, 2013).

Sova say that experience has shown them that for people to see new possibilities for themselves, they need to believe that they can make good decisions. “They need their family and friends. They need financial stability and the chance to work. They need a home. They need a second chance. Whether it’s about finding a job or friends, understanding how to manage money or discovering new prospects we help people change their lives for the better. By supporting individuals and families to deal with the troubles that are holding them back in life, Sova helps to create a safer, stronger fairer Society” (Sova, 2013).

In November, 2012 Sova merged with the national charity C.R.I. and is now a wholly owned subsidiary of C.R.I. Sova benefits from being part of the wider C.R.I. group; both share a vision and values aimed at enabling those in need to help themselves to lead independent and crime free lives.

Sova work within communities to help those in trouble because of crime, drugs, worklessness, isolation and lack of skills as this is the best way to make a difference. They work to create opportunities for people to learn, improve skills, work share knowledge, offer support and participate in building stronger communities together.

6.4.1 Mentoring Offenders

More than three quarters of all Sova projects focus on preventing or reducing offending. By working with people at risk of offending, on community sentences, in prison or recently released from prison Sova challenge people to make better choices and take action to make a difference to their lives. They provide support from when someone is taken into custody for questioning.

Sova says mentoring supports and encourages people to meet their potential. A mentor being a guide who can help the mentee to find the right direction and believe in themselves. The mentor can question and challenge as well as providing advice and encouragement. Sova believe that the mentor may be the only consistent and reliable person in the lives of many of the people they help. “Having someone you can trust, who is there when you need help, advice and support, especially someone who has chosen to be there, makes a big difference” (Sova, 2013).

Sova say the mentoring relationship is a positive relationship, built upon trust, mutual respect and empathy. Many of the offenders they work with have a number of difficulties in their lives which makes it tough for them to lead a crime free life. The mentors work closely with specialist agencies to provide their mentee with whatever advice and support they need on housing, training and education, work placements, benefits, health or family issues. “We know if we can help people with the problems that are holding them back they’ll be more able to rebuild their lives and stay out of trouble” (Sova, 2013).

6.4.2 Sova Volunteers

Sova say that volunteers are at the heart of everything they do at Sova. The volunteers use their skills, experience and passion for making a difference to change people’s lives for the better. “They give up their time to be there for people who find themselves in difficult situations, letting them know they have someone who is on their side during tough times” (Sova, 2013). Sova volunteers contribute 6000 working days per year. The volunteers mentor offenders in the community and while they are in prison, helping them to prepare for life back in the community and to take the steps that will

help them not to reoffend. Sova volunteers also act as Appropriate Adults to support young people in police custody, in the absence of family or friends.

The volunteers must be over 18, willing to do all of the training and to give the minimum time commitment needed for their volunteer placement. This may vary from two hours per month to four hours per week. Sova believe in equality and diversity and by recruiting staff and volunteers from the widest possible pool believe they find the most talented people, who are best placed to understand and empathize with the people they support. Having a criminal record does not stop people from becoming a volunteer but will depend on the nature of the offences and the nature of the volunteering role. Volunteers receive full accredited training. Sova will give support, advice and regular supervision, encouragement and specialist training where necessary, to volunteers.

6.4.3 National Offender Management Service's Volunteering and Mentoring Programme (NOMS VAM)

Sova is involved in a project which they claim will help shape the future of volunteering and mentoring in the criminal justice system. The National Offender Management Service's Volunteering and Mentoring (NOMS VAM) programme is aiming to develop the infrastructure of offender mentoring services across England and Wales. They want to make it as easy and effective as possible for people caught up in the criminal justice system, both on community sentences and in prison, to be matched up with a mentor.

To enable this to happen, Sova is:

- Finding out what offender mentoring services currently exist across England and Wales.
- Analyzing where the gaps in services are and identifying how these can be filled.
- Carrying out an extensive capacity building and development programme to fill the gaps and enable organizations to do more, better.

Table 4

Table showing staff comments on volunteers from the four case study organisations

Code	Age range	Gender	Organisation	Job	Comments onVolunteers
AS1	50 - 59	F	Asha	Volunteer Coordinator	I aim for most mentors to be ex service users and draw on their own experiences, skills and knowledge but they may not want to mentor or not be at that place yet so we will appoint volunteers from out in the community. They feel they gain by coming. It also gives continued support for the ex service user mentor.

AS2	50 - 59	F	Asha	Manager	Our volunteers are so valuable for the running of the centre. They contribute and the contact between them and offenders are inspiring.
YSS1	40 - 49	M	YSS	Regional Project Manager	The volunteer mentors are an additional resource as one of a number of interventions as mentoring may not on its own reduce reoffending.
YSSS2	50 - 59	F	YSS	Volunteer Coordinator	Some volunteer mentors are professionals, some retired, some university people wanting experience, some are unemployed and wanting to change career, so long as they are over 18 and we think they are mature enough to handle it.
YSSS3	30 -	F	YSS	Senior Key Worker	I think there has to be an understanding,

	39				that we've got to be constantly aware that mentors are not professionals, they are not paid members of staff and therefore they don't have the same responsibility or the same level of understanding perhaps as a member of staff who's been working in this field for a significant period of time.
YSS4	50 - 59	F	YSS	Volunteer Coordinator	The best volunteers are the ones who won't just do what they're told, they will go and do the research, will come back and say 'can I do this?' There's quite a few that would welcome an opportunity to go and be a mentor in prison.
SS1	50 -	F	Sova	Project Manager	We train peer mentors. We don't get sex

	59				offenders or hard core violent offenders as peer mentors. It would have to be a significant period of time since the offence. They're not turned down if they have criminal convictions but it's no good having vulnerable or naive students.
VSS1	50 - 59	F	Victim Support	Senior Executive	We need to veer away from our usual volunteers and provide work experience for the unemployed.
VSS2	50 - 59	M	Victim Support	Senior Executive	Our volunteers have been providing a wide range of services for over 30 years.
VSS3	50 - 59	F	Victim Support	Project Manager	The volunteers provide emotional support. We listen acknowledge their pain and give them support so the volunteers will need to be

					able to do that.
VSS4	50 - 59	F	Victim Support	Area Manager	Our volunteers may have to deal with victims that are very distraught and we liase with other agencies like housing and social services. Staff do needs assessment and the victims of more serious crime like domestic violence and hate crime go to staff not volunteers.
VSS5	50 - 59	F	Victim Support	Team Leader	We determine the risk level and the high risk go to staff not volunteers. We don't give emotional support, we work with MURAC to keep women safe.
VSS6	50 - 59	F	Victim Support	Service Delivery Manager	Some volunteers are trained to deal with victims of serious crime such as race hate, homicide, young victims and domestic

					violence. Two of our highly trained volunteers sit in Newcastle Library once a week but no one ever goes to see them.
VSS7	40 - 49	F	Victim Support	Hate Crime Worker	It would be good to have volunteers but there are not enough domestic violence trained. I don't think we're planning to get more volunteers.
VSS8	50 - 59	F	Victim Support	Senior Service Delivery Manager	We might get volunteers. We have a hate crime worker at the moment. We aim to get volunteers but we'd need to train them.
VSS9	50 - 59	M	Victim Support	Divisional Manager	On emotional support we've got it right. We could do more in practical support. The needs are so varied. A member of staff does a risk assessment and the

					<p>victims of more serious offences go to staff. We have volunteers here ready to support but if no one come in they help by telephoning victims who have been to us to get feedback.</p>
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CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has introduced the four case studies: Victim Support; Youth Support Services (YSS); Asha and Sova. They were purposefully introduced in the way that the organisations might well do themselves, by setting out their aims and the services they each offer. The chapter described their links to other bodies in criminal justice, including those providing finance and thereby having an impact on the work they do and how they go about it.

CHAPTER 7

Analysis and Findings

Introduction

The findings of this thesis are presented in three parts. The first part describes the results derived from the thematic analysis as described with examples of the data collected in this research in Chapter 5. The second part focuses on the first research question – what contribution do volunteer mentors make in criminal justice? It also provides an empirical account based on the four case-study organisations. The third part addresses the second key research question – what is the potential for a more significant contribution by volunteer mentors in criminal justice? It also considers this question in light of the empirical findings from the interviews.

7.1 Thematic Analysis

As described in the previous chapter the data was collected through interactive means and thematic analysis which recognizes that the researcher is becoming familiar with and analyzing the data whilst collecting the data and the researcher therefore came to the data analysis stage with some prior knowledge of the data and possibly some initial analytic interests or thoughts. Also the researcher repeatedly read the data in an active way searching for meanings and patterns.

Some initial observations noted whilst collecting the data included the overall enthusiasm felt by volunteers in all the case studies and a desire to help people with their difficulties. By contrast the researcher encountered a rather different pattern in relation to staff who were often difficult to contact and telephone calls usually went to voice-mail. Reasons for staff not answering their calls were generally because they

were 'in staff meetings'. This applied also to email and reasons for not replying included 'sorry but you are not a target'. Although all four case studies declared themselves to be charities, it was the case that all four were dependent on funding directly or indirectly from government or local government. Funding was mentioned by all staff as a recurring pattern.

Examples of the next stage of analysis (phase 2 coding) using data from the research are in Chapter 5. At phase 3 where 'candidate themes' and sub themes were searched for (as described in Chapter 5) there was a clear and emerging sense of the significance of individual themes. Examples of the methodological approach to sorting codes into potential themes are in Chapter 5.

Phase 4 began with an initial thematic map (See figure 1) and a refinement of the themes. During this phase (as explained in Chapter 5) it became evident if they are themes or not (e.g. if there are not enough data to support them, or the data are too diverse), while others might merge into each other (e.g. two apparently separate themes might form one theme. Conversely other themes needed to be broken down into separate ones. The aim was that data within each theme should cohere together meaningfully, while there would be clear and identifiable distinctions between each such theme.

7.1.1 Initial Thematic Map

The initial thematic map (see figure 1) shows the main themes at this stage (circles/ovals) and the sub themes (rectangles and squares). This showed themes arising out of the data concerning how a volunteer mentor's knowledge and experience was considered important and that the volunteer mentors had a lot to say in the

interviews on what they thought the mentees views on the volunteer mentors were especially often the appreciation was expressed that they were unpaid, they chose to do it rather than having to and they were motivated to help, this would appear to encourage more trust from the mentees for the volunteer mentors. It was often mentioned by volunteers that often the mentees attended as it was compulsory for them to do so as part of their licence or community order, which meant that they attended but this is not ideal for mentoring where the mentee should attend voluntarily. This was treated as a sub-theme as it was considered part of the mentoring structure.

The mentoring structure was a strong theme as became evident by the participant observation of the training for the four case study organisations. The mentoring environment was expressed by all the four organisations as important but as a sub-theme as it was part of the mentoring structure which was the main theme. Other sub themes which were part of the main mentoring structure theme included problems like the possibility of the mentee becoming over dependant on the mentor and how much help and support was given to the mentors by the staff in the organisations. This included giving any advice need by the mentor during the mentoring relationship, giving feedback so that the mentor can learn and improve. The sub theme mentor protection was important to include as giving advice regarding taking precautions regarding protection was such a large part of the training. The sub theme, skills of mentoring was included in the thematic map as a sub them as it was mentioned in the courses but not taught and the content of the training became a main theme.

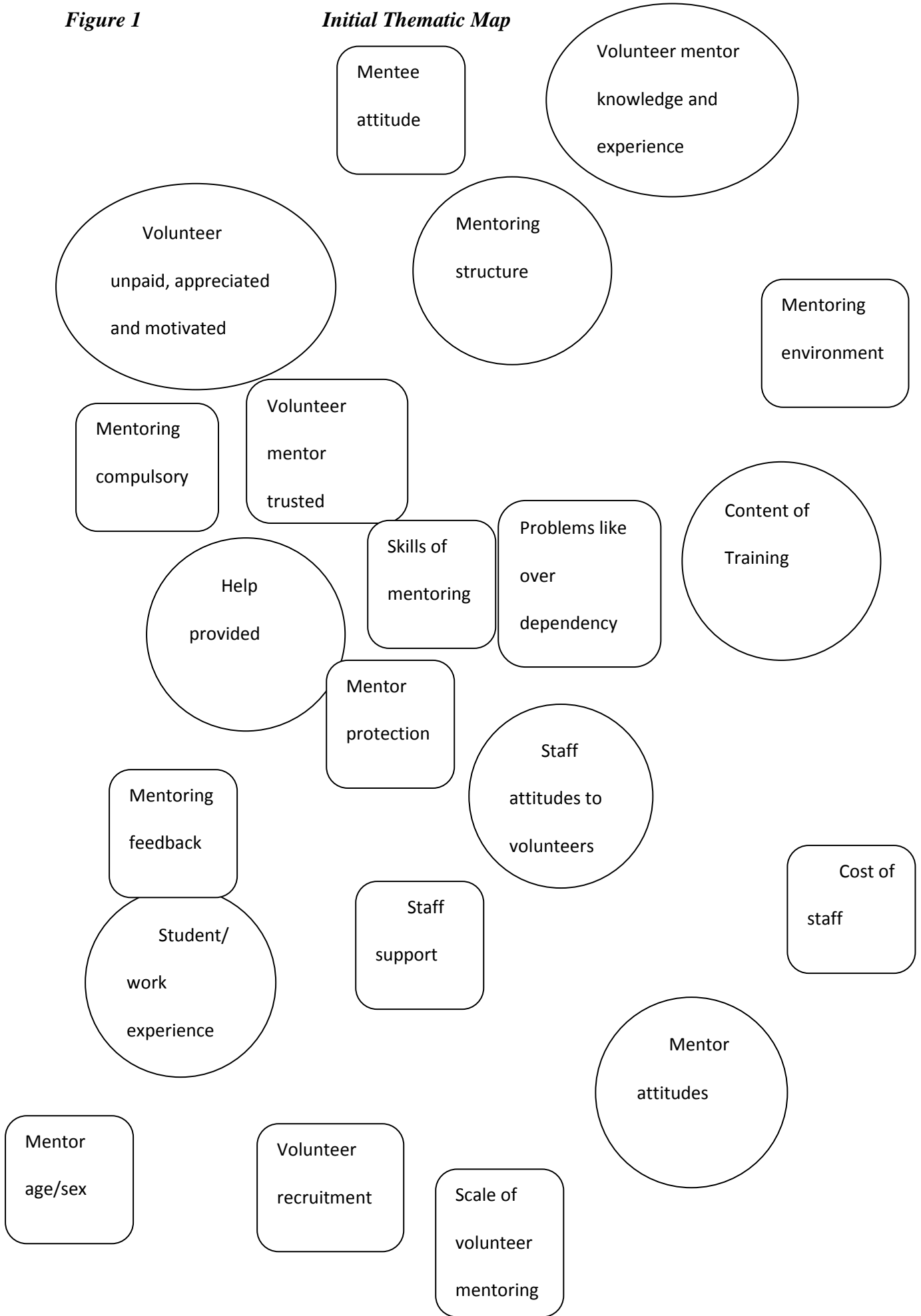
Staff attitudes to volunteers was included as a main theme because several staff in interviews indicated that they were obliged to use volunteers and said that they did not

feel they could give the volunteers work to do which they thought really ought to be done by paid staff. The cost of staff was a sub theme as senior staff interviewed talked about how a large part of their budget went on staff salaries.

About half of the volunteers said they were doing the volunteering as a way of obtaining work experience which could then be put on their curriculum vitae. As this was a major reason for volunteering for such a large number of volunteers, it was included as a main theme. At this stage mentor age and sex was included as a sub theme and the findings about two main age groups and the differences in involvement by gender became more striking at a later stage. Although the organisations were asked about the scale of their volunteer recruitment, this was included as a sub theme as the staff answering the questions about this thought that the number of volunteers being recruited was right for their organisations. Mentor recruitment was included as a sub theme as the organisations were asked about how they recruit volunteers but nobody interviewed expressed any problems with recruitment of volunteers. There always seemed to be a steady supply.

Figure 1

Initial Thematic Map

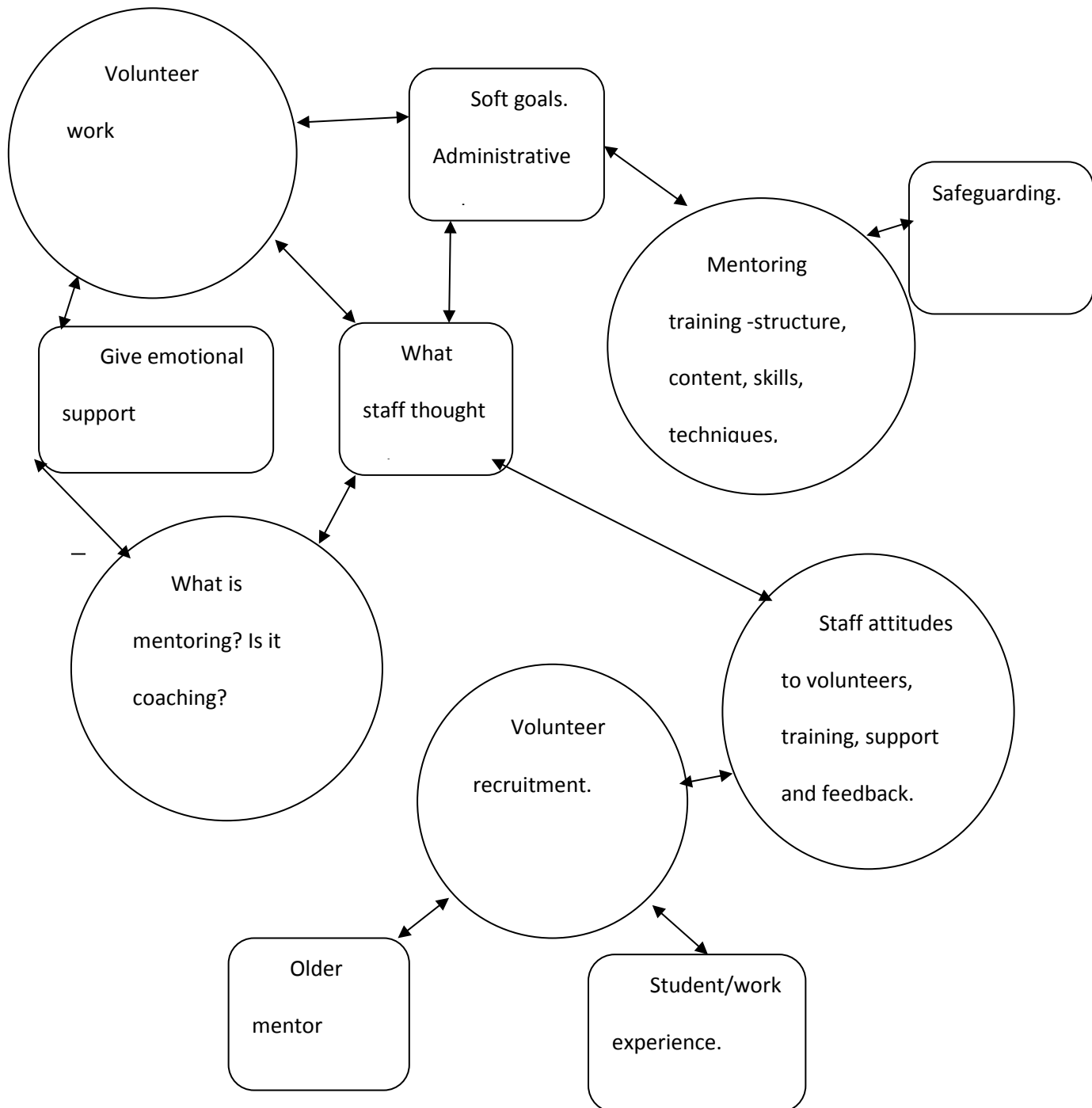


7.1.2 Developed Thematic Map Showing Main Themes and Sub Themes.

This involved two levels of reviewing and refining of themes (as described in Chapter 5). The circles/ovals show the main themes and the rectangles/squares show the sub themes. At the completion of this stage it was possible to construct a more developed thematic map. The developed thematic map (see figure 2) highlights five main themes. These sub themes highlighted the two main categories of volunteers which were the older volunteers and the student/work experience volunteers shown as sub themes.

One of the main themes questioned whether what was described as mentoring in the research really was mentoring. Was it really coaching? This connected with the main theme of what work the volunteers were asked to do through the sub themes of what staff thought the volunteers should do and sub themes showing other tasks they did like help with administrative tasks, achieving 'soft goals' and giving emotional support. The tasks the volunteers were asked to do were connected to the training they were given and whether this included any of the skills, techniques and information of mentoring models which would be required in training for mentoring. Safeguarding was such a strong element of the training in all the organisations that it was included here as a sub theme.

Figure 2 Developed Thematic Map

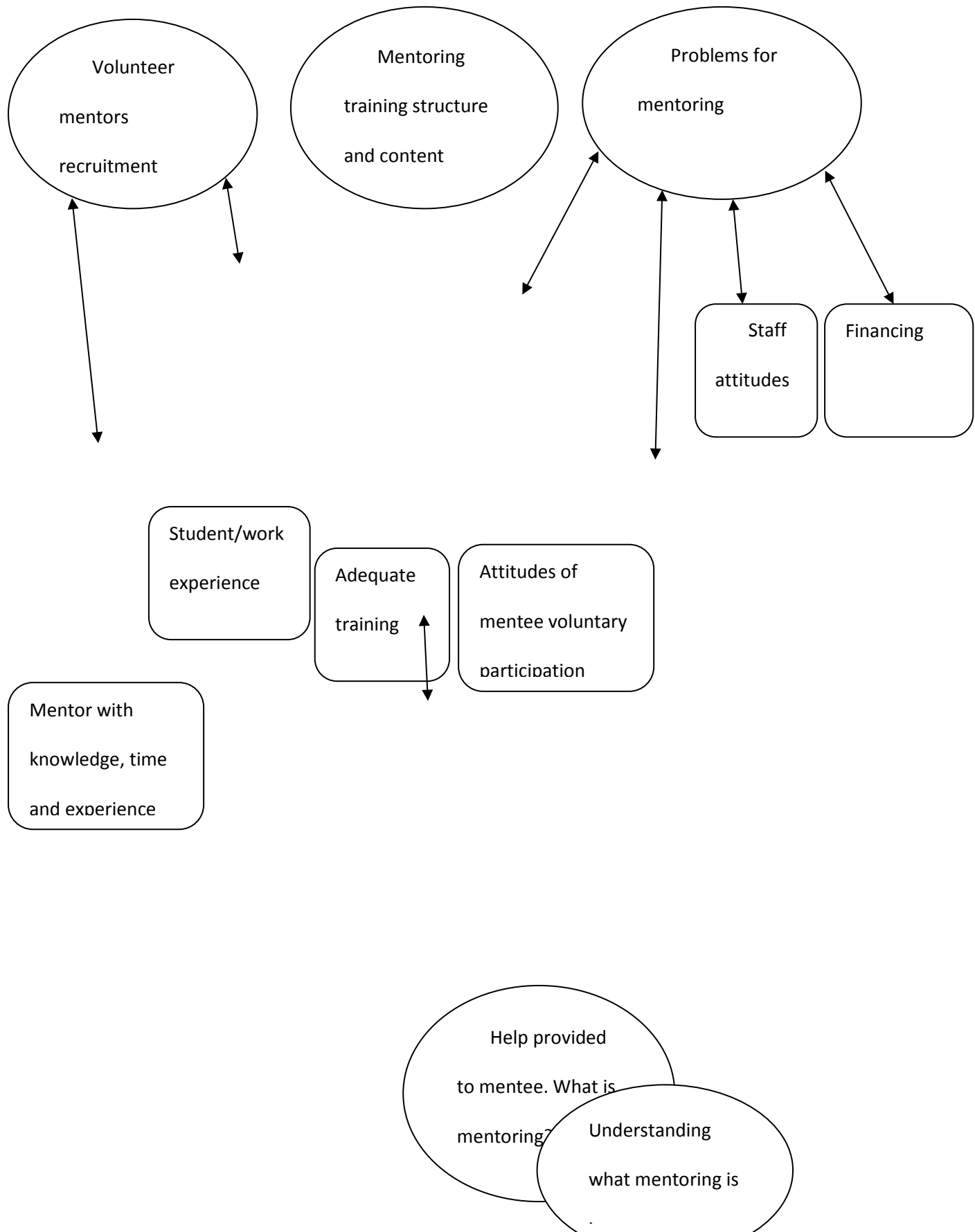


7.1.3 Final Thematic Map.

At this level (as described in Chapter 5) consideration was given to the validity of individual themes in relation to the data set, but also whether the thematic map accurately reflected the meanings evident in the data set as a whole. At this stage any additional data within themes that may have been missed in earlier coding stages were added (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

The final thematic (see figure three) shows the two categories of volunteers as sub themes to a main theme of whether there is a change to the type of people becoming volunteers. The structure and content of mentoring training is seen as a main theme with the question of whether there is adequate training for the volunteers to become mentors shown as a sub theme. Problems for mentoring are shown as a main theme with those problems shown as sub themes. There is the problem of the mentee needing to do the mentoring as a compulsory measure. The staff attitudes to volunteers and the financing implications both as the cost of staff salaries and the future financing of probation were included as a sub theme to problems for mentoring. Whether the organisations understand what mentoring is was shown as a sub theme and following on from that is: if these organisations do not know what mentoring is then what help are they giving to the mentees in the name of mentoring?

Figure 3. Final thematic map



7.2 Findings in Relation to the First Research Question:

The first research question asked what contribution volunteer mentors make in criminal justice and as discussed in Chapters 1 and 5, this first research question was approached through answering three sub-questions. These asked who the volunteers were who provided the mentoring and what was their motivation and what training were these volunteers given to prepare them for their work in criminal justice. The questions also asked about the nature and demands of the work done by the volunteers.

This part of the chapter aims to present the data from the research that contributed to answering these questions.

The following tables show the staff and volunteers who were included in the four organisations included in the research. This shows in the first table that in Asha which is an organisation for women, only women are invited to volunteer. Of these half (50%) are part of the younger group of volunteers and half (50%) from the older group of volunteers. The YSS table shows there are 7 (53.9%) volunteers from the younger group of volunteers and they are all female. There are 6 (46.2%) volunteers from the older group of volunteers, 3 male and 3 female. Overall that is 9 (75%) female and 3 (25%) male volunteers. The Sova table included 5 (41.7%) volunteers from the older category of volunteers of which 3 were female and 7 (58.3%) volunteers from the younger category of volunteers of which 4 were female. Overall there were 7 (58.3) female volunteers and 5 (41.7%) male volunteers. The Victim Support table showed there were 9 (60%) volunteers from the older volunteer category of which 6 were female and 3 male and 6 (40%) volunteers from the younger volunteer category of which all 6 (100%) were female. Overall there were 48 volunteers included in the research of which 36 (75%) were female and 12 (25%) male (but one organisation was

a female run organisation for females (Asha) although the total number of volunteers in that was 8 so this result was still strongly female. Amongst that overall group of 48 volunteers 24 (50%) were from the older category and 24 (50%) from the younger category of volunteer.

Table 5

Volunteer Interviewees in all Case Study Organisations

Volunteer Age Range Gender Occupation Reasons

ASHA

AV1	18-29	F	Student	To gain work experience
AV2	18-29	F	Student	To gain work experience
AV3	18-29	F	Student	To gain work experience
AV4	50-59	F	Unemployed	Wanted to give something back as she was helped.
AV5	40-49	F	College employee (Administration)	Wanted to help less fortunate.
AV6	50-59	F	Housewife	Wanted to do something but not be obligated to pressure of work.
AV7	18-29	F	Unemployed	To gain work experience.
AV8	50-59	F	Self-employed	Wanted to help.

YSS (Youth Support Services)

YSSV1	18-29	F	Student	To gain work experience.
YSSV2	18-29	F	Young Carer	YSS helped her as a young carer so wants to give back.
YSSV3	60+	M	Retired	Wants to help and be occupied.
YSSV4	18-29	M	Unemployed	Work experience.
YSSV5	60+	F	Retired	Wants to help and be occupied.
YSSV6	18-29	F	Student	To gain work experience.
YSSV7	18-29	F	Student	To gain work experience.
YSSV8	18-29	F	Student	To gain work experience.
YSSV9	18-29	F	Unemployed	To gain work experience and for CV
YSSV10	50-59	F	Administrative	To help.
YSSV11	60+	F	Retired	Wants to help
YSSV12	50-59	M	Unemployed maths tutor	To be useful
YSSV13	60+	M	Retired	To help

SOVA

SV1	50-59	F	Unemployed	Wants to help and gain work experience.
SV2	18-29	M	Unemployed	Peer mentor. Wants to give back and gain work experience.
SV3	18-29	M	Unemployed	Peer mentor wants work experience
SV4	18-29	M	Employed	Peer mentor. Has work now but still wants to mentor, to give back.
SV5	18-29	F	Care assistant	Work experience and to help.
SV6	18-29	F	Student	Work experience and for CV
SV7	60+	M	Retired	Does a lot of voluntary work to keep occupied and help.
SV8	40-49	F	Unemployed	To help and gain work experience.
SV9	50-59	M	Retired	To help and be occupied.
SV10	40-49	F	Employed	Peer mentor wanting to give back.

SV11	18-29	F	Employed	Work experience and for CV.
SV12	18-29	F	Unemployed	Work experience and CV.

Victim Support

VSV1	60+	M	Retired	To help.
VSV2	60+	F	Retired	To help and keep busy.
VSV3	40-49	F	Mother	Wants to do something but not too much commitment as still has school age children.
VSV4	50-59	F	Disability Benefits	Wants to help and do something but not commitment of job.
VSV5	40-49	M	Unemployed	Work experience.
VSV6	18-29	F	Student	Work experience and CV.
VSV7	18-29	F	Student	Work experience and CV.
VSV8	18-29	F	Student	Wants to do postgraduate course and thinks

				experience will help.
VSV9	50-59	F	Unemployed	Believes she can contribute due to her experiences.
VSV10	40-49	F	Unemployed	Work experience.
VSV11	18-29	F	Student	Work experience and CV
VSV12	18-29	F	Student	Work experience and CV.
VSV13	18-29	F	Student	Work experience and CV.
VSV14	50-59	F	Retired	Wants to help and be occupied.
VSV15	60+	M	Retired	Wants to help and for company

Table 6

Table of Staff Interviewed from the Four Case Study Organisations

Code	Age range	Gender	Organisation	Job
AS1	30-39	F	Asha	Volunteer Coordinator
AS2	50-59	F	Asha	Manager
YSSS1	40-49	M	YSS	Regional Project

				Manager
YSSS2	50-59	F	YSS	Volunteer Coordinator
YSSS3	30-39	F	YSS	Senior Key Worker
YSSS4	50-59	F	YSS	Volunteer Coordinator
SS1	50-59	F	Sova	Project Manager
VSS1	50-59	F	Victim Support	Senior Executive
VSS2	50-59	M	Victim Support	Senior Executive
VSS3	50-59	F	Victim Support	Project Manager
VSS4	50-59	F	Victim Support	Area Manager
VSS5	50-59	F	Victim Support	Team Leader
VSS6	50-59	F	Victim Support	Service Delivery Manager
VSS7	40-49	F	Victim Support	Hate Crime Worker
VSS8	50-59	F	Victim Support	Senior Service Delivery Manager
VSS9	50-59	M	Victim Support	Divisional Manager
VSS10	50-59	F	Victim Support	Divisional Manager
VSS11	30-39	F	Victim	Victim's

			Support	Champion
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Key to Tables

AV – Asha Volunteer	AS - Asha Staff
YSSV – YSS Volunteer	YSSS – YSS Staff
SV – Sova Volunteer	SS – Sova Staff
VS – Victim Support Volunteer	VSS – Victim Support Staff

Sub-question 1.1. Who volunteers to provide mentoring and what is the motivation?

Two dominant categories were found to characterize the volunteer mentors in all four case study organizations, as highlighted in the thematic analysis – these being ‘older’ and ‘younger’ volunteers.

The Older Volunteers

The category of older volunteers – who were mostly retired, but in a few cases of pre-retirement age but not in paid employment (e.g., because of redundancy or no longer needing to earn) was illustrated by one such volunteer mentor at YSS who explained their situation as follows:

“I worked until I was nearly 40 and I got an English degree. Then I got married and went to live in Germany. I was pregnant after that, I didn’t go back to work. I’m a baby boomer and lucky I don’t need to earn. My husband works for Procter and Gamble. My daughter is at Nottingham University doing a French and English degree. I think they appreciate that you are a volunteer and that you don’t get paid and do it because you want to help them. The more experience of life the volunteer has the better

to help with things like finding a place for them to live, applying for housing benefit.

I'm not sure how helpful a younger volunteer might be.” (YSSV11)

This volunteer mentor did a lot of voluntary work since about 2005. He hoped to make a difference.

“We've all got different skills to offer. My experience is in corporate management which brings in a lot of variety. I'm creative. I use 'emotional freedom technique'. I like to think I'm giving the emotional support if it works. I undoubtedly think it's a benefit. I had that from the guys involved. Not just me.” (YSSV13)

This volunteer felt the best thing about being a volunteer for Victim Support is the sense of making a contribution and improving somebody's life in some way:

“I'm retired. I've been volunteering for Victim Support for 14 years, meeting victims and helping them to deal with their emotional crisis. I do about 20 hours a month. I think it's a very worthwhile thing to do.” (VSV1)

This volunteer has been volunteering for Victim Support for 3-4 months

“I've been a secondary school teacher. I have a lot of respect for youngsters and think they should be treated with respect, but I'm moving on to mentor older offenders.”

The same volunteer mentor explained that although he is politically sceptical, he still thought it was worth doing:

“I don’t want to be completely useless. I’m 60 in a couple of weeks. I can’t find work as a maths lecturer. I’m a bit sceptical about all this volunteering and ‘Big Society’ but there are benefits and volunteers have a use.” (YSSV12)

All four organisations were trying to recruit volunteers with diversity in mind they said:

“The volunteers are from a diverse section of the community. Some are professionals. Some are retired. Some are university people wanting experience. Some are unemployed, wanting to change career, so as long as they are over 18 and we think they are mature enough to handle it then yes.” (YSSS2)

The volunteer mentors could identify with the needs of their mentees:

Yes, I wanted to help other women who need the support. The relationship is wonderful. We had huge respect for each other instantly. We meet as equals completely. Melissa inspires me, she’s creative and organised. I think the relationship should be warm and supportive. Boundaries don’t need to be crossed. I hope in mentoring the reward is the change by the mentor and other professional women. (AV8)

A mature lady who had stopped working due to ill health still wanted to contribute and do something but wouldn’t be able, she thought, to manage paid employment so she wanted to volunteer. (VSV2)

A mature Sikh man started to train as a volunteer but did not want to continue due to the patronizing manner of the Victim Support trainer. (VSV5)

Another very active retired lady wanted to help and keep busy and had friends doing the same:

“I’ve had had a very busy working life and didn’t like doing nothing, I wanted to get out of the house and feel that all my work experience would enable me to contribute.” (VSV2)

A mature woman who was unemployed and hoping to find work felt she was of benefit as a volunteer due to her experience of life, but wanted work experience to find a job. (VSV9)

A mature volunteer had been volunteering for some time, was retired and highly trained as a volunteer having done extra courses in domestic violence and hate crime but felt she was not being used to her full potential:

“I sit in a library waiting for victims to come and speak to me but nobody comes except for an old lady who keeps coming back for a cup of tea and a chat but she’s not a victim!”(VSV14)

One woman volunteer mentor had a sad history and had been greatly helped by the atmosphere of women helping other women and especially by the mentoring and now she wanted to help someone else so that they can learn from her experiences:

“My experiences may be really bad but I can help other women, show them how to survive and carry on.” (AV4)

A lady who worked at the local college was keen to do something to help people in her community:

“I get to know some of the girls at college who especially needed help and managed to turn their lives around and get on the right track so I wanted to help.” (AV5)

Some married women volunteers indicated that they did not need to work financially but wanted to do something and did not want the pressures and obligations of paid employment (e.g. because of child care responsibilities).

Several retired men were also interviewed who were forthright about their belief of having something valuable to contribute; they had felt a certain emptiness in their lives on retirement and wanted something to keep busy and feeling useful:

“I’ve mentored 15-20 mentees in fits and starts, occasionally two at once as they overlap. It’s supposed to be an hour a week but can be three once a week in 12 week blocks. It depends what’s involved like going to the job centre and advice centre. I feel like I’m making a difference. It’s worst when people don’t turn up.” (YSSV13)

A woman who had retired earlier than her husband and used to work in the courts, wanted to keep busy and thought her experience could be of help. (YSSV11)

A member of staff was also a volunteer mentor in her spare time because she wanted to contribute more and believed in the benefits of mentoring and thought her experience would be useful. (YSSV10)

A woman in her mid 50’s who was unemployed was happy to contribute and help. (SV1)

An elderly retired man who had done a lot of voluntary work for other organisations was a volunteer mentor because of wanting to help and he felt he had a lot to contribute but was critical of how Sova was organised. (SV7)

A woman volunteer was a newly trained volunteer mentor and wanted some work experience to get a job but hadn't done any mentoring yet. (SV8)

A man who had retired early was keen to help people and use his time usefully. (SV9)

The Younger Volunteer Mentors

The other dominant group of volunteer mentors comprised younger people who were in most cases volunteering primarily to gain work experience.

This group also included peer mentors (i.e., mentors who themselves had previously been caught up in criminal justice either as offenders or as victims), whose situation was summarized by one of the Sova volunteers as follows:

“I'm a peer mentor, I was in prison when I was 18 for three and a half months. It was a short sharp shock. My family visited me in prison and were there when I got out. I turned my life around, went to college, got a degree and a masters. I remember visiting my father in prison when I was three but my mother was the exact opposite, very law abiding. Now my Dad's turned over a new leaf and is a prison visitor, helping others.” (SV10)

Although often inexperienced there were younger volunteer mentors who really cared about less fortunate people and wanted to help:

“I’m working now as a care assistant. I just love helping people. I’ve been doing the mentoring since January. I just really want to help but I also want the experience. I want to feel I’m a friend to them.” (SV5)

This volunteer was a young carer, only 18 but wanting to give something back for the help YSS had given her when she needed it.

“My Mum needs care but I’m 18 now so I can start to give something back.”
(YSSV2)

However the reason for most of the younger volunteers to do this work was for work experience:

“I’ve trained but not done any mentoring yet. I’m doing it for the experience and it will help me with finding a job.” (SV11)

Some peer mentors even after successfully gaining employment still wanted to help others:

“I’ve been doing the mentoring for two years now. I can’t count how many people I’ve mentored. I’m a peer mentor and I wanted to give something back but I also wanted work experience. I thought it would help to get a job which I’ve now just got but I want to carry on with the mentoring.” (SV4)

As can be seen from the above data tables there were many students who explained that they were volunteering to gain work experience especially when studying subjects like law and social work. Coincidentally there were Asian girls, who always came in pairs, coming together from the same courses, at each of the training sessions. There were

four seeking work experience out of eight volunteers at Asha; six out of the thirteen volunteers at YSS; eight out of the twelve volunteers interviewed at Sova and eight out of the fourteen Victim Support volunteers interviewed.

There were unemployed people such as one woman in her early 20's who had left university and was looking for work so thought the work experience on her CV would help:

“I live in Cheltenham which everyone thinks everyone is wealthy but I'm a graduate and can't get a job so I'm volunteering for YSS and Asha to get some work experience for my CV” (AV7)

A young man from Eastern Europe and new to this country and with good English speaking skills wanted to volunteer for YSS as he had been attracted to the organisation, thinking it just helped young people as he felt he was very good with young people. He said he could 'make them laugh'. He wanted to stay in this country and so wanted work experience in order to find a job.

Another young man was a peer mentor who had been mentored by Sova. He was newly trained and Sova was still waiting for his CRB check before he could start mentoring although he could have told them about the past offences on it, which a Sova member of staff said was not going to make a difference, they explained that they still had to do it and discuss it with him. He was trying to get a job and hoped the work experience would help or even that he would get some paid work from Sova.

Although the other three organisations attracted more women than men, Sova was different as the gender mix was more balanced. This may be due to the encouragement

of peer mentoring where the male peer mentors were ex-offenders. Sova was also different as it had far fewer students. This was explained by the project manager when interviewed:

“We do turn people down. It’s not that we’re not grateful but they can get into a difficult situation they can’t cope with. It’s a lot to ask of a volunteer. Vulnerable or naive students can’t bottle it. We have to have watertight safeguards. Three or four people on the sex register tried to get in. Where you have young volunteers, it can get creepy.”

A key finding was that the category of younger volunteers was equal in size to the older volunteer category in this criminal justice context – which contrasts with the widespread presumption that mostly volunteering is undertaken by those of retirement age, and therefore with time available as well as the desire to contribute to society. None of the four organisations indicated having a particular policy or formal commitment to attracting younger as well as older volunteers although interviewees at each did acknowledge that achieving diversity was important in the recruitment of volunteers. However a senior member of staff in Victim Support suggested:

“We should encourage young work experience volunteers rather than our usual type of volunteer as that would be another objective we can add to our people outcomes and make a diverse workforce reflecting the communities we serve, a more engaged and skilled workforce” (VSS1)

Sub-question 1.2 - What training do volunteer mentors receive in preparation for their work in criminal justice?

This question has been approached empirically by the researcher observing first-hand the initial training programmes offered to volunteer mentors in the four case-studies and also by reviewing the associated documentation provided. In addition, the interviews conducted with staff responsible for appointing and training the volunteers provided valuable additional insights on the training provision, on its underlying rationale and, on respondents' understandings about mentoring and of the skills required of volunteers in this context.

The key findings were that the training courses for all four case-studies included an 'induction' into the organization, with relevant background information provided on the organizational role, in that particular organization. Emphasis was also placed in each case on the importance of safeguarding. This included advice on where they should meet their mentee, and whether telephone numbers and other personal information should or should not be provided. Each also included some training on listening skills and on the importance of not making assumptions about the mentee. In one case (Sova) there was particular focus on the provision of about helping the mentee to attain 'soft goals' (see explanation of 'soft goals' in Chapter 8. In another case (Asha) there was introductory coverage of the different phases of a mentoring relationship but their own design, not one recognized in general mentoring. However in none of the four cases did the training include any particular emphasis on the different models of mentoring or on the skill and techniques to be practiced. In short, the initial training programmes for volunteer mentors was more in the form of 'organizational induction' than about

‘mentor development’. This is evident in Table 8 which provides outline programmes for two of the case study organisations.

Table 7

Outline Training Programmes for Volunteer Mentors at Asha and YSS.

Agenda for 1 1/2 day Induction/Training

Agenda for 2 day Induction/Training

Programme for Asha

Programme for YSS

<p>Day 1: Arrivals – Tea and Coffee</p> <p>Welcome/Introductions, House Keeping & Group Agreement</p> <p>Ice Breaker – 3 things in common</p> <p>Group Exercise: Benefits for Mentors</p> <p>Overview of Asha – Lynne Fyfe (Director)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Break</p> <p>Recruitment Process</p> <p>Personal Ecology (PEP)</p> <p>Mentoring – Skills & Qualities</p> <p>Differences between Mentoring, Befriending, Counselling & Coaching.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Q & A</p>	<p>Day 1 - Registration/Coffee</p> <p>Welcome, Housekeeping, Aims and Objectives.</p> <p>Icebreakers</p> <p>Expectations and Anxieties</p> <p>Group Contract</p> <p>What Factors Can Lead to People Offending.</p> <p>Risk Assessments</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Coffee</p> <p>Project Intros</p> <p>What are the Common Aims of all YSS Projects.</p> <p>Confidentiality/Safeguarding/Health and Safety</p> <p>Definition of Mentoring and Mentors in our Lives.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Lunch</p>
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	<p>Role of a Mentor</p> <p>Profile of a Mentor</p> <p>Mentors are, are not, do not</p> <p>Coffee</p> <p>Active Listening, Dream House, The Crash</p> <p>Use of Questions</p> <p>Feedback, Checking Meaning</p> <p>Evaluation and Close</p>
<p>Day 2: Arrivals – Tea and Coffee</p> <p>Ice Breaker – True/False</p> <p>Break</p> <p>Origin of Mentor. Exercise: What is a Mentor?</p> <p>Four stages of mentoring:</p> <p>Preparing;</p> <p>Negotiating;</p> <p>Enabling;</p> <p>Closure.</p> <p>Lunch</p> <p>Continuation: four stages of mentoring</p> <p>Break</p> <p>Paperwork</p> <p>Q&A</p> <p>What next?</p>	<p>Day 2 - Coffee</p> <p>Welcome and Recap</p> <p>YSS video</p> <p>Observation and Body Language</p> <p>Anger Management</p> <p>Appropriate Challenging</p> <p>Beginning the Mentoring Relationship & Role Plays</p> <p>Coffee</p> <p>Ongoing Mentoring Relationship</p> <p>Ending the Relationship</p> <p>Guidelines & Procedure</p> <p>Volunteer Support</p> <p>Personal Values</p> <p>Lunch</p> <p>Giving and Receiving Positive Feedback</p>

	<p style="text-align: center;">Motivation</p> <p>What is Positive Change</p> <p>How do we Recognize Achievements Putting it into Practice – Role Plays</p> <p>What Happens Next?</p> <p>Questions and Answers</p> <p>Anxieties and Expectations Revisited</p> <p>Positive Comments</p> <p>Review, Evaluation, Close</p>
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Asha

When interviewed the trainer who is also the volunteer coordinator commented that in the training she wanted to

“highlight people’s beliefs their values and see whether they are judgemental and see what their idea of mentoring is.”

Asha encourage peer mentors, those women who were offenders and were mentored by Asha. The trainers own view of mentoring was summarised as follows:

“A mentoring relationship is a one to one relationship. It’s not a kind of social worker, support worker, client kind of relationship. It’s a two way relationship.... most often the mentor will draw upon their own experiences, skills and knowledge, in order to support the mentee, and mentoring should be provided in an informal environment as well so let’s say out in a coffee shop rather than in an office environment. So away from the office.”

On the skills needed by the mentor she said:

“I think, there’s many skills, I think. It’s about being supportive, um and understanding your remit and limits, and kind of ensuring those values are in play so that it doesn’t become, there is always a risk or danger of it becoming more of a friendship.... you know the skills needed are to be able to support the mentee in whatever, you know, whatever their support needs are. And the matching is so important..... so it’s kind of more pro-active support rather than emotional and that’s what the mentor needs to provide really.”

How the trainer describes the training:

“It’s a one and a half days training.... the first lot is briefing. It’s kind of you know, informing delegates more about Asha. Who we are, the work that we do, about the volunteering, how the mentoring fits into Asha. The types, the clients that you’ll be working with etc. So it’s more of a kind of information session and why be a mentor for Asha.... and the full day’s training, that’s more about the skills required ... you know scenarios that could come up. How would you deal with them, boundaries, confidentiality, so all the things that they need are in place, health and safety. Actually all the things that they need in place for them to become a mentor and ... an active mentor for Asha.

Perhaps significantly, these comments were heavily interspersed with pauses for thought which suggested that, at times, the respondent was finding the interview process quite challenging and that the questions were taking her beyond her normal experience, thus causing her some difficulty in formulating answers.

The introduction to the training for volunteers on the first day seemed warm and welcoming with tea and coffee provided. The atmosphere was serious but always friendly. The ice breaker involved getting to know three other people in the group by talking to them and identifying three things people had in common with each other. The group discussed the benefits of being a mentor before the director of Asha gave a 15 minute talk about the organisation. Following a break where refreshments were served the trainer explained the recruitment process for mentors. The personal ecology profile involved drawing a circle and writing four ways of describing oneself around the circle and making comments about this inside the circle. This exercise was aimed at helping the volunteer to 'understand their lifestyle, influences and the impact this can have.' The volunteer might then determine how this could affect them as a mentor. Following this there was an open discussion on what skills and qualities might be required to be a mentor and then a discussion differentiating between mentoring, befriending, coaching and counselling. The trainer pointed out that the difference between mentoring and befriending is that befriending is more social.

The second day of training began in a similarly welcoming manner followed by another ice breaker where each person said two false things about themselves and one true thing and the group had to guess which one is true. The history of mentoring was touched by mentioning Homer's Odyssey and there was again open discussion about what would make a good mentor. This was followed by information on four stages of mentoring: preparing; negotiating; enabling and closure. The trainees were told that they would be given a brief and that they might need to do research to help their mentee achieve their agreed goals. The mentor and mentee agreed on ground rules such as agreements about meetings and the need to respect each others' differences, confidentiality and honesty

and boundaries such not to give phone numbers, lend money, get emotionally involved or go to each others' homes. It was explained that confidentiality might be broken if another party was at risk, or when acts of serious crime were discussed. It was explained that during the 'enabling phase' the mentor and mentee work together and the relationship grows and they both monitor and evaluate the progress. They were told that they should try to prepare in advance rapport-building questions to ask the mentee. It was also emphasized how important the ending of the mentoring relationship was and particularly in summing up on the achievement of goals. No mention in the training was made of how long the mentoring relationship should last but at interview the volunteer coordinator said these should not normally exceed 26 weeks. During the second day of training the volunteer mentors were again provided with lunch.

The documentation provided to each volunteer mentor who attended the training summarized most of what had been covered in the training together with a Mentor Training Pack which provided more detail on mentee's learning styles comparing activists with reflectors, theorists and pragmatists. It included information on active listening, cultural awareness, non-verbal communication. Thus, although not a great deal of information was provided about mentoring during the training, volunteer mentors were given the opportunity of follow-up further reading about mentoring in the documentation.

YSS (Youth Support Services)

Training of volunteer mentors at YSS comprised two full days and there were some strong similarities with the Asha training. That said, the provision by YSS was more interactive. Before the training the volunteer mentors received documents on

background reading. This included information on the needs, development and influences on offending behaviour, responding to youth crime, the Crime and Disorder Act, 1998, an overview of the youth justice system. Although of general relevance to an overall awareness and understanding of criminal justice the particular applicability of some of the subject-matter here was hardly clear, given that the volunteer mentors would be mentoring adults rather than young offenders.

The common aims of the YSS mentoring projects were explained as being to promote:

- Achievement
- Increased motivation
- Development of self esteem & confidence
- To help give a sense of direction
- Redirect into education/employment
- Integration into a community
- Improved communication skills

Table 8

Desired Requirements of a YSS Mentor

Role of YSS mentor

Profile of a YSS mentor

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inspire • Encourage positive change • Support • Help give direction • Confront negative behaviour and attitudes • Listen • Help build self esteem and confidence • Present different viewpoints • Help improve communication skills • Step back when appropriate • Help with sourcing information 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non judgemental • Reliable • Good listener • Sense of humour • Trustworthy • Honest • Enthusiastic • Respectful • Own life experience • Flexible • Realistic • Self aware • Like people.
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As indicated emphasis in the training and the documentation here was given to active listening and questioning techniques. The volunteer mentors were provided with detailed documentation on the YSS safeguarding policy.

Day 2 included a discussion on observation and body language. There was role play to understand the stages of the mentoring relationship. The documentation received by the volunteer mentors on day 2 described positive outcomes of both soft and hard goals:

Table 9

Comparison of YSS Hard Goals and Soft Goals

Soft goals	Hard goals
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased self-confidence/self esteem • Respect for others • Group skills • Sociability • Communication skills • Creativity • Time keeping • Attendance and concentration 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • NVQs • Qualifications in basic skills • Gaining work • Entry into further or higher education • Work placements

Further information was provided as hard copy documentation to supplement the messages provided in the training sessions. But again no mention was made either in the training or in the documentation about the length of the mentoring relationship.

When asked about this in the interviews the senior volunteer coordinator said:

“It all depends on the probation officer...It could be that they’ve got to see a mentor for 6 weeks. So normally we’ve got a lot for 6 weeks, we get some for 12 weeks. We have had a couple that have just been told they come to us for 3 weeks and that’s maybe perhaps to get a CV done or maybe look for work, So it’s very different to how it used to be, whereas it used to be 12 weeks rigid. Now it’s flexible.”

On both days the volunteer mentors were well treated with buffet lunches provided and coffee and tea was brought into the training room with biscuits and snacks. The atmosphere was always friendly.

Asha and YSS training were considered together as the training was similar. Likewise Sova and Victim Support showed similarities, especially by the lack of fully organised agendas.

Table 10

Course Outlines for Victim Support and Sova

Day One: Working for	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Understanding the role, responsibilities and purpose of the mentor
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<p>Victim Support – Impact of crime.</p> <p>Day Two: Impact of Crime – Support Skills.</p> <p>Day Three: Equality and Inclusion</p> <p>Day Four: Criminal Justice Process</p> <p>Day Five: Support Skills</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describe five skills that a mentor needs to have or develop and explain why each one is necessary • Describe five personal qualities that a mentor should have and explain why each one is important. • Understand how to motivate the mentee to take responsibility for his/her personal development. • Describe two ways in which a mentor could help to raise a mentee’s self esteem and confidence. • Understand how to motivate the mentee to take responsibility for his/her personal development. • Comment on three barriers which could interfere with a mentee’s motivation to change. • Understand and be able to use a soft outcomes tool appropriately. • Define the following terms: (a) soft outcomes; (b) distance travelled; (c) impact • Understand and be able to use a soft outcomes tool appropriately. • Give three reasons for using a soft outcomes measurement tool. • Know of appropriate helping agencies. • Describe the work of six appropriate helping agencies. • Describe the procedure for contact and referral to two of the agencies.
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Victim Support

The training for the volunteers of Victim Support involved a longer time commitment (5 days) than for Asha or YSS (1 ½ and 2 days each respectively). Moreover further training was said to be available if volunteers wished personally to invest in more

specialist skills development, for example in relation to working with victims of sexual and domestic abuse, hate crime, restorative justice or work with families of homicide victims or vulnerable and intimidated witnesses, although there was no mention of further training specifically on the skills of mentoring per se.

On arrival the volunteer mentors were shown the kitchen area of a central office, where they were told they could make themselves a coffee or a tea if they wanted. This was not a welcoming start and the non-welcoming approach continued throughout the training. As there were fourteen people attending the training this was a slow process so those at the end of the queue were unable to drink theirs as the trainer ushered them into the training room when training had to start. They were told brusquely that they were not allowed to bring food and drink into the training room, so many had to quickly throw their drinks away and wash up their cups. There was a much greater emphasis on discipline. If someone was late they were asked the reason (by office staff) for their lateness in front of everybody else even if they had apologized and even if that reason was very personal. The volunteers were not made to feel valued. It was notable at times, the volunteers were whispering to each other about the behaviour of the trainer which was thought to be the reason for the fall off in numbers.

The documentation included relevant information on the impact of crime but this was hardly covered during the training as the trainer was keen to say that the volunteers should not make assumptions about the impact of crime and minimizing the impact.

The documentation introduced a four stage model of recovery from crime but this was not mentioned in the training which included games designed to show the importance of human rights legislation, although the relevance of this was not clear. The

documentation described secondary victimization but again this was not covered in the training. The training included discussion by asking questions such as for example:

“Who thinks burglars should be locked up and the key thrown away”

This particular trainer at least, seemed to show a preference more for explaining the rights of the offender rather than saying how the victim could be helped to recover from the effects of the crime.

The documentation (which was Victim Support documentation not compiled by the trainer) also described a model for contact, listening, advice and identifying needs.

These were included in the training as the volunteers had to draw diagrams to show what they thought about these.

Documentation for the second day described confidentiality, child protection policies and practice, the Victims’ Code of Practice, Telephone and face to face support, checklist for telephone contact and a checklist for home visits, active listening and the support skills: encouraging; asking; reflecting and summarising. Of these the trainer spent a great deal of the time demonstrating active listening by playing a game where one person spends two minutes telling another about something like a holiday and then the listener has to recount to the rest of the group what was said. Much time was spent emphasizing something of which the importance could have been explained easily and quickly.

The documentation provides detailed information about the Equality Act 2010 and types of discrimination and the equality and diversity and non discriminatory practices in the areas of employment and service delivery. It also explained stereotyping and

information on hate crime. A day was spent on this detail although there is a separate course on hate crime.

Additional documentation provided gave information about the courts, trial proceedings, sentencing, vulnerable and intimidated witnesses, court code of conduct and behaviour in court – all of which was probably valuable enough for those wishing to volunteer with the court based witness service. However the trainer expressed the hope that someone in the group knew about all this as she knew nothing about it!

The documentation also provided information on harassment, ‘home visit checklist’ with health and safety guidelines for home visits, details on ‘building resilience’, family and social support and dealing with unacceptable behaviour from service users and record keeping.

Unfortunately, though not surprisingly, the consensus feeling amongst the volunteers was that they hardly felt valued. Indeed several said they had felt patronized and that the experience was like being back at school. The volunteers were not given lunch, instead the trainer directed them to a sandwich shop. These findings indicated that some organizations were more volunteer friendly than others.

Sova

The Sova staff presented a friendly and welcoming outlook to the volunteer mentors.

The project manager in interview said:

“the training was mostly about safeguarding. Adults are treated as vulnerable adults inside prison but not outside. Then, there’s a second level of safeguarding. Maybe saying worrying things may be thought of as whistle blowing. You need to be

careful. You talk to volunteers about what they might disclose and ensure that they are confident.”

The three day training was more strongly based on group discussion. As a result the trainer and other staff got to know the volunteers well especially as many of the volunteer mentors were peer mentors having been mentored by Sova themselves.

Refreshments were provided. In their documentation Sova claimed that ‘volunteers are at the heart of everything we do’ and this was certainly evident in the way they treated their trainees, and maybe the reason why people who have been helped have wanted to give something back and become mentors themselves.

Again the training in these two organizations would not have assisted the volunteers in mentoring and in particular Sova were training them to achieve ‘soft goals’ with the mentees.

Sub-question 1.3.

What is the nature of the work undertaken in practice by volunteer mentors within criminal justice?

In order to address this sub-question staff and trained volunteer mentors were asked about the tasks and duties undertaken on a typical day of volunteering with mentees.

From the responses a key finding was that the work that volunteers were recruited for was not in practice always the work that they were asked to perform. In particular, most of the work they were asked to do did not constitute mentoring in the professional sense of the word and more often than not would be better described as a mix of ‘coaching’ and providing organisational support in administrative tasks.

At the time of the fieldwork two of Asha's main financial contributors were NOMS (National Offender Management Service) and West Mercia Probation Service who had commissioned their services which included the mentoring of offenders. The origins of Asha were in providing support to women offenders but more recently this work has developed to include support work with other disadvantaged women. In fact women who are typically referred to Asha often have multiple disadvantages such as: isolation; lack of confidence; depression; phobias; domestic violence and abuse; housing issues; lone parenthood; substance misuse; lack of family support; financial problems and reliance on benefits. Many such disadvantages are well covered in the criminology and criminal justice literature on offending and desistance (Belknap, 2001; Blanchette & Shelley Lynn Brown, 2006; Campbell, 2002; Carlen, 1988; Chesney-Lind, 1986; Dowden and Andrews, 1999; Farrington and Painter, 2004; Fergusson and Horwood, 2002; Gilfus, 1992; Home Office, 2000; HMPS, 2004; Hunnicutt and Broidy, 2004; Miller, 1986) as causes of women committing offences so it is not surprising that these are tackled by Asha to help vulnerable women.

The volunteer mentors recruited by Asha are often former service users who have become service providers (or peer mentors) offering support to other women using the knowledge of how they dealt with their own experiences. At the same time these women (the peer mentors) continued contact with Asha provides continued support for them as well. As the volunteer coordinator said at interview:

“But also what I see with the mentoring service that will be provided is that, there will be a silent kind of aftercare for these women. For some of them. For the women who are mentoring, who are service users, now, instead of saying right ‘I’ve worked

with you, see you later', if any of them are interested in mentoring or volunteering then actually to me it's a silent kind of yeh uh support and reinforcement, which is good."

(AS1)

The ethos of the centre was to enable women to take control of their lives. The issues each woman has (this may be 'soft goals') may be addressed by services at the Asha Centre as well as helping them engage with other agencies for assistance. Asha also aims to raise levels of emotional competence and empower women to tackle problems that may contribute to isolation and social exclusion. Assisting with these issues might help to prevent the women reoffend.

YSS describes the work undertaken by their volunteers in its Enhanced Support for Supervision (ESS) programme as mentoring, support, advice and guidance and help with transport. It might be suggested though that support, advice and guidance is incorporated within mentoring. YSS have a strategic partnership with West Mercia Probation Trust who have commissioned YSS to develop a service to target groups of offenders most at risk of reoffending. The purpose of YSS is to support probation in reducing reoffending rates by increasing the level of engagement by targeted offender groups with their supervision or licence requirements. It is not a specified activity but a support service. The Offender Managers are responsible for identifying the eligibility and suitability of individuals who are on a prison licence or community order, who may have complex needs and who have a degree of motivation to change. The volunteer mentor will see the mentee for at least an hour/week. In practice the YSS volunteer coordinator who was also a volunteer mentor said:

“Well it’s a consultative process...the offender manager knows what goals need to be achieved for the client and that is outlined on the referral and we will sometimes put our own goals on there.” (VSS4)

And the key workers (paid staff who may previously have been volunteers) comments were:

Quite often when you sit down and talk to people and they’re given an opportunity to say ‘Oh! And this needs sorting out, and this is a problem’, probation officers don’t always have the time to hear something that is not directly linked to their offending. It’s not always something that it’s the probation officers’ responsibility to address, but certainly if it’s an interaction between mentor and key worker and their client, they tend to open up and divulge everything that needs sorting and then it’s about us trying to identify which is priority and which isn’t and influence things accordingly really.” (YSSS3)

The YSS Pathways Accommodation Mentoring (PAM) is a mentoring project for people in the criminal justice system who are having difficulties in either sustaining or obtaining suitable accommodation. The project offers intensive one to one mentoring support through dedicated key workers and/or a team of volunteer mentors and tailored to the needs of the individual. Here is an example of the work offered by one YSS volunteer:

“I don’t see the clients in prison before they come out which is a shame. There is such a problem with administration. They could do with seeing someone while they are still inside who could help them to find accommodation. I don’t know who helps them

fill in the forms but for example, one of my clients came out on licence, then they go to probation, then to YSS, then referred to a volunteer. It can be 2-3 months after they leave prison before they see you. So this one I'm thinking about, I checked up on his housing application and found out Shrewsbury Council won't consider applications from prison. Of course that will vary all over the country but it's a shame the prison didn't know as so much time was wasted. I've found they often depend on their mates when they come out and sofa surf till they get a place, but all their mates may be offenders too and on drugs and drink so that doesn't help. One client I had, had a condition that he mustn't go near the area where his friends lived but he had nowhere else to go, so the police caught him twice and he had to go back in for 2 x 6 weeks, back in prison for breach. But what could he do?" (YSSV5)

Another example of help provided by a YSS volunteer was summarized as follows:

"I had a client, a 41 year old on licence. He had been a construction worker but he had done his back in over the years. I managed to get his accommodation and housing benefit. That was a real success. I've been trying to help him find a job but there are only temporary jobs for 1-2 weeks and if he took them he would lose his benefits, housing benefits and would have to apply all over again. One good thing though is that he can't drink because he can't afford to. I think they appreciate that you are a volunteer and that you don't get paid and do it because you want to help them."
(YSSV10)

Sova aims to help people steer clear of crime by making sure they make better choices so they can stay out of trouble and build better lives. They say their volunteers use their skills, experience and passion for making a difference to change people's lives for

the better. They give up their time to be there for people who find themselves in difficult situations, letting them know they have someone who is on their side during tough times. The volunteer mentors are asked to spend about an hour a week with their mentee. They usually mentor someone for 4 weeks. A peer mentor commented on his volunteer mentoring:

“We usually only mentor for 4 weeks. We help with things like finding housing but we can also be a friend a buddy. I think 4 weeks can be enough, it depends what they need. But it’s mentoring, they can’t get dependant, but we can do it for another 4 weeks if necessary.” (SV4)

This is how the Sova Project Manager describes the volunteer mentoring:

“We are contracted to work with 16 plus community or coming out of custody. We work around pathways for preventing re-offending. We help them with whatever they want help with, it could be housing, access to children. We don’t do any clinical, no drugs work but we help with education and employment. They may not be anywhere near getting a job so we aim to calm the chaos in their lives down. We’re required by local authorities to use volunteers. We have an adult project here in Birmingham. It’s a paid mentor model with intensive intervention. It’s better for targets. Sometimes the outcomes with mentors may be soft targets like helping with forms. We’ve got a ‘cream and park’ system which is cream off those near targets and park the rest. With the payment by results model we have to get results quickly.” (SS1)

Victim Support’s literature claims it is built on volunteers and without them they couldn’t continue to do all the positive work for victims and witnesses of crime in the

UK. Volunteers, it is said outnumber staff in Victim Support by nearly five to one suggesting a significant reliance on volunteers of which there are around 5,500. On their website Victim Support specifically asks for student volunteers. This is what a Victim Support volunteer said she did:

“I think I have something to offer to society, offering help and support. It’s rewarding and satisfying. It’s the feedback I get from clients when they’re recovering their lifestyle, wellbeing and security. (VSV1)

Moreover this is how a member of staff described the work done by Victim Support in supporting victims of crime:

“They may need help with extra security or personal alarms or criminal injury compensation forms. We handle their claims for them so they don’t have to go to a solicitor. We liaise with housing and social services, if people are at risk. We refer to other agencies. We offer emotional support, how it affects them and their families, empower them to make decisions to go forward. We question the police on their behalf for updates on the case. If they need long term support, we can refer them for counselling. (VSS4)

Another Victim Support volunteer described his work as follows:

“The main thing is emotional support. Some want advice on home and personal security. Others may want advice on compensation claims or they may want help with letters to help them get re-housed. We rarely get asked about other services. We’re not involved. Women’s Aid help the victims of domestic violence with the other services.” (VSV1)

7.3: Findings in Relation to the Second Research Question.

The second research question asked about the potential for a more significant contribution by volunteer mentors in criminal justice and was approached by considering three sub-questions the first of which asked what we know of ‘best practice’ and the potential high standards of volunteer mentoring within criminal justice. The second question asked what added value the volunteer mentors can offer in criminal justice and the third asked about the key constraints on realizing the potential of volunteer mentoring in criminal justice in practice.

The first sub-question draws on the standards achieved in mentoring outside criminal justice looking at the literature (Chapter 3) and the researcher attended and observed a general mentoring course at university level in order to compare ‘best practice’ in mentoring training with the training provided in mentoring in organizations who are providing mentoring as a service in the criminal justice system. The training given in the four case study organizations were considered as a whole to establish whether the standards of training for volunteer mentors in criminal justice would need to be improved. This is described in details in Chapter 8 which discusses the key findings.

Having established with the findings what the volunteers are doing and finding that this is not mentoring then answering the second sub question about added value begs the question whether the volunteers should be mentoring in criminal justice or do short intensive coaching or help with administrative tasks which would require less training and less commitment. This is discussed further in Chapter 8 and Chapter 9.

The third sub-question which asks about the key constraints on realizing the potential of volunteer mentoring in criminal justice in practice is answered in part by considering one of the main themes of the analysis which was the attitudes of staff to volunteers but also constraints such as the compulsory nature of the mentoring in criminal justice is not conducive to successful mentoring as described in Chapters 3 and 4. These constraints are described further in Chapter 8 which discusses the key findings of the research and in Chapter 9.

This chapter includes some of the relevant data which would especially contribute to an understanding in answering the third sub-question, especially expressing the attitudes of staff to volunteers.

The following key worker was reluctant to hand work over to volunteers except for work on soft goals for short periods:

“We’ve got to be very careful to protect volunteer mentors, because although I’ve said, we’ve all got to do a lot of homework and none of us know the answer to everything, I think there has to be an understanding that we’ve got to be constantly aware that mentors are not professionals, they are not paid members of staff and therefore don’t have the same responsibility or the same level of understanding perhaps as a member of staff who’s been working in this field for a significant period of time.

We have some amazing mentors, who have a great understanding of what they’re doing and actually if a paid position came up they wouldn’t be far off getting a paid job.”

(YSSS3)

Staff said they were obliged to use volunteers:

“I would describe at Sova as desistance work and independent visitors. We’re required by local authorities to use volunteers.” (SV1)

The requirements of the funding especially ‘payments by results’ may mean the volunteers do not get the chance to mentor as they would wish.

“We’ve got a ‘cream and park’ system which is cream off those near targets and park the rest. We have the payment by results model, we have to get results quickly. The SFO is 70:30. The 70 is to pay staff.” (SV1)

The staff expressed concern at the possibility of volunteers getting into a difficult situation as a reason to not use them:

“We do turn people down as volunteers. It’s not that we’re not grateful they want to volunteer but there could be a difficult situation that they can’t cope with. It can be a lot to ask of a volunteer.” (SV1)

The volunteer tended to mentor those considered a low level on risk assessment and the higher level offenders were seen by key workers:

“I tend to get the lower level ones with volunteers, the higher ones tend to go to key workers, who work on their own with them, because of the risks or the complex needs, but ...volunteers tend to do 2:1, 2:2 which is lower levels and key workers tend to do 3 and 4.” (YSSS2)

“We determine the risk level and the high risk to staff not volunteers. We don’t give emotional support, we work with MURAC to keep women safe.” (VSS5)

Even though the volunteers may receive a high level of training the staff may still be reluctant to use them:

“It’s policy for qualified IDVA staff to deal with the domestic violence. It’s general policy to use volunteers for low level crime although I know they are trained to deal with victims of high risk crimes including homicide, assaults and sexual assaults.”

(VSS4)

Senior staff may be reluctant to use volunteers except for work experience purposes:

“We need to veer away from our usual volunteers and provide work experience for the unemployed.” (VSS1)

Some staff were satisfied for staff to do work rather than recruit and train volunteers:

“We might get volunteers. We have a hate crime worker at the moment. We aim to get volunteers but we’d need to train them.” (VSS8)

If there is no work seeing victims they may be asked to do office work:

“On emotional support we’ve got it right. We could do more in practical support. The needs are varied. A member of staff does a risk assessment and the victims of more serious offences go to staff. We have volunteers here ready to support victims but if no one come in they help by doing some of our research, telephoning victims who have been to see us for feedback.” (VSS9)

CHAPTER SUMMARY

The findings from observation/participation in the training programmes for volunteers at the four cases highlighted in particular the significance of the capabilities and calibre

of the individual trainer as much as the formal content and syllabus of the training itself in determining the quality of the overall training experience and volunteer reactions to it. It was apparent that trainers tended to follow their own personal themes and areas of special interest to them rather than following any particular schema or research-based text on mentoring. Indeed, the near absence of citations or references to the (considerable) published literature on mentoring in the training provided only served to underline the general feeling that such programmes were in no real sense doing much more than organizational induction – certainly they could not properly be described as ‘development programmes for volunteer mentors’.

The attitudes of the training staff towards their trainees was also found to be particularly significant in shaping volunteers perspectives on the training – with some volunteers expressing some disillusionment at what they saw as the negative attitudes displayed, and especially at the failure to make them feel appreciated, and commenting that others in the groups had decided after the first day not to continue with the training.

The findings from this research on the nature of work undertaken by volunteers mentors at all the four case study organisations did not easily correspond with the work commissioned of the organisations or for which the volunteers understood that had been recruited, at least as indicated in the adverts and job description details to which they had responded. Indeed most of the volunteers interviewed felt they were given little opportunity to do the kind of work they had expected and still were keen to do notably in providing emotional support and mentoring clients.

The following Chapter describes and discusses the seven key findings of the research which respond to the research questions underpinning this thesis.

CHAPTER 8

Key Findings and their Implications

This chapter focuses on what are considered to be the key findings of this thesis on the one hand, highlighting the gap between how mentoring is regarded and applied in

practice within criminal justice (as compared with how it is understood in the generic academic and professional literature on mentoring and as practiced by specialist mentors professionals – and as discussed in Chapter 3) and, on the other, in assessing the potential for and impacts of volunteers undertaking such work within criminal justice.

8.1 The Seven Key Findings of the Research

The seven key findings from this research based on the four case-study organisations can be summarized as follows:

1. Volunteering (in the case-study organisations) is undertaken equally by young people as by older people.
2. It is advantageous for volunteer-based organisations to seek to maximize diversity in their volunteer forces, particularly in relation to age, gender and ethnicity, to ensure they have the resources to match the diverse needs and expectations of their mentees with there being particular benefits and limitations of different mentors to match the needs of different mentees. For example short term volunteers would not be suitable for long term mentoring.
3. Volunteers (in the case-study organizations) may be recruited as mentors but are more commonly deployed as unpaid assistants for a significant proportion of their time on a range of clerical and administrative duties.
4. The training of volunteer mentors (in the case-study organizations) tends to be hardly different from basic organizational induction, with relatively little attention devoted to the principles or skills of mentoring.

5. A further constraint on realizing the potential of volunteer mentors (in the case-study organizations) in criminal justice is the unduly negative attitude of the paid professional staff, who as their supervisors, often fail to empower them or show interest in their development as mentor practitioners.
6. Understanding and appreciation of the underpinning principles and good practice skills of mentoring is only weakly developed (in the case-study organisations) in criminal justice and this is a major constraint on realization of the potential of mentoring.
7. Resource constraints in the current climate of public sector financial austerity is now a further obstacle (in the case-study organisations) to realization of the potential of mentoring in criminal justice, even with reliance on volunteers.

8.1.1 A New Cadre of Volunteers? Are the traditional volunteers being replaced by younger volunteers?

The first key finding was that the younger volunteers in the research were an equal number to the older more traditional volunteer. The Volunteer Development Agency in 2007 found that the age groups 20-34 and over 75 were the least likely of all groups to take part in formal volunteering but half of the volunteers in this research were in that younger age group. Increasing levels of volunteering among those who have no educational qualifications was a key New Labour target in England (Rochester et al, 2010). Although it is reported that older volunteers are most likely to receive greater benefits from volunteering (CNCS, 2007) in the 1980's despite the ageing population, older people were under represented as volunteers as only 12% of the regular volunteers were 65 or over (Social and Community Planning Research, (SCPR, 2007)). In 1992 Hedley and Smith argued that organisations needed to widen the base from

which they recruited volunteers in order to more fully reflect the heterogeneous nature of society. In May, 2006 Prime Minister, Tony Blair, included in his list of key challenges for the government the need to increase overall levels of volunteering across all age ranges and backgrounds (Blair, 2006). The Coalition Government also targeted some of the groups that New Labour selected as priorities, that is young people and the over 60's (Jordan, 2010). In view of this it was an interesting key finding in this research that the volunteers were roughly equally divided into these two groups.

The volunteers were certainly regarded as a 'human resource', with formal management and the work undertaken by the volunteers who were recruited for specific roles involving selection, induction and training as discussed in the literature by Rochester et al. (2010). The motivation for volunteering was altruistic. The thematic analysis of the four organizations studied in this thesis highlighted two main groups of volunteers, distinguished largely by age. The first group were largely more mature volunteers, mostly retired, who wanted to occupy their time in a way that would be of benefit to others. Sometimes these people volunteered for more than one organisation. As described in Chapter 2 attitudes to volunteering have changed in recent decades (Hall, 1989). Involvement in volunteering, being seen as important for the proper functioning of society (Decker & Halman, 2003), may describe why many of these more mature volunteers would say it is right to volunteer and they may have been influenced by the issues that have gained momentum in recent years stressing the importance of voluntary civic engagement for the development and maintenance of civilized societal cohesion and political democracy. One volunteer who, although critical of the Prime Minister's 'Big Society' ideas, nevertheless considered it worthwhile to volunteer. It may be that many of them are altruistic as discussed in

Chapter 2 as many of these volunteers gave the main reason for their volunteering as 'wanting to help', wanting to help people through a difficult emotional time or wanted to help offenders to stop offending and help them with those things in life that will put them on the right path such as finding accommodation and work and a mentor would be able to talk about relationships with them if they wished to. That is, helping the mentees with those problems or difficulties which are also described in the literature as the needs that offenders have and why they offend (Blanchette and Lynn Brown, 2006; Andrews and Bonta, 2003; Clancy, Hudson, Maguire, Peake, Raynor, Vanstone and Kynch, 2006; Glueck and Glueck, 1937; Laub and Sampson, 2003; Bottoms and Shapland, 2011).

Chapter two discussed how the participation in voluntarism was being affected by the values held by the individuals that volunteer and the values held at a collective level in the society in which they live which Halman and de Moor (1994) defined as deeply rooted dispositions guiding people to act and behave in a certain way. This may offer some explanation as to why the first group of volunteers do what they do.

The analysis of the groups of volunteers in this research show that there is another category of volunteers in the voluntary sector indeed a senior manager in one of the organizations said they should be encouraged in preference to the first group. The younger group of volunteers the vast majority of whom were doing the volunteering to gain work experience to put on their curriculum vitae in order to enable them to gain employment as their primary purpose, although some also said that they wanted to help in any case. This was especially evident in the case of peer mentors who had been helped themselves. In one organisation (Sova) the project manager said that they were

disinclined to recruit young students but they were still eager to recruit the young peer mentors seeking work experience and there was evidence of some success with this as one of the volunteers had found a job and there was the expectation that others would be successful. A large national organisation like Victim Support, had differing views. Although the majority of the volunteers interviewed were students, in another city the regional manager did not want to recruit too many students as they were only there in term time and were only volunteering for a short period and she saw this as a waste of time and money in training them. Government may encourage young people getting work experience at a time of high youth unemployment, certainly a guest speaker at the Sova offices from the Department of Work and Pensions gave this advice to the volunteer mentors:

“employers like to see that prospective employee has work experience, they like to see that you are getting up in the morning and getting somewhere on time, not staying home in bed. That matters more than the actual work you’re doing.”

This may have disadvantages for the mentoring in that these young people may not have the experience of the older mentor but they are receiving a short training and a 2 or 3 day in-house training may not be that expensive. There can be advantages and disadvantages to using young volunteer mentors. The young students may be an inspiration to an offender or someone whose life is blighted by being a victim, or their mentee may feel they do not have the ability or opportunities to ever reach such heights and it could cause jealousy.

It was often said that mentees attended once or twice and then didn't come again unless they had to as part of their community order or licence. This was disheartening for

those mentors. Mentors often said that mentees were pleased that they were a volunteer and doing this because they wanted to help and not for money but if they realize that a mentor is doing it for another purpose like improving their curriculum vitae and treating it like a work placement that may be seen as them doing it for their own advantage, not because they want to help. The peer mentors however were different; they had been where the mentee now was and were now achieving in a way that that the mentee could see themselves achieving too, in a realistic way, by being helped to find accommodation and a job by a peer mentor who was friendly and wanted to help might make it achievable. The mature mentors in this study were aware of what they could reasonably achieve in the time allotted:

“I don’t expect quick results when trying to help people. I don’t expect that they will come off the drugs and drink. It’s a long process so you can’t really measure that success and I don’t think the volunteers should expect to, but I try to make their lives a bit better than they are at the moment, and don’t expect too much and don’t look too far in the future. The more experience of life the volunteer has the better, to help with things like finding a place for them to live, applying for housing benefit. I’m not sure how helpful a young volunteer might be.” (YSSV11)

The mature mentors were mostly proud of their success with mentees, several times the mature mentors would say the younger mentees were the hardest to mentor and were the ones who would not turn up to appointments.

Twenty four out of the forty eight volunteers interviewed in this research were volunteering in order to gain work experience. As previously suggested this may have been because they are being encouraged to do this by colleges, universities, job centres

but it may also be the case that the older volunteers were becoming less inclined to volunteer and so were decreasing in number. This may be due to the economic situation in the UK at the moment and older people either needing to or being encouraged to work longer than they would otherwise have done. With interest rates low, people of retirement age cannot rely on income from savings to the same extent as they could before the recession. It might also be the case that volunteers are being made to feel unwanted and less valued, if the way they were treated by one organisation in this research is replicated in other organisations and also with the professionalization by staff of work volunteers would once have done. If volunteers are not given the work to do in the organizations that they were expecting to do and trained for, they do not have to waste their time as they are not being paid and so are free to stop at any time.

The literature discussed in Chapter 2 indicated that many people volunteer because of their values on injustice, inequality or religious beliefs. Nobody in this research specifically said that they were volunteering because of their religious beliefs but there were many people concerned with injustice and social injustice and that was a factor in why they were volunteering. Macionis and Plummer (1998) described four sets of key values that may have a significant impact on volunteering. Certainly their first principle of altruism or beneficence based on the moral imperative of compassion or care for other people was evident in this research especially amongst the mature volunteers as a reason for volunteering. There was also evidence of their fourth principle that the values of equity and social justice are based on the belief that inequality and injustice are morally and socially wrong and should be addressed or eliminated. This principle was shared also by the younger volunteers but not generally as a reason for volunteering. For many of the younger volunteers who were

volunteering for self-help to further their chances of obtaining work, may have been aware of social injustice but did not mention it as a reason for volunteering. One young volunteer who would, after training, have been offering sympathy to victims nevertheless was defending burglars, saying forcefully that they are not bad people. She was doing a course in which she was taught that crime occurred as a result of social injustice but she showed no sympathy towards the victims. Perhaps someone with more experience and understanding would realize that, that may not be what a victim whose life was shattered by their home being burgled, so that they were afraid to be in their own home, would want to hear. The younger volunteers who were volunteering for work experience and so predominantly for their own gain may be influenced by Norman's (2010) ideas that as a society humans are basically economic, rather than social animals, that their behaviour is motivated and explained by self interest and the desire for gain and is this receiving cultural reinforcement by these volunteers being encouraged to volunteer for these reasons.

Compassion was identified in Chapter 2 as being a reason for volunteering both at the personal level and at a collective level as part of the 'Big Society' the view being that people are naturally compassionate and compassion gives purpose to our lives and as such is deeply psychologically rewarding. Many of the volunteers talked of their feelings of compassion towards the people they had mentored or would be mentoring. This was especially evident amongst the more mature volunteers although also evident amongst the peer mentors, many of whom were young, who wanted to give something back and help someone else in the same way as they had been helped. Nobody said that they were volunteering because they believed in the 'Big Society' and the staff

were more inclined to mention the contribution volunteers make to the community than the volunteers.

The volunteers were not asked specifically about their income or socio-economic status but many of the mature volunteers indicated that they were retired and did not need to work and that they had previously worked in responsible jobs. The literature discussed in Chapter 2 also included the recognition more recently that there were benefits to volunteering such as health benefits, positive feelings, lower rates of depression and sense of purpose. The volunteers were not specifically asked about these benefits but all the volunteers showed a sense of purpose and were very positive and a general feeling of contentment amongst them, and it would be interesting to ask more specific questions in future research. No evidence was identified of social relationships and friendships being a factor in whether people volunteered except in the case of the young Asian girls who preferred to be accompanied by a friend. Volunteers were not accompanied by family members in this research.

8.2 The Benefits and Limitations of Reliance on Two Categories of Volunteers.

Rhodes et al. (1992) describes a mentor as more experienced and often older in the hope that the mentor can provide guidance, advice and encouragement that helps to develop the character of the mentee. As it was recognized that the younger volunteers would not be providing their services for very long, probably only until they had a job or finished their college or university this has implications for the number of volunteers being trained and the costs of training. There are also implications for volunteer

mentoring as longer term mentors would gain from their experience as a mentor and the more mature volunteer may have a greater life experience to bring to the mentoring for the benefit of the mentee. A short term mentor would also mean the length of the mentoring relationships may have to be shorter than would be desired of mentoring. It is of course beneficial for those undergoing training, or looking for work to benefit from work experience and it may be expected of those organizations receiving government finance either directly or indirectly, to be obliged to offer this as a service to the students or unemployed, but there is also a need for the mentee not to be disadvantaged by this arrangement. Those short term volunteers would be useful if they were only trained to work with people in the criminal justice system wishing to achieve short term goals often referred to as 'soft goals' such as help with the filling out of forms, drafting curriculum vitas, applying for benefits, finding accommodation and applying for jobs. These tasks would hardly be hampered by the volunteer only being available to spend a short time with those people requiring their help and may be described as coaching rather than mentoring and only require a short and inexpensive training. This would not have to only be available for the short term volunteers as some more mature older volunteers might prefer this type of work. Those volunteers interested in a more long term volunteering which would enable them to mentor could have a more in depth training. As can be judged from the information from the published literature in Chapter 3 (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 2005) mentoring requires a great deal of knowledge of the models and especially of the techniques that can be used for successful mentoring. It may not be possible for these organizations in criminal justice to train volunteers for this purpose. These possibilities could be explained to the volunteer when they are at the recruitment stage so they understand the

level of commitment that would be involved in mentoring, coaching and helping with administrative tasks. This may be affected also not just by the length of time they have available but how much time each week that they can offer, as the mentoring relationship would require much more of the mentor's time. Making this distinction in services would clarify the services on offer.

In this research the older volunteers did typically claim to have more time to spare as they were often retired or staying at home without the ties of paid employment. Their desire to volunteer (for altruistic reasons), to help people may also help to reduce the possibility of mentor 'burn-out' as described in the literature in Chapter 4 (Grossman and Rhodes, 2002) where the mentor gives up on the mentoring relationship before the mentee is ready to which can disappoint the mentee and be damaging. A person acting out of altruism may be more sympathetic to all the problems a mentee has and how this can make them behave. Older volunteers in this research recognized that it can take time for a mentee to change their lives. A mature mentor's knowledge and understanding of the world can give the mentee the wisdom they may be lacking and encourage them to make changes. One possible limitation of volunteers is that they are part time and so spend less time doing the work involved. The importance of mentoring is that the mentor has the time to spend with the mentee and for the organization to allow them to do so and not to hold such short restrictive time limits for the mentoring. Gurr, (2011) advises that the mentor needs to be dedicated, persistent and use common sense. These are not traits necessarily associated only with working full time.

The mentors were mostly proud of their success with mentees, several times the older mentors would say the younger mentees were the hardest to mentor and were the ones who would not turn up. The student mentors would benefit from the work experience but perhaps matched to someone who would benefit from their assistance, perhaps if they only needed help with a 'soft goal' like helping them in practical ways e.g. with form filling.

The mentor's experience can contribute. Someone who has been a victim themselves can provide empathetic support for a victim who is still feeling the emotional effects of victimization. Is it enough to have a compassionate nature? Staff may never have been a victim either so there is no reason why they should be a better support in that way compared to volunteers.

Peer mentors are especially useful to a mentee. In this research the peer mentor was not necessarily somebody who was the same age as the mentee but somebody who had had similar experiences and had possibly been mentored themselves. Peer mentors can be an inspiration to the mentee, showing the mentee that what they have achieved, the mentee can also achieve. This may be some large or maybe small change in their life that has enabled them to go from the person receiving and benefitting from the service, to someone providing the service. Several examples of peer mentors were highlighted in this research and they had the advantage as a mentor, that they believed the mentee knew they would understand their problems. Peer mentoring was positively encouraged in two of the organisations observed in this research one involving both men and women (Sova) and the other just women (Asha).

It has been reported as a theme in this research that the volunteers felt the mentees appreciated the fact that they were volunteers and not helping them for money, but because they wanted to help. This would be more significant for those involved in long term mentoring rather than the short term soft goal achievement. The mentee might regard someone doing mentoring for their career interest in just the same way as someone doing it for money so that it might be better for that reason also if the work experience volunteers only helped with the short term goal achievement where the motivation of the volunteer would not be such an issue in that short relationship, where they do not have time to get to know each other that well. Although peer mentors would have an advantage as understanding mentors, they were often young in this study and so may prefer to do the short soft goal achieving work which they did say they received satisfaction from, if they do not have the time to spare to mentor.

8.3 The Nature of the Volunteer Contribution: How Much Mentoring?

A third key finding of this research concerned the nature of the work undertaken by the volunteers. What was expected of them and were they being allowed to do all that they could do and were being trained to do. Volunteers in the interviews, helping an offender were aware of their disadvantages in life that may have led them to offend. This may also be the case for victims and the organisations in this research may say they wish to put victims 'back on track' but they are actually helping them to recover from the crime because, in the majority of cases the police had referred the victim to them in relation to a crime report. In the interviews more than anything, Victim Support volunteers were offering the victim, emotional support as this is what they thought was needed most. The volunteers found this the most satisfying part of the work they did. However often, the victim really wanted practical help with filling out

forms for criminal injury compensation or help with housing applications to move house. The volunteers also raised money in order to have a small fund to help victims with practical support like window locks and door locks as money did not come from central funding for these purposes. Many members of staff spoken to worked with other agencies like MURAC to do quite different work, not to offer emotional support to victims but 'to protect women'. There were several cases of the staff preferring to allocate staff rather than volunteers to work with victims of what they assessed as more serious crime, usually domestic violence and hate crime. This often left the volunteers without work and sitting with nothing to do or helping with office work or research, making phone calls. Those volunteers that did get a chance to talk to victims, and this depended greatly on the area and the attitudes of management in that area, felt happy to have helped victims with their emotional turmoil. As volunteers are trained to deal with victims of serious crime, the organisation expected them to deal with them but in practice, the size of the organisation makes it difficult to direct what is being done in all areas of the country.

It is probation who referred the offenders on to the organisations who were mentoring offenders, either directly or indirectly. The probation offender managers made a request for work to be done with the offender on the goals they wish to achieve although some staff and volunteers said this can change when they speak to the offender themselves and see what they need. They may agree in the first meeting with the assistance of the volunteer coordinator what they wish to achieve, and what goals they need to achieve, such as drafting a curriculum vitae, making a job application or filling out application forms for benefits. But this achievement of goals often described by all the organisations dealing with offenders, as 'soft goals' would not be

described as mentoring by many experts in mentoring especially due to the very limited time periods for working with offenders. Some volunteers however, thought that 4 weeks was adequate to achieve goals. A senior staff member interviewed thought a few weeks was adequate:

'I mean if you can achieve one of the little goals on their action plan. They have an action plan to work to, we always say if you can achieve one thing or something small, then that can lead on to something big, so we're not aiming for high stuff but if they are looking to get accommodation, get them onto application forms for housing, get them to make sure they've got the right benefits in place, then that's a big help towards the process. Getting a CV done to get into jobs, you know, get them onto college course, but we know that we're not going to achieve everything that we want to achieve, so it's being smart really and being realistic...we always say, you know to the volunteers, don't set your goals too high, but they are clear on that' (YSSS2)

Mentoring requires time to develop and it would be difficult to establish this in a few weeks where they may only be seen for only 45 minutes or where required for an hour per week. In some cases this was also due to lack of space. It was also affected in some cases by payment by results as the organization required a quick turnover, as they would need to be paid in order to pay wages. This may become more of an issue or problem this year as more payment by results are expected to be introduced with the re-organization of probation services. Sometimes the reason was given that the mentoring should be restricted to a few weeks because there was a danger of the mentee becoming dependant on the mentor. If the right training and precautions are taken for mentoring

this should not occur. If this did appear to be occurring, this would be apparent in the monitoring of mentoring and changes can be made, perhaps even a change of mentor. Even the organisation which allowed mentoring to go on to 26 weeks, wanted to see the definite end of the relationship as they were worried about what could happen between mentor and mentee and their resulting liability.

There was some differences between staff as to how fixed the length of the mentoring was. Some staff said it would be fixed at 6 weeks but other staff in the same organisation thought that this could be altered according to the needs of the mentee, which some said would not be realized until the volunteer mentor, mentee and volunteer coordinator met for their initial meeting to discuss the goals the mentee hoped to achieve from the mentoring. Although probation may have given an account of what they wanted to see achieved, some staff and volunteers thought it would be possible to change this. Volunteers in the organisation that allowed 4 weeks for mentoring, although generally thinking this was enough said that they thought it could be lengthened for another 4 weeks if necessary, but this would still be considered a short period of mentoring as 4 weeks is really only 4 hours.

As discussed in Chapter 4 the Ministry of Justice (2008) said some research suggests longer mentoring periods may be optimal in terms of reducing reoffending. The Newburn and Shiner (2005) study was 10-12 months with weekly contact and a total mentoring time of 572 hours. Jolliffe and Farrington (2007) found that the beneficial benefits of mentoring on reoffending were limited to the time period when mentoring was taking place. Grossman and Rhodes (2002) found the most successful mentoring relationships lasted 15 months on average. They found mentoring relationships lasting

less than 3 months could be damaging to young people especially if it is the mentor who gives up after forming a bond with them. Newburn and Shiner (2005) described the intensive type of mentoring during probation or when the mentee was on parole as the most effective but again there may have been different ideas of what mentoring is and they may have been describing the short term goal attainment found in this research more akin to coaching than mentoring.

The shortness of the mentoring relationships adopted by the organizations observed in this research may be difficult for them to change, to giving a more established way of mentoring due to the pressures of funding. The volunteer mentors were not being given the opportunity to develop a longer mentoring relationship. They may be successful in achieving some goals but this may only happen if the mentee wants it to. If an offender is not yet ready to change their lifestyle the literature suggests that they may benefit from long term mentoring.

One organisation (Sova) was arranged differently as probation did not refer offenders directly:

“We are funded by NOMS. The mentees don’t come straight from probation, they come through Pertemps. Yes they’re sub-contracting. It makes it more expensive. Sensible isn’t it giving Pertemps their 10% or whatever....there’s an action plan with the mentee. The Pertemps coach, case manage it. We communicate with the coaches at Pertemps. We don’t currently case manage, we support the contracts.”

This disconnection with probation, by having an organisation in the middle, may mean that all the information that may be required to help the offender may be lost and the

decisions about what is required by the mentee decided by the mentee themselves together with their mentor but restricted by what the sub-contracted organisation are able and willing to offer, especially with the possible problems of delivering fast results as previously mentioned in the payment by results system. Some success was shown by the use of peer mentors, achieving and wanting to help others so it would suggest there is a place for this service even if it does not resemble mentoring as described in the literature in Chapter 3.

8.4 Mentor Training Programmes or Organisational Induction Programmes?

The fourth key finding concerned the structure and content of the mentoring training. How well were the volunteers prepared for mentoring? All four of the case study organisations provided some training for their volunteers. They did not tend to include what the mentors would be doing with the mentee, except in one case where the training was mainly focused on how to achieve 'soft goals'. They concentrated more on giving information about the organisation, mentoring skills and qualities in particular listening skills and in every case being non judgemental was emphasized strongly, and advising the mentor on safeguarding, how not to get into difficulties with advice about where they should meet, (somewhere public, certainly never in each others' homes), whether they should give their phone numbers (not advised), not to talk about where they live or other personal details and advice although they did all say that the mentoring relationship should have a definite end. Two organisations emphasized this, the volunteer coordinator saying they wanted to protect themselves and not be held responsible for anything that might happen after the mentoring had ended. One volunteer coordinator said that if the mentoring went on to be a friendship she wouldn't be told:

“We do have kind of things in place right from the offset so that mentor and mentee understand that it is a mentoring relationship and there comes a time when that does end. But you know that’s our responsibility as an organisation and as a service. They sign the agreement. Whether or not something happens behind closed doors, maybe a friendship is created or whatever, I won’t know about that because they won’t tell me, so from our side, from our responsibility, we make sure that there is an end because if something horrible happens, then we could be liable.” (ASI)

In Chapter 3 there is a discussion of the diversity of activities and intensity of support that may be provided in mentoring. The help required by a mentee will vary enormously between individuals. This can make the training of a mentor difficult. Chapter 3 explores the concepts, theoretical underpinnings, different models and applications in practice, training of mentors and the skills and techniques that form the core subject matter of mentoring training and development programmes in preparing mentors for practice. This should ideally form the basis for mentoring training in criminal justice. The mentoring training of the four case study organisations was compared to observations drawn from a masters level course in coaching and mentoring aimed at large and small business organisations. The training offered in the case study organisations, although varying in quality, did not include any teaching of these mentoring skills and techniques. The training of the case studies did show similarities to each other and were thought by the trainers to be fit for the purposes of their organisation. None of the training courses included the study of mentoring models. There was supporting documentation for training which was standard documentation for one organisation (Victim Support) but the training was adapted by the local trainer,

and the quality of the training therefore affected. A larger organisation although wanting to achieve conformity in their training may achieve different adaptations of the training in different places. Although the trainer of one of the organisations was inadequate, a volunteer trained by the same organisation in a different area to the one observed in this research was very pleased with the training he received:

“The training is very comprehensive. There’s a core training then special training for all types of crime. Also there’s advanced training for more serious crimes.”
(VSVI).

The training of one organisation (Sova) concentrated on discussion with the guidance of a trainer concentrating on the skills and qualities of the trainer, how to motivate and raise the self esteem of the mentee but unlike the training of the other organisations it concentrated heavily on the ways the mentee could be helped by looking at outcomes and how they can be achieved, for example telling the volunteers other agencies that can help and the procedure for contacting them. The mentoring of this organisation was short at 4 weeks but very focused on achieving certain goals especially soft goals. This was dictated by the need for quick results due to Payment by Results (Home Office, 2013). This may have suited the needs of this organization but maybe 4 weeks was too short, certainly some volunteer mentors thought that they needed longer to achieve their goals. The project manager said the training was mostly about safeguarding and that was also emphasized strongly in the other training settings where the mentors had contact with offenders.

The length of the training varied from 1 ½ days to 5 days and in all cases was tailored to what was needed by that organisation. One organisation (Asha) included in its

documentation some of the theory underlying mentoring but this was not mentioned in any of the training sessions and only one organisation said what was required specifically from the mentoring and advice given to help the mentors achieve this with their mentees but again that was short term goals. There was little advice in any of the training sessions about the ideal structure of a mentoring relationship and what would happen at each stage. This may be because due to finances, or this decision being made by someone else such as probation or pressures of Payment by Results the mentors and the volunteer coordinators and mentees had very little choice in decisions about the mentoring. This was unfortunate as it gave the mentoring a rigid form, but may have also have been due to lack of understanding of what mentoring is.

The definition of a mentor in Chapter 3 could be adapted for best practice in the criminal justice system. Certainly both a victim and an offender would need a guide and adviser who they could feel is on their side. Sharing insights and practical experience may only be available to mentees being mentored by those mentors with more experience themselves or peer mentors where there is a degree of mutuality. These mentors would also be better able to see “the big picture” and be acceptable as role models. In time, when the mentoring relationship has been established, the mentor might encourage offenders to assume a more responsible lifestyle and encourage the victim to return to their previous lifestyle. All case study organisations were able to direct people on to other agencies for specific help when required.

An example of a mentoring model which could be taught on these courses, which was observed on the general mentoring course was the Skilled Helper Model of mentoring. This is a 3stage model or framework (Egan, 1998) which is used as a tool in mentoring

in helping people to solve problems and develop opportunities. The goals of using the model are to help people

'to manage their problems in living more effectively and develop unused opportunities more fully...to help people become better at helping themselves in their everyday lives' (Egan, 1998 p.7-8)

This widely used model is not based on a particular theory of personality development, nor on a theory of the ways difficulties develop. It is a framework for conceptualizing the helping process, and is best used in working on issues in the recent past and the present. This Egan model asks 3 main questions:

1. What is going on?
2. What do I want instead?
3. How might I get to what I want?

It is an example of a mentoring model that could be used in a pilot in criminal justice.

A training programme based on this model could be used to train the volunteer mentors in a way to help their mentees using mentoring rather than just attaining short term goals, providing information about the organizations, safeguarding, listening skills and warnings, for example telling them to be careful not to make assumptions. They would of course not need to make assumptions if they really had the time to get to know the mentee which they are not able to do in an hour per week for only a few weeks.

The mentor may help the mentee to realize that change is a good idea, and may explain to the mentee, what is acceptable behaviour in society (not committing crimes) and guide them to behaviour that will ensure a happier more successful life. However as discussed in Chapter 3 mentor and mentee may have different perceptions of success.

A mentor shouldn't impose his or her assumptions about what success means upon the mentee so the mentor needs to recognize and accept the validity of the mentee's definition of what success means to them and relate life and career goals to that meaning (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 2005).

The organisations agreed ground rules from the start and had a contract to agree timing and frequency. Perhaps the training could also include advice on interpersonal skills. Listening has been mentioned but there is also advice that can be given on showing empathy, such as watching people's faces and body movements and trying to sense their feelings from their expression, posture and gestures. Also, when in conversation, considering why someone holds an opinion so different to other people and one's own opinion. There is the awareness of you as a person, how you react in a given situation, how else you could react and how other people would feel about these reactions. The mentoring training can include training the mentors in types of questioning. For example when should the mentor use open questions that can't be answered by a simple yes or no but might make the mentee think but to maybe avoid closed questions that only require a one word answer or leading questions where the questions lead to one answer or multiple questions where an answer may be only given to the part of the question remembered. Probing may be a skill for the mentor to learn as information may be inaccurate through not being sufficiently detailed and it encourages a mentee to talk. Reflecting is also useful to include in mentor training as it is a method of restating another person's basic message in similar, but usually fewer words.

It may be that for 'best practice' criminal justice agencies offer this type of mentoring described above and continue separately, with the short term goal focused fixes more

consistent with coaching which is really what the organisations in this research were doing.

8.5 Reluctance of Staff to Empower Volunteers as Mentors.

A fifth key finding concerned the attitudes of staff towards volunteers. This may become more important as probation undergoes changes and much of the work with the majority of offenders will be carried out by private firms and charities like those included in this research. The new police commissioners deciding on services offered to victims in their area will undoubtedly mean challenges and possible changes as smaller organisations apply for funding to provide services in their area. At a time as previously mentioned volunteers can provide a service which is cheaper than employing staff as staff have admitted the bulk of their finances being spent on wages, how much better if that money is being redirected to help victims more, perhaps in being able to keep safe or moving to a new area.

Two of the organisations in this research showed particularly disappointing attitudes to volunteers. The attitudes often being that they were only volunteers and so they could not be expected to do things like: talking to victims of crimes considered to be serious by the staff; go in to prisons to see offenders before they are released to get forms filled in and applications made for benefits and housing in their area ahead of their release; to talk to offenders guilty of more serious offences although in all these examples there were volunteers who said they were willing and eager to do these things. It may be due to budget reduction and increasing austerity that staff, are frightened of losing their jobs to volunteers or it may be the health and safety concerns of the organisations involved. At the moment it was found in these case study organisations that it is those

staff who would lose work, that is the key workers, the victim's champions, the hate crime workers who are deciding what work the volunteer mentors should do. While they are making those decisions, they are unlikely to give them enough work that would take work away from themselves and make themselves redundant. It seems strange that it should be the staff who saw the volunteers as predators wanting their work, making those decisions. The staff who were most supportive of the volunteers were the volunteer coordinators whose jobs were dependant on there being volunteers to organise.

As discussed in Chapter 2 under New Labour volunteer work was taken over by the professional as New Labour acknowledged that it was trying to bring about a culture shift, notably through its reforms of public services (DSS, 1992, p2). However if the volunteers are willing to do this work, want to do it and realize any potential danger, then perhaps they should be given the opportunity to do so providing, any sensible safety measures are made. Providing the volunteers are adequately trained there is no reason why they should not do as good a job as the staff especially if they are doing it for altruistic reasons. On interview staff such as key workers, hate crime workers and victim's champions did not say that they had to have specific qualifications to do that work, or even any qualifications. Sometimes they had been volunteers who were offered work, which may mean at times that the volunteers may hold higher or more appropriate qualifications than the staff. Sometimes the staff admitted that they didn't know any more than the volunteer as in the case of this senior key worker:

"I'm not very good at money management myself, certainly not very good at knowing the legalities around debt but certainly I had to do an awful lot of hours

research, to be able to feel competent and confident to give my client the right information. So, none of us hold the key. We don't always know. There's always a lot of homework to do around it. It's never the hour that you spend with somebody a week.” (YSSS3).

On interview volunteers commented on the frustration when they see the effects of poor administration or incompetent staff and they know they can do better:

“I don't see the clients in prison before they come out which is a shame. There is such a problem with administration, they could do with seeing someone while they are still inside who could help them to find accommodation. I don't know who helps them to fill in the forms, but for example, one of my clients came out on licence, then they go to probation, then to YSS, then referred to a volunteer. It can be 2-3 months after they leave prison before they see you. So this one I'm thinking about, I checked up on his housing application and found out Shrewsbury Council won't consider applications from prison. Of course that will vary all over the country but it's a shame the prison didn't know as so much time was wasted.” (YSSV11).

This mature volunteer understood the problems which the staff didn't know or didn't try to find out and they were frustrated by the delays to offenders getting housing and benefits sorted out before leaving prison due to staff incompetence.

Added to this there is the view which at interview volunteers believed, that mentees preferred volunteers to staff:

“All the work I've done is where they have to meet up with a volunteer usually as part of their licence or community order. So they have to see me but it does feel that

they see you as different to the paid workers, like you're outside the system. It seems to be the system that they dislike and distrust most.” (YSSV5).

The volunteers interviewed thought that the mentees were happy to be seen by a volunteer. This may be because they were grateful that the volunteer wanted to help them for no other reason and they were not being paid. It was also mentioned by volunteers that the mentees were often wary of the system and professional organisations in criminal justice and the staff working in them. The volunteers thought that the mentees often regarded the staff as the enemy. The volunteer was seen as being seen separate and outside these organisations and so could be trusted and more respected for what they were doing. This would mean it being easier to bond with the mentee and to form a mentoring relationship where the building of trust and honesty is important. Gurr, (2011) believes that the trust the mentor establishes with the mentee is precious as it's the building block of the mentoring relationship. There is more chance therefore of the mentor becoming a friend or buddy as described in Chapters 3 and 4, and therefore of the mentee being able to confide in them and open-up to how they feel and be ready to accept change and accept the views of somebody they trust, respect and admire. The peer mentors can be especially valuable in reassuring the mentee that they are on their side, as they have been in the position that the mentee is now in and understand it. Believing that someone is on your side is an important factor in mentoring. It would be very difficult for a probation officer or key worker, or police officer to achieve that sort of trust if they are being seen as part of the criminal justice system. There may be wariness for the mentee that something they said could

incriminate them further or incriminate somebody else or that something said could amount to a breach of their order or licence.

The decisions, as to what was required by the prospective mentees, in these representative organisations, was being taken by probation or other members of staff such as key workers, hate crime workers or victims champions based on what they thought was required and needed by the mentee. In practice this tended to be the more administrative tasks for those people with less urgent needs, that they thought could benefit from that type of support or service, for example if they needed help with filling in forms for a job application or benefits or criminal injury compensation. These may have been tasks which the staff did not feel they had the time to do themselves.

Professionalization of work by staff which could be accomplished by trained volunteers may be one result of these members of staff making these decisions about the work and the tendency for staff to say that the work was not suitable for volunteers. Even when the volunteers had received more than the basic training for the organisation, staff preferred the work to be referred to paid staff. This was unfortunate as staff wages being the largest cost to the organisation would mean a large saving which could be passed onto the people who could benefit from the service. It also resulted in the volunteers not being used to their full potential even though they were being trained, by that organisation. Many excuses were made by staff as to why this work should be given to staff rather than volunteers but were usually vague reasons like one shouldn't expect too much from volunteers. Volunteers were however found to be willing to take on work and they recognized themselves that they had the skills and experience to do so.

Staff were often difficult to contact as they admitted to spending a great deal of time in meetings. One of the attributes of a volunteer is that they do not have to spend time in meetings, they can spend that time with a service user. This growing professionalization over recent decades may result in the volunteers believing there to be less rewarding volunteer work available and indeed in this research they were often being given menial administrative tasks to do or in some cases sitting alone doing nothing. Volunteers who wish to help for altruistic reasons could therefore be discouraged from volunteering and in fact those types of altruistic volunteers in this research, accounted for only about half of the total number of volunteers. As discussed in Chapter 2 there is considered to be a great deal of value in promoting active volunteering in the arena of public sector provision but at the local level in practice this was not a sentiment agreed on by all the staff working in organisations providing services to offenders and victims in criminal justice. Unfortunately this meant that the potential of all the volunteers in this research was not optimized by these limiting and constraining factors.

8.6 Understanding and Appreciating the Underpinning Principles and Good Practice Skills of Mentoring.

A sixth key finding is the different views held amongst those organizations studied, about what mentoring is. Three of the organizations call the services they offer mentoring but were unaware that it may not be described as mentoring by academics and professional mentoring practitioners. There are volunteers wanting to be mentors to help, but in this research but they were not being given much opportunity to do so, but they were delivering a service which was potentially helpful, to help people to make

changes in their lives, that the literature has found to be of benefit in desistance. It would be difficult for these small organisations to have to do the research to find out how to best use mentoring from practice and the literature unless perhaps the criminal justice system gave guidelines. This would include guidelines on the training of volunteer mentors, the type of people who would be suitable to be volunteer mentors, looking at their attitudes, experience and reasons for wanting to do it and accept that it is not something that they will be doing for a few weeks but may be much longer. Those people who want to volunteer for short periods such as those wanting work experience could continue to do coaching for those that just need help with goals like writing a CV, applying for jobs and housing and benefits. Mentoring may involve asking someone if they think they really need to change living their life the way it is. This applies to victims as well as offenders. Victims may need help with filling in forms but they may also need someone to help them to see that they do not need to go on living their life as a victim. This may mean the mentor helping them to raise their self esteem and confidence. There are volunteers willing to do this if they are encouraged, trained and valued.

Training for mentors can enable the volunteer to understand how mentoring can help offenders and victims, and enable them to transform lives. Mentoring for a short period may be advised where there is mentor burn-out.

In mentoring the mentor has the experience and knowledge to help the mentee to change their lives. This is not compatible with volunteers doing mentoring solely for the purpose of obtaining work experience. Volunteers may want to stop during the mentoring relationship when they have achieved their objective of helping the mentee

to find employment, for example. Many volunteers who want work experience are young and inexperienced and therefore may not ideally be qualified to be a mentor. Even peer mentors who understand the position that the mentee may be in and understand the feelings involved and empathize with the mentee they may, have started to change their lives themselves but still not have sufficient knowledge and experience to help change somebody else's life. Mentoring cannot be part of a system that depends on outcomes for 'Payment by Results' as mentoring outcomes may not be achieved in such a short time frame.

Mentors can be the added value as they can provide something to criminal justice which is not yet being provided. The criminal justice system requires well trained, and well informed mentors to provide that service to people who have not yet been helped in sufficient depth. Many people can be helped by short term goals attained if that is all they need and they want to change but it is much harder to change someone who is in a life of crime and sees no reason why they should change, as that is all they have ever been used to. This is recognized by volunteers in this research:

"I must have worked with 10-15 clients now, the ages ranging from 18-41. The 18 year old was the hardest. I didn't feel we had a connection. He didn't see the point. He was so young, he didn't want to change anything." (YSSV11).

The volunteers interviewed that wanted to help victims, believe the victims need help with their emotional turmoil in many cases and they gained a great deal of satisfaction from doing this. Much of the resources went in paying staff for domestic violence prevention and hate crime preventing, which drew resources away from victims of all the other crimes. Such a large organisation also means that the managers in different

parts of the country can decide how that money will be spent, how much staff employed and how many volunteers trained which may not benefit all victims. Also, having such a large organization means supporting a large number of staff to run it and fewer staff would mean more money for allowing the volunteers to spend longer periods with the victims. With fewer staff salaries to pay there can be more money for the volunteers to be adequately trained and help the victims over a longer period. Volunteers and staff said that some victims come to them with accounts of crimes that had happened to them many years ago, often involving sexual abuse. These victims may need a mature person to talk to rather than a young student wanting work experience. Victims and offenders who are traumatized and need their lives to change need more than to be practised on by a young student wanting work experience who may want to help but could inadvertently cause damage instead. One manager said they were restricted by space. They needed so much space for their staff to sit that they didn't have rooms available for the volunteers to speak to victims. A session with a volunteer has to be reduced to only 45 minutes and there was no waiting room for victims to wait to see someone.

Of particular concern was the length of the mentoring relationships. These varied from 3 weeks to a possible 26 weeks. Although there is no formal length for a mentoring relationship three out of the four case study organisations were aiming at a mentoring relationship of between 3 to 6 weeks, the mentor and mentee seeing each other for about an hour per week. This length of mentoring relationship does not give them much time for talking and getting to know each other.

Pawson (2006) describes mentoring as an elastic term, which encompasses a variety of approaches; helping, coaching, tutoring, counselling, sponsoring, befriending, bonding, trusting, role-modelling, mutual learning, direction-setting, progress-chasing, sharing experience, respite provision, sharing a laugh, widening horizons, resilience building, showing ropes, informal apprenticeships, providing openings, kindness of strangers, treats for bad boys and girls, power play and tours of middle-class life. None of these approaches would be accomplished in a few hours.

The mentoring carried out in this research bears little relationship to the standards established in professional mentoring circles. There is no time given after the attainment of 'soft goals' to develop into mentoring. As described in Chapter 3 the basic principle is that the mentor provides guidance, instruction and encouragement with the aim of developing the competence and character of his or her protégé (Goldson, 2008). It would be very difficult or impossible to achieve this in such a short time frame.

8.7 Resource Constraints as an Obstacle to Mentoring in Criminal Justice

The seventh key finding is that of financial constraints. This is especially important at present as arrangements for support for victims and offenders are changing with the introduction of police commissioners and the increasing use of charities and private companies doing work previously done by probation, together with the expansion of Payment by Results. As mentoring is not short term, results may only be seen over a long term by research. Payment by Results is more acceptable for coaching and goal

attainment but achieving goals may only make a temporary difference in whether someone will re-offend unless they are really prepared to change their lifestyle, the way they have probably lived to that point which may not be easy to do. Payment by results may give a short term impression of improvement to suit short term interests of politics but long term interests should be helped by long term measures and therefore long term investment. If the organisations are only given the finances and instructions to do short term fixes then that is all they will be able to do so it may require a national policy for the criminal justice system to encourage mentoring. Problems in the criminal justice system associated with drugs and alcohol dependence associated with criminal offences that cannot be cured in the short term could be included in the same long term policy strategy. Victims will also be helped, in that if the problems of offenders are reduced the number of victims will be reduced. However victims are not really finding long term help from the main national organisation which is supposed to be helping them so where can they turn for help. Again there are volunteers willing to mentor them, to help them if those volunteers are given the chance to help but there are many who at the present time are not being given the opportunity.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter eight considered the seven key findings of the research looking first at the change in volunteers from the older traditional volunteer to the equal number of young volunteers seeking work experience and considered whether this was an advantage to mentees as many of these young volunteers were peer mentors (especially amongst the ex-offenders). This was also considered to be a disadvantage as many of the work-

experience volunteers were not expecting to be doing it for long periods but only until they found employment which would not sit well with long term mentoring.

The chapter went on to consider the work done by the volunteers who were asked to do administrative and clerical duties even if they were recruited as volunteer mentors. The chapter then looked at the findings on the training received by the volunteers more in keeping with a short induction rather than, a training in the skills and techniques of mentoring.

Constraints on providing mentoring in the criminal justice system were then discussed including the negative attitudes of paid staff towards the volunteers and how this would subsequently limit the volunteers' opportunities to develop as volunteer mentors.

Following on from this was the need for the organisations to fully understand and appreciate the underpinning principles and good practice skills of mentoring so that mentoring may be given a chance to improve the lives of offender and victims of crime.

In the present economic climate of austerity the financial constraints on developing mentoring in criminal justice were considered and how this may affect the attitudes of staff towards the volunteers.

CHAPTER 9

Conclusions

The overarching focus of concern in this thesis has been to develop a clearer understanding of the contribution that volunteer mentors can make in criminal justice.

Volunteer mentors in the areas of rehabilitation of offenders and helping victims of crime recover from their victimization were observed and interviewed as part of this

research but there are potentially more areas in criminal justice than those covered by these case-study organisations that could potentially benefit, such as drug and alcohol dependency. The evidence gathered suggests that they would be able to do much for offenders in the manner expected of the probation service but for which probation officers do not these days have sufficient time. Volunteer mentors could be relied upon to devote more of the time needed by offenders and victims and so aid their future prospects thereby adding to the humanity and reputation of the criminal justice system. The research particularly sought to gain insight on the practice of mentoring by volunteers in criminal justice, both from the volunteer mentors themselves and from the members of paid staff that supervise and organize them.

9.1 Contribution of this Thesis and Implications for Policy and Practice

Mentoring has been shown to be successful in other countries, especially the United States shown by the success of 'Big Brothers, Big Sisters' (See Chapter 4) Still these success stories apply to youth. Similar projects here did not produce such dramatic results (See Chapter 4) and the consequence was that most benefit was derived through short intensive 'mentoring' alongside other initiatives aimed at keeping vulnerable young people in education and out of trouble. The advantages of mentoring only lasted as long as the mentoring was provided and problems were frequently encountered if the mentoring was curtailed prematurely, for whatever reason. This limited success with short intensive 'mentoring' with young offenders may have been what led to the use of the type of short term initiatives found being used by the case-study organisations in this research. It is not possible to say if this mentoring would have been more

successful with adults as there has not been a great deal of evidence of it having been tried although 'Pathfinders' did show signs of success from mentoring from volunteers, but again the success only lasted as long as the mentoring continued. This research shows that that which is considered to be mentoring in other areas and in the ways described at length in this thesis have not yet been tried to any great extent in the criminal justice system in this country.

There can be no certainty about the impact of mentoring and the impact it can have in the criminal justice system unless lessons are learnt on the nature of what mentoring is and how the skills and techniques of mentoring may be adopted in the criminal justice system.

Well trained mentors will then need to be recruited in a set of nationally-driven pilot schemes. The mentors would be recruited, properly trained and monitored for effectiveness over a long period of time so that the impact of mentoring in criminal justice may be ascertained. It would be at this point that it could be considered whether the mentors should be professional paid staff or long serving properly trained volunteers.

There have been a great deal of positive comments about the potential for mentoring in criminal justice gathered in this research but until mentoring is conducted properly in criminal justice there can be no certainty about its potential impact.

This would require a major initiative and as this thesis points out, at times of financial austerity it might be difficult to justify the cost of such an initiative. However at present, money is, and will continue to be thrown at initiatives that are not what they

say they are, that is they are not mentoring and carried out by people who are inadequately trained to be mentors. There is no evidence of the success of the present initiatives so at a time of change when contracts with organisations (like the case-studies in this research) will be secured, some attention should be given to doing mentoring properly.

The key conclusion from this research is that mentoring in criminal justice in England and Wales would benefit greatly by learning from other experiences of mentoring where the underlying principles and practices have been applied more thoroughly and systematically, such as projects like Big Brother, Big Sister in the USA where positive results have been derived from volunteer mentoring work with young offenders. Mentors can add value in criminal justice by offering a service that has shown successful results in other areas, where it is accepted as being worthwhile and successful, and seen as worth investing in.

The money should definitely be spent on mentoring and not paying the staff wages of numerous organisations where there would not be the ability to ensure how the money is being spent. Mentoring would benefit from the mentors being volunteers, with a long term commitment and a desire to help but if that long term commitment cannot be assured then paid professional mentors would be preferable. However there remains the problem found in this research that both offenders and victims can be distrustful of the criminal justice system and the staff who work in it. This may mean that the mentors would need to be an independent body, financed by government but considered separate to the criminal justice system. With this training volunteer mentors could help

those offenders with the most difficulty in changing their lives and the victims needing the most help to recover by re-building their lives.

The establishment of a national standard for criminal justice mentoring and an independent body of mentors for use in criminal justice may ensure that it would remain an enduring service as governments change.

If mentors were a professional body the staff in these organisations and the volunteers who are interested could apply to become professional mentors. Funding would be required to train and pay the mentors but as the system of funding in criminal justice is changing with the current re-organisation of probation services (see Chapter 4), it would be the responsibility of the organisations who win the contracts to train and pay the mentors to a required national standard. This would provide more certainty about the services offered and no confusion about what mentoring is. Until now with Probation in control of all the services offered to offenders there was some certainty about what was on offer. Probation had a number of interventions to offer with their consequent characteristics (Robinson and Raynor, 2006) but the changes bring uncertainty and inevitably a greater range of services by the agencies that win the contracts. As this thesis shows misunderstanding over what a word means can vary the services on offer. If the offender or victim just requires coaching or administrative tasks etc this could also be provided (but not called mentoring) and offered at a lower rate but it should be clear that this is what is happening.

9.2 The Need for New Mentoring Pilots and an Evaluation Project

The research for this thesis involved the observation of four organisations in the criminal justice system. Future research should observe the impact of mentoring pilot projects nationally over a long period involving properly trained mentors.

The younger volunteers should be asked why they have volunteered. Were they encouraged to volunteer by career advisers and tutors in their college or by the advertisements or fresher fair advertising of the organisations recruiting volunteers?

This apparent move away from the type of volunteer described in the literature in Chapter 2 and, in this research, the finding that those volunteers having a predominantly altruistic motive for volunteering were in equal numbers to younger volunteers seeking work experience and enhancement of their curriculum vitae, would be interesting to pursue in a larger sample, possibly not just in the field of criminal justice, in order to see if this is a large scale shift in the people who are volunteering and why this is happening.

The effects of a national standard of mentoring in criminal justice would be analysed for the first time. If pilot schemes were set up in various parts of the country to estimate success in mentoring they should not just be involved in youth mentoring (as in the few studies in the past) but for all ages and for people with a wide range of problems in the criminal justice system including drugs and alcohol dependency (Bennett and Holloway, 2005). The experience of other areas as in business has shown that people of all ages can benefit from mentoring. If future research can show that with high quality training in mentoring and interested mentors who want to help, all people involved in the criminal justice system can benefit, this could result in long term benefits for the country.

9.3 Conclusion

The use of mentoring beyond the boundaries of criminal justice can act as an example for the way forward and the greatest results would be for mentoring in criminal justice to be introduced developed and spread across the country and to see if the result would be a long term decrease in crime and changes in how we deal with offenders and victims.

The research for this thesis as well as providing insights as to what organisations in criminal justice are doing to help victims and offenders and providing answers to the research questions initially posed raises the potential for a standard of mentoring which could be introduced to the criminal justice system, provided by professional or long serving volunteer mentors. The introduction of mentoring in criminal justice would be an exciting way forward.

The research concludes that although volunteers already provide a valuable service both to offenders and victims in criminal justice it is likely that more benefit would be derived as a result of developing proper mentoring programmes and for which a prerequisite would be more intensive training on both the principles and skills of mentoring and by ensuring that the mentoring of individual offenders and victims is provided for as long as is necessary in each case to maximize the prospects of lasting success.

APPENDIX 1

Sample Interview Questionnaire

1. What projects are ongoing in the area involving mentoring with young offenders or other offenders?
2. Are the mentors involved volunteers or professionals?
3. Scale of activity – how many mentors are involved?
4. How are the mentors recruited?
5. How are the mentors selected? What is the selection process? Who selects them?
6. What do you understand by mentoring?
7. What skills are required to be a mentor?
8. The training of mentors, particularly the volunteer mentors.
9. Is there agreement about what the mentors are trying to achieve? How clear are the mentors about that?
10. Are there agreements about how often they should meet and for how long? (each session). What form do these agreements take e.g. written/oral. Are there official guidelines? (If so could I have a copy?)
11. Are there agreements about where they should meet?
12. What is the referral system of the mentees? Who selects the mentees? Why are those particular mentees selected? Is it a random selection process? Are they referred from probation or court?
13. What is their measure of success in training the mentors? How do they qualify as mentors?
14. Is there an ongoing monitoring of the mentoring and mentoring practice?
15. How is the impact of the mentoring assessed? Are they only judged by reoffending rates? What else do they consider important to emerge from the mentoring relationship?
16. Who oversees the relationship between mentor and mentee and the progress of the mentoring process? Who pairs them up? Are there any rules about matching age and gender? Is there an agreed course of action if one or other is not happy? Do they intermittently assess the mentoring relationship and the progress they are making themselves?
17. How many offenders will the mentor be mentoring at the same time?
18. Are they advised as to how long the mentoring relationship should last? Is there an average or recommended length of time.
19. Are there agreements about how the mentoring relationships will end? Do they agree this at the beginning of the mentoring relationship?
20. What other questions do you think may be helpful to discuss.

APPENDIX 2

Interview with Youth Support Service (YSS) Co-ordinator of Volunteers (Staff).

Transcription from taped interview.

Researcher (R) I see you got my questions.

YSS Volunteer Co-ordinator (YSS). Yes. I literally just pulled it off this morning. It's been manic but most of it is stuff that's ok anyway.

R. Great. So if I just go through the questions.

YSS. OK. So at the moment most of our projects in Worcestershire are over 17. We haven't really got a young project in Worcestershire now. We did have a 10-17 year old project through Youth Offending but we haven't got that anymore. So we do a lot of mentoring from 17,18 through to the 20's group mostly so it's more adult clientele at the moment in Worcestershire.

R. Yes.

YSS. Um, up north I know they have got a couple of projects in Telford and Shrewsbury which are working with young people.

R. Right so that's interesting. Yes. So onto the mentors you have working with you, are they mostly volunteers or all volunteers

YSS. Volunteers normally. We do have occasions when we use sessional workers, but that's very um, few and far between. Most of them are volunteers from a very diverse section of the community. Some are professionals. Some are retired. Some are university people wanting experience. Some are unemployed wanting to change career,

so as long as they are over 18 and we think they are mature enough to handle it then yes.

R. So they approach you or do you find them?

YSS. We advertise on the 'Do It' website which is the 'Volunteer England' website, and we put our vacancies, if you like to call it on there. Um, the volunteer's centres around locally, I know so we do sort of let them know what projects we've got anyway and they will signpost people to us. Um, and we do recruitment fairs, sometimes at universities. We do the Guildhall Volunteers Week and get a bit of publicity there. We don't advertise greatly.

R. No, you don't need to. That's good. On the scale of activity, about how many mentors are involved at the moment.

YSS. In Worcestershire?

R. Yes.

YSS. It does fluctuate obviously but we have got working volunteers as mentors, we've probably got mm 20 upwards, just in the mentoring but there's going to be more as we've got cases that are awaiting mentors to match. Then we have 'Appropriate Adults' as well that aren't mentors so that's a different kettle of fish completely.

R. Right.

YSS. We've got probably more on our books than 20 but we've got 20 actively working at the moment.

R. OK and they're waiting now for the right mentee to come along, are they?

YSS. Some are waiting for the mentees, some are on holiday, yeh, I mean, we've got a lot working at the moment on different projects, because we don't just have mm, mm, projects here, the offender projects. We've also got Worcestershire carers. We've got Appropriate Adults. So we've got volunteers in all those areas as well.

R. Yes. So basically, they are over 18. What else are you looking for in the selection process. Do you turn many people away, for example.

YSS. Occasionally. Um, we've got a feeling from the selection for training interview as there's a set process, so the application is the first part, um, I then contact them and speak to them and I arrange to meet face to face and from there we ask a series of questions um, just getting their attitudes, thinking behaviour, why they want to do it, what's the motivators, um, then I'll say yeh, well, we'll put you on training but it is on the understanding that nobody is actually a volunteer until they have completed all the process.

R. Yes.

YSS. So it's very much a work in progress.

R. Until they've finished all the training?

YSS. Finished the training and I've accepted them and done a CRB and done the references and I'm happy with them. At any point I can refuse them or they can back out.

R. Yes.

YSS. So it's quite a long winded process, but needed.

R. How many references do you require?

YSS. Two. We try to get one that is more of a professional one. So if they're working perhaps an employer, though some of our young people aren't working but if they're at university, the tutor perhaps or perhaps a close friend or neighbour.

R. This may seem like a strange question but can I ask you what you mean by the word mentoring?

YSS. Yeh our mentoring is very much a supportive role to individuals, not doing everything for them but empowering them, and encouragement and it is about motivating them. So our volunteers' mentoring is very much based on the individual, however, there are certain things that we are trying to get them to engage and to comply. Um and lots of things really.

R. You said generally in terms of the selection process what you require from the mentors but are there any particular skills that you can think of, that makes a good mentor?

YSS. Um yeh, they need to listen. Um we do several exercises on listening skills and people say 'Oh, I'm a good listener' but it's surprising what we don't actually pick up. We do a lot of work on the listening skills.

R. Is that in the training process.

YSS. In the training yeh, um, so we are looking for people who um, can think outside the box, are able to think quickly, um reliable, um and really are willing to learn

new ways of thinking, you know, because every individual is different but they have to be very non-judgmental. Some are learning themselves, some aren't very confident, so it's building up their confidence as well, but we definitely need good listening skills and reliability.

R. Do you think it's a two way process, that the mentors benefit as well?

YSS. Yeh definitely. A lot of our volunteers, they've come through and there's one in particular, a young lady that she came to us, she worked in an office and she was um in industry and she started out and she wouldn't speak. She was very meek. She had all the right ideas but she was very quiet, um, now I met her the other week and we matched her up with somebody else and um, in three years, she has changed, yeh. She's really understanding the processes and really thinking ahead, so now much much better. So it does help and she's just finished her three year social, um not social work, um, health and social care.

R. So obviously you think it's a good thing, the mentoring process, for the mentees as well.

YSS. Yeh, because a lot of the volunteers, they've got the theory, they've got the knowledge, they've gone to college but they haven't done the hands on work and it needs to be that way, you need the hands on as well.

R. Yes and for the people they are mentoring, do you really think it helps them? Can you see a change in them during the mentoring process?

YSS. Yeh, I mean, not everybody, I mean, if you can just achieve one of the little goals on their action plan. They have an action plan to work to, um, we always say, if

you can achieve one thing or something small, then that can lead on to something big, so we're not aiming for high stuff but if they are looking to get accommodation, get them onto application forms for housing, get them to make sure they've got the right benefits in place, then that's a big help towards the process. Getting a CV done to get into jobs, you know, get them onto college courses, so yeh, so we know that we're not going to achieve everything that we want to achieve so it's being smart really and being realistic.

R. And do you think that by the end of the training that the mentors are very clear about what they are trying to achieve.

YSS. Yeh, yeh and we always say you know, don't aim too high because we don't set your goals too high, um, but they are clear and they're also clear on the boundaries because we also do have certain policies and guidelines that they have to adhere to and we make that clear on the training.

R. And what sort of boundaries would that be?

YSS. It's things like continued contact um, what to do if they turn up under the influence of anything, um, not to give out information about themselves. Not to give out phone numbers. Not to meet after the sessions have finished. So not to have any contact, once you've finished, you walk away basically. Which sometimes can be quite hard, um, if you've not finished everything you've needed to do. Um, and obviously with children, we're looking at safeguarding.

R. So that leads on to my next question really, about the boundaries and agreements. So before the sessions start is it clear to both the mentor and mentee how long the mentoring relationship is going to last? Is there a set time?

YSS. Yes we will know from probation how long they want us to work with them for. We on that first what we call a mentor match, three way, we will discuss, all three of us, I'll take the lead, say well, this is what we've been asked to do. It's mandatory, or it's voluntary, whichever project they're on. It's going to be so many weeks. Then we actually have an agreement or a fact sheet, that we actually read out, the do's and don'ts. What a mentor will do. What a mentor won't do. Everybody signs confidentiality, um, so that everything's there in black and white and before the mentor meets the um er client, we go through their boundaries, make sure they've got the car insurance, um they've got telephone numbers for emergencies. Make sure that um, they won't give the phone number away. We make all that clear and they sign up to that each time they meet a new mentee. So each new case we do all the paperwork again.

R. Yes.

YSS. So yeh, we've got processes in place.

R. Um so at that point, is that when you agree where they should meet.

YSS. Um, they decide it themselves normally. However it depends on who the client is. If there was a risk then we might say always meet in probation office, but generally we tend not to meet in probation offices, because we like to get away from probation, in the community, in a coffee shop somewhere. We definitely don't go to

the home. It is out somewhere. In a coffee shop, library, somewhere public, but they can have a chat privately.

R. Yes, so after that initial meeting and agreement, do they arrange the next meeting.

YSS. Yes they arrange for the next week.

R. And have they got a phone number to reach other if they want to change that, or do they do that through you.

YSS. Well it depends if it's a mandatory project, they shouldn't be able to change their appointments. However they always have my number, as a paid worker and I'm their point of contact. The volunteer, if the client has an agreement, can have the client's telephone number but the client can't have the mentor's. Um, but what we do, we always say to the client, look it's going to be a withheld number, so if you get a withheld number, it's possibly going to be your mentor. Um, but they use me quite a lot to um talk and pass messages on.

R. You call the mentees, clients do you?

YSS. It depends the younger ones we tend to call mentees, sometimes we call them mentee, but we've started to call them more like clients now.

R. Yes. So who selects them? Do they get referred to you from probation usually?

YSS. Yeh. We don't select them. They are told they've got to come to us. We are told perhaps, because they are not complying perhaps, with their order, breaching appointments, or they need extra help. Then, um, they are told as part of their license

or whatever, they are going to be sent to us, so it's not always the chosen route they would want but, it's part of probation.

R. Yes so they don't always necessarily have a choice about it. But are there some that do volunteer to come here?

YSS. Yeh. We have other projects as part of 'Pathways'. Pathways is our core project working alongside probation, um, we've got PAM, which is Pathways Accommodation. Mentoring which is voluntary and it's all about getting them into accommodation but T2away which is more for young adults, that's voluntary, that's transition to adulthood and that's a Barrow Cadbury's, chocolate makers. So that is sort of from 17 to 24's, um but that is voluntary. Young carers is obviously a different thing altogether, um and Carmen Street is completely different as well. So the big one is the mandatory one really, which is the Pathways.

R. So in terms of training the mentors, um, do you feel that you've got the training right, that it's successful?

YSS. Yes we always do feedback um, at the training and we've got a really good feedback, it's not rocket science, the training, it's very much um, what people already know, but it's just heightening their awareness. Bringing it back to the fore, and a lot of the work we do, we discuss things, as well, so obviously, different perspectives and um, we can throw that into the equation as well, but generally there's a good feedback. Um, it's a friendly relaxed atmosphere and we get them to do drawings and um, not just sitting down, so it's very interactive.

R. So in terms of monitoring the mentoring relationship, you have that initial agreement and you make the boundaries, but as the process goes along are they managing the process themselves? So if for example, they get a little way along in the relationship and they find it's not working, um, is there an agreement whereby one or other can make changes.

YSS. Well, with the volunteer, obviously we will be having contact with them every week and if there are any issues, then that will be flagged up to us. Then with the client or mentee, they will always have my numbers and if there is a problem they know, part of the agreement is, there is an agreement procedure, um they will be contacting me if there is an issue with the volunteer. So they've both got somebody to come to.

R. So in terms of how successful the mentoring is, the impact of the mentoring, how do you judge this? Is it by the feedback or do you look at re-offending rates, for example.

YSS. Um, I think both really. Um, I mean with each project it's slightly different. With PAM, obviously, if we can achieve our goal, which is to get them into some sort of accommodation, then that is your outcome, isn't it? With Pathways it's not quite so, but if you can get them into a job that usually eases off their offending behaviour. Or if you can get them into a stable relation, you know, if they get into a stable relationship, or if you can get them into accommodation, then everything quite often will fall into place. So it may not be achieving what they set out to achieve but something else might have a knock on effect.

R. Yes. Do you try to match age and gender?

YSS. I do the matching up, the training, not on all the projects, on Pathways mentoring. I do, um, matching age and gender, um, we do have an unwritten rule and it is very unwritten rule that we tend to put female mentors with male mentees and male mentors with male mentees but that's not written in stone. It can change, but we tend to do it that way and we don't really do ageism, neither here nor there. As long as they are um, mature enough um, to volunteer, then we think they're ok.

R. So you could have the mentor being younger.

YSS. Mm yes, and a lot of the females we have, perhaps 21, 22 think wow! I'm mentoring someone who's 40, but it actually works quite well. We've had quite a few instances where that's happened and been very effective.

R. Will the mentor be mentoring only one mentee at a time, um, or can they do more?

YSS. Um, they can do more. It depends on their own situation, whether they're working, or at college, or what other commitments, because a lot of our volunteers, have got other commitments, um, some are retired, early retirement. We've got one that retired at 50 but he's got lots of voluntary things going on so he can only take on one at a time. Um, other people have taken 2 or 3 on for a stage if they are unemployed. Um, they've actually chosen to take 2 or 3 on but if they get back into employment, they have to drop it down to one, so it varies. One is the norm.

R. So they know at the outset, how long the mentoring relationship is going to last, and in terms of each time they meet, is there a required length of time, or do you suggest a length of time?

YSS. It all depends on the probation officer. Normally it's half an hour to an hour and it is stated on the referral form, and um, this has obviously come from probation, so we have to abide by what probation say, and it's a minimum so if they spend an hour and 15 minutes, that's fine, if both parties are in agreement. However, they must spend the minimum time with them, because it's all recorded.

R. In terms of the length of the mentoring relationship, you said that of course it would depend on how much they are required to do but if they had a community order for 18 months, could the mentoring relationship last for the whole of that time?

YSS. No, no. Part of that order, it could be that they've got to see a mentor for six weeks. So normally we've got a lot for 6 weeks, we get some for 12 weeks. We have had a couple that have just been told they come to us for three weeks and that's maybe perhaps to get a CV done or maybe look for work. So it's very different to how it used to be, whereas it used to be 12 weeks rigid. Now it's flexible.

R. So how long has this been going on for?

YSS. Pathways is fairly new. Since about November last year, but the predecessor before that, that was Acclaim, which was a prolific offender project, but we only worked with prolific offenders on that project so that was mandatory for 12 weeks. Um, but Pathways now is not just for prolific offenders, it's any offender that meets a criteria, so it's not just PPO's.

R. Yes so those that were seen under Acclaim, they would be seen under Pathways now, would they?

YSS. Yeh, join in Pathways, yeh, but it's opened it up to a lot more offenders because some of them are quite low level, they're not PPO's at all, and I tend to get the lower level ones with volunteers, the higher ones tend to go to key workers, who work on their own with them, because of the risks or the complex needs, but um, volunteers tend to do 2:1, 2:2 which is lower levels and key workers tend to do 3 and 4.

R. The key workers are the professional workers. Are they?

YSS. Yeh.

R. Are they doing the same sort of mentoring?

YSS. Similar but they're working on their issues and might be getting them into some drugs rehabilitation, or whatever is stipulated.

R. Yes. I see. Are there any problems with ending the mentoring relationship. They know from the outset that it's going to end and that they mustn't have contact after that, so do you ever get any problems with that?

YSS. No, not normally, I mean a couple of times, um, volunteers have 'Oh I wonder what's happening with Joe Bloggs' and of course we can't let them make contact, but if we know that a key worker is still working with them, because they could have a key worker plus a volunteer, you see or they could just have a key worker. If we know the key worker is still working with that individual, we could always say,

Oh, so and so asked how are they getting on and we get feedback that way but normally no, they are pretty clued up on, it has to end and they are geared up to that.

R. So here at the end, do you think there is anything I haven't asked you, that might be useful?

YSS. Um, I don't know really, I mean the training is 2 days and it's not accredited at the moment but people do find it good. I've recently done teachers, head teachers, who have come to us to be trained and all think oow, training teachers is a bit daunting but even they said they find they got something out of it, so if that's the case, I think our training is ok.

R. Do you think it would be possible for me to sit in on the training and see what happens? Or do the training?

YSS. Um, I would need to check that out obviously because normally we only put the mentors on. Um, I'm not training for a while though, not until October time.

R. Oh that would be fine and have you got anything written down in terms of agreements that I could have please?

YSS. Um the paperwork that we give to volunteers. The match them up things. Um, I'm sure I could, yes. I could go and wiz a few things off for you.

R. That would be brilliant. Thank you very much.

YSS. Is there anything you want to know other than what I've talked to you about? Is that enough, because obviously we've got paid workers as well as volunteers, so um.

R. Yes so the paid workers, are they doing anything different from the key workers?

YSS. The paid workers are the paid workers, yeh.

R. And they are in addition? The impression I get is that the mentees see them if they have problems with drugs or other key issues.

YSS. Key workers. Well sometimes it goes straight to a key worker to have their meetings with them. Once they've sorted out some of the complex issues, they come to a mentor to finish it off. Um, or it could be a key worker works totally on their own with them and doesn't have a mentor so each case is slightly different but there are several, quite a few paid key workers and obviously we've got volunteers that help out as well. It's a combination.

R. So does it come down to what the key worker as well thinks would be beneficial?

YSS. Sometimes they've identified that working with them, they've done the bulk of the work but they just need a bit of additional support so they may then go back to the Offender Manager and say 'well, I've done my bit' but do you want to make a re-referral, just to have a volunteer work with them, just to support them through, if they're getting housing or whatever. But as I say, each case is slightly different really

R. So the Offender Manager is the person who decides?

YSS. The probation officer, yes. They've changed the name now, haven't they, so. So, they make an initial referral to um, Pathways or PAM whichever one they want to

go onto and they've actually stipulated on the referral form what their requirements are. What needs looking into. How many weeks contact and minimum hours etc. And, they give you a small risk assessment as well.

R. Well, that's brilliant. Thank you very much for your time.

YSS. Is that enough? I didn't know how much depth to go.

APPENDIX 3

Models, Skills and Techniques of Mentoring

Directive/Non Directive Axis and Need Axis Model of Mentoring

Clutterbuck's (1998) describes the directive/non directive axis and the need axis that runs from intellectual to emotional. This is presented as a Cartesian measure separating mind from body. This European mentoring model draws on four roles: the coach; the guardian; the counsellor and the facilitator. Clutterbuck describes this as a developmental alliance which he recommends for mentoring. He says the most effective developmental mentors will be able to adopt whatever role is necessary using coaching and counselling behaviours when needed and alerts mentors to the spectrum of directiveness in the guardian role and the role of broker to expand the mentee's network. This includes rapport building, direction setting, progress making, maturation and close-down. The relationship begins with rapport building and low learning intensity, moving towards direction setting and progress-making with high learning intensity. As the mentee becomes self-reliant, the mature relationship moves towards its close with reduced learning intensity.

Transformation Mentoring Model

Hay's (1995) transformational mentoring model has seven stages emphasizing the quality of a relationship that recognizes and values the subjective and adopts humanistic principles. Also because of its person-centred approach, promotes transformation. The relationship is defined as a developmental alliance.

Zachary's Mentoring Model

Zachary's (2000) model provides another phase-type model with four stages: (1) preparing; (2) negotiating; (3) enabling; (4) closing. The preparation is the initial meeting of mentor and mentee. The negotiating is when they agree on how they will work together. The reflective learning for the mentee takes place in the enabling stage ahead of the closing of the relationship. This model includes high levels of mentor disclosure and a focus on values in Western culture. Megginson & Clutterbuck (2005) claim this fits well with evolutionary mentoring.

The Cyclical Mentoring Model

The Cyclical Mentoring model (Brockbank & McGill, 2006) is described as suitable for all types of mentoring from functional to evolutionary. Brockbank and McGill criticize the developmental models for over-emphasising 'stages', failing to address the variable rates of transition and not taking enough account of individual needs. The development of the relationship itself is not addressed in developmental models except in the rather 'simplistic observation' that the mentee becomes less dependent over time. This cyclical model may be used over the entire cycle of

mentoring but also adapted for each mentoring session. They describe five stages (in contradiction with their own criticism of other stage-based models) but arguing that each stage and each session may be altered to change the focus when necessary. These are as follows:

- a. The first stage is the 'contract' which should cover the ground rules, boundaries, accountability, expectations and the nature of the relationship. Ground rules may include who contacts whom, confidentiality, duration, timing and frequency. Agreement between mentor and mentee on tolerance, the right to disagree and have a different opinion, what they are prepared to disclose and no-go areas and the mentee understanding that they will be taking responsibility for their learning. Initial agreements may also cover the possibility of the relationship failing and how this should be handled;
- b. The second stage is the focus stage which incorporates the issue, objectives, presentation, approach and priorities. The focus of a mentoring session may be prescribed as in functionalist mentoring, prescribed but undeclared as in engagement mentoring or left open for the client to explore as in evolutionary mentoring. It is the mentor's responsibility to ensure that, whether the mentoring is functionalist, engagement or evolutionary, the mentee is enabled to assent to whatever he or she is working to achieve. Both mentor and mentee will agree objectives which gives them both a structure for review and evaluation;
- c. The third stage is 'space' which includes collaboration, investigation, challenge, containment and affirmation. This allows for keeping awareness of the unconscious happenings beneath the surface of the relationship. This may manifest itself as transference, counter-transference or parallel process. Transference is a particular kind

or projection where the projector is the mentee who may idealize or demonize the mentor and the receiver is the mentor. The positive or negative feelings are historical from relationships in the past. Counter-transference is the other way round when the mentor will respond as if he or she is part of the past relationship, either wanting to look after the mentee or being impatient with the mentee. Skilled mentors will be aware of these projections in order to limit their effects on the relationship. Parallel process is another unconscious element where the mentoring relationship experiences in parallel some of the feelings of the mentee's own world;

- d. The fourth stage is 'bridge' where the mentoring couple may consolidate their work, exchange information if relevant, revisit goals, engage in an action plan and review the potential consequences of the action plan. Information giving at this stage is relevant for functionalist and engagement mentors but inappropriate for evolutionary mentors where the preferred method would be to direct the mentee to an appropriate source or reference. At this stage the ownership of goals are clarified with the functionalist and engagement mentors ensuring that the organizational goals are articulated whilst evolutionary mentors reiterate declared goals owned by the mentee and which can be addressed at the review stage. Before that a bridge is created for the mentee to foresee the effect of the actions that were agreed.
- e. The final stage is the 'review'. The focus of this feedback is the relationship itself, and the exchange aims to improve the quality of the mentoring relationship. The two-way mutual interaction may include dynamics in the relationship, e.g. dependency and skills used by both party's as well as styles and approaches such as questioning and empathy. The value of each session is evaluated and changes may be made to the mentoring process. The functionalist and engagement mentors will assess the mentoring sessions

but this does not occur in evolutionary mentoring relationships except as self-assessment. Re-contracting means that at the end of each session the mentor and mentee revisit and renew their initial agreement and check whether it is still appropriate.

The Double Matrix Mentoring Model

The Double Matrix Mentoring Model (Brockbank & McGill, 2006) represents a snapshot model with no perspective over time. This allows for inspection and analysis of one meeting between mentor and mentee with depth and detail. This may be appropriate for evolutionary mentoring but is unlikely to be used by functionalist mentors as the approach is likely to be in-depth and deals with strongly emotional material. It is suited to evolutionary mentoring where there is a strong and trusting relationship.

European Mentoring and Coaching Council Code of Practice

It is important in any mentoring relationship that, whatever the model used, there should be some protection for the interests of both mentor and mentee and for which a code of practice has been provided by the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC) as follows:

1. Mentoring is a confidential activity, in which both parties have a duty of care towards each other.
2. Both mentor and protégé should be volunteers; either may dissolve the relationship if they feel it is not working. However they have a responsibility for discussing the matter together and coming to a mutual agreement about the ending.
3. The mentor's role is to respond to the protégé's developmental needs and agenda; it is not to impose his or her own agenda.
4. Mentor and protégé should respect each other's time and other responsibilities, ensuring they do not impose beyond what is reasonable.
5. Mentor and protégé should also respect the position of third parties, other members and colleagues.

6. The mentor should not intrude into areas that the protégé wishes to keep off-limits unless invited to do so. Mentors should check this out with protégé's and where appropriate, suggest that protégé's seek counselling.
7. Mentor and protégé should be open and truthful to each other about the relationship itself, reviewing from time to time how it might be more effective.
8. Mentor and protégé share responsibility for the smooth winding down and proper ending of their relationship, when it has achieved its purpose, or renegotiating a future relationship.

Mentoring Skills, Techniques and Tools

Techniques in mentoring may be described as a range of interventions to employ when working one-to-one with others. Megginson and Clutterbuck (2006) describe techniques as similar to models but they each offer a particular process for using with the chosen model. In the same way they claim techniques are similar to tools but, again, they have a process attached. Tools are devices that help the mentor and mentee to talk about the issues. What may start as a dissociative way of creative thinking can develop into a method for achieving a specific purpose. Techniques are like processes but whereas the processes are relatively content free, the technique describes the context that the process may be used in and the purpose that it may serve. Megginson and Clutterbuck, therefore, give the definition of techniques as *'a process to assist a mentee or coachee to address a specific purpose within a particular context as part of an ongoing development relationship'* (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005, p. 4).

In the contemporary world of mentoring, as defined by Megginson and Clutterbuck (and quoted at the beginning of Chapter 3), the mentor is seen as having has a number of roles to play (which would be outside the remit of a coach). They may help the mentee to build wider networks from which to learn and influence. They would act as a sounding board and counsellor, responding to the individual's need for emotional support if required. They may act as adviser and frequently a role model. A

professional mentor, like a psychologist, might help the mentee to focus on specific behavioural performance improvements. Clutterbuck (1992) has identified two key dimensions. The first is 'directiveness' which refers to where the power lies in the relationship and how it is managed. The second is the 'need' dimension which refers to whether the relationship focuses primarily on helping the mentee with rational or emotional issues. Megginson and Clutterbuck (2006) together have also described other dimensions; including 'doing', which is a dimension about achieving change in skills or performance and 'becoming' which is about changing ambitions, perspectives and sense of identity. Extrinsic, and intrinsic, feedback relate to the issue of who observes, analyses, interprets and owns an experience. Future, present and past relate to the chronology of change. They have argued that counselling is mainly about dealing with the past, that coaching is about the present and that mentoring is about the future. A type of response flexibility is then required in mentoring, aided by a wide portfolio of techniques, concepts and models, to be called upon as required.

According to Egan, (1998) the approach to mentoring normally used in business sees the mentor as a guide and adviser, someone who is basically on the mentee's side; interested; trusted; experienced in issues that the mentee might not be. The mentor can listen and reflect on ideas and plans and share his or her insights, practical experience and may recommend specific steps. It is perhaps likely that the mentor will be at a similar level in the organisation as the mentee or someone more senior and, who can understand the politics of the organisation; and can help the mentee to do the same. They tend to act as role models who demonstrate, by example, the characteristics, performance, and contributions that spell success. They can be sponsors, who support and represent the mentee to the organisation or coaches, who assess the mentee's

experience level and where deficiencies are identified, to work on these skills. They may be expected to motivate, encourage and push the mentee to assume additional responsibilities when the time appears right and they will, direct the mentee to other, appropriate sources to achieve a goal (Egan, 1998).

Kay and Hinds (2009) who have designed and run a series of mentoring workshops for both mentors and mentees describe mentoring as about one person helping another to achieve something that is important to them. For them, mentoring is about giving and receiving support and help in a non-threatening and informal environment and in a manner that is appropriate to the mentee's needs. When properly undertaken, they argue, the mentee will value and appreciate the mentor's involvement and will be empowered and encouraged to move forward with confidence towards what they wish to achieve.

In considering the purposes of mentoring Garvey, Stokes and Megginson (2009) suggest there is always one common factor and that is change. This may mean changes of thinking, behaviour, attitude or performance. They consider that whatever the case, or context, all applications of seemingly the same processes raise many issues and questions about how mentoring and coaching are understood and perceived by those who engage in its practice.

Egan's Three Stage Model

The Egan Three-Stage Model (Egan, 1998) is seen as a useful tool in helping people to solve problems and develop opportunities. The model is aimed at helping people to manage their problems in living more effectively and in developing unused opportunities more fully and to help people become better at helping themselves in their

everyday lives. There is an emphasis on empowerment. Also the person's own agenda is central, and the model seeks to move the person towards action leading to outcomes which they choose and value. This model is not based on a particular theory of personality development, nor, on a theory of the ways difficulties develop. It is best used in working on issues in the recent past and the present.

What are the Mentoring Goals?

Pegg's classic 'five C' model of mentoring shows how to help people focus on their: 1. Challenges; 2. Choices; 3. Consequences; 4. Creative Solutions; and 5. Conclusions (Pegg, 1999). Pegg describes the factors to consider when starting out as a mentor. How the mentor needs to clarify their care beliefs and at the same time build credibility. The mentor needs to be aware that our beliefs shape our behaviour. They need to define what they can and cannot offer as a mentor and get the right balance.

The Role of the Mentor

According to Pegg (1999) the classic role of the mentor is as a wise and trusted adviser. They have credibility and are willing to pass on their 'wisdom'. The modern mentor will outline the roads people can follow in achieving their goal whatever that may be. *'Sage-like and street wise, they share their knowledge in a way that helps people to gain greater control of their lives'* (Pegg, 1999). The mentor may be a role model which the mentee may want to emulate. Where the mentoring involves teaching, Pegg suggests that the focus should be on the three I's: Inspiration, Implementation and Integration. Ideally the mentor would inspire the mentee to want

to learn, provide implementation tools that work and help people to integrate the learning into their daily lives.

Kay and Hinds (2009) describe the role of a mentor as helping the mentee to make decisions to enhance their progress towards specific goals, helping people to make their own choices by suggesting options to them. Mentoring should develop as a relationship encompassing a wide range of issues, not just those concerned with problem-solving, but issues of career, personal or family matters may arise. As the relationship with the mentee develops over time, such matters might gradually be introduced into the discussions with their mentor. Therefore, as the mentor begins to consider their role, it is important to think about the broader aspects of people development and the factors that influence them in their daily work and their choice of career options (Kay & Hinds, 2009).

Kay and Hinds (2009) argue that mentors do not necessarily give specialist knowledge, but if a mentor wishes to give advice, this may mean them stepping out of their agreed role, in which case they may want to ask the mentee if they accept this. This would give the mentee the same judgment criteria as with any professional advisor. The relationship may be seen as a contract, where agreements are agreed from the outset in which case to go outside the boundaries of the agreement will require further agreement.

Pegg (1999) argues that a mentor may gain credibility in several different ways. Somebody already admired and known for their leadership will more easily establish authority, and age may bring accountability by the increased sense of responsibility for the ideas shared. Pegg believes it would be an advantage if the mentee has respect for

the knowledge and intellect of the mentor and it may help for the mentor to be patient with the mentee. The mentor, according to Pegg, does not need to be great in terms of paper qualifications as the best mentors may have experience and be resourceful. Communication should be expressed in such a way that the mentee may see what is happening and see positive solutions, whilst at the same time providing reality checks.

The mentor may have knowledge of an area of expertise that the mentee is interested in. Building the chemistry between them may be help by a caring and calm attitude from the mentor. It may benefit the mentor to understand his own strengths and be clear about their limits and the mentor may help them with this. Mentors may explore potential solutions for the mentee. They may use practical exercises, success stories, creative techniques, lateral thinking or simply listening or talking, possibly using trigger questions for stimulating the mentees' imagination. Ideally the mentor would be able to assist the mentee in deciding on their chosen route and developing an action plan for pursuing this, and if possible helping the mentee to find the right way to express their natural talents. The mentor should work with the mentee to establish what the mentee wants to achieve in their life and work. People have different pictures of success. The mentor may explore different options with the mentee one of which would be the option of carrying on with the same lifestyle. If the mentee does not change his/her lifestyle they can be helped to imagine what the resulting lifestyle is likely to be in several years' time. The mentor can then help the mentee to imagine what it would be like if they make changes to lifestyle and imagine how different the resulting lifestyle might be. The mentor will need to make the mentee realize that they will need discipline and determination to change things but the mentoring itself should be supportive. In working together to achieve these aims there needs to be co-operation

between them but some mentees may find this hard as they may be used to working and surviving alone. If they are not used to having advice and encouragement and may initially find this hard to accept (Pegg, 1999).

Kay and Hinds (2009) suggest that, to be a mentor, certain qualities are essential. To be successful the mentor requires enthusiasm, commitment, willingness, approachability, an ability to ‘open doors’ and have relevant experience, together with demonstrating ability to treat with the utmost confidentiality everything they are told and discussed within the mentoring relationship. They argue that the mentor must make sure that they know, or get to know, the mentee personally. Naturally the precise information the mentor needs will depend on the particular circumstances and the purpose of the mentoring being undertaken. For example, if it is mentoring for a programme of professional or personal development, details of the mentee’s objectives and programme of development will be essential. In some cases it is also useful to know something about the mentee’s personal life and circumstances. Kay and Hinds suggest that, in some cases, it is useful to have relevant experience, and personal skills such as listening, motivating, influencing, fact-finding, liaising, counselling, time management and staff development. But the mentor does not necessarily have to possess all the necessary personal skills at the start, as the very process of being a mentor can enable the skills to develop. They also suggest that there are some basic rules the mentor must follow if they are to be successful, so that the mentee receives all the help they need from the mentoring relationship:

Kay and Hinds (2009) Rules for Mentoring

Independence	It is by being independent that the
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	mentor will be able to offer objective advice and support.
Clarity about the purpose of the relationship	Discuss with the mentee and agree the nature of the mentoring being undertaken and the purpose and extent of the mentoring relationship including time scale, frequency of contact and when the relationship will end.
Working 'off-line'	Mentor working outside the mentee's line management structure allowing the mentor to be objective and independent without management autonomy or mentee being in a position of accountability.
Contact	Agree how contact is to be made. Frequent contact is essential through telephone, meetings and the internet.
Maintain agreed arrangements	Don't change arrangements and plan without a good reason. This should not be done lightly.
Confidentiality	Confidentiality ensures trust. Only

	<p>exception is when the mentee discloses information that an illegal act has taken place or the standing rules or orders of the organisation has been breached.</p> <p>This position should be made clear to the mentee.</p>
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Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) Themes of Mentoring

<p>Establishing or managing the coaching relationship</p>	<p>Getting to know each other, establishing the grounds for relationship success, creating and maintaining rapport and clarifying mutual expectations.</p>
<p>Setting goals</p>	<p>Raising horizons and visioning, assessing and choosing between options, identifying a goals and identifying gaps and needs.</p>
<p>Clarifying and understanding situations</p>	<p>Helping the mentee understand through metaphor, story and drama. Using techniques for mapping the context and identifying the components of a situation. Developing intellectual and</p>

	emotional understanding.
Building self-knowledge	Using techniques that help the mentee to identify and access personal values, to change belief sets, to bring stereotypes into the open and to understand their life and career.
Understanding mentee's behavior	May use empathy. Exploring the differences between mentor and mentee and exploring the complications caused by stereotyping.
Dealing with roadblocks	Identifying and recognizing the nature of the roadblock and the value of respecting the blocks.
Stimulating creative thinking	Dealing with internal conflicts that reduce creativity. Big assumptions, values and beliefs are explored and techniques presented which help people to articulate complex problems.
Decision making	Decision making may be difficult for mentees who are used to prevaricating. Techniques can be used to help make decisions to unlock future commitment to

	action.
Committing to action	Emotions and beliefs are involved. Commitment is calibrated and increased.
Managing the mentee's own behaviours	Helping the mentee to focus and attend to their issues and the depth approaches to enable individuals to understand their own behavior particularly where there are patterns or habits that are deeply ingrained.
Building wider networks of support, influence and learning	Helping the mentee to develop other resources upon which to draw including processes for maximising learning.
Ending the relationship	How to end the relationship leaving the mentee stronger from the intervention.
Generic techniques	Techniques that can be used across the stages including story telling and questioning. Techniques used should be firmly focused on the agenda of the learner.

Techniques of Mentoring

Building a Relationship and Rapport

It may seem challenging to suggest that the rapport required for a mentoring relationship can be reduced to a matter of mere technique, nevertheless, according to Clutterbuck and Ragins (2002) such a technique may aid this development. Mutual consent and willingness to participate in the relationship are normally seen as essential precursors to effective relationships. There may be circumstances where the mentee is an unwilling partner which may not result in a positive relationship. Also important at the outset is a broad sense of purpose and mutual understanding of what the relationship is about, even if there is not a fixed preset goal to achieve. Even a *laissez-faire* friendship can have an element of being available, of being able to provide practical or psychosocial support from time to time. Relationships with low rapport but high clarity can still deliver results in terms of performance, learning or both together. Relationships with low clarity but high rapport can be enjoyable, but are likely to deliver less personal change. Relationships high in both can be argued to be the most rewarding and successful, in terms of measurable outcomes. When rapport and goal clarity are low, little can reasonably be expected of the mentoring relationship (Clutterbuck & Ragins, 2002).

A technique to get to know a person is sometimes referred to as a 'conversation ladder'. The first principle in this technique is to ask a set of questions about topics of central concern to people which they love talking about. The second principle in the technique is to retain in memory the sequence (the steps on the ladder), using imagery to do it. All the areas are about the person themselves. What other topic can compete with that, in terms of interest or a capacity for developing rapport. Typically interesting

steps on the ladder might be: (1) their name and its significance to them; (2) family of origin; (3) home and current family; (4) education; (5) work; (6) successes; (7) difficulties; (8) interests; (9) dreams and aspirations. By asking the questions about these the mentor will give the impression of being a good listener. The technique continues by the mentor using a set of vivid images on the steps of the ladder to help remember the sequence. This is a popular technique to improve memory. The mentor may then use these images to help remind them to explore a range of areas.

Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) describe a technique for use where the mentee is a very private person who likes to maintain a significant level of privacy around themselves and it is harder for the mentor to get to know them. Although the mentor and mentee may have a relationship which is relaxed and amicable it may lack depth. There is a problem of reconciling the demand of the relationship for greater openness and rapport, with the desire of the mentee not to venture into personal areas possibly with a fear of being exposed. The mentee may aid this difficulty with a technique called the 'circle of disclosure'. The mentee will explain that no part of life is completely separate from the others. For example, what happens at work can influence behaviour at home like how tired or irritable a person may be in the evening and whether they have the energy to go out and do something active. Similarly what happens at home can impact on how well people focus on their work.

The mentor starts this technique by identifying a number of dimensions of work which are relevant- for example, doing routine tasks on one's own, working as part of a team, attending cross-team meetings. The mentor then draws a circle and labels it in some way that is agreeable to the mentee, for example, in terms of performance or

personal achievement. The edge of the circle is the Border of Disclosure – the boundary between the public and the private. Other dimensions discussed will be circles and they will see how much of these circles lie within the main circle. The visual image takes the discussion from the emotional to the intellectual, which is usually much less threatening. As the mentee becomes more comfortable with discussing, say, how much openness is appropriate for a situation with which they feel comfortable, they can gradually be helped to identify other circles. As well as intersecting the main circle, some of these additional circles will intersect or encompass each other. Discussing the relationship between these circles puts distance between the issues and the emotions surrounding them. At the same time it should hopefully open up relatively safe routes into more personal topics. Another version of this technique views the border as being between current and potential capability. This technique can be used where there are issues that the mentee finds difficult to address, or does not accept that certain issues are relevant to the mentoring relationship. Ultimately the decision about what to disclose and what is relevant should belong to the mentee not the mentor. The best learning takes place at the edge of what is known and accepted.

Another technique to add to what can be discussed and creating openness is for the mentor and mentee to agree, at least once each time they meet to delve into the zone of discomfort which may also show how meaningful the relationship is. This may also be called ‘expanding the envelope’ (Persaud, 2001). This means people can either adapt themselves to their environment to avoid challenge, or adapt themselves to become more adaptable. The adaptation is not aimed at making the mentee more compliant but of allowing a wider discussion of phenomena.

Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) argue that establishing the grounds for relationship success involves the principle of agreeing and clarifying ground rules. The mentor and mentee need to understand what each expects of the other, if they are to play their full parts in the relationship. A technique to do this may start with the mentor and mentee together identifying behaviours and outcomes they don't want so they may each list a descriptive list from the worst possible mentor and mentee. This may include: what attitudes they might have; what behaviours they might exhibit; what they would not do; what kinds of things they might say and what kinds of things they might not say. Characteristics of a poor mentor or mentee might include: (1) always talking, (2) never listening; (3) arrogance; (4) over-familiarity, (5) constantly postponing meetings. They then exchange their lists and compare helping to generate rapport and open up any specific concerns and fears about the relationship. Together they can decide on themes that are appropriate for defining the positive behaviours each should expect of the other. The mentor may then move the conversation away from the relationship to examine the context in which it will operate. The mentor may ask questions such as: what would undermine our relationship, or prevent it from working as well as it should? Also: how will we make sure we don't fall into any of these traps? They may also discuss their expectations about: outcomes and behaviours; provide a baseline to measure progress; establish the boundaries of the relationship and establish who is responsible for what in managing the relationship. They can then discuss differences in views. They may decide on the level of formality that they expect and feel comfortable with in the relationship. They may decide on those topics that the mentee wishes to keep off limits for discussion but this may change once trust has been established (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 2005).

Relationship purpose and relationship management should be discussed sufficiently to acquire a shared understanding shown in this list devised by Megginson and Clutterbuck, (2005):

1. What do they expect to learn from each other?
2. What are their responsibilities towards each other? What are the limits?
3. What responsibilities do they owe to others as a result of the relationship?
4. Where and how often will they meet and for how long?
5. What limits (if any) are there on confidentiality?
6. When and how should they check if the relationship is right for both of them?
7. How happy are they to challenge and confront each other?
8. How do they feel about receiving blunt feedback from each other?
9. Can they really be open with each other. If not, what makes them reticent?
10. Is there anything either of them definitely does not want to talk about?
11. Are they agreed that openness and trust are essential? How will they ensure that happens?
12. Are they both willing to give honest and timely feedback as a critical friend might do?
13. What are they prepared to tell others about their discussions?
14. How formal or informal do they want their meetings to be?
15. How will they measure progress?
16. How will they manage transitions especially at the end of the formal relationship?
17. To what extent are they prepared to share networks?
18. When and how should they review the relationship?
19. How will they celebrate achievements?

The purpose of the mentoring relationship should evolve as trust develops.

However, if the relationship is not successful there has to be a mechanism for confronting the issue. It may be embarrassing for each of them to admit the relationship isn't working and they may feel fear of letting the other person down or even retribution, for this reason there should be a concept of 'no-fault'. It would help if the mentee and mentor agree to engage in a discussion after two or three meetings about whether they are suited to each other, both sides understanding the importance of responding honestly and openly, and that it is better to deal with the issues early on, rather than getting locked into a relationship which is not fulfilling for either of them.

The fact that a relationship did not gel at one point in the learner's progress does not mean that the same mentor will not have potential as a mentor for that mentee in the future. Where the mismatch concerns style or relevance of experience (as opposed to trust), there is often a possibility of reinstating it at a later date Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005).

One of most direct techniques in developing rapport is to find out what a person is passionate about as this will gain an insight into their values. Although people may often hesitate initially about being asked about such matters responding will reveal aspects of their personality and interests that might otherwise be hidden. The effective mentor may use these insights as anchors for other issues about which the mentee feels less enthusiastic (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 2005).

Megginson and Clutterbuck maintain that the physical environment is important in establishing rapport. Some environments are more conducive to reflective dialogue than others. The mentor should discuss with the mentee where they should meet.

These are some of the questions that may be asked when considering this:

1. How shut off from the world do they want to be?
2. How important is daylight?
3. Do they need space to spread papers?
4. What's the right balance between being relaxed and business-like?
5. Where do they normally feel most at ease?
6. What kind of environment makes them feel uncomfortable? Threatened?
7. Do they prefer to work across a table or with nothing between them?
8. How comfortable do they feel with direct eye contact?
9. How much of a distraction would be: corridor noise outside the room? Visible activity outside the room? Other people being able to look in?
10. Would a very small room/very big room be off-putting?
11. Do they feel comfortable about being alone in a room with each other? (especially important in cross-gender relationships, /mentoring between an adult and a child).

12. Do they prefer a lot of light so they can make notes or softer lighting to help them think?

To assist this decision process the mentor can use the technique of asking the mentee to draw the worst possible environment for their meetings and the best on another sheet of paper. They can discuss how they might avoid as many characteristics of the negative picture as possible and create as many of the positive characteristics. Having established what is required, they can attempt to work out together where they might meet.

Meggison and Clutterbuck argue that it is difficult to use techniques otherwise in building rapport as it depends on the responses from the people involved as the interaction unfolds. It is also a reciprocal process so the developing relationship co-evolves. The essential elements of the reciprocity are carefully judged and authentic self-disclosure coupled with evident attentiveness and sensitivity to the other person. Both self-disclosure and acknowledgement are largely tacit, concerned with what isn't being said as much as what is. The basic task of rapport building is to explore an area of common ground, in order to test for common values, attitudes and experience. The starting point for this may be trivial. The content is relatively unimportant, except in so far as it demonstrates sensitivity on the initiator's part to the recipient. However, if the mentee gives clear (though probably tacit) signals that they do not want to be there it may be more productive to move straight to a non-trivial confrontation, such as for example asking if they want to be there. They may then explore together common ground arising from that as the beginning of creating a joint problem-solving climate where the mentor and mentee are working alongside each other, both attempting to find a way of understanding the mentee's experience which will enable him or her to move forward and develop (Meggison and Clutterbuck, 2005).

Techniques to Set Goals

Many people find it difficult to know what they want, why they want it and how to fulfil goals that may seem too big to achieve or which involve too many options. Some people may feel guilty about what they want and may experience conflict between their emotional and rational ambitions. Even when a person has clear goals and has devised a path towards achieving those goals they may lack the required commitment to achieve them. It could be said therefore that achieving what you want in life is a complicated process. The mentor may spend a great deal of time especially in the early stages of the mentoring process in working through these issues especially in gaining clarity and commitment not focusing on deficiencies in the early stages. Boyatzis et al., (2004) argue that it is better to specify an ideal self and then to work towards it. They suggest the development of a learning plan which is composed of 'positive emotional attractors' rather than performance improvement plans which are 'negative emotional attractors'. Boyatzis et al., claim their research to be behaviourally oriented and indicates that change is more likely to occur if people are working towards a positive ideal rather than trying to fill a negative deficiency, particularly at the start of the relationship. Once progress is made then the gaps can be addressed.

Techniques in helping to set goals may help emphasize vision, capability and using the mentees strengths and eventually help in focussing upon the deficiencies, gaps and needs. Boyatzis et al., (2004) have developed a visioning technique. This is based on the belief that if a person is asked who has been the most helpful to them over their career, and what they do, the results follow a pattern. The mentor is asked to note down a maximum of 10 people who have been helpful to them and what they did. Boyatzis claims that 80% of all the comments will be about extending dreams and

reaching for new experiences. They clarify and enlarge what it is to be successful and good and rarely include those people who highlight deficiencies as they do not see this as helping.

Visioning is a technique that is particularly powerful in goal setting (Megginson & Clutterbuck (2005). The core of the effective visioning is the engagement of the mentees senses. The mentee closes his or her eyes and imagine them self as they want to be in a specified period of time. The bigger and broader the goal generally the longer the forward projection will be. The mentor may then ask progressive questions such as: Where do you want to be? (place); describe what you see around you – the environment and people; what is your appearance like?; what are you doing and why?; describe how you feel. If you feel good, what is making you feel that way? Describe how the people around you feel; describe what you hear. The mentor may then ask the mentee having visualized all this, how it is different from now; how big is the gap in which they see themselves and others see them? How big is the gap in how they feel and in how others feel and how the mentee feels about those gaps and does he or she have a desire to bridge them. They can go on to discuss together how to make the vision a reality and what should be the first step. Visioning is best used when the mentee is relatively relaxed as it requires the engagement and focus of the whole consciousness for someone to place him or herself in a possible future. It can also be used to explore and compare different goals by analysing a set of different futures, the mentee can then decide between them. Different situations can be explored and analyzed, for example, comparing the pain of divorce with the suffering of an unhappy marriage.

Identifying Stereotypes

Stereotypes that may exist can be examined from five perspectives:

1. Those the mentor may hold about the mentee.
2. Those the mentee may hold about the mentor.
3. Those they may share about other people with whom the mentee has to interact.
4. Those the mentee holds about him/herself that may hinder the achievement of relationship goals.
5. Those the mentor holds about him/herself that may hinder the achievement of relationship goals.

The mentor may question the mentee and ask him or her, how they would describe this 'type' of person in terms of attributes the mentee admires, and those he or she dislikes. They may ask what they typically do or say and how they would say it and how that makes them feel. This should help the mentee to look at him or herself from the outside and listen to what they are saying. This should help the mentee to recognise and understand the conflicting desires, constraints and drivers that operate on each person. When they learn to recognise them they can start to do something about them if they want to, that is accept them or change them. The mentor can use a tool called issues mapping to help this process. This is useful at the beginning of the developmental mentoring relationship to enable the mentor to understand the mentee in terms of the dilemmas or inner conflicts they face. The process is about listening for recurring themes, for contradictions, for opposites and patterns of any kind. Each time the mentor identifies a theme, he draws it as a line. At each end of the line the mentor identifies a pair of competing demands upon the mentee.

The Use of Narratives and Dialogue in Mentoring

The use of narratives in mentoring is based in psychology. Kelly, (1955) used personal construct psychology to address ways of construing oneself in relation to the world. People can act in accordance with, or become, the story we tell about 'how

things are'. McAdams (1993) addressed the concept of people as being the stories they tell, rather than simply telling stories. Bettelheim (1991) wrote on the role of stories and tales in our lives which all speak to different aspects of story in our lives.

Silence may be used as a technique by the mentor to allow the mentee to ruminate on the implications of a point that has struck home. The mentor will ideally allow the mentee to decide when to move on.

Dialogue in mentoring can be regarded as having seven layers of increasing depth and impact. This broad technique provides some guidelines on how to develop the skills of dialogue at each level:

1. Social dialogue. This may be developed by demonstrating interest in the other person, in learning about them and seeking points of common interest. The other person is accepted for who they are – virtues, faults, strengths and weaknesses. They should be open in talking about their own interests and concerns.
2. Technical dialogue meets the mentee's needs for learning about work processes, policies and systems. To develop this task should be clarified and the mentee's current level of knowledge assessed. The mentor should be precise, explain how as well as why, check understanding and ideally be available when needed.
3. Tactical dialogue helps the mentee to work out practical ways of dealing with issues in their work or personal life. The mentor may help develop this by clarifying the situation and the desired and undesirable outcomes. Then identifying the barriers and potential sources of help. They can provide a sounding board and be clear about the first and subsequent steps by developing a plan with timeline and milestones.
4. Strategic dialogue takes the broader perspective, helping the mentee to put problems, opportunities and ambitions into context (e.g. putting together a career development plan) and to envision what they want to achieve through the relationship and through their own endeavours. The mentor will use the same skills as for tactical dialogue but also clarify the broader context. They can assess the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. A variety of scenarios may be explored to suggest what would happen after a course of action. Decisions and plans may be closely linked to long-term goals and fundamental values. Radical alternatives may be considered.
5. Dialogue for self-insight enables the mentee to understand their own drives, ambitions, fears and thinking patterns. The mentee should be willing to be open and honest with him/herself, as it is their journey of discovery after the mentor has opened the door.

The mentee should have the time and space to think through and come to terms with each item of self-knowledge. The mentor should help the mentee be rigorous in their analysis and be aware of a follow up vague statements or descriptions. They should explore the reasons behind statements wherever possible and help the mentee understand the link between what they say and do and their values and needs. Tools for self discovery may be introduced such as self-diagnostics on learning styles, communication styles, emotional intelligence or personality type. The mentor should challenge constructively, giving feedback from their own impressions, where it may help the mentee reflect on how they are seen by others. They may also help the mentee to interpret and internalize feedback from other people.

6. Dialogue for behavioural change allows the mentee to combine insight, strategy and tactics into a coherent programme of personal adaptation. For developing this dialogue all the previous skills are required and the mentor should help the mentee to envision outcomes both intellectually and emotionally. They should clarify and reinforce why the change is important to the mentee and establish how the mentee will know they are making progress. The mentor should assess the commitment to change and if appropriate be the person to whom the mentee makes the commitment. The mentor should encourage, support and express belief in the mentees ability to achieve what they have committed to.
7. Integrative dialogue helps the mentee develop a clearer sense of who they are, what they contribute and how they fit in. It enables the mentee to gain a clearer sense of self and the world around them; to develop greater balance in his or her life, and to resolve inner conflict. It explores personal meaning and a holistic approach to living. This dialogue may be usefully characterized as a dance, in which both partners take the lead in turns. It involves exploring multiple often radically different perspectives, shifting frequently from the big picture to the immediate issue and back again. Both profound and naive questions may be asked. The mentor may encourage the mentee to build a broader and more complex picture of he himself or herself through word, picture and analogy. The mentor should help the mentee to write their story – past, present and future. Issues may be analyzed together to identify common strands and connections also identifying anomalies between values which are important to the mentee. They mentee can be helped to make the choices about what to hang on to and what to let go of. The mentee should develop an understanding of and make use of inner restlessness and become more content with who they are (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005).

These steps represent increasing depth of reflection for the mentee and a corresponding need for increasing skills on the part of the mentor. A single mentoring session may involve operating at several layers. In general establishing dialogue at the social level assists dialogue at the technical level; technical dialogue can evolve into strategic and so on up the ladder. As the skill of the mentor increases, mentor and

mentee can both recognize the appropriate level of dialogue to apply at a particular point and engage the mentee appropriately. Very often the mentee has little or no experience of operating at the deeper levels of dialogue and the mentor has to work with them to establish successive layers of competence, one by one. In some cases, for example, alienated teenage offenders with little education and low self-esteem find even social dialogue a struggle. It may take many sessions of building trust and practicing dialogue, before the mentor can even begin to explore deeper issues with the mentee. There is an argument for extending the length of such relationships so that there is time to build the mentee's skills of dialogue. It also suggests that providing additional help, through discussion groups, where mentees can learn the basic skills of dialogue in a more structured, formal manner, should be an element of mentoring programmes for such groups.

As structured mentoring matures as a helping discipline, it is important that the emphasis shifts from how people are put together to how to improve the quality and impact of the dialogue in which they engage. The seven layers technique can be helpful in directing attention to developing the skills required by the mentors.

One of the central tasks of mentoring is to help people bring their lives into focus. The 'my story' technique is used to help people make fundamental changes in their ambitions, in their behaviours and in their lives in general and is thought to be a very useful and powerful technique (Megginson & Clutterbuck, (2005). The mentee is set a task of writing over a week or two, 'my story, past, present and future'. The story will have multiple dimensions and it is of value for the mentee to revisit what they have written and add or amend over a period. This can be a deeply affecting experience and

helps the individual recognize how much they have learned. The story should include many elements such as a plot and sub-plots. It requires a cast of supporting characters and a background, which is the environment, place and society where the story unfolds. There should be a moral (or several morals) to the story which will include choices and dilemmas, drama, disappointments and triumphs. There should be a sense of continuity and grand themes that are echoed as the story unfolds. Exploring the past in this way provides insights into motivations, fears, aspirations and forgotten dreams. The story demands that these be related to the present so helps the mentee understand more clearly how and why they got to be who they are. Then they can start to consider how they feel about who they are, and where they are in their lives. A deeper understanding of the past and present helps the mentee write 'my story' in the future. This is generally difficult as they are choosing what they really want and are visualising who and where they want to be. Tapping into their grand themes is found to be a very powerful source of self-motivation. The mentee may not be used to writing so the mentor may need to encourage this process and perhaps begin the story verbally together, with the mentor acting as the audience, and the mentee the storyteller. The mentor can help the mentee recognise and explore the plots, moral and grand themes, so that they can develop a deeper understanding together (Bolton, 2001; Bolton et al., 2004).

Understanding a Need for Change

A technique described by Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) which addresses the issue of commitment is the 'change cascade'. This recognises that people go through a number of steps to achieve commitment and then more steps to move from commitment to achievement. Each step is in itself insufficient to reach achievement. The mentee

will require awareness but that may not be enough to stimulate action to improve. Understanding is needed for change to be brought into focus and underlining the benefits of taking action and the disadvantages of not doing so. This is an intellectual recognition rather than an emotional one. Acceptance occurs when the emotional and intellectual senses of urgency align. The benefits of action strongly outweigh inaction. Commitment involves a solemn promise to oneself or to others whose respect you value. It is said to link achievement of the change goal with the individual's sense of identity to make a self-image. To fail would mean diminishing yourself. A plan of action is then required with positive feedback to reinforce the commitment. If after initial effort, there is little sign of progress, enthusiasm may dwindle and for old habits to reassert themselves and the effort-reward equation is re-evaluated. The mentor will support the mentee through all these stages but will be most effective at the awareness stage.

Identifying Priorities

The 'change balloon' technique may be used by the mentor to help the mentee to identify priorities. This will help the mentee to know exactly what he/she wants and identify the elements involved towards achieving commitment and getting started on changing. The mentor asks the mentee to write down their wish list. This may refer to something specific like their next job or it may be life in general. The mentor draws a hot air balloon, with a large basket. Each wish will be written on a note which becomes a weight hanging on the side of the basket. The mentor then asks the mentee to imagine the basket has sprung a slow leak and a weight will have to be cut loose. They decide which wish can they afford to drop. This wish is then recorded as the mentees lowest priority on the list. The weights fall one by one until the highest priority wish is

left. The mentor and mentee may then discuss the priority rankings. The mentees may find it difficult to decide on which wish to let fall as they may be inter-linked. These may be explored at a later stage in the mentoring and when working on one of the wishes it may be relevant to notice which ones are linked to it (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 2005).

Helping to Prioritize

Work on your priorities is a technique which uses a 4-D formula to help the mentee to prioritize:

- 1 Dump it – learn to say ‘no, I choose not to do this’ and be firm.
- 2 Delegate it – hand some tasks to others.
- 3 Defer it – defer the issue to a later time and schedule a later time to do it.
- 4 Do it – do it now if it is an important project. Don’t make excuses. Give yourself a reward for completing these projects.

Periodically the mentee is meant to ask him/herself, ‘Is what I am doing right now helping me achieve my goals’.

The mentee is encouraged to establish their goals by:

1. Define your most important goals for yourself (don’t use others’ goals).
2. Make your goals meaningful (e.g. what are the rewards and benefits you envision?).
3. Your goals must be specific and measurable.
4. Your goals must be flexible (not so rigid that good opportunities are lost).
5. Your goals must be challenging and exciting.
6. Your goals must be in alignment with your values (honesty, fairness, etc.)
7. Your goals must be well balanced. When you are 100 years old and people ask ‘If you had to live your life over again what would you do differently?’ think about what you might say and plan your goals now to accomplish those things.
8. Your goals must be realistic – but remember, there are no such things as unrealistic goals, only unrealistic time frames!
9. Your goals must include contribution – you need to be a giver, not just a taker.
10. Your goals need to be supported.

Establishing Current Reality

The 'grow model' may be used in order to establish the current reality of the mentee. They may start by the mentee rating themselves on a variety of factors, which may or may not be important to them or the mentor may have their own set of factors such as; job satisfaction; being a good parent; being happy; building confidence; being more creative; having a clear sense of direction or meeting targets. The mentee will be asked to rank these factors in some way for example by placing them in baskets marked must do, should do, nice to do or by locating them on an urgent or important matrix. The mentor will then select the highest priority goals and define more clearly what a particular goal means to them thereby achieving a greater level of precision about the desired state and how they would recognize it. They then rate themselves on a scale of 1 to 10 in terms of personal effectiveness. The mentor will ask the mentee on each goal what a perfect score of 10 would be like for them and together they can work on how much improvement the mentee wants to achieve possibly within a time frame (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 2005).

Putting Goals into Context

Other techniques include 'extremes' which helps the mentee put goals into context and decide whether or not, or how much, they really want to change. This may be used where the mentee is confused between what they feel obliged or ought to do and what they feel comfortable doing. It may also it may be used when a dilemma is unlikely to be clear-cut. It helps to establish the level of their emotional commitment to the goal and help to modify their goals into ones they can more realistically achieve. The

mentee describes their goal and the mentor helps him or her to define a spectrum on which this goal sits. This is based on questions such as: ‘What do you think you need to change from and to?’ and ‘How do you want circumstances to be different?’ The mentor then asks the mentee to identify the extreme ends of the spectrum and assign an emotive label to each extreme. The mentor may then ask the mentee where they are on the spectrum now and where they think they should be. They question who will think this is where they should be on the spectrum. Will other people think they should be somewhere else on the spectrum. They will ask what the consequences are of remaining where they think they are on the spectrum and the consequences of moving to a new position on the spectrum. Especially they will determine from the mentee whether there is a position on the spectrum that they are more likely to commit to and stick to.

Logic trees, is a technique commonly used where mentees feel unable to start a developmental journey because they cannot see a clear path to their goal, as it is too complex for them. The mentor will help them to break down the apparently complex goal into more manageable steps.

Understanding Habits

A technique called ‘understanding your habits’, (Canfield et al., 2000) is a technique based on the assumption that successful people have successful habits. Unsuccessful people do not. That is successful people do not drift to the top, it takes focused action, personal discipline and lots of energy every day to make things happen. In order to do the same the mentor will help the mentee to understand their own habits and be willing to change them to achieve the results they want. This technique is based

on the assumption that 90 per cent of normal behaviour is based on habits, which therefore means your habits will determine your quality of life. It is thought that it takes 3 – 4 weeks to change a habit. At that point, it starts to become easier to engage in the new habit than to revert back to the old habit. On this basis it is said that if you keep on doing what you have always done you will keep on getting what you have always had!

Using Metaphors to Decide on a Goal

There needs to be commitment to pursuing a goal. If he/she is not committed, it is pointless and it may undermine the relationship between the mentor and mentee if the mentor is trying to impose a goal on the mentee.

This involves using techniques to help the mentee give structure to complex situations and simplify how to deal with the experience. It is important for the mentor not to impose their own contextual understanding on the mentee. This may be achieved by the use of metaphors. This should establish parallels between the situation as the mentee sees it now and a different context matching his or her experience particularly at an emotional level. The metaphor may involve strong imagery and language that captures the imagination. This use of metaphors should contain clear transitions or decision points, where choices have to be made and the impact of choices may be explored. Three steps may be used in a simple example of this technique. The first step is to select the metaphor. The mentor and mentee may discuss this choice before the mentee identifies one that he or she feels is most relevant to their situation. Placing the mentee within the metaphor, their role will be examined and the context and background filled in as much as possible. The second step embeds the metaphor in

reality. The mentor will ask for examples of how the metaphor has been played out in real life. If some elements of these examples do not fit the metaphor, they are recorded and set aside for subsequent discussion. Next the discussion moves to how the metaphor has evolved in the past and how it might be expected to evolve in the future. Exploring the metaphor together from the viewpoint of other people who could be involved may also enrich the understanding of the issues. In the third step the mentee is asked to extract lessons from the metaphor. How does it make them feel? For example, optimistic or pessimistic, challenged or bored? The mentee might then be asked what aspects of the metaphor would have had the greatest impact on their life and what elements of the metaphor would they like to change. The mentee may need to recognize that the metaphor may bring them less success and satisfaction than they want and they may need to describe a different metaphor that describes more closely what they want. The mentor can then work with them until they have a clearer perception of the new metaphor and the role they aim to play within it (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2000). Metaphor is regarded as a powerful method of provoking both intellectual and emotional exploration of the dimensions of a situation. Using the metaphor of a play, the mentor can help the mentee to look at the situation from the perspective of the principal actors, the audience and the playwright. They are stepping back and looking at the interaction as if they are disconnected from it.

Identifying Issues

Role environment mapping described by Megginson & Clutterbuck (2005) is a technique to help people identify issues they may not be aware of. This draws on theories and approaches relating to awareness building and personal change. 'Mind Mapping' is a process that frees up new ideas and connections between the familiar and

more creative alternatives. ‘Applied Behavioural Analysis’ enables an understanding of the impact of antecedents or consequences on learnt patterns of behaviour. Models of personal growth and change illustrate how change can be blocked at important stages in the cycle of experience. For example, a need can be deflected away from awareness towards a familiar behaviour pattern that blocks development. In role environment mapping, the mentor uses probing questions to facilitate and extend the mentee’s awareness of the present situation and the blocks and barriers to change. This can operate at several levels according to the starting awareness of the individual and the issues they need to tackle. The searching questions allow a map to be built up of the mentee in a role and in the process the learning points and blockages begin to surface. The map includes defining forces which the individual exerts (or fails to exert) upon their environment and the pressures upon them. This can reveal the mentees own self limiting beliefs and barriers to change. Deep tensions can be uncovered in this process and is more effective where there is trust and empathy between the mentor and mentee. The mentee should recognise when to draw back from an issue that may be too raw or unhelpful for the mentee.

Stepping out of and into the box is a technique to identify components of an issue. Stepping into the box helps to acknowledge the individual’s own perspectives, joining them to try to understand what they are thinking and feeling, and why. This may be from a purely rational viewpoint, not wanting to explore their emotions for fear of what they might discover about themselves. Others may simply be too caught up in the emotion of a situation to think about it rationally. Stepping out of the box is about helping the mentee to distance themselves from an issue, either to examine it intellectually from other people’s or broader perspectives or to help them to empathise

with and understand the feelings of other protagonists in the situation. To try and fully understand an issue it is usually necessary to explore it from each of these perspectives. A small insight into one perspective can make progress in another and the skilled mentor can use frequent shifts of questioning perspectives to make incremental advances.

Learning from Previous Decisions

There are techniques described by Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) that attempt to join the past through the present to the future. Career pathing is a technique to help the mentee learn lessons from previous decisions. The mentor will help by first asking questions such as what the mentee's options were in the past and why they chose a particular one. They might ask what advice was available to them, how they internalized that advice and how they feel now about the choice. Given the opportunity they ask if they would choose differently now. The mentor takes the mentee through a series of decision points by producing a mind map drawing (Buzan, 1995). Sometimes it may not have been choice but the mentee may have drifted into a set of circumstances, or possibly where a choice was made for them. Some choices made may have expanded possibilities for the mentee and others restricted them. The mentor should help to analyze each pivotal point where a decision was made, drawing out lessons concerning the nature and management of the process. They then project this into the future by questioning them as to how they will change the way they will make pivotal decisions based on what they have learnt.

A Technique to Elicit the Mentee's Values

One of the functions of mentoring is to enhance awareness of the degree to which the mentee makes his (or her) own life, and accept the part they play in creating their own world. This may be aided by: opening up the mentee's values; changing belief sets; bringing stereotypes out into the open and trying to understand their own life. It is thought that a technique to elicit the mentee's values helps them to make fulfilling choices, take appropriate decisions, formulate action plans, set goals and lead a balanced life. It raises the mentee's self awareness of how their feelings and behaviour are affected by actions and events that support and challenge their values. The mentee is asked to identify special, peak moments in their lives which were particularly poignant or rewarding. The technique is based on one of a series of value clarification exercises (Whitworth et al., 1998). This is most effective when the mentee selects a specific moment, or there will be too much experience to allow pinpointing of specific values. The mentor can then ask: what is happening? who was there? what was going on? what was important about that, and what else? The mentor should listen carefully to the words the mentee uses and how their voice changes. They periodically pause and test the words used to see which values the mentee responds to. Having established from the words used what are the important values to the mentee, the mentor can then ask questions about each value to expand on each one.

The exercise can be repeated and reviewed to ensure that the mentee's self-awareness grows; their understanding of their values becomes deeper and more effective for them. The list of values can also be used to aid decision making, using a values based decision matrix. The mentee gives a score out of 10 for each value based on the level of satisfaction. They can be challenged to take decisions based on how their values are challenged or ignored for each outcome. This can also be used to

review life balance issues for the mentees to use the scores as stimuli for action. Values may also be established by asking the mentee to list what they must have in their life and to think about what is important to them and what others say about them, and focus on what values are involved. They may also describe a time in their lives when they felt angry, frustrated or upset and reverse the descriptions of what is shown up. This exercise should mean something powerful to the mentee and give the mentor a series of insights as to what is important to him or her.

Grayling (2004), suggests that it would be helpful for the mentor to find out what are the mentee's taboo areas and perhaps grade how much difficulty the mentee would have in discussing these.

Perception of Success

Perception of success is one of the most common forms of transference that occurs between mentor and mentee. It would be very easy for the mentor to impose his or her assumptions about what success means upon the other party. A generic definition of success is 'achieving what you value'. Achievement on its own is not enough as a person may still be discontented. Achieving an outcome which is not important to the person or something they don't particularly want is not success. Nor is achieving something somebody else wants unless they are doing it with the intention of pleasing that person. The mentor therefore needs to recognize and accept the validity of the mentee's definition of success and be careful not to impose their own. They should help the mentee clarify what success means to them and relate life and career goals to that meaning. Included in this technique the mentor may ask the mentee to consider some generic success factors such as money, status or peer recognition, job satisfaction

and work life balance. The mentee will allocate 10 points between these factors, according to how much they value each of them as being what success means to them. Then they are asked to do the same looking backwards e.g. 10 years and the same length of time forwards. The mentor will then ask what changes they see in success criteria between these dates. The mentee may change his view of his ideas about current success following this. It may be useful for the mentor to see if the mentee is applying different values to his or hers and adjust their approach accordingly. The mentee may suggest other success factors such as: happiness; doing good; health; family; making a difference and security.

Ending the Mentoring Relationship

Two methods have been proposed by Clutterbuck and Megginson (2004) for ending the mentoring relationship generally. The first is for it to be wound down gradually and the second for it to be wound up deliberately. One difficulty in a mentoring relationship is that it can lead to dependence which can even have parent-child dynamics. Letting go can be emotionally difficult and so the mentoring relationship can in many cases just drift on. Ideally the relationship should begin with the understanding that the relationship will change at the end and that this is clearly articulated at the beginning and throughout, especially at review times. Both mentor and mentee should know from the beginning what they are seeking to achieve and how the relationship would change over time. There may be willingness to revisit this understanding and agree to change it. The mentor may explain the two way benefit to mentoring and ask the mentee for feedback on his or her mentoring skills.

It is important that not too much is 'promised' at the beginning or create expectations that all the mentees desired outcomes will occur to a significant degree. Prioritising the outcomes will help the mentee be realistic in his or her expectations and help to focus both mentor and mentee in their meetings. The review during the relationship and at the end can help both mentor and mentee summarise for each other what they have gained from the relationship and how its impact could be enhanced. By defining success at the start of the relationship the emotional issues of ending it may be reduced. If the mentor and mentee together have set realistic goals and have worked towards them steadily together, then ending the mentoring relationship can become an obvious and natural process (Clutterbuck & Megginson, 2004).

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