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Motivations of Sport Volunteers in England

A review for Sport England



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Summary

This review is the first to combine the findings of commercial reports and academic research into the motivations of sports volunteers with general theory understanding volunteers and volunteering. This provides a broader understanding of volunteering in sport. It provides a useful resource for anyone in the planning, management and delivery of sports volunteering and a stepping stone for further research.

Volunteering and sports participation are both extremely popular activities for English adults. Volunteering in support of sports teams, clubs and other organisations is one of the most commonly undertaken types of volunteering in England. Within 'sports volunteering' exists an extremely wide range of roles — coach, captain, secretary, chairman, treasurer, administrator, fundraiser, washing the kit, transporting children, and a range of other more niche and sport-specific activities.

Volunteering is best understood as a process through which volunteers move, not necessarily in a linear or a constant way, over the course of their lives. This variation over time can be understood as a consequence of particular values, circumstances and experience. Similarly, people move through different types of sports participation in response to personal circumstances and experience. The processes of moving through volunteering in sport and participating in sport run in parallel because the two are usually connected. The sport volunteering roles identified above — which involve different demands of time and skills — are motivated by different factors at different stages of people's lives. Sports volunteering and participation can be understood as a consequence of different forms of social capital.

Thus promoting volunteering is best understood as facilitating a developmental progression through roles, rather than as targeting market segments with particular potential.

Theory helps us understand changes in the nature of volunteering over people's lives. A distinction between unpaid work, activism and serious leisure as different forms of volunteering can be applied to the different roles that people take within sports. For young people with professional aspirations, either within sport or more broadly, volunteering as unpaid work enables them to develop skills and demonstrate competence which will be of economic value to them. For slightly older volunteers, volunteering offers the opportunity to support the sport they love and to give back to their team or club or to support their children's interests — a form of mutual aid or 'activism'. For older volunteers, who may have stopped participating in the sport 'on the field' but want to stay involved, taking on new roles offers the opportunity to explore new opportunities and learn new skills — a form of 'serious leisure'. Each of these different roles has different rewards and motivations.

This review of literature on sports volunteering applies these insights. The review, along with consultation with key individuals across the world, identified the following themes which structure this report:

- Descriptive statistics on volunteers, including who volunteers in sport, what they do and how the nature of sports volunteering changes between roles.
- Motivations of volunteers at club level, which considers a range of literature on sports volunteer motivations and looks to develop a typology of sports volunteers.

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- Volunteers at mega-events, exploring how volunteering at events such as Olympic and Commonwealth Games differs from other forms of sports volunteering and may be related to it.
- Volunteers at regional events, which in many ways closely resembles club level volunteering as it is more linked to passion for the sport than is mega-event volunteering.
- Coaches as volunteers, and in particular the transition from player to volunteer coach and the role of parents as coaches.
- Volunteers in education and youth organisations, although we found no literature on sports volunteers in education, and the literature on youth organisations did not separate sport from the other activities they provide as a medium for developing young people.
- Young people and students as sports volunteers, with the literature partially contradicting the prevailing view that young people volunteer for instrumental, careerist reasons. These motives are significant, but so are friends and a passion for sport.
- Older people as sports volunteers, who are often the core of sports clubs or organisations, fulfilling roles that require significant time commitments and a range of skills.
- Volunteers' effect on the experience of sports' participants and promoting motivation, which includes the positive impact of enthusiasm, and a passion for the sport and expertise; and a negative impact from the inherent nature of volunteer organisations to attract similar people. The impact of volunteers extends to amateur coaching, which can provide cheap instruction, or a negative experience.
- Explanations of volunteers moving between roles, particularly over their lives as circumstances change and also in response to changes within clubs and sports.

To develop these themes an initial literature search found 131 relevant items of research: abstracts of these are collected in Appendix 1 (see Contents list pp. vi-xii).

Fifty nine of the initial items were selected for review in depth.

Of those in-depth reviews, 14 reviews supporting Results section 4.1 (the roles of sports volunteers) and section 4.2 (motivations of sports clubs volunteers) are included in Appendix 2 (see Contents list p. xii).

Following analysis presented in the Results section, we make suggestions for future research into sports volunteers, in particular highlighting the need for work on how roles change over time and how this affects volunteers, sports and participants.

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Introduction

This review of the motivations of volunteers in sport in England first gives an overview of how many volunteers there are and what they do. It then reviews what is known about motivations of volunteers in England in general, showing the distribution of volunteering, how motives vary between groups, changes in motives, and how motives are researched. The methods used in this review are described. The results of this review are structured by the major roles sports volunteers take, with contrasts between age groups. This includes a section on volunteers' effect on the sporting experience of others. A conclusion interprets the findings from sport in the broader context of volunteering in England. This allows the extensive research on general volunteering to be synthesised with that on sport volunteering – the first time this has been done.

1. The role of volunteers in sport and their importance to Sport England's promotion of participation

Volunteers in sport play a critical role in providing opportunities for sports participation for themselves and others. As a starting point, the most comprehensive overview of where this volunteering takes place was provided by a 2002 survey for Sport England. This estimated numbers of formal volunteers (those volunteering in an organisation) and the hours contributed. Findings are summarised in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Formal volunteering in sport in England, 2002

Sectors	Volunteers	%	Hours in last year	%
Sports clubs	1,504,675	74.7	219,869,721	82.6
Middle level NGB structure (e.g. regions, counties)	61,961	3.0	15,122,594	5.7
National level NGB (NGBs)	7,660	0.4	1,908,585	0.7
Schools	96,915	5.0	2,125,341	0.8
Universities	18,212	0.9	1,487,584	0.6
FE colleges	0	0	0	0
Young persons organisations	273,734	13.6	21,451,553	8.1
Disability organisations	23,407	1.1	2,639,649	1.0
Major events	26,095	1.3	1,552,806	0.6
Total	2,012,659		266,157,833	

Source: Taylor, P., Nichols, G., Holmes, K., James, M., Gratton, C., Garrett, R., Kokolakis, T., Mulder, C. & King, L. (2003) Sports Volunteering in England London: Sport England, p. 21

An omnibus survey found that, of the population who volunteered in sport, 9.4% only volunteered informally (outside an organisation) and these accounted for just 5.1% of the hours contributed to sport. Sport volunteering is therefore a highly embedded activity, structured to a greater or lesser extent through clubs, teams and other sporting and educational organisations.

Given the limitations on the number of interviews which it is possible to conduct and the ability of respondents to accurately recall hours contributed, Table 1.1 gives the best estimate available of where sports volunteering takes place and the relative importance of different contexts. Volunteers in sports clubs account for the great majority of sport's volunteering. They are central to Sport England's previous strategies to increase sports participation, so a major part of this report examines who they are and their motivations. Other levels of the National Governing Body structure are also important. The next most significant area is youth organisations, in which just over half of the volunteers and hours were contributed by the Scout Association and Girlguiding UK together. This is a contentious area to include as, first, it is difficult to estimate the proportion of time spent on sport within the organisations' activities; and, second, the purpose of the organisations is the positive development of young people, with participation in sport being just one medium for this development. In schools, 70% of the sports volunteers were in primary schools — but this estimate did not include teachers giving time outside of their working hours. In the year of this survey 40% of event volunteers were accounted for by the 2002 Commonwealth Games.

Changes since 2002

Between 2002 and 2009 there appears to have been an approximate 15% reduction in the number of sports clubs, although this estimate is limited by the quality of information available (Nichols, 2013). Evidence for this reduction is supported by a decline in the proportion of sports participation taking place in clubs and an increase in the proportion taking place informally between 2005/6 and 2013/14, as shown by the Active People Surveys (Harris, Taylor & Nichols, 2015). These surveys show a decline in participation in (in ascending order of size) swimming, tennis, football, golf, cricket, basketball and rugby union. Increases are in fitness, athletics, gym and recreational cycling. These trends show a move to more individual and flexible participation, and probably also a change in facility provision as a consequence of local government budget cuts. A trend towards participation outside of the formal club structure, although one which shows the role volunteering can play in non-team sports, is represented by the growth in Parkruns (see Appendix 4) — an activity which has capitalised on the need for participation opportunities to match flexible lifestyles, both in sport and volunteering.

The 2012 Olympic and Paralympics involved a large number of volunteers and raised the public profile of volunteers through extensive and positive media coverage around the role of the volunteers, called Gamesmakers. This mega-event may have attracted some new people to volunteering in sport, who may then have been persuaded to volunteer in a less glamorous context. Event volunteers are considered separately, below.

Overall one might expect sports volunteering to change in a similar way to volunteering in general, and to reflect sports participation. Rates of volunteering and sports participation are steady; but within these there is a trend towards — or an increased recognition of the role of — short term 'episodic' volunteering, and informal and individual sports participation, both reflecting the fragmentation of leisure time.

2. Volunteering in England

This section gives an overview of volunteering in England, including: conceptualising volunteering, the distributing of volunteering between groups, volunteer motivations, volunteering in different ages groups and changes in volunteering. This provides a background for understanding volunteering in sport.

2.1 Understanding volunteering in relation to leisure and sport

It is useful to understand volunteering and sport as distinct but often overlapping forms of leisure, both of which tend to be thought of as being freely taken part in. Both are socially-embedded activities and as such are subject to a range of external influences, including changes in the time available and values (Nichols & Holmes et al., 2013). What people think of as leisure and volunteering varies between cultures (Meijs, Handy, Cnaan et al., 2003). For this reason our review material has been drawn from Western Europe, North America and Australasia, regions which share a broadly common volunteering and sporting culture.

Unpaid work, activism, and leisure

Volunteering can be understood theoretically as three overlapping categories of activity: unpaid work or service, activism, and leisure (Billis, 1993; Rochester, 2010) (Figure 2.1).

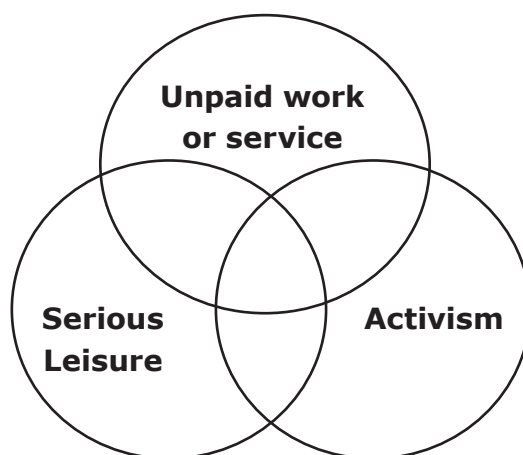


Figure 2.1 A three-perspective model of volunteering

Source Rochester, Ellis Paine & Howlett (2010), p. 15

This model aids the understanding of how volunteers experience the activity, but can also be applied to the understanding of how those who manage volunteers themselves understand, plan and direct their activities.

Each type of volunteering has characteristic motivations, areas of activity and roles. 'Unpaid work' regards volunteering as operating in a similar way to paid work and as providing similar rewards, apart from a wage, and as such is a relatively narrow definition of volunteering. Here, volunteers provide a service for others within organisations run on a broadly 'professional' basis. As examples, volunteers in mountain rescue or lifeboats (Nichols, Goel, et al., 2014) may see their organisations primarily as providing a service to others and it

is fundamental to the services these organisations provide that they are run along professionalized lines. Organisers of the London Olympic Games may have seen the volunteers as providing a service to others and a significant additional resource in the form of unpaid labour (Nichols & Ralston, 2014b). This is not to diminish the rewards experienced by the volunteers themselves. An example is long-term event volunteering following the 2002 Commonwealth Games which, for some, provided a sense of 'social inclusion' in the same way as might be found in paid work (Nichols & Ralston, 2011).

'Activism' occurs when volunteers join together to express shared values, coming together to mutually support each other. This is done through what are termed 'grass roots' organisations, most often without paid staff and sometimes without formal structures of organisation. Volunteers in this view are not seen merely as helpers, but rather are the leaders of the organisation who organise and run all of its activities. This explains the multitude of leisure organizations in which volunteers are bound together by shared enthusiasms (Hoggett and Bishop, 1985): for example, sports clubs, which allow members to express a collective enthusiasm for a particular sport. Here volunteers may be driven by their passion for sport and for the social opportunities it creates for participants and volunteers.

Volunteering as 'serious leisure' has drawn on the concept championed by Stebbins (2007, 2015) in which leisure is characterized by a long-term commitment, a shared ethos, a career structure, the need to occasionally persevere in the face of challenges, and offering a sense of identity. Numerous studies have used this framework to understand volunteers and their reasons for engaging. A strong sense of identity associated with a sport or a club and a desire to improve one's own or others' performance level can explain the long-term commitment of the core volunteers in a club, 'stalwarts' (Nichols, 2005) and in youth organizations (Nichols & King, 1999) discussed below.

For many volunteers, the type of volunteering they do and their motivations for doing so are likely to include elements of two or more of the different types of volunteering — so the circles overlap. Volunteering roles and motivations rarely fit into just one type, and may even be contradictory. Volunteering is not the same as membership of 'non-profit' organisations or of organisations led by volunteers. So a sports club member is not necessarily also a volunteer, although being a member of a sports club increases the opportunities to be asked to volunteer.

Dimensions of volunteering

An international comparison of what people think of as volunteering (Cnaan, Handy & Wandsworth, 1996) found four common dimensions:

- Free choice, which ranged from free to obligated
- Remuneration, which ranged from none to a stipend/ low pay
- Structure, which ranged from formal to informal
- Intended beneficiaries, which ranged from complete strangers, to friends or relatives, to oneself.

A *pure* definition of a volunteer would be at one end of these scales, with a high degree of free choice, no remuneration, within a formal structure and a high degree of altruism

— benefiting people other than oneself. Further surveys have found that net-cost to the volunteer (altruism) appears to be most important in defining a volunteer (Meijs, Handy, Cnaan et al., 2003). However, we discuss below how this scale of volunteer 'purity' may be changing (Hustinx & Meijs, 2011) and may vary between generations.

Of course, as none of us enjoys complete purity of purpose, there has always been and will always be a balance to be struck between altruism and self-interest. For example, a volunteer helping to run a sports club may be motivated to help others play the sport, but also to create the opportunity for themselves or their children to play, to reap the rewards of conviviality of club membership, and/or to reinforce and express a self-identity associated with commitment to a particular sport or a role in a club. Thus motivations are a complex mix which varies between people, roles and circumstances and which are likely to change over time.

Similarly, volunteering and leisure can have varying degrees of freedom. Below we discuss how volunteering tends to be presented to young people as an obligation and a means to an end of gaining advantage in the employment market (Dean, 2014). More generally, leisure has been juxtaposed to paid work — as activity where individuals can more freely express their own values, but which is inevitably constrained by the time available. A fragmentation and irregularity of available time explains trends towards episodic volunteering, discussed below, paralleled by trends away from clubs and towards more individualistic sports participation.

An unresolved debate centers on whether more individualized experiences of leisure, volunteering, and life in general — which has been termed 'liquid life' (Bauman, 2005) — offers more opportunities (Blackshaw, 2010) or constraints, and how this affects volunteering (Hustinx, et al., 2010).

This section has introduced understandings of volunteering and leisure which in turn help understand the motives of volunteers in sport. This discussion provides the background for more detailed consideration of trends in the amount of volunteering, the type of volunteering and who volunteers.

2.2 Numbers and trends in volunteering

This section reports volunteering in England by gender, age, disability, ethnicity, social class and region. Differences in sport volunteering generally mirror those in sport participation.

Overview

The United Kingdom has a voluntary sector of over 160,000 registered charities and many more informal voluntary organisations. These are supported by millions of volunteers of all ages — 48% of British adults volunteered at least once a month in 2014 and 74% at least once in the year (Cabinet Office, 2015). Many volunteer far more regularly than this. Volunteers take roles across all sectors of society, in some cases supporting paid staff and in others taking the lead in running voluntary organisations.

As the previous section outlined, volunteering ranges from formal to informal. While nearly half of British adults do some volunteering every month, the proportion who engage in formal volunteering monthly is closer to a quarter (27%), while 41% engaged in formal volunteering at least once in 2014 (Cabinet Office, 2015). These numbers have stayed remarkably consistent over the last 10 years. Rates of regular (at least once a month) formal volunteer-

ing peaked at 29% of British adults in 2005 and again in 2012, and fell to 25% between 2009 and 2011, while less regular (at least once a year) formal volunteering has stayed between 39% (2001 and 2011) and 44% (2005 and 2013) (Cabinet Office, 2015).

The 2012–13 Active People Survey (APS) reports that 12% of British adults volunteered for sport, down from 14% in 2011–12 and 13.6% in 2010–11. This is consistent with the findings of Low, Butt, et al. (2007) who draw on 2005 Citizenship Survey data to show that 13% of British adults volunteer in sport, a number which makes up 22% of the total volunteer population. This makes sport the third most popular area for volunteers to engage in — only education and religious volunteering are more popular (Low, Butt et al., 2007).

Gender Women are more likely to volunteer than men, although the most recent Community Life Survey data suggests that the gap is closing. In 2005, 43% of women were regular formal volunteers compared to 35% of men (Low, Butt et al., 2007). By 2014–15 the gap had closed to 43% of women and 41% of men (Cabinet Office, 2015). However, in sport men are almost twice as likely as women to volunteer. The 2012–13 APS survey reported 14.8% of British men volunteered in sport compared to 9.23% of British women. Groom, Taylor & Nelson (2014) in their Volunteering Insight report for Sport England report that the gap between men's and women's participation is closing.

Age The young, aged 16–25 and the 'middle-aged', 35–49, are the most active in formal volunteering. The 2015 Community Life Survey shows 47% of young people and 50% of those in middle age formally volunteered in the last year. The most recent data does not separate monthly and annual formal volunteering, but the 2005 data shows that while those in middle age are the most likely of any age group to volunteer at least annually (with 64% doing so), younger (under 24) and older (over 55) volunteers were more likely to be regular volunteers. This is likely because people of these ages have fewer other commitments which prohibit regular engagement in volunteering.

Those in middle age are likely being asked to volunteer via activities — including sport — that their children engage in. This is supported by the 2005 data which shows that engagement in sports volunteering is most common among young volunteers (26% of whom do so) and middle aged volunteers (28% of whom do so). The 2012–13 APS survey also finds that young people are most likely to volunteer in sport, with 19% having engaged in sports volunteering in the last year, with older people the least likely to have done so.

Ethnicity White adults are the most likely to volunteer, with 59% engaging in formal volunteering on at least an annual basis compared to 55% of black adults and 52% of Asian adults in 2005 (Low, Butt et al., 2007). In the years since this gap has closed — by 2012–13 45% of white and 43% of ethnic minority adults volunteered at least once a year, by 2013–14 rates were equal at 41% and in the most recent data for 2014/15, ethnic minority adults had overtaken white adults with 45% volunteering compared to 42% (Cabinet Office, 2015).

In 2005 a significant gap existed between white and other ethnic groups in terms of their engagement with sport volunteering. Then, while 24% of white volunteers engaged in sports volunteering, this fell to 12% for Asian volunteers, 11% for mixed race volunteers and 8% for black volunteers (Low, Butt et al., 2007). The APS data from 2012–13 found that this gap, while smaller, still exists, with 13.7% of white adults volunteering compared to 11% of ethnic minority adults.

Disability Those with a disability or limiting, long-term illness are less likely to volunteer than those who do not. In 2005, 65% of those without a disability volunteered at least once a year and 42% did so regularly, while 42% of those with a disability or limiting, long-term illness did so at least annually and 28% did so regularly (Low, Butt et al., 2007). By 2015, and with new survey methodology, the Community Life Survey found that 36% of those with a disability or limiting, long-term illness volunteered at least once a year compared to 44% of those without (Cabinet Office, 2015). In sport, the APS survey finds that 12.5% of adults without a disability or limiting, long-term illness volunteered in sport in 2012–13 compared to 9.16% of adults who do have a disability or limiting, long-term illness.

Employment and socio economic status Those in employment are more likely to be engaged as volunteers than those who are not — in 2014–15, 45% of those in employment volunteered formally at least once compared to 40% of those who were unemployed and 37% of those who are economically inactive (Cabinet Office, 2015). However, while Low, Butt et al. (2007) find a similar pattern, their more detailed analysis allows us to see that people who are economically inactive, while less likely to volunteer overall, are more likely to volunteer on a regular basis than those who are employed or those who are unemployed. Thus retired people are more able to make regular commitments without the constraints of paid employment. The situation in sport mirrors the situation in volunteering as a whole — the APS survey shows that in 2012–13, 13.8% of British adults in full-time employment volunteered in sport compared to 12.4% of those in part-time employment and 10.5% of those who were unemployed.

The 2012–13 Community Life Survey relates volunteering to social class and qualifications. Those with higher level qualifications and who are in a higher socio economic group are more likely to volunteer — 39% of those with a degree volunteered in 2012–13 compared to 33% of those whose highest qualification is A Levels and, 24% of those with GCSEs at grades A*-C as their highest qualification and 19% of those with GCSEs at below grade D as their highest qualification (Cabinet Office, 2013). The same pattern is true for socio economic class — 37% of those in higher managerial, administrative and professional occupations volunteered in 2012–13 compared to 28% in intermediate occupations, 21% in routine and manual occupations and 17% of those who had never worked or were long-term unemployed (Cabinet Office, 2013). Thus, with the exception of higher levels of volunteering for the over 55s, the demographic characteristics of volunteers approximate to those of sports participants.

Volunteering by region Volunteering varies significantly between the different regions of the UK, as Figure 2.2 shows (Cabinet Office, 2015).

In the South East, half of adults engaged in formal volunteering in 2014–15, while in the North East only 28% did so. All three of the most northerly regions (the North East, North West and Yorkshire and the Humber) saw under 40% of adults volunteer while every other region saw over 40% do so.

The differences in engagement in sports volunteering are less marked and follow a different pattern to that of general volunteering. There are still significant differences between regions, with 13.8% of adults volunteering in sport in the South West compared to 9.4% in London. Possibly this reflects the density of sports clubs in the regions.

Region	Formal volunteering	Sport volunteering
North East	28%	11.6%
North West	35%	11.4%
Yorkshire and the Humber	39%	12.9%
East Midlands	48%	12.5%
West Midlands	41%	11.1%
East of England	47%	12.4%
London	41%	9.4%
South East	50%	13.2%
South West	41%	13.8%

Figure 2.2 Formal volunteering and sport volunteering by region

Sources: Proportion of adults volunteering, by region, 2014–15 (Cabinet Office, 2015)
 Proportion of adults volunteering in sport, by region, 2012–13 (APS, 2013)

2.3 Overview of motivations

Analyses of motivations to volunteer often approach them in the context of the volunteer. For example, a student may be motivated to gain employment related experience as he or she will be shortly trying to get a job. Thus Lukka and Locke (2007) and Woolvin (2011) categorise decisions to engage in formal volunteering according to the wishes of the individual at that time (internal) and the context in which those wishes are met or not met (external). The Pathways through Participation research — which interviewed 101 people in depth about volunteering through their life, added the individual’s experience as another category of influence (Brodie, Hughes, Jochum et al., 2011) (described further below). Thus overall we can understand motives to volunteer as a product of values, circumstances and experience.

Philanthropy and mutual aid There is a difference between philanthropy as pure altruism and mutual aid, in which the volunteer also gets a reward. Beveridge’s 1948 definition makes explicit the self-help impulse which drives mutual aid, based around a “...realisation that since one’s fellows have the same need, by undertaking to help one another they may also help themselves” (Beveridge, 1948, quoted in Davis Smith, 1995: 28).

This reciprocity need be neither immediate nor explicitly agreed, and may be deferred over long periods, but it is integral to mutual volunteerism that there is an obligation and an expectation for reciprocation (Kidd, 1996; Gorsky, 1998). So if sports clubs are mutual aid organisations, then membership implies an obligation to volunteer.

Hardill, Baines & Perry (2007) reject this simple division between altruism and mutual aid. They argue instead that volunteering needs to be understood in the context of the individual’s life. They propose four groups of volunteer impulse, as shown in Figure 2.3.

Impulse	Volunteer context
Giving alms	These are volunteers who have "...identified an unmet need and they want to make a difference" (Hardill et al., 2007: 405). Often these volunteers see themselves as helping people less fortunate than themselves. Such volunteering is "...necessarily both self- and other-rewarding" (ibid.: 405).
Giving to each other	These are volunteers who seek to help others with whom they perceive a shared issue, as a response to a problem they experience together.
Getting on	These volunteers are seeking to develop "...skills and experience of value in the labour market" (Hardill et al., 2007: 406) through undertaking voluntary work.
Getting by	These are volunteers who, "...entered volunteering as a response to a milestone life event, [so] that it fills something missing or an emotional gap in life" (Hardill et al., 2007: 207).

Figure 2.3 Four groups of volunteer impulses (Hardill, Baines & Perry, 2007)

The Family The family is important in socialising volunteer motivations and in providing a context for volunteering, primarily associated with adults volunteering to support children. The earliest influences on individuals generally come from their parents; influences and experiences in childhood may well contribute to impulses to engage in formal volunteering in adulthood, be it in younger adulthood for constant and serial volunteers or in older adulthood for 'trigger' volunteers:

Parents who volunteer teach their children with deeds that volunteering is doing good in society. Volunteering requires giving up some leisure time in order to help an association reach its goals. Children who see their parents volunteer become accustomed to the idea that personal sacrifice for some greater good has intrinsic value. (Bekkers, 2007: 100)

This may explain why young people whose parents volunteer and play sport are more likely to do the same — volunteering and sporting capital is passed through generations [we will discuss this when understanding volunteering in sport]. This pattern reflects the social networks of households in which parental influence and a range of volunteering opportunities are passed to children.

A number of pieces of research have found that people who have dependent children living in their household are more likely to volunteer than those who do not (Rochester, Ellis Paine & Howlett et al., 2010; Wilson, 2000). Studies from England and Wales and from the United States (Damico, Damico & Conway, 1998; Kitchen, Michaelson, Wood et al., 2006; Menchik & Weisbrod, 1987; Schlozman, Burns & Verba, 1994) show that parents with school-age children are more likely to engage in formal volunteering. That individuals are often embedded in a wider range of social networks when they have young children may provide an explanation for this, but this idea has been under-researched, and there may be yet further explanations for greater engagement at this stage of life which have not been explored.

Skills and serious leisure Often, individuals engage in volunteering in part to learn new skills. The idea of volunteering as a form of 'serious leisure' has emerged from a series

of publications by Robert Stebbins from 1976 onwards (see Stebbins 1982; 1992; 2000; 2006). Serious leisure is defined as:

...the systematic pursuit of an amateur, hobbyist, or volunteer core activity that is highly substantial, interesting and fulfilling and where, in the typical case, participants find a career in acquiring and expressing a combination of its special skills, knowledge and experience. (Stebbins, 1992: 3)

According to serious leisure theorists, volunteering is intrinsically motivated and derives from the interests of the individual taking part, who participates in order to derive enjoyment and satisfaction from the learning of new skills and the gaining of new knowledge (Rochester, 2006). Misener, Doherty & Hamm-Kerwin (2010), in their research on older sports volunteers in Canada, use a serious leisure framework for their understanding of volunteering, building it into their definition of formal volunteering, which they characterise as:

... systematic involvement in an activity that is sufficiently substantial and interesting for the individual to find extended involvement there in the acquisition and/or expression of particular skills, knowledge and experience. (Misener, Doherty & Hamm-Kerwin 2010: 268)

A criticism of this theoretical understanding of leisure is that it is mainly descriptive and lacks clear borders — when is leisure actually 'serious'? But the theory of serious leisure can nevertheless explain rewards of volunteering, and why volunteers have a strong sense of identification with an organisation. This theory was used to understand long-term volunteering in Girlguiding UK, and is discussed below in terms of youth organisation volunteering (Nichols & King, 1999).

Social motivations Understanding the social context of volunteering is fundamental to understanding what motivates people to engage. Sociologists are sceptical that there is a finite number of 'underlying needs' that explain volunteer involvement (Musick & Wilson, 2007; Rochester, Ellis Paine et al., 2010). Social pathways into volunteering are crucial, as Musick & Wilson (2007: 50) argue:

Even highly motivated people are unlikely to volunteer unless they are asked, and people with little motivation might agree to do so if they are constantly badgered by friends to give some of their time.

Therefore, understanding the social context in which 'the ask' takes place is crucial to understanding motivations to volunteer.

The social networks that individuals are a part of have a dual role in encouraging and motivating them to volunteer (Musick & Wilson, 2007). First they cause people to interact with a range of other people with different interests. This interaction exposes people to discussion of volunteering, invitations to volunteer and support for volunteering. Second, social groups socialise and encourage particular behaviours, which sports participation and volunteering may well be a part of. Social networks based on friendship, working together, attending a religious group, networks around children or indeed around a shared interest or participation in sport may all encourage people to volunteer.

Volunteer motivations: the data Data on volunteer motivations shows that they come from a range of sources. Indeed there are as many motivations as there are volunteers

— if anything given the way motivations change over time, there are likely many more. As such, we must view all data on volunteer motivations with a sceptical eye. The best data on volunteer motivations for the UK again comes from the Helping Out Survey (Low, Butt et al., 2007). This research shows that 53% of British volunteers said they engaged in order to help people and improve things, while 41% said that the cause was important to them, and the same proportion that they had time to spare.

Social motivations come through as significant: 30% of volunteers stated that they engaged in volunteering to meet people and make friends, while 29% volunteered in activities connected to the interests of friends and family. More instrumental and self-interested motivations were cited by a smaller proportion of people — 7% saying they volunteered to get on with their career, 2% to get a recognised qualification, and 2% because it was connected to their own interests and hobbies. This likely reflects a key issue with quantitative research on motivations — respondents may give answers that they feel reflect well on themselves rather than those which are most accurate.

2.4 Researching motivations

Research on volunteer motivations is only as good as the methods it adopts. A study of volunteering in the US found that, when it comes to investigating who volunteers and why they do so, how the question is researched is crucial to the findings (Rooney, Steinbock & Schervisch, 2004). So it is important that we are aware of the different ways of understanding and measuring volunteer motivations. This section summarises the advantages and limitations of the main methods used in this research, and informs a critical review of research results — i.e., a judgement of which we think are most valid and useful.

A basic contrast in research methodology is between quantitative and qualitative methods. Simply: quantitative methods measure motives, demographic characteristics and other variables. This allows statistical analysis to explore relationships. For example — research into the motivations of volunteers at the 2012 Olympic Games clustered responses to different statements together and attempted to relate these to different types of people. Quantitative methodology assumes that it is valid to measure 'social facts' as external to the researcher and the people being researched, and that they can be objectively measured. In contrast, qualitative research, mainly in the form of interviews, tries to understand the subjective experience of the person being researched. For example, what does it feel like for a working-class or ethnic minority person trying to join an exclusive tennis club in which the club culture reflects the social norms of the well-established members? Qualitative methodology assumes that in order to understand why people act as they do the research has to understand how they experience their actions within their own frame of reference. Of course, there is a subtle philosophical debate between the two approaches (Bryman, 2012). All we need to do here is note the different approaches to understanding volunteer motivations.

Research Methods

Surveys

Surveys are a method which can be both quantitative and qualitative and are the most widely used form of research instrument for researchers seeking to understand volunteers and their motivations. Their popularity is due to their ability to generate a large number of responses

in a relative short period of time (McNeill & Chapman, 2005). Examples are in surveys of sports clubs volunteers and of volunteers at mega-events.

Advantages of the survey method include:

- groups can be compared within one survey, for example surveys of sports club volunteers can compare the time contributed by volunteers in different roles.
- if the same survey is conducted in more than one location results can be compared. For example, use of the same questions allowed comparison of volunteer motives between the Vancouver Winter Olympics and the London Olympics. Use of a standard measure such as the 'Volunteer Functions Inventory' or the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale has allowed survey comparisons across different sports events (e.g. Lockstone-Binney, Holmes et al., 2015).
- further statistical analysis can be conducted: for example, clustering groups of motivations and volunteers at the 2012 Olympic Games (e.g. Dickson, Benson & Terwiel, 2014; Alexander, Kim & Kim, 2015).
- repeating the same questions to the same people can allow a measure of change over time — although this is rarely practical (e.g. Eley and Kirk, 2002).
- it is possible to design research to test hypotheses from theory — a deductive approach — although in this review there are very few examples with theory-testing as an aim.

Disadvantages of quantitative surveys include:

- surveys may not share the same questions — so comparisons are limited. Thus, it has been difficult in this report to draw together the research on sports club volunteers.
- how questions are asked has a significant impact on what answers the research gets. Simply asking whether someone volunteers tends to show that only half as many people volunteer as when the questions prompt a range of volunteering activities in more detail (Rooney, Steiberg & Schervish, 2004).
- the timing of the survey affects responses. For example, general surveys of volunteering in England in 2012 may have resulted in higher numbers of people saying they volunteered, just because the profile of volunteering had been raised by the Olympic Games, thus serving as a big prompt. Surveys of volunteers at mega-events are influenced by a feeling of euphoria if conducted immediately after the event.
- responses may be biased towards the socially acceptable. For example, it is more acceptable to report that one volunteers for altruistic than for selfish reasons. And it is easier to report that one has stopped volunteering because of pressures of work and family, rather than that it conflicts with another leisure activity (e.g. the Join In Trust's surveys of Gamesmakers post-games).
- respondents may not be able to give an accurate answer. For example, it is difficult for volunteers to remember how many hours volunteering they contributed in the last month or year, or even the number of times they volunteered (e.g. Taylor, Nichols, Holmes et al., 2003).
- quantitative measures may not enable an adequate understanding of volunteers' experience; and answers are restricted to the questions asked by the researcher. For example, a questionnaire survey of volunteers at the 2012 Olympic Games may not allow the volunteer to express all their feelings. It may be difficult to express a depth of motivation.

Interviews

In contrast research may use in-depth interviews. Advantages of this approach to obtaining data include:

- volunteers can express their experiences in their own words giving a better understanding of what volunteering means to them. Examples include the 101 interviews conducted for the Pathways through Participation research (Brodie, Hughes, Jochum, 2011); interviews with long-term volunteers after the 2002 Commonwealth Games (Nichols & Ralston, 2011); or with sports club volunteers to understand why they do not recruit volunteers from outside the club (Nichols, Tacon & Muir, 2013).
- interviews can help develop theory by thinking about volunteering in new ways. For example, the Pathways through Participation research understood it as a consequence of an interaction of values, circumstances and experience which changed through life.

Disadvantages include the converse of the advantages of qualitative approaches. Further, a smaller sample may make it harder to generalise results.

In both methods the sample of volunteers researched may be unrepresentative of all those who could have been included. In both methods the views of the researcher may introduce a bias: for example in the design of a questionnaire or the conduct of an interview or interpretation of results. Larger projects may combine surveys and questionnaires to gain the advantages of both.

Life histories

Life history research, usually undertaken using interview methods, invites participants to reflect in detail on their lives (Bryman, 2012). In common with interviews, use of this method allows the researcher to explore how people experience the world, how they explain this, but also how they account for changes over time. Life history research has great value, as it allows emphasis to be placed on the live experience of people at different ages and how a wide range of interrelated events and factors in their lives have shaped their experiences.

A small number of previous pieces of research on volunteering have also argued for a lifecourse approach (see Hardill, Baines & Perry, 2007; Baines & Hardill, 2008; Neuberger, 2008; Brodie, Hughes, Jochum, et al., 2011; Woolvin, 2011). Decisions to volunteer occur across people's lives. As Neuberger (2008: 16) argues:

People may dip in and out of volunteering, doing more, less or nothing at all as volunteers at different stages of their lives, as a matter of choice or through circumstances.

Hardill, Baines & Perry (2007: 400) justify the use of a lifecourse approach to volunteering research by arguing that it allows the researcher to:

...understand the qualitative experience of volunteering, specifically why people create (emotional, temporal and physical) space for voluntary work, and how they juggle unpaid voluntary work with other 'work' (paid and unpaid) they undertake.

It should be stressed that notions of *volunteering journeys* do not suggest that participation in voluntary activity is in any way linear, nor that individuals progress up some sort of volunteering career ladder towards ever-greater involvement (Neuberger, 2008). Rather, participation in voluntary activity changes in nature, becomes more or less significant and plays different roles in an individual's life at different stages of the lifecourse. The most significant

piece of work to apply a life history approach and influence this review is the *Pathways Through Participation* report (Brodie, Hughes, Jochum et al., 2011: 4) which found that:

'The reasons why people start, continue or stop participating are shaped by a multitude of factors that shift in significance over time and are in turn shaped by the impact of participation itself.'

The Pathways work argues that, over people's lives, their volunteering is shaped by:

- individual factors such as personality, values, identity and resources
- relationships and social networks with family, friends, neighbours and colleagues
- membership of groups and organisations and how these are organised
- their local environment and place where they live, including public spaces, events, institutions and politics
- wider societal and global factors such as national and international events, social movements and trends.

According to a life history approach, all these factors interrelate with one another in different ways at different times of life, combining to shape volunteer engagement. This approach helped us understand volunteering as a process in which people react to different circumstances and opportunities in their lives, directed by fairly constant values and influenced by their experiences. Thus a motivation such as the social rewards of sports club membership may grow in strength with length of membership.

Valuing volunteering

Attributing a value to volunteering is relevant to understanding motivations because this valuation is in part an attempt to represent the benefits experienced by the volunteer. By publicizing these benefits it is hoped to motivate further volunteering. The Join In Trust, for example, claims that the increase in personal wellbeing for all sports volunteers in the UK, as a result of volunteering, is £8.14 billion (Join In, 2015). Join In's estimate is designed to promote volunteering by quantifying the benefits to the individual and society.

The politics of research

Political limitations exist in contracted research because the stakeholders who have financed the research will not want the results to present their organisation negatively; hence contractors may be wary of presenting negative criticisms that might have arisen from their data. However, an awareness of limitations is also required in reading peer reviewed journal papers because the authors' main objective may be publication rather than a Platonic pursuit of the truth. Another political limitation on research is if the organisation conducting it wants to withhold results or release them selectively to support a particular view. We note where this may be the case, although obviously it is difficult to make definitive conclusions.

2.5 Changes in volunteering

2.5.1 Towards episodic / micro volunteering — the relation to sports participation

It has been suggested that there has been a trend towards 'episodic volunteering'. This means one-off volunteering which involves a short and defined time period and in which the volunteer may have limited attachment to the organisation (Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2003;

Macduff, 1991). Although the volunteering activities may be short-term, the volunteers may return or re-engage with a single organisation in a series of episodic relationships (Handy, Brodeur & Cnaan, 2006; Macduff, 2005). More recently a variety termed 'micro-volunteering' (IVR, 2013) has been identified, which is quick to start, but yet still might involve an informal agreement. An emphasis has been placed on its facilitation by electronic technology. A good example is volunteering for Parkruns (see Appendix A4).

Drivers for episodic and micro-volunteering are 'people's busy and unpredictable lifestyles, changing perceptions and expectations of participation; and technological developments' (IVR, 2013: 25). Hustinx, et al. (2010: 426) describes these as reflecting 'the changing living conditions and biographies of contemporary individuals, and through this ... the changing availability and willingness to volunteer'. There may be a general '... shift from group based practices and collective monitoring of agents to the autonomous self-monitoring of individual live narratives' as part of a process of 'modernization and individualization' (p. 426).

The simplest explanations for changes in volunteering relate to time. The time available to people for any non-work activity is increasingly more fragmented and irregular, reflecting hours at paid work (Such, 2013). If people only have brief and irregular blocks of time available it follows that they can only volunteer in these times. This is particularly relevant for the 2.4% of workers on zero hours contracts (a much higher percentage for young people) and the 16% of households with an income 60% below the UK median, in which people may have very irregular employment — a class termed the 'precariat' because of their unreliable incomes and low savings. An implication is that volunteers need opportunities so they can volunteer for as much or as little as they want, when they want. Strategies enabling episodic and micro-volunteering have proved successful for event volunteer broker organisations such as Newham Volunteers (Nichols & Ojala, 2009) and Manchester Event volunteers (Nichols & Ralston, 2012a), although these organisations have been led by paid staff. For organisations managed by volunteers, such as sports clubs, it is more difficult to adopt this strategy, as the increased burden of organising more volunteers, each giving less time, falls on the remaining 'core' volunteers (Cuskelly, 2005).

Exactly the same trends of fragmentation in volunteering can be seen in sports participation. Analysis of Active People Survey data from AP1 to AP8 shows a steady decline in club-based participation and an increase in participation in informal settings (Harris, Taylor & Nichols, 2015; Nichols & Taylor, 2015). Over the period 2009–2014 the sports experiencing the greatest increases in participation were athletics and cycling: sports which can accommodate participation by individuals or small groups, and at a time to suit the individuals. Hence, the great popularity of Parkruns (Appendix 4) where individuals know they can participate on any Saturday morning, when it is convenient for them, but at the same time experience the rewards of a mass event. The sport to decline the most is football — a traditional team sport, requiring 22 people and a referee to get together for the same afternoon.

The trend to episodic volunteering does not necessarily mean less volunteering time is given overall, and the trend will not apply equally across all groups. If it was a general trend it would make it more difficult to replace the 'stalwart' club volunteers (Nichols, 2005) who contribute the most time in key administrative roles.

2.5.2 Altruism and self-interest

There has been speculation that the balance between altruism and self-interest in volunteering has changed towards self-interest becoming more important. However there is little evidence that this has happened. This lack of evidence may relate to the difficulty of measuring motivations to volunteer over time (see 2.4) and isolating these from other factors.

The next two sections show how motivations change over the life-course as people's circumstances and the contexts in which they operate change. Young people — with education and childhood in their recent past, and with a career goal and need for employment ahead of them — volunteer for different reasons from their middle-aged parents, who themselves volunteer for different reasons than even older adults who may have more free time and can reflect back on a lifetime of engagement in sport. So it is very much too simplistic to attribute changes in volunteering to 'changes in society' generally.

In one of the few pieces of empirical work that looks at whether altruism may be in decline (for this is nearly always the focus of debates, not whether it may be growing), Davis Smith (1999) argues that changes in the extent and nature of young people's volunteering is likely due to the image of volunteering and the awareness of volunteering opportunities, rather than due to a decline in altruism among young people. Indeed, the empirical data collected by the Cabinet Office (2015) shows that young people are the most likely of all age groups to volunteer. As Ellis (2003) argues, there are as many motivations as there are volunteers. Indeed, there are likely many more — each volunteer's motivations develop and change and are likely a mix of altruism and self-interest.

An alternative theoretical view is that as violence has declined over human history so levels of empathy and altruism have risen. Thus as a society we are becoming more altruistic, more caring and more inclined to help each other (Pinker, 2011).

2.5.3 Younger volunteers

There is debate as to whether the motivations of young volunteers are distinct from other age groups and whether the reasons why younger people volunteer have changed over time. This debate has focused on the balance between altruism and self-interest, with much assertion — but less evidence — that young people are increasingly selfish. As noted above, young people's volunteering rate is relatively high. If we understand volunteering as reflecting a combination of values, circumstances and experience (Brodie et al., 2011) this combination will be distinctive for young people.

Some studies have shown that positive values towards volunteering, embodied in a role identity, are the strongest predictors of young people volunteering (Marta & Pozzi, 2008). Involvement in organisations which encourage volunteering and pro-social values at adolescence, especially religious organisations which promote altruism and the opportunity to practise it, instil values which persist through adolescence (Oesterle, Johnson and Mortimer, 2004). However, at the same time, volunteering is promoted to young people as a way of enhancing employment prospects while they are in higher education (Holdsworth & Brewis, 2013) or in specific volunteer programmes (Dean, 2014). Research into youth volunteering shows variously that young people volunteer because they are willing to do 'something extra' as part of 'resume building' (Handy, Cnaan, Hustinx, et al., 2010); or as part of a more com-

petitive 'mass credentialism'; or to develop skills and attitudes transferable to the workplace; or because employers think it does this, with no actual evidence that volunteering does develop these skills (Allen, Bulloch, Cole et al., 2013).

There is very little research evidence that young people's attitudes to volunteering are shaped by their experience, although it is easy to assume they will be; or that an attitude that volunteering is always to be undertaken as a means to one's own ends might make it harder to recruit volunteers for apparently less rewarding roles in the future. On the other hand, if young people have a positive experience of unanticipated rewards from volunteering, this may promote future volunteering. Eley and Kirk's (2002) study of Millennium Volunteers is one of the few to show this effect. The speculation that the values underpinning young peoples' volunteering have changed is difficult to substantiate. High volunteering rates for young people reflect a complex and fluid mix of motivations and circumstances. In any case, altruism and self-interest are not necessarily mutually exclusive alternatives, but can exist together. Not only might the balance between the two change, but both might be at a high or low level. Further, much of the volunteering of older people can also be understood as directed by self-interest — although not to promote a position in the labour market.

2.5.4 Older volunteers

Within the group of the population which we term "older", there exists significant heterogeneity, and this is clear from the rates of volunteering for the different groups aged over 50. For those aged 50–64, many are still in paid employment, and rates of volunteering in this group are similar to those in younger ages. We then see an increase in volunteering for those aged 65–74 — the "younger old" or "active old" or "third agers" — the highest proportion of any age group. Post-75, we see a drop off (Low, Butt et al., 2007). In terms of what types of organisations attract older volunteers, they are more likely than those from other age groups to volunteer with religious organisations, health and disability organisations, hobby and recreation clubs, and in support of other elderly people. Older volunteers are less likely than those from other age groups to volunteer with education organisations or other organisations working with children and young people and, significant for this review, in sports clubs or organisations. Older volunteers are more likely than those of younger ages to volunteer as committee members or in administrative roles and less likely to be involved in teaching or educating roles — the latter is unsurprising given the lower proportion of older volunteers in educational organisations (Low, Butt et al., 2007).

Looking to the future, the UK has an ageing population (Shaw, 2001) and this is transforming the ratio of older adults to those in middle age; in 1984, 15% of the United Kingdom population was aged over 65. By 2009, this had risen to 16%, and by 2034 is expected to reach 23% (ONS, 2010). Further, life expectancy is also increasing and British people are spending longer in the "younger old" stage of life which we have seen has historic and current higher rates of volunteering — both formal and informal — than any other age group.

Looking at why older people volunteer, having spare time is cited by a significant proportion of volunteers of all ages as a reason for their engagement. But the proportion of volunteers citing it increases significantly post-50 as children leave home and increases again post-65 as (traditionally) those who have been engaged in paid employment retire (Low, Butt et al., 2007). Linked to this, undertaking volunteering to support activities which family members

engage in — such as helping to run a football club or Scout or Guide group — decreases in importance as a pathway into volunteering post-50, again likely as a result of children leaving home.

However, while volunteering to support the activities of family members becomes less significant in older age, volunteering to support the local community is a more significant reason for older people volunteering than for those of other ages (Low, Butt et al., 2007). In the UK, older people are more likely to have lived in the same geographical community for a number of years, and as a result may have a particular attachment to that community which makes them undertake voluntary work to its benefit; often older adults are the 'social glue' that binds communities together (Hardill, Baines & Perry, 2007).

Those older people in the UK who do not volunteer cite a range of barriers which prevent them from engaging, such as illness, disability, or a feeling that they are too old to engage (Low, Butt et al., 2007). At the moment many voluntary organisations are tending to see these reasons as insurmountable barriers, rather than as challenges to be overcome. As the British population ages, organisations will have to be doing everything they can to make their volunteering opportunities accessible for people with disabilities, flexible so that those older people with illnesses can engage when they are able to. Above all, they will need to ensure that no potential older volunteer feels excluded or unwanted because of their age. One major survey found that two-thirds of non-volunteers in the UK aged over 65 felt that they were too old to engage. If organisations could counter these perceptions they would unlock an amazing resource and improve many lives, but at the moment this is an area of opportunity that voluntary organisations are not fully addressing.

Rates of economic participation drop when individuals pass age 50; economic activity rates for British adults in April 2015 were 86.9% for those aged 35–49, falling to 71.7% of those aged 50–64 and just 10.6% of those aged 65 or over (ONS, 2011). Therefore, we can see that retirement — withdrawal from the paid labour market — is a process which begins for a significant minority post-50, and for the majority at or post-65. This may be about to change: in 2011 the compulsory retirement age was abolished and older people are now free to continue working after age 65. It remains to be seen what impact this will have, but we would still expect retirement as we know it to continue.

For individuals who have been engaged in paid employment over the course of their lives, withdrawal from it will be a significant life event. While the notion of retirement is a relatively modern one, it has come to have great significance in our understanding of older age (Vincent, 2003). However, the end of a person's working life is by no means the beginning of the end. Retirement is increasingly recognised to offer some individuals new scope for choosing how to use their time, a time of opportunities rather than the end of active life (Davis Smith and Gay, 2005; Laslett, 1989; Phillipson, 2002). Fit, active and independent retirees look upon retirement as a chance to acquire new roles, as volunteers, part-time workers, and have the chance to continue — indeed to strengthen — existing roles as parents, grandparents, friends, neighbours and community members (Reitzes, Futran and Fernandez, 1998). However, those who have volunteered prior to retirement are more likely to volunteer in retirement than those who have not (Davis Smith and Gay, 2005). While, for some, retirement offers a trigger to engage (or re-engage) in voluntary activities, it is those already volunteering who, once retired from paid work, are likely to take on more roles and expand the amount of time they devote to volunteering.

2.6 Summary of influences on volunteering

Following the Pathways through Participation study, it is useful to think of reasons why people volunteer as being explained by a combination of values and attitudes, circumstances, and experience which change through people's lives. The Pathways through Participation report used in-depth interviews with 101 volunteers to understand their changing involvements in volunteering over their life-times (Brodie, Hughes, Jochum, et al., 2011). It understood values as underpinning motivation, expressed in different circumstances through peoples' lives. Motives were also affected by experience. Values, circumstances and experience interact.

Consider the example of a young person who develops an interest in sport at school and through this and other influences is socialized into an altruistic set of values. At university she volunteers to support the sports team she participates in, but is also aware that this could be a marketable experience. The unanticipated rewards of sports committee membership and a basic coaching qualification then influence her decision, later in life when she has a young family, to volunteer. Volunteering in a sports club to support her child's participation, she experiences a range of rewards from providing sports opportunities for others and feeling part of the club community. Identification with the club grows such as she continues to volunteer as a member of the club committee after her children have stopped participating in the club and have gone to university. Her sense of purpose and social rewards continue in retirement when has more time to give to the club, but she scales-down her role.

This is a hypothetical example, but it illustrates how changing circumstances influence volunteering in a similar way to changing influences on sports participation. The two are intertwined as volunteering in sport is almost invariably associated with an interest in sport.

This section has outlined the extent to which volunteering is linked to other changing commitments and interests that people have over their lives. We seek to understand volunteering not as an activity in isolation but rather as one which is embedded in people's hobbies, interests, family and friends. The reasons why people volunteer — their motivations — are therefore part of a complex mix of factors which influence the extent to which people volunteer and the nature of the volunteering that they do.

3. Methods

Literature search

The search employed a pragmatic combination of:

- an academic approach to literature searching, using University resources
- capitalising on the experience of the lead researcher (who had published over 40 items on sports volunteers)
- recommendations of other experts on the topic (see Appendix 3)
- searching for research reports through direct contact with related organisations.

Phase one Selected references from the 2014 Volunteer Insight report (Groom et al., 2014) and those provided by the lead researcher were recorded as shown in the template below:

ID number	
Reference	
1 Aim of author	
2 Abstract	
3 Methods — summary	

Phase two For key papers identified by the lead researcher, Google Scholar was used to collect citations. This allowed the identification of related papers within the academic community. The details of these were again recorded on the template.

Phase three Key papers identified in phase two, and which had been published in 2012 or later, were identified. Other key papers referenced within these were also recorded.

Phase four Further items were identified using Google Scholar search terms listed below. The same procedure was conducted again, using the "Endnote" citation program with the search keywords below. This process helped us to detect the recent and forthcoming publications from the Social Science Citation Index using the Web of Science database.

- Volunteer + sport; sporting; game; activity; exercise, "sport club"; "sports club"; "sport team"; "sports team" ['motivation' was not searched as many papers do not include this in the key words or use other words/terms when referring to motivations]
- Coaching + sport; volunteer, sporting; game; activity; exercise, "sport club"; "sports club"; "sport team"; "sports team"
- Coach + sport; sporting; game; activity; exercise, "sport club"; "sports club"; "sport team"; "sports team"
- "School sport" + volunteer; coaching; coach; parent.
- School + volunteer; coaching; coach; parent.
- Education + sport + volunteer; coaching; coach; parent.
- "Physical education" + volunteer; coaching; coach; parent.
- "Physical activity" + volunteer; coaching; coach; parent.
- Sport + event + volunteer [not including Olympics or Commonwealth Games as key references had already been provided]

Phase five Experts were contacted to provide further recommendations of research in the areas where information was lacking and where they may have conducted research into specialist groups of volunteers. These experts are listed in Appendix 3. As a consequence the list of abstracts was extended (see Appendix A).

Reviewing of themes

The following 10 themes were identified (Table 3.1). Sources were identified for detailed review within these themes. Selection was based on the relevance to volunteer motivations, the anticipated contribution to understanding (for example, a source may have used a large survey, or a smaller piece of work may have made a strong theoretical insight), date of publication (a recent paper will reference and build on previous knowledge), and cultural relevance (the idea of 'volunteering' is culturally specific and so is the organisation of sport).

Table 3.1 Sources selected for detailed review

1	Descriptive statistics on volunteers	14
2	Motivations of volunteers at club level and general reports (4 of these, including the 2014 Volunteering Insights report, had been conducted for Sport England)	14
3	Volunteers at Mega-events, Olympics and Commonwealth Games	8
4	Volunteers at regional events	7
5	Coaches as volunteers	6
6	Volunteers in education and youth organisations	3
7	Young people and students as sports volunteers	8
8	Older people as sports volunteers	2
9	Volunteers' effect on the sporting experience and promoting motivation	7
10	Explanations of volunteers moving between roles	4

Attention was focused on reviewing key sources in depth, especially those with extensive research results, rather than a wider range of sources more superficially, in which much research would be replicated. Some sources in phases one through four contributed to the general understanding of volunteer motivations.

Reviewing by theme allowed a synthesis of sources which could then be interpreted within the understanding of volunteering in general.

4. Results

The results presented in this section are structured by themes identified in the review, drawing on the sources reviewed in depth and other sources where the abstracts indicated relevant material.

Descriptive statistics on sports club volunteers — key findings

Sports volunteer roles

- The largest percentage of sports volunteers reported being involved as a coach (13.6–49%) or helping with administration (13.6%–61%) (Table 4.1).
- Roles may vary according to the type of volunteer.
- Parents, sports lovers and students may take on coaching roles, while 'skilled' volunteers (those with particular skills learned from their paid work) may tend to take on driving, administration and accounting volunteer roles (Sport Wales, 2010b).
- Older volunteers tend to take on administrative roles, and younger volunteers tend to be coaches, team captains or hold other 'operational' posts (Gratton, Nichols, et al., 1997).

Time spent volunteering

- On average, volunteers contribute between two and three hours a week to their sport (Table 4.1).
- Some volunteers may contribute more than 11 hours per week (Welch & Long, 2006), and some may contribute an hour or less (Egli, Schlesinger & Nagel, 2014).

- The amount of time volunteered may vary according to role, with coaches, secretaries and chairpersons contributing above the average number of hours (Gratton, Nichols et al., 1997), and stewards, team captains and equipment managers contributing less than the average number of hours (Welch & Long, 2006).
- The amount of time spent volunteering may vary according to demographic.
- Coaches tend to be male and volunteer at least once a week (Sport Wales, 2014), and 16–44 year olds tend to volunteer most (Taylor, Panagouleas & Nichols, 2012).
- Volunteers tend to be white British, home owners, have higher levels of education, and have higher incomes (above £26,000) (Gratton et al., 1997).

Documents reviewed

Fifteen documents spanning nearly 20 years of research (1997–2015), were reviewed for section 4.1:

- four of these were **published papers** — Nichols, 2005; Taylor, Panagouleas & Nichols, 2012; Hallmann, 2015; and Egli, Schlesinger, Nagel, 2014
- three were previous **reports** completed for Sport England — Gratton, Nichols et al., 1997; Taylor, Nichols, Holmes et al., 2003; and Weed, Robinson, Downward et al., 2005
- one was a **report** completed for the CCPR — Welch & Long, 2006
- four were short, 'headline' **reports** completed for Sport Wales (Sport Wales, 2010a / 2010b / 2012 / 2014)
- two were **reports** completed for Parks and Recreation, Ontario, and Sport Alliance of Ontario — Doherty, 2005a / 2005b)
- one was a recently completed **PhD thesis** (van der Roest, 2015).

All of the studies involving empirical data were cross-sectional, of adults in a particular population, without significant differentiation between them.

The reports — which may be considered 'grey' literature, not typically subject to peer-review — comprise two-thirds of the literature reviewed. This may have implications for the robustness of the results. In addition, four of the documents were based on data collected from respondents countries other than England (Germany: Hallman et al., 2015; Switzerland: Egli, Schlesinger & Nagel, 2014; Canada: Doherty, 2005a/2005b) and four were based on Welsh datasets (Sport Wales, 2010a/2010b/2012/2014), so therefore it may not be possible to generalise the results to the population of sports volunteers in England. Although the UK population of sports volunteers is the population of most interest to Sport England, these other studies may still offer important insights.

This review is organised into sections according to each of the topics highlighted above, and the review will now turn to those. Detailed reviews of these sources are in Appendix 2.

4.1 The roles of sports volunteers

Ten of the documents discussed the roles of sports volunteers. Table 4.1 provides an overview of the types of roles that each paper discussed, and, where available, the percentage of respondents who said they were involved in each type.

Table 4.1 The percentage of sports volunteers involved in different roles, and their average time commitment per week, according to each of the 10 studies which provided this information

Reference	Doherty 2005a	Doherty 2005b	Egli et al. 2014	Gratton et al. 1997	Nichols 2005	Sport Wales 2010a	Sport Wales 2010b	Sport Wales 2014	Taylor et al. 2003	Welch & Long 2006
Type of volunteers	Gen. ¹	Gen.	Gen.	Gen.	Stal. ⁵	Gen.	Gen.	Gen.	Young people	Key vol. admin.
Average no. volunteer hours per week	2.75 ²			2.9	5.8	3		2.1	3	<11
Officers / executives	X ³	42%	11.8%						9%	
Club Secretary										71%
President / Chairperson										26%
Coaching, teaching, umpiring	X	14.5%	58.1%	13.6 ⁴	49% Coach	38% Referee	41%	X	X	30%
Practical help		14.5%	30.1%	13.6 ⁴	61%	37%			39%	
Administrative help								X	23%	
Operational help e.g. catering				13.6 ⁴		8%				
Transport	X					14%	X			
Fund-raising					61%					
Other e.g. stewarding	X					21%				

Notes

- 1 General (Gen.) refers to the general population of sports volunteers i.e. no volunteers were excluded according to any demographic characteristic, such as age or role
- 2 This figure was the amount volunteered to a primary sports organisation, rather than the total amount of time that volunteer may have spent volunteering
- 3 X = The document does not state the percentage that took part in these roles.
- 4 Gratton, Nichols, 1997, considered coaching, administrative and operational roles together, hence 13.6% reflects the number of volunteers partaking in any one of these activities.
- 5 Stalwarts (Stal.) = sports volunteers considered to be key

In general, the largest percentage of sports volunteers reported being involved as coach (13.6–49%, see Table 4.1) or to help with administration (13.6–61%) and the smallest percentage reported being involved in operational help such as catering (8–13.6%). However, in one study, 61% of stalwarts (key sports volunteers) undertook fund-raising as well as administrative duties (Nichols, 2005), suggesting that the percentages of volunteers involved in different roles can vary substantially. One report suggests that roles vary according to the type of volunteer (Sport Wales, 2010b), with parents, sports lovers and students tending to take on coaching roles, and 'skilled' volunteers (those with particular skills learned from their paid work) tending to take on driving, administration and accounting volunteer roles. Taylor, Nichols, Holmes et al. (2003) investigated the roles of young sports volunteers (16–44 year olds), and found that most were involved with coaching and minor activities such as helping to run events (e.g. marshalling, fundraising and refreshments). It is not clear what percentage of these volunteers were students, and thus whether these results support those of Sport Wales (2010b).

Other research suggested that sports volunteers move between roles. For example, Gratton, Nichols, Shibli et al. (1997) found that a 'significant' number of volunteers were involved in more than one role; Egli, Schlesinger & Nagel (2014) found that 46.5% held several volunteer roles; and Welch and Long (2006) found that a wide range of functions were undertaken by the key volunteer administrators. In summary, these results suggest that volunteers are involved in a wide range of roles and that individual volunteers may take on a variety of roles. Table 4.1 illustrates how difficult it is to compare results of research which asked different questions – in this case about volunteer roles.

The distribution of time spent volunteering according to volunteer role

Ten of the documents discussed the amount of time that sports volunteers contribute. Most found that, on average, volunteers contribute between two and three hours a week to their sport (Table 4.1). A more detailed breakdown by Egli, Schlesinger & Nagel (2014) found that, per month, the largest proportion of volunteers (31.1%) volunteered more than 20 hours (≥ 4 hours per week), followed by 27.4% volunteering 11–20 hours (3.6–4 hours per week), 21.2% volunteering 6–10 hours (1.5–2.5 hours per week) and 20.2% volunteering less than 5 hours (< 1.25 hours per week). The amount of time volunteered may be related to the type of volunteer (whether they are considered 'key' or not) and the type of roles that volunteers adopt. For example, Nichols (2005) focused on stalwarts (key volunteers, defined as taking one of the key administrative club roles or coaching), and found that the amount of time contributed was substantially greater than average, nearly 6 hours per week (301 hours a year), while Welch & Long (2006) found that key volunteer administrators contributed more than 11 hours per week. Furthermore, Welch & Long found that secretaries contributed the most hours (6–>10 hours per week), with volunteers in a range of roles (secretary, coach, team manager, and president) contributing 2–5 hours per week and volunteers in a somewhat different range of roles (secretary, club committee member, treasurer, and event organiser) contributing the least amount of time per week, 1 hour. So in this study the hours contributed by secretaries varied considerably. Other roles, such as 'marshall/steward', 'team captain' or 'equipment manager' are suggested to be undertaken by younger volunteers and those not considered 'key administrators'. These results are likely to reflect the sample on which the research was conducted (key volunteer administrators), and may not be representative of the general population of sports volunteers. For example, Gratton, Nichols, Shibli

et al. (1997) investigated a much wider sample of sports volunteers and found that, while secretaries contributed above the average number of hours (2.9 per week according to this study), coaches actually contributed even more hours, and chairpersons also contributed more hours than average. In addition, they found that those volunteering at regional and national level volunteered the most hours. Caution should therefore be applied when interpreting results from studies employing different volunteer samples and located in different contexts. A further limitation is the ability of respondents to recall time spent volunteering accurately.

The distribution of time spent volunteering and the demographic characteristics of volunteers

Gratton, Nichols, Shibli et al. (1997) explored the relationship between age and volunteer role, and found that 45–60 year olds were more likely to hold administrative roles than any other role, and that 25–44 year olds were more likely to have operational posts such as team captain (25–34 year olds) or coach (25–44 year olds). Similarly, Welch & Long (2006) found that 85% of the key voluntary administrators in their study were over 40 years of age. They also found that 25% were over 60 but that none were under 30. In keeping with previous studies, they also found that 80% of their sample were male and the ethnicity of 97% was white. It might be that older persons tend to have more time due to having already established a career, working fewer hours, or approaching retirement, or that they are no longer playing sport and want to stay involved in other ways, or potentially due to having children, grandchildren and other family involved in the club (see 'the motivations of volunteers' below). Further research would be needed in order to investigate these ideas further.

4.2 Motivations of sports club volunteers

Key Findings

Motives include, in descending order of the number of studies citing them:

- being a parent of a child participating in a sports club and wanting to help friends and family social benefits
- giving something back to the community
- enthusiasm, or passion, for a sport
- learning new skills
- satisfaction with achievements as a volunteer
- pride in helping a club do well
- to remain involved with the sport after retiring from playing
- to enhance a CV.

The motives reflect the range of roles and life circumstances of volunteers in them. They resonate with the reasons for volunteering in general but need to be understood in the context of the club.

De-motivators included:

- the time required for the roles
- training needs not being met
- other volunteer needs not being met, such as financial needs or the need for information

- lack of support for voluntary sports clubs from other organisations
- 'poor social environment'
- more work and more responsibility required by the roles
- anti-social hours (e.g. swimming training is often very early in the morning or late at night)
- legislation increasing the formal responsibilities of coaches, team managers, event officials etc.
- not enough or fewer volunteers to help out
- family commitments
- training courses for coaches being too expensive.

Most of these again resonate with de-motivators for volunteers in general although some will be particularly relevant to sports club volunteers.

Twelve documents reported information relating to the motivations of sports volunteers. Table 4.2 provides an overview of the motivations cited by volunteers in each document and indicates that similar motivations were reported across many of the documents.

For example, being a parent of a child participating in a sports club, and wanting to help friends and family, was cited in nine of the documents, and seven cited social benefits. Giving something back to the community, enthusiasm, or passion, for a sport, and learning new skills, was cited by five. Less commonly cited motivations included satisfaction, pride in helping a club do well, to remain involved with the sport after retiring from playing, and to enhance a CV. All of these motivations resonate with the reasons for volunteering cited by volunteers in general (described earlier in this review).

Some of the studies focused on a volunteer sample with specific characteristics, and suggested that volunteer motivations vary according to role and demographic. In terms of role, Welch and Long (2006) found that 77% of key sports volunteer administrators were motivated by pride in seeing the club do well, 71% wanted to give something back to the club or community and 58.1% gained satisfaction from volunteering. As another example, Doherty (2005a) found that coaches in community sport organisations in Canada were motivated by meeting their own needs and interests, experiencing personal enjoyment, staying involved with sport, using their skills, seeing skill improvement in the children and athletes they coach, and by giving something back to sport. They found that executives are also motivated by satisfying personal needs and interests and using their skills to make a difference, but that they are additionally motivated by achieving committee goals, task accomplishment and simply by wanting to be involved rather than feeling a sense of duty to be involved. Doherty (2005a) suggested a 'model of motives' based on these findings, which was somewhat supported by their subsequent empirical study investigating the motivations of volunteers based in community sport organisations in Ontario (Doherty, 2005b). In this study, coaches were motivated by having a positive influence on the children they teach while executives were motivated by having skills to offer, and making a difference to the club. Both were motivated by a sense that their help and expertise is needed, however, which is contrary to the model's prediction that executives are motivated by wanting to be involved.

Table 4.2 The motivations of sports volunteers according to each of the 12 studies which provided this information

Reference	Doherty 2005a	Doherty 2005b	Egli et al. 2014	Gratton et al. 1997	Nichols 2005	Sport Wales 2010a	Sport Wales,	Sport Wales 2012	Taylor et al. 2003	Taylor et al. 2012	Weed et al. 2005	Welch & Long* 2006
Motivation												
Helping friends and family / being a parent of a participating child	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		
Social benefits		X	X	X			X		X	X	X	
Giving something back to the club / community		X				X	X		X			71%
Enthusiasm for the sport		X				X	X	X	X			
Achievement / reward / appreciation			X			X	X		X			
Satisfaction						X	X		X			58.1%
To remain involved after retiring from playing		X			X		X		X			
To use skills & strengths	X	X	X						X			
Benefits due to training / learning new skills		X	X		X	X		X				
To enhance a CV						X	X	X				
Being asked							X				X	12.9%
Pride in helping the club do well							X		X			77%
To make a difference / change to the club		X										
Sense of belonging to the club / sports community									X			
To provide a positive activity for children		X										
Affiliation to the club							X		X			
Dissatisfaction with local sports provision / saw a need		X			X					X		
Competition								X				
Autonomy			X									
Varied work			X									
To gain feedback between management and volunteers			X									
Perks e.g. reduced membership fees, recognition			X									
Expectation that experienced members will coach							X					
Volunteering as a lifestyle choice / a routine							X					
To feel needed / involved with sports personalities / high profile events												<10%
Stress relief									X			
Self-fulfillment	X								X			

* The percentage of volunteers citing each motivation was provided by Welch & Long (2006), hence this information was specified in the respective rows. The other studies did not provide this information.

Doherty (2005a) also suggests that 'serious' and 'casual' volunteers have different motivations and that volunteers' motives change over time. These 'serious' volunteers could be considered similar to the 'stalwarts' and 'key volunteers' referred to in other studies (Nichols, 2005; Welch & Long, 2006), or could be seen as being part of the serious leisure framework proposed by Stebbins (1982) in which people pursue their hobbies and interests in a serious and committed way. Nichols (2005) and Egli, Schlesinger & Nagel (2014) also suggest that motivations change over time — just as the Pathways Through Participation (Brodie, Hughes, Jochum, et al., 2011) report does — and that the motivations encouraging people to commence volunteering may not be the same as those maintaining the participation of volunteers. Doherty (2005a) elaborates on this by suggesting that volunteers become involved initially for personal reasons, but tend to stay for reasons associated with the organisation (e.g. making friends / connections, sense of belonging to the organisation).

In terms of the variation in sports volunteers' motivations according to demographic, Taylor, Nichols, Holmes et al. (2003) found that young people (16–44 year olds) were motivated by the opportunity to enhance their CVs, gain social benefits, enjoy themselves, learn, and contribute to a successful club. Again, the non-sport specific motivations here are in common with younger volunteers across all types of volunteering. Sport Wales (2012) provided demographic details, roles and motivations of a wider range of volunteers, whom they categorised into four types based on data from the Welsh Active Adults Survey, 2008/9. These four categories are described below and also summarise succinctly the common motivations cited in Table 4.2 and the first paragraph of this section:

- Students looking for experience and development opportunities. These are typically aged 18–25, predominantly male (>50%), have a primary role as coach, tend to aspire to a professional sports career and actively seek out volunteering opportunities.
- Sport lovers who have become older, can no longer compete through injury or have reached advanced levels of expertise. They vary in age from 20–55, are more likely to coach than take on other roles, and are motivated by a passion for their sport or a wish to progress as coach.
- Active parents who are already on the sidelines may volunteer when their club expresses a need. These parents are typically aged 30–45, are also more likely to coach, are motivated by spending time with, and supporting, their children, and have little desire to progress.
- Skilled volunteers respond to a club need, are typically 45 years of age or older, tend to take on non-coaching roles, are motivated by a desire to give something back to the community and tend to be asked through their existing social networks.

The motivations of the student category identified above reflect the findings of Egli, Schlesinger & Nagel's (2014) study on young people, in which enhancing a CV was highlighted. This suggests that findings may be generalisable to other volunteer samples and contexts; however, further studies are needed to corroborate this. Sport England could use information pertaining to the motivations and demographic characteristics of different categories of volunteer to tailor volunteer recruitment strategies to target people for specific roles.

There are some general limitations of this research which are worth considering when interpreting these results. In particular, the use of different terms to describe similar concepts (e.g. 'pride in helping the club do well' and 'make a difference / change in the club' in Table 4.2), and the different research methods and volunteer samples used to obtain data, hinders

the ability to compare and contrast results. In addition, these studies are all cross-sectional, hence it is not possible to make causal conclusions about the nature of the relationships. Furthermore, the studies relied on descriptive statistics to determine if a relationship existed between factors measured, however, bivariate correlations would have helped confirm these. It is therefore not possible to make conclusions about the nature of the relationships discussed here. These issues are discussed further under 'Limitations' at the end of this section.

Factors which decrease the motivation of volunteers / barriers to volunteering

Several documents discussed factors which decrease the motivation of volunteers, either by preventing them from volunteering in the first instance, or by persuading them to give up volunteering. Gratton, Nichols, Shibli et al. (1997) cite a long list of factors which sports volunteers considered to decrease the motivation to volunteer. Many of these factors — also cited by Weed, Robinson, Downward et al. (2005) (citing Gratton) and developed in a review of Taylor et al.'s 2003 survey (Nichols, Taylor, James, et al. 2005) — are presented below:

- Time
- Volunteer training needs not being met — the least qualified volunteers were found to drop out most
- Other volunteer needs not being met, such as financial needs and the need for information
- Lack of support for voluntary sports clubs from other organisations
- 'Poor social environment'
- More work and more responsibility required by the roles
- anti-social hours (e.g. swimming training is often very early in the morning or late at night)
- Legislation increasing the formal responsibilities of coaches, team managers, event officials etc. For example, the Sports Council (now 'Sport England') was increasing its demands at the time of Gratton, Nichols, Shibli et al.'s 1997 report.
- Not enough or fewer volunteers to help out
- Family commitments
- Training courses for coaches being too expensive.

Sport Wales (2010a) highlighted many of the above issues, plus some others. In particular, they found that volunteers might be dissuaded by child protection issues due to legal checks and the practical problems associated with coaching contact sports, which they argued could lead to coaches feeling threatened by false accusations. In addition, they found that having to work with children who have no interest in the sports club but are enrolled by their parents, having to deal with 'pushy' parents, and being expected to become a coach, also decreased the motivation of volunteers.

Some documents provided percentage figures for the number of respondents who cited each factor, which is useful to determine which of the factors are most important. In particular, Doherty (2005b) found that the most common reason for giving up volunteering was a volunteer's child no longer being involved with the club (36%). This was closely followed by the heavy time commitment required (31%). Other common reasons included the negative environment due to politics and parents (21.5%), conflict with family responsibilities (21.5%) and a feeling that it was time for new people and ideas (17%). Less common reasons included

conflict with work (9.5%), conflict with other volunteering roles (9.5%), conflict with other leisure activities (12%), and no longer being a member of the club (12%). In contrast, Welch & Long (2006) found that the time commitment was cited by a much greater proportion of volunteers (79%), which may be due to the sample of key administrators which they studied. Furthermore, a nearly equally high percentage were concerned about the responsibility they might face (71%). Another important reason for not volunteering appeared to be not being asked (37.1%). Less than 30% of the sample cited feeling undervalued, inadequate training, poor club facilities, and poor club management as reasons for not volunteering.

Taken together, these studies highlight several common reasons why volunteers might not be motivated to volunteer, and these are again similar for volunteers as a whole. Nevertheless, these factors could be addressed by Sport England when designing strategies to recruit and retain more sports volunteers.

Limitations

There are several limitations to the research reviewed here which affect the ability to draw robust conclusions from the findings presented. In particular, much of this research is contract work, descriptive, and not informed by theory (e.g. Doherty 2005a/b; Sport Wales 2010a/2010b/2012/2014). There is, therefore, little or no explanation provided for the results, limiting the conclusions which can be drawn. In addition, most of the documents reviewed do not adequately describe the research methods used for carrying out and analysing the studies or provide a rationale for their use (e.g. Weed, Robinson, Downward et al., 2005; Egli, Schlesinger & Nagel, 2014). Where information has been provided, it is apparent that each study has used very different samples and methods, with different strengths and limitations, making it difficult to compare and contrast results, assess the robustness of results, or generalise the findings to other contexts.

Furthermore, many of the studies were conducted in different settings, including different countries, and employed different samples. For example, Sport Wales investigated volunteers in the Welsh population (Sport Wales, 2010a/2010b/2012/2014), Egli, Schlesinger & Nagel (2014) investigated Swiss sports volunteers, 'young people' were the focus of Taylor, Nichols, Holmes et al.'s (2003) study and key volunteer administrators were the focus of Welch & Long's (2006) study. Such variation in focus further hinders the ability to compare and contrast results. In addition, all of the research was also cross-sectional, meaning that causal conclusions about the relationships between factors cannot be made. Further research which is longitudinal would benefit the field greatly in terms of investigating the causal nature of the relationships under consideration. This information could have important implications for the design of policies and procedures aimed at recruiting and maintaining sports volunteers.

The limitations outlined here suggest that much of the research reviewed for this report was of low quality, judged by academic standards, and therefore the findings presented should be interpreted with caution. Nevertheless, they provide a good starting point for further research into the motivations of sports volunteers, especially where the results are consistent. Such research is important given the fact that volunteers are key to maintaining the structure of approximately 85,000 clubs in England in which others can participate (Nichols, 2013). This is the only context for participating in some sports, and is generally cheaper than participating in commercial settings. Therefore, even if volunteers only participate episodically, they are helping to provide the opportunity for others to participate in sport.

4.3 Motivations of mega-event volunteers

Key Findings

- Mega-events offer the distinctive motivation of being part of the event as a 'once-in-a-lifetime' experience.
- However, other motives, such as a pride in one's country and location are also important, especially at regional events such as the Manchester Commonwealth Games.
- For some, the motives for volunteering at a mega-event may be distinctive and non-transferable. However, for others there is an overlap with motives for volunteering before and after the event. Many event volunteers have previous volunteering experience.
- A mega-event can generate a strong feeling of wanting to continue to express a sense of euphoria and camaraderie experienced at the event.
- For some, this can be converted into long-term volunteering if the supporting structures are in place.
- These structures can provide the opportunity for repeat episodic volunteering, allowing volunteering to suit individual life circumstances.
- Such repeat volunteering can generate a different and deeper set of rewards and motivations. This illustrates rewards that can be obtained from this type of volunteering, irrespective of any connection to a mega-event.

Mega-event volunteering and its relation to volunteering in other contexts.

Interest in mega-event volunteers has been raised by the 2002 and 2014 Commonwealth Games in Manchester and Glasgow respectively, and the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games in London. These involved large numbers of volunteers, important contributors to the running of the events and the atmosphere. However, most sports volunteering takes place in other contexts. This raises a set of related questions:

- Are the motivations of mega-event volunteers distinctive to the event, or do they overlap with other volunteering?
- How does experience of volunteering before the event affect motives to volunteer for the event?
- How does the experience of volunteering at the event affect motives to volunteer after the event? Do volunteers at such events become enthused to volunteer in other contexts?
- If they do, how do they do this, how can they be helped to do this, and do their motivations then change?
- Does the high media profile of volunteers at these events provide inspiration for others to volunteer in other contexts, such as sports clubs; through a 'demonstration effect'?
- If so, what is the most effective way to leverage this inspiration and convert it into volunteering?

This review focuses on the motivations of mega-event volunteers and the overlap with motivations before and after the event.

Researching mega-event volunteers

The main methods employed to explore mega-event volunteers are quantitative surveys, administered predominantly by the organising committee or organization. The dominant

survey instrument is the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (SEVMS), which is a 28-item scale, developed for use in special events. A similar survey instrument is the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) which is a 30-item scale to measure motivation, developed by Clary and Snyder (see Alexander, Kim & Kim, 2015). These commonly used measures allow results to be more easily compared than research into volunteers in sports clubs – although the scope for comparison between such events is limited. Large scale quantitative research into volunteers at the Olympic and Paralympic Games, and Commonwealth Games has to be conducted through the ‘broker’ of the organising committee. This may influence the design of the research and even the results. These points are elaborated below. In contrast, small scale qualitative research involving interviews is often conducted ‘unofficially’ by individual researchers, attracted by the distinctive nature of the event: we are aware of at least five examples at the 2012 Olympics and one at the 2014 Commonwealth Games. A contrast was the 2002 Commonwealth Games at which the official research team were able to conduct surveys, focus groups and diary studies.

Motivation of mega-event volunteers

A consistent finding is that the uniqueness and buzz of the event, being part of a very prestigious event like the Olympics, and a once in a lifetime opportunity, are key motivating factors for nearly all mega-event volunteers. This has been shown consistently at Olympic and Paralympic Games, and Commonwealth Games (Alexander, Kim & Kim, 2015; Dickson, Benson, Blackman et al., 2013; Dickson, Benson & Terwiel, 2014; Nichols & Ralston, 2014a,b; Ralston, Downward & Lumsden, 2003; Tomazos & Luke, 2015).

Research into volunteers at Vancouver 2010 and London 2012 used the same 36 statements, adapted from the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale. A 7-point scale at Vancouver was reduced to a 5-point scale at London (Dickson, Benson & Terwiel, 2014: 172). Ranking of motivations was similar (Table 4.3a). A survey of Commonwealth Games volunteers in 2002 (Ralston, et al., 2003), conducted approximately 6 weeks before the Games, also ranked on a 5-point scale and produced similar results, although its 32 questions were slightly different (Table 4.3b).

Table 4.3a Ranking of volunteer motivations – Vancouver 2010 and London 2012

Top ten motivations	Vancouver Rank	Vancouver Mean	London Rank	London Mean
It was the chance of a lifetime	1	4.65	1	4.86
I wanted to make the Games a success	2	4.37	2	4.75
I am interested in the Games	3	4.34	3	4.57
I wanted to do something worthwhile	4	4.27	5	4.47
I am proud of Vancouver / London, and Canada / the UK	5	4.25	6	4.44
I wanted to be associated with the Games	6	4.18	4	4.54
I believe in the principles and values of the Games	7	4.18	7	4.44
I have an interest in sport	8	4.12	9	4.22
I wanted to interact with others	9	3.98	11	4.05
I wanted to use my skills	10	3.94	10	4.10
Sample size	2,397		11,451	

Source Dickson, Benson, Blackman et al., 2014

Table 4.3b Motivations of 2002 Commonwealth Games volunteers

	% strongly agree
It was a chance of a lifetime	71.8
It will be an exciting experience	66.0
It will give me satisfaction to help others	45.7
I will be supporting sport	45.0
I will meet interesting people	44.3
I will be part of a team	41.0
I will be doing something useful for the community	39.8
I can help Manchester by being involved	39.4
I want to show support for my country	37.2
We should all be less money motivated and do something for society	35.1
It will provide new challenges	34.1
I will learn new skills and capabilities	27.1
(20 other statements had 18% or fewer strongly agreeing with them)	

Source Ralston, R., Downward, P. and Lumsden, L. (2003a)

Thus in all three surveys, 'it was a chance of a lifetime' is the most important motivation. It is possible that this motive is amplified by media attention and marketing and recruitment campaigns around these events. This is a significant finding, as day-to-day sports volunteering cannot expect to recreate this motivation. The challenge for Sport England and those who promote sports volunteering is to capitalise on the other, less obviously unique, motivations.

The 2002 Commonwealth Games were unusual in that the same research team were able to complement the questionnaire survey with 7 focus groups of volunteers held soon after the Games, augmented by telephone and written diaries (Ralston, Downward & Lumsden, 2003b). In contrast to the questionnaire, the most important reason for volunteering here was expressed as giving something back to society. Others were the opportunity to meet other people, to enjoy new experiences, and widen horizons. For some it filled a gap in their lives created by a change in family or work circumstances. An interest in sport was not a strong factor and supporting the event was more important. However, in contrast to the results of the quantitative survey, the interviews illustrated the considerable differences between people, which reflected their circumstances. It also highlights the differences in results that different methods generate, and the quite distinct results found here could reflect the way in which this data was generated.

However, other qualitative research has confirmed the importance of the event: A volunteer at the Glasgow Commonwealth Games summarises this point well: "I wasn't at the Olympics, I wasn't even a spectator, but my daughter was running the London Marathon. And there was such a buzz about London that day. You could just feel the excitement. And I think Glasgow is going to be like that too" (Tomaszos & Luke, 2015: 1349). Similarly, interviews with volunteers, termed Gamesmakers, conducted in the 6 months before the 2012 Games, showed that a very strong desire to be part of the event, or a personal commitment to volunteering, was required to overcome considerable frustration caused by the poor communication and drip-feeding of information (Nichols & Ralston, 2014a) — factors the previous section reported as being significant barriers for volunteers. Some withdrew because of this frustration, but

many others remained involved. In this respect it would be interesting to see the unpublished research on the 2012 volunteer offer (see below).

Events with a more local focus, such as the Glasgow (Tomazos and Luke, 2015) and Manchester Commonwealth Games (Nichols & Ralston, 2011, 2012b) and the regional events at the 2012 Olympics, away from London (Nichols & Ralston, 2014b), show that pride in one's city or region and wanting to promote a positive image of it to the world was also a significant factor.

Using the survey of 2012 Gamesmakers, Dickson, Benson & Terwiel (2014) used 'exploratory factor analysis' to put responses into 8 groupings. This analysis shows which responses to the question on motivations were strongly associated with responses to other questions: in effect it is revealing underlying factors. This statistical technique involves a judgement of the number of groups which 'make sense' given what is already known about event volunteering. Interestingly another research group, Alexander, Kim & Kim (2015) used exactly the same sample to conduct a similar analysis. Their analysis produced 7 groupings. Table 4.3c compares the results.

Table 4.3c Groupings of 2012 Olympic volunteer motivations

Dickson et al., 2014	Alexander et al., 2015
Transactional — volunteers who wanted personal rewards from the Games to help with employment	Career function — skills for employment
Altruistic — those wanting to 'give back' and being proud of London and the UK	Value function — give something back to community / for London
'it's all about the Games' — an interest in sport, the Games and the principles of the Games	Olympic function — interested in / passion for the Games
Tradition — volunteering is a traditional activity to do	Social function — volunteering is common in my family / most people in my community volunteer.
Availability — had free time	Protective function — use of free time
Application — my skills were needed, I have experience	Understanding function — skills were needed
Rewards — attending the Games / meet elite athletes / prestige	Enhancement function — ability to attend Games / meet athletes
Variety — broaden horizons / feel better about myself / make new friends /	Not applicable

This comparison is useful as the two researchers, using the same data set (although using slightly different statistical techniques) have arrived at very similar clusters of motivations which represent underlying factors. Thus we can see that the distinctive draw of the Games themselves is mixed with another set of motivations which can be clumped together in similar ways. Interesting and useful here is that, while some of the clusters are mega-event

specific, many are not and these motivations and rewards could be replicated for a wide range of different sports volunteering opportunities.

The next step is to try to identify characteristics of volunteers which are associated with the different motivational clumps, if indeed such factors exist. Alexander, Kim & Kim (2015) conducted further analysis using responses to different questions to distinguish three 'clusters' of volunteers categorised as 'obligated', 'enthusiasts' and 'semi-enthusiasts'.

- obligated were 45 years and older, had a household income of £50,000 plus, were the least satisfied, and then least likely to volunteer in the future.
- enthusiasts were aged 16–24, had household income of less than £20,000, were the most satisfied, and the most likely to volunteer again.
- semi-enthusiasts were aged 25–45, had household incomes £22,000–£50,000, were somewhat satisfied, and somewhat likely to volunteer again.
- all were female and White British.

The reviewers' judgement is that a market segmentation of volunteers may be valuable in predicting which volunteers will volunteer again, but the analysis above requires more work to be useful because the groups of people are not sufficiently distinct, do not accord with experience, and do not include men.

It is not clear whether the motivations differ between those volunteering at the Olympics and Paralympics; people may be more influenced with the ideals of the Paralympic movement than just the buzz of the Olympics and high profile athletes. There is scope to explore these differences in future research.

The relationship of mega-event volunteering to volunteering before the event

As noted above, it is important to understand if the motivations of mega-event volunteers can be translated into future volunteering. At the London 2012 Olympics, 80.37% of the volunteer Gamesmakers had previous 'volunteer experience'. Gamesmakers were asked: if this previous experience was in the last 12 months, the area of activity (which included sports events but not sports clubs), how often, and if it was at a series of previous events. Unfortunately this information is not available.

At the 2002 Commonwealth Games, 76% of volunteers had previous volunteering experience. Of these 54% had experience related to sports. Of these sports volunteers, 53.8% had experience in a sports club, 26% in a national governing body of sport, and 24.9% in an organisation focusing on a sports event. Other significant areas were community (32%), education (23.7%) and social welfare (27.1%). Those with previous volunteering experience gave an average 6 hours to volunteering per week. Experience covered committee member (49.1%), organiser (48.7%) chairperson (25%), and general helper (71.1%).

This is very important because it shows that while the attraction of an event such as the Commonwealth Games is distinctive, motivations overlap considerably with other sports volunteering. Specifically, the 2002 Commonwealth Games volunteers who had previous experience in sport were asked their reasons for becoming a sports volunteer (see Table 4.3d).

Table 4.3d Motivations for becoming sports volunteers, of volunteers at the 2002 Commonwealth Games who had previously volunteered in sport

Motivations	% strongly agree
Personal interest	61.7
I offered to help	30.3
Desire to continue involvement in sport after playing / participation career ended	28.5
I wanted to improve things / help people	24.2
I'm good at it	20.2
To help my local community	17.7
Someone asked me to help	14.1
I thought it would give me a chance to learn new skills	12.6
I wanted to meet people / make friends	11.2
Responding to the needs or interests of my family or friends	10.5
I did it because my children take part in the sport	9.4
I started a club	9.0
As an alternative to full time paid employment	6.5
It was related to my job	4.0

Source Ralston, R., Downward, P. and Lumsden, L. (2003b)

These motivations can be related to those in club volunteers (section 4.2). However, the main point is the overlap with motives to volunteer for the 2002 Games: involvement in sport and altruism being the main areas.

The relationship of mega-event volunteering to volunteering after the event

A set of focus groups of volunteers conducted in the February after the 2002 Commonwealth Games and a follow-up questionnaire survey (Ralston, Downward & Lumsden, 2003b) show a change and deepening of motivations. It found that volunteering at the Games was a powerful experience — for one in five it 'changed people's lives'. There was a very slight increase in the percentage involved in voluntary work; about 15% were actually volunteering more hours a week or for a wider range of activities / organisations than before the games. However 70% had taken a new role in volunteering since June 2002. Of those not volunteering at the time of the survey, 50% said they were considering volunteering, a barrier being 'finding the right place to help'. Volunteers felt that (lack of) knowledge of opportunities was a barrier to expanding volunteering. Comparing general observations about the Games before and after, there was a significant rise in the feeling that the Games had a positive effect on Manchester and the north-west region, particularly its image outside the region. 'Perks of the job' — such as the uniform — became much more important, as did the respect offered by spectators. As focus group members were self-selected, these views might reflect those of volunteers for whom the Games had the most significant impact and who wished to stay in touch.

Commenting on the motivations of volunteers at the Vancouver Winter Olympics 2010, Dickson, Benson & Terwiel (2013: 89) state: "It may be seen that the major motivation for volunteering for Vancouver 2010, whether viewed through the lens of the means of the motivational items or the identified factors, is the event itself, not a desire to do good in the community or volunteer more ...".

In contrast, Cashman (2006) reported a group of volunteers from the 2002 Olympic Games in Sydney who were so enthused by the sense of achievement and camaraderie that they created an informal web-based group to allow them to continue to volunteer together.

Volunteering after mega events, the 2002 Commonwealth Games

Post-games volunteering was also facilitated by Manchester Event Volunteers (MEV) — a formal but unplanned organisation developed after the 2002 Commonwealth Games, which became a broker organisation between volunteers and events coming to the NW of England (Nichols & Ralston, 2012a). Immediately following the Commonwealth Games 10,500 Games volunteers and 1,000 people who had gone through the Pre-games volunteer programme but had not actually volunteered at the Games were asked if they would like to “find out about other volunteering opportunities”. Of these, 2,000 replied positively, and formed the basis of a database of volunteers which in 2010 comprised 1,500 people. Research conducted in 2010, 8 years after the Games, found that, of the volunteer data base, 352 had expressed an interest in volunteering during the preceding year and 490 over the preceding two years. These ‘active’ volunteers could be regarded as a volunteer legacy, although this omits volunteers who may have started volunteering through Manchester Event Volunteers (MEV) but went on to volunteer elsewhere. The 490 persons who had volunteered in the two years prior to the survey had done so for a cumulative total of 2,840 volunteering opportunities: on average 5.73 events each with a range of 1 to 88 events. This variation in volunteer commitment reflects the ability of MEV to meet the needs of ‘episodic’ volunteers who wish to volunteer at separate, irregular intervals.

The volunteering legacy organisation, MEV, enabled a return to volunteering when personal circumstances allowed; for example, as a result of retirement from paid work. Survey results showed that the five most important things MEV provided for volunteers, in rank order, were: making them aware of new volunteering opportunities; allowing them to pick the events they wanted to work on; keeping them informed of events in Manchester; allowing them to volunteer as much or as little as they wanted; and allowing them to volunteer when they wanted to. This again reflected an episodic pattern of volunteering and the value of MEV’s broker role.

Evidence that MEV had generated more volunteering came from the questionnaire respondents who had volunteered at the Commonwealth Games: 81% of these respondents either ‘strongly agreed’ or ‘agreed’ (on a five point Likert scale) that through MEV they had been able to volunteer more frequently after the Games. For 85%, MEV had enabled them to volunteer for a wider range of organisations after the Games. MEV had been continually recruiting new members since the Commonwealth Games — 30% of the questionnaire respondents had not been Commonwealth Games volunteers.

Further in-depth interviews with a sample of regular MEV volunteers, conducted in 2011, showed their motivations had deepened with experience. Their experience of volunteering provided a sense of social inclusion, and a set of psychological rewards, comparable to those provided by paid employment. The psychological categories of experience provided by long-term volunteering included: structured time; regularly shared experience outside of the context of the family; a linking to goals and purposes transcending those of the individual; a source of personal status and identity; and enforcing regular activity. For those who were retired this provided a sense of worth and purpose, and for some being a ‘Manchester

Event Volunteer' had contributed significantly to their sense of identity (Nichols & Ralston, 2011, 2012b). As they experienced these rewards, they became more strongly motivated: for some, volunteering became the most important activity in their lives.

The research on volunteers at the 2002 Commonwealth Games, both shortly after the event and ten years later, is important as it shows, for some volunteers, a deepening and broadening of motivation to volunteer. It also demonstrates the need for infrastructure to support sports volunteers — the support that MEV gave to a wide range of events came about as a result of motivated volunteers and an organisation that was able to successfully match volunteer motivations to the tasks available. This capacity was essential to facilitating successful volunteer development.

Volunteering after mega-events: the 2012 Olympic Games

The Join In Trust surveyed ex-Gamesmakers in 2013 to find out their attitudes towards further volunteering in sport. Details of the sample size and sampling are not available, so it is not possible to evaluate how representative these samples are of 2012 Gamesmakers. One might expect them to be the most enthusiastic as they were sufficiently motivated to respond. The figures below are presumably all those who agreed with the yes/no statement, rather than the percentage who strongly agreed with it on a five point scale, as was the case in the post-Commonwealth Games research above.

For these ex-Gamesmakers motivations to continue volunteering were:

to give something back to my local community	75%
to be part of a team	48%
if the skills I have were needed	48%
to inspire the next generation of sporting stars	47%
to use my training from London 2012	46%
to make new friends	41%
to gain skills to use in future employment	24%
none of these	5%

It is not possible to compare these motives to those of Gamesmakers surveyed immediately after the Games, as above, as the two studies employed quite different questions.

The Join In Trust also surveyed 'Local Leaders' in 2014 (80% of whom were London 2012 volunteers). Local Leaders volunteer to work with Join In to support local sports clubs in recruitment, retention and recognition of volunteers. Details of sampling again are not available, but the sample size was 193. Their responses tell us about motives of the people who volunteered to be Local Leaders as part of a 2012 legacy, but are not representative of ex-Gamesmakers as a whole.

Their motivations were:

to make a difference locally	156 (81%)
to be part of the legacy	42 (22%)
to encourage more volunteering	38 (20%)
to give something back'	33 (17%)
to encourage physical activity'	27 (14%)
for personal development'	81 (42%)
for a specific sport	39 (20%)
'other reason'	7 (4%)

Limitations of mega-event volunteer research

- Some research is not made publicly available or is released selectively. For example, up to July 2012 Nielsen (a major market research organisation and a 'value in-kind' sponsor) conducted over 80 research projects for LOCOG. These included research on the propensity of the British public to volunteer, to help define the required number of volunteers, and how to market this opportunity to prospective volunteers (Fernandez, 2012). Information apparently passed only to an American researcher (Alexander, Kim & Kim, 2015) by LOCOG or Nielsen has not otherwise been made publicly available. Research conducted for Join In by the Institute of Volunteer Research has included: (in 2014) participation in volunteering amongst Gamesmakers to find out frequency and type of volunteering; and (in 2013) the Legacy of 2012 and Gamesmakers, to find out participation in volunteering since the Games, motivation factors to volunteer again, and reasons for not getting involved. Only limited details of those results have been obtained for this review. Join In will publish results in 2016.
- The selective release of information is compounded by the political nature of events such as the Olympics Games and the political capital invested in a 'legacy'.
- As in all research, the use of questionnaire surveys allows large scale analysis of differences between volunteers, at one event, or between events. However, responses are limited to those available on the questionnaire. In-depth qualitative interviews give a greater insight into the experience for volunteers.
- As in all questionnaire research into volunteer motives, there may be a tendency for respondents to give the socially acceptable answer.
- The timing of a survey is critical, as results may be affected by a post-games euphoria. For example, Dickson et al.'s survey data from 2012 (Dickson, Benson, Blackman et al., 2013) was collected two days after the Paralympic event and around the closing ceremony. The timing was determined by LOCOG. This restricted comparisons with results from a survey of volunteers at the Vancouver Winter Olympics, 2010, which was conducted before the event.
- Asking volunteers about their intentions to volunteer in the future may result in inflated estimates in the post-games euphoria. But such research has unsurprisingly found that a positive experience of volunteers at events will positively influence the likelihood of volunteering again (Doherty, 2009; Downward & Ralston, 2006).
- We are unaware of any longitudinal research which has tracked changes in motivations of individuals from taking part in an event to post-event volunteering. Join In's research may fill this gap.

Mega-event volunteers motivations — conclusions

The distinctive nature of events such as the Olympic or Commonwealth Games means the motivation to be part of such an event is unique and strong. There are also motives of wanting to promote a city or country, promote sport, and to an extent, the Olympics. However many volunteers will have also volunteered in sport before the event, so these motives are mixed with others. After the event, volunteering may be an extension of the experience of the Games, but could also be carrying on previous volunteering.

Research gaps

- As above, Join In will be publishing research on the motivation of volunteers in 2016. This may show how many 2012 Gamesmakers have continued to volunteer. However, this depends on how many Gamesmakers are still responding to surveys.
- It would also be very interesting to obtain results from research exploring continued volunteering after the Glasgow Commonwealth Games in 2014. This may produce research on the Clydesider volunteers and the city ambassadors to show motivations and the relation to other volunteering.
- The 2012 Gamesmaker data set could be analysed to identify the demographic characteristics of volunteers corresponding to motivational clusters and the relation of these to volunteering before the Games if it is held by Dickson, Benson & Terwiel (2014).

4.4 Motivations of regional event volunteers

Key findings

- Unlike mega-events, regional events are organised around a sport, a cause or a community.
- Thus the motive of being part of a once in a lifetime experience is replaced by a connection to the event: a commitment to the sport, cause or community.
- As love of the sport is a strong motive it is very likely that regional event volunteers are involved in sports volunteering in another capacity, but research has not examined this.

The literature on regional event volunteering is similar to that on large scale events because the episodic nature of volunteering is a key factor for many volunteers. However, regional sporting events are smaller in size and scale, therefore the number of volunteers needed is significantly lower. This means that the buzz of a large-scale event cannot be replicated so other motives are relatively more important.

People's motives for volunteering at regional sporting events is commonly associated with their passion for their sport. Of the reviewed literature on regional event volunteers, the particular event sports are somewhat niche: handball (Skille & Hansstad, 2013), canoe/kayak (Kerwin, Warner, Walker et al. 2015), female golf (Maclean & Hamm, 2007), and skiing (Wollebaek et al., 2015). Compared to other more mainstream sports, a number of these sports are characterised by low participation rates, and also tend to attract fairly middle-class participants, hence we should be wary about generalising from their findings. Nonetheless, both female golf in the United States and handball in Norway are comparatively mainstream sports. Volunteers at a regional golf event in the United States were shown to be motivated by what the researchers term 'golf pride', in which volunteers reported they volunteered for the love of the sport and to 'give back' to the sport which has offered them many benefits over the years (Maclean & Hamm, 2007). This point is particularly important with reference to regional event volunteers, for research from these studies suggest they would not have volunteered at the event if they were not involved in their specific sport, citing lack of interest in the event. This is further supported by Skille & Hansstad (2013) who identify that the main motive of volunteers at a handball event in Norway was to do something that one is concerned with or passionate about.

Recent efforts have been made to cluster the motivations of regional event volunteers. Lockstone-Binney, Holmes et al. (2015) using the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (SEVMS) at four regional events, clustered motivations into three categories: 'altruists', 'socials', and 'indifferents'. The altruists and socials were intrinsically motivated by factors such as wanting to give back and helping out, and interacting with other volunteers. Those identified as 'indifferents' were motivated by external factors such as work pressures, and were the least satisfied with their volunteer experience. This highlights that people who feel obliged or pressured/ influenced into volunteering may not want to volunteer in the future. This has implications for corporate volunteering and highlights for event organisers that not everyone volunteering at an event may be there to help out and 'give something back'. The authors relate the motivation cluster to three types of volunteer management used for the event: programme management, in which a professional manager or group manages the volunteers; 'outsourcing' in which volunteer management is delegated to volunteer groups to organise (an example is a long river canoe race in which groups of volunteers take responsibility for part of the course); and 'bring your own' in which participants provide a supporting volunteer. Of course, it is equally possible that both the volunteer motivations and the style of management reflect the nature of the event.

With smaller scale events, a sense of community can be more prominent due to greater social interactions amongst volunteers. Kerwin, Warner, Walker et al. (2015) argue that the social and community benefits of sporting events can often be overlooked within event volunteer research, with the economic benefits to a host community often attracting greater interest. Warner and Dixon's sense of community theory was used in this research, although this toolkit was developed for athletes; so the transferability of these results from competitive athletes to volunteers is questionable. The sport event was a canoe and kayak event, arguably is a niche community. Nevertheless, the authors demonstrate that a sense of community was increased through volunteering at a regional event. This social aspect is also echoed by Skille & Hansstad (2013) who found that a key motivator for volunteering at a regional handball event was to do something that one is interested in or passionate about. This links to interesting research in the United States at a sport for development event, where the social values of the event and organisers was found to be a key motivating factor for participation at the event.

Research from Peachey, Lyas, Cohen et al. (2014) gives insights into an under-researched area of sporting events — that of sport development initiatives, characterised by a values-driven ethos and a social justice rationale. This research found motivation of volunteers at a sport development event centred heavily on collectivism and unselfish reasons. The event, somewhere between a mega and a regional event, brought together like-minded individuals from around the world who embraced peace-building and social change, so the social aspect of their volunteering experience was an important factor. Many of the volunteers had been participants on the program and wanted to give back to the organization. Volunteers had an emotional connection to both the organization and the values of the organization, which was a key motivating factor for their participation and intention to volunteer with the organization again. This is similar to those who volunteer through specific charities such as Cancer Research, who either themselves or a loved one/ family member may have been directly affected by cancer. One participant summarizes the motivations of these volunteers: "I am here in the service of the students. I want to give them the same kind experience I

had. Same kind of memories ... and hopefully they can leave with the same kind of feelings ... I want them to have that same impact ... that's what I hope to provide as an educator ... because it's a debt of gratitude to the Games" (Peachey, Lyas, Cohen, et al., 2014: 9).

Several studies specifically explore the motivations of volunteers in addition to the retention of volunteers in understanding how motivations can affect their intention to volunteer at another event, or within their local communities. In this context, the potential volunteering legacy that can be created from small-scale events is important for event organisers, although it is contentious whether any type of volunteer legacy can truly be created (Allen & Shaw, 2009). Further, understanding the motives and experiences of volunteers at events is an important consideration for event organisers: in meeting and matching expectations of volunteers so that their experience is positive, event organisers can increase the likelihood of them wanting to volunteer in the future. Further research into volunteers at regional events could explore more qualitative insights, as the majority of research in this area is quantitative and uses survey instruments. Although specific to volunteer motivations, they do not allow insights into the specific nature of the event or region. The study by Peachey, Lyas, Cohen, et al. (2014) demonstrates how a mixed method approach can contextualise the volunteer experience in terms of their personal and emotional connections with the experience and organisation.

In summary, the literature reports that those who volunteer at regional sporting events are motivated for reasons personal to them, such as the love of their sport, helping others and the local community, and — in certain events such as sport development initiatives— the personal values of the organisation. The predominant method of researching the motivation of volunteers uses specific volunteer instruments, and recent efforts have been made to cluster these motivations.

Further research

Further research could adopt qualitative methods to pursue insights into the more personal and sometimes emotional connections volunteers have with the regional event, allowing event organisers to capitalise on highly motivated individuals to volunteer in the future or within their organization/sport. It would be interesting to research the relationship between club and event volunteers at international single sport events, such as the Rugby World Cup. Research has been conducted on the Rugby World Cup in New Zealand, but not published to our knowledge.

One would expect a stronger link between club volunteers and regional events, than with mega-events. Regional events will often be run within the governing body structure, however we do not have evidence to show the overlap between volunteers supporting these events and those supporting the clubs, or other levels of the NGBs.

It would also be interesting to better understand the links between mega-events and regional events, and whether volunteers enthused by mega-event volunteering who go on to volunteer at regional events — as is the case for Manchester Event Volunteers — experience differences, and how this might affect their reasons for volunteering.

4.5 Motivations of coaches

Key findings

- Coaches' motivation is strongly linked to an enthusiasm for the sport — it is a natural progression from participation, so 'giving back to the sport' is a motivation.
- Involvement of one's own children is a factor which varies by sport.
- The increasing professionalism of coaching is blurring the boundary between volunteer and professional.
- A changed discourse of coaching as 'professional', and increasing regulation, may present a de-motivator, as may management systems in some clubs.
- The interaction between professionals and amateurs is a topic for further study.

The two most extensive studies of coaches were conducted by Lyle, Allison & Taylor et al. (1997) for the Scottish Sports Council in which 80 coaches were surveyed from each of the 7 sports selected; and a coach tracking survey conducted by Sports Coach UK (2012) (McIlroy and Driscoll, 2012), comparing full-time and volunteer coaches. These show interesting similarities and differences, which one would expect as coaching becomes more professionalised.

Both studies show coaches have a general interest in the sport and are motivated by 'giving something back' to the sport. The 2012 study found that starting a career in coaching was a significant motivation for both full-time and part-time coaches, whereas in the 1997 study only 13% had a financial consideration, mainly in tennis where professional coaching was more common. In this study, financial reward were irrelevant for 83% of respondents. The 1997 study found that for 72% their own children's involvement was not relevant, whereas the 2012 study found that this was more likely to be important for volunteer coaches. In 2012, 75% of full-time coaches worked with children. This is an interesting finding as it suggests that motivations to volunteer as a coach are becoming more instrumental, with volunteers seeking future financial reward or to support their own children. Yet we should be wary of drawing this conclusion, as the responses may reflect the way the question was asked, the geographical differences or the changes, in the 15 years between pieces of research, in what are socially acceptable answers to give.

In 2012 lack of coaches and a desire to help their old club was a motivator for volunteer coaches. Another study found some volunteers feeling that they had been 'guilted' into volunteering when no one else would do it.

Coaching is an area of volunteering where there is clearly a strong link to participation in the sport, and a progression from this. The 1997 study found a weak link with one's children's participation, but this varied across different sports. Over one-half of athletics (58%) and swimming (55%) coaches indicated that the involvement of their children was at least of some importance in their initial decision to take up coaching. In contrast, only two per cent of volleyball coaches indicated that their children being involved was of some importance. Presumably this reflects the extent to which club participation is dominated by juniors.

The 2012 study found 'systems' and sporting structures could demotivate: this contributed to 27% of coaches stopping coaching. These factors included; lack of club support, not enough time with work life balance, bad management of the club, and other aspects of club

organisation. Interestingly two other recent studies (Taylor et al., 2016; Taylor and Garratt, 2010) have used qualitative work and document analysis to identify similar de-motivators. These were; a dominant language of 'professionalism and technicalities', and a climate of caution and suspicion arising from an increased concern with child protection. Work which has looked at barriers for volunteers as a whole has found similar barriers to participation, with perceptions of unnecessary administration, paperwork or regulation causing existing volunteers to become disillusioned and putting off new volunteers.

Other work in a study of Canadian sports clubs (Harman and Doherty, 2014) makes the general point that coaches and clubs need to be clear what they expect from each other, and this may change as a coach moves from one club to another. This could apply to any volunteer or professional involved with a club.

Unlike other volunteer roles, in coaching there is an increasing overlap between volunteer and professional roles. This is reflected in the growth of coaching qualifications, which have to be paid for — such qualifications being a requirement of clubmark accreditation for clubs — and young people increasingly regarding coaching as a viable career. While there has been previous work, mainly in Canada, examining the relationship between professionals and volunteers at national governing board level, it would be interesting to examine the same relationship in coaching. Has the cost and time required to take coaching qualifications led to an expectation that coaching will be financially rewarded, even if not to the extent of it becoming a full-time job? How does this affect the relationship between 'pure' volunteers and coaches? How does this vary between sports?

4.6 Motivations of volunteers in education and youth organisations

Key findings

- Including volunteers in youth organisations as sports volunteers is contentious, as the main purpose of these organisations is the development of young people, rather than the development of sports participation.
- This particular purpose of the organisation is a motivator for volunteers and binds them to the organisation.
- However, understanding these volunteers may have implications for those in sports organisations.
- Initial motivations are often associated with a child's participation although the parent may have had a previous involvement in the organisation.
- However, many volunteers remain beyond their child's involvement for a considerable time.
- Identification with the values of the organisation and the rewards of friendship in it become very significant as long-term motivators.
- The ethos of the organisation and the shared norms of long-term volunteers is part of a definition of a 'recruitment niche', and can define 'people like us' who are suitable as volunteers. It is interesting to relate this to the willingness of sports clubs to recruit new volunteers or members (see section 4.9).

Motivations

Questionnaire surveys of 130 current Guide leaders and 117 current Scout leaders conducted in 1996 (Jarvis & King, 1997) found that: The largest proportion (36.8%) of the Scout respondents indicated that they originally became involved within the Scout movement because they 'enjoyed working with children and youth'. Other reasons for becoming involved included:

Previously was in the movement /natural progression	26.5 %
Shortage of leaders / retirement of existing leader	22.2 %
Give something back to the organisation	21.4 %

Guide respondents stated the same type of reasons as to why they became originally involved within the movement. A 'volunteer shortage', was mentioned by 14.9% as the number one reason, followed by 'working with children' (12.7%), 'previously was a Guide' (10.1%), and 'give something back to organisation' (7.2%). Thus, except for the order in the ranking of responses, there were generally no differences between the Guides and Scouts studies with regard to why respondents originally became involved in volunteering. These motivating factors are similar to volunteers as a whole, and it is worth noting that no motivation which relates specifically to wanting to help children remain or become active was measured.

Nichols & King (1999a). in a survey of 1,494 Guide leaders, found the following reasons for becoming involved as a leader.

It was connected with my interests in the Guide Association	43 %
I wanted to give back something to the Association	40 %
I wanted to help girls develop their skills and capabilities	38 %
There was a need in the community	36 %
It was connected to my daughter being in the Association	35 %
I had time to spare	33 %
The Unit was in danger of closing because of a shortage of leaders	33 %
I thought it would give me the chance to learn new skills	24 %
I wanted to improve things / help people	23 %
I wanted to meet people / make friends	21 %
I thought I would be good at it	21 %
It was connected with members of my family or friends (apart from my daughter) being in the Association	19 %

The same project also examined changes in motivations by comparing motivations when leaders started volunteering and at present (Nichols & King, 1999b). The greatest increase was in meeting people and making friends. The next most significant change in motivation was that the Unit was in danger of closing, although this change may relate to volunteering bringing an increased awareness of the precariousness of the organisation. While having a daughter in the association was a strong initial motive, this declined, as 49% of the leaders had been volunteering for 10 years or more, and other motives had become more important. Guiders who had been involved for longer were more likely to report they were motivated by their interests in the Association and wanting to give something back to it. Continued association, unsurprisingly, leads to greater attachment. Thus for these volunteers long-term commitment to the organisation was significant.

Both Guides and Scouts organisations are a 'movement' in that full members make a specific promise to support the aims of the movement, which includes upholding a set of values and promoting them to young people, both in their work as a volunteer and as a role model.

The distinctive ethos of the existing volunteers and a set of shared norms contributed to the social construction of a recruitment niche — 'people like us'. The defining boundaries of the niche could limit the ability to recruit new volunteers (Nichols & King, 1999). One participant compared this aspect to volunteer recruitment: "I think you need to have people that want to do it rather than people who are press ganged and feel obliged". People who were motivated because "my daughter goes so I may as well do a night and get it over with" were not accepted by existing volunteers as the "sort of people" wanted in Guiding (Nichols & King, 1999b): 316).

Research limitations

The material reviewed is from the 1990s. Of the available literature, the only youth organisations explored are the Girl Guides and Scout Association. Girlguiding UK retains a purely female membership, while the Scout Association offers membership to both male and female young people. Volunteering in very specialist organisations such as the Girl Guides and Scouts, characterised by unique values and a so-called 'movement', means motivations can be unique to the organisation. Further research could move beyond parental involvement and look at how young people progress to volunteering within organisations where progression is part of the organisation's ethos. The review has not revealed research into volunteers in education, such as parents helping in schools.

Implications for other sports volunteers

The long-term commitment of volunteers after their child has left the organisation is attributed to a changing set of motivations. The rewards of friendship become more important as does the commitment to the ideals of the organisation. Identification with a particular Guide Unit means there is a motivation to keep it open. Encouraging a child to join often reflects a parent's own experience as a member and a sharing of the organisation's values. Similarly, parents may encourage their children to play sport and join a club because of the parent's commitment to that sport. A parent may volunteer to help a child, but then experience other rewards of volunteering and a sense of identification with the club. This may be sufficient to retain their volunteering after their child has left. However, the sharing of values with Guiding or Scouting will be stronger than with a sports club, as the values are a more explicit part of the organisation.

4.7 Motivations of young people and students as sports volunteers

Key findings

- In general it is difficult to disentangle young people's motives for volunteering from the personal outcomes. This is because most research has been concerned with programme evaluations.
- As the general research into young people has shown, gaining marketable skills is a major motive.
- However, young people also want to improve things, express positive values and improve the community.
- The only study measuring change in motives shows that social relationships, expressing values, and personal development become more important; but this is only one limited study.
- Volunteers in student sport are under-researched. The one study we have found a mixture of personal and altruistic motives. This is an important group as University sport relies on these volunteers, who change every three years.
- A very important finding is that young people's volunteering is strongly predicted if their parents volunteer.

Importance of youth volunteering

Of all youth volunteering, 47% takes place in sport (Russell, 2005). Research in 2002 (Taylor, Nichols, Holmes et al., 2003) showed that 16–24 year olds provide 28% of all sports volunteers, the highest category of sports volunteers across all age categories. Young people are important in sports volunteering, as they are in volunteering in general (2.2, 2.5.3). Youth sport volunteering provides participation opportunities for others, but also opportunities for their own development, and this is frequently the main reason for promoting it.

Motivations or outcomes?

The predominance of programmes focused on the development of young people through volunteering means that a lot of research has focused on the outcomes of this process, rather than on the motives of young people to join such programmes or how they change.

Thus a recent review of evaluations concluded that positive outcomes for young people included: confidence and self-esteem, creativity and resilience; sense of making a difference and being listened to; sense of personal agency; core skills that promote self-development and improve employability: e.g. ability to communicate and present ideas, team-working, negotiation and leadership; opportunities to develop entrepreneurship; an understanding of systems — how to negotiate with their local council or how policy decisions are made at a national level; extended social horizons through forming relationships and networks with others from different backgrounds; caring attitude to others and a personal sense of belonging (Ockenden & Stuart, 2014). Of course, all these studies have to overcome the problems of measuring outcomes, attempting to go beyond the self-reporting of participants, and attributing change to the programme itself.

Interestingly such evaluations have ignored the traditional youth organisations such as Girlguiding UK and the Scout Association, discussed above, which have an explicit aim of developing young people and are the largest youth organisations in the country! Similarly, there are many studies on the impact of programmes designed to reduce crime amongst young people, and on the impact of adventurous outdoor activities — but again, these are not focused on the motives of young people to take part as sport volunteers, rather seeing volunteering as a panacea to social ills. Of course, one can assume that if young people continue to volunteer, the rewards they have experienced reinforce their motivation.

Motivations

Much less attention has been paid to the motivations of young people to volunteer. Studies are dominated by programme evaluation studies, as above. Ockenden & Stuart's (2014) review usefully brings them together. Unsurprisingly, if young people volunteer they want it to be fun, with friends, and not too committing. This goes somewhat against the accepted truth that young people volunteer mostly for instrumental reasons, particularly to boost their job prospects. Evaluation of the Step into Sport programme found that 77% of the school pupils involved as community volunteers wanted to participate to enhance their personal development, and 72% were attracted to the programme because they thought it would be fun and enjoyable (Kay and Bradbury, 2009). MORI's survey of 2,753 11–16 year olds for V Inspired (2010) found that (67%) of pupils would be encouraged to volunteer if they could do so with their friends; 58% would be encouraged to volunteer if they could try it once to see if they liked it, while 49% would be encouraged to volunteer if they could do so close to their home.

Consistent with the general volunteer research on young people, training opportunities and accreditation are valued (Corden & Ellis, 2004; Low, Butt et al., 2007). A 2014 survey of the general public for the Join In Trust asked what would motivate respondents to volunteer in their local area. In response to prompts, the highest percentage (47%) of students and unemployed people reported 'gain skills to use in further employment situations'. This was not in the top five of motivations for people who were employed, people who were at home as retired or careers, or, indeed, for the responses of all people together. The next highest response was 'to help disadvantaged people', which one could argue was probably in response to a heavily loaded prompt towards a socially acceptable response.

Do motivations change with experience? Work by Eley and Kirk (2002) is one of the few studies which has been able to measure changes in motivation. They surveyed 306 young people on a Millennium Volunteers project (later developed into Step into Sport) and 91 of this sample in a follow-up study 9 months later, using the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) to measure motivations. The 91 were representative of the 306 by demographic variables except gender (the sample of 91 had a 10% increase in females). At the start of the programme the highest scores on a 5–point scale were 4.05 for the 'understanding motive' (the volunteer is seeking to learn more about the world or use skills which are unused), and 3.93 for the 'career motive' (the volunteer has the goal of gaining career-related experience through volunteering). This supports previous findings that young people are more motivated to gain marketable experience; and in this case, this programme was concerned with skills development. On the VFI, over the 9 months there were small but significant increases in scores for three of the motives and a reduction in one (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 Changes in motives over 9 month's experience of the Millennium volunteers programme

Function / motivation	Description	Initial score	Score after 9 months
Social motive	Volunteering allows an individual to strengthen his or her social relationships	2.76	3.10
Values motive	The individual volunteers in order to express or act on important values like humanitarianism	3.77	3.95
Enhancement motive	One can grow and develop psychologically through volunteer activities	3.56	3.75
Protective motive	The individual uses volunteering to reduce negative feelings such as guilt, or to address personal problems.	2.75	2.63

Source Eley & Kirk, 2002: 160

Assuming these changes can be attributed to experience of the programme, after 9 months of the programme the young people were more strongly motivated by social relationships, values and developing psychologically and less motivated by volunteering to reduce negative self-perceptions.

Although these results are statistically significant, the sample is small. Participants had volunteered for the programme. It is not clear why only 91 were available for the follow-up study, but if they were the most enthusiastic, this would bias the results.

A very important finding for this review is that there was a highly significant relationship between the 28% of students who had prior volunteering experience and parents who had volunteered. To our knowledge this is the only research on sport volunteering to have investigated this relationship, but it suggests that a predisposition to volunteer is as a result of family socialisation, a finding supported by a number of quantitative studies from the USA and Europe.

Student volunteers in sport are under-researched. The only study we found of student volunteer motives (de Souza, 2005) surveyed 115 club volunteers involved in intermural sport. The same motivation questions were used in the 2002 Sport England study (Taylor, et al., 2003). The strongest motives were (Sport England survey results in brackets):

- It's connected with my needs or interests 80% (SE 2002, 53%)
- I had experience as a volunteer 27% (SE, not applicable)
- I wanted to improve things / help people 70% (SE 2002, 46%)
- There was a need in the community / club 65% (SE 2002, 12%)
- It's connected with my paid work / course 14% (SE 2002, 3%)

This shows the 2005 students appearing to be both more strongly concerned with their own rewards from volunteering, and with the benefits to others. Perhaps this reflects students being more opinionated than sports clubs committee members researched by Sport England (2002). The need in the club could reflect the need to replace student volunteers every year. Discussion suggests that students are under more pressure from financial concerns (probably more so in 2015 than in 2002), and are seen as a useful resource for local sports

development. A key point is that although students are normally only at university for three years, so new volunteers have to be continually found, still universities and university sports clubs benefit from a clearly defined and local pool of potential volunteers with passion for the sport in question.

4.8 Motivations of older volunteers

Key findings

- Older volunteers are very big potential contributors to sports volunteering.
- The administrative roles in sports clubs tend to be taken by older volunteers.
- Volunteering for older people can offer particularly strong rewards of feeling 'included' in communities and society through making an active contribution, social rewards, applying skills, and a sense of worth and status.
- Older volunteers can become involved through event volunteering, or remain involved in sports clubs, but there is limited research on other ways of introducing them into sports volunteering.

In section 2.5.4 the potential importance of older volunteers was identified. As the population ages, older people may have a more active retirement, and they may have strong links with the local community. The 65–74 age group have an especially high volunteering rate. However, the role of this group in sports volunteering is under-researched.

Section 4.1 showed that 45–60 year olds were more likely to hold administrative roles than any other role in sports clubs and that the roles of secretary and chairperson were some of the most demanding in terms of time contributed. However, only one paper has focused on the experiences of older adult volunteers in sport (Misener, Doherty & Hamm-Kerwin 2010). Interviews with 20 community sport volunteers who were 65 years of age and older found they were motivated by making a contribution to society, by the opportunity to lead an active life and by the rewards of social interaction. They were also able to use skills developed in their earlier lives. Negative experiences were almost entirely based around not being respected or not being listened to. Police checks, first aid and coaching training were also cited by some as having a negative impact on the experience, consistent with barriers to volunteering for older people as a whole.

The values of older volunteers have been contrasted with those of younger ones as more committed to society and fellow citizens (Lie et al., 2009). However, this may be misleading as research shows the considerable rewards from volunteering for this age group so there is not necessarily a different balance between altruism and self-interest. Volunteering can become a more significant contribution to their quality of life when they are retired and no longer have the same rewards from paid work. Two studies specifically showed the value of volunteering in this way (Lie et al., 2009; Nichols & Ralston, 2011).

The following case study (Nichols & Ralston, 2011: 911) of a long-term ex-Commonwealth Games volunteer shows how volunteering provided significant rewards including helping her establish a new sense of identity after the death of her husband:

'Gloria gave up work in 1997 after her husband died. She then took a typing course for two years, but when the opportunity of volunteering at the Commonwealth Games came up decided she would do that instead. She thought, 'I don't want to be told what to do by anybody'. She also wanted the freedom of voluntary commitment: 'I couldn't cope with being tied to anything after my husband died. I still feel like that, which is why I do this volunteering rather than [be] committed to do something every week'. ... She compared volunteering favourably with her previous job: 'I had my own office work to do totally on my own, I wasn't ever going to go back to that, and I didn't have to, because I had enough pension not to.'

Gloria volunteered full-time for two years before the Games, and especially enjoyed working with younger people: 'I was forty six when my husband died and people assumed I was a seventy year old widow, and so the Games volunteering and the subsequent volunteering has meant I work with all ages and I'm not labelled as an older person which I didn't want to be'. She still meets regularly with a group of the Games volunteers.

Gloria has continued to volunteer regularly to promote Manchester: 'The Commonwealth Games did so much for Manchester, and it is so very important for me to make sure that continues; and if I have to give up time for these sporting events to come back to Manchester on a regular basis, I'll do that ... '. Gloria described how volunteering had helped her establish her own sense of identity after her husband died:

'And you do have to literally reinvent yourself, you have to learn to like yourself....

So once you get to that stage then you're ready to go out and contribute to other peoples' lives, you've just been pulling on everybody else for such a long time, to support you so, go out and give it back.'

Her husband had held a prominent job in local government and she had previously accompanied him to social functions, in particular, at Manchester Town Hall where MEV were based:

'... and when he died I thought, that's just going to go out of my life now, and it has been quite special to have the opportunity in life to do that and meet people and, and [I] was quite sad. And then, because I did the volunteering, I actually got presented to Prince Edward when he came [to Manchester] and we all got invited down to St James Palace in London to meet the Prime Minister, when it was his sportsman's evening. And I thought, oh I've done it in my own right, now.'

This story brings to life the rewards of volunteering to which Join In (2015) have attributed such a high value.

The Commonwealth Games volunteers had a route into volunteering via the Games. For those already in a sports club a move to an administrative role may be a natural way of continuing an involvement with the club and the associated rewards after playing. The research gap is how the increasing number of potential older volunteers could be introduced into sport. Research has examined how volunteers can be recruited from outside clubs: successful methods have involved brokers linking clubs with potential volunteers (Taylor, Nichols & SIRC, 2011). As research results show, it would be easier to attract those with a former commitment to a sport.

4.9 Volunteers' effect on the sporting experience of participants, and promoting motivation of volunteers

Key findings

- Volunteers affect the experience of sports participants — this may be positive or negative.
- In sports clubs the effect of volunteers on sports participants is important, but not normally a strong enough factor to cause them to lapse from sport. Other factors are far more important.
- In sports clubs the effect of volunteers on participants will depend on the participant's expectations of the club. This is related to understanding the balance between club aims of providing a service, expressing a mutual enthusiasm, and providing conviviality.
- There is little direct evidence of how motivation of volunteers in clubs can be promoted, but there is evidence of the type of support they want.
- In events, volunteers are an important contributor to the experience of participants and spectators, but again, this is accepted as so obvious that it has not been the subject of research.
- Event volunteers can be managed to promote their enthusiasm.
- The motivations of volunteer coaches probably affect the experience of participants considerably, but we are not aware of direct evidence of this.

Volunteers' effect on the sporting experience — clubs

In sports clubs the core volunteers who run the club will have a major effect on the experience of participants. Since 2008 the quality of sporting experience has been an important concern to Sport England, in clubs and other contexts. A series of reports commissioned by Sport England from the Henley Centre led to the development of a 'satisfaction with the quality of the sporting experience' (SQSE) survey. This was administered by MORI in the years 2009–2012. Nick Rowe (the Strategic Lead for Research and Evaluation at Sport England at the time) described the development of this and results from 2009 (Rowe, 2012).

Three reports (Goretzki & Esser, 2008a, b; Goretzki, Esser & Claydon, 2008) examined the contributors to the quality of sporting experience and the reasons for participants lapsing. Two used focus group discussions. One asked 13 participants to join a club and record their experiences. The first study concluded that sport's 'sociable' dimension is a recurring emotional component. Feeling included or accepted is an indicator of satisfaction with communal / team sports — but less of an issue for solo sports. 'Staff attitudes' and poor coaching were factors which might make participants give up, although these were not specifically related to volunteers. Good organisation / coordination is a feature of a positive experience in organised team sports. This potentially suggests that a more formally organised club will offer a more satisfying experience — at least in team sports — although effective organisation does not necessarily rely on formal volunteering and structures. Potential club members perceive a set of barriers — such as clubs only wanting a good standard of player, or a level of commitment, or only wanting particular types of people. So clubs have to counter these perceptions. It was recommended that clubs offer time to trial, observe and experiment before signing up; play to generic sports 'triggers' as a life-style choice; and consider 'other looser formats'.

The study of lapsed participants found that a set of changed personal circumstances contributed to reasons for participants lapsing. If the role of volunteers was a factor it was minor compared to broader social factors.

The role of staff and volunteers was examined much more precisely by the 'satisfaction with the quality of the sporting experience' (SQSE) survey. This asked respondents to rate, out of ten, satisfaction and importance of ten 'domains' of experience, covered by 62 questions. One domain was a set of five questions about 'People and staff involved in organising your sport' within which one question was about volunteers: 'The competence and commitment of the volunteers I came into contact with in my sport'. Analysis showed that in five illustrative sports selected for comparisons (basketball, golf, judo, football and rugby union) there is some correlation between the two dimensions: those sports that have higher importance ratings also have higher satisfaction ratings. None of the five sports had satisfaction ratings higher than their importance ratings. Overall satisfaction with volunteers in four of the five sports was high, and higher than satisfaction with paid professional staff — this is consistent with other academic research which has suggested that there is a particular value attached to voluntary involvement.

The importance of volunteers in contributing to satisfaction was supported by greater proportions providing a high satisfaction rating amongst affiliated club members — the group most likely to come into contact with volunteers. Conversely, analysis of the 'not applicable' responses showed much greater proportion of 'not applicable' answers amongst general participants compared with affiliated club members. A high proportion of 'not applicable' answers amongst affiliated golf club participants might suggest that even participants in a highly structured club environment, traditionally with strong volunteer support, do not necessarily perceive volunteer support as being relevant to them, or that volunteers are an 'invisible' resource that doesn't feature in their consciousness. This is most likely where volunteering takes the unpaid work form, where to observers there may be no difference between the services provided by paid staff and those provided by volunteers.

The SQSE survey is the most precise instrument for identifying the importance of volunteers to satisfaction, and shows they are important. In 2012 MORI (Ipsos Mori, 2012) were able to extend the analysis to 1,848 survey participants who had dropped out of sport between 2011 and 2012. The reasons stated as most important for dropping out were: time constraints 29%, work commitments 25%, and less income / too expensive 18% — nothing to do with volunteers. The drop-outs all had lower satisfaction scores on the 10 domains of experience than non-drop outs. However, 'people and staff' only ranked 7th in the size of difference, being only 0.22% below non-drop outs, on a scale out of ten. So it appears that people and staff are not a major contributory factor to drop out although the question on volunteers was not analysed separately (it could be). The largest fall in satisfaction was for 'coaching'. If coaching had been conducted by volunteers, this might reflect a negative impact, but this can't be concluded from this research.

Two PhD studies confirmed the importance of volunteers to sporting experience, but in different ways. Lake (2010) found that a tennis club renowned for its social exclusivity reinforced this by a clear social hierarchy between established members and outsiders. The core group felt socially superior and had strong group norms and values which the outsiders lacked. An embedded social hierarchy was based on: length of membership, playing standard,

behaviour/etiquette and showing deference to established members. This was reflected in access to the best courts, organisation of competitions, who people played with and social events. This made it difficult for new members who did not fit into the established core.

“You walk in the door of the clubhouse and suddenly all eyes point at you. They don’t say it but they most definitely think it — ‘who are you, what do you want?’ They won’t come and talk to you and introduce themselves. You have to approach them and even when you do, you can see it in their eyes.” (new member)

In contrast, a study of sports clubs in the Netherlands (van der Roest, 2015) found a positive impact of core club volunteer attitudes on the member experience. The study examined clubs which had adopted a ‘consumerist’ approach — which approximates to the one advocated by Goretzki, et al. in *Increasing Participation in Sport Research Debrief 2008*. In this the participant is offered flexible opportunities, with a focus on them being able to act independently, possibly in new more individual forms of the sport, with high ‘value for money’ and the ability to withdraw as soon as they want. Clubs who adopted this consumerist approach did increase membership and volunteers.

However, the research concluded that the change in club organisation was a consequence of two factors. Firstly — external circumstances including: having more cooperating partners, fiercer competition from other sport organisations and greater financial dependence from their environment. Secondly — the board composition of members, which was younger and more highly educated. Such clubs were more likely to have written, formal policy plans. A change in the approach of clubs is not explained by a change in the attitude of members, as a survey to measure ‘consumerist attitude’ of members in 8 clubs showed no difference between types of clubs. This supports the view that change in the way the club is run is a consequence of the environment it is in and the attitude of the volunteers who run it. This is not surprising! These changes were not led by members, but an increase in membership and volunteers followed. This is interesting because it reflects Sport England policy in promoting ‘professionalism’ in club management.

Obviously the volunteers who run the club will have a significant effect on the experience of club members. The satisfaction of club members with this experience will reflect members’ expectations. A way of thinking about members expectations is as a balance between three different views of the club’s purpose (see Figure 4.9).

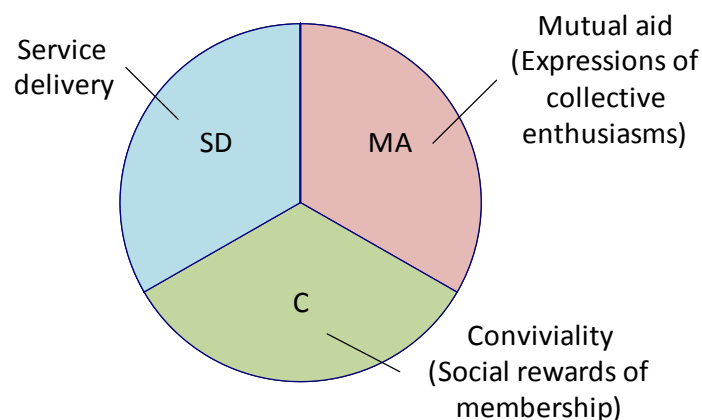


Figure 4.9 Members’ views of the sport club’s purpose (Nichols, 2014)

A view of the club as a service delivery organisation equates to the view advocated by the 2008 Henley Centre studies and approximating to van der Roest's consumerist orientation. The prime objective of the club is to provide a service to members. It will be 'consumer oriented' in marketing parlance, adapting its offer to match market conditions. Membership is open to anybody who wants to pay the subscription. A service delivery orientation corresponds to volunteers being thought of as providing unpaid work, not distinct in any significant way from paid staff. On the other hand, viewing a club as a mutual aid organisation means that its purpose is to express the shared enthusiasms of its members, which in this case may be a shared enthusiasm for the sport. Members will join if they share this enthusiasm. The club is 'product oriented' in that it offers the opportunity to play a sport, although it may alter the form of this play. In this type of club or organisation the volunteer sits within the 'activist' grouping — bound in by an enthusiasm for the club or sport. Yet a third view is that the main purpose of the club is to provide rewards of conviviality — social rewards of membership. Thus the post-match social will be at least as important as the result.

Continuing the marketing analogy, people are an important contributor to the experience. This may restrict membership: Lake's tennis club may be an extreme example, where an unwritten membership requirement is to be 'like' the established members. In this orientation volunteers are closer to 'serious leisure' participants. However, these categories of volunteering type are not clear — we saw in section 2.2 how they overlap — and not all types of sports club fit neatly into just one category. All sports volunteering may include elements of unpaid work, elements of activism and elements of serious leisure, to various extents. In a social gathering, 'people like us' is defined subjectively and is a dimension of bonding social capital (Nichols, Tacon & Muir, 2013).

Analysis could be deepened, but the main points are that:

- if potential members have a choice they will join a club with the balance of objectives which matches their needs. It will be 'their type of club'.
- the core volunteers who run the club are generally — but not always — elected by the members, so are likely to reflect their view of the club. However, there may be a tension if the core volunteers and the members have different views of the club.
- if a club wants to expand membership it will need to offer what new members want. The research commissioned of the general public by Sport England suggests new members want a service delivery type club. (Although they may not have been presented by the rewards of membership of an alternative organisation.)
- a club may not wish to expand if its mutual aid and conviviality aims are strong, although it will wish to survive.
- however, if clubs are to survive, new members who are expecting a service delivery experience, in which a subscription is exchanged for an opportunity to participate, will need to experience the rewards of conviviality and mutual aid to develop the commitment required to take the major volunteer roles which sustain the club.

Promoting motivation of volunteers — clubs

We are unaware of research which directly relates external interventions to changes in the motivation of volunteers in clubs. A range of studies suggest that club volunteers want support to be of immediate practical use to them. They value personal support from a person

or organisation they respect, such as a club development officer (Nichols, 2013), an NGB development officer or a club which has dealt with a similar problem (Taylor, Nichols & SIRC, 2011). However, one can only surmise that this boosts motivation. Of course, this support is far more expensive to provide than access to a web site.

Volunteers' effect on the sporting experience — events

The analysis so far has been on club volunteers. It is widely asserted that the motivation of volunteers at major sports events is important to contribute to the ambiance of the event, and thus the experience of spectators and participants. In relation to the Olympic Games their importance is 'not only the work they do, but also the image of the host nation they create...' (Preuss, 2004: 182). Cashman's (2006) account of the Sydney Olympics emphasized the importance of volunteers to the quality of the event and the emotional legacy, although this is hard to quantify. As a volunteer himself, Cashman had a strong emotional engagement with the Sydney Games and its potential volunteering legacy. Similarly there was high public appreciation of volunteers at the 2002 Commonwealth Games (Nichols & Ralston, 2012a) and the 2012 Olympics, although the latter may also have reflected the organising committee's control of public opinion. Volunteers are mentioned in the IOC Technical Manual on Workforce, which gives both guidance and contractual requirements of the host city, and volunteers were the subject of an international symposium promoted by the IOC (Moragas, Moreno & Puig, 1999).

It seems obvious that the enthusiasm of volunteers can contribute something distinctive to an event experience. The local Ambassador programmes associated with 2012 Olympic events outside of London showed volunteers can contribute local knowledge and provide tourists with links to local people (Nichols & Ralston, 2014b).

Promoting motivation of volunteers — events

As volunteers are not motivated by a wage, event organisers cannot buy 'emotional labour'. Enthusiasm has to be genuine. The management of volunteers at such events therefore has to engender this (Auld, Cuskelly & Harrington, 2009; Green & Chalip, 2004). This may or may not include motivating event volunteers to volunteer again in different circumstances (Nichols & Ralston, 2015). It is beyond the scope of this review to go into further details, and this is not important as an event as large as the Olympic or Commonwealth Games will not take place in England again for some time.

Volunteers' effect on the sporting experience — other volunteers

The research for Sport England found that poor experience of coaching was one reason for sports participation lapsing. This is an area where further research could be valuable. Similarly, it seems obvious that the motivations of volunteers in youth organisations will strongly influence the experience of young people participating.

5. Conclusions. Clustering volunteers and explaining sports volunteering

Key Findings

- Despite the complex and changing mix of motivations of every volunteer, sports volunteers can be categorised in terms of their reasons for engaging and the nature of

their engagement. These change over people's lives as their circumstances change, from youth when the need to get a job and the desire to be with friends is important, through middle age where participation may continue and children's needs may dominate, into older age where senior volunteers are the bedrock of a club. Supporting this volunteer journey — which may be within one club or across many — is essential to recruiting and retaining sports volunteers.

- The same characteristics that make sports participation more likely also make engagement in sports volunteering more likely. This is unsurprising — throughout section 4 we saw how a passion for the sport encouraged volunteers of all ages and in a range of roles, so it follows that participants and volunteers share similar characteristics.
- Engagement in sports volunteering is in many cases a long-term commitment, hence we need to better understand what motivates people to get involved and to stay involved. The idea of 'volunteering capital' might enable teams, clubs and sports bodies to identify volunteers, attract them and retain them.

Clusters of sports volunteers

Given the complex interplay of motives, personal circumstances and experience for any one volunteer we still need to try and generalise types of volunteers. To do this we have developed the categorisation by Sport Wales (2012) presented in 4.3.

Young sports enthusiasts: Typically aged 18–25; the high level of volunteering reflects participation in sport; motives are a mixture of seeking experience and skills they think will give an advantage in the employment market, and more altruistic ones of wanting to improve things by making a positive contribution. Involvement has to be fun, with friends, and often with limited commitment. Young people may regard coaching qualifications as a general CV enhancement, but for some, a role towards paid work and a career. In higher education the love of the sport is combined with awareness that University clubs require volunteers to function and continually need to replace them. Young sports volunteers are more likely to volunteer if their parents' volunteered. In youth organisations which have an aim of developing young people a progression from participating to volunteering is part of the ethos.

Parents of participants: Typically aged 30–45; the impetus to volunteer is to help their child participate but (although research has not analysed motives of this group separately) they are likely to value sports participation and feel an obligation to support the organisation their child is taking part in. They may take coaching qualifications but with an aim of helping the club rather than enhancing their career. Many of this group will leave the club or organisation when their children do, but some may develop motivations from social rewards, developing a particular role and an affiliation with the club, which are strong enough to maintain their involvement.

Participant volunteers: Typically 20 years of age or older. Volunteering is an extension of involvement as a sports participant, alongside participation or as participation declines. An involvement with the organisation or with the sport as a participant and as a volunteer, means they have developed motivations of: social rewards, status and identity associated with their formal and informal place in the organisation, and a commitment to the organisation and the sport. These rewards can be understood as 'serious leisure' (2.1, 2.3), but also as unpaid work necessary to ensure a team, club or sport runs smoothly. Volunteering may also be motivated by a perception (or indeed a reality) that the organisation will fail

if they do not continue. It may be difficult to distinguish between this motive and what Pearce (1993) identified as 'martyred leadership'. These volunteers may take multiple roles which have developed around their involvement.

Established / core volunteers: Older, and typically developing from the participant volunteer with a deepening of motivations. As volunteers move into retirement from paid employment volunteering takes a more significant role in their lives, in terms of the rewards it provides. These volunteers will have a major influence on the direction of the organisation, its culture, and; apart from coaches; will contribute a high proportion of the time. These volunteers maintain the structure of organisations, taking the core roles which allow other groups to volunteer. In particular, they have to be prepared to accommodate those who want to volunteer episodically. Again, core volunteers may be motivated by a concern that if they stand down replacements may not be found.

Episodic / peripheral volunteers: These volunteers give time for a discrete period (2.5.1). Episodic commitment may reflect the competing demands of work and parenthood, fragmentary availability of time, or just unwillingness to sacrifice one's own flexibility. Motives may include a mixture of those above, apart from those experienced by the 'serious / core' volunteers. These volunteers may repeatedly volunteer for the same organisation, or for different organisations. In sport this is particularly facilitated by volunteer-event broker organisations run by local government. Such volunteering would also be facilitated by websites, such as provided by the Join In Trust. As shown appendix 4, the core volunteers in parkruns enable others to volunteer at short notice, and in a repeat / episodic manner, through registering on a web site.

A link between sports volunteering and sports participation

The motives for sports volunteering suggest a strong link with participation. This is confirmed by analysis of the Taking Part survey (Dawson & Downward, 2013) which shows the same factors significantly associated both with sports participation and with volunteering. These include: being male, having higher levels of education and income, very good or good health, and watching sport either live or on TV. The positive relationship between watching sport with both participation in sport and sport volunteering confirms the complementarity of both activities. Similarly, factors which reduce sports participation and volunteering include: increasing age, being single, having children under the age of 6 years old, keeping house, being in full-time work, having recently moved into the area, and watching TV generally of at least 3 hours a week, and up to 5 or more hours. These suggest similar constraints of income, time, familial responsibility, being new to an area and thus perhaps not having the relevant social networks with which to engage in sport, and a preference for more sedentary leisure activity. Broadly similar results emerged when analysing duration of volunteering. Interestingly, having physical health constraints, while reducing participation in sport did not affect volunteering; suggesting that volunteering may offer a continuity of interest in sport that was no longer available through participation.

Pathways through sport and volunteering

The typology of volunteers offers a 'market segmentation' as a means of promoting volunteering and support to volunteers. However, it may be more useful to think about how volunteering and sports participation are linked and how both adapt to changes during a volunteers' life, in

the same way as the Pathways through Participation report (Brodie, Hughes, Jochum, et al., 2011) understood volunteering as an interaction of values, circumstances and experience. In this model values were relatively stable though a life course and explained an underlying pre-disposition to volunteer and to volunteer in support of certain causes.

Because sports participation is so strongly linked to sports volunteering, we need to understand the relation between the two. Nick Rowe (the former Strategic Lead for Research and Evaluation at Sport England) developed the concept of 'sporting capital' to understand how sporting commitment could be developed. For Rowe (2012b):

Sporting Capital is analogous to the theory of human capital and may be defined as: "The stock of physical, social and psychological attributes and competencies that support and motivate an individual to participate in sport and to sustain that participation over time".

The underlying factors that determine the likelihood of people participating in sport may be classified into three domains: social, psychological and physiological (physical health and physical competency). Brought together, these three domains interact and combine to create an individual's level of 'sporting capital':

The model predicts that an individual with positive scores on the three domains will have a high probability of current and future sustained sports participation, while someone with scores that locate them at the outer edges of the triangle will have a very low probability of current or future participation in sport. (Rowe, 2012b)

The model (see Figure 5.1) was used by StreetGames to design their programme to make it suitable for participants with low levels of sporting capital.

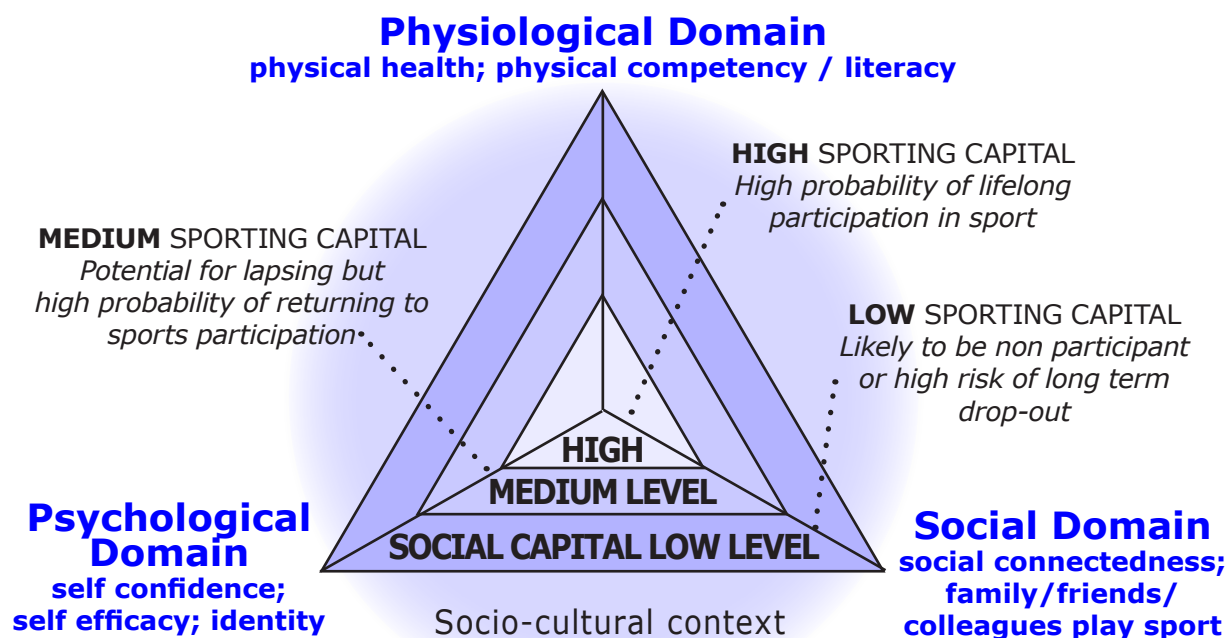


Figure 5.1 Theoretical model of 'sporting capital'

Source Rowe, N. 2012b. Sporting Capital — a new theory of sport participation determinants and its application to 'Doorstep Sport' A report commissioned by StreetGames

The sporting capital model could be adapted to volunteering capital. The psychological and social domains would be similar. The physiological domain could be replaced by specific volunteering skills. Volunteering capital would then provide a more sophisticated description of the values underpinning volunteering in the Pathway's model, as it explains why it varies between different people, changes over time, and to an extent, is inherited. For example, Rowe contends that significant aspects of sporting capital are developed through early socialisation (he gives examples of differences by gender and social class) and can depreciate or build over time.

The limited research available (Eley and Kirk, 2002) also shows that young people's involvement in sports volunteering is strongly related to their parents' volunteering and family influences are strong (Bekkers, 2007 — section 2.3). Early socialisation into values supporting volunteering is important (Marta & Pozzi, 2008; Oesterle, et al., 2004) (section 2.5.3).

It is beyond the scope of this review to develop these theoretical ideas further, but an implication is that volunteering and sports participation need to be developed by nurturing the appropriate forms of capital which are linked. For example, sports clubs could engender an ethos that young participants would progress through volunteer roles in the clubs, for example, taking coaching qualifications to enable them to support younger members.

As well as development of sporting and volunteering capital, maintaining a commitment to sports volunteering has been understood through 'continuity' theory (Cuskelly, 2004; Cuskelly & O'Brien, 2013). Interviews with club volunteers of over 20 year's duration showed that, "all participants indicated that they thought that volunteering was an important part of their identity and subsequently an important aspect of their life" (p. 64). This supports the view that for these core volunteers a motivation to continue was their sense of identity, which offered continuity over a long-period. This could also be interpreted as a dimension of 'serious leisure' and sporting social capital. This suggests that sports clubs need to integrate members as far as possible into the social aspects of the club to develop these rewards of membership and an identification with the club. Volunteering capacity is grown and nurtured as a collective resource (Brudney and Meijs, 2009).

6. Suggestions for further research

This review is the first to combine research on sports volunteers and their motivations with volunteering in general. Partly as a consequence a set of further topics and questions emerge:

- Research on sports volunteer motivations which builds on theoretical understandings.
- A replication of the Pathways through Participation research to interview sports volunteers to understand how volunteering changed during their life, and its relation to sports participation. This could develop and apply the concepts of sporting and volunteering capital.
- How can regional and national sports events, such as the Rugby World Cup, be used to motivate and develop existing and potential club volunteers?

- How is the development of volunteer coaches affected by the increasing professionalization of coaching?
- How is the attitude of young people towards sports volunteering influenced by the volunteering of their parents? If it is, how can young people's parents be influenced to support their children's volunteering?
- How is the attitude of young people towards sports participation influenced by the participation of their parents? Again, how can parent's attitudes be influenced?
- What are the motivations of student volunteers supporting clubs in higher education and what is the balance in these between 'love of the sport', social rewards and the promoted discourse of enhancing employability?
- How does student sport volunteering build on sporting and volunteering social capital, and how does it develop it?
- How can parents of participants be encouraged to volunteer and deepen their commitment, such that fewer are lost when their children cease participation?
- How were volunteers at the Glasgow Commonwealth Games in 2014 developed? How did this contribute to developing sports participation? How will this impact future volunteering engagement in sport in Glasgow?
- The 2012 Gamesmaker data set could be analysed to identify the demographic characteristics of volunteers corresponding to motivational clusters and the relation of these to volunteering before the Games.
- How does the motivation of core volunteers in a sports club determine its ability to adapt to changed circumstances?
- How is the management of volunteers distinctive to cater for the balance between aims of service delivery, mutual aid and conviviality?
- In general — how can pathways through sports volunteering be facilitated?

Delivering this research

This review provides an excellent starting point for additional research. Research could be promoted by Sport England through linked PhD studentships to universities. A programme of these could be planned to cover the most important questions above, possibly in partnership with other organisations such as the wealthier NGBs. Demonstration projects of 'good practice' could be set up and evaluated, in the same way as in the 1980's such projects were used to explore means of promoting sports participation amongst low participation groups.

Promoting this review through the web sites of the Voluntary Sector Studies Network, the Leisure Studies Association and the Sports Volunteering Research network, would stimulate further research. This could also be achieved by presenting at the conferences of these organisations.

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Appendix 1 Abstracts (Initial Research)

ADAMS, A., & DEANE, J. (2009). Exploring formal and informal dimensions of sports volunteering in England. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 9, 119–140

Aim To understand the formal and informal dimensions of sport volunteering in England

Abstract This paper provides a critical account of the manner in which sports volunteers are categorized as either formal or informal, suggesting that it is the subjective perception of volunteers themselves rather than objective criteria that may better explain how an individual approaches a particular volunteering episode. The context for the paper is drawn from the apparent privileging of voluntary activity and voluntary associations, which is a key part of the British government's Third Way policy approach. It is within this context that agency and structure are employed as sensitising concepts in order to (a) analyse the context of the sport volunteer and (b) propose an alternative model for the categorisation of sports volunteers. The empirical section of the paper uses a series of interviews conducted from December 2004 to June 2007 with a range of stakeholders both within and outside of voluntary sports clubs. The major themes discussed in the interviews were modernisation, type and effectiveness of support available, the value of voluntary sports clubs (VSCs), the nature and structure of partnerships and the extent of networks and connections. It is argued that existing frameworks for rationalising and conceptualising sports volunteers are limited in scope and, subsequently, do not provide the best means to establish appropriate support for sport volunteers. Furthermore, the paper argues that subjective interpretations of support, which are discursively linked to subjective interpretations of both agency and structure, are crucial to fully conceptualise the whole range of volunteering activity that occurs in sport.

Methods Interviews

ALEXANDER, A., KIM, S.B., & KIM, D.Y. (2015). Segmenting volunteers by motivation in the 2012 London Olympic Games. *Tourism Management*, 47, 1–10

Aim To identify three distinct segments of motivation

Abstract The present research employed seven motivational factors to delineate sports-event volunteer segments for the 2012 London Olympic Games. The investigators conducted a survey of 11,421 volunteers in the 2012 London Olympic Games and used the factor-clustering method to identify three distinct 'segments (i.e., the obligated, the enthusiastic, and the semi-enthusiastic). In addition, these segments' overall satisfaction, behavioral intentions for other future events, and socio-demographic backgrounds were assessed, uncovering significant differences among the segments. An ANOVA and a chi-square test found the segments to differ significantly from each other in all of these regards. (C) 2014 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Methods Survey

ALLEN, J.B., & SHAW, S. (2009). "Everyone rolls up their sleeves and mucks in": Exploring volunteers' motivation and experiences of the motivational climate of a sporting event. *Sport Management Review*, 12, 79–90

Aim To explore volunteers' motivation and experiences of the motivational climate of a sporting event

Abstract

Research examining volunteer motivation and satisfaction has been criticised for the limited explanation of the cognitive and social processes that may underpin the proposed relationships among motivation, satisfaction, performance and retention (Costa, C.A., Chalip, L., Green, B.C., & Simes, C. (2006).

Reconsidering the role of training in event volunteers' satisfaction. *Sport Management Review*, 9(2), 165–182.; Cuskelly, G., Hoye, R., & Auld, C. (2006).

Working with volunteers in sport. Theory and practice. London: Routledge.

Self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci, E.L., & Ryan, R.M. (1985). Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior. New York: Plenum.; Ryan, R.M., & Deci, E.L. (2000a) has proven useful in both for- and not-for-profit domains (e.g., Beard, P.P. (1994).

A motivational basis for consulting with not-for-profit organizations: A study of church growth and participation. *Consulting Psychology Journal*, 46(3), 19–31.; Deci, E.L., Connell, J.P., & Ryan, R.M. (1989).

Self-determination in a work organisation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74(4), 580–590.; Hollembeak, J., & Amorose, A. J. (2005).

Perceived coaching behaviors and college athletes' intrinsic motivation: A test of self-determination theory. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 17(1), 20–36) and appears particularly suited to understanding volunteer motivation.

Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68–78).

The purpose of this study was to examine sport event volunteers' motivation and experiences of the motivational climate at a large sport event using self-determination theory. The participants were volunteers at the NZ Master's Games held biannually in Dunedin, NZ. They participated in focus group interviews in which their experiences as volunteers at the event were discussed. In general, the findings support tenets of self-determination theory. Participants reported intrinsic motivation toward volunteering but also forms of extrinsic motivation toward some volunteer tasks. With regard to the motivational climate, volunteers experienced support for their autonomy, and felt that their competence and sense of relatedness were fostered. These findings suggest that SDT is a viable framework for examining volunteer motivation.

Methods Focus group

BENSON, A.M., DICKSON, T. J., TERWIEL, A., & BLACKMAN, D. (2014). Training of Vancouver 2010 volunteers: A legacy opportunity? Special Issue: The Olympic Legacy; Contemporary Social Science: *Journal of the Academy of Social Sciences*, 9, 2, 210–226

Aim & Abstract The successful delivery of a mega sport event depends upon a volunteer workforce. It is often asserted that the training of event volunteers contributes to the creation of a social legacy via the transfer of learning to other volunteer contexts, thereby creating an enhanced volunteer pool after the event, which will support the tourism and events industries in the host communities. This article reflects upon the reality of that assertion and

argues that in order to achieve legacy both training and development strategies are required. As such an analysis of data collected at the Vancouver 2010 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games around training and legacy is discussed. A Legacy Training and Development Model is offered and subsequently applied to the case study. The article concludes by suggesting that training at Vancouver 2010 was a missed opportunity in achieving legacy

BREUER, C., WICKER, P., & VON HANAU, T. (2012). Consequences of the decrease in volunteers among German sports clubs: is there a substitute for voluntary work? *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 4, 173–186

Aim Consequences of the decrease in volunteers among German sports clubs

Abstract Volunteers represent a key resource for many voluntary sports clubs; however, a decrease in volunteers has been reported in many countries during recent years. The question arises as to how sports clubs respond to this and whether losses in voluntary work can be compensated for by other means. The purpose of this article is to analyse the consequences of a decrease in volunteers on an empirical basis, using a unique panel data set from a German survey of non-profit sports clubs (n=724). Within the analysis, sports clubs that experienced a decrease in volunteers from 2005 to 2009 are compared with clubs with a stable development (i.e. no change) or an increase in volunteers during the same time period. The results indicate that there are some substitution effects in sports clubs with a decrease in volunteers which differ between the short term (2005–2007) and the long term (2005–2009). In the short-term, the number of secondary volunteers and the proportion of clubs with low-cost employees (people with jobs from the employment office) increased significantly. In the long-term, the share of clubs with paid staff increased significantly. The findings indicate that sports clubs are capable of compensating for declines in volunteer numbers. Nevertheless, one major policy implication for sports clubs, sports federations and policymakers should be to improve the recognition of voluntary work. Moreover, public subsidies for the employment of paid staff could be provided.

Methods Survey

BURGHAM, M., & DOWNWARD, P. (2005). Why volunteer, time to volunteer? A case study from swimming. *Managing Leisure*, 10, 79–93

Aim To understand the factors affecting volunteering

Abstract In the context of the potential decline in volunteering, and based on a case study of swimming, this paper analyses the factors that affect volunteer decisions. Drawing upon the sports participation literature, the decision to volunteer or not, and then to make a decision to commit time to volunteer activity is analysed. The results reveal that separate factors appear to influence these decisions which policies need to take account of and which future larger-scale research should further investigate and refine. Policies to promote volunteering from within sport and through public authorities are discussed.

Methods Questionnaire

BUSSER, J.A., & CARRUTHERS, C.P. (2010). Youth sport volunteer coach motivation. *Managing Leisure*, 15, 128–139

Aim To understand the motivations of youth sport coaches

Abstract Each year, over 20 million youth participate in sport (Ewing & Seefeldt, 2002). Public parks and recreation agencies are increasingly reliant on volunteers to deliver services (Silverberg, Backman & Backman, 2000). These volunteers are especially vital to the delivery of youth recreation and sport programs (Twyam, Ferrell & Johnston, 2002/2003). Volunteer positions in sport programs, especially coach positions, are difficult to fill (Cuskelly, Taylor,

Hoye & Darcy, 2006), and the retention of youth coaches is low (Paiement, 2007). The purpose of this study was to understand the motivations of youth sport coaches. A convenience sample of youth sport coaches completed the Volunteer Functions Inventory that measures motivations, along with demographic information. Results indicated that values were the most important function for youth sport coaches. A MANOVA revealed significant differences between first year and returning coaches for the functions of self-serving and personal growth but not for values and social. Implications for the recruitment and retention of youth sport coaches and future research are provided.

Methods Questionnaire

BYERS, T. (2013). Using critical realism: A new perspective on control of volunteers in sport clubs. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 13, 5–31

Aim To demonstrate the theoretical and practical application of Critical Realism (CR) as a new methodological perspective in research on sport volunteering

Abstract The purpose of this paper is to demonstrate the theoretical and practical application of Critical Realism (CR) as a new methodological perspective in research on sport volunteering. To date, much of the sport volunteering research has been underpinned by a polarity of positivist and interpretivist methodologies which has contributed to narrow ontological perspectives of the sport volunteering phenomenon. Data from a 3-year multiple case study of three equestrian sport clubs are used to illustrate how CR provides a new perspective of control in this context. To complement the CR philosophy, Altheide's Ethnographic Content Analysis (ECA) was employed in data analysis. Using the CR ontology of multiple realities and ECA, control in sport clubs is theorised as complex, dynamic and contextually sensitive. The results of this analysis reveal the objective, observable elements of control, the subjective interpretations of control and the underlying generative mechanisms which are thought to have given rise to the forms of control and how they are used within the clubs in this dataset. Building on Downward's introduction of CR to research on Sport Tourism, this paper contributes to the literature on sport volunteerism by offering a more extensive discussion of CR as a new methodological perspective worthy of further application across a range of issues related to sport volunteerism

Methods Case study

COLEMAN, R. (2002). Characteristics of volunteering in UK sport: Lessons from cricket. *Managing Leisure*, 7, 220–238

Aim To identify characteristics exhibited by volunteers in middle level sport (county standard non-professional), in this instance managers of county youth cricket (CYC) teams

Abstract This paper builds on the first major study of volunteering in UK sport, by providing the first detailed empirical evidence relating to the characteristics exhibited by volunteers in middle level sport (county standard non-professional), in this instance managers of county youth cricket (CYC) teams. The characteristics are presented in their own right and in addition comparisons are made with the characteristics of sports club volunteers from the original research conducted by the Leisure Industries Research Centre (LIRC) in 1996. The rationale for the study contends that sports volunteers are not homogeneous, and their characteristics, time contributions and the problems they encounter vary according to the level at which they choose to volunteer in sport. Consistent with the LIRC research, the current investigation focuses on volunteers who are systematic: those volunteers who have a clearly defined role and who make a regular commitment to the successful running of the CYC team. The findings are based on responses from 151 managers from 35 county cricket associations (CCAs). The majority of county youth cricket team managers were male, aged

35–59 and more likely to volunteer with age than sports club volunteers. Managers were better educated and more likely to be retired than sports club volunteers. The average length of service of managers was 9.4 years and they fulfilled multiple roles (coach, treasurer, secretary etc) with a year round commitment of 306 hours compared to only 238 hours for sports club volunteers. Managers contributed considerably more time during the cricket season than the close season with a minority contributing the majority of all volunteer hours to the team. Both self-interest and altruism were motivations for volunteering. The major problems encountered were consistent with those reported by sports club volunteers, and related to a volunteer shortage with work increasingly left to a few people. The current study has highlighted the often multi-functional role of the sports volunteer and a variation in the characteristics exhibited at different levels of sport. While not wanting to draw definitive conclusions prior to further empirical studies, if one accepts the findings herein as typical of other sports, there is tentative evidence to suggest that policy support agencies and sports' governing bodies should be cautious of treating sports volunteers as a homogeneous group.

Methods Questionnaire

CUSKELLY, G. (2004). Volunteer retention in community sport organisations. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 4, 59–76

Aim To examine trends in volunteer participation and retention using continuity theory

Abstract An important factor in the operation of community sport organisations is the retention of volunteers. The purpose of this paper is to examine and explain trends in volunteer participation and retention using continuity theory (Atchley, 1989, 1999). Within the context of government policies aimed at increasing participation in community sport, a secondary analysis of a data series from the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2002) is used to illustrate recent volunteer and player participation trends in sport. This paper argues that government policies aimed at increasing participation in organised sport may not be achievable given apparent decreases in the volunteer work capacity of the community sport system. Problems such as the uneven distribution of volunteer work in sport and the relatively small and decreasing proportions of people volunteering in specific roles in sport are discussed. Based on continuity theory (Atchley, 1989, 1999), this paper develops a "transition-extension" hypothesis that aims to explain the recruitment and retention of players and ex-players as volunteers in community sport organisations. It concludes by outlining some directions for further research.

Methods Secondary-data

CUSKELLY, G., & O'BRIEN, W. (2013). Changing roles: applying continuity theory to understanding the transition from playing to volunteering in community sport. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 13, 54–75

Aim To understand the transition from playing to volunteering in community sport using continuity theory

Abstract In many Western nations government policies are directed at increasing levels of participation in community sport. Recent research suggests that the sustainability of community sports system is under pressure due to declining volunteer numbers. Volunteers are often players transitioning from playing roles into non-playing roles such as administration and coaching. While a human resource management approach has been adopted to manage volunteers, little is understood in relation to the factors that contribute to players making the transition from playing to volunteering. Using Atchley's continuity theory, we propose a transition-extension framework that examines the psychological and social factors that

provide the impetus for the transition to volunteering. The framework also examines those factors that contribute to volunteers extending their involvement and may help community sport organisations provide an environment that will nurture volunteers in the transition phase to retain and extend their involvement to become long-term volunteers.

Methods Interview

CUSKELLY, G., MCINTYRE, N., & BOAG, A. (1998). A longitudinal study of the development of organizational commitment amongst volunteer sport administrators. *Journal of Sport Management*, 12, 181–202

Aim To examine the development of organizational commitment amongst volunteers in relation to several organizational factors and personal characteristics.

Abstract The commitment of volunteers is critical to the effective organization and delivery of community-based sport. This paper examined the development of organizational commitment amongst volunteers in relation to organizational factors and personal characteristics. Using data from a 3-wave longitudinal study of volunteer administrators (n=328) drawn from 52 randomly selected community-based sport organizations, organizational commitment was examined in relation to a range of variables including personal characteristics (socio-demographics), behavioral commitment, volunteering benefits, structural attributes (organizational size, budget)^{ao} and process characteristics operationalized as perceptions about committee functioning. Using hierarchical regression analysis, the study found evidence of a directional relationship between perceived committee functioning and organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was also predicted by age, occupation, years of organizational membership, and time spent on administration. The study demonstrated a temporal relationship between committee functioning and organizational commitment and concluded with a discussion of practical implications and recommendations for further research.

Methods Questionnaire

DAVIS SMITH, J. (2000). 'Volunteering and social development', *Voluntary Action* 3, 1, 1–12

Aim To examine the social and economic benefits of volunteering and at how governments can support it

Abstract This article looks at the social and economic benefits of volunteering and at how governments can support it. First, four core characteristics of volunteering are defined, and on this basis four broad types of volunteering are identified: mutual aid, philanthropy, participation and advocacy. The main benefits of volunteering are then enumerated: it contributes to the national economy, helps to create a stable, cohesive society and brings personal benefits to the volunteers themselves. Volunteering currently faces challenges from economic retrenchment and adverse demographic trends — but advances in IT and the growing number of older people represent promising opportunities. Governments can help to support volunteering by recognising its contribution, by creating a favourable legal and fiscal environment and by funding its infrastructure and promoting it through national campaigns.

Methods Review

DAWSON, P., & DOWNWARD, P. (2013). The relationship between participation in sport and sport volunteering: An economic analysis. *International Journal of Sport Finance*, 8, 75–92

Aim To understand relationship between participation in sport as a consumer activity and sport volunteering as a producer activity

Abstract This paper explores the relationship between participation in sport as a consumer activity and sport volunteering as a producer activity. Using data from the Taking Part Survey, evidence is found that the decision to engage in sports participation and sports volunteering as well as the duration of the activities are complementary. In general, the findings confirm the well-established impacts of human and economic capital on engagement in sports-related activities, as well as the availability of time. However, there is evidence of the shifting roles of consumption and production of sport as family commitments change while differential effects are also found with respect to ethnicity, health, and the accessibility of sports facilities.

Methods Secondary-data

DE SOUZA, T. (2005). The role of higher education in the development of sports volunteers. *Voluntary Action* 7, 1, 81–98

Abstract This article summarises the key findings from a study of the role of higher education in developing sports volunteers. The research produced statistics on the number of volunteers supporting sport in higher education, and also enabled an assessment to be made of their characteristics and motivations to volunteer. The article examines the barriers to volunteering faced by students, goes on to analyse the impact of student volunteering on the local community and concludes with a discussion of whether investment in student sports volunteers today could make an impact on tomorrow's generation of volunteers. The motives are a mixture of personal rewards, related to employability, and benefiting society.

DEAN, J. (2014). How structural factors promote instrumental motivations within youth volunteering: a qualitative analysis of volunteer brokerage. *Voluntary Sector Review*, 5, 231–247

Aim To understand how volunteering policy, specific volunteering programmes and operational practices in volunteer brokerage organisations promote instrumental motivations in young volunteers

Abstract This article presents a structural, multi-level analysis, showing how volunteering policy, specific volunteering programmes and operational practices in volunteer brokerage organisations promote instrumental motivations in young volunteers. Through evidence drawn from a qualitative study of youth volunteering brokerage workers and volunteering policy-practitioners, it is shown how young people are increasingly pressured into volunteering, and into seeing volunteering as primarily a route into employment. Volunteer recruiters do not challenge these structural factors; instead, employability and easing the transition to work and university form a large part of 'selling' volunteering, with young people encouraged to trade their time for experience. It is concluded that these findings fit into a wider theoretical narrative about the changing nature of volunteering, and have the potential to create significant problems for volunteer-involving organisations.

Methods Interview

DEANE, J., MAWSON, H., CRONE, D., PARKER, A., & JAMES, D. (2010). 'Where are the future sports volunteers? A case study of Sports Leaders UK', *LSA Newsletter No. 86, July 2010: 29–32*

Abstract

Sports volunteering accounts for some 26% of all volunteer activity in England (Davis-Smith, Ellis and Howlett, 2002) and largely takes place within approximately 151,000 voluntary sports clubs (CCPR, 2003). The UK voluntary system of sport has many more single sports clubs than any other EU country except France, and it is through these voluntary sports club (VSCs) that volunteers will assist in recruiting an additional million new sports participants by 2012–13 (Harris, Mori and Collins, 2009). However, it is well documented (Davis Smith, 1998; Nichols and King, 1998; Nichols, Taylor, James, King, Holmes and Garrett, 2004; Taylor, Nichols, Holmes, James, Gratton, et al., 2003) that voluntary sports clubs continue to have ongoing difficulties in recruiting and retaining sports volunteers. In particular, Taylor et al.'s (2003) work highlighted that the average age of volunteers is increasing significantly, that volunteers are mainly male and from white middle-class backgrounds, and that there is a distinct possibility that many voluntary sports clubs face closure unless new young sports volunteers and leaders are found. The evidence indicates that there has been a decline over time of the rate of young people volunteering from 55% in 1991 to 40% in 2001, and a significant decline in formal volunteering during the move from youth into adulthood (Kay and Bradbury 2009). This paper focuses on the role of one agency, Sports Leaders UK, and explores how the organisation is adapting and changing its structure and product portfolio to produce the next generation of sports volunteers and leaders. The research considers the range and diversity of young people taking the sports leaders awards and their motivations for completing the award.

Methods Survey

DICKSON, T.J., BENSON, A.M., BLACKMAN, D.A., & TERWIEL, A.F. (2013). It's All About the Games! 2010 Vancouver Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games Volunteers. *Event Management, 17, 77–92*

Aim What motivates individuals to volunteer at mega sport events

Abstract Despite volunteers being essential for the success of many mega sport events, there is little known about what motivates them to volunteer at such events. This study aims to address this gap. This article commences by developing Getz's event portfolio into a new expanded sport event typology. It continues by presenting the results to three key questions: (1) who is volunteering? (2) what are their motivations for volunteering, and (3) what variables are most likely to be related to their intention to volunteer after the event. The study used an adaptation of the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale on volunteers at the 2010 Vancouver Olympic and Paralympic winter games. A principal components analysis of the 36 motivation items identified six factors that accounted for 58.3% of the variance, with the main factor entitled "All about the games." A regression analysis conducted to identify those variables most likely to indicate an intention to volunteer more after the games demonstrated that those who could see an advantage in more volunteering pregames were most likely to intend to increase their level of volunteering postgames. People with previous volunteering experience in events, sport, or community groups were less likely to indicate they would volunteer more after the event. The results and recommendations have implications for mega-multisport event organizing committees not just in respect of event delivery but in terms of a post-event volunteer legacy.

Methods Questionnaire

DICKSON, T.J., BENSON, A.M., & TERWIEL, F.A. (2014). Mega-event volunteers, similar or different? Vancouver 2010 vs London 2012. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 5, 164–179

Aim To compare motivations of volunteers at two mega multi-sport events

Abstract

Purpose — To compare motivations of volunteers at two mega multi-sport events.

Design/methodology/approach — The research used a quantitative research design to survey volunteers at the Vancouver 2010 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games and the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games via an online questionnaire based upon the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale.

Findings — The results indicate that the volunteers, most of whom had previously volunteered, were motivated by similar variables, including the uniqueness of the event, the desire to make it a success and to give back to their community. The results of the principal components analysis indicated that most items of the scale loaded onto similar components across the two research contexts.

Research limitations/implications — There were methodological limitations in terms of the timing of the questionnaire administration and Likert scales used, however, these issues were controlled by gatekeepers. These limitations could have research implication for comparative studies of volunteers at mega events.

Practical implications — Understanding volunteer motivations will enable event managers and volunteer managers to plan for legacy.

Social implications — Volunteer motivations include wanting to give back to their community and therefore, increases the potential for volunteer legacy.

Originality/value — This is the first research that: enables comparison of winter and summer Olympic and Paralympic Games volunteers; has substantial sample sizes in relation to the variables; applies higher item loadings to strengthen the analysis; and involves the use of the same instrument across events.

Methods Questionnaire

DOHERTY, A. (2005). A profile of community sport volunteers. Unpublished report for Parks and Recreation Ontario and Sport Alliance of Ontario

Aim To provide a profile of sports volunteers, including motivations

Abstract

Who volunteers in sport The “typical” community sport volunteer is male, 35–44 years of age, a college or university graduate, married with dependents at home, employed full-time, with a household income of \$60,000–99,000. This demographic profile describes who is most likely, although not exclusively, involved as a community sport volunteer. It also highlights who is less likely to be involved (e.g., women, younger and older individuals, those not in the labour force), thus representing a pool of potential volunteers. The typical coach is even more likely to be male, but otherwise does not differ from the typical sport volunteer. The typical volunteer executive is also likely male, although female sport volunteers are over-represented in this role. The volunteer executive is slightly older than the coach and than sport volunteers in general, and tends to be better educated. He also is more likely than other sport volunteers to be married and have dependents at home. In comparison to volunteers in general, sport volunteers are more likely to be male, younger, married, employed, and from a higher income bracket.

What sport volunteers do Sport volunteers each contribute an average of 143 hours/year to sport alone, or a total of 167 million hours. Men contribute substantially more volunteer hours to sport on average than women, and older volunteers (35 years and older) contribute up to twice as many hours to sport on average than younger volunteers. The majority of sport volunteers are involved with more than one voluntary organization (both sport and non-sport), while the majority of volunteers in general are involved in only one organization. Female sport volunteers are more likely than males to be involved in several organizations.

Community Sport Volunteers Most sport volunteers are involved in organizing and supervising activities and events, and teaching or coaching. Substantially fewer volunteers in general are involved in these types of activities. The next most common activity for sport volunteers is board or committee work, followed by fundraising. Most sport volunteers take on multiple roles. Men tend to be involved in organizing activities and coaching, and to a lesser degree in committee/board work. Women tend to be involved in organizing activities, fundraising, and committee/board work, and to a lesser degree in coaching. Older volunteers tend to be involved in more activities than younger volunteers.

How sport volunteers become involved Sport volunteers tend to become involved through their children. This is unique to sport volunteers, as most volunteers in general become involved because someone asked them. Male and female sport volunteers do not differ in becoming involved because their children are involved, however younger sport volunteers (15–34 years) are more likely to become involved because someone in the organization asked them.

Why sport volunteers are involved As with volunteers in general, most sport volunteers are motivated to volunteer to support a cause in which they believe, use their skills to help, because someone they know is affected by the organization, and to explore their own strengths. However, using one's skills and because someone they know is affected by the organization are important motives to a greater proportion of sport volunteers than volunteers in general. There are few variations by sex, however older volunteers (35 years and older) tend to be attracted to sport volunteering to help a cause, use their skills, and because someone close to them is personally affected, while younger volunteers tend to be motivated by those same things and also to explore their own strengths, improve their job opportunities, and because their friends volunteer. A model of motives for volunteering in sport identifies helping a cause as a core motive, while primary motives are personal needs and interests (such as fun, use skills, child involved) and secondary motives are social interaction and personal development.

Why sport volunteers are not more involved The main reason sport volunteers, and volunteers in general, are not involved more is because they have no extra time. Other barriers to increased involvement are that volunteers feel they already contribute enough, and they are unwilling to volunteer year round. Women are more likely than men to feel they have no extra time, and older volunteers are more likely than younger volunteers to feel they have already done enough. A model of barriers to volunteering in sport distinguishes personal barriers, such as time, work, family and lack of skills, and organizational barriers, such as increasing demands on volunteers and a poorly-run organization. The sport organization can work to alleviate the barriers it creates, but must work with volunteers to help them negotiate their personal barriers so that they may be involved (more).

DOHERTY, A. (2005). Volunteer management in community sports clubs — a study of volunteers' perceptions. Unpublished report for Parks and Recreation Ontario and Sport Alliance of Ontario

Aim The purpose of the study was to investigate volunteers' perceptions of community sport organization practices and needs with regard to volunteer management. The specific focus was on volunteer recruitment, training, support, evaluation, recognition, and retention

Abstract The report includes a section on why volunteers become involved

Methods Telephone interviews with 90 volunteers

DOHERTY, A. (2009). The volunteer legacy of a major sport event. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 1, 185–207

Aim to understand the volunteer legacy of a major sport event and identify aspects of the event that shaped future voluntary

Abstract The purpose of this study was to understand the volunteer legacy of a major sport event and identify aspects of the event that shaped future voluntary action in the host community. Social exchange theory framed the examination of volunteers' positive and negative experiences with the event as a predictor of future behavioral intentions. A total of 1098 volunteers involved with the 2001 Canada Summer Games completed a post-event survey. In general, planning volunteers' future volunteering was particularly influenced by experienced costs of the event (task overload, personal inconvenience), although contributing to the community and a positive life experience were also predictive of their future involvement. In contrast, on-site volunteers' future volunteering was more influenced by experienced benefits of the event, including social enrichment, community contribution, and a positive life experience. However, personal inconvenience and task underload were also predictive of their future involvement. The findings have implications for event policy and management that should acknowledge the potential for major sport events to engender a legacy of volunteering.

Methods Questionnaire

DOHERTY, A., & JOHNSON, S. (2001). Development of scales to measure cognitive and contextual influences on coaching entry. *Avante*, Vol.7, No. 3, pp. 41–60

Abstract The Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT; Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994) was adopted from the vocational behaviour literature to examine factors influencing entry into high school coaching. The purpose of this study was to develop scales to measure the SCCT constructs purported to have independent and interactive influences on an individual's interest and intention to pursue and ultimately choose a particular role. Valid and reliable multidimensional scales were developed for (a) self-efficacy (Skill Development and Performance, Administrative Maintenance, Ethical Conduct, Safety), (b) outcome expectations (Team and Athlete Growth, Personal Growth, Reference Group Approval, Psychological Costs, Reference Group Censure, Time Costs), (c) general contextual factors (Encouragement/Obligation, Lack of Support for Athletics), and (d) contextual factors for women (Gendered Structure, Gendered Relations, Gendered Opportunity), in the high school coaching context. The unique scales reflect domain-specific tasks, positive and negative outcomes, and contextual factors that may facilitate or inhibit coaching interest and choice. Recommendations for further research are presented.

DOHERTY, A., PATTERSON, M., & VAN BUSSEL, M. (2004). What do we expect? An examination of perceived committee norms in non-profit sport organisations. *Sport Management Review*, 7, 109–132

Aim To examine, in the context of volunteer sport executive committees, the types and relative strength of perceived committee norms

Abstract Group norms are agreed standards describing behaviours that should and should not be performed in a prescribed context. The purpose of this study was to examine, in the context of volunteer sport executive committees, the types and relative strength of perceived committee norms. A further purpose was to explore the influence of individual and group factors on those norms, and the relationship between perceived norms and individual behaviour. Volunteer sport executive committee members (N=121) completed a questionnaire that measured perceptions of committee norms, various individual (position, tenure) and group (size, gender and tenure composition) variables, and individual behaviour (attendance, effort, intention to stay with the committee). Committee norms that reflect members' 2 expectations about how to treat each other (social norms) and how to work together (task norms) were perceived to be very strong. Only committee size explained any variation in perceived committee norms, where three norms were perceived to be stronger by members of large versus medium-size committees. Committee norms were mildly associated with member attendance and effort. The findings suggest there are strong expectations, with very little variation, for member behaviour in volunteer sport executive committees. However, those group expectations have only a modest influence on the individual behaviours examined here.

Methods Questionnaire

DOWNWARD, P., & RALSTON, R. (2005). Volunteer motivation and expectations prior to the XV commonwealth games in Manchester, UK. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development*, 2, 17–26

Aim To identify expectations of volunteers prior to events

Abstract The recruitment and management of volunteers to support the development of major sporting events has become a key factor in sports and has sports tourism implications in terms of the effects upon volunteering in the region by drawing upon volunteers from outside the immediate area. However, in order to mobilize and utilize such volunteers effectively it is necessary to understand the expectations of volunteers prior to an event. The authors analyse the findings of a quantitative survey of volunteers at the XVII Commonwealth Games in Manchester, 2002, undertaken prior the event. As well as confirming the sports tourism potential of mega-events as expressed through volunteering, management implications are derived with respect to fine-tuning the benefits which should be offered to volunteers.

Methods Survey — panel data

EGLI, B., SCHLESINGER, T., & NAGEL, S. (2014). Expectation-based types of volunteers in Swiss sports clubs. *Managing Leisure*, 19, 359–375. doi: 10.1080/13606719.2014.885714

Aim To find the expectations of volunteers in sports clubs

Abstract Volunteer research in sports clubs has paid hardly any attention to the individual expectations even though matching conditions to the specific volunteer's expectations represents a major management challenge. This article presents a person-oriented approach to the expectation profiles of volunteers that delivers the basis for identifying different volunteer segments. The approach assumes explicitly that volunteers in sports

clubs develop specific expectations regarding their working conditions. These expectations were determined in a sample of 441 members of 45 selected sports clubs. Proximately, a cluster analysis revealed that volunteers vary in their expectations regarding voluntary work. Four different types of volunteers could be identified: (1) recognition seekers, (2) material incentive seekers, (3) participation and communication seekers, and (4) support seekers. These “expectation-based volunteer types” could also be characterized in socioeconomic, membership-related, and volunteer-work-related terms. These types could serve as a basis for designing specific voluntary work conditions in sports clubs.

Methods Survey

ELEY, D., & KIRK, D. (2002). Developing citizenship through sport: The impact of a sport-based volunteer programme on young sport leaders. *Sport Education and Society*, 7, 151–166

Aim What increases the citizenship potential of students

Abstract Research provides considerable evidence for the positive impact that volunteering can have on young people. Yet just as each young person is different, so too is each volunteering experience. Contributing to these differences are dispositional variables, such as personal beliefs, values and personality traits, all of which colour our perceptions of experience and influence our decisions relating to them. Important to our decision-making and to how we make sense of our experiences are our perceptions of, and reflections on, those experiences. This article reports on a longitudinal study of a volunteering programme that aims to increase the citizenship potential of students. It describes the results of this study in relation to the students’ perceptions of what volunteering and citizenship mean to them and their reflections on the impact of their volunteering experience.

Methods Survey

ELLIS PAINE, A., MCKAY, S., & MORO, D. (2013). Does volunteering improve employability? Insights from the British Household Panel Survey and beyond, 4, 3, 355–376

Aim Understand the link between volunteering, employability and employment are positive and straightforward

Abstract Policy interest in the role of volunteering as a route to employment is enduring, with an assumption that links between volunteering, employability and employment are positive and straightforward. This has largely been supported by existing evidence, although there have been few longitudinal studies testing the theory. Analysing data from the British Household Panel Survey, we used multivariate techniques to explore the effects of volunteering on moves from being out of work into work; and on retention and wage progression for people in employment. We suggest that the relationship is complex: volunteering may have a positive effect on the labour market position of some individuals in some circumstances; for others it may have a negative, or no, effect. We offer some suggestions for the variations we found: the limitations of the dataset and our analysis; a limited concept of employability; and too narrow a view of volunteering and its impact.

Methods Panel Survey

ENGELBERG, T., SKINNER, J., & ZAKUS, D. (2014). What does commitment mean to volunteers in youth sport organizations? *Sport in Society*, 17, 52–67

Aim To investigate motivations and commitments of volunteers at various stages in their careers

Abstract Youth sport is heavily dependent on volunteers to ensure successful delivery of sport programmes. This paper qualitatively investigated motivations and commitments of volunteers at various stages in their careers. Data were gathered through focus group interviews with 34 participants representing five sports and analysed using the Analysis Method Framework. Probes included volunteers' motivations for volunteering, views of commitment, views on commitment targets, and views on clashes between different types of volunteers. Statements were classified on two key dimensions: commitment to organisational targets, and status as core or casual volunteers. This classification resulted in the creation of a typology describing four types of volunteers (Mums and dads, Specialists, <ber-volunteers task-oriented, and <ber-volunteers team-oriented). Future research should focus on the application of the volunteer typology for further understanding of how commitment influences volunteer behaviour.

Methods Interview

ENGELBERG, T., ZAKUS, D. H., SKINNER, J.L., & CAMPBELL, A. (2012). Defining and measuring dimensionality and targets of the commitment of sport volunteers. *Journal of Sport Management*, 26, 192–205

Aim Developing measures of sport volunteer commitment within a framework of multiple dimensions of commitment and multiple targets of commitment to three organizational targets

Abstract The organizational commitment of volunteers has been recognized as essential for the effective management of community-based sport. Despite this, little is known about the nature of sport volunteer commitment and, more specifically, its dimensionality and targets. This study developed measures of sport volunteer commitment within a framework of multiple dimensions of commitment and multiple targets of commitment to three organizational targets in the sport volunteering setting: the organization (in this context, the athletic center), the volunteer work team, and the volunteer role. Drawing on Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) general commitment model, we adapted measures from previous work of Engelberg, Skinner, and Zakus (2006) of commitment to each of these targets and tested the proposed model using partial least squares regression (PLS) modeling. Results provided support for a two-dimensional model within and across each of the targets, and also showed that the measures had adequate discriminant validity and reliability. Implications for research on volunteer commitment in sport organizations are discussed.

Methods Questionnaire

FAIRLEY, S., KELLETT, P., & GREEN, B.C. (2007). Volunteering abroad: Motives for travel to volunteer at the Athens Olympic Games. *Journal of Sport Management*, 21, 41–57

Aim investigates the motives of a group of people who volunteered at the Sydney Olympics as they prepared to travel to volunteer at the 2004 Athens Olympic Games

Abstract Volunteers have become essential to the delivery of sport events. Mega events, such as the Olympic Games, rely on a large number of volunteers for the successful running of the event, some of whom travel to volunteer. This study investigates the motives of a group of people who volunteered at the Sydney Olympics as they prepared to travel to volunteer

at the 2004 Athens Olympic Games. Four key motives were identified: (a) nostalgia, (b) camaraderie and friendship, (c) Olympic (i.e., subcultural) connection, and (d) sharing and recognition of expertise. The motives identified distinguish event volunteer tourists from other volunteer tourists and from other event volunteers. It is suggested that the recruitment, retention, and reacquisition of event volunteers will be served by understanding the motives and experiences of repeat event volunteers.

Methods Survey

FELTZ, D.L., HEPLER, T.J., ROMAN, N., & PAIEMENT, C. (2009). Coaching efficacy and volunteer youth sport coaches. *Sport Psychologist*, 23, 24–41

Aim to explore coaching efficacy sources used by volunteer youth sport coaches

Abstract The Coaching Efficacy Scale (CES) measures belief's coaches have to affect the learning and performance of their athletes. While previous research has provided support for the model of coaching efficacy and the CES as an adequate measure of the construct, these studies have used paid high-school and college coaches. It is possible that the factor structure of the CES may not replicate for volunteer youth sport coaches. The purpose of this study was to explore coaching efficacy sources used by volunteer youth sport coaches. In addition, the validity of the CES was examined, using a 5-point condensed rating scale, among volunteer youth sport coaches before exploring the sources. The study involved 492 volunteer youth sport coaches from various team sports. Confirmatory factor analysis indicated that the CES had an acceptable fit to the data. The sources of coaching efficacy were examined via multivariate multiple regression and canonical correlation. Results indicated that more confident coaches had more extensive playing and coaching backgrounds, felt their players improved more throughout the season, and perceived more support than did less confident coaches, particularly in regard to technique and game strategy efficacy.

Methods Questionnaire

GASKIN, K. (2004). Young people, volunteering and civic service: A review of the literature. *Institute for Volunteering Research*

Aim Summarising findings from the literature on young people's attitudes towards and participation in voluntary work and civic service

Abstract The context for volunteering is changing rapidly through globalisation, technological and demographic change, and the political drive to promote voluntary action as central to civic responsibility and democratic regeneration. These influences, combined with apparent declines in young people's involvement, have put youth volunteering under intense scrutiny.

This review summarises findings from the literature on young people's attitudes towards and participation in voluntary work and civic service. It is important to distinguish the two while noting that there is some overlap. Volunteering denotes freely given, unpaid work of benefit to others, while civic service is a more structured period of engagement, often full-time and with some monetary compensation, with greater emphasis on participant benefits. For the moment, most commentators are prepared to accept civic service under a broad volunteering umbrella and explore its potential for youth involvement.

Methods Review

GASKIN, K. (2008). A winning team? The impacts of volunteers in sport. *Institute for Volunteering Research and Volunteering England*

Methods A review of reports on sports volunteering was combined with ten cases in three sports. The case studies included questionnaires to 25 volunteers; 15 in clubs and 10 in Riding for the Disabled groups. The review of motivations is based on previous research included as part of this (2015) review.

GRATTON, C. NICHOLS, G. SHIBLI, S., & TAYLOR, P. (1997). *Valuing volunteers in UK sport*. London: Sports Council

Aim to produce quantitative data about the size and importance of the voluntary sector in UK sport

Methods

The adopted methods for Phase I were:

1. Desk research
2. Interviews with governing bodies' representatives
3. Interviews with above club level volunteers
4. Interviews with club secretaries
5. Interviews with representatives of major events, school sport, youth organisations, disabled sport and unaffiliated sport.
6. Secondary analysis of General Household Survey and National Survey of Voluntary Action in the UK

Phase 2: 12 sports selected with 4 focus groups of club volunteers per sport.

Phase 3: a series of face-to-face interviews with representatives of governing bodies and local authorities, to identify good practice in offering support for volunteers in sports clubs.

GREEN, B., & CHALIP, L. (2004). Paths to volunteer commitment: Lessons from the Sydney Olympic Games. In R. A. Stebbins & M. Graham (Eds), *Volunteering as leisure/ leisure as volunteering: An international assessment* (pp. 49–67). Wallingford: CABI Publishing

Aim Identify paths to volunteer commitment

Abstract This paper presents the findings from the focus group discussions conducted with volunteers in the Olympic games in Sydney, New South Wales, Australia. These findings suggest that event volunteer managers need to give detailed consideration to the nature of the volunteer experience itself, rather than to the nature of rewards that volunteers will receive. The important role of efficacy on initial commitment is consistent with other findings showing that efficacy plays an important role in motivation and performance. The standard means for building efficacy among volunteers is to implement a training programme.

Methods Focus group

GRIFFITHS, M.A., & ARMOUR, K.M. (2013). Volunteer sport coaches and their learning dispositions in coach education. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 8, 677–688

Aim understanding of coaches' dispositions towards coach learning

Abstract There is agreement in the literature that dispositions act as mediating factors in directing the cognitions of individuals. In the context of coach professional development, dispositions direct and energise individuals' interpretations and actions as they engage in a range of learning situations. Drawing data from a study that examined the professional

development of 19 volunteer coaches and 2 coach educators in one region of the UK, this study sought to elicit an understanding of coaches' dispositions towards coach learning. Findings indicated that coaches' dispositions of intentionality (e.g., inquisitiveness, attentiveness and open-mindedness) and reciprocity (e.g., readiness to engage with others, ask questions, willingness to accommodate alternative perspectives) arbitrated their engagement with any formal development activity. There is, therefore, a clear role for coach educators and governing bodies to consider how materials, pedagogies and assessment tools are developed that serve to facilitate, confirm or challenge coaches' learning dispositions towards professional development activities.

Methods Secondary

GROOM, R., TAYLOR, W., & NELSON, L. (2014). *Volunteering insights: Report for Sport England, March 2014* [<http://www.oxspa.co.uk/files/7528/volunteering-insight-project-for-sport-england-310314-rg-bt-ln-final-ver.pdf>]

Aim To give an overview of the voluntary sector in sport, including motivations and barriers to volunteering

Methods Using APS, an analysis of who volunteers by demographic characteristics. A literature review. Interviews with 45 volunteers.

HABERMANN, U. (2001). *En postmoderne helgen — om motiver til frivillighed (A Postmodern Saint — motives for volunteering)*. Ph.d. Dissertation, University of Lund, Sweden

Aim To compare motives in sports organizations with those in two other types of organization

Abstract Only the summary is available in English

HALLMANN, K. (2015). *Modelling the decision to volunteer in organised sports. Sport Management Review, 18, 448–463*

Aim to analyse the determinants of (1) volunteering in organised sports, and (2) time committed to that volunteering

Abstract Using a heterodox economic approach, the purpose of this paper is twofold: to analyse the determinants of (1) volunteering in organised sports, and (2) time committed to that volunteering. By means of regression analysis of secondary data from a nation-wide volunteer survey with two waves (2004: n=15,000; 2009: n =20,005), it was established that human capital, female gender and the motive of shaping society had a negative influence on the decision to volunteer while the number of engagements in other volunteering had a positive effect. Time committed to volunteering was determined by male gender, having children, meeting people, club membership, shaping society and number of voluntary engagements. The volunteer workforce is thus very heterogeneous; however, sport club managers should recruit volunteers in particular amongst existing members

Methods Secondary data

HANDY, F., CNAAN, R. A., HUSTINX, L., KANG, C., BRUDNEY, J.L., HASKI-LEVENTHAL, D., HOLMES, K., MEIJS, L.C.P.M., PESSI, A.B., RANADE, B., YAMAUCHI, N., & ZRINCAK, S. (2010). *A cross-cultural examination of student volunteering: Is it all about resume building? Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 39, 498–523*

Aim To explore if volunteering is motivated by career enhancing and job prospects

Abstract This research adopts the utilitarian view of volunteering as a starting point: we posit that for an undergraduate student population volunteering is motivated by career enhancing and job prospects. We hypothesize that in those countries where volunteering signals positive characteristics of students and helps advance their careers, their volunteer participation will be higher. Furthermore, regardless of the signaling value of volunteering, those students who volunteer for utilitarian reasons will be more likely to volunteer but will exhibit less time-intensive volunteering. Using survey data from 12 countries (n=9,482), we examine our hypotheses related to motivations to volunteer, volunteer participation, and country differences. Findings suggest that students motivated to volunteer for building their resumes do not volunteer more than students with other motives. However, in countries with a positive signaling value of volunteering, volunteering rates are significantly higher. As expected, students motivated by resume building motivations have a lower intensity of volunteering.

Methods Survey

HANDY, F., CNAAN, R., BRUDNEY, J., ASCOLI, U., MEIJS, L. M.P., & RANADE, S. (2000). Public perception of "who is a volunteer": An examination of the net-cost approach from a cross-cultural perspective. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 11, 45–65

Aim To understand how the public assess and rate volunteerism

Abstract Our aim is to enhance the knowledge regarding how the public assess and rate volunteerism. We begin by first developing the model for understanding the potential use of the net-cost concept in eliciting the public's subjective perceptions on the extent to which certain activities are perceived as volunteerism. Four hypotheses relevant to the use of the net-cost concept are developed. We developed a questionnaire consisting of 50 case scenarios and applied it in Canada, India, Italy, Netherlands, and Georgia and Philadelphia in the United States, each with a sample of 450 adults or more. With one exception, our net-cost hypotheses are supported, suggesting that the public perception of volunteering is strongly linked with the costs and benefits that accrue to the individual from the volunteering activity, and that this result holds true across different cultures. Finally, we suggest directions for future research that can shed further light on the relationship between net cost and public good.

Methods Questionnaire

HARMAN, A., & DOHERTY, A. (2014). The psychological contract of volunteer youth sport coaches. *Journal of Sport Management*, 28, 687–699

Aim To examine the psychological contract of volunteer youth sport coaches to determine the content, variation, and influences to its development

Abstract This study examined the psychological contract of volunteer youth sport coaches to determine the content, variation, and influences to its development. Interviews were conducted with 22 volunteer coaches of team sports, representing different levels of play (recreational, competitive), coaching tenure (novice, experienced), and gender (female, male), who were sampled to account for the potential variation based on these demographic factors. The findings revealed that volunteer coaches possessed both transactional and relational expectations of themselves and their club. Coaches' most frequently cited expectations of themselves were technical expertise (transactional), and leadership (relational), while their most frequently cited expectations of the club were fundamental resources and club administration (transactional), and coach support (relational). Variation was found by different

levels of play (recreational, competitive) and coaching tenure (novice, experienced). The coaches' psychological contract was shaped predominately by sources external to the club. Implications for managing the psychological contract of volunteer youth sport coaches and directions for future research are discussed.

Methods Interview

HARVEY, J., LEVESQUE, M., & DONNELLY, P. (2007). Sport volunteerism and social capital. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 24, 206–223

Aim To understand relationships between sport volunteerism and social capital when gender, language, and age were controlled

Abstract This study focuses on the relationship between sport volunteerism and social capital, defined here as a resource that stems from participation in certain social networks. A position generator and a resources generator were used to measure the social capital of respondents. Results from this pilot study survey, exploring several aspects of volunteerism in sport in two Canadian communities (one in Quebec, the other in Ontario), show a strong relationship between volunteerism in sport and social capital but do not allow a precise measure of the direction of this relationship. Results also show stronger relationships between sport volunteerism and social capital when we control for gender, language, and age.

Methods Questionnaire

HOLDSWORTH, C. (2010). Why volunteer? Understanding motivations for student volunteering. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 58, 421–437

Aim This paper adds to this growing literature on identifying student motivations through analysis of both survey and interview data on student volunteering

Abstract The profile of volunteering in English Higher Education [HE] has been enhanced in recent years through various initiatives that have not only funded activities, but have sought to expand the range of volunteering opportunities available to students and recognise the contribution that volunteering can make to students' employability. This expansion has also brought about emergent interest in understanding the conditions of student volunteering, in particular why students volunteer and what they seek to achieve through their involvement. This paper adds to this growing literature on identifying student motivations through analysis of both survey and interview data on student volunteering. The use of mixed methods allows for a detailed interrogation of motivations and how students make sense of their own experiences with respect to dominant discourses about what volunteering can achieve. In particular the paper argues that students are reflective about why they volunteer, their motives can change over time and that for many students volunteering is not necessarily part of a strategic goal to enhance CVs or even 'do good'.

Methods Mixed methods

HOLMES, K., SMITH, K.A., LOCKSTONE-BINNEY, L., & BAUM, T. (2010). Developing the dimensions of tourism volunteering. *Leisure Sciences*, 32, 255–269

Aim To develop the dimensions of tourism volunteering

Abstract Volunteers within tourism settings are of growing interest. Research to date has been fragmented either focusing on individuals volunteering in their community (i.e., hosts) or tourists volunteering at a destination (i.e., guests). In this paper, the tourism and leisure literature on volunteering is synthesized and the host and guest streams of volunteering critiqued according to four defining dimensions: setting, time commitment, level of obligation, and remuneration. These dimensions are refined using interview data to propose a model

of tourism volunteering where host and guest volunteering are related rather than distinct. A simple host-guest dichotomy misses the shared and distinct complexities of tourism volunteering.

Methods Interview data

HSU, W.T., WU, K.H., WANG, Y.C., HSIAO, C.H., & WU, H.C. (2013). Autonomy and structure can enhance motivation of volunteers in sport organizations. *Perceptual and Motor Skills: Exercise and Sport*, 117(3), pp. 709–719

Aim To relate volunteers' motivation to the amount of autonomy they have.

Abstract The goal was better understanding of the motivational factors of volunteers in non-profit sport organizations. The roles of two factors provided by supervisors to their subordinates were examined: autonomy support, i.e., the encouragement of self-initiation and emphasis on choice rather than control, and structure, i.e., the introduction of order, definite procedures, and rules. 489 sport volunteers (289 men, 200 women; M age = 31.2 yr., SD = 7.4) were administered questionnaires assessing their perceived autonomy support, structure, and motivation.

Regression analysis indicated that perceived autonomy support predicted motivation. Structure also mediated the effect of perceived autonomy support on motivation. Supervisors of sport organizations should provide adequate structure for their volunteers. [the study was conducted in Taiwan so has not been incorporated into this report due to cultural difference]

Methods Survey

HUSTINX, L. (2010). Institutionally individualized volunteering: Towards a late modern re-construction. *Journal of Civil Society*, 6, 165–179

Aim Explore the emerging forms of volunteering from Institutionally Individualized Volunteering towards a Late Modern Re-Construction

Abstract In this article, it is argued that the ongoing debate on new and more individualized forms of volunteering is too one-sidedly focused on the processes of de-structuration and de-institutionalization. Individualization is a complex and ambivalent macro-structural process towards institutionally dependent individual situations. To fully understand the emerging forms of volunteering, we thus need to reconstruct beyond de-construction.

The concept of institutionally individualized volunteering, developed in this article, induces such a paradigm shift. It refers to the growing institutionalization of more individualized forms of volunteering, that is, to new forms of collective organization based on individual assignment and choice. It is argued that the institutionalization of individualized volunteering occurs through primary and secondary processes of re-structuring. Re-embedding in primary contexts is facilitated by voluntary associations that offer more attractive and flexible volunteering menus to (potential) volunteers.

Secondary forms of institutionally individualized volunteering, on the other hand, are emerging as new spaces of fundamental ambivalence. They represent new forms of highly rationalized top-down production of volunteer opportunities in hybrid organizational settings.

Methods Review — Conceptual

IPSOS MORI on behalf of V (2010). Young People Omnibus 2010 (wave 16): Young people and volunteering

Aim To look at attitudes towards volunteering among young people, to find out the volunteering they would like to do and what would motivate them to volunteer.

Abstract This report presents findings from the 2010 Young People Omnibus Survey of secondary school pupils, carried out by the Ipsos MORI Social Research Institute on behalf of v. Motives are a mixture of altruism and self-interest. Having fun was reported to be the best thing about volunteering. Young people want to try out volunteering once before possible commitment, with friends and in a safe environment. Opportunities should be local; within easy geographical reach. Analysis of motives and areas of interest shows differences by gender, age and ethnicity.

Methods Survey of 2,753 school pupils aged 11–16.

JARVIS, N., & KING, L. (1997). Volunteers in uniformed youth organisations. *World Leisure & Recreation*, 39, 6–10

Aim Review and definition of volunteers in uniformed youth organisations

Abstract Voluntary work is defined as unpaid work, or a kind of helping action done through a group or on behalf of an organisation of some kind. This paper will use a traditional definition of volunteering, namely “any activity which involves spending time, unpaid, doing something which aims to benefit someone, other than or in addition to close relatives, or to benefit the environment”

Methods Review

JOCHUM, V., & BRODIE, E. (2013). Understanding people’s pathways through participation: Putting research into practice. *Voluntary Sector Review*, 4, 377–384

Aim Review on individuals’ pathways to participation

Abstract This article reviews how a major national charity – the NSPCC – has made use of the research findings of the Pathways through Participation project to review and reshape its volunteering strategy in line with the project’s understanding of the connections between different activities and episodes of participation. It explains how the NSPCC has begun to develop an approach that enables people to contribute to its work over their lifetimes and takes account of their changing circumstances.

Methods Review

KAY, T., & BRADBURY, S. (2009). Youth sport volunteering: Developing social capital? *Sport Education and Society*, 14, 121–140

Aim To understand capacity of youth sport volunteering to contribute to the development of social capital

Abstract This paper analyses the capacity of youth sport volunteering to contribute to the development of social capital. Following a review of the emergence of social capital as a key theme in UK sport policy, the paper focuses on the ability of a structured sports volunteering programme to equip young people with skills for effective volunteering, and provide opportunities for ‘social connectedness’ through sports volunteer placements. The study uses survey data (n=160) and qualitative interviews (n=10) with young people to examine how the national Step into Sport programme impacts on participants’ personal and skill development, and on their commitment to community involvement. Interviews with education and sport professionals (n=33) provide additional expert perspectives on

the programme's impact on participants. Both sets of respondents report strong individual benefits to participants from their involvement, and increased social connectedness in a range of contexts. The paper concludes by considering the implications of the study for claims about the potential contribution of sport to social capital.

Methods Secondary data, Questionnaire, Interview

KERWIN, S., WARNER, S., WALKER, M., & STEVENS, J. (2015). Exploring sense of community among small-scale sport event volunteers. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 15, 77–92

Aim To assess a scale that measures sense of community among small-scale sport event volunteers, and empirically test if the event volunteer experience enhances sense of community

Abstract

Research question: In response to claims that sport event research over emphasizes economic outcomes and mega-event contexts, this research sought to both assess a scale that measures sense of community among small-scale sport event volunteers, and empirically test if the event volunteer experience enhances sense of community.

Research methods: The six-factor Sense of Community in Sport Scale (SCS) was utilized to collect pre- and post-event data from a population of 253 (N=253) event volunteers in the Niagara region of Canada.

Results and findings: Model testing indicated all but one SCS factor, Competition, showed statistical fit with the event volunteer data. Analysis of variance revealed three SCS factors, Common Interest, Equity in Administrative Decisions and Social Spaces, were statistically enhanced following the event.

Implications: The findings provide theoretical support for Warner and Dixon's Sport and Sense of Community theory and highlight the positive social impact of small-scale sport events within a community for volunteers.

Methods Questionnaire

KIM, M., CHELLADURAI, P., & TRAIL, G.T. (2007). A model of volunteer retention in youth sport. *Journal of Sport Management*, 21, 151–171

Aim to investigate three different volunteer-retention models

Abstract Volunteers in sport are indispensable, but there is a dearth of systematic research in volunteer retention. The focus of this study was to investigate three different volunteer-retention models incorporating person-task fit (P-T fit), person-organization fit (P-O fit), managerial treatment (MT), empowerment, and intention to continue volunteering. Using structural equation modeling, data from 515 volunteers in the American Youth Soccer Organization (AYSO) were compared across a fully mediated model, a partially mediated model, and a direct-effects model. The results of the fully mediated model, in which empowerment mediated the relationship between P-T fit, P-O fit, MT, and intention to continue volunteering, fit well and better than the other two models. P-T fit, P-O fit, and MT jointly explained 46.8% of variance in empowerment, and empowerment explained 13.5% of variance in intention to continue. Volunteer organizations need to focus on empowering their volunteers through the fit of the volunteer to the task, organization, and appropriate managerial treatment.

Methods Survey

KIM, M., TRAIL, G.T., LIM, J., & KIM, Y.K. (2009). The role of psychological contract in intention to continue volunteering. *Journal of Sport Management*, 23, 549–573

Aim To examine the role of psychological contract in intention to continue volunteering

Abstract Retaining volunteers is a critical issue for sport organizations utilizing volunteer labor. Based on the theory of planned behavior, the theory of work adjustment, psychological contract theory, two frameworks (person-environment fit and empowerment), and previous empirical results, we proposed and tested three models to explain intention to continue Volunteering with 224 volunteers from the Special Olympics State Summer Games. We accepted a model in which Empowerment fully mediated the relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Intention to Continue Volunteering. We also found that Psychological Contract Fulfillment moderated the relationship between Fit and Empowerment.

Methods Questionnaire

KIM, M., ZHANG, J.J., & CONNAUGHTON, D.P. (2010). Comparison of volunteer motivations in different youth sport organizations. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 10, 343–365

Aim The purpose of the current study was to compare motivation among volunteers at different youth sport organizations/events

Abstract Volunteers are a crucial component of the work force in the sport industry, particularly in youth sports. Understanding the factors that cause and sustain sport volunteerism would assist sport organizations in recruiting and retaining volunteers. The purpose of the current study was to compare motivation among volunteers at different youth sport organizations/events. Research participants (n=1,099) were four groups of volunteers working at international, national, local and special-needs youth sport organizations/events, who responded to the Modified Volunteer Functions Inventory for Sports (MVFIS) with six factors: Values, Understanding, Social, Career, Enhancement and Protective. A factorial (2x4) multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) revealed that the mean vector MVFIS factor scores were significantly different among the various organization types and between genders. Follow-up analyses revealed that volunteers working at the international and special-needs sport events displayed higher motivations in all six factor areas than volunteers at the national and local organizations. Female volunteers were higher in Values and Understanding factors.

Methods Questionnaire

KIM, M., ZHANG, J.J., & CONNAUGHTON, D. (2010). Modification of the volunteer functions inventory for application in youth sports. *Sport Management Review*, 13, 25–38

Aim The purpose of this study was to modify the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) to be specifically applicable to assess volunteer motivation in youth sport settings

Abstract The purpose of this study was to modify the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) to be specifically applicable to assess volunteer motivation in youth sport settings. Based on a comprehensive review of literature, the VFI items were first modified to reflect the context of youth sports. Testing of measurement properties was accomplished through two studies. In Study One, the modified VFI was administered to volunteers (N=515) of a nationwide youth soccer organization. Data were randomly split into two-halves: one for exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with principal-axis extraction and oblique rotation, and the other for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with maximum likelihood estimation. In the EFA, six factors emerged which were consistent with the dimensions of the VFI; however,

12 items were eliminated due to double loading or misspecification, resulting in 18 items being retained. The CFA revealed that the data fit the 6-factor model well. In Study Two, the resolved scale was re-validated through a sample of 262 volunteers of local youth sport leagues. Overall, findings of these two studies suggest that the modified VFI for youth sports is a valid and reliable scale. This scale may be adopted to study various volunteer motivation issues associated with youth sport organizations and events.

Methods Questionnaire

KODAMA, E., DOHERTY, A., & POPOVIC, M. (2013). Front line insight: An autoethnography of the Vancouver 2010 volunteer experience. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 13, 76–93

Aim This paper shares the personal lived experience of the first author's involvement as a volunteer with the 2010 Winter Olympic Games held in Vancouver, Canada

Abstract Building on a growing body of research regarding major sport event volunteerism, this paper shares the personal lived experience of the first author's involvement as a volunteer with the 2010 Winter Olympic Games held in Vancouver, Canada. Autoethnography was used to provide rich insight into the personal and cultural context of volunteering (Ellis & Bochner, 2000). The personal narrative is represented in six themes that reflect her most meaningful experiences leading up to, during and following the Games: (1) A figure skater's dream: making the cut, (2) Uncertainty: going with the flow, (3) The basics: training, (4) Blue team: volunteer culture, (5) An Olympic spirit is born: leisure time, and (6) Returning home: prestige. The narratives are compared and contrasted with the major sport event volunteer literature to understand their alignment with the existing body of research and to consider the further insights they provide. The paper concludes with recommendations for future research.

Methods Review

LIE, M., BAINES, S., & WHEELLOCK, J. (2009). Citizenship, volunteering and active ageing. *Social Policy & Administration*, 43, 702–718

Aim To explore if volunteering is an expression of citizenship for older people

Abstract Many voluntary organizations depend greatly on the unpaid services of older volunteers, a significant number of whom are women. At the same time, shifts in welfare policy have been towards emphasizing individual economic autonomy and self-provisioning, often to the detriment of older, more vulnerable members of society. Using data from an organization working for and with older people in the North-East of England and through in-depth qualitative interviews, our study found that volunteering is an expression of citizenship for older people. In our analysis, we identify two strands in the meanings of citizenship for older people: volunteering as leisure and work, and volunteering as care and civic consciousness. These correspond with liberal conceptualizations of citizenship and republican models of citizenship. Data from our in-depth interviews demonstrate a strong commitment to society and fellow citizens among older people that counterbalances individualistic and instrumental reasons for volunteering promoted by the state and market. Our findings suggest that government views of volunteering as a route to paid work, as a panacea for society and therefore needing to be more 'work-like', are discordant with the perspectives of older volunteers. Rather than the neo-liberal views of the 'citizen-worker' or 'citizen-consumer', citizenship that is based on the 'common good' and feminist perspectives of 'caring citizenship' are arguably more beneficial to society. Finally, we describe the pressures and constraints facing older people that could discourage formal volunteering in the future.

Methods Interview

**LOCKSTONE-BINNEY, L., HOLMES, K., SMITH, K., BAUM, T., & STORER, C. (2015).
Are all my volunteers here to help out? Clustering event volunteers by
their motivation. *Event Management*, 19, 4, 461-478**

Aim To cluster the motivations of regional event volunteers

Abstract Posed as a question that an event organiser might contemplate in terms of how best to attract and retain event volunteers, this study adds to the event volunteering literature by cluster analysing volunteers sampled at four sports events using items from the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (SEVMS) (Farrell, Johnston & Twynam, 1998). The 28-items were first subjected to Exploratory Factor Analysis resulting in four factors (Solidary, Purposive, External Traditions/Commitments and Spare Time), followed by a two-step clustering procedure and a series of post-hoc tests to describe and validate the clusters. As a result of this procedure, three distinct clusters were formed: the Altruists, Socials and Indifferents. The Altruists and Socials were primarily driven by two distinct internal factors, which respectively represented the Purposive and Solidary factors. The Indifferents appeared to be pushed into volunteering by external forces, rather than intrinsic motivations. Validation revealed that the Indifferents were significantly less satisfied with their volunteer experience than the other two clusters and were also less likely to volunteer in the future. Across the four events sampled, there were distinct patterns of cluster representation, with one event in particular substantially overrepresented by the more negatively inclined Indifferents. The management and research implications of these findings are discussed.

Methods Surveys

LYLE, J., ALLISON, M., & TAYLOR, J. (1997). *Factors influencing the motivations of sports coaches. Research Report no. 49. A research study for the Scottish Sports Council*

Aim To understand the recruitment and retention of coaches

Abstract Conclusions from the literature review are that recruitment into coaching focuses on two factors: prolonging an existing involvement in sport, and a rather more diffuse notion of helping others. This latter motive may take the form of a wish to assist young people in sport, or to work with advanced level performers. The recruitment mechanism reflects this. The great majority become involved as a direct consequence of their playing experience, with a much smaller but significant percentage being recruited as parents of young performers or because of their school teaching role. There are sports-specific differences in the balance of recruitment motives. In the voluntary context of Scottish coaching, it might be expected that the continuation of playing experience, with its many diverse motives, would prove to be the commonest recruitment factor. From the survey, over half the coaches were 40 years of age or over and 70 per cent had been coaches for more than six years. Coaches are amateur, with tennis a notable exception. 90 per cent of the sample coaches had been performers in their sport. Individuals who operated as 'instructors' and in the school-teaching context had markedly different aspirations, motivations and expressed needs to those operating as 'coaches'.

Methods Literature review and survey of 602 Scottish coaches, in 1997.

LYONS, S. (2015). *Do sport volunteers regard what they do as sports volunteering? Internal report for Sport England*

Abstract A review of how this question is used in the Active People Survey 5 concludes this has led to an apparent increase in volunteering. Limited reviews of other studies lead to conclusions on motivations, the importance of identity and perceptions.

Methods Review paper by SE intern.

MACLEAN, J., & HAMM, S. (2007). Motivation, commitment, and intentions of volunteers at a large Canadian sporting event. *Leisure/Loisir*, 31, 523–556

Aim examine volunteer motivation, commitment, and intentions to remain as volunteers at the 2005 BMO Canadian Women's Golf Championship

Abstract The purpose of this study was to examine volunteer motivation, commitment, and intentions to remain as volunteers at the 2005 BMO Canadian Women's Golf Championship. Volunteers (n=647) responded to the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday, Porter, however, motivation to volunteer was associated with being part of the community. A number of factors and relationships between the variables and intentions to remain volunteering were identified. Descriptive statistics indicated that most of the volunteers intended to continue as golf volunteers (97.5%), would volunteer with other sport events (76.4%), and were likely to continue volunteering in general (83.3%). A variety of rationales were discussed. Understanding the factors that impact motivations and commitment, and the relationships between intentions and motivation/commitment to volunteer can help event organizers target volunteer recruitment and retention strategies.

Methods Survey

MARTA, E., & POZZI, M. (2008). Young people and volunteerism: A model of sustained volunteerism during the transition to adulthood. *Journal of Adult Development*, 15, 35–46

Aim To explore Why young people decide to continue to volunteer over an extended period of time

Abstract A model of sustained volunteerism in young people is proposed. The longitudinal study addresses the questions "Why do young people decide to continue to volunteer over an extended period of time?" There were 158 volunteers (82 female and 76 male). The volunteers completed measures of motivation to volunteer, integration, and satisfaction with the organization, merged effects due to voluntary service, social support, identity, and intention to volunteer on a first (Time 1) and a second research wave (Time 2). Results show that both dispositional and organizational variables are important in determining long-term volunteerism in young people and confirmed that role identity is the best predictor of intention to volunteer.

Methods Questionnaire

MAXWELL, H., & TAYLOR, T. (2010). A culture of trust: Engaging muslim women in community sport organizations. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 10, 465–483

Aim To examine the impetus for, and process of, engaging Muslim women in community sport

Abstract This article examines the impetus for, and process of, engaging Muslim women in community sport. The research focuses on how and why a community sport organization, located in a large Australian city, embraced cultural change and developed a more inclusive community sport environment through social capital facilitation. The operation of the three types of social capital (bonding, bridging and linking) is considered alongside social capital attributes (networks, trust, reciprocity, volunteering and community building). The theoretical framework employed is derived from Lin's framework of social capital. The research findings are analysed through an examination of the stages of investment, development, mobilization

and reproduction of social capital. This research illustrates the potential for the development of trust, cooperation and community networks, leading to cultural awareness, and changes to the cultural profile and practices of community sport organizations.

Methods Interview and) document analysis

MCILROY, J., & DRISCOLL (Sports Coach UK) (2010). Coach tracking study: A four year study of coaching in the UK

Aim Full report

Abstract From a survey of coaches the main reasons why people decide to become a coach are: Give something back (60%); Lack of coaches (53%); Start a career in coachinG (34%)

MIRSAFIAN, H., & MOHAMADINEJAD, A. (2012). Sport volunteerism: A study on volunteering motivations in university students. *Journal of Human Sport and Exercise*. Vol. 7, No. Proc1, pp. S73–S84, 2012

Aim To identify effective motivational factors on the sport volunteers on different communities

Abstract Volunteers form an integral part of the sport industry. Recognition of the volunteers' motivations to attract them in sport programs is the aim of each organization. Although several studies have been conducted regarding volunteers in sport, there is not a clear idea about the effective motivational factors on the sport volunteers on different communities.

This subject might be due to the effects of social variables on the volunteering motivations. The aim of this study was to analyze the motivational factors in university sport. The samples consist all of the 304 students who participated as volunteers in sport programs at the Iranian universities. For data collection, a structured questionnaire comprising 39 items in the form of seven different factors (material, social, career supportive, purposive, progress and obligation) regarding the motivational factors of sport volunteering was used. The items in the questionnaire were scored on a 5–point Likert-type scale. This study demonstrated that the social and obligation factors were the highest and lowest effective factors on the sport volunteers' motivation. Also, there was a significant difference between the effect of social and career factors in two genders ($P < 0.05$). This means that boys and girls had higher scores in career and social factors. In conclusion it is stated that university students have a large impact on the general ideas at the communities; therefore, promotion of sport volunteering activities at the universities could develop the culture of volunteering in various parts of the communities.

Methods Questionnaire

MISENER, K., DOHERTY, A., & HAMM-KERWIN, S. (2010). Learning from the experiences of older adult volunteers in sport: A serious leisure perspective. *Journal of Leisure Research* 2010, 42

Aim To understand older adult volunteers' experiences with volunteering

Abstract A sample of older adult volunteers (N=20, 65 years and older) in community sport organizations was interviewed in order to understand their experiences with volunteering. An interdisciplinary framework of serious leisure, older adult volunteering, and older adult leisure was used to interpret the findings. Volunteering in this context was found to be consistent with serious leisure based on characteristics such as substantial involvement, strong identification with the activity, and the need to persevere. Older adults viewed their experience as extremely positive, enabling them to make a meaningful contribution and to receive several benefits of participation. The most frequently noted negative experience was

interpersonal relations, yet overall, this was not enough to drive participants away from this activity. Implications for enhancing older adult volunteering are discussed and avenues for future research are provided.

Methods Interview

MORGAN, H. (2013). Sport volunteering, active citizenship and social capital enhancement: What role in the 'Big Society'? *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 5, 381–395

Aim To offer a critical commentary on how the Big Society may be realized through volunteering in sport

Abstract This position article addresses the issues surrounding the development of active citizenship and social capital through volunteering in sport. The present UK Government has aligned much of its policy intent with fiscal constraint and identifying alternatives to balance the shortfall of public provision. One such policy idea, Big Society extols the need for citizen engagement through volunteering, to benefit both the individual and wider society. However, the basis for such social advantage has been uncritically determined, and as such, this article will address three main concerns. First, the notion that activities such as volunteering contribute to an individual's accumulation of social capital will be critically examined. Second, the extent of government involvement in facilitating community engagement will be articulated, to determine whether ideas and policies such as the Big Society which emphasize liberation of the individual and limited government involvement are instrumental to social capital enhancement. Finally, the article will offer a critical commentary on how the Big Society may be realized through volunteering in sport, outlining key messages for those involved in the delivery of community sport as to how they may best position themselves to profit from current Government thinking.

Methods Review

NEUFEIND, M., GUNTERT, S.T., & WEHNER, T. (2013). The impact of job design on event volunteers' future engagement: Insights from the European Football Championship 2008. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 13, 537–556

Aim How job characteristics, organizational features, and appreciation affect volunteers' satisfaction and intention to continue their engagement at events and for organizations

Abstract Large sport events increasingly rely on volunteers. However, little is known about the impact these events have on volunteers' future engagement. This study, carried out at the European Football Championship 2008, examines how job characteristics, organizational features, and appreciation affect volunteers' satisfaction and intention to continue their engagement at events and for organizations. Distinguishing between genuine episodic volunteers, current long-term volunteers, and former long-term volunteers, five possible effects on volunteers' intention are proposed: event retention, recruiting, confirmation, comeback, and migration. While organizational features and appreciation primarily affected satisfaction, it was found that specific job characteristics can foster or diminish these five effects. For sport event managers, these findings suggest that in order to create a sustainable event volunteer workforce designing and assigning volunteer jobs is as crucial as attracting volunteers in the first place. Sending organizations, in turn, should pay more attention to which jobs their volunteers are assigned.

Methods Survey

NICHOLS, G. (2005). Stalwarts in sport. *World Leisure Journal*, 47, 31–37

Aim To identify those who both volunteer in sports clubs organised by their members, and contribute over 300 hours a year to volunteering in sport

Abstract This paper reports further analysis of an Omnibus Survey of volunteering in sport, conducted in 2002 for Sport England (Taylor, et al. 2003). From this survey of over 8000 individuals it has been possible to identify those who both volunteer in sports clubs organised by their members, and contribute over 300 hours a year to volunteering in sport. Analysis of the sex, age, education, work status and motivation of these volunteers shows that the only significant distinguishing characteristic of these volunteers is their motivation. This leads to implications for further research, including studies of the career paths of key volunteers, the relation of volunteering to club attachment, and the internal management of clubs.

Methods Secondary data

NICHOLS, G. (2009). Inequality and positional consumption — a fresh insight into debates in leisure studies on time pressures on leisure and volunteering, choosing a work/life balance and the nature of a 'leisure' society. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*. 1, 3, 270–275

Aim As below

Abstract No abstract, the theoretical argument is that time pressures arise from a combination of positional consumption and the need to express identity through consumption, leading to long work hours and reduced time for leisure.

Methods Theoretical review

NICHOLS, G. (2013). The psychological contract of volunteers — a new research agenda, *Voluntas*, 24, 4, 986–1005

Aim To set a research agenda for applying then psychological contract to understanding volunteering

Abstract This paper considers the ways in which research into the psychological contract of volunteers have been constrained by the direct transfer of measures from the study of employees, and more generally by the assumptions in the dominant psychological contract discourse. After examining these assumptions the paper proposes a revised research agenda, open to the possibility that the psychological contract of volunteers is affected by expectations arising from socio-cultural influences beyond the volunteer / manager relationships, and in particular, from the expectations of relative freedom in volunteering and from subjective perceptions of volunteering as (variously) serious leisure, unpaid work, or activism. Understanding the contract as socially constructed reveals the need to juxtapose the expectations of managers and volunteers in order to understand the contract as a social relationship.

Methods Review

NICHOLS, G., & JAMES, M. (2008). One size does not fit all: Implications of sports club diversity for their effectiveness as a policy tool and for government support. *Managing Leisure* 13, 1004–114

Aim Why are small clubs are less able to achieve the formality sport England advocates

Abstract Through research into English netball clubs, this paper examines the tension between government policy to promote sports participation being directed through sports clubs that use more formal management practices; and the possibility that this will ignore the contribution made by smaller clubs and their distinctive culture. This is illustrated by netball,

a sport ranked 13th in popularity by participation in clubs, but with a very low average club size. Analysis supports previous indications that sports clubs can be divided into those that embrace formal management and those that do not. Greater formality is associated with club size, and performance, however in most clubs formal management procedures are minimal. A weak relationship between club success, as reflected in extrinsic performance, and the satisfaction of volunteers, is understood through volunteers being motivated more by intrinsic rewards of membership. An implication is that if government support to sports clubs is directed to those with most formal management practices, it will miss out the smaller clubs, which in some sports account for a large proportion of participation. The counter argument is that the smaller clubs will be least able to use such support, so the present policy is the most effective use of resources.

Methods Quantitative survey

NICHOLS, G., & KING, L. (1999a). Redefining the recruitment niche for the Guide Association in the United Kingdom. *Leisure Sciences*, 21, 3, 307–320

Aim To show how recruitment of volunteers can be affected by the socially constructed definition of a recruitment niche.

Abstract This article shows how the concept of a recruitment niche can be valuable in understanding the difficulties the Guide Association in the United Kingdom has in recruiting new volunteers. Understanding Guiding as career volunteering, within serious leisure, shows how the distinctive ethos of the existing volunteers contributes to the social construction of the recruitment niche. The defining boundaries of the niche restrict the ability to recruit new volunteers. Thus the article gives an example of how a recruitment niche for a voluntary organization can be defined using the socially constructed ethos of volunteers involved in career volunteering rather than by characteristics such as level of educational attainment. It also demonstrates the implications of this for voluntary organizations wishing to increase recruitment.

Methods Questionnaires and focus groups.

NICHOLS, G., & KING, L. (1999b). The changing motivations and frustrations facing volunteers in youth programs: A study of the Guide Association of the United Kingdom. *Journal of Applied Recreation Research*, 23, 3, 243–262

Abstract This paper examines the motivations and constraints faced by volunteer leaders in the Guide Association in the UK. It explores the hypotheses that motivations change with age and length of involvement, that constraints in volunteering will be similar to in the rest of the voluntary sector in the U.K., and that there may be particular constraints and motivations relevant to younger volunteers. The study involved 1,494 responses to a postal questionnaire sent to current guide leaders, aged between 16 and 65, and seven focus- group interviews with Guiders. Motivations and constraints changed with age and involvement, but it is difficult to generalize this finding to the rest of the voluntary sector because of the distinctive nature of the Guide Association. Constraints were common to those experienced by other volunteers, but some, such as constraints from other family commitments, related particularly to Guiders. The pressures and constraints on volunteers are a major challenge to the capacity of voluntary organisations to provide constructive leisure activities for young people.

Methods Questionnaires and focus groups.

NICHOLS, G., & OJALA, E. (2009). Understanding the management of sports events volunteers through psychological contract theory. *Voluntas, International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 20, 4, 369–387

Aim To show contrast the views of volunteers and event managers within the framework of a psychological contract

Abstract This paper juxtaposes the expectations of event managers and sports event volunteers in a case study organisation. These are understood within the theoretical framework of the psychological contract. Results show the distinctive contribution volunteers can make to events but also the distinctive challenges they present to event managers. For event managers, volunteers bring: enthusiasm, a good relationship and empathy with the public, and they provide a cheaper labour force. But a major concern is ensuring their reliability. For volunteers, important expectations include: flexibility of engagement, the quality of personal relationships, recognition for their contribution, and a clear communication of what they are expected to do. The juxtaposition of event manager and volunteer perspectives illustrates the need for a different approach to managing volunteers in comparison to paid employees. This reflects both volunteers' expectations and the recognition that they have greater autonomy; not being tied to a contract by financial rewards or a related career progression. More generally the results illustrate the use of the theoretical framework provided by the psychological contract but that in using this it is valuable to compare the perspectives of managers and volunteers, using a qualitative approach to understand this social relationship.

Methods Focus group interviews

NICHOLS, G., & RALSTON, R. (2011). Social inclusion through volunteering — a potential legacy of the 2012 Olympic Games. *Sociology*. 45, 5, 900–914

Aim To contest the prevailing discourse that social inclusion can only be attained through the experience of paid work by showing the experiences of long-term event volunteers.

Abstract Considerations of Olympic Games' legacies have focused on economic benefits, with little consideration given to the potential legacy from the substantial number of volunteers involved. This paper examines the experiences of volunteers in a programme established as a legacy of the 2002 Commonwealth Games. Its results challenge the dominant social inclusion discourse in showing that volunteering provides social inclusion benefits beyond employability by enriching volunteers' lives and empowering them to make new choices. Recognising and valuing this would enable 'social inclusion' programmes promoting volunteering at major events, such as the 2012 Olympics, to broaden their objectives.

Methods In-depth interviews with long-term event volunteers.

NICHOLS, G., & RALSTON, R. (2012a). Lessons from the volunteering legacy of the 2002 Commonwealth Games. *Urban Studies*. 49, 1, 165–180

Aim To show how mega-event volunteers at the 202 Commonwealth games could be converted to long-term volunteers at local events through a legacy organisation

Abstract Potential exists for a more multi-faceted and inter-related volunteering legacy from mega sporting events than has been recognised by previous research, including not only the continuation and development of volunteering activity, but also the contribution that activity makes to the social inclusion of volunteers; the economic contribution to the development of events in the region; the development of a skilled volunteer workforce; and raising the standard of event volunteer management. This paper provides evidence for that claim via a case study of Manchester Event Volunteers — a volunteer development organisation

established after the 2002 Commonwealth Games, which is still operating seven years later and provides a role model for volunteer broker organisations. The case study shows that local government played a key role in generating a volunteer legacy, but that legacy planning was limited by the imperative of running the event. Implications for similar events, e.g. 2012 Olympics, are discussed.

Methods Case study

NICHOLS, G., & RALSTON, R. (2012b). The rewards of individual engagement in volunteering: a missing dimension of the Big Society. *Environment and Planning A*, 44, 2974–2987

Aim To examine the experience of volunteering in relation to the latent functions of paid work identified by social psychologists

Abstract This paper examines the experience of volunteering in relation to the latent functions of paid work identified by social psychologists. In-depth interviews with fourteen volunteers illustrate the considerable rewards of volunteering, especially in terms of personal status and identity. The common rewards of volunteering and employment challenge the traditional dichotomy between paid and unpaid work. However, the experience of volunteering is context specific, and for some the lack of material benefits will limit its ability to substitute for employment. The promotion of volunteering within the UK Big Society policy could acknowledge its personal benefits, while being mindful that their ability to contribute to a satisfying life is moderated by the individual's circumstances and attitude towards the opportunities volunteering offers.

Methods Interview

NICHOLS, G., & RALSTON, R. (2014a). The 2012 Ambassadors: Second class Olympic volunteers or the best potential for developing a volunteering legacy from the Games? In K. Smith., L. Lockstone-Binney, K. Holmes & T. Baum. *Event Volunteering, International Perspectives on the Event Volunteering Experience* (pp. 167–181). Abingdon: Routledge

Aim To assess the development and management of the Ambassador programmes, and the role Ambassador took

Abstract The chapter is concerned with the 2012 Ambassadors — groups of volunteers who supported visitors away from the main venues at the 2012 Olympic Games. The chapter describes the development of the Ambassador programmes, the role Ambassador took and their management. Contrasts are made with the volunteers at the main venues, termed Games Makers. The two sets of volunteers had different packages of demands and benefits. They were managed by different organisations with different objectives. As a consequence, the ambassador programmes probably offer more potential for encouraging repeat volunteering, but only if local government can afford to support this. The work in this chapter is based on interviews with six Ambassador programme managers, five of which were conducted ten months after the Games and one prior to Games, complemented by secondary sources

Methods Interview, secondary data

NICHOLS, G., & SHEPHERD, M. (2006). Volunteering in sport: The use of ratio analysis to analyse volunteering and participation. *Managing Leisure* 11, 205–216

Aim Women are overrepresented as club volunteers when one considers all club volunteers. So are 35–54 age cohort

Abstract This paper offers a more precise picture than has previously been possible of volunteers in sports clubs in relationship to club membership. It identifies the importance of non-club members as volunteers who still support the clubs, and the extent to which sports clubs provide a service for non-sports participants. This is achieved through the use of ratios relating volunteering in sports clubs to sports club membership, using data from a general population survey of Wales. Results show that women are slightly under-represented as volunteers when related to club membership, but are overrepresented when one considers non-club members who volunteer to help clubs. The 35–54 age cohort is over-represented in volunteers, probably as older club members maintain a continuity of interests by moving from playing to volunteer roles, but there are not significant differences by social class. Volunteering is especially strong in traditional team sports which also provide membership opportunities for older, non-playing males. The value of ratio analysis in understanding the voluntary sector in sport, and trends in the number and type of volunteers, is demonstrated, and potential improvements are noted.

Methods Secondary analysis of Welsh data set

NICHOLS, G., & TAYLOR, P. (2010). The balance of benefit and burden? The impact of child protection legislation on volunteers in Scottish sports clubs. *European Sport Management Quarterly* 10, 1, 31–47

Aim To assess child protection legislation as a barrier to volunteers

Abstract This paper explores the benefits and costs of child protection legislation on volunteers in sports clubs in Scotland. There is mixed evidence of its effects: there is little evidence of positive disclosures leading to the elimination of unsuitable volunteers and it is difficult to identify the extent to which the legislation deters unsuitable volunteers from offering to volunteer, however it does not appear to have reduced the number of volunteers significantly. It may have stimulated a broader adoption of child protection policies in clubs but it has imposed additional burdens on volunteers and voluntary administrators. These findings are placed in the context of the need to 'reconcile the drive to reduce risk in many areas of our collective life with the promotion of spontaneous and informal voluntary action' (Rochester, 2001: 77). There is clearly a need to help the voluntary sector cope positively with the consequences.

Methods Questionnaires and interviews.

NICHOLS, G., GOEL, R., NICHOLS, T., & JONES, W. (2014). Volunteers in British Mountain Rescue: Responding to increasing demand for rescues and a changed relationship with the state. *Voluntary Sector Review*, 5, 2, 213–230

Aim To show a changed relationship between the voluntary and public sector. The distinctive motivations of MR team members are related to the type of activity and organisation. Review material also uses motivations of lifeboat crews

Abstract Mountain rescue (MR) teams in the UK are run entirely by volunteers. The number of MR call-outs has increased, partly because teams are increasingly being used by the police in searches for missing people in non-mountainous areas. Most MR teams feel they are coping with the increased demand although some are becoming selective about which call-outs they respond to. A survey of MR team members and potential recruits reveals a mismatch between potential members' expectation of being engaged in mountain rescue and the reality of the increased work supporting non-mountain incidents. This illustrates a potential strain in the motivations of volunteers being used to deliver public services. The paper explores how this is particular to the type of volunteering involved in mountain rescue,

how teams have coped with the increased demand and how the increased use of MR teams is partly a response to changed police management practices. Includes a review of the motivations of volunteer lifeboat crew.

Methods Survey

NICHOLS, G., TAYLOR, P., JAMES, M., HOLMES, K., KING, L., & GARRETT, R. (2005). Pressures on the UK sports sector. *Voluntas*, 16, 1, 33–50

Aim To show pressures on sport volunteers

Abstract This paper uses research from two projects, conducted for Sport England and for the Central Council of Physical Recreation (CCPR), to analyze pressures on volunteers in sport in the United Kingdom (UK). Both research projects were contract research, conducted to inform policy and therefore were not designed to build on theoretical insights. However, from the results the research developed an understanding of the inter-related pressures on the voluntary sector in sport, which was informed by theory. This paper describes the pressures and relates them to previous research into volunteers. Contextualizing the issues faced by volunteers in sports organizations suggests several questions for further academic work, not only focused on sports volunteers, but the voluntary sector in general. In particular, are the pressures experienced by the voluntary sector in UK sport common to sports volunteers in other countries, and to what extent are they also a reflection of general pressures on the voluntary sector?

Methods Questionnaires and interviews, 2002

NICHOLS, G., PADMORE, J., TAYLOR, P., & BARRETT, D. (2012). The relationship between types of sports club and English government policy to grow participation, *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics* 4, 2, 187–200

Aim To show that clubs can be clustered by formality

Abstract Sports clubs run by their members account for a significant proportion of sports participation in England and are central to government policy to grow participation. A survey of clubs in the UK shows that clubs can be clustered into three groups reflecting different levels of formality. While it is not possible to make a definitive estimate of the proportions of English clubs in each of the three groups, the more formal types of clubs probably offer the most viable policy instrument for increasing sports participation. These are split into two groups: large clubs for adults and juniors, owning their own facilities; and clubs focused predominantly on junior participants and relying on hired facilities. These two types of club will require different types of support. The third group of clubs are small informal / traditional clubs, with only adult members. As a group they make an important contribution to participation growth but their informality probably makes them a less viable medium for this policy objective.

Methods Analysis of 2009 survey of sports clubs

NICHOLS, G., TACON, R., & MUIR, A. (2013). Sports clubs' volunteers: Bonding in or bridging out? *Sociology* 47, 350–367

Aim To show that subjective definitions of 'one of us', which in sports clubs are related to commitment to a sport, are an important defining characteristic of bonding social capital. This is in contrast or additional to demographic characteristics

Abstract The aim of this study is to re-evaluate the nature of bonding and bridging social capital in sports clubs. Exploratory research involving interviews with club volunteers reveals that shared values and norms of commitment to the sport or the club are an important

dimension of homophilic and heterophilic ties. These are expressed in the recruitment of new volunteers and explain the reluctance to recruit from outside the club. While 'sameness' and 'difference' are to some extent a product of gender, age, ethnicity and other demographic characteristics recognized by previous studies, this article identifies the importance of subjective perceptions in defining bonding and bridging ties. It is suggested that this will be more important in voluntary associations which are expressions of shared values. Further, this suggests the potential of more inductive qualitative research to unravel the complex and nuanced barriers to developing social capital through sports clubs and other associations.

Methods 10 in depth interviews with 5 sports club representatives.

NICHOLS, G., TAYLOR, P., BARRETT, D., & JEANES, R. (2014). Youth sport volunteers in England: A paradox between reducing the state and promoting a Big Society. *Sport Management Review*, 17, 337–346

Aim Investigates relationship between promoting civic activism and the role of the state

Abstract This paper uses the example of volunteers in clubs promoting youth sport to consider the role of the UK Government in promoting a general civic activism as part of a 'Big Society'. The UK government advocates the replacement of public sector provision by a greater role for volunteers. Exemplary of the 'grassroots' organisations which epitomise 'Big Society' ideals are the 64,000 volunteer-run sports clubs in which almost 1.5 million volunteers support over 53 million junior participants in England. These clubs face problems which state intervention could alleviate; and this state support may in fact be critical to maintain the structures which provide the opportunity for so much volunteering to take place. The government's desire to increase volunteer activity can be seen to be at odds with other policy intentions such as cost-cutting, and with wider trends affecting volunteerism such as professionalisation. Thus the paper illustrates the complex, even paradoxical relationship between promoting civic activism and the role of the state. The example of youth sport volunteers also suggests that policies to promote a Big Society will need to deal with more fundamental questions about the role of volunteering.

Methods Questionnaire

NICHOLS, G., TAYLOR, P., JAMES, M., GARRETT, R., HOLMES, K., KING, L., GRATTON, C., & KOKOLAKAKIS, T. (2004). Voluntary activity in UK sport. *Voluntary Action*, 6, 2, 31–54

Aim Compares 7 sources to assess the size of Sport volunteering in the UK

Abstract While voluntary activity in sport has been recognised as an important provider of leisure opportunities and an instrument of government policy: including the promotion of social capital, social inclusion, health, and life long sports participation; problems in measurement mean that its precise size and importance has remained an enigma. This paper explores the size, scale and significance of voluntary activity in UK sport by comparing seven independent sources of information. Accurate measurement of voluntary activity in sport is important if the voluntary sector it supports is to be used as a policy instrument. Thus, the paper contributes to both knowledge of voluntary activity in sport and an understanding of how this knowledge can be gained.

Sport is the most important area of activity for formal volunteering, and within formal volunteering in sport, surveys confirm the importance of voluntary sector sports clubs in terms of the numbers of volunteers, members and of clubs. Sports clubs are thus important providers of opportunities for volunteers to express active citizenship and members to participate in sport. Trend data is presently not available but may be provided by two on-going surveys. As in other areas of leisure the juxtaposition of survey data allows us to

piece together a more accurate picture of the fragmented voluntary sector in sport. Given the difficulties of measurement, where survey results converge they support each others' validity. Where results differ they have to be interpreted with reference to the methods and definitions used. Although its potential as a policy instrument is an important reason for measuring voluntary activity in sport, the paper concludes with a critical evaluation of the extent to which this activity contributes to policy objectives. This highlights the considerable research work to be done on the impact of the voluntary sector as well as in just measuring its size.

Methods Review of surveys

NICHOLS, G., TAYLOR, P., JAMES, M., KING, L., HOLMES, K., & GARRETT, R. (2003). Pressures on sports volunteers arising from partnerships with central government. *Loisir et société/ Society and Leisure* 26, 2, 419–430

Aim To show partnerships as providing pressures as well as benefits

Abstract This paper uses results of two research projects investigating the pressures on volunteers in UK sport to illustrate the implications of partnerships between national governing bodies of sport and central government. NGBs of sport receive funding from central government via Sport England and UK Sport. This funding has conditions attached. The conditions will affect volunteers at the national level of the NGB, but will also cascade down to volunteers in the sports clubs. Thus they add to the complexity and scale of tasks performed by club level volunteers, who require additional support to perform them. For most NGBs this external funding is a very significant proportion of their income, so it may have a corresponding impact on the development of the sports and the work of volunteers. The conditions attached to support can be understood in the broader context of a professionalisation of sport in the voluntary sector. As such, the pressures from central government are inevitable, but volunteers can also be supported by their NGBs and Sport England.

Methods Interviews and surveys

NICHOLS, G., WICKER, P., CUSKELLY, G., & BREUER, C. (2015). Measuring the formalisation of community sports clubs: Findings from the UK, Germany and Australia. *International Journal of Sport, Policy and Politics*, 7, 2, 283–300 [<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/19406940.2015.1006661>]

Aim To show that clubs can be categorised by formality

Abstract This article illustrates how non-profit community sports clubs run by volunteers in the UK, Germany and Australia can be clustered on the basis of formalization. The literature has speculated on a trend towards formalization, but this has not been measured. Three different data-sets, not specifically collected for this purpose, were used to measure formalization. Our analysis shows how the replication of existing surveys could measure formalization. For each country, available sports club data were used to perform cluster analyses. A set of indicators for formalization was chosen based on the literature and whether the factors are accompanied with formalized procedures and processes within sports clubs. The results revealed a twocluster solution for clubs in the UK, a three-cluster solution for Australian clubs and an eight-cluster solution for German clubs (because the German sample was larger). In each country, there was evidence of a spectrum of sports clubs from informal to highly formalized clubs with the exception of the UK where the clusters were labelled formal and semi-formal. Without a survey specifically designed to measure formalization, the article shows how existing surveys might be used to make international comparisons.

Methods Statistical analysis of three data sets

OCKENDEN, N., & STUART, J. (2014). Review of evidence on the outcomes of youth volunteering, social action and leadership. *Institute for Volunteering Research*

Abstract This review brings together existing evidence on the outcomes of youth volunteering, social action and leadership and on the metrics which can be used to measure them. It has been produced to inform the evaluation and wider roll out of the Asda Active Sports Leaders programme. This project is funded by the Spirit of 2012 and Asda, and aims to increase the numbers of teenagers getting involved as sports leaders and in volunteering to help build confidence, skills and interest in social action. It addresses the following questions:

- How should we conceptualise youth volunteering, social action and leadership?
- What are the key outcomes of participation in volunteering, social action and leadership roles for young people?
- What are the main facilitators and barriers to involvement in volunteering, social action and leadership for young people?
- What are the underpinning principles for programmes which involve young people as leaders in volunteering and social action?
- What existing frameworks and metrics can be used to measure the outcomes of youth volunteering, social action and leadership?

This is a rapid, high-level evidence review and therefore identifies key themes and findings from published research, literature and programme evaluations. Appendix A includes summaries of evaluations of relevant youth sports volunteering programmes.

OESTERLE, S., JOHNSON, M.K., & MORTIMER, J.T. (2004). Volunteerism during the transition to adulthood: A life course perspective. *Social Forces, 82, 1123–1149*

Aim To examine if educational, work, and family roles promote volunteerism during late adolescence and early adulthood

Abstract This panel study examines whether educational, work, and family roles promote volunteerism during late adolescence and early adulthood, as they do later in adulthood. The findings reveal substantial continuity in volunteerism from adolescence through the transition to adulthood and highlight the importance of values expressed in adolescence for volunteerism in the years following. Controlling these processes, attending school during this life stage promotes volunteerism. In contrast, full-time work investments in the early life course are found to hinder volunteer participation, as does the presence of young children in the family, especially at earlier parental ages. The results support a life course perspective for understanding civic participation.

Methods Panel data — secondary data

OMOTO, A. M., SNYDER, M., & MARTINO, S.C. (2000). Volunteerism and the life course: Investigating age-related agendas for action. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 22, 181–197*

Aim To investigate the purposes, expectations, and outcomes of adult hospice volunteers of varying ages

Abstract Combining a life course perspective with recent theorizing on motivationally related agendas for social behavior, this study investigated the purposes, expectations, and outcomes of adult hospice volunteers of varying ages. Specifically, support was found for the hypothesis that younger volunteers tend to be motivated by and to achieve outcomes related to interpersonal relationships, whereas older volunteers tend to be motivated to a greater

extent by service or community obligation concerns. Furthermore, in hierarchical regression analyses predicting overall satisfaction, benefits relative to costs, commitment, and changes in self-esteem over 6 months of volunteer service, relationship-related variables demonstrated greater and significant predictive power for younger relative to older volunteers. Service-oriented variables, hypothesized to be more influential in predicting the outcomes of older volunteers, tended to be inconsistently related to these same outcomes. Discussion focuses on the theoretical significance of the findings for contemporary approaches to motivation and research on volunteerism and aging, as well as the practical implications of the results for volunteer recruitment, satisfaction, and retention.

Methods Questionnaire

OSTERLUND, K. (2013). Managing voluntary sport organizations to facilitate volunteer recruitment. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 13, 143–165

Aim Examine factors that facilitate volunteer recruitment

Abstract The majority of voluntary sport organizations find it difficult to recruit volunteers, and many even regard volunteer recruitment as their main challenge. Against this background, this paper investigates management characteristics that can facilitate volunteer recruitment. Building on theory and using the scarce empirical data on the management of sport organizations, five hypotheses are formulated and subsequently tested against a large survey study on volunteering in Danish sport organizations. The results provide support for all of the five hypotheses with regard to the recruitment of volunteers for both formal positions and ad hoc tasks. Hence, in order to facilitate volunteer recruitment, sport organizations can generally be recommended to: (1) involve members in major decisions, (2) delegate decision-making and tasks across multiple committees and volunteers, (3) recognize volunteers by granting them perks and material incentives, (4) formulate a specific strategy describing how to recruit volunteers, and (5) employ electronic modes of communicating

Methods Questionnaire

PARK, S.H., & KIM, M. (2013). Development of a hierarchical model of sport volunteers' organizational commitment. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 13, 94–109

Aim Understand sport volunteers' commitment to an organization from a developmental perspective and propose a hierarchical model of volunteer commitment based on Kohlberg's moral development model

Abstract The present study was an attempt to understand sport volunteers' commitment to an organization from a developmental perspective and propose a hierarchical model of volunteer commitment based on Kohlberg's moral development model. The proposed model includes five stages of attitudinal commitment which are developmental and distinct in nature with the following hierarchical sequence: primitive commitment, continuance commitment, external commitment, normative commitment, and affective commitment. By comparing Kohlberg's moral development model with the three components of Allen and Meyer's organizational commitment, we contend that the external commitment and the primitive commitment need to be included to view sport volunteers' commitment from the developmental perspective. Along with these two new commitment concepts, the characteristics and theoretical reasoning related to each stage of sport volunteers' organizational commitment were addressed.

Methods Conceptual

PEACHEY, J.W., LYRAS, A., COHEN, A., BRUENING, J.E., & CUNNINGHAM, G.B. (2014). Exploring the motives and retention factors of sport-for-development volunteers. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 43, 1052–1069

Aim To investigate the motivation of volunteers who chose to take part in the World Scholar-Athlete Games, a multinational sport-for-development event, and to identify factors related to their retention

Abstract Due to the importance of volunteers within the sport industry, there have been increased efforts to determine the motivation behind these acts of volunteerism. However, most research has focused on volunteers with professional sporting events and organizations, and very few studies have investigated volunteer motivations behind sport-for-development initiatives. The purpose of this study is to investigate the motivation of volunteers who chose to take part in the World Scholar-Athlete Games, a multinational sport-for-development event, and to identify factors related to their retention. This qualitative study was guided by the functional approach to volunteer motivation. Results revealed volunteers were motivated by values, social, understanding, career and self-enhancement factors. In addition, volunteers whose initial motivations for volunteering were satisfied continued to donate time to the event year after year. Implications for theory and practice, as well as future research directions, are discussed.

Methods Qualitative

RALSTON, R., LUMSDON, L., & DOWNWARD, P. (2005). The third force in events tourism: Volunteers at the XVII Commonwealth Games. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 13, 504–519

Aim To explore the opportunities for developing a third force in sustainable tourism development through recruitment and involvement of volunteers at events

Abstract This paper takes as its focus the example of Manchester and its efforts to engage with volunteers for the XVII Commonwealth Games, held in Manchester, UK in 2002. As part of the Games legacy, Manchester also sought to encourage and develop a pool of potential future volunteers within the North West region of the UK. However, although the findings from a survey of volunteers at the Games suggests that volunteers have strengthened their level of support for the host destination there are many potential barriers to retention of volunteer interest and commitment. The study concludes that volunteers could become more important for events tourism in the North West region of the UK but that there is a case for a volunteer infrastructure that acts as a broker of volunteering opportunities.

Methods Survey

RINGUET-RIOT, C., CUSKELLY, G., AULD, C., & ZAKUS, D.H. (2014). Volunteer roles, involvement and commitment in voluntary sport organizations: Evidence of core and peripheral volunteers. *Sport in Society*, 17, 116–133

Aim Explore the categorization of sport volunteers as “core” or “peripheral” based on self-reported levels of involvement and commitment within VSOs

Abstract The nature and scope of volunteer involvement in sport is well established; however, research indicates that involvement in community sport volunteering is under threat (Cuskelly, G., 2005. Volunteer Participation Trends in Australian Sport. In *Volunteers in Sports Clubs*, edited by G. Nichols and M. Collins. Eastbourne: Leisure Studies Association; Cuskelly, G., T. Taylor, R. Hoye, and S. Darcy, 2005. *Volunteers in Community Rugby*. Sydney: ARU).

Trends indicate that volunteer hours per individual are decreasing and this can have significant implications for the successful operation of voluntary sport organizations (VSOs)

and the subsequent benefits for participants and the communities in which they operate. This paper extends knowledge of the nature of volunteer engagement in sport by exploring the categorization of sport volunteers as “core” or “peripheral” based on self-reported levels of involvement and commitment within VSOs. Using a survey of 243 sport volunteers across three sports, we identified significant differences between core and peripheral volunteers based on their levels of involvement and commitment in their self-identified primary sport organization roles. Implications of these findings for volunteer recruitment and retention and for the provision of sport participation opportunities in the community are addressed.

Methods Survey

ROWE, N.F. (2012). An examination of the importance and satisfaction sports participants attach to volunteering support contextualized within a broader measure of satisfaction with the quality of the sporting experience. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 4, 159–172

Aim To describe the development of a new tool for measuring the satisfaction of sports participants with the quality of their sporting experience

Abstract This article describes the development of a new tool for measuring the satisfaction of sports participants with the quality of their sporting experience and discusses the results of the first implementation of this survey. The survey discriminates between 10 domains of sporting experience, one of which is the people and staff involved in organizing sport. People and staff is ranked as the second most important domain for club members, and the domain ranked third for levels of satisfaction. Satisfaction scores are just below, but close to, importance. Analysis illustrates variations between sports, reflecting the different roles of volunteers. The research confirms the distinctive and important role of volunteers as a component of the sports’ experience.

Methods Survey

SCHLESINGER, T., & NAGEL, S. (2013). Who will volunteer? Analysing individual and structural factors of volunteering in Swiss sports clubs. *European Journal of Sport Science*, 13, 707–715

Aim To explore conditions influencing volunteering in sports clubs

Abstract This article analyses the conditions influencing volunteering in sports clubs. It focuses not only on individual characteristics of volunteers but also on the corresponding structural conditions of sports clubs. It proposes a model of voluntary work in sports clubs based on economic behaviour theory. The influences of both the individual and context levels on the decision to engage in voluntary work are estimated in different multilevel models. Results of these multilevel analyses indicate that volunteering is not just an outcome of individual characteristics such as lower workloads, higher income, children belonging to the sports club, longer club memberships, or a strong commitment to the club. It is also influenced by club-specific structural conditions; volunteering is more probable in rural sports clubs whereas growth-oriented goals in clubs have a destabilising effect.

Methods Questionnaire

SCHLESINGER, T., EGLI, B., & NAGEL, S. (2013). Continue or terminate? Determinants of long-term volunteering in sports clubs. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 13, 32–53

Aim the determinants underlying sports club volunteers’ tendencies

Abstract This study analysed the determinants underlying sports club volunteers' tendencies to continue or terminate their long-term commitment to volunteering in order to help sports clubs improve their volunteer management. Their risk of terminating was viewed in terms of subjective expectations and evaluations (satisfaction) regarding club-related working conditions and normative commitments (solidarity) to the sports club. These relationships were tested empirically with an online questionnaire of 441 sports club volunteers in a selection of 45 Swiss sports clubs. Results showed that the constructs orientation toward collective solidarity and volunteer job satisfaction correlated positively with long-term volunteering commitment. The effect of the former was stronger than that of the latter. Volunteers with a higher orientation toward collective solidarity were unlikely to terminate their voluntary engagement in their club. The discussion presents recommendations to help clubs retain volunteers.

Methods Questionnaire

SCHLESINGER, T., KLENK, C., & NAGEL, S. (2015). How do sport clubs recruit volunteers? Analyzing and developing a typology of decision-making processes on recruiting volunteers in sport clubs. *Sport Management Review*, 18, 193–206. doi: 10.1016/j.smr.2014.04.003

Aim To find out the strategies used by sports clubs to recruit volunteers

Abstract Effective strategies for recruiting volunteers who are prepared to make a long-term commitment to formal positions are essential for the survival of voluntary sport clubs. This article examines the decision-making processes in relation to these efforts. Under the assumption of bounded rationality, the garbage can model is used to grasp these decision-making processes theoretically and access them empirically. Based on case study framework an in-depth analysis of recruitment practices was conducted in nine selected sport clubs. Results showed that the decision-making processes are generally characterized by a reactive approach in which dominant actors try to handle personnel problems of recruitment in the administration and sport domains through routine formal committee work and informal networks. In addition, it proved possible to develop a typology that delivers an overview of different decision-making practices in terms of the specific interplay of the relevant components of process control (top-down vs. bottom-up) and problem processing (situational vs. systematic). — 2014 Sport Management Association of Australia

Methods Case studies

SEIPPEL, Ø. (2002). Volunteers and professionals in Norwegian sport organizations. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 13, 253–270

Aim To investigate the situation with respect to voluntary sport organizations in a Norwegian context

Abstract The mass media, politicians, and social scientists assert that there are increasing problems in recruiting volunteers to voluntary organizations. This paper investigates the situation with respect to voluntary sport organizations in a Norwegian context. The situation for voluntary and paid work is described and discussed with respect to different kinds of sport organizations. The empirical results show that voluntary work still is the foundation of most sport organizations, but that there are large differences between various types of organizations, and that voluntary work functions in complex interaction with other important economic and structural features of these organizations.

Methods Survey

SEIPPEL, Ø. (2004). The world according to voluntary sport organizations: Voluntarism, economy and facilities. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 39, 223–232

Aim What are the most pressing obstacles to their future development? How do they actually meet these challenges in their daily life?

Abstract Current social shifts pose challenges for voluntary sport organizations. Various discourses present volunteering, facilities and economics as critical obstacles to the future of these organizations. In this article, I ask how voluntary sport organizations themselves see the situation. What are the most pressing obstacles to their future development? How do they actually meet these challenges in their daily life? I also see how various kinds of sport organizations vary with respect to their answers on these questions. The study is based on a survey of Norwegian sport organizations.

Methods Panel data

SHIBLI, S., NICHOLS, G., TAYLOR, P., GRATTON, C., & KOKOLAKAKIS, T. (1999). The characteristics of volunteers in UK sports clubs. *European Journal of Sports Management*, special issue, 10–27

Abstract The research focuses on 'systematic' volunteers in sports clubs to show they are more likely to be in employment and highly educated. 35% of these volunteers contribute 50% of the hours worked in clubs. The balance of motivations is closer to self-interest than altruism: 63% volunteer because it helps to meet their own needs, and 44% because they want to improve things or help people.

SKILLE, E.Å., & HANSTAD, D.V. (2013). Who are they and why do they do it? The habitus of sport event volunteers in Norway: volunteers at the European handball championship for women 2010. *Sport in Society*, 16, 1135–1148

Aim Socio-demographic characteristics and motivation affecting volunteers

Abstract In this article, we scrutinize socio-demographic characteristics and motivation among volunteers at the 2010 European handball championship for women (Euro 2010). Bourdieu's notion of habitus is used as the analytical framework. Surveys were sent to volunteers before Euro 2010 (n=186, response rate = 65%) and after (n=231, response rate = 58%). Results show that volunteers had a middle-class background and were equally distributed between genders. Most of the volunteers (81%) had experience as volunteers at major sport and other events, and 60% had experience from handball events. The motivation for volunteering was related to (1) competence development (which may also be utilized later in life), (2) the event experience itself and (3) the continuation of a social tradition. The identification of a handball/sport event volunteer habitus (based on both objective biographical information and more subjective motivational factors) might help event organizers to target specific groups when recruiting volunteers.

Methods Survey

SPORT WALES (2010) Sports Volunteering in Wales [<http://sport.wales/media/937047/volfupeng201005.pdf>]

Methods Including qualitative research into sports volunteers' motivations.

SPORT WALES (2010). Sports Volunteering in Wales: Findings from two research studies: Sport Wales research findings

Aim An understanding of Welsh sport's volunteer workforce; the issues and challenges faced by volunteers currently engaged in sport;

- how coaches and volunteers can be supported to improve their experiences, and those of participants;
- barriers and motivations to coaching and volunteering, amongst those who volunteer, and those who are interested but currently do not;
- how potential sports coaches and volunteers can be engaged and recruited;
- how the skills of coaches and volunteers can best be utilised.

Methods Active Adults Survey 2008–09

All quantitative findings are based on results from the Active Adults Survey 2008–09. The Active Adults Survey collects a wealth of data on sports coaching and volunteering amongst adults aged 15 and above in Wales, including:

- who has received sports coaching or instruction at their sports club;
- frequency of coaching or instruction received;
- which sports/activities respondents have received coaching or instruction in;
- who volunteers in sports clubs, after-school sports clubs, and other sport-related activities such as events;
- what roles they undertake;
- how often they volunteer, and how many hours they devote to sports volunteering;
- who would like to volunteer in sport more often.

The qualitative research was carried out in March and April 2010 through semi-structured telephone interviews with 109 adults. All research participants were drawn from respondents to the Active Adults Survey 2008–09 who had indicated that they would be willing to participate in further research.

The four target groups were:

- Existing sport volunteers—38 interviews
- People who didn't volunteer in sport, but were interested in doing so—39 interviews
- People who weren't interested in coaching/ volunteering in sport—17 interviews
- People who receive coaching at a sports club or leisure/fitness centre—15 interviews.

This element of the research was undertaken by Brightpurpose Consulting with Shared Intelligence Ltd, on behalf of Sport Wales. The full report can be downloaded from the Sport Wales website.

SPORT WALES (2011). *The value of sports volunteering in Wales.* [<http://sport.wales/media/937041/volvalue201101.pdf>]

Aim To quantify and value sports volunteering in Wales

Abstract Based on analysis of data from Active Adults Survey, 2008–09 the estimates there are 113,000 sports volunteers in Wales, contributing an average of 12.3 hours per week. This report does not split them into roles.

SPORT WALES (2012). *Committed workforce: Evidence to support the community sport strategy*

Aim To give an overview of sports volunteering in Wales

Abstract Volunteers are vital to the running of Welsh sport, and will be vital to delivering our Vision for Sport in Wales. The economic value of volunteering in sport in Wales is over £160m per year.

- There is sufficient demand from people interested in volunteering to meet the target set out in the Coaching Strategy, but most potential volunteers are not proactive and will need to be asked to volunteer by others.

- Wales' sporting workforce—at all levels—does not reflect the population of Wales, however. Instead it reflects the population of sports club members in Wales.
- The workforce will need to take a more customer-focused approach to developing and delivering sport if we are to significantly increase participation, particularly in club sport.

SPORT WALES (2014). Active adults 2012, the state of the nation [http://sport.wales/media/1476296/active_adults_2012_state_of_the_nation.pdf]

Aim Summary of sports participation and volunteering in Wales in 2012

Abstract Includes the number of sports volunteers and changes, showing a trend to more people volunteering but for less time each.

Methods Survey

STEBBINS, R.A. (2015). *Leisure and the motive to volunteer*. Basingstoke: Palgrave-Macmillan

Abstract Stebbins summarizes his serious leisure perspective in which all leisure is categorized as 'casual', 'project based' or 'serious'. Within these, volunteering can be 'casual volunteering', 'project based volunteering' or 'volunteering as part of 'serious leisure'. Of these; serious leisure is motivated by: altruism, self-interest, a career in the activity and a set of special rewards associated with it. This includes all motivations and does not discriminate the most important. 'Casual' leisure is characterized as engaged in for immediate enjoyment. 'Project based' is short term, but requires more skills. It approximates to episodic volunteering. Serious leisure has six defining characteristics: the need to persevere, provision of a career, requirement of personal effort, durable benefits, a unique ethos associated with the activity, and providing strong sense of identity. While this approach has been used extensively in describing leisure and volunteering this is partly because its descriptive typology can accommodate many activities. Volunteers in serious leisure may gain the rewards consistent with the definition, and so may be motivated by them. It is implied that these will be greater than in the other forms of leisure because of its 'serious' form.

TAYLOR, B., & GARRATT, D. (2010). *The professionalisation of sports coaching: Relations of power, resistance and compliance*. *Sport, Education and Society*, 15, 121–139

Aim To examine the changing landscape of the professionalisation of sports coaching

Abstract This paper examines the changing landscape of the professionalisation of sports coaching and is presented in response to the dearth of empirical research and peer-reviewed literature existing within the field. This absence or lack has, in turn, created a political context in which the discourses that inhabit transitions towards professionalism are becoming increasingly rigid and inflexible. Policies too, have exacerbated this situation, creating imposed reforms that have sought to homogenise coaching practice and further gloss over cultural difference and diversity. While volunteerism is often regarded as a socially embedded activity, and one that is part of the UK's long-established coaching tradition, still there remains an ambition to transform coaching into a form of certified, professionalised activity. That is, a notion of professionalism with clearly benchmarked standards, novel forms of commercial engagement and ever-present systems of formal accreditation. Out of which has evolved a series of treatments prescribing somewhat standardised solutions to otherwise unique and individualised professional challenges. Against this backdrop, this paper adopts a more critical orientation towards the debate on the professionalisation of sports coaching. It examines the tensions, power and resistance that are manifested in

practice across different areas of sport, and moves to understand some of the key differences emerging between contemporary reforms, situated practice and socially embedded coaching traditions. Drawing extensively on Bourdieurian and Foucauldian philosophy, the analysis reflects upon the experiences of coaches and stakeholders operating at the levels of voluntary and community-based practice in the north-west of England. It examines notions of resistance and compliance in situ, external factors and policies that have impacted the field, and analyses the complexities that inhabit the profession of sports coaching as a whole.

Methods Review

TAYLOR, G., PIPER, H., & GARRATT, D. (2014). Sports coaches as 'dangerous individuals' — practice as governmentality. *Sport, Education and Society*. DOI. [<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13573322.2014.899492>]

Aim In this paper, we consider the [re]identification and [re]defining of sports coaches as 'dangerous individuals' (Foucault, 1978), whose day-to-day practice should be treated with concern and suspicion by sport administrators, fellow coaches, athletes, young people and their parents.'... Moreover, the practise of sports coaching appears to have been partially displaced by a new generation of defensive practices in which coaches are now policing themselves and others in sport and physical education

Abstract Recent concern surrounding sports coaches' interaction with young people has reflected a fundamental change in the way coaches and others regard the role of sports. In this paper, we consider the identification and definition of the contemporary sports coach (whether acting in a professional or volunteer capacity) as, in Foucault's term, a 'dangerous individual'. We suggest that the mainstream discourse of child protection and safeguarding, variously interpreted and applied, has contributed to a culture of fear in sports coaching practice. Drawing on data from a recently completed Economic and Social Research Council-funded research project, we argue that contradictions in policy and practice, which serve to privilege a particular discourse, have cast the coach as both predator and protector of young sports performers. This has undermined the role of the coach, led to intergenerational fear, created doubt about coaches' intentions and promoted their adoption of defensive and protective practices. Utilising the concept of governmentality, we argue that, as a consequence, fundamental trust-based relationships, necessary in healthy athlete-coach engagement, have been displaced by a discourse embodied in sterile delivery and procedure governed by regulation and suspicion.

Methods

TAYLOR, P.D., PANAGOULEAS, T., & NICHOLS, G. (2012). Determinants of sports volunteering and sports volunteer time in England. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 4, 201–220

Aim To examine the determinants of sports volunteering and sports volunteer time in England

Abstract This article uses the largest available data set in the United Kingdom to identify the determinants of the decision to volunteer in sport and the amount of time contributed to it. Sport in England relies heavily on volunteers for delivery of participation, which is important for government policy, particularly the Big Society and especially in an environment of public expenditure cuts. Yet intelligence on the nature of sports volunteering is limited. Previous descriptions from national surveys of volunteers in sport have not addressed the independent effects of the demographic and socio-economic variables concerned, nor the distinction between numbers of volunteers and the time they give. This study remedies

both shortcomings, analysing national survey data to identify significant influences on both the decision to volunteer and the time given. It identifies significant variations in the expected volunteering rate by gender, age, ethnicity, education, income and the number and age of dependent children. With respect to the time given to sports volunteering, there are significant variations by gender, age and employment status but conspicuously not by education and income. A policy dilemma is that targeting those most likely to volunteer and give time would reinforce existing inequalities in sports volunteering.

Methods Secondary data

TAYLOR, P., NICHOLS, G., HOLMES, K., JAMES, M., GRATTON, C., GARRETT, R., KOKOLAKAKIS, T., MULDER, C., & KING, L. (2003). *Sports volunteering in England* London: Sport England [<https://www.sportengland.org/media/40043/valuing-volunteering-in-sport-in-england-final-report.pdfv>]

Aim The research aimed to:

- quantify the contribution made to English sport by volunteers, building on previous research carried out in 1995;
- identify the nature of volunteering in sport in England and the challenges faced by volunteers and volunteer managers;
- identify and evaluate the support provided to sports volunteers and volunteer managers;
- identify the benefits associated with sports volunteering.

Methods

Four primary research methods were used to achieve the objectives of this research:

- questions on volunteering in sport were included in a national Omnibus survey, conducted by BMRB International with 8,458 adults selected to be representative of the national population.
- 1,005 telephone interviews were carried out with representatives of national governing bodies, regional/county associations, clubs, schools, universities and colleges, major events, youth organisations, disability organisations, and local authorities.
- 72 focus groups were carried out in sports clubs, with volunteers (51 groups, 308 respondents) and young people (21 groups, 94 respondents) representing 12 major sports. Half the young people attending were volunteers, the other half were club members.
- questionnaire surveys were completed with the 308 sports volunteers and 94 young people in the focus groups, administered before the qualitative discussions.

TAYLOR, R.F. (2004). *Extending conceptual boundaries: Work, voluntary work and employment. Work Employment and Society, 18, 29–49*

Aim To explore basis for mapping individuals' labour and exploring both the interconnections between their work positions and the boundaries of their work identity

Abstract Traditional social theory has conceptualized work in terms of a dichotomy of public paid employment, and private, unpaid labour that oversimplifies the complexity of traditional and contemporary work practices and excludes voluntary work from sociological understandings of work. This article explores the lives of five workers from two voluntary sector organizations, whose experience's highlight the weaknesses of concepts such as 'career' and suggest that work's conceptual boundaries be extended. A framework based on the 'total social organization of labour' is developed that distinguishes between paid and unpaid work within the setting of institutional, community and family relations. This provides a basis for mapping individuals' labour and exploring both the interconnections between their work positions and

the boundaries of their work identity. At the structural level it highlights how health care and community work constitute labour markets or 'fields': hierarchical structures governed by rules that shape how positions are accessed.

Methods Review — Conceptual

TAYLOR, T., DARCY, S., HOYE, R., & CUSKELLY, G. (2006). Using psychological contract theory to explore issues in effective volunteer management. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 6, 123–147

Aim To Explore Issues in Effective Volunteer

Abstract Psychological contract theory is used here to explore the set of expectations and obligations that community sport club volunteers regard as part of their volunteering experience. In the first phase of the research, focus group interviews were conducted with 98 community sports club administrators about the methods used to manage volunteers and the organisational expectations of the volunteers. In phase two, 48 general volunteers were interviewed about their expectations and perceptions of the club's volunteer management practices. The findings indicate that club administrators and volunteers place different emphases on the transactional, assurance of good faith and fair dealing, and intrinsic job characteristic components of the psychological contract. Notably, club administrators had substantial expectations of volunteers in relation to adherence to professional, legal and regulatory standards. Volunteers were primarily concerned with doing rewarding work in a pleasant social environment that was able to fit within their often tight time restrictions. The implications of these findings for volunteer management processes and practice in community sport clubs are discussed.

Methods Interview

TOMAZOS, K., & LUKE, S. 2015. Mega-sports events volunteering: Journeys with a past, a present and a future. *Voluntas*, 26, 1337–1359

Aim explore volunteer involvement at a mega-sports event

Abstract Using narrative inquiry, the purpose of this research is to explore volunteer involvement at a mega-sports event (MSE). It responds to a call for research to provide insight into the background of MSE volunteers (Baum and Lockstone, *Int J Event Manag Res* 3(1):29–41, 2007). This need reflects the limitations of past MSE volunteer studies that have at a large extent merely generated large lists of expectations and motivations through a predominantly survey-based approach. The context used for this study is the Frontrunner pre-event volunteer programme for the (Glasgow, Mission, vision and values, 2014) Commonwealth Games, and a narrative approach is applied allowing the volunteer experience to be considered from both the individual and group perspectives. The stories suggest that the individuals arrive at volunteering at (Glasgow, Mission, vision and values, 2014) as a result of a dynamic process informed by the pragmatist school of thought. The stories also highlight the underlying meaning of volunteers' involvement through consideration of past lived experiences.

Methods Review

V. (2010). Young People Omnibus 2010 (Wave 16): Young people and volunteering. A research study among 11–16 year olds on behalf of v, The National Young Volunteers Service

Aim

Abstract There is widespread interest in a range of volunteering activities among 11–16 year olds. However, levels of interest far exceed current rates of volunteering, suggesting there

may be a latent demand for volunteering among young people that v could tap into to raise participation rates. A mix of altruism and self-interest draws young people to volunteering, although nearly all groups more often mention the chance to help other people than any other factor as the best thing about volunteering. Young people who are not engaged with school — and among whom interest in volunteering is much less widespread— were the only group where having fun was given most commonly as the best thing about volunteering.

Being able to test volunteering experiences in a safe environment, possibly as part of a taster day, seems likely to encourage higher rates of participation. The opportunity to volunteer with friends, and having a chance to try out volunteering once, were the most frequently selected factors that would encourage young people to volunteer — these were the top motivators for nearly all groups of young people. They seem to be even more important than convenience factors, like being able to volunteer in/through school, or having someone at school who helps to identify volunteering activities. However, being able to volunteer locally seems to be important, and making sure there are opportunities within easy geographical reach of young people is likely to support raised levels of volunteering.

There is a great deal of variation in the activities that different groups of you people are interested, and — to some extent — the types of benefits they seem to be interested in from volunteering experiences. Targeting messages may help to raise rates of volunteering among particular groups. For example:

- Boys show less enthusiasm for volunteering overall, but are more interested than girls in volunteering around sports and the Olympics. They are also more likely than girls to say that a chance to take responsibility would motivate them to volunteer (although, in common with other groups, they were most likely of all to say volunteering with friends and trying volunteering once were most important). Emphasising this in promotional activities might help to raise participation rates for boys.
- Those less engaged with school — including those who say they do not enjoy school, and those who do not find it interesting — are also less likely to show enthusiasm for volunteering. However, they tend to be motivated to volunteer by the same factors as other young people: volunteering with friends, volunteering once to see if they liked it, and volunteering close to home. Having fun is seen to be the best thing about volunteering among this group, so any effort to stress this aspect could help to raise participation among less engaged school pupils.
- Pupils aged 15–16 also tend to show slightly less enthusiasm for volunteering when compared with younger peers, yet they are more likely than younger groups to associate volunteering with philanthropic and altruistic motivations rather than self-interest. Stressing the benefits to other people of volunteering may appeal to this group.

VAN DER ROEST, J. (2015). From participation to consumption: consumerism in voluntary sports clubs. PhD thesis submitted to Utrecht University

Abstract Mixed methods are employed to answer two research questions:

- 1) what does the consumerist attitude mean in relation to voluntary sport clubs?; and
- 2) how and why do voluntary sport clubs deal with the perceived consumerist attitude in their organisations? Qualitative document analysis, focus groups, and an online survey using a specially developed measure of Consumerism in Sport Organisations (CSO) were employed to answer research question 1, and quantitative analysis of panel data, analysis of secondary data, and an online survey using the newly developed CSO scale were employed to answer research question 2.

In answer to research question 1, it is found that 'policy makers have constructed a consumerist discourse in sport policy by identifying societal changes that are related to consumerism as

a threat to voluntary sport clubs and by presenting the rise of the consumer as a window of opportunity if voluntary sport clubs treat their members as consumers.' (p. 28). Analysis of the data relating to research question 2 found that 'there is little evidence that a consumerist turn is truly taking place at the organisational level of voluntary sport clubs.' (p. 28) It is also found that 'clubs that have changed towards a more consumerist logic experience no decrease in commitment and volunteering among their members.'(p.28). Analysis of 8 clubs from 4 sports found that 'contrary to what is often expected, the presence of consumer logic in a voluntary sport club cannot be explained by the demand of its members, nor by the socio-demographics of the members or the environments they operate in. Rather, the presence of consumer logic is related to the composition of the institutional environment and the characteristics of the board of a voluntary sport club' (p. 28).

VAN WILLIGEN, M. (2000). Differential benefits of volunteering across the life course. *Journals of Gerontology Series B — Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences*, 55, S308–S318

Aim Does volunteering improve the psychological and physical well-being of elderly persons? Do elderly volunteers experience different benefits than younger adults?

Abstract

Objectives. Studies often fail to adequately test the causal relationship between volunteering and well-being. Yet the media and empirical research have focused attention on the impact of volunteering on the well-being of elderly persons. This study addresses two questions: First. Does volunteering improve the psychological and physical well-being of elderly persons? Second, do elderly volunteers experience different benefits than younger adults?

Methods. Using nationally representative panel data, I assessed the long-term impact of volunteering on the life satisfaction and perceived health of persons aged 60 and over. I then compared ordinary least squares regression results for seniors with those for younger adults.

Results. I found that older volunteers experienced greater increases in life satisfaction over time as a result of their volunteer hours than did younger adult volunteers, especially at high rates of volunteering. Older adults experienced greater positive changes in their perceived health than did younger adult volunteers.

Discussion. The type of volunteer work in which older and younger adults engage may be part of the reason for these differential effects. But the context in which older and younger adults volunteer and the meaning of their voluntarism are more likely explanations. Researchers should take into account volunteer commitment when studying volunteering's effect on well-being, not simply volunteer role.

Methods Panel data

WANG, C.L., & WU, X. (2014). Volunteers' motivation, satisfaction, and management in large-scale events: An empirical test from the 2010 Shanghai World Expo. *Voluntas*, 25, 754–771

Aim prime motivations for the World Expo volunteers

Abstract The studies of volunteerism in sporting events have investigated various motivations, organizational attributes, and their effect on satisfaction and behavioural intention, while by far, there is no research conducted on the scale development of volunteers' motivation and satisfaction in World Expo. By empirically testing the revised version of Bang and Chelladurai (Paper presented at the Conference of the North American Society for Sport Management, 2003) VMS-ISE developed by Bang and Ross, this study tried to identify the

motivational factors of the 2010 Shanghai World Expo volunteers and the interrelationship between volunteers motivation, experience, and satisfaction. The result shows that the prime motivations for the World Expo volunteers are those items focusing on doing something good for the organization and society, such as "Expression of Values", "Career Orientation," and "Love of Expo". Practical implications and future research directions of event volunteerism management are also discussed.

Methods Secondary analysis

WANG, P.Z. (2004). Assessing motivations for sports volunteerism. *Advances in Consumer Research*, Volume xxxi, 31, 420–425

Aim motivation for sports volunteerism is a multidimensional construct

Abstract Drawing on recent conceptual models on volunteer motivations developed mainly in social psychology, this study proposes that motivation for sports volunteerism is a multidimensional construct that comprises five distinct components, namely (1) Altruistic Value, (2) Personal Development, (3) Community Concern, (4) Ego Enhancement, and (5) Social Adjustment. A 20-item scale measuring motivations for sports volunteerism was developed using survey data from 935 qualified respondents. Results of confirmatory factor analysis via LISREL software provided reasonably adequate support for the five-factor dimensionality, reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of the measurement scale.

Methods Survey

WEED, M., ROBINSON, L., DOWNWARD, P., GREEN, M., HENRY, I., HOULIHAN, B., & ARGENT, E. (2005). Academic review of the role of voluntary sports clubs. *Institute of Sport & Leisure Policy*, Loughborough University

Aim A review conducted for Sport England

Abstract The review included a theme on volunteerism.

Methods Review

WELCH, M., & LONG, J. (2006). *Sports Clubs: their economic and social impact: An analysis of the economic and social impact of voluntary sports clubs in England, the benefits provided by volunteers working within those clubs and the key factors impacting on them*. Prepared for CCPR by the Carnegie Research Institute, Leeds Metropolitan University

Abstract Information on the distribution of work between volunteers, and motives.

Methods 54 questionnaires completed by clubs, 10% response rate.

WHITTAKER, C.G., & HOLLAND-SMITH, D. (2014). Exposing the dark side, an exploration of the influence social capital has upon parental sports volunteers. *Sport, Education and Society*, 1–18

Aim Explore the influence social capital had over parental sports volunteers who are considered to be of paramount importance in the delivery of UK sports initiatives

Abstract This study explored the influence social capital had over parental sports volunteers who are considered to be of paramount importance in the delivery of UK sports initiatives. A review of the relevant literature identifies and discusses the complexities within the debate to define social capital while human and cultural capital emerge as an essential element in the production of parental volunteers' ability to access opportunities through a process of bonding or bridging social networks. This study used a grounded research focused on the use of semi-structured interviews and research diaries with (n=8) study participants. The

results from this study, which were analysed through a Bourdieuan perspective, suggested the process that recruits parental volunteers is exclusive; furthermore, the results show the insidious presences of the dark side of social capital, which affected the respondents by reinforcing exclusive ties and identities, which was found to exclude outsiders while reproducing a dominant social hierarchy. The paper concludes by considering the implications of the study for future practical and academic applications of social capital production within sports volunteerism.

Methods Interview

WICKER, P., & HALLMANN, K. (2013). A multi-level framework for investigating the engagement of sport volunteers. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 13, 110–139

Aim Investigating the engagement of sport volunteers

Abstract Previous research has extensively investigated the drivers of the decision to volunteer on an individual level. As volunteering usually occurs within an institutional context (e.g., sport club and sport event), the characteristics of the institution must also be considered; however, they have been largely neglected in previous research. A review of the literature on both levels reveals both theoretical and methodological shortcomings which this paper attempts to address. The individual and institutional perspectives are combined resulting in a multi-level framework for the investigation of the drivers of volunteer engagement. Drawing on the heterodox approach and the concept of organizational capacity, the framework consists of an individual and an institutional level. Suggestions for indicators and statistical modeling (multi-level analysis) are provided. The suggested multi-level framework and the multi-level analysis can open new perspectives for research on volunteers in sport.

Methods Questionnaire

WIERSMA, L.D., & SHERMAN, C.P. (2005). Volunteer youth sport coaches' perspectives of coaching education/certification and parental codes of conduct. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 76, 324–338

Aim To investigate the concerns and issues of youth sport coaches related to coaching and parental education

Abstract The vast majority of youth sport programs in the United States relies primarily on parent volunteers to serve as coaches. Unfortunately, most of these volunteer coaches have not received formal training to prepare them adequately for the role of youth sport coach. To exacerbate the issue, according to the popular media, parents and other adults can commit belligerent and even violent acts around, and often, resulting from, poorly managed youth sport events. Although some efforts have been made to standardize curricula, provide training for coaches, and contain or prevent inappropriate parent behaviors, few efforts have been directed at investigating the self-described needs and concerns of the coaches from their perspectives. The purpose of the current study was to investigate the concerns and issues of youth sport coaches related to coaching and parental education. Five focus group interviews with 25 volunteer youth sport coaches were conducted to investigate these issues. Results were organized around four higher order themes that emerged from inductive content analyses: (a) coaching education content areas of need, (b) barriers and problems of offering coaching education, (c) coaching education format recommendations, and (d) efficacy of parental codes of conduct. Results were discussed in terms of the potential impact administrators, coaches, and parents could have in implementing formal coaching education programs and developing their coaching education practices.

Methods Interview

WOLLEBAEK, D., SKIRSTAD, B., & HANSTAD, D.V. (2014). Between two volunteer cultures: Social composition and motivation among volunteers at the 2010 test event for the FIS Nordic World Ski Championships. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 49, 22–41

Aim To examine social composition and motivation among volunteers

Abstract This paper argues that a reflexive, late modern volunteer culture coexists with a collectivist, traditional one at major sporting events. Those who regularly volunteer at such events and are affiliated with organized sport tend to be older and male, and have higher incomes. Those who are volunteering for the first time and are unaffiliated with organized sport resemble reflexive volunteers to a greater extent: they tend to be younger and female, and their incomes are lower than those of regular sports volunteers. A factor analysis identified sports interest, social motives and qualification/work-related motives as three motivational dimensions for volunteering at sporting events. The first two intrinsic dimensions were more important to event regulars and those affiliated with organized sports. Building qualifications and work-related experience were more important motives for first-timers and unaffiliated volunteers, indicating that these volunteers view event volunteering as an appropriate way of investing in social and human capital. The data come from an Internet-based survey (n=800, response rate 77) conducted prior to the 2010 test event for the FIS Nordic World Ski Championships in Oslo, Norway.

Methods Survey-questionnaire

Appendix 2 Abstracts (in-depth) to support results in sections 4.1 and 4.2

DOHERTY, A. (2005a). A profile of community sport volunteers. Prepared for Parks and Recreation Ontario and Sport Alliance Ontario

- 1 **AIM** The aim of this document is to describe who volunteers in sport, what they do, why they volunteer, why they do not volunteer more, and their satisfaction with volunteering in this area.
- 2 **ABSTRACT** No abstract, but a good, clear Executive Summary is provided (pp. 4–6). In brief, the report uses data collected by the National Survey of Giving, Volunteering and Participating (NSGVP; 2000) which was conducted by Statistics Canada (N=14,724). This data is used to profile who volunteers in community sport, what they do, why they volunteer, why they do not volunteer more, and their satisfaction with volunteering in this area. A number of issues related to community sport volunteers are also addressed. The information is supplemented by information from related research studies and reports. It is intended that the information is used 'as a tool to develop (better) volunteer programs to effectively recruit, position, develop, recognize and retain these most valuable resources in community — the volunteers.' (p. 7).
- 3 **METHODS** The data upon which the analysis conducted in this report was based was primarily taken from the National Survey of Giving, Volunteering and Participating (NSGVP; 2000) which was conducted by Statistics Canada with individuals aged 15 years or older (N=14,724). The sample was limited to one person per household, and asked people to think about their volunteering activities over the previous 12 months. The data from those individuals who indicated that they volunteered in 'sport organisations' (including amateur sport and physical fitness) was analysed. The data included community sport volunteers as well as those involved at regional, provincial and national levels. The report suggests that 'it is reasonable to assume that the majority of those volunteers are involved in community sport'; however, there is no rationale provided for this assumption. It is possible, for example, that those volunteering at regional and national level volunteer longer hours, which could skew the distribution. This has indeed been found by other papers.

The survey data is supplemented by a review of research literature on sport volunteerism generated from an extensive search of the SPORTDiscus sport science database. Research based on the 'broader group of sport and recreation volunteers' contributed to the literature covered in this report. These people included those volunteering in the 'arts' and 'culture', and hence may not have been representative of those who volunteer in sports.
- 4 **RELEVANCE** The Executive Summary provides a good overview of the type of people who volunteer in Sport in Canada, their roles, and why they volunteer. In general, the survey revealed that approximately '1.17 million Canadians volunteer in organized sport, representing 5% of the Canadian population and 18% of all Canadian volunteers' (p. 4). It was further estimated that '380,000 Ontarions volunteer in organized sport, representing 4% of the Ontario population and 16% of all Ontario volunteers' (p. 4). More specific details follow below (p. 4).

In relation to who volunteers in sport:

- *The 'typical community sport volunteer'* 'The "typical" community sport volunteer* is male (64%), 35–44 years of age (41%), a college or university graduate, married with dependents at home, employed full-time, with a household income of \$60,000–99,000.' The age of sports volunteers contrasts with the general population of volunteers, in which 54% are male, and with the general population, in which 49% are male. The majority of non-sports volunteers are also 45+ years of age (42%), whereas the number of sports volunteers declines from 45 years. This is indicated to be due to younger sports volunteers (35–44 year olds) having children who are participating in sports and thus the parents of these children become involved in volunteering at their children(s)' club. It is worth remembering that this causal relationship is speculative; the evidence upon which it is based is merely circumstantial and has not been proven scientifically. Proving this assumption could be attempted through a longitudinal (3+ waves) study. It is suggested that the typical community sport volunteer participated in organised team sports in his youth, saw a role model helping others, was helped by others, had a parent who volunteered and carried out volunteer work himself. This 'picture' is said to be corroborated by data from other countries, including the UK, though no references are given.
- *The 'typical coach'* The typical coach is even more likely to be male (73%), but otherwise does not differ from the typical sport volunteer.' 60% of sports volunteers are estimated to be involved in teaching or coaching.
- *The 'typical volunteer executive'* 'The typical volunteer executive is also likely to be male (61%), although female sport volunteers are over-represented in this role (i.e. 36% of sports volunteers are female, therefore the male:female ratio for volunteer executives exceeds that of the general population of sports volunteers). The volunteer executive is slightly older than the coach (most are 35–44 (44%), however, a substantial proportion are 45+ (33%)) and sport volunteers in general, and tends to be better educated (65% have a post-secondary degree / diploma compared to 54% of coaches and 53% of sports volunteers in general). He also is more likely than other sport volunteers to be married (80%) and have dependents at home (66%). In comparison to volunteers in general, sport volunteers are more likely to be male, younger, married, employed, and from a higher income bracket.'

Table 1 (p. 15) provides a good overview of the profile of coaches and volunteer executives. It does not indicate the sample sizes on which these analyses are based, however, hence it is difficult to assess the robustness of these results, or their generalisability. (*See first bullet point in section no. 6 limitations pertaining specifically to the method).

In relation to what sport volunteers do:

- 'Sport volunteers each contribute an average of 143 hours/year to sport alone (to their primary organisation; to all their sport organisations they contribute 189 hours/year), or a total of 167 million hours. Men contribute substantially more volunteer hours to sport on average than women (163 vs 107 hours/year), and older volunteers (35 years and older) contribute up to twice as many hours to sport on average than younger volunteers (over 200 hours/year compared to ~130 hours per year, respectively).' Volunteers aged 35–44 years contribute the greatest percentage of hours in sport (47%), followed by older volunteers (45+ years, 34%).
- The majority of sport volunteers are involved with more than one voluntary organization (both sport and non-sport), while the majority of volunteers in general are involved in only one organization. Female sport volunteers are more likely than males to be involved in several organizations. Most sport volunteers are involved in organizing and supervising

ing activities and events (71%), and teaching or coaching (60%). Substantially fewer volunteers in general (i.e. those not volunteering in sport) are involved in these types of activities. The next most common activity for sport volunteers is board or committee work (46%), followed by fundraising (45%). Most sport volunteers take on multiple roles (and other roles may include administrative work and driving). Men tend to be involved in organizing activities (71%) and coaching (69%), and to a lesser degree in committee/board work (44%). Women tend to be involved in organizing activities (72%), fundraising (55%), and committee/board work (50%), and to a lesser degree in coaching (46%). Older volunteers (45+ years) tend to be involved in more activities than younger volunteers.'

In relation to how sport volunteers become involved (and thus can be considered as motivation to volunteer (p. 5):

- 'Sport volunteers tend to become involved through their children (40%). This is unique to sport volunteers, as most volunteers in general become involved because someone asked them (this is interesting given other findings that individuals weren't asked to volunteer in sports). Male and female sport volunteers do not differ in becoming involved because their children are involved, however younger sport volunteers (15–34 years) are more likely to become involved because someone in the organization asked them (30%).'

In relation to why sport volunteers are involved (typically considered as motivation to volunteer (p. 5):

- 'As with volunteers in general, most sport volunteers are motivated to volunteer to support a cause in which they believe (94%), use their skills to help (87%), because someone they know is affected by the organization (76%), and to explore their own strengths (57%). However, using one's skills and because someone they know is affected by the organization are important motives to a greater proportion of sport volunteers than volunteers in general.
- There are few variations by gender, however older volunteers (35 years and older) tend to be attracted to sport volunteering to help a cause (94%), use their skills (88%), and because someone close to them is personally affected (76%), while younger volunteers (15–34 years) tend to be motivated by those same things and also to explore their own strengths (72%), improve their job opportunities (48%), and because their friends volunteer (36%).
- A model of motives for volunteering in sport identifies helping a cause as a core motive, while primary motives are personal needs and interests (such as fun, use skills, child involved) and secondary motives are social interaction and personal development.' Figure 25 (p. 30) provides a nice depiction of this model and could be useful to inform theory underlying the reasons why people are motivated by certain factors. However, it does not appear to have been tested empirically.
- The report suggests that the model of motives indicates that coaches are primarily motivated to meet their own needs and interests, such as personal enjoyment, staying involved in sport, and using their skills and experiences, but particularly to work with and help kids. Giving something back to sport becomes a more prominent motive as coaches are involved longer and at higher levels. As with other sport volunteers, a sense of obligation is not an incentive to coach. It is not clear how the model distinguishes between the motivations of coaches from those of general sport volunteers.
- The model also indicates (apparently) that executives are particularly motivated by the opportunity to satisfy their personal needs and interests related to using their skills and experiences to make a difference, rather than because their children are involved. Like

sport volunteers in general, those in executive roles are involved because they want to be, not because they feel they have to be.

- Research indicates that volunteers' motives alter over time. When they become involved in an organization it tends to be for personal reasons, but they tend to stay for reasons associated with the organisation (e.g. making friends and connections). This is suggested to happen due to volunteers identifying with, and feeling a part of, the organization, and is suggested to increase the likelihood of volunteers staying with the organization. These assumptions are based on wider literature (e.g. Eley & Kirk, 2003; Nichols & King, 1998).

Barriers to volunteering (p. 36)

- Those who were not involved in sports volunteering were asked why not. Responses included unwillingness to make a year round commitment, giving money instead of time, and not being personally asked. In particular, more women than men said they couldn't give the extra time (87% vs 79%). There was not much variation in responses by age. A model to barriers to participating in sports volunteering is suggested on page 36, and depicted in Figure 29 (p. 36). Personal barriers include work, time, family, and 'done enough', and organisational barriers include more demands on volunteers, the organisation being run poorly, and not being asked to volunteer. The model does not appear to have been tested empirically, however.
- The satisfaction and commitment of volunteers (this could be useful to inform 'maintenance' factors, i.e. continued motivations to volunteer, and thus could be useful for the Sport England review)

A preliminary model of satisfaction and commitment of sport volunteers is provided in Figure 30 (p. 40), which may be interesting and useful, as it pinpoints the reasons why sports volunteers may stay as volunteers, and thus what their motivations for staying are. Volunteer coaches are indicated to be most satisfied by providing benefits to people they know (i.e. the children they coach), and seeing skill improvement amongst athletes. Volunteer executives are suggested to be most satisfied by committee goal achievement and task accomplishment. The model is not reported to have been tested empirically, however, and hence has not been validated.

The paper concludes that there are two categories of volunteer, 'serious' and 'casual', with different profiles for each, however, the report indicates that it is not known whether there are different motivations for each of these types. It is also highlighted that women and new Canadians are under-represented in sport volunteering. The trend of fewer women sports volunteers has been found across the documents reviewed for Sport England.

5 STRENGTHS This report provides a good, clear, overview of the profile, motivations and barriers to volunteering in sports organisations in Canada in the year 2000. This could be used to support information found from the other documents involved in the review for Sport England, and could be indicative of the generaliseability of results, should the results from this survey appear to match the results found by other documents reporting data from other countries.

6 LIMITATIONS General observations:

The survey, conducted in 2000, is now 15 years old. It is possible that there is more up to date literature now available pertaining to sports volunteering in Canada. Limitations of the method include:

- It is assumed that the respondents were involved in community sport only, however, it is acknowledged that some may have been involved in regional or national sports volunteering, and were therefore not the focus of this report. It is assumed that these

respondents would have been in the minority, however, they were still included in the analyses, and therefore may have biased the results.

- The sample size is not indicated. The introduction states that the analysis was conducted only of those who indicated involvement with sports organisations, however, the only sample size which is provided is that for everyone who responded to the survey, not just those involved in sports volunteering. How large was this sample?
- It is not known if this survey covered every address in Canada, or whether a particular sampling strategy was employed. This could potentially be found out through the NSGVP website: www.givingandvolunteering.ca.
- The self-report survey is reliant on recall. This could lead to inaccuracies due to individuals not remembering accurately what they have or haven't done in relation to sports volunteering over the past 12 months. The answers they provide could be subject to the primacy and recency effect which are common recall biases found with self-report data reliant on individuals' subjective memory.
- A copy of the survey is not provided, hence it is difficult to critically assess the structure of the survey and the questions asked.
- The survey was limited to one respondent per household. This means that the person who responded to the survey may not have been actively involved in volunteering but another member of the household may have been. This other person would not have been captured by the survey. Alternatively, individuals may have given the survey to those household members who were involved. It is not known if it was specified in the report whether there were instructions indicating who should fill the survey in. It is possible that certain groups of people may have been less likely to fill the survey in due to this method of sampling (e.g. teenagers, younger adults, who may defer the survey to their parents / housemates).
- The data used is based on those who considered themselves to volunteer for a sports organisation only. Those who volunteered outside of such organisations, but in relation to sports, may therefore not have included themselves in this bracket e.g. those volunteering in after school sports, in sports activities associated with girl guides / scouts, in an informal running club not affiliated to a sports organisation etc. This should be taken into consideration when comparing these results to those which have included sports volunteers who are not affiliated to a sports organisation.
- There is no detail informing how the analysis was conducted or by whom, or what software was used. This makes it impossible to critically assess the results, including how robust they are.
- Speculations are made about causal relationships, however, the data upon which these are based are cross-sectional, therefore these speculations should be interpreted with caution.
- The models provided to explain the motivations of sports volunteers, and their satisfaction and commitment, do not appear to have been tested empirically and hence have not been validated.

7 QUOTATIONS None.

8 KEY REFERENCES

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DOHERTY, A. (2005b). Volunteer management in community sport clubs: A study of volunteers' perceptions. Prepared for Parks and Recreation Ontario and Sport Alliance of Ontario

1 AIM The aim of this study was to investigate volunteers' perceptions of community sport organisation practices and needs with regard to volunteer management. The specific focus was on volunteer recruitment, training, support, evaluation, recognition, and retention.

2 ABSTRACT No abstract, but a summary of the report is provided as follows:

This study comprised Phase 2 of a larger project on community sport volunteers (see Doherty, 2005, ID no 126 above). The purpose of the study was to investigate volunteers' perceptions of community sport organization practices and needs with regard to volunteer management. The specific focus was on volunteer recruitment, training, support, evaluation, recognition, and retention. Telephone interviews were conducted with a sample of 90 volunteers representing 49 clubs in 8 sports from 19 small and large communities across Ontario. The profile of volunteers according to role, motivation for becoming involved, reasons for remaining involved, and reasons for potentially leaving, are provided in good detail. The largest proportion of volunteers were executive or board members, had been asked to get involved, were involved due to having a child who participated in the sport, remained involved due to wanting to remain involved with the sport, and were potentially most likely to leave if their child(ren) left.

3 METHODS Telephone interviews were conducted with 90 volunteers representing 49 clubs across 8 sports from 19 small and large communities across Ontario. The sports included in the study were: Badminton, Basketball, Curling, Hockey, Soccer, Softball, Track & Field, and Volleyball.

A stratified sample was used in order to represent the diversity in community sport volunteers and clubs across Ontario. The strata were: type of sport (individual and team); size and location of community (small and large, in five regions); volunteer role (coach, executive/board member, and administrative or other supporting role). Data on the following variables, family involvement (child or other family member involved, and not involved), and volunteer years with the club (new and veteran volunteers), were not consistently collected ahead of time but these factors were measured in the study and 'taken into consideration in the final analysis'. It is not clear, however, how these factors were taken into consideration.

Sports were selected according to the following criteria: both individual and team sports, a relatively high participation rate, clubs in both small and large communities, and across the province, a balance of sports played by both males and females, and relied primarily, if not exclusively, on volunteers. 5 sports were among the top 10 in which adult Canadians participate and 3 were among the top 5 in which 5–14 year olds participate, both according to 1998 records. A good rationale for selection of these sports is provided. Table 1 indicates the sports included (p. 12).

Statistics Canada definitions of 'small' and 'large' communities were used to identify communities to be included in the study. A clear rationale and table of included communities by size and location is included (Table 2, p. 13).

An interview guide was developed and pilot tested with 5 volunteers. It is included in Appendix A, which allows the instrument to be critically assessed.

Using the stratified sampling framework, a list of potential telephone interview participants was developed. In most cases, one club for each sport in each community was identified. The contact person indicated for each club was contacted and this person provided the contact details of potential volunteers for the telephone interviews. Three study assistants

conducted the interviews between April and August, 2005, with 2–3 volunteers per club. They lasted 30–60 minutes, were audio-recorded with the participants' permission, and transcribed verbatim. It is not known if the study assistants were trained in the method of telephone interviewing, or how experienced they were with such techniques. This could have implications for the robustness of the results.

A frequency analysis was conducted on the transcripts, with answers for each question being tallied. Confidentiality was ensured.

- 4 RELEVANCE** The Executive Summary provides a succinct summary of the roles of the volunteers who participated in the interviews, their motivations for getting involved with sports volunteering, and their motivations for staying involved, as summarised below. 57% of the sample were male, which contrasts with the general population of sports volunteers, of whom 64% were male*.

Volunteers' roles

The 90 participating volunteers comprised the following:

- 13 (14.5%) coaches
- 38 (42%) executive or board volunteers
- 13 (14.5%) administrators
- 26 (29%) both coaches and executives.

Overall, 43.5% volunteered either solely as a coach or as both a coach and an executive, and 71% volunteered either solely as an executive or as both an executive and a coach. This is reported to contrast with the general population of sports volunteers in Ontario, of whom 60% have a role as coach and 42% have a role as executive*. It is suggested that the greater proportion of females is associated with the lower number of coaches in this study, as males are typically more likely to be coaches. This claim is not substantiated with reference to literature.

These volunteers had been with their club an average of 11 years, and 53 (71%) had a child or spouse involved. 73 participants (81%) were from large communities and 17 (19%) were from small communities.

*This information is based on Phase I of the study, however, and so is gleaned from the National Survey of Giving, Volunteering and Participating (NSGVP; 2000) (see Doherty, 2005, ID no. 126 above). It was not clear from Doherty (2005a) how representative of the sports volunteer population this survey was. It is also now 15 years old, and the profile of sports volunteers may have changed.

Motivations for becoming involved in sports volunteering

45% of the participants had been asked to get involved, 41% offered their services, 13% started the club themselves, and 1% were involved as a requirement of club membership.

The most common reasons why the participants started volunteering were:

- child is involved (33%).
- see a need (29%)
- want to help provide a positive activity for children (21%),
- was a former player and/or love the sport (21%)
- feel a responsibility to volunteer in the community (15%)
- have the skills (12%)
- can make a difference/change in the club (12%).

There was some variation in these reasons by the participants' sport and role. A third of participants in all sports except Badminton and Curling were involved due to having a child involved. Other variations by sport existed (see p. 19/20). Across volunteer roles, people

volunteered mostly due to having children involved. Beyond this, coaches were involved because they were former players or simply loved the sport and working positively with children. Executive volunteers were involved due to having the required skills, wanting to make a difference to the organisation and provide opportunities for children, and administrative and support volunteers were involved in order to provide positive opportunities for children.

Motivations for remaining as a sports volunteer

The most common reasons for why the participants stayed with their club were:

- the opportunity to stay connected in and promote the sport (20%)
- helping kids develop (21%)
- providing positive activity for kids (20%)
- positive, social working environment (18%)
- meeting a need in the club (20%)
- Enjoyment (20%)
- having the skills to offer (12%)
- making a difference in the club (12%)
- child still involved (15%).

There was some variation by volunteer role. Executive and administrative/supporting volunteers tended to indicate that they stay because they have skills to offer, they are making a difference in the club, and the need for their help still exists. Coaches tended to indicate that they stay because they enjoy having a positive influence on kids and the need for their expertise still exists.

Reasons for leaving sports volunteer roles

The most common reasons why participants might eventually leave were:

- child no longer involved (36%)
- heavy time commitment (31%)
- Negative environment because of politics and parents (21.5%)
- conflict with family responsibilities (21.5%)
- time for new people and ideas (17%).

Other reasons included: conflict with work (9.5%); conflict with other volunteering roles (9.5%); conflict with other leisure activities (12%); and no longer being a member of the club (12%). Again, there was some variation according to volunteer role, once the most common reason, no longer having a child involved in the club, was taken account of. Executive volunteers speculated that they would leave because of a conflict with family responsibilities and activities, the heavy time commitment, the politics and parents, and the need for new blood. Most coaches speculated that they would leave because of the time commitment, conflict with family, and conflict with work.

The report goes on to detail issues with volunteer recruitment, orienting volunteers to their roles, providing training and development for them, retaining them, providing performance evaluation and feedback, and recognition and reward. As this is not directly relevant to the motivations of sport volunteers, which is the purpose of the Sport England report for which this review is being conducted, these have not been discussed here.

Appendix B (pp. 72/3) provides a useful summary of the profile of volunteers according to phase I and phase II of the study.

- 5 STRENGTHS** A detailed description of the method is included, and the interview schedule is provided in the Appendix, allowing a critical assessment of the questions asked. The interview schedule is very detailed, which makes it more likely that the assistants were

able to consistently ask the same questions across all volunteers, and not forget to cover certain points. Most of the questions are closed, which is probably appropriate for the type of responses which were required, and the type of analysis which was subsequently conducted (frequency analysis). A good rationale is also provided for the stratified sampling strategy adopted.

6 LIMITATIONS Some of the causal statements in the document are not substantiated by reference to literature (e.g. associating the lack of coaches compared to a 'typical' sample with the greater number of female participants). There is no reference to wider literature, or an attempt to explain the results in terms of theory / previous findings.

7 QUOTATIONS

From a volunteer who became involved due to having children (p. 18):

'I've always become involved with things because my kids were involved and then, I guess, I recognize that there's a job that has to be done and people have got to do it.'

From a volunteer wanting to provide a positive opportunity for children (p. 20):

'I enjoy seeing children involved in sports rather than stuck at home in front of the TV or computer.'

From a volunteer who had finished participating in a sport but wanted to continue being involved (p. 20):

'I was done participating in the sport, but didn't feel I was done with the sport. I wanted to give something back.'

Two examples provided by volunteers for why they remain in their role (p. 20):

'For the love of the sport. And I want to see it do well, and I want to help my athletes and the club and how do I, if I don't do it somebody else might do it but I don't know how many people can do it.'

'While my son is playing I feel, if there is any way that I can have a say in anything happening in the league is to volunteer. And also, you know, it helps a lot of other kids.'

8 KEY REFERENCES None.

EGLI, B., SCHLESINGER, T. & NAGEL, S. (2014). Expectation-based types of volunteers in Swiss sports clubs. *Managing Leisure*, 19, 359–375. doi: 10.1080/13606719.2014.885714

1 AIM To understand the expectations of volunteers in sports clubs.

2 ABSTRACT Volunteer research in sports clubs has paid hardly any attention to the individual expectations even though matching conditions to the specific volunteer's expectations represents a major management challenge. This article presents a person-oriented approach to the expectation profiles of volunteers that delivers the basis for identifying different volunteer segments. The approach assumes explicitly that volunteers in sports clubs develop specific expectations regarding their working conditions. These expectations were determined in a sample of 441 members of 45 selected sports clubs. Proximately, a cluster analysis revealed that volunteers vary in their expectations regarding voluntary work. Four different types of volunteers could be identified: (1) recognition seekers, (2) material incentive seekers, (3) participation and communication seekers, and (4) support seekers. These "expectation-based volunteer types" could also be characterized in socioeconomic, membership related, and volunteer-work-related terms. These types could serve as a basis for designing specific voluntary work conditions in sports clubs.

3 METHODS

An online questionnaire was sent to 45 sports clubs selected to be representative of the different structural types of sports clubs in Switzerland, in terms of the number of members, divisions, and types of sport. It is not reported how this selection process was carried out. The 45 sports clubs sent the questionnaire to all members over 16 years of age with valid e-mail addresses.

A factor analysis was conducted to determine the validity of the dependent variable, 'volunteer job satisfaction' ('an outcome of the cognitive and emotional evaluation of the relationship between volunteers' expectations of the work situation and what it actually delivers', p. 365).

Cluster analysis was conducted to identify typical volunteering-related expectation profiles. The method used is detailed, increasing confidence in the robustness of the results. 4 clusters were revealed: recognition seekers, material incentive seekers, participation and communication seekers, and support seekers, indicating the different motivations and expectations of volunteers.

4 RELEVANCE

p. 360 indicates that several studies 'have performed theoretical and/or empirical analyses of the attitudes and motives associated with voluntary engagement from a variety of perspectives and in a variety of different contexts (Anderson & Moore, 1978; Clary et al., 1998; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998; Gerstein, Anderson, & Wilkeson, 2004; Kim, James, & Connaughton, 2010; Rehberg, 2005; Strigas & Jackson, 2003).' This research highlighted that the motives of volunteers are on a continuum between 'doing something for the benefit of the community' and 'pursuing one's own interests.'

p. 361 — Sometimes a volunteer may have several, contradictory reasons for volunteering, and non-profit organisations attract volunteers by offering a range of tasks which satisfy several different motivations. The paper suggests that the volunteering context needs to be analysed in conjunction with motives for volunteering, and thus that the organisation of services in sports clubs needs to pay more attention to the individual expectations of volunteers. Some studies use Psychological Contract theory to explain the relationship between volunteers' expectations and their behaviour in relation to an organisation (i.e. their motivation to volunteer). Psychological contracts consist of a transactional exchange of resources (economic and socio-emotional resources such as power, training & development), which may be fulfil expectations, breach them or violate them completely, causing an intense emotional reaction. It is a breach or violation of expectations which is suggested to demotivate volunteers. It is therefore suggested that paying attention to volunteering-related expectations would be useful for recruiting and retaining volunteers, and help with managing volunteers.

p. 362 — Altruism is suggested to play a subordinate motivating role. According to utility-expectation theory (Becker, 1976), it is suggested that different rewards for volunteering than for paid work are expected in exchange for time and effort, and may include social recognition, enhanced reputation, human and social capital. The reward must fulfil certain expectation else the volunteer may leave. So the decline of voluntary commitment may be due to diverging individual expectations and organizational incentive structures.

p. 363 — volunteer job satisfaction is the end result of meeting a volunteer's expectations. The most important motivations for volunteers are deemed to be intrinsic rewards. Work conditions may be particularly motivating when individuals experience a high level of autonomy, the work is varied and flexible, and when it contributes to self-development. Furthermore, volunteer roles which encourage the learning of new skills, provide opportunities

for social relationships (social capital) have a positive influence on motivation to volunteer, as does an appropriate feedback culture between management and volunteers. 'Fringe benefits' or 'perks' may include reduced membership fees or gratification and recognition. It is highlighted that the individual differences between volunteers, such as age, gender, level of education, and social origins, should be attended to, rather than focusing exclusively on expectation profiles, as these factors may lead to differences in the expectations of working conditions and their evaluation. It is also acknowledged that expectations and the evaluation of volunteering may vary over time and be acquired through experience and thus be related to length of service and role. Finally, the structural factors of sports clubs, such as size, goals, and cultural norms, are also suggested to determine individual expectations.

p. 364 — The survey sample (N=441) consisted of volunteers in the sports domain (e.g. coach, referee; 58.1%), volunteers in the administrative domain (e.g. president, treasurer; 30.1%), and volunteers who had formal roles (e.g. equipment manager, organiser of events; 11.8%). 46.5% held several volunteer roles. The greatest percentage of respondents had been volunteering for less than 5 years (37.5%), followed by those who had volunteered between 11–20 years (24.3%). The smallest percentage had volunteered for more than 20 years (15.3%). In terms of time spent volunteering per month, the largest percentage volunteered for more than 20 hours (31.1%), followed by those who volunteered between 11–20 hours (27.4%), those who volunteered between 6–10 hours (21.2%), and finally, those who volunteered less than 5 hours (20.2%). Caution should be applied when interpreting these results due to the potential bias caused by the low response rates.

p. 368 — Four clusters emerged from cluster analysis, which characterise the different expectations of volunteers. They are as follows:

- *Recognition seekers* (n=126; 34.2% of the sample) — volunteers in this category expected to be appreciated for their services and receive symbolic recognition, such as a certificate or award, suggesting that recognition and appreciation is a prime motivator for these volunteers. Those who volunteered a high intensity of hours tended to be in this cluster.
- *Material incentive seekers* (n=138, 37.2%)— these volunteers expected to receive material compensation for their services, such as financial rewards (e.g. reduced membership fees) and perks. A greater number of under 20 year olds belonged to this category, as well as a greater number of females and volunteers from lower-income groups, suggesting that those with lower income expected to be financially compensated, and thus that this could be a motivation for volunteering. Volunteers in this cluster also tended to volunteer in the sports domain (e.g. as coaches or referees)
- *Participation and communication* (n=46, 12.5%) — these volunteers expected to -important club decisions and expected a constructive exchange of knowledge and experience. They also valued challenging and varied tasks. More men than women belonged to this cluster, and a greater proportion had a tertiary education than in the other clusters. Higher education appeared to accompany greater expectations of responsibility and collaboration at a management level. More volunteers in this cluster were also from higher income groups. These volunteers also tended to volunteer in administrative roles.
- *Support seekers* (n=59, 16%) — these volunteers expected to be supported so that they could co-ordinate their careers with their volunteering duties, receive training, and have close contact with club management. More men than women belonged to this cluster. Volunteers who had recently become involved with their club (within the last 5 years) tended to expect this support more than volunteers in the other clusters, and tended to expect less recognition.

The four clusters suggest varied motivations for becoming a volunteer in sports. However, the assumption made in the paper (p. 370) that it can be assumed that the volunteering types identified here are to be found in all clubs' is questionable, given the low response rate to the questionnaires distributed. It is also not known how generalisable the results are to clubs in England.

This paper highlights the differing motivations of individuals who volunteer, suggesting that recruitment needs to be tailored to different groups of potential volunteers, and that volunteers could be encouraged if volunteering roles were designed with these motivations in mind. Roles therefore need to be aligned with expectations. This could be achieved through interview or questionnaire during the recruitment process and could enable volunteers' expectations to be met, increasing their volunteer job satisfaction and encouraging their retention as a volunteer. The discussion also highlights that individual expectations may change over time, requiring the dynamic management of volunteers if they are to be retained.

5 STRENGTHS This source provides a detailed literature review of the motivations of volunteers and attempts to explain these through theory, which goes a step beyond most of the other sources reviewed, and is directly relevant to the report for Sport England.

The questionnaire sample was large (N=1528), decreasing the likelihood of bias. Only a subset of this sample was used for the analysis which this paper reports (N=441), however, it was still relatively large, and large enough to provide robust results for most types of analytical procedures.

6 LIMITATIONS The paper focuses on volunteering in Swiss sports clubs, whereas Sport England is interested in volunteering in England. It is unknown how generalisable the information is. Further studies could investigate this.

In relation to the method:

- It is not known how the selection process for selecting the 45 sports clubs, to which the questionnaire was distributed, was carried out. This prevents a critical assessment of the representativeness of these 45 sports clubs to the total number of sports clubs, and could potentially be biased.
- Distributing the questionnaire online only could lead to a biased sample as not every member of a club may have provided a valid e-mail address. However, all volunteers in these sports clubs could apparently be contacted via e-mail, minimising the potential for bias.
- The response rate within sports clubs was low (5–30%), increasing the likelihood of bias.
- It is not known whether these results are representative of all sports and groups of people. This research was designed for volunteers in formal posts in sports clubs, therefore the results may not be generalisable to those in informal roles or those who volunteer outside of sports clubs.

7 QUOTATIONS None.

8 KEY REFERENCES

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GRATTON, C. NICHOLS, G. SHIBLI, S. & TAYLOR, P. (1997). *Valuing volunteers in UK sport*. London: Sports Council

1 AIM To produce quantitative data about the size and importance of the voluntary sector in UK sport.

2 ABSTRACT The following is a summary of the Executive Summary provided:

The aim of this review was to inform policy makers, in particular the Sports Council, about the nature and range of assistance which the Sports Council (alone and in partnership with other bodies) could offer to promote and support more effectively the work of the voluntary sports sector. There were five objectives:

- to estimate the size, composition and value of the 'volunteer market' in UK sport.
- to identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the sports volunteer market.
- to better understand sports volunteer recruitment and retention.
- to identify the ways in which the Sports Council and others could effectively contribute to help the voluntary sports sector.
- to determine which other organisations could assist the Sports Council, and to propose policy options for providing effective support to volunteers in sport.

Telephone interviews and focus groups were conducted, a survey administered, and secondary analysis of the 1991 National Survey of Voluntary Action (NSVA) was undertaken, in order to inform this review. Telephone interviews occurred with representatives of governing bodies from 26 targeted sports, volunteers working in governing bodies above club level, sports clubs' secretaries and representatives of national and local organisations in other areas of volunteer activity such as minority sports, disabled sports and schools. Focus groups were conducted with committees of 47 sports clubs, across 12 sports and it was to these committees that the survey was administered.

The report highlighted that Sports club volunteers are far more likely to be motivated to volunteer for their own benefit, or the benefit of family and friends, than for volunteers as a whole. Many barriers to volunteering (e.g. time, training needs not being met), the needs of volunteers (financial, information and training), and the type of assistance that sports clubs volunteers require (from other organisations) were discussed. In general, sports clubs were considered to be self-sufficient and resourceful. Methods of successful volunteer recruitment and retention which were noted to be occurring in some clubs included mentoring, shadowing, job splitting, a finite time period for the role, offering coaching attainable coaching awards, and using semi-volunteers to liaise with the voluntary sector. Different approaches

were found to be suitable for different clubs. These findings could have important implications for the development of policy.

3 METHODS The methods were as follows:

Phase I:

1. Desk research — involved literature searching / background reading into each of the 26 targeted sports, developing relationships with the governing bodies to pave the way for interviews
2. Telephone interviews with: 39 representatives of national governing bodies; 107 volunteers above club level in the governing bodies; 98 sports club secretaries; 71 representatives of major events, school sports, youth organisations, disabled sport and unaffiliated sport.
3. Quantitative survey of 353 volunteers in 47 sports clubs which were visited for the focus groups
4. Secondary analysis of the 1992 General Household Survey and the 1991 National Survey of Voluntary Action in the UK

Phase 2: Focus groups with club volunteers from 147 clubs which targeted 12 sports; 4 focus groups per sport were conducted, with 8–10 volunteers in each.

Phase 3: Twenty-two face-to-face or telephone interviews with representatives of governing bodies and local authorities, to identify good practice in offering support for volunteers in sports clubs.

Notes about the methodology (See Appendices 1A-34A):

- Why were 26 sports chosen for detailed investigation, not more or less?
- Not all the inclusion criteria for identifying included sports detail what decision was taken e.g. gender — was an equal gender mix chosen?.
- Acknowledgement that decisions made regarding inclusion of sports was to some extent subjective.
- No reference for 'standard approach' to the telephone interviews.
- What was the sampling strategy? Purposive?
- Did each focus group consist of volunteers from one of the sports only, or were the participants from a mixture of sports?
- Transcripts were taken of the interviews, but how was information from the transcripts coded / extracted? Was it thematically analysed?
- Telephone interview schedule and focus group schedule provided.

4 RELEVANCE

(p. 43) (Chapter 3) reports the characteristics of volunteers according to the results of the 353 questionnaires which were completed at the start of the focus groups. Table 3.3 (p. 43) details the breakdown of these respondents by volunteer role. Two-thirds were committee members (66.5%) and the remaining third (13.6%) were coaches or had administrative (e.g. president, vice-president, helpers at fundraising events) or operational (time keeping, ground keeping, bar work, competition judging, umpiring, refereeing) posts. Of note, 79% of the respondents were from club administration as opposed to club operations (coaching and other 'hands on' tasks), which involved only 21% of respondents. A significant number of volunteers had more than one role.

(p. 45) details the main roles in the club by age band. Those between 45–60 years of age were more likely to hold administrative roles than any other role, and those between 25–44 years were more likely to have operational posts such as team captain (25–34 year olds) or coach (25–44 year olds).

(p. 50) details the time contributed by volunteers. On average, the volunteers involved in this research spent 2.9 hours per week volunteering. Volunteers at national level contributed the most hours (12.8), and volunteers at club level the least (2.1). The number of hours contributed was not normally distributed; 35% of the volunteers contributed half the number of hours. Coaches were more than twice as likely to volunteer more than the average number of hours than the rest of the sample, however, in this sample most of the coaches came from gymnastics and swimming so these results may not be generalisable to all sports. Secretaries, fixtures secretary and Chair are also likely to contribute more hours. There was also variation in the intensity of volunteering between sports, with a greater number of hours spent volunteering in gymnastics, athletics, swimming and rugby union. Lower levels were in tennis, hockey, badminton, netball and sailing. It was also found that volunteers in individual sports were more likely to volunteer above average hours than volunteers in team sports, and this difference was almost statistically significant.

(pp. 66+) details the motivations of the volunteers. Sports club volunteers were more likely to be motivated to volunteer for their own benefit, or the benefit of family and friends, than for volunteers as a whole, according to a comparison of this study's survey with the National Survey of Voluntary Activity. This suggests that sports volunteers are by and large a 'self-help' group.

(p. 74) indicates that sports club volunteers are slightly more likely to offer to help than to be asked to help. In particular, team captains were more likely to offer help than volunteers holding any of the other posts. Volunteers involved in operational tasks were most likely to volunteer in order to learn new skills and those with a role as Chair were least likely to offer to volunteer in other roles, probably due to not having time to spare.

(pp. 103–105) (Chapter 4) focuses specifically on the motivation and retention of volunteers.

Factors highlighted:

- familiarity with the club and its personnel
- intrinsic motivation — forms the dedicated core of volunteers but no discussion of what these intrinsic motivations might be.
- extrinsic motivation e.g. due to children participating in a sport, or participating oneself. Parents and those participating in the sport themselves are 'likely to have lower intrinsic motivation' (P 103)
- extrinsic motivations result in the motivation being short-lived e.g. if children stop participating, their parents stop volunteering
- the least qualified volunteer parents tend to drop out most therefore offering training to this group could help retain them
- good social environment is important e.g. in bowls. A lack of a good social environment makes it difficult to communicate with and involve volunteers.

De-motivators are summarised as being:

- the combination of more work and more responsibility and fewer volunteers to help with tasks
- anti-social hours (e.g. swimming training is often very early in the morning or late at night)

Legislation increasing the formal responsibilities of coaches, team managers, event officials etc. For example, the Sports Council was increasing its demands at the time of this report. This section on the motivations of volunteers could directly help inform the review for Sport England. It would be interesting to see if any of these motivators and de-motivators have changed since 1996.

Chapter 4 (pp. 78–117) in general identifies the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats to the sports volunteer market and thus could contribute to knowledge about what motivates people to participate, or not participate, and could contribute to the debate about how to tackle some of these problems and encourage participation in volunteering.

Barriers to volunteering (*from the quantitative survey conducted with 353 volunteers who took part in the focus groups:*

- 74% stated that there were not enough people to help out — largest problem (p 79). This was most reported by volunteers in athletics, cricket, tennis, swimming and bowls, and least reported by gymnastics and badminton, though 58% and 52% respectively, still reported it. Reporting that there was not enough people to help out was not linked to the number of hours spent volunteering. Family commitments (16%) / time after work (19%) were less frequently reported barriers (p. 79).
- Results indicated that volunteers with the necessary skills are needed, therefore offering training could be one way of motivating participation in volunteering. Coaches and other 'operational volunteers' were most likely to feel that their work requires specialist skills, and team captains were least likely to think this — suggesting that training should be role specific and not offered to everyone who wants to volunteer.

From the qualitative data (both the focus groups and telephone interviews):

- The qualitative data backed up the quantitative data — a shortage in the number of volunteers was reported
- Lack of people to lead junior sports
- Training courses for coaches too costly.
- Offering variation in the volunteer tasks could be important, as people mentioned that once you had a role, that was it and you couldn't do anything different (p 92), however, this could mean replacements are constantly needing to be searched for
- A weak link was reported between sports volunteering and participation in sports

The section also details the needs of volunteers (financial, information, training) and concludes that sports clubs are resourceful and self-sufficient, largely through the use of internal and local contacts and workplace resources. A well run sports club could help recruit volunteers who may be choosing between clubs.

5 STRENGTHS

- Wide range of sports covered.
- Focus on UK Sports and we are interested in UK Sports for our review.
- Detailed methodology section (Appendices 1A-34A) provides a means of assessing the rigour of the study and therefore the robustness of the results.
- Qualitative results are backed up by quantitative data — triangulation.

6 LIMITATIONS

- Published in 1996, doesn't cover last 20 years of volunteering in sport.
- Volunteers were sourced from formal organisations such as clubs or governing bodies only, hence the results can only be generalised to this group. Volunteers who take part in more informal sports arrangements weren't included — e.g. walking / running groups which locals / friends might set up.
- The focus groups and quantitative survey included 12 targeted sports only, therefore the results can only be interpreted in light of these sports, and can't be generalised.
- Can evidence from 26 targeted sports really be generalised to the 93 sports recognised by the Sports Councils, as indicated in the Executive Summary on p. ii? Are sports other than the 26 similar in structure to the chosen sports; do they require / attract a similar number of volunteers?.

- Running was not included in the 26 targeted sports — were there no running clubs then?

7 QUOTATIONS

(p. 92) indicating a motivation to volunteer:

'There's a feeling of responsibility that if you don't carry on then you're letting everyone else down.' (gymnastics volunteer)

(p. 92) another motivation — a time limit to a role:

'It's important to have a time limit on anything like this, because if it's got a time limit you are more likely to twist somebody's arm; if there's no time limit nobody else wants to take it on.'

(p. 103) an extrinsic motivation to volunteer:

'With swimming, because it involves so much time training, every day of the week, you have to make it part of your life — it is your social life — if not your life would be a misery.' (parent volunteer)

(p. 88) from one of the telephone interviews or focus groups (it is not clear which) conducted with a bowls club:

'Generally speaking the members that want to do the work are getting less and less, and it is getting harder and harder to attract people on (the committee) and it is getting more difficult to get volunteers to stop as long as (current volunteers) are doing — they don't want to do 8, 9, 10, 15 years, it's 2/3 years and out'

(p. 93) another barrier stated by a volunteer in athletics:

'The amount of time given on a volunteer basis is absurd and not acceptable to me.'

8 KEY REFERENCES None identified.

HALLMANN, K. (2015). Modelling the decision to volunteer in organised sports. *Sport Management Review*, 18, 448–463

- 1 AIM** The aim of this study was to analyse the determinants of volunteering in organised sports and the amount of time committed to that volunteering.
- 2 ABSTRACT** Using a heterodox economic approach, the purpose of this paper is twofold: to analyse the determinants of (1) volunteering in organised sports, and (2) time committed to that volunteering. By means of regression analysis of secondary data from a nation-wide volunteer survey with two waves (2004: n = 15,000; 2009: n =20,005), it was established that human capital, female gender and the motive of shaping society had a negative influence on the decision to volunteer while the number of engagements in other volunteering had a positive effect. Time committed to volunteering was determined by male gender, having children, meeting people, club membership, shaping society and number of voluntary engagements. The volunteer workforce is thus very heterogeneous; however, sport club managers should recruit volunteers in particular amongst existing members.
- 3 METHODS** Secondary data analysis was conducted based on the volunteer survey which took place in 2004 and 2009 in Germany amongst residents aged 14 years and older. Some questions specifically addressed volunteering in sport.
The first survey, in 2004, employed computer assisted telephone interviewing (CATI). Random sampling, employing multi stage cluster sampling, was used to control for geographical distribution, gender, and age. The response rate was 52% (n=15,000). The second survey occurred in April-July 2009 and used the same sampling strategy. The response rate was 51% (n=20,005).

The data was analysed using SPSS 22 and Stata 12. Regression techniques were used to test the theoretical model proposed by the paper.

4 RELEVANCE This paper proposes a model (p. 454) which indicates the factors suggested to be related to the decision to volunteer. These are broadly considered to involve demographic factors, economic factors, sociological factors (social interaction) and psychological factors (preferences: motives, membership, experiences). Data analysis based on the 2004 survey data suggests that the model explains 5.16% of the variance; analysis based on the 2009 data explained 15.14% of the variance.

In both the 2004 data, income, social interaction (how many peers the individual had at his / her place of residence), number of voluntary engagements, and meeting people had a significant, positive effect on the decision to volunteer, whereas human capital, being female, having children, and shaping society had a significant negative effect. It is surprising that having children has a negative effect, given the finding in other studies that being a parent increases the likelihood of volunteering in sports. However, it is not clear if the analysis was conducted purely on the questions which asked about sports volunteering, or whether these results pertain to volunteering in general.

In relation to the decision to volunteer (aim 1), there were some interesting results based on the 2004 data which might help inform the Sport England review:

- females were less likely than males to take up a voluntary activity (13.3% fewer females than males)
- social interaction had the highest positive effect, with having many peers at an individual's place of residence increasing the probability of volunteering by 9%

The 2009 data revealed similar results, and also suggested a small, positive effect of age and 'member' (of a sport club) on the decision to volunteer. Unlike in the 2004 data, the 2009 data revealed that being a member of a sports club had the largest effect, and increased the probability of volunteering by 37.7%. Consistent across both the 2004 and 2009 data was the negative effect of human capital, being female, shaping society, and engagements.

Results for the model predicting the amount of time volunteers spent volunteering (aim 2) were as follows:

- The 2004 data explained 6.51% of the variance in time commitment; the 2009 data explained 7.22% of the variance.
- Across both sets of data it was found that the majority of individuals contributed between 3–5 hours (~37–40%, followed by up to 2 hours (~30%), and finally 6–10 hours (~20–21%).

According to the 2004 data:

- being female was significantly negatively associated with time commitment
- being male was associated with higher time commitments.
- engagements, meeting people and shaping society had a positive effect

According to the 2009 data, a significant negative effect was observed for income, female gender, and having children. A significant positive effect was observed for social interaction, engagements, meeting people, being a member, and shaping society.

To sum up, in relation to time commitment, the factors which were consistent across both waves were the negative effect of being female and the positive effect of engagements, meeting people, and shaping society. These results suggest that volunteers are very heterogeneous in terms of demographics and motives, implying sports clubs do not need to limit their search to particular groups of people, although given the positive effect of being

a member of a sports club in the first place, it is likely that sports clubs will find it easier to recruit from within their club.

To sum up the results pertaining to the decision to volunteer (i.e. including possible motives for volunteering):

- human capital was the sole economic indicator affecting the decision to volunteer across 2004 and 2009.
- a negative influence of education was observed, which is in contrast to previous studies.
- gender was the sole demographic factor which was significantly related to the decision to volunteer, with men being more likely to volunteer in organised sports. This supports previous findings.
- the number of voluntary engagements was positively associated with the decision to volunteer.
- shaping society had a negative influence, which is not congruent with the idea of volunteering as an altruistic activity.
- the strongest of all effects was being a member of a sports club, which could be explained by the accumulation of social capital and desire to remain within the social network.

Summing up the results pertaining to the amount of time spent volunteering:

- gender was a significant predictor, with males more likely to commit more time
- a positive relationship was found between number of voluntary engagements and amount of time spent volunteering, suggesting people volunteering in sport are also likely to be volunteering in other services
- meeting people was positively associated, and allows increased social interaction, which could be a motivation for volunteering in the first place
- being a member was positively associated, which the authors suggest may be due to active members being more interested in a functioning club
- in contrast to the decision to volunteer, shaping society had a positive influence on time commitment. Perhaps the motive for volunteering changes once volunteering is underway, so that seeing how volunteering helps others may mean this factor becomes important, though wasn't a factor in the decision to volunteer in the first place.
- working hours, human capital, age, and migration background did not affect the time commitment to voluntary activity

5 STRENGTHS The paper provides an in-depth, quantitative study of the factors associated with the decision to volunteer and the time spent volunteering, which complements the many qualitative reports which have been reviewed for Sport England.

The paper discusses theories underpinning the current literature in the introductions, which helps to understand the literature in more depth. This is different to most of the documents reviewed for Sport England.

The method used to analyse the secondary survey data is reported in sufficient detail to allow a critical assessment of the appropriateness of the methods. Appropriate checks were made to determine if the assumptions necessary for the analyses conducted were met.

The sample sizes for both the 2004 and 2009 were very large, increasing the robustness of the results.

6 LIMITATIONS It is not clear whether the analysis was conducted purely on the questions which asked about sports volunteering, or whether these results pertain to volunteering in general. The authors themselves highlight the fact that the motives for volunteering were not specific to volunteering in sports but were more general to all voluntary activities. How far, then, can these motives be generalised to volunteering in sports?

The surveys upon which the analysis was based did not directly address motivation, therefore 'motivation' was a latent construct, and the survey questions may not truly reflect the concept.

The discussion does not relate the results to the theories suggested in the introduction, but remains fairly descriptive with some superficial exploration of reasons to explain the results. It would be interesting to know how the authors thought the theories they stated in the introduction as underpinning their research related to their findings.

The discussion does not revisit the plethora of hypotheses made, thus we don't know if the hypotheses were upheld or not.

In relation to the method:

- it is not specified what 'good' or 'bad' income is considered to be.
- it is not stated in the method how the dependent variables, 'decision to volunteer', and 'time commitment' were measured
- the variable 'time commitment' was ordinal, i.e. the response options were categorical (e.g. under 2 hours, 3–5 hours etc.). Using exact numbers might have afforded more insights and been more suitable for regression analyses.
- organisational variables (e.g. structure of sports clubs, embedded values etc) were not included as these were not collected by the surveys, but may have changed the results. Indeed, the analysis was only at the individual level due to the lack of inclusion of organisational variables. Further work could seek to include such variables.
- it would have been interesting to conduct structural equation modelling on the data, as a different way of testing the model, and looking at how all the variables affect each other when they are in the model together.

7 QUOTATIONS None.

8 KEY REFERENCES None.

NICHOLS, G. (2005). Stalwarts in sport. *World Leisure Journal*, 47, 31–37

1 AIM The aim of this paper was to identify those who both volunteer in sports clubs organised by their members and contribute over 300 hours a year to volunteering in sport

2 ABSTRACT This paper reports further analysis of an Omnibus Survey of volunteering in sport, conducted in 2002 for Sport England (Taylor, et al., 2003). From this survey of over 8000 individuals it was possible to identify those who both volunteer in sports clubs organised by their members, and contribute over 300 hours a year to volunteering in sport. Analysis of the gender, age, education, work status and motivation of these volunteers shows that the only significant distinguishing characteristic of these volunteers is their motivation. This leads to implications for further research, including studies of the career paths of key volunteers, the relation of volunteering to club attachment, and the internal management of clubs.

3 METHODS This paper analyses secondary data from a national Omnibus Survey conducted by BMRB international with people aged 16 years or older (N=8458). There is no detail as to how the statistical analysis of the data was conducted.

4 RELEVANCE

(p. 34) Volunteering in sports clubs organised by their members was the most significant single form of volunteering in sport, however, only 6.6% of respondents had volunteered in such clubs, which is somewhat contradictory given that 14.8% had volunteered in some kind

of sporting context over the past year, and 13.4% had taken part in formal volunteering, defined as 'a sports club organised by its members.'

(p. 34) 'Stalwarts' (key volunteers in sport who are not volunteering to help family or friends) gave 301 voluntary hours or more a year (n=84). This 18.4% of total volunteers in sports clubs gave 62% of the total hours, although it is possible that the self-report estimates are not accurate due to recall bias. However, the results reflected those of a previous survey (Sport England, 1996).

(p. 35) 61% of stalwarts performed administrative roles, 49% coached, 38% refereed or officiated, and 61% fund-raised. The high percentage involved in coaching reflects previous findings, although one study found a smaller percentage to be involved in administrative tasks (Egli et al, 2014). This could be due to the different demographic of the data set used for this other study's analysis, and the focus on volunteers in general, as opposed to purely volunteers in sport or, more specifically, stalwarts. In sum, stalwarts contribute a disproportionately large amount of time volunteering in sports clubs, supporting previous findings (e.g. Shibli et al., 1999).

(p. 35) Descriptive analysis revealed that stalwarts do not differ from the general demographic of volunteer according to any demographic variables, such as age, gender, or education. The only difference between stalwarts and other volunteers was in their motivation for becoming involved in volunteering in the first place. This is directly relevant for the Sport England review. Stalwarts reportedly became involved due to their children participating in the sport (note: I thought stalwarts didn't include volunteers who became involved due to wanting to help family and friends — see p. 34), wanting to improve things, helping with school sport, wanting to continue being involved in sport after playing, and due to the perceived opportunity to learn new skills. This analysis is once again limited by the self-report nature of the survey. Perhaps clubs could collect data on volunteers' motivations when they join a club to avoid this potential bias.

Some of the motivations of stalwarts did not match the category, 'leisure careerists', identified by previous researchers (Cuskelly & Harrington, 1997). This category, which is one of four, reflects most closely the characteristics of stalwarts. Motives in common between stalwarts and leisure careerists were:

- Wanting to improve things / help people
- Wanting to continue being involved in sport after playing
- Perceiving the opportunity to learn new skills

The motives of helping with sport at school and having children who participated in the sport resembled more the 'role dependees' category identified by Cuskelly & Harrington. Nichols explores potential reasons for this mismatch and suggests it is possible that motivations change as time progresses, thus categorising volunteers on their initial motivation for volunteering may have limitations. Perhaps volunteers move between categories as time progresses? A model could be developed which seeks to describe and explain the life cycle of the sports volunteer.

(p. 36) The results are explored in terms of several theories. 'Continuity theory' is one such theory, though it is not explained how this theory might relate to the results found in this paper. 'Exchange theory' is related to the findings more explicitly. Based on this theory, it was suggested that a 'covenantal attachment' ('a strong identification with the values and mission of the focal organisation' — p. 36, column 1), could predict the high level of voluntary involvement of volunteers in the most demanding positions. It is not explained why this might be the case, however. It is also suggested that understanding the motivations of volunteers is key to managing them, and that informal control might work best as developing

informal networks may motivate individuals to remain involved. It is further suggested that a key challenge is meeting the needs of stalwarts and attracting new volunteers, who may find it daunting to try and break into an established group. Understanding the motivations of volunteers is therefore likely to be key to managing them successfully. External pressure on clubs for professionalism needs also to be built into the management of volunteers, which may be particularly difficult to achieve.

5 STRENGTHS The survey upon which the analysis was based focuses specifically on volunteering in voluntary sector sports clubs. This is unlike some of the other studies which have been reviewed for Sport England (e.g. Egli et al, 2014).

The paper provides a good overview of the characteristics of stalwarts, the type of volunteer roles they are involved with, and the length of time they spend volunteering. It also covers their motivations for becoming involved as volunteers in sports clubs, which is directly relevant for the Sport England report.

The survey explores how theory might explain the results, which goes beyond many of the other documents reviewed for Sport England.

6 LIMITATIONS

It is not clear what is meant by formal volunteering. Although the definition is stated (a sports club organised by its members), the article goes on to imply there are other types of formal volunteering in sport, which is confusing when trying to interpret the results, which sometimes refer to 'a sports club organised by its members', and sometimes refers to other types of formal volunteering in sport which are not specified.

The survey relied on self-report, thus estimates of time spent volunteering may be inaccurate.

The survey used prompts to determine individuals' motivations for volunteering, which could influence responses. Open questions would avoid this issue.

The survey is cross-sectional, hence causality cannot be implied by the results.

It would have been interesting to look at correlations between the variables measured. It is not clear whether these were investigated or not as the paper doesn't specify how the analyses were conducted.

7 QUOTATIONS None.

8 KEY REFERENCES

Cuskelly, G. 7 Harrington, M. (1997). Volunteers and leisure: Evidence of marginal and career volunteerism in sport. *World Leisure Journal*, 39(3) 11-18

Gratton, C. Nichols, G. Shibli, S and Taylor, P. (1997) Valuing volunteers in UK sport. London: Sports Council.

Shibli, S., Nichols, G., Taylor, P., Gratton, C. and Kokolakis, T. The characteristics of volunteers in UK sports clubs. *European Journal of Sports Management*, special issue, 10-27, 1999.

SPORT WALES (2010a). *Sports volunteering in Wales: Findings from two research studies: Sport Wales research findings*

1 AIM An understanding of Welsh sport's volunteer workforce. The issues and challenges faced by volunteers currently engaged in sport are as follows:

- how coaches and volunteers can be supported to improve their experiences, and those of participants;

- barriers and motivations to coaching and volunteering, amongst those who volunteer, and those who are interested but currently do not;
- how potential sports coaches and volunteers can be engaged and recruited;
- how the skills of coaches and volunteers can best be utilised.

2 ABSTRACT No abstract was provided. The following is a summary of the report:

Sport Wales undertook two research studies into sports volunteering in Wales. One used data from the Active Adults Survey 2008–09 and the other was a qualitative follow-up study based on re-contacting survey respondents who either received coaching or themselves volunteered in sport. The findings informed Sport Wales' Coaching Strategy, and were intended to inform the development of future strategies, plans and resources for Welsh sport at national and local levels. The findings of the survey study concluded that patterns of sports volunteering are in line with previous Active Adults Surveys in that males are more likely to coach and be involved in community sports clubs than females, and females are more likely to be involved in after-school sports clubs than males. It also concluded that participants valued the support, advice and expertise that coaches bring, and that coaches were invaluable to the continued participation of sports participants.

The qualitative study concluded that work to increase the number of sports volunteers in Wales should build on the 'organic model', making it easier for people to 'fall into' volunteering in sport, and that strategies to encourage volunteering should include identifying the needs of volunteers (especially coaches), defining and describing volunteer roles more clearly, encouraging people to ask for help, providing appropriate support for coaches and volunteers, building links with schools and other local organisations. In particular, more help is needed when volunteers wish to grow their club, as this requires increased resources.

3 METHODS

Study 1: Active Adults Survey 2008–09

All quantitative findings are based on results from the Active Adults Survey 2008–09. The Active Adults Survey collects a wealth of data on sports coaching and volunteering amongst adults aged 15 and above in Wales, including:

- who has received sports coaching or instruction at their sports club;
- frequency of coaching or instruction received;
- which sports/activities respondents have received coaching or instruction in;
- who volunteers in sports clubs, after-school sports clubs, and other sport-related activities such as events;
- what roles they undertake;
- how often they volunteer, and how many hours.
- they devote to sports volunteering;
- who would like to volunteer in sport more often.

The qualitative research was carried out in March and April 2010 through semi-structured telephone interviews with 109 adults.

All research participants were drawn from respondents to the Active Adults Survey 2008–09 who had indicated that they would be willing to participate in further research.

The four target groups were:

- existing sport volunteers — 38 interviews.
- people who didn't volunteer in sport, but were interested in doing so — 39 interviews.
- people who weren't interested in coaching/ volunteering in sport — 17 interviews.
- people who receive coaching at a sports club or leisure/fitness centre — 15 interviews.

The qualitative research project covered themes including:

- issues, barriers and motivations behind sports volunteers and volunteering in Wales;
- how volunteers can be recruited and supported;
- the value of coaching and instruction to participants.

This element of the research was undertaken by Brightpurpose Consulting with Shared Intelligence Ltd, on behalf of Sport Wales. The full report can be downloaded from the Sport Wales website.

Note on the methods used: The survey questions were not provided, hence the quality of the questions included in the survey cannot be judged. The study is cross-sectional, therefore causality cannot be inferred by the results.

The telephone interview schedule is also not provided hence it is not known whether interviews followed a similar format and thus are comparable. It is not known if the interviews were transcribed or how the information was analysed — were transcripts coded and thematically analysed, for example? The rationale for the choice of four target groups is not explained and nor are the descriptive statistics (e.g. age, gender, occupation) of interviewees detailed. Was this data collected?

4 RELEVANCE The introduction (p 1) states that there is a clear link between sports participation and level of sports volunteering — this is in contrast to the findings in Gratton et al. (1997), which stated that there was a weak link. Perhaps this indicates a change in the intervening 15 years? If so, what could this change be related to?

(p. 2) Adults with children aged 7–15 were found to be more likely to volunteer in sport, which supports earlier reports (e.g. Gratton et al., 1997) that being a parent is a motivator to participate in volunteering. Another driver appears to be social class, with those from higher social classes being more likely to volunteer in sports clubs whether school or community based. Males tend to volunteer more than females, and far fewer females than males were involved in volunteering in community sports. This pattern is repeated for participating in sports, except for the tendency of parents to participate.

(p. 2) Indicates the types of roles that volunteers hold. Young adults (15–24 year olds) were most likely to coach, whereas those aged 65 or greater were most likely to have administrative roles. Similar findings are observed by other studies (e.g. the 1996 Sport England study, ID 110). Although males and females were equally likely to volunteer in after-school sports clubs, males were more likely to volunteer in other sports clubs. The roles of male and female volunteers demonstrated a similar pattern, with both genders being equally likely to have administrative roles, but males being more likely to coach.

(p. 3) Another motivator to volunteer was participating in the sport, which has been found in previous studies (e.g. Gratton et al., 1997). Sports participants who wanted to compete, learn new skills, have fun and socialise were most likely to volunteer in sports. It is suggested that those interested in sport for reasons beyond health are most likely to volunteer. People tended to volunteer in sports aimed at people of a similar age; where they were involved in children's sports clubs, they tended to have children of similar ages to those in the sports clubs.

(p. 3) also indicates which volunteer roles are most common, as follows:

- coaching (41%)
- administration (37%)
- transport (14%)
- catering (8%)
- other tasks e.g. stewarding (21%)

On average, volunteers devoted 3 hours a week to volunteering, which is similar to the results of the 1996 Sport England study (ID 110). However, unlike the 1996 study, this report found that there were few differences between the length of time volunteers spent volunteering in their different roles. There were no differences in the length of time spent volunteering in school and community clubs. 59% volunteered at least once a week, and 78% volunteered at least once a month. Coaches were most likely to volunteer at least once a week (74%), and students were least likely to.

(p. 4) Routes into volunteering, which could be rephrased as motivators to volunteer, were highlighted as follows:

- students looking for experience and development opportunities (especially coaching), and might themselves aspire to a sports-related career.
- the influence of friends and family e.g. due to having children who want to participate in sport and wanting to spend time with their children.
- 'lovers of sport' who have become older, can no longer compete due to injury, or have reached advanced levels of expertise.
- sense of obligation to provide a 'community service' e.g. having a skill needed by a club and feeling a sense of obligation to give something back to the community.

(p. 5) Different motivators were identified for the retention of volunteers than those which attracted them in the first place. These included:

- enjoyment and satisfaction, although lack of time prevented some volunteers from giving more.
- part of an individual's routine.
- pleasure in seeing the club flourish.

(p. 6) Barriers to volunteering are listed below and could help inform means of encouraging volunteering in sports:

- lack of time.
- funding to put resources into attracting volunteers / setting up clubs.
- child protection issues — volunteers might be put off by the threat of false accusations and the necessary legal checks, and could cause practical problems for coaches involved in contact sports.
- having to work with children who had no interest in the sports club but were enrolled by their parents.
- having to deal with 'pushy' parents.
- being expected to become a coach e.g. in martial arts clubs.

(p. 7) Highlights important barriers:

- not being asked to volunteer.
- individuals believing that they don't have the fitness / skill to coach or volunteer
- not being aware that volunteers were needed.
- individuals believing other causes were more deserving of their time.

(p. 8) Details the value of coaching and volunteering, which could be useful as it adds insight into why volunteers in sport might be motivated to continue volunteering. In essence, participants felt that volunteering benefited them e.g. through training and receiving coaching and being valued by those they volunteer for and the club in general. Volunteers were found to 'make the difference between someone enjoying and sticking with a sport, or giving up'

(p. 8). This suggests they are instrumental for increasing the number of sports participants and maintaining recruits.

5 STRENGTHS The report is concise and comprehensive — it provides a broad overview of volunteering in the UK, who volunteers, their motivations, the issues with recruiting and retaining volunteers etc. By using both quantitative and qualitative techniques, the robustness of the findings are increased.

6 LIMITATIONS The report is 5 years old hence it is not up to date. The study methods are cross-sectional yet the report makes some statements of causality. Since the surveys were cross-sectional, the results of any analysis cannot infer causality (e.g. the report states that the reason for younger adults volunteering with younger children is due to having children the same age. There may be a correlation between the two, but this does not imply causation).

There is little detail about how the studies were conducted or analysed. What quantitative analyses were conducted? How were the telephone interviews analysed? Were the interviews transcribed? What were the characteristics of those taking part in the interviews?

The report doesn't provide an in-depth exploration of the motivations of volunteers in sport, e.g. by integrating the findings into current theory / developing new theory. Doing so, however, could help understand the motivations of volunteers and thus help inform ways of recruiting and retaining them.

7 QUOTATIONS None related to motivation to volunteer in sports.

8 KEY REFERENCES None of particular relevance to motivation of volunteers in sports.

SPORT WALES (2010b). *Sports volunteering in Wales: Final report for Sport Wales.* <http://sport.wales/media/937047/volfupeng201005.pdf>

1 AIM The aim of this paper was to use qualitative methods with a sample of people who responded to the Welsh Active Adults Survey (2008/9) to find out the following:

- issues and challenges faced by volunteers currently engaged in coaching and other volunteering activities.
- how coaches and other volunteers can be supported to improve their experiences, and those of participants.
- barriers and motivations to coaching and other volunteering roles, amongst those who volunteer, and those who are interested in doing so but currently do not.
- how potential sports volunteers can be engaged and recruited.
- how the skills of coaches and other volunteers can best be utilised.

In particular, four groups of people were targeted:

- those involved in sports volunteering or coaching already.
- those wishing to volunteer more in sport (existing volunteers and those not yet volunteering).
- those who are not interested in volunteering in sport.
- those who receive coaching at a sports club or leisure/fitness centre.

2 ABSTRACT No abstract, but a summary of the document is provided as follows:

'This study used semi-structured telephone interviews with respondents of the Welsh Active Adults Survey (2008/9) to find out issues and challenges faced by volunteers, their motivations to volunteer, barriers to volunteering, and how volunteers can be supported, recruited and used most effectively. Of particular importance for the Sport England review, it was found that there are four main routes into, or motivations for, volunteering: 1) being parents of children already participating in the sport; 2) being a sports lover with a passion for

the sport; 3) being a skilled volunteer, i.e. able to offer a skill required by the organisation; and 4) being a student looking for experience and to develop his / her CV. The findings had important implications for Sport Wales and how coaches and volunteers are recruited, and the authors recommend that Sport Wales focus their activity around strengthen the coaching and volunteering base locally, by supporting clubs and centres to recruit and support more volunteers and coaches. The authors further suggest that Sport Wales should engage with lead partners and offer them direction and advice on how partner organisations can work with and support local clubs and leisure/fitness centres, to build their capacity to recruit and support volunteers.'

3 METHODS 109 semi-structured telephone interviews were carried out, and the topic guides are provided in an appendix.

All respondents of the Welsh Active Adults Survey (2008/9) who said they would be willing to participate in further research were contacted.

Analysis consisted of manual content analysis and use of the qualitative data analysis package, NVivo, to identify key themes and findings. The team also worked together collaboratively through an analytical session, to triangulate the data and agree key themes and conclusions.

4 RELEVANCE Section 3.3 (p. 10+) details the motivation and drivers for becoming a volunteer in coaching and other roles, which is particularly important for the Sport England review. Key findings were as follows:

- few existing coaches made a conscious choice to become involved in coaching. Those that did tended to be students and young people looking for experience to support their studies in sports or teaching and to help them find paid work by enhancing their CV. Most, however, 'fell into it' or got 'roped in'.
- commonly, people volunteered due to the participation of their children in the sport, as well as due to social networks and because they had a particular skill or were able to commit a particular amount of time.

Other motivations to become involved in volunteering were:

- passion for the sport, as opposed to wanting to coach per se. People in this category became coaches due to having reached an advanced level or retiring from playing the sport competitively. In some sports, it was expected that experienced members would help out by coaching younger members.
- providing positive activities. For example, providing a 'community service', especially when clubs were under threat of being shut down. Many coaches and non-coach volunteers volunteered due to believing in the benefits that sports provided to people, especially young people.

Motivations for existing coaches and volunteers were as follows:

- enjoyment, reward and satisfaction from their role, due to 'putting something back in' to their sport / the community and seeing people progress and develop confidence.
- not seeing themselves as 'volunteers' but just as the role being part of their routine, a lifestyle choice, and couldn't see a reason not to do it. This was particularly true of those who had participated in the sport before becoming coaches.
- pleasure at seeing the club grow and be successful as a result of their contributions
- feeling that the club relies on them and needs them to ensure the future of the club. This was the case for some coaches who wanted to leave the club but felt they couldn't.
- being a parent. Some planned to stop volunteering if their child decided to leave the club.

- satisfaction from working with children and sharing enjoyment from the sport with them.

Barriers to volunteering were discussed in section 3.6.1 (p. 14) but are not summarised here as they are not directly relevant to the aims of the Sport England review, which focuses on the motivations of volunteers. Suffice it to say that the two main barriers were time and opportunities not having arisen, which reflects findings from other studies. Coaches and non-coach volunteers who would like to do more but felt unable to cited time, resources and lack of funding as reasons why they couldn't do more. This could lead to volunteers losing interest (motivation) in continuing in their role.

(p. 26) In conclusion, participants of sport highly valued the role of coaches and volunteers in other roles, due to them helping individuals technically improve, providing motivation and inspiration, and helping to retain sports participants and attract new ones. Whilst coaches and volunteers reportedly made a huge contribution to sport in their communities, they also derived significant personal benefit from doing so. They reported a sense of satisfaction and reward from seeing others develop and in some cases simply from helping give kids an alternative to hanging around on street corners. For many non-coach volunteers, their role also gave them an opportunity to spend more time with their children. The vast majority of coaches and other volunteers 'fell into' their role.

In summary, there were four main routes into coaching and other volunteer roles, as follows:

- active parents — they are already on the sidelines (often literally) of the club or class, and get involved in helping out because the club/class expresses a need. These tend to be aged 30–45, be in full-time or part-time employment or unemployed, and have a role as coach in after school clubs or clubs their children attend outside of school. Their motivations include: spending time with their children; setting a good example for their children; encouraging their children to get involved in sports; and being asked and wanting to help for the good of the club.
- sports lovers — as they either become older, can no longer compete through injury or have reached advance levels of expertise, they get involved in coaching or in behind the scenes volunteering. They tend to be aged 20–55 and have a coaching role, though older volunteers tend to have a non-coaching role. Their motivations include: their passion for their sport; wanting to give something back; and in some sports, an expectation to coach.
- skilled volunteers (e.g. driving, administration, accounting) — they usually hear about the club's need through friends or family and respond to that need. They tend to be aged 45+ though some were younger, and be in either full- or part-time employment, or retired. They took on non-coaching roles and motivations included: giving something back — they recognise that people like them made it possible to participate when they were younger; recognising the benefit they can bring; and a desire to help — particularly if a friend/family member has asked them to help.
- students — they are looking for the experience and development opportunities that come with coaching and volunteering. This group of people tend to be aged 18–25, be involved in coaching and have two primary motivations: experience and CV development. This is the only group who actively sought coaching experience.

Of these routes, only the last (students) involves proactively seeking out an opportunity to coach or volunteer. There is a detailed table in the appendix which describes in detail the typical roles, motivations and barriers for each group (p. 40), which is particularly useful for the Sport England review, and has been summarised in the four main routes into volunteering above.

5 STRENGTHS A detailed descriptive report identifying how people become involved in coaching and other volunteer roles, what motivated them to start volunteering, what motivates them to continue volunteering etc. This is particularly pertinent for the Sport England review. The table on p. 40 detailing the typology of volunteers is particularly useful and a good concise summary of the narrative information provided in the rest of the report.

6 LIMITATIONS It is not known how the Welsh Active Adults Survey sampled the volunteer population, or the response rates, preventing a critical assessment of the generaliseability of the results from this survey and also from the study under review here.

The authors attempted to 'get as good a spread as possible' across a variety of demographic variables, however, it is not stated how this was attempted. Was a stratified sampling strategy used, for example?

It is not known if the telephone interviews were recorded and transcribed, or whether interviewers just took notes. The former would lead to more robust results.

It is not stated what is meant by 'manual content analysis'. For example, did this involve manually coding the transcripts and conducting a frequency analysis of the amount of times a particular code occurs, and then creating themes?

Did people understand what was meant by 'coach'? It appears that 'coach' in this study refers to fitness class instructors as well as football / rugby / cricket coaches. This may not be a natural assumption for everyone.

7 QUOTATIONS

(p. 10) Having children as a motivation to volunteer is expressed by the following quote from a rugby coach:

'My son was learning so I started by helping out with the under-nines... I started off helping out two coaches. One coach moved on with his boy to the under-twelves. The other coach I was helping has two children and wanted to spend time with his daughter, so didn't continue. Consequently I became the lead.'

Other quotations providing examples of different motivations to volunteer:

'I fell into the role — I was able to offer the time the club needed.' — Boxing coach

'I didn't intend to be a coach, but I started my career as a teacher and so it seemed like a natural thing to do.' — Water sports coach and volunteer

'I was playing myself when I was young and wanted to continue my involvement with the sport now that I'm older.' — Rugby Club volunteer

'We went to a class and the teacher left, but we were desperate to keep it going. Organising the club ourselves was necessary — it would have folded otherwise... You get people with illnesses — MS or depression — and it's a help for them to be able to keep going.' — Tai Chi Club volunteer

'Just personal enjoyment, that's why I continued as a volunteer ...The fulfillment I get, that's the main thing... seeing them complete the expedition' — Expedition Trainer

'There's no motivation — it's just something you do, part of your daily life.' — Boxing club coach

8 KEY REFERENCES No references are provided and none are referred to, apart from the Welsh Active Adults survey (2008/9).

SPORT WALES (2012). *Committed workforce: Evidence to support the Community Sport Strategy*

1 AIM The aim of this document is to provide an overview of the types of people who volunteer in sport in Wales, the main routes into volunteering, the support available for coaches and volunteers, and the importance of leisure centre staff, with a view to drawing up an agenda for increasing the number of volunteers, and thus the number of people participating in sport.

2 ABSTRACT A summary provided at the beginning of the document:

- volunteers are vital to the running of Welsh sport, and will be vital to delivering our Vision for Sport in Wales. The economic value of volunteering in sport in Wales is over £160m per year.
- there is sufficient demand from people interested in volunteering to meet the target set out in the Coaching Strategy, but most potential volunteers are not proactive and will need to be asked to volunteer by others.
- Wales' sporting workforce—at all levels—does not reflect the population of Wales, however. Instead it reflects the population of sports club members in Wales.
- the workforce will need to take a more customer-focused approach to developing and delivering sport if we are to significantly increase participation, particularly in club sport.

3 METHODS The document reports statistics from six sources, including the Active Adults Survey, 2008/9, and Sport Wales (2010). This is a necessarily limited number of sources, given the length of the document, and it is unknown if these sources reflect the wider literature concerning volunteering in sport in Wales.

Those most likely to volunteer in sport in Wales are indicated to be:

- parents of school-age children
- sports participants.
- young people, especially students.
- from higher social grades.

Motivations to volunteer include the desire for competition, to learn new skills, for fun, to socialise, to give something back to the community, and because he / she already participates in a sport or is a parent on the side-line.

Men and women were found to be equally likely to volunteer in after-school sports clubs but had different roles, with men being 3 times more likely to coach than women, and more likely to volunteer in community sports clubs. However, 75% of Wales' volunteer coaches and Chairs of sports organisations are men. The document highlights a desire to redress this balance and recruit volunteers outside of sports clubs, as those recruited from within sports clubs tend to be from a certain demographic (male and from higher social classes).

Four main routes into volunteering, along with motivations to volunteer, are highlighted:

- students looking for experience and development opportunities. These are typically aged 18–25, over half are male, their primary role is as coach, they tend to aspire to a professional sports career and actively seek out volunteering opportunities.
- sport lovers who have become older, can no longer compete through injury or have reached advanced levels of expertise. These vary in age from 20–55, are more likely to coach than take on other roles, and are motivated by a passion for their sport or a wish to progress as coach.
- active parents who are already on the side-lines may volunteer when their club expresses a need. These parents are typically aged 30–45, are also more likely to coach, are moti-

vated by spending time with, and supporting, their children, and have little desire to progress.

- skilled volunteers respond to a club need, are typically 45 years of age or older, tend to take on non-coaching roles, are motivated by a desire to give something back to the community and tend to be asked through their existing social networks.

The document suggests that coaches and volunteers generally feel well supported, however, more support is required when trying to grow the club, and mentoring opportunities and local support networks would be welcomed. Importantly, it is suggested that the motivations of coaches has a strong impact on participants and participant retention, and that they should be encouraged to take a child-centred approach to delivering sport.

The document concludes by suggesting that volunteers in sport need to be sought and people specifically asked to volunteer, in order to increase the number of sports volunteers.

4 RELEVANCE 5% of Welsh adults volunteer in sport, contributing 10,000 hours a year.

The economic value of sports volunteers is estimated to be over £160 million per year.

There is a link between level of sports volunteering and sports participation across the EU, therefore, to get more people participating in sport, Wales would like to increase the number of sports volunteers.

5 STRENGTHS Simple, clear overview of the statistics related to volunteering in sport in Wales, including the roles and motivations of volunteers, which supports the findings of literature pertaining to volunteering in sport in England.

6 LIMITATIONS The source assumes that volunteering in sport leads to participating in sport, however, it is not indicated how this is known, the document merely suggests that there is a link between the two. It is likely that this 'link' is determined by a correlation, as opposed to regressions based on data from a longitudinal study, which are more likely to be able to determine causality. Therefore, it could be that the reverse relationship is true; that participating in sport leads to people then volunteering in sport.

The information is limited to Wales, whereas Sport England is interested mainly in the state of volunteering in England. However, the source provides general support for the roles and motivations of volunteers in sport, which supports the findings of sources related to volunteering in England, suggesting that the information is generaliseable.

7 QUOTATIONS None.

8 KEY REFERENCES

Active Adults Survey 2008–9.

Sport Wales (2010). Sports Volunteering in Wales: a Research Summary – this source appeared to be particularly useful for identifying the main routes into volunteering and the main motivations for volunteering and therefore could be particularly useful for the review for Sport England.

SPORT WALES (2014). *Active adults 2012, the state of the nation*

1 AIM Summary of sports participation and volunteering in Wales in 2012.

2 ABSTRACT No abstract is provided due to this document not being a journal article but gray literature. The following is a summary of the purpose of the report and provides an indication of its contents:

This report summarises the findings from the Sports Wales Active Adults Survey. It is used to help set strategic priorities and shape sport, health and education policies. The survey also helps Sport Wales to understand the motivations, barriers and un-met demand for sports

participation amongst adults in Wales, as well as patterns of non-participation. In addition, it informs performance management at local, regional and national levels and gives Sport Wales the opportunity to update its segmentation tools. The survey data is used by other key users, such as local authorities, National Governing Bodies of Sport (NGBs), as well as other policy makers and practitioners in, for example, sport, leisure and culture, health, education, and transport. The results include the number of sports volunteers and changes, and demonstrates a trend towards more people volunteering but for less time each.

3 METHODS A survey was conducted and it is implied in the text that it was completed via interview, however, this is not clear. A random probability sampling method was employed in 2012 to determine the sample. No other details about how this was conducted are provided.

4 RELEVANCE There is no information regarding the motivations of sports volunteers contained in this report, therefore it is not directly relevant for the Sport England review. However, an overview of the numbers of volunteers participating in volunteering in sports, the type of activities carried out, and the sports to which these volunteers are affiliated, is provided (p. 6). These are summarised in the following paragraph.

(p. 6) 10% of adults who participated in the survey volunteered in sport during the previous 12 months, which was an increase of 5% since 2008/9. 49% of these volunteered on a weekly basis, with more males volunteering (12%) than females (9%). However, the number of hours spent volunteering decreased from 3.1 to 2.1. Figure 6 (p. 6) details which types of activities volunteers helped with; the most common ones were coaching, administration and refereeing. Fewer people with long-term illnesses volunteered (5%) than those without (9%). 10% of adults had volunteered in a coaching capacity in the previous 12 months, however, this figure includes those getting paid, which suggests that a different definition for 'volunteer' was employed by Sports Wales than other reports have employed ('volunteer' is usually considered to be someone who does not get paid for carrying out tasks related to sports). The information provided by this report is useful for the current report as the figures can be compared to those from reports focused on other areas of the UK.

5 STRENGTHS Concise summary of figures relating to sports participation and volunteering. Tracking data could be obtained as the survey is conducted every two years.

6 LIMITATIONS No detail provided regarding how the survey was administered (was it via interviews as implied, or via post, e-mail etc.?), how the random probability sampling method was conducted, or how the analysis was conducted and by whom.

No implications or conclusions provided. No indication of how the results have / will be used in practice.

7 QUOTATIONS None.

8 KEY REFERENCES None.

TAYLOR, P., NICHOLS, G., HOLMES, K., JAMES, M., GRATTON, C., GARRETT, R., KOKOLAKAKIS, T., MULDER, C. AND KING, L. (2003). *Sports volunteering in England*. London: Sport England

1 AIM The research aimed to:

- quantify the contribution made to English sport by volunteers, building on previous research carried out in 1995;
- identify the nature of volunteering in sport in England and the challenges faced by volunteers and volunteer managers;

- identify and evaluate the support provided to sports volunteers and volunteer managers; and
- identify the benefits associated with sports volunteering.

2 ABSTRACT This research aimed to investigate the nature, extent and benefits of volunteering with sports in England. Telephone interviews with 1,005 representatives of sports organisations, 72 focus groups with volunteers in sports clubs, 21 focus groups with young people, questionnaires with focus group attendees, and the results of a national Omnibus survey with 4, 458 adults representative of the national population, informed this report and covered 103 sports. Sport was found to be the largest single field of volunteering in the country, with an estimated 5,821,400 volunteers contributing 1,209,566,500 hours of work, valued at a total of £14,139,832,000, and helping to sustain 106,400 affiliated clubs in England with over 8 million members. The report discusses the profile of sports volunteers, issues and challenges for sports volunteers, the main pressures facing voluntary organisations, the motivations of sports volunteers, the management of sports volunteers, volunteer strategies and co-ordinators, the Volunteer Investment Programme and other external support, young people and volunteering, and the benefits of volunteering. It concludes that sports volunteering should be at the forefront of any central or local government policy to promote volunteering, given the identified scale and importance of sports volunteering. It is suggested that future research could investigate the views of non-volunteers within sports organisations, which were not sought in this study, as these could be useful to gain insight into why people are not choosing to volunteer in sports, and thus how to recruit them.

3 METHODS

Four primary research methods were used to achieve the objectives of this research:

- questions on volunteering in sport were included in a national Omnibus survey, conducted by BMRB International with 8,458 adults selected to be representative of the national population.
- 1,005 telephone interviews were carried out with representatives of national governing bodies, regional/county associations, clubs, schools, universities and colleges, major events, youth organisations, disability organisations, and local authorities.
- 72 focus groups were carried out in sports clubs, with volunteers (51 groups, 308 respondents) and young people (21 groups, 94 respondents) representing 12 major sports. Half the young people attending were volunteers, the other half were club members.
- questionnaire surveys were completed with the 308 sports volunteers and 94 young people in the focus groups, administered before the qualitative discussions.

See no. 6 for some critical analysis points relating to these methods.

4 RELEVANCE The following information related to the motivations of volunteers was based on the Executive Summary:

- parents are a major source of recruiting new volunteers, who are motivated to participate in volunteering due to their child's participation (vi).
- Recruitment was reported to be easier when roles required little commitment and skills. This suggests that not having to commit or learn new skills may be motivators for volunteering in sport (p. vi).

The most commonly identified motivations were both intrinsic (e.g. a desire for social benefits, wanting to give something back to the club) and extrinsic (e.g. wanting to help as a (parent). This supports findings from other reviews (e.g. Gratton et al, 1996). The authors indicate that different motivations have different implications, with motivations such as social benefit and enjoyment not so conducive to helping organisations become better organised

as motivations such as giving something back and wanting the club to be successful (p. vii).

Chapter 4 'Issues and Challenges' contains a section on the motivations of volunteers which may inform the current review (p. 71). Motivations included enthusiasm for the sport, affiliation to the club, and the social benefits. The focus groups supported these findings, with the most frequently cited motivations being the social benefits (intrinsic motivation), wanting to give something back to a club (intrinsic motivation), and wanting to help as a parent (extrinsic motivation).

Table 4.3 (p. 72) lists the attractions to volunteering most commonly cited and thus could have implications for policy development regarding how to recruit volunteers in sport. It is noted that motivations vary across the different sports, and even within sports, depending on the club a volunteer belongs to. For example, volunteers in professional football clubs are focused on helping the club survive, whereas volunteers in junior football clubs tend to be parents focused on providing the best opportunities for the children. This suggests that generalising results from one sport to another is not appropriate, supporting the conclusions drawn from a later report (Weed et al., 2005).

The main reasons why people initially started volunteering with a club were gleaned from questionnaires with focus group participants and reflected the findings of the national population survey in that one of the most common reasons cited was being a parent.

Table 4.4. (p. 75) lists the reasons sourced from the focus group questionnaires.

The differences between why people initially began volunteering (Table 4.4) and what motivates them now (Table 4.3) suggests that strategies directed at attracting and maintaining volunteers should be targeted differently. This is in addition to targeting the key reasons why volunteers volunteer for a particular club, which were acknowledged to vary.

Chapter 6 (p. 107) describes the volunteer roles of the 46 young people who took part in the focus groups, and indicates the general number of hours spent volunteering per week. 9% volunteered as officers at their club, 30% were involved with coaching, teaching and umpiring, 39% with practical help and 23% with administrative help. In season, these volunteers spent an average of 3.2 hours volunteering, and out of hours this number was 3 hours. More specifically, the focus groups revealed that young people tend to be most involved with minor activities such as helping to run events (e.g. marshalling, fundraising & refreshments), and coaching. The extent of volunteering varied within and between sports. For example, in bowls, there were few volunteers in the 16–24 age bracket and at one football club focus group participants could not remember young people being involved as volunteers other than in coaching as part of a college course. At another football club, 15 young people volunteered by acting as ball boys, stewards, turnstile operators etc. Similarly, in one swimming club there were no young volunteers whereas in another all the respondents were volunteers. More formal positions occur when a junior section is present in a club, such as team captain and junior representative. Senior committee positions are rare. In higher education institutions, young people take on a greater range of roles, including main officer roles, arranging transport, selecting and organising teams, organising social events, the annual club tour, maintaining the club's website and membership recruitment.

Chapter 7 (p. 134) focuses on the benefits of volunteering in sport, and Table 7.1 notes the most frequently cited benefits (p. 135). The two most commonly cited individual benefits were the social benefits and enjoyment. These are considered intrinsic, primary motivations for volunteering. Other, extrinsic motivations include 'giving something back' to the club, satisfaction, pride in helping the club do well, achievement / reward / challenge, sense of

belonging to the club and sports community etc. Less well reported benefits cited included stress release, self-fulfillment, involvement in the club after retiring from playing, ability to use skills from paid work etc. This information can inform the current review generally, regarding the motivations of sports volunteers.

Chapter 7 also discusses the benefits for young people as a separate demographic, which can contribute to the current review regarding the differences in volunteer motivations across the lifespan (pp. 135–6). In particular, young people tended to focus on the benefits of volunteering for their CVs, which was different to adults, however, like adults, the social benefits and enjoyment were commonly cited benefits. Other benefits young people cited included learning, contributing to a successful club, and increased participation. There is also discussion of how adult perceptions of the benefits to young people differs from the perceptions of young people themselves (p. 136), which suggests that subjective and objective benefits exist, and perhaps objective benefits are not always clear to everyone. This is particularly highlighted on p.140 which states that 'not all focus groups found it possible to identify the benefits of their sports volunteering to their communities.' Increasing peoples' awareness of the benefits they may not have thought about could be one way of attracting more volunteers. The chapter goes on to discuss the benefits of volunteering to the club and the community. These could also be useful to highlight when trying to attract volunteers, encouraging citizenship.

- 5 STRENGTHS** Builds on the 1996 report, therefore provides continued coverage of the field. For example, the same sports were selected for focus groups as for the previous report. It is acknowledged that it is not possible to compare the results of the two reports due to differences in the methods employed, which involved the interviewing of a different sample of clubs, the employment of a single researcher who was responsible for all the interviews, and the use of e-mail.

All the research instruments are present in an appendix, which helps to make the research methods transparent. Large amount of sports covered.

Large samples involved in both the survey and the focus groups / interviews.

6 LIMITATIONS

How generally representative are the samples of volunteers in sport?

Some information is missing from the methods — see no 4 above. In particular, it is not clear how the samples from the Omnibus questionnaire were weighted, or how the samples for the focus groups were recruited once the clubs had been selected.

Single researcher carried out the telephone interviews, maintaining consistency. Was this researcher experienced in telephone interviewing?

Point A2 — no explanation of how the 1255 sports volunteers who formed part of the 4458 national population Omnibus survey sample were weighted. Demographic strata upon which the weighting occurred are listed; however, it is not known what the proportions were, who carried out the weighting, or, indeed, what source was used to determine the demographics of the UK population to which the sample was weighted. There is no rationale for why weighting is appropriate. Can we generalise the findings to 'all adults in England?'

How were people recruited within the clubs for the focus groups? Who carried out the focus groups? A few people, or one person? Did whoever carried them out have experience in conducting focus groups? Was a standard protocol followed (e.g. Krueger & Casey, 2015)? How many people took part in each focus group? Who transcribed them and how were they coded?

7 QUOTATIONS

(p. 73) The social benefits of volunteering in sport are highlighted in the following quote from a volunteer at a rugby club:

"We are a community club, we are a social gathering and that's what people like. This is a focal point for the surrounding area."

(p. 135) The extrinsic motivation of 'giving something back to the club' can be clearly observed in the following quotation:

"For me personally the benefits are what I can give to the kids, things that I didn't have. Plus, there is a nice feeling at the end of the day of having put something back. We're a community within a community. It's nice to be a part of it." (chair, rugby club)

(p. 136) The benefits of volunteering for young people are highlighted in the following quotation:

"[volunteering] empowers young people in the club, involves them in the club, and raises their level of importance to the club, raises their profile". (swimming club)

(p. 140) The benefits of volunteering for increasing citizenship are highlighted in the following quotation:

"[Citizenship] makes us better citizens and helps us to value our community. Encourages young people to take an active role in society." (young volunteer, sailing club)

8 KEY REFERENCES None identified.

TAYLOR, P. D., PANAGOULEAS, T. & NICHOLS, G. (2012). Determinants of sports volunteering and sports volunteer time in England. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 4, 201–220

- 1 AIM** To examine the determinants of sports volunteering and sports volunteer time in England
- 2 ABSTRACT** This article uses the largest available data set in the United Kingdom to identify the determinants of the decision to volunteer in sport and the amount of time contributed to it. Sport in England relies heavily on volunteers for delivery of participation, which is important for government policy, particularly the Big Society and especially in an environment of public expenditure cuts. Yet intelligence on the nature of sports volunteering is limited. Previous descriptions from national surveys of volunteers in sport have not addressed the independent effects of the demographic and socio-economic variables concerned, nor the distinction between numbers of volunteers and the time they give. This study remedies both shortcomings, analysing national survey data to identify significant influences on both the decision to volunteer and the time given. It identifies significant variations in the expected volunteering rate by gender, age, ethnicity, education, income and the number and age of dependent children. With respect to the time given to sports volunteering, there are significant variations by gender, age and employment status but conspicuously not by education and income. A policy dilemma is that targeting those most likely to volunteer and give time would reinforce existing inequalities in sports volunteering.
- 3 METHODS** The study analyses secondary data from the Active People Survey 1 (APS1), a random telephone survey conducted between October 2005 & October 2006 with adults of at least 16 years of age (N= 363, 724). This survey asked whether respondents had volunteered in sport in the previous 4 weeks and how much time they had given to volunteering in the previous 4 weeks. Regression analyses were conducted to determine the predictive power of a range of variables (e.g. household income) on the decision to volunteer and the amount of time spent volunteering.

4 RELEVANCE The paper does not directly discuss the motivations of volunteers. Demographic factors which are related to those who volunteer are discussed, however, why these factors might be related to volunteering are not discussed. In particular having children is positively related to volunteering, which supports other reports which indicate that being a parent is a motivation to volunteer in sports. Taylor et al. (this study) found that the greater the number of children a parent has, the stronger the relationship with volunteering. However, parents with a child under 5 are not likely to volunteer.

(p. 216) A possible motivator to volunteer in sports is suggested to be dissatisfaction with the local sport provision. In summary, being male, aged 55–64, a part-time student, retired or unemployed, White British, and having children, are positively associated with more time spent volunteering in sport. Factors which were related to the decision to volunteer but not to the time spent volunteering, were having an income of £26,000 or higher, wealth and having a high level of education.

(p. 217) Gender as an important factor in who volunteers was found by 4 previous surveys (Sports Council 1996, Davis Smith 1998, Attwood et al., 2003 & Taylor et al., 2003), with males volunteering rates much higher than female. Three previous studies found young people to volunteer most (Davis Smith 1998, Attwood et al., 2003, Sport England 2009), whereas two suggested 35–59 year olds provided the most volunteers (Sports Council 1996, Taylor et al., 2003). Taylor et al., (2012; the study under review) found a non-linear relationship between age and volunteering, with 16–24 year olds having the highest level of volunteering, with 35–44 and 45–54 year olds having the next highest level. This supports the previous surveys.

White ethnicity was found by two previous surveys to be related to volunteering, as it was by this study (Attwood et al., 2003, Sport England 2009). Paid work was also found to be a positive influence by this study and two previous studies, though this study included full time student status under the bracket of 'paid work.' Two previous surveys identify income as important (above £26,000), similar to this study.

Sport England (2009) found education to be a positive influence on volunteering, as did this study.

In contrast, this study does not consistently suggest disability as a negative influence on sports volunteering, as Sport England (2009) found, and they also suggest that only having children above 5 years old is a positive influence.

The results of this study are generally in agreement with previous surveys, strengthening the support for the relationship between gender, age, ethnicity, and education on volunteering rates.

(p. 218) presents a useful summary of the factors which are related to the propensity to volunteer in sports:

- people with more than one car in the household
- people with higher levels of dissatisfaction with local sports provision
- males
- people with children in the household (but the youngest older than 5 years)

and with the demographic factors which are related to the decision to volunteer but not to the time spent volunteering:

- people of White British ethnicity
- people with higher levels of education qualifications
- people who own their houses
- people on higher incomes.

- 5 STRENGTHS** Method of analysis very clear and appropriate. Good overview of the demographics associated with those who volunteer in sport. Comparison of the demographic relationship with volunteering rates with previous studies is useful and builds support for the factors identified as being related to volunteering.
- 6 LIMITATIONS** The paper does not discuss the rationale for why certain demographic features are related to whether people choose to volunteer in sports or not, it merely states where there is a positive relationship between a variable and the decision to volunteer or time spent volunteering.
- 7 QUOTATIONS** None.
- 8 KEY REFERENCES**

Previous surveys which generally support the findings of this study:

- Attwood, C., et al., 2003. 2001 Home Office Citizenship Survey: people, families and communities [online]. London: Home Office. Available from: <http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs2/hors270.pdf> [Accessed 5 January 2011].
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- Sport England (2009). Active People Survey 1 [online]. Available from: http://www.sport-england.org/research/active_people_survey/active_people_survey_1.aspx [Accessed 5 January 2011].
- Taylor, P., et al., 2003. Sports volunteering in England [online]. London: Sport England. http://www.sportengland.org/research/research_archive.aspx [Accessed 5 January 2011].

WEED, M., ROBINSON, L., DOWNWARD, P., GREEN, M., HENRY, I., HOULIHAN, B., & ARGENT, E. (2005). Academic review of the role of voluntary sports clubs. *Institute of Sport & Leisure Policy, Loughborough University*

- 1 AIM** The Institute of Sport & Leisure Policy (ISLP) at Loughborough University was commissioned by Sport England to conduct a review of the academic evidence on the role of voluntary sports clubs.
- 2 ABSTRACT** A systematic review was conducted to explore the literature on the role of voluntary sports clubs. Seven databases were searched (Sports Discus, Zetoc, Web of Science/Web of Science Proceedings, IBSS, CABI Abstracts, Science Direct and Lexis Nexis), revealing 65 documents which met the inclusion criteria ('relevance' and 'quality'). Three themes emerged: 1) the voluntary context, including the characteristics of the voluntary sector and support for voluntary organisations; 2) volunteerism, including volunteer profiles, the link between formal and informal volunteering, and the benefits of volunteering; and 3) the management of voluntary organisations, including organisational commitment, the professionalisation of sports clubs and governance, and 'how to manage.' The review concluded that the future of voluntary organisations is uncertain, that researchers should avoid generalising research findings from one particular context to other contexts, and that more research on the role of voluntary sports clubs is needed in order to inform the development of policy. It was also revealed that volunteers do not want to be managed, which the authors suggest implies that voluntary sports clubs should not be used as a policy tool for delivering participation and performance goals, as this may lead to a lack of volunteer commitment and problems in recruiting and retaining volunteers. Future research directions are discussed.

3 METHODS

Stage 1: The systematic review. The following process was adopted for the systematic review:

- 7 databases were searched:
- Sports Discus (peer reviewed & 'grey' sport literature)
- Zetoc (peer reviewed & 'grey' business and management literature)
- Web of Science/Web of Science Proceedings (peer reviewed and 'grey' literature in a range of disciplines)
- IBSS (peer reviewed and 'grey' social science literature)
- CABI Abstracts (peer reviewed leisure literature)
- Science Direct (peer reviewed social science literature)
- Lexis Nexis (press articles)
- ten other organisations were also contacted, including international organisations and organisations based in North America, Australia and New Zealand
- keywords were decided based on team discussion and 5578 documents were returned from initial searching using these keywords. The exact searches are not listed hence it is not known how the keywords were combined to create a search. Abstracts were filtered based on a scan of the titles, and abstracts were retrieved for 600 documents. These documents were split between members of the review panel for further filtering and a meeting was held with Sport England to discuss which should be retrieved in full, leading to further searches being conducted. Following this process, 104 full documents were retrieved, 39 of which were later excluded, leaving 65 documents which were included in the review.

Notes about the quality of the process (Section 2.2, p. 12–17):

- no clear table of inclusion / exclusion criteria included. The only clear criteria was that the documents should have been published from 1994 onwards.
- no flow diagram indicating the numbers returned by each search and the reasons for exclusion at each stage of the process. There is some discussion of these reasons in the text, however. For example, grey literature was excluded which simply provided 'how to' advice.
- the rationale for why no formal quality criteria is used centres of the argument that the quality of qualitative data cannot be judged in the strict way that quantitative data can. A counter-argument, however, is that there are criteria upon which qualitative data can be judged, such as trust worthiness, the traceability of methods conducted, the use of triangulation etc.

Stage 2: Thematic analysis (p. 18) No detail regarding how the thematic analysis was undertaken. Some questions regarding this procedure are as follows:

- were studies coded?
- were predetermined categories used?
- how were the themes decided?
- was there a particular epistemology which was followed?
- did all researchers follow the same procedure?

4 RELEVANCE One of the themes which emerged from the review was 'volunteerism' (p. 21). This theme included a sub theme, 'volunteer profiles' which discussed the motivation of sports volunteers.

One paper (Nichols & King, 2000) revealed that motivations of volunteers in the Guides movement changed over time. For example, the development of long-term friendships was

cited as a maintenance factor. Initial reasons for volunteering were not provided. Barriers to volunteering were cited as family commitments and lack of time. This has implications for the current review as it provides evidence for some of the motivations and barriers faced by volunteers.

Another paper (Shibli et al., 1999) revealed that motivations to volunteer included being asked, and a need for sports opportunities. Volunteers citing these reasons tended to be higher educated, in full-time employment and without children and it is inferred that this is why these volunteers were able to volunteer more hours. Shibli et al. also highlight a 'career path' for volunteers, which supported other work conducted on volunteering in UK Cricket (e.g. Coleman, 2002). This work contributes to the discussion in the current review about how motivations of volunteers differ across the lifespan in the UK. These findings were also observed in Dutch sports clubs, where parents also cited time constraints as a barrier to volunteering. This suggests that these findings may be generalisable across nations.

Work specifically completed with English sports clubs highlighted that volunteers do not want to be managed, or manage others, which has important implications for attracting new recruits and maintaining old ones.

The third sub-theme within the main theme of 'Volunteerism' was 'benefits of volunteering' (p. 25), and is of particular relevance for the current review. This section suggests that social capital is a key reason for volunteering, and that individual and social benefits result from volunteering, with active citizenship playing an important role. The concept of social capital and active citizenship could be explored further in the current review. Nichols et al. (2004) suggest that volunteering may actually increase exclusion, as each group of people tend to have very similar interests and values, and hence are more likely to attract volunteers who can relate to them. This could have implications for recruiting volunteers.

5 STRENGTHS An extensive search was completed in seven databases and other organisations were also contacted.

The procedure for the search is reported in detail, although more detail could have been provided e.g. the exact searches conducted, the exact reason for excluding each document which was excluded

6 LIMITATIONS Limited amount on the motivations of volunteering (p. 21–22 mainly) and the information which is provided is quite general. The report itself states that while there was much literature on motivations of volunteering in general, only a limited amount pertained to volunteering in sports clubs specifically.

There is no critical evaluation of the material covered in the review. For example, we don't know how data was collected in empirical papers covered, how it was analysed etc.

The review itself states that there is 'no high quality research' and therefore 'no evidence base' on which to make policy. This includes evidence for the motivations of volunteers.

7 QUOTATIONS None

8 KEY REFERENCES

Nichols, G. and King L. (2000). The changing motivations and frustrations facing volunteers in youth programs: A study of the Guide Association of the United Kingdom. *Journal of Applied Recreation Research*, 23, 3, 243–262.

Shibli, S., Taylor, P., Nichols, G., Gratton, C., and Kokoladikis, T. (1999). The characteristics of volunteers in UK sports clubs. *European Journal for Sports Management, Special Issue*, 10–27

WELCH, M. & LONG, J. (2006). Sports clubs: Their economic and social impact: An analysis of the economic and social impact of voluntary sports clubs in England, the benefits provided by volunteers working within those clubs and the key factors impacting on them. Prepared for CCPR by the Carnegie Research Institute, Leeds Metropolitan University

1 AIM The aim of this study was to investigate the contribution made by sports clubs to the economic and social benefit provided by sport to the wider community.

2 ABSTRACT The aim of this study was to investigate the contribution made by sports clubs to the economic and social benefit provided by sport to the wider community. Two research questionnaires were sent out, one in November/December 2005 to a key voluntary administrator in each of the voluntary sports clubs and sports league or association operating within Leeds, and one in January 2006 to every sports club in Leeds. The former sought views on a wide range of issues relating to the organisation of sports clubs and investigated the characteristics of volunteer administrators, including their roles and motivations, and the latter sought financial information about the club and club members. Of particular note, volunteer support was valued at £1,400,000,000 per annum, far outweighing the total level of direct funding from all sources. It was found that a wide range of functions were undertaken by key volunteers besides their official volunteer role (e.g. Club Secretary, President), and the time commitment of each was large (over 11 hours per week). Key motivations for volunteering included being able to contribute to the success of the organisation and to give something back to the sport.

3 METHODS (p. 2) 'Two research questionnaires were formulated in collaboration with Sport Leeds, the Community Sports Network for the Unitary authority of the City of Leeds. A questionnaire was sent (in November/December 2005) to a key voluntary administrator in each of the 850 voluntary sports clubs and every sports league or association (approximately 50) operating within Leeds. This questionnaire sought to ascertain the contribution and viewpoint of that individual on a wide range of issues related to the organisation of voluntary sports clubs. A few weeks later (in January 2006), a questionnaire was sent to every sports club in Leeds (approximately 850). This questionnaire sought information regarding the annual expenditure of the club, including a breakdown of that expenditure into certain key headings, together with an estimate of the expenditure incurred by a typical club member in the course of a year to take part in their sport (including, but not limited to, the membership or match fees that they pay to the club).'

4 RELEVANCE The results from the first questionnaire which was sent out to key volunteers are most useful for the Sport England review (pp. 9–17). Key results are as follows:

Volunteer characteristics (p. 9)

The age-profile is extremely distorted towards the higher age bands (i.e. it is not a normal distribution). No respondents were under the age of 30, and over 85% were over 40 (nearly 25% were over 60). This suggests that the sample may not be representative of the volunteering population in general, but that key officers of sports club administration are overwhelmingly over 40 years of age. This reflects other findings which found that those over 40 tended to be more likely to take on administrative roles (e.g. Nichols, 2005).

Over 80% of respondents were male. It is interesting that these key volunteers were mostly male, and reflects findings from other studies (e.g. Nichols, 2005, Hallman et al., 2015; Sport Wales 2010; 2012)

Nearly 97% of respondents were white (although a significant proportion of the population of Leeds is from ethnic minorities (~ 8%)). This reflects findings from other papers which suggest that volunteers in sport clubs are a homogeneous set of people (Taylor et al., 2012).

Volunteer roles (p. 10, Table 7)

- a wide range of functions are undertaken by key officers, despite having one clear role (71% stated that they were the Club Secretary and 26% the President or Chairperson). Most of these volunteers also undertook a number of other functions in addition to their key duties. The time commitment of many of these people each week is very extensive (the average figure for each of the 62 respondents, based on their replies, amounts to over 11 hours per week)
- the most frequently reported roles consuming up to 1 hour a week were: 'secretary', 'club committee member', 'treasurer', and 'event organiser'
- the most frequently reported roles consuming 2–5 hours per week were: 'secretary', 'coach', 'team manager', and 'president'.
- the most frequently reported role consuming 6–10 hours a week was 'secretary'. None of the other roles were often cited as taking up this much time a week, though 3 people reported 'event organiser' and 1 people reported 'maintenance/grounds staff' (out of a total of 62 returned questionnaires) as taking up this much time a week.
- the most frequently reported role consuming more than 10 hours a week was 'secretary' (7 people). 3 people reported 'event organiser', and 12 people reported 'maintenance / grounds staff' as taking up this much time.
- although most (84%) function at club level, many also operate at county (27%), regional (19%), national (10%) and international (5%) level.

It should be noted that the above results refer only to key volunteers, the majority of whom were over 40. Other roles which were not highly reported, such as 'marshall/steward', 'team captain' or 'equipment manager', may be more likely to be undertaken by younger volunteers and volunteers not considered 'key'.

- 86.5% said they volunteered most with a club as opposed to a league (2.7%), association (8.1%), governing body (0%), community group (0%), youth agency (0%), or school (0%).

Volunteer motivations (p. 12, Table 10)

- 12.9% were actively recruited.
- <10% were motivated by a desire 'to feel needed', 'be involved with well-known sports personalities' or 'with high profile events'.

The main reasons for volunteering were to:

- contribute to the success of their organisation (77%; this did not necessarily relate to playing success)
- give something back to their sport (71%)
- enjoy seeing a worthwhile job done well (58.1%)

Volunteer motivations (Table 11, p. 13)

The leading reason why these volunteers felt that others do not contribute as volunteers was 'too time consuming' (79%), but also, 71% felt that people are dissuaded by concerns about the responsibility they might face. 37.1% also believed that not being asked was an important reason. Less than 30% supported any of the other reasons listed as to why volunteers might not volunteer e.g. feeling undervalued, inadequate training, poor club facilities, poor club management).

While 97% believed that volunteers were crucial to the future of sport at local level, only 13% felt that the concept of volunteering appeals to a lot of people.

Volunteer support strategies appeared to vary considerably between organisations, however, 40.4% had some form of mentoring scheme in place to help and support new volunteers. 34.5% had volunteer training courses, and 33.9% had task sheets stating what is involved for new volunteers. Only 15.6% had a volunteer co-ordinator. Only 30.4% were aware of the Sport England Volunteer Investment Programme (VIP) and only 24.1% knew about the Running Sport programme. There was widespread support for a range of initiatives to help volunteers, reflecting key volunteers' feelings that there is an urgent need to provide support, advice and encouragement to themselves and future generations of volunteers. It could be that by providing support for new volunteers, more volunteers are encouraged to sign up and retain their interest in volunteering. This could be relevant for the Sport England review.

5 STRENGTHS In relation to the method:

Rationale was provided for why Leeds was chosen for this study (p. 2), though simply being the largest Metropolitan Authority and second largest Local Authority does not mean that the results are generaliseable to all Metropolitan Authorities or Local Authorities in the country. It is not clear whether applying the results to the rest of the country was one of the aims of the study.

Completed questionnaires were received from a good range of sports: 51 single-sport clubs from 18 different sports, and 3 multi-sport clubs representing a range of sports, including 3 sports not represented by the single-sport clubs (archery, lacrosse, & snooker). However, only 11 sports returned at least one completed questionnaire for both of the questionnaires which were sent out.

6 LIMITATIONS

How were the key volunteers which were contacted chosen? Were there more than one key volunteer within each club / organisation? If so, it would be interesting to know how the one which was chosen was selected. Did the key volunteer who was sent the questionnaire actually fill it in, or did they pass it on to someone else to fill in?

The response rate was < 10% which is low and suggests the results may not be generaliseable to the population targeted by the questionnaires (key volunteers in sports organisations in the Leeds Authority). Despite this low response rate the document states that, 'there is every reason to conclude that the findings are broadly representative of voluntary sports clubs throughout England'; however, the report does not explain why the authors believe this.

There were not many responses from each sport, which raises questions about the generaliseability of the results even to the sports in question.

There is no rationale for why questionnaires as a method were chosen, or why the two questionnaires were sent out at different times. It is also assumed that by 'sent', the authors mean 'posted' as opposed to 'e-mailed', however, this is not clear.

The questionnaires themselves are not provided, preventing a critical assessment of the structure of the questionnaires, the questions included, etc.

It is not known how the analysis was conducted e.g. what software was used, who carried it out, whether analyses besides descriptive statistics were carried out etc.

The questionnaires are self-report, which may be subject to bias. It is not clear whether the motivation questions asked about current motivation to volunteer or about why the individual began volunteering in the first place. These motivations may not be the same.

The document does not consider previous findings or relate the current findings to the volunteer literature or theories which might help explain the results.

7 QUOTATIONS None.

8 KEY REFERENCES No references are given or referred to.

Appendix 3 Expert contacts

Contact	Area of expertise	Outcome
British Universities and Colleges Sport	Sport in higher education	No research on student volunteers in sport
Prof. Graham Cuskelly, Griffith University, Australia	Community sport volunteers	Recent paper
Prof. Alison Doherty, Western University, Ontario, Canada	Community sport volunteers	Papers and unpublished reports
Mike Graney, Parkrun	Parkrun volunteers	Description of parkrun volunteer organisation.
Dr. Kirsten Holmes, Curtin University, Australia	Regional event volunteers	Recent paper
Prof. Bjarne Ibsen, University of Southern Denmark	Community sport volunteers	PhD on community sport
Institute for Volunteering Research	Volunteering Research	Advice on published and unpublished research. Supplementing material on general volunteering.
Dr. Camilla Knight, University of Swansea.	Sports coaches	No relevant material
David Lucas, Nielsen	2012 Olympic volunteers	No response
Prof. Siegfried Nagel, University of Bern	Community sport volunteers	Recent paper
Sport Scotland, David Williamson		No response
Sport Wales, Dr Rachel Hughes		Research reports on volunteer and community sport
Will Watt, Join In	Surveys of volunteers	Results will inform Join In's report

Appendix 4 Description of parkrun

parkrun organises 5km runs at 376 venues across the UK. These all start at 9am on Saturday mornings, are free to participate in, use public space, and have a local café to provide a social venue after the run. The parkrun movement is one of the fastest growing areas of participation (76,488 runners and 6,632 volunteers on Saturday 31st October 2015). Its popularity reflects its provision of informal and flexible participation in one of the fastest growing sports in England as well as the minimal burdens on its core volunteers and the ability to meet the needs of those who want to volunteer episodically for short periods of time.

Each run has a core group of approximately 6 volunteers who are likely to reflect the group that instigated the run. To start a run, a group has to raise £3000 and apply to parkrun UK for support. parkrun Ambassadors will provide training lasting about 3 hours, supplemented by learning the roles on a couple of occasions at nearby existing parkrun events. In addition each new event has a 'test' event to allow the core volunteer team to run through the roles before the event becomes 'live'. Each parkrun has the ongoing support of a parkrun Ambassador, an experienced volunteer based within the regional territory who will cover 6–8 runs.

Each Saturday's run has a 'Run Director' who is responsible for its operation — this will normally be from the core group of volunteers. Each run will have a set of roles listed on its web site, with role descriptions. The number of these vary with the size of the run; for example, Sheffield Hallam has a timekeeper, four marshals, a finish token collector, five barcode scanners, a photographer, a tail runner, and a back-up timekeeper. [<http://www.parkrun.org.uk/sheffieldhallam/futureroster/>]

Runners who want to volunteer for a role can do so by e mail to the run organiser. They can express a preference for a role. The names are then allocated to roles on the run website. If the Run Director is short of volunteers they will ask for more using an e mail distribution list of volunteers, who have opted-in to receive this communication. Each parkrun also has its own Facebook page and often a twitter account. This system means that event volunteers can volunteer very flexibly — just for the runs they want to help at. Often volunteers are runners who can't participate because of injury but who wish to be part of the event. This flexible and time limited commitment matches perfectly trends towards episodic / micro-volunteering. To facilitate this, a member of the core team has to be prepared to deal with emails in the few days leading up to the Saturday run. Electronic communication makes this possible. Some volunteers may offer to help on the morning of the event — these can generally quite easily be accommodated as extra marshals. All volunteers will (along with the runners) be encouraged to meet socially at the local café after the run and their contribution is acknowledged on the event web site.

parkrun has developed to offer a set of junior runs for those aged 4 to 14. These are offered on Sunday mornings at 78 venues, often a spin-off of the Saturday run. A key extra requirement is that the Event Director (in overall charge of an event) and all Run Directors (in charge of an event on a given day) must have undergone a DBS (Disclosure and Barring Service) check

(or equivalent in Scotland and Northern Ireland) check (see http://wiki.parkrun.info/index.php/junior_parkrun:Child_Safeguarding_%26_Prevention_for_Child_Safeguarding_policies).

A new development is taking junior parkruns into areas of relative social disadvantage and low sports participation. This will need to overcome two potential barriers: generating a core team of volunteers to drive the delivery of the event, and recruiting junior participants in areas where their parents may have less sporting commitment, in terms of sporting 'social capital'.

However, the existing runs appear to be an extremely effective use of local governments' sports development budgets because of the very large amount of participation developed by a few volunteers. The outreach runs could offer similar potential.

Thus characteristics of parkrun which promote volunteering include:

- Minimal training requirements of the core volunteers. Event Directors and Run Directors at junior events require a DBS check. There are no requirements such as for a conventional club registering with clubmark. The organisation of the events is kept as simple as possible.
- parkrun centrally provide all the basic support required.
- Similarly — most volunteering roles at events require minimalist expertise.
- Apart from a few key roles — the event volunteers can be very flexible about when they volunteer, how much they volunteer, and what they do. This is at the expense of a core volunteer having to accommodate this flexibility.
- Social rewards are provided by the ability to meet at a local café after the run. This will help 'peripheral' volunteers move into the core group — if they want to.
- Volunteers' contributions are acknowledged immediately after an event through the website publishing run results.
- There is a direct link between participation and volunteering — all participants are aware of the need for volunteers, awards may be made to volunteers at events, volunteering is the ideal opportunity for an injured runner to still take part in the event.
- As an extra reward/incentive a t-shirt is awarded to those volunteers who have completed 25 volunteering occasions.

For a full list of parkrun volunteer roles, please see http://wiki.parkrun.info/index.php/List_of_Volunteer_Roles