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
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**Assessing the determinants and impacts of, and  
relationships between, sports club and sports  
event volunteers' behaviour  
The case of Women's Rugby in England**

**By**

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**A Doctoral Thesis**

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## **Abstract**

The purpose of this study is to examine if the experiences of volunteers within women's rugby at both rugby clubs and at the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup (WRWC) in England provide the basis for the continuation of such activities as well as the transfer of volunteer effort to event-based or club-based activity within the specific sports concerned or across sports to contribute towards society's broader sporting needs. Sport volunteering in the UK accounts for 26% of the total formal voluntary activity, and largely takes place within the Voluntary Sport Club (VSC) system (Sport England, 2003). It provides the basis for the development of grassroots sports. Sport volunteering also takes place at sport events which provide the foundation for elite level sport development. It is known, however, that if the volunteering experience is satisfying then this may lead to higher levels of commitment with the sports organization, the event or the voluntary cause, which may affect volunteers' longevity and intentions to continue volunteering (Doherty, 2009).

Women's rugby was selected as a case study, as the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup was held in England. This facilitated comparisons between club and event volunteers. With the cooperation of the Rugby Football Union for Women (RFUW), research participants were identified and recruited via an email invitation including a link to an internet-administered questionnaire. A total of 70 individuals that volunteered for the 2010 WRWC and 168 volunteers involved in the women's rugby clubs completed the online survey.

The results indicated that overall and despite some variation in the emphasis of the findings there is evidence in support of the relevance of the widely known determinants of volunteering such as motivation to volunteer, socio-demographic characteristics, satisfaction with the volunteering experience, engagement to sport and volunteering at to the continuation of future club or event volunteering as well as its transfer to other rugby and other sport events. Consequently, event organisers should work closely with club authorities to help volunteers to make a better connection from their club to the sport more widely

and with the role of clubs and events to support the sport generally, to develop a shared identity in both clubs and events, that is across the whole sporting experience and to increase volunteers' development opportunities through deploying their efforts in more than one setting which may then lead to the development of social capital.

**Keywords:** sports volunteering, voluntary sports clubs, sports clubs volunteering, sports event volunteering, volunteer motivation, volunteer socio-demographics, volunteer satisfaction, sports and volunteering engagement, future volunteering behaviour, social capital, critical rationalism, quantitative research

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# Chapter One

## Introduction

### 1.0. Overview

This chapter provides an overview of the thesis by outlining the rationale for this research. A brief background of the study is provided along with the aim and objectives, research questions, the context of the study and explanation of key terms. Specifically, Section 1.1 provides an overview of alternative sports and leisure provision, before Section 1.2 examines, in more detail non-profit voluntary sports organisation, including voluntary sports clubs and governing bodies. Section 1.3 provides the definition of volunteering adopted in this thesis before Section 1.4 provides an outline of the scale and scope of sports volunteering as well as introduces some of the main factors that are associated with the choice to volunteer. Section 1.5 then provides the aim and objectives of the thesis, before Section 1.6 details the structure of the thesis.

## **1.1.The Concept of Sport and its Provision to the UK Society**

A variety of definitions of sport exist. Sport has been somewhat narrowly defined to refer to all activities that involve elements of competition, physical activity as well as aspects of organisation and specific outcomes (Elvin, 1993). The European Sports Charter, however, describes sport as *“all forms of physical activity which through casual or organised participation, aim at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental wellbeing, forming social relationships or obtaining results in competition at all levels”* (ESC, 1992, p1). The above definition also captures the importance of sports related activities to developing human capital. Svoboda (1994) asserts that the involvement in any sport activity is beneficial in teaching the individuals particular social skills including the respect for others, tolerance, cooperation, team cohesion etc. Furthermore, as Reid et al. (1994) suggest, participation in sport and recreation activities, in conjunction with other factors provide the individuals with positive role models, values and morals to emulate, teach team work and social skills, reduce anti-social behaviour and combat risk factors such as crime and drug use. Therefore, it has been argued that sports may contribute to the promotion of active citizenship and lifelong education. These sentiments are captured in policy documents like “Game Plan” (DCMS/Strategy Unit, 2002) in which the importance of promoting sport for personal, social and health benefits is emphasised. This might occur directly through active participation in sport, or indirectly through a nation hosting major events and seeking to be successful in them. Notwithstanding, these claims and policy pronouncements focusing on the practice of sport (DCMS/Strategy Unit, 2002; London, 2012), however, the evidence on both has been questioned (Coalter, 2002; Coalter, 2005; Frawley & Cush, 2011; Hindson et al., 1994; Hogan and Norton, 2000; Ramchandani & Coleman, 2012). This thesis does not directly address these issues, but concentrates on the role of volunteering in such contexts.

Reflecting the variety of definitions of sport, sport can be seen as a product or experience that is not homogenous (Coalter, 2005). Consequently, a wide range of service providers have emerged gradually, in order to facilitate the provision

of sport and leisure activities in the UK by complementing each other. These include the public or state sector, the commercial or market and the voluntary or civic sector. At the forefront of sport and leisure provision in Britain during the 19<sup>th</sup> century was the voluntary sector. Voluntary bodies were formed by hobby enthusiasts who aimed for establishing a new way of spending leisure time productively after Britain being transformed from a rural society to one mainly following an urban lifestyle (Roberts, 2004). The voluntary sector during the 19<sup>th</sup> century along with local-council efforts provided the basis for organized recreation and leisure provision. At the same time, the commercial sector was mainly subsidizing leisure provision and in particular activities pertaining to arts and crafts such as theatre, music halls, pubs etc. which simply enhanced individuals' opportunities for leisure. However, the provision of such activities was highly regulated during the 19<sup>th</sup> century. The commercial sector grew and expanded substantially during the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. It is considered nowadays as the main leisure provider and accounts for 17.5 per cent of the Gross Domestic Product in the delivery of sport and leisure services in the UK (Gratton & Taylor, 2000). However, such expansion of the commercial sector does not imply that the rest of the sectors are in decline. For example, volunteering involvement is still a key element for the provision and sustainment of most sport clubs and sport events (Roberts, 2004). Official figures from Volunteering England suggest that the voluntary sector accounts for £7.4 billion of the national GDP (GHK, 2010). As far as the sport voluntary sector is concerned, official reports from the year 2000 suggest that its contribution in England accounts for 12.3 per cent of the Gross Domestic Product which equates to £1,210.07 million (Cambridge Econometrics, 2003).

Public sector providers mainly include the government, or local sport authorities. Health and fitness clubs, professional sports teams, golf clubs sport retailers or sport centres are a typical example of commercial sport providers, whilst more longstanding and traditional sports clubs provide mainly voluntary services (Vos et al., 2012). Whilst primarily providing opportunities to participate in sport for individuals, the nature, ideology, scope, resources and objectives of each service provider can be seen to be quite distinct (Ibsen & Jørgensen, 2002;

Scheerder, 2007). The commercial sector bases its revenue on sales and this is facilitated by a network of paid employees or self-employed individuals. For example, private health and fitness centres are primarily concerned with profit-making and an adequate return on investment from sport and leisure provision for its shareholders (Torkildsen, 2005).

On the other hand, the state and voluntary sector are primarily concerned with pursuing different goals instead of profit maximization (Heinemann, 1995; Thiel & Mayer, 2009). For instance, the state and voluntary sports have been argued to have an impact on promoting the social benefits of sports such as social inclusion and the development of social capital as well as in meeting their playing members' intrinsic interests and enjoyment derived from their involvement (Roberts, 2004). Even though, voluntary organisations promote sports participation and sport for all, through governmental grants, membership fees and sponsorship subsidies, this revenue mainly covers their operational costs and is not distributed between their shareholders, as it happens with the market sector (Breuer & Poupaux, 2008; Enjolras, 2002a; Horch, 1994a, 1994b; Taks et al., 1999; Torkildsen, 2005). Such not-for profit organizations operate with the support and efforts of volunteer labour, which along with the social benefits that it offers to the community contributes also significantly in economic terms (Andreff, 2006; Breuer & Wicker, 2009; Gratton & Taylor, 2000).

Central and local government in the UK plays a key role in providing sport and leisure opportunities to the members of the public. The period after the Second World War was characterised by a gradual increase in the legitimate interest of the British governments for sports and recreation, as they became more aware of the benefits it brings to the community and as a part of a welfare state ideology. Following the recommendations of the Wolfenden's committee report (1960) that governments should be more actively engaged in funding and organizing sports, the labour government of 1964 established an advisory Sports Council in 1965 *"to advise the Government on matters relating to the development of amateur sport and physical recreation"* (Advisory Sports Council, 1965, p.5). Therefore, sports policy initiatives in the UK initially emerged with the aim to

improve the public's welfare, a notion that until then was consistent only with improvements in terms of housing, health and education provision but expanded its boundaries to include the arts and sport development as a response to attempts for community development (Heinemann, 1999; Houlihan & White, 2002; Gratton & Kokolakis, 1997; Scheerder & Vermeersch, 2007). Moreover, the Wolfenden report (1960) placed a great emphasis on the role of the voluntary sector as the foundation of sports provision and its future and hence it advocated that governments should sustain and support it with funding and other public resources. The Wolfenden report (1960) also added that these resources should be used by the voluntary bodies at their own discretion without being dominated by the public sector in decision-making (Houlihan & White, 2002). The Wolfenden report had a significant impact in determining the future of the voluntary sector in the UK by reinforcing the active involvement of locally based intermediate agencies in the development and sustainment of voluntary organizations (Kendall, 2003; Osbourne, 1999).

The role of government in the provision of sport and leisure services in the UK is distinct, as it acts at the same time, as service provider and regulator. It is the states' responsibility to introduce specific sport policies and the legal framework for the delivery of leisure activities and grass-roots sports within the country (Houlihan & White, 2002; Scheerder & Vos, 2009a, 2009b, Torkildsen, 2005). Central government oversees the way local and regional government acts in the development and promotion of sports at a local level (Torkildsen, 2005). Parliament in the UK is responsible for deciding the provision and construction of sporting facilities as well as the subsidy of sporting events (Gratton & Taylor, 2000). Local government is dependent on grants and funds given by central government for the provision of leisure opportunities. A wide range of services is provided to the members of the public by central government or local authorities through the development of urban parks, playgrounds, libraries, sport facilities, swimming pools, playing fields, theatres etc. The costs that occur to the citizens are either indirect paid through taxation or direct, whereas the citizens are charged at the time they use the facilities. However, this often happens at highly subsidized charges (Torkildsen, 2005). Furthermore, public authorities in the UK

often cooperate with the commercial and the voluntary sector or complement each other in the provision of leisure opportunities for the benefit of the public. For instance, voluntary clubs provide the organization of sports such as coaching and competitions whilst local authorities intervene in the provision of the facilities (Houlihan & White, 2002). Therefore, government support organisations of all kinds to deliver sport and leisure services either by giving them financial grants or by enabling them to use the existing public facilities and equipment with or without charge (Torkildsen, 2005). Furthermore, state authorities employ a combination of human resources, either civil servants or volunteers in order to achieve their objectives (Vos et al., 2012).



## **1.2. Non-Profit-Voluntary Sport Organisations**

Non-for-profit voluntary sport organisations are mutual-aid organizations, where profit-making is not the focus. This is reflected by the fact that they are managed by individuals who dedicate their time without expecting any financial remuneration for their services. Apart from benefits to the individual, such as enhanced self-esteem, or professional development, it is argued that volunteering within sport organisations increases social capital by providing opportunities for social interaction, civic engagement, social cohesion and networking (Coleman, 1990; Putnam, 2000). Moreover, it can be argued that non-profit sports organisations have an important economic function, as they provide low-cost services to members of the community compared to the services provided by the other two sectors (Wolsey & Abrams, 2001). The UK sports structure is heavily reliant on the voluntary sector which largely takes places within sports clubs with the support of sport governing bodies (Gratton & Taylor, 2000; Nichols, 2001).

### **1.2.1. Voluntary Sports Clubs**

Voluntary sports clubs (VSC) are organisations that exist primarily to provide opportunities for grass-root sport development, as well as to provide pathways for their athletes to progress at an elite level (Garrett, 2003). According to Sport England (2005a: no page) community amateur sport clubs are

*“Properly constituted as not-for-profit organisations, with no provision for payment to members during the life of the club or upon dissolution. It can be either unincorporated (i.e. an association of members with unlimited liability) or incorporated as a company limited by guarantee (not shares). The club must operate an open membership policy that allows anyone, within reason, to join and use its facilities”.*

Voluntary sport clubs emerged out of the desire to supply society with opportunities for mass participation that the government and the private sector failed to provide (Nichols, 2001; Robson, 2001). VSCs reflect the pursuit of common interest among their members, through cooperation and without any

form of obligation (Horch, 1989). Sports clubs in the UK, emerged during the 18<sup>th</sup> century out of the *“tendency of individuals to create social networks and organizations outside of the family”* (Szymanski, 2006, p.1). The state authorities have acknowledged the contribution of VSCs to the sport system in UK in the Department of Culture, Media and Sport report *“A Sporting Future for All”* (DCMS, 2000). This report stated that the role of sport clubs needs to be supported and funded in order to contribute to the growth of sports in the UK and meet government priorities and objectives (DCMS, 2000; Houlihan & White; 2002).

The DCMS (2000, p.33) report concluded that *“England has a huge range of amateur sport clubs that depend entirely on the efforts of volunteers”*. This report highlighted that one and a half million volunteers run more than 110.000 amateur sport clubs (DCMS, 2000). Consequently, Sport Clubs are the bedrock of many communities, as stated by *“Promoting Sport in the Community”* (HM Treasury, 2001, p.3). Sport England (2003) suggests that the average club has 76 members, while Allison (2001) based on Sport Scotland data suggests a number of 125 members per club. These differences in estimating the number of club members is possibly explained by difficulties in defining what a sports club stands for (Nichols et al., 2005).

### **1.2.2. National Sport Governing Bodies**

National Sport Governing Bodies (NGBs) emerged along with voluntary sports clubs, in the nineteenth century out of a desire to give sports a more formalised and organised structure (Holt, 1990; Mc Intosh, 1987). Their primary concern was to promote their sport, to organize national competitions as well as to select the elite athletes consisting of the national team of their respective sport which would represent the country in international competitions (Houlihan & White, 2002). Nowadays, NGBs are autonomous and self-controlling not-for-profit sport organizations (Watt, 2003). Even though the government has not direct control over the NGBs operations, it works closely with the Sports Councils for funding provision to the NGBs when is deemed necessary (Houlihan & White, 2002). With regard to their current objectives, NGBs facilitate competitions within a given sport at a national level, support the clubs' operations as well as represent

the collective values and interests of the individual club' members (Nichols et al., 2005). Moreover, they seek to increase sports participation and development of their athletes at an elite-level, by developing elite-performance plans and seeking funding from the National lottery (Torkildsen, 2005). Since the late 1990s, the availability of World Class Funding through the National Lottery enabled NGBs to focus on excellence and international sporting success. However, this funding was allocated on the basis the sports' governing bodies achieve pre-determined performance standards, as since the late 1990s, there was a growing demand for them to modernise and to improve their corporate governance and financial management (Houlihan & White, 2002). Moreover, NGBs are concerned with recruiting young people into their sports through liaising with schools as well as through improving coaching quality and availability (Houlihan & White, 2002).

As non-for profit sport organisations, NGBs rely on governmental grants, members' support and sponsorships from the market sector, in order to sustain their operations (Watt, 2003). The structure of the NGBs varies but mainly involves national, regional and county levels of organisation, known as the 'middle-level' of operations which coordinates the clubs 'activities from grass-root to national development (Nichols et al., 2005). At all different levels, NGBs operations are sustained by volunteer efforts. Some NGBs employ a number of paid employees, at national level for such purposes. However, this depends on the financial status of each NGB. For instance, it is estimated that the Rugby Football Union employs about 250 paid-staff, while some other NGBs may employ none (Nichols et al., 2005). A small number of NGBs in the UK have a GB structure which means that they are responsible for promoting their respective sport not only in England but also to Scotland, Northern Ireland and Wales, while the majority of the NGBs are based on a home country (Torkildsen, 2005). The Central Council of Physical Recreation (CCPR) estimates the existence of 265 NGBs for over 100 sports in the UK (Torkildsen, 2005). Contrary to other countries such as Greece or Canada, the same sport can be organised by different NGBs competing for governmental subsidies in the UK (Papadimitriou, 2002; Torkildsen, 2005).

The National Sport Governing Bodies in UK are primarily subsidized from the four home countries Sports Councils (England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland) and are concerned with the development of their sport from grass-root to elite levels (Torkildsen, 2005).

### 1.3. Definition of Volunteering

A critical question arises on how volunteering is defined. According to Volunteering Australia (2005: no page cited in Cuskelly et al., 2006, p.5) volunteering is defined as *“an activity which takes place through not for profit organisations or projects and is undertaken: to be of benefit to the community and the volunteer; of the volunteer’s own free will and without coercion; for no financial payment; and in designated volunteer positions only”*. In contrast, Volunteering England defines volunteering as,

*“Any activity that involves spending time, unpaid, doing something that aims to benefit the environment or someone (individuals or groups) other than, or in addition to, close relatives”*.

It is interesting to note that these two definitions adopted in two different countries suggest that volunteering in the first instance is recognised only in formal contexts while in the latter case informal volunteering which takes the form of helping friends or relatives to achieve certain goals is also acknowledged as a form of activism.

Consequently, the concept of volunteering differs and is subject to social, cultural and religious interpretations and perspectives (Moragas et al., 2000). Cuskelly et al (2006) elaborates on such an idea by stating that *“although the word volunteer may seem to have a common shared meaning, there is not universal consensus about the meaning of the term”* (Cuskelly et al., 2006, p.4) Even though there is little universal agreement on how volunteering is defined (Cuskelly, Hoye, & Auld, 2006), the term incorporates some common elements such as the non-obliged commitment of the individuals to reach specific goals and to offer their services to others, based on their enthusiasm, skills, dedication, free will, the lack of monetary rewards, by expecting to receive no financial remuneration other than expenses (Hedley & Davis Smith, 1992; Cordingley, 2000; Zappala & Burrell, 2001). Along with benefits to the individual such as personal development and the receipt of experience, which can be described as the *“human capital”*, it is

also recognised, as noted above, that volunteering fosters the development of social capital, as it provides a pathway for strengthening community bonds and promoting active citizenship through the elements of altruism, solidarity and gift of time that it incorporates (Delaney & Keaney, 2005; Putnam, 2000).

Even though the above definitions describe that voluntary activity is undertaken through formal bodies, organizations and groups, it fails to consider the actions that are expressed from individuals who are not affiliated to a formal organization, in order to help their significant others (friends, relatives) to take part in various activities. Consequently, informal volunteering is also important as it constitutes a significant part of the hours spent in voluntary actions (Cuskelly et al., 2006).

## 1.4. Volunteering in Sport

Sport volunteers, like to the general volunteers act with their own free will, without aiming financial gains or other rewards to benefit society. According to Sport England (2005c) sport volunteers are “*Individual volunteers helping others in sport and receiving either no remuneration or only expenses*” (p.9). The above definition stresses also the importance of informal volunteering in sports that is not undertaken through a formal volunteering body.

Such volunteering is the “*lifeblood*” of any sport (LIRC, 2002), and sport volunteering in the UK represents 26% of the total voluntary activity (Sport England, 2003). Volunteering in sport primarily occurs within voluntary sport clubs (VSCs). It is estimated that volunteer activity within VSCs accounts for 75% of sport volunteering and 83% of sport volunteer hours in England. The remainder of this activity takes place at sport events, which account for 1% and 0.6% respectively. Other avenues for volunteering in sport are provided within national and regional governing bodies, schools, colleges and universities, charities or youth organizations, such as the Army Cadet Force, Scouts and YMCA (Sport England, 2003). Table 1.1 indicates the extent and scale of sports volunteering in the UK at the different sports sectors, as suggested by Sport England (2003). While there is no recent survey to indicate the share of volunteering at the different types of voluntary sport organizations, it is interesting to note that, as suggested by the Active People Survey 26 (October 2007-October 2008), there has been an increase of the number of volunteers who contribute at least one hour per week in sports compared to the data from 2005-2006. This increase equates to 125.000 individuals representing 4.9% of the adult population in England (GHK, 2010).

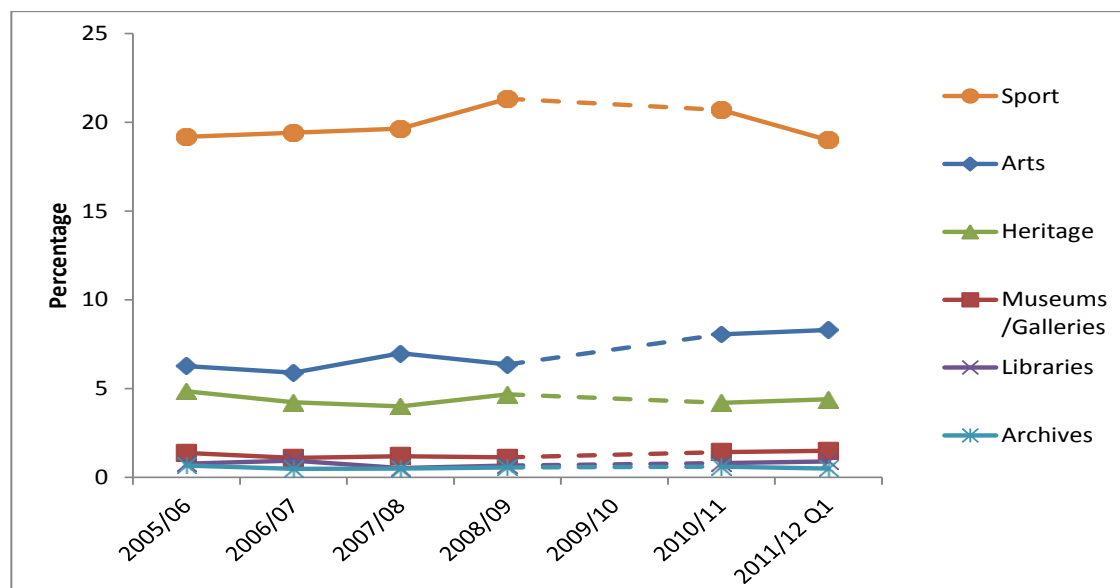
**Table 1.4: Sports Volunteering in the UK, 2003**

<b><u>Sports Volunteering</u></b> (Sport England, 2003)		
<b><u>Type of Volunteer</u></b>	<b><u>Number of volunteers</u></b>	<b><u>Number of hours per year</u></b>
<b>Governing Bodies</b>	1,574,296	236,900,900
<b>International Events</b>	26,095	1,552,806
<b>Disabled Sport</b>	23,407	2,639,649
<b>Schools/Colleges/HE</b>	115,127	3,612,925
<b>Youth organisations</b>	273,734	21,451,553
<b>Total</b>	<b>2,012,659</b>	<b>266,157,833</b>

More recently, the Taking Part Survey which was conducted on behalf of the Department of Culture Media and Sport (DCMS) to identify patterns of volunteering within all the DCMS sectors suggested that the area where most of the population had volunteered in 2010-2011 is sports (20.7%), suggesting that the numbers of individuals who volunteer in sport from 2005-2006 to 2011-2012 are relatively consistent. Figure 1.1 indicates the scale of volunteering in all different sectors of the DCMS as identified by the Taking Part Survey from 2005-2006 to the first quarter of 2011-2012. However, the Taking Part Survey also intended to identify more general volunteering trends rather than the share of volunteering within particular types of sport organizations. Therefore, the numbers of individuals who volunteer in each distinct area of sports and the number of hours they contribute could not be identified and compared directly to Sport England's (2003) figures (DCMS, 2011).



**Figure 1.1: Volunteering in DCMS sectors, 2005/06 to July 2010 – June 2011**



**Notes**

- (1) Confidence intervals range between +/-0.3 and +/-2.0.
- (2) The gaps in the figure is due to the fact that questions on volunteering were not asked in the 2009/2010 survey

The difference in relative size of the volunteer activity in VSCs and sport events as identified in table 1.4 can be explained by the one-off or episodic occurrence of sport events. Sport events typically refer to tournaments or competitions that take place less regularly, than for example sports leagues or they may rotate across different countries (Downward et al., 2009). Volunteers, however, are essential for sustaining the operations of elite-level sport events, which represent the culmination of competition in either a single sport, organised and supported by its representative governing body; or across different sports, in events whereas multi-sports competitions occur at the same time such as the Olympic Games or the Commonwealth Games. These multi-sport competitions are again supported by the sport governing bodies supplying them with volunteer resources with specific technical skills, such as coaches and umpires. Elite sports development is dependent upon mass participation development and vice versa. This is reflected by the fact that grass-root sports provide the basis for an athlete’s progress. The interconnectedness between the two contexts is implied in the UK sport policy and its legacy targets following the staging of the London 2012 Olympic Games (DCMS/Strategy Unit, 2002; London, 2012).

However, as noted earlier, the evidence of a 'trickle down' effect on sports participation and volunteering, following the organization of a large scale sport event is weak (Hindson et al., 1994; Hogan & Norton, 2000; Frawley & Cush, 2011), despite some evidence of positive effects on sport participation after spectators' attendance at events (Ramchandani & Coleman, 2012). It follows however, that recruitment, training, organisation, development and retention of volunteers should be informed by the linkages between clubs and events' activity. The reason for this is implied by the fact that recruiting new volunteers in an organisation is five times more time-consuming than retaining existing ones (Mitchell & Taylor, 2004; Strigas, 2006; Strigas & Newton-Jackson, 2003).

Being better able to manage volunteers across the clubs and events and in connection with such trends means being better able to understand volunteer behaviour. As discussed fully in Chapter 2, several factors affect people's decision to start volunteering which apart from their socio-demographics, and previous engagement with the sport include also altruistic (giving something back to the community) and self-seeking motives (egoism), (Marin, 1994) and can be affected by their satisfaction.

The literature generally suggests that sport volunteers have different characteristics and attitudes regarding their motivations, involvement and satisfaction which often is a result of the actual volunteering experience (Farrell et al., 1998). For instance, it has been argued that volunteers involved in sport clubs tend to have a long-term involvement with the organisation, as they are motivated by both altruistic and self-interest factors. Moreover, male and younger volunteers are more likely to volunteer in sports than female and older volunteers (Davis-Smith, 1998). Sport England (2003) further supports this finding by suggesting that males are twice as likely to volunteer in sports as females. However, the profile of sport club volunteers tends to include particularly males, from older age cohorts and in full-time employment who undertake supervisory responsibilities at the sport clubs where they belong. On the other hand, sport event volunteers tend to represent the gender and age profile of the participants in the specific sports concerned. Moreover, the larger

and more unique is an event then the broader the socio- demographic profile of the volunteers involved (Downward et al., 2005). Ralston et al. (2004, p.15) suggest that sport event volunteering *“tends to be sporadic and episodic and is highly dependent on the availability of tangible and intangible incentives and awards to attract and motivate volunteers”*. This shows that sport event volunteers are primarily motivated by the uniqueness of the event and their satisfaction is derived by being part of a once in a lifetime opportunity.

Many studies support the notion that volunteer motivations are positively correlated with volunteer satisfaction. As Farrell et al. (1998) point out volunteer satisfaction, volunteer motivations and actual volunteering experience are linked. This suggests that satisfaction with the volunteer experience may further leads to positive commitment to the sport organisation. This can be described from the consumer's behaviour literature with a process called disconfirmation (Oliver, 1980). Similar to consumers who continue to purchase products or services when they are satisfied from what they experienced, volunteers continue to offer their services when their volunteering experience is satisfying, rewarding and meets their needs (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). Therefore, as the functional theory suggests volunteers who undertake tasks who match their interests, abilities and motivations will be more satisfied and then they will serve an organisation for longer in return (Clary & Snyder, 1999). Therefore, it would seem essential for sport organizations within a given sport, to understand why people volunteer, so that they can ensure their volunteers' longevity and commitment by placing more emphasis on developing a volunteering experience that is worthwhile and consistent with their needs (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). By achieving this, governing bodies would be able to sustain their VSC activity.

To sum up, sport volunteers are important for the sustainment of sport organisations, the development of social capital and the growth of participation in sports. However, it is also clear that there is a need to better understand how volunteers' characteristics and motivations may lead to more serious involvement in volunteering and an increase in the volunteers' levels of

commitment and perseverance with the sport organisation (Stebbins, 1996). It is suggested that high levels of satisfaction and commitment increases the retention rates of volunteers in a sport organisation and their likelihood to continue volunteering in the future. Stebbins (1996) developed the idea of “*the serious leisure approach*” as he suggests that volunteering is first and foremost a leisure activity, rather than purely a reflection of altruistic motivations (Heinemann, 1988).

Moreover, the sport volunteering literature largely focuses on volunteers’ motivations, socio-demographics, or satisfaction in a wide array of activities pertaining to either VSCs or sport events. (see Chalip, 2000; Clary et al. 1998; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glenn, 1991; Coalter & Taylor, 2010; Kemp, 2002; Pauline & Pauline, 2009; Ralston, Downward, & Lumsdon, 2004; Strigas & Jackson, 2003). It also does not typically address the relationship between sports participation and volunteering (Dawson & Downward, 2013). There is also some literature that examines the impact of sports event volunteering on future volunteering (Doherty, 2009; Downward & Ralston, 2006; Hallmann & Harms, 2012; Solberg, 2003). On the other hand, little is known about how specific sports’ club volunteering provides a platform from which to harness volunteer effort in sports events in the same sport, or in different sports. It is these issues that the thesis focusses upon.

## **1.5. Research Aims and Objectives-Context of the Study**

As noted above, this research project, following the interrelationship between mass and elite sport development as a framework, aims to address this gap in the literature by exploring whether club and event volunteering activity provides the basis for the continuation of that activity as well as the transfer of volunteer effort to event-based and club-based activity respectively within the specific sport concerned, or across sports, to contribute towards society's broader sporting needs.

To achieve this, volunteering activity within women's rugby in England was adopted as a case study. The research was conducted with the support of the Rugby Football Union for Women (RFUW). The RFUW is the national governing body for the sport of women's rugby in England and aims to promote, develop and govern both community and elite women's rugby in England. The establishment of the RFUW is a leading example of groups of people sharing interests who formed their own organizational structures to enable previously excluded social groups to participate in their favourite sport (Houlihan & White, 2002). Rugby is a traditionally male prevalent sport (Dunning & Sheard, 1979) and even though the Rugby Football Union (RFU) was founded in 1871 to promote men's rugby, the women's game was developed much later than its male counterpart. The sport is practiced by women since the late 1970s and has retained a separate governing body, the Rugby Football Union for Women (RFUW). Women's rugby was promoted and developed by a group of women graduates who had practiced the sport while studying at the university and were keen on continuing playing after they finished their studies (Houlihan & White, 2002). Therefore, they contacted male clubs such as Richmond, Wasps and Saracens and persuaded them to set up women's teams and assist with the training facilities and coaches (Houlihan & White, 2002). The leaders of women's rugby wanted to maintain their autonomy in decision-making and even though they were informing the RFU about their activities, there was not any formal agreement from both sides for women's rugby to be run under the auspices of the RFU (Houlihan & White, 2002). Consequently, the RFUW was founded in

1983 and initially its main priority was to formalise women's competitions and establish league structures within the country as well as international competitions. The first international competition, the women's rugby world cup was run in 1991 through the efforts of four female members of Richmond and through securing some funding from the Welsh Sports Council. The major challenge for the RFUW in its early years of existence was to secure public funding from the Sports Council and this was considered to be easier if women's rugby was run separately from the RFU. This was also facilitated by the 1993 policy on Women and Sport which promoted and recognised that separate development and autonomy of women's sports could increase their development prospects. Therefore, the RFUW succeeded in securing funding from the Sports Council in 1995 for implementing its development plan and for appointing its first national Development Officer (Houlihan & White, 2002).

Contrary to the RFU, the RFUW is a relatively small governing body and is usually dependent on the men's game for patronage, as most women rugby clubs share facilities and human resources (coaches and committee members) with the male clubs (Houlihan & White, 2002). It is not known whether traditional male rugby clubs agreed to set up women teams, as a response to taking advantage of the benefits that the National Lottery Fund would bring to those clubs that would meet its requirements such as developing the junior and women's game or whether developing women's sections was based on a commitment to sports equity and specific club culture, but it contributed significantly to the development of the women's game, while at the same time respected its autonomy (Houlihan & White, 2002). A significant contribution towards the development of women's game came in 1998 through the allocation of £ 135, 000 from the World Class Performance Fund for participating in the 1998 Women's World Cup, which enabled the women's game to increase its elite performance potential. This funding would have been impossible to secure if women's game was part of the RFU. Despite, such progress and development of women's game, there is still some imbalance between men's and women's game in terms of financial, human, and facilities resources which needs to be

addressed through a more integrated policy and cooperation between the two governing bodies in the future (Houlihan & White, 2002).

At the time of this research, the RFUW consists of 288 clubs comprising of 187 senior clubs, 54 student teams, 110 Under 18's teams and 125 Under 15's teams (RFUW, 2010). These rugby clubs are distributed across different regions within the country which include: North West, North East, Yorkshire and Humber, East Midlands, West Midlands, Eastern Counties, London and South East North, South East South, South West (North) and South West (South). 16 partnership officers are also in charge of promoting women's rugby in their respective region (RFUW, 2010). The RFUW follows a pyramid structure in organizing their leagues divisions and competitions (UK Ladies Rugby, 2013). The RFUW's league structure is organized into three competitions which include:

- The Premiership: which includes only one league for the whole of England-the team finishing bottom of the Premiership will play off against the winner of the Championship Cup
- The Championship includes two levels of competition and the winners of each feed the Premiership league.
  - I. The first level of competition is divided into north and south leagues - the winners of the Championship North and Championship South leagues will playoff in the Championship Cup to identify the winners of the league.
  - II. Championship 1 is the second level of competition and consists of four regional leagues – South East, South West, Midlands and the North. Clubs winning their respective leagues will play off to be promoted to Championship 1 North and South respectively. (North v Midlands winner will go into Championship 1 North. The South East v South West winner will go into Championship 1 South).
- The National Challenge league feeds the Championship. The National Challenge is more complex in nature due to the lack of uniformity of

women's rugby clubs across regions and the clubs struggling to find players which results to different competitions laws being applied across regions and hence a clear pyramid structure is difficult to establish (UK Ladies Rugby, 2013). It is also interesting to note that the South East region consists of much more clubs than the rest of the regions across the country. In particular, the league is divided into three levels:

- I. Level one consists of three regional leagues for the North, Midlands and South East.
- II. Level two consists of eight leagues representing smaller regions (such as North East and North West etc)
- III. Level three consists of three feeder leagues from the South East (UK Ladies Rugby, 2013).

As the RFUW hosted the Women's Rugby World Cup in August 2010, this presented an ideal opportunity to test the actual impact of club volunteering on event volunteering as well as to investigate stated intentions of future activity both in club and event volunteering. Likewise it provided the opportunity to examine if the experience of volunteering at the event also promoted further event volunteering or the promotion of volunteering at the club level. The RFUW aimed to recruit volunteers from both clubs and the community for hosting the World Cup.

In particular, this research study aimed to answer the following research questions:

- Whether motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background and sports engagement of volunteers, as well as their satisfaction of volunteering within women rugby clubs will promote further volunteering in the club context.
- Whether motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background and sports engagement of volunteers, as well as their satisfaction of volunteering within women rugby clubs contributes and promotes the transfer of volunteer efforts across other sporting contexts such as events.



- Whether motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background and sports engagement of volunteers, as well as their satisfaction of volunteering within women rugby events will promote further volunteering in the event context.
- Whether motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background and sports engagement of volunteers, as well as their satisfaction of volunteering within women rugby events promotes the transfer of volunteer efforts across other sporting contexts such as club volunteering.

In brief, the main objectives of this research project were:

1. To identify the general characteristics of the RFUW volunteers
2. To identify the volunteering history that is motivations, engagement with sport and volunteering, satisfaction and future behaviour of volunteers in women's rugby
3. To explore the linkages between different volunteering experiences in clubs or events and how they impact upon the recruitment, retention and development of volunteers
4. To make potential recommendations regarding the recruitment and retention of new rugby volunteers

The unique contribution of this study is that it explored the potential of harnessing volunteer activity in different contexts as a result of previous club volunteering and event volunteering experience. Moreover, the RFUW as well as the rugby clubs in the UK can use the research findings as a framework to further develop their volunteer strategy, enhance their support to women's rugby clubs, as well as to make well-informed decisions regarding the recruitment, retention and development of their volunteers.

## **1.6. Thesis Structure**

This research project proceeds as follows. The second chapter reviews the literature on sports volunteering and highlights the motivations, socio-economic backgrounds, sports engagement and satisfaction of club volunteers compared to event volunteers. As noted in the volunteering literature, these characteristics provide the bases for future volunteering activity. Insights into the potential transfer of effort between the different volunteering contexts is also presented and current knowledge shown to be confined to a consideration of how event volunteers might engage in subsequent club volunteering, as noted above. The chapter, then presents the theoretical explanations that are put forward to explain future volunteering decisions, and applies them to the club context. Chapter 3 proceeds with presenting the methodology adopted for achieving the research aims and objectives. It also explores the sampling and data collection, as well as the participant characteristics in a discussion of the dependent and independent variables. Chapter 4 outlines the techniques applied to analyse the data such as exploratory factor analysis and regression analysis. Chapter 5, outlines the results of the study by reporting an exploratory factor analysis, as it is used to summarize volunteers' satisfaction with their experience of club volunteering. These factors are then combined with volunteers' motivations to volunteer in clubs, as well as their socio-demographic characteristics and their sports' engagement, to assess their impact on actual rugby world cup volunteering, and the intentions to volunteer for future rugby events, future other sports events and for their club. To a similar manner, chapter 6 presents the results of the sample involved at the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup following the same analysis techniques, as with the clubs' context. Chapter 7 then discusses the conclusions of the study informed by the results as well as the limitations of the research and the management implications that are raised.

# Chapter Two

## Literature Review

### 2.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to critically review, evaluate and discuss the volunteering literature. The review of the literature provides the rationale for investigating the hypotheses developed in the current study, such as identifying the gap in the literature, as well as to identify the factors that are seen to influence volunteering to be included in the empirical analysis. The material presented in the remainder of this chapter first begins in Section 2.2 with a discussion of the evolution of sports policy in the UK. The chapter proceeds in Section 2.3 with a discussion on the contributions of volunteering and sports volunteering in particular to the formation of social capital and community enhancement. This section also provides a review on the several theoretical models developed to describe the notion of social capital. Section 2.4 then follows, which highlights the historical context, scale and value of the voluntary sector in sports, with an emphasis on sports clubs volunteering. Section 2.4 also provides a description of the different types of sport events and the organizational context they take place. Section 2.5 then highlights the role of volunteering at sport events. This is then followed by section 2.6 which provides a discussion of the factors that have been identified as determining volunteer effort in both clubs and events contexts and include; the motivation to volunteer, the socio-demographic characteristics of volunteers, their sports engagement and their satisfaction with the volunteer experience. As the literature suggests, these factors represent the constituency of volunteers' recruitment and determine volunteers' future behaviour and attitudes towards volunteer activity (Bang et al., 2009). The review then proceeds with section 2.7 which provides a discussion of the various factors that determine future volunteering activity as well as it highlights previous studies that have adopted similar models in

explaining the impacts of such factors on volunteers' future behaviour. Section 2.8 highlights the theoretical framework that is used to explain volunteers' behaviour and how these determinants of volunteering contribute to the development of social capital by potentially leading the individual to commit to volunteering in similar or different contexts either in sports clubs or sport events. The chapter concludes with section 2.9 that summarizes the review of the literature.

## **2.2. The Evolution of Sports Policy and Provision in the UK**

As Branham (1991) points out UK Sports Policy developed throughout four different periods. The first stage from the 1950s until the early 1960s, the so called “traditional pluralism” stage was characterised by the leading role of the commercial and voluntary sector in the provision of opportunities. In contrast, the role of the public sector was to intervene or provide supplementary activities, that the other sectors failed to provide, e.g. for socially disadvantaged groups. This period promoted the equality of access to opportunities as well as a collective responsibility to sports and leisure provision (Houlihan & White, 2002). The second period from the 1960s to the mid-1970s is described as welfare reform, whereas the state sector undertook a more active role in providing sport and leisure opportunities, especially for socially disadvantaged groups. This stage is characterised by a shift in the sports policy, to target “sports for all” as well as to develop opportunities to tackle social inequality. During that period, the government adopted the view of the Wolfenden committee (1960) that the voluntary sector needs to be supported and promoted by the public sector. This is also evident, for example, in the 1975 White Paper on Sport and Recreation, a government report which states that sport and recreation is a “right of citizenship” and a vehicle for achieving other social benefits. However, according to Branham (1991) White Papers reflect governments’ intentions and not actual actions. For instance, as soon as the 1975 White Paper released, the Labour government of that period had to implement cuts in public spending to overcome a loan from the International Monetary Fund and hence the area that was primarily affected was sport and recreation provision, as these policies were not implemented (Houlihan & White, 2002).

Branham (1991) further suggests that the third stage of the evolution of sport policy in the UK occurred in the second half of the 1970s until the mid-1990s. It was during this period that the Great Britain Sports Council was formed (Green, 2004). The Sports council was autonomous public body concerned with distributing funds to sports organisations, boosting sports participation levels

across the country and involving socially excluded groups in sports and leisure, but supporting elite level sports and contributing to performance excellence (Torklidsen, 2005). This stage of sports policy development reflects a managerialist critique of the welfare reform stage, as the goal of the public sector for a “sport for all” policy failed to achieve its objectives such as reaching ethnic minorities, the disabled, the elderly, the unemployed or women. This failure of the sport for all policy reflects the nature and style of the managerial approach that was adopted by the recreation professionals aiming to implement “*sport for all*” initiatives that did not belong to socially excluded groups and hence failed to understand their “needs” and “wants” (Branham, 1991). Thus, alternative strategies such as community events and initiatives were employed in seeking to decentralize public intervention and to engage individuals belonging to such groups in decision-making regarding sport and leisure provision that would be beneficial for them. However, several events that took place at the late 1970s or early 1980s, such as city riots along with economic recession equally pushed and pulled public spending on welfare provision.

The fourth stage of Sports Policy development in the UK began from the mid-1990s. It is described as the “neo-liberal” phase and reflects a shift from state-provision towards the market and voluntary sector. The state sector is criticised as over-bureaucratic, irresponsive, inflexible and hence less able to meet the needs for sport and recreation of the community than the other two sectors. Moreover, the neo-liberals supported the notion that meeting the “public’s interest” as such, is misleading, since this represents a collective set of interests, which fail to account for each individual’s needs and wants. Therefore, the neo-liberals rather than promoting the “common good” and the collective interest, aimed to foster each individuals’ seeking to satisfy their own needs and wants through the individualised targeted efforts of the commercial and voluntary sector. During the neo-liberal phase, the state placed more emphasis on both enabling service support and provision as well as on intervening and directing such provision (Houlihan & White, 2002).

Two reasons explain the neo-liberal tendency of rejecting public support for sports provision (Branham, 1991). First, the tendency of the conservative government of that time to promoting nationalism through elite sport success, as part of their electoral strategy and second, the increased concern following the social disorganisation of that period, which sustained the public funding for specific programmes, such as Action Sport delivered by the Sports Council that aimed to tackle inequalities (Hargreaves, 1986). The neo-liberal stage is also characterised by a split of interests, as the state sector focused mainly in promoting mass participation and grass roots sports through the Sports Council, while at the same time, it encouraged elite level sport and their representative governing bodies to attract funding and sponsorship from the private sector. This is evident, by the policy reports of that period such as the “Sport: Raising the Game” document published in 1995 by the conservative government in charge (Green, 2007). This document marked the emergence of sports as a key governmental objective, as sports were seen as part of Britain’s culture and values (Department of National Heritage, 1995). “Sport: Raising the Game” report focused in four domains. First, it emphasised on promoting school sports participation. Second, it placed an emphasis on enhancing the sporting culture of the general community. Third, it focused upon promoting further and higher education sports provision and fourth it aimed for promoting elite sporting excellence (Department of National Heritage, 1995). The commercial sector, at the same time placed an emphasis on targeting the individual, implementing strategies of health and fitness, concerned with promoting a certain body culture, body image and physique. In 1996 UK Sport was formed separately from Sport England, and other regional sports councils to focus on elite sport development through the distribution of new National Lottery Grants. The sports councils, particularly for England were to focus on mass participation. Critics of the Neo-liberal phase suggest that rather than promoting the individuals’ exercise of free choice, this period simply promoted the dominant class based ideology, which was evident in the provision of sporting opportunities targeting certain social groups (Branham, 1991; Howlett, 2008).

During 2000, the Labour Government in charge introduced a new sports policy document entitled “A Sporting Future of All”. This document illustrates the intentions of the Labour Government to introduce reform and to achieve welfare objectives such as tackling inequality by increasing sports participation of socially excluded groups, whilst at the same time achieving international sporting success. Thus, the joint emphasis on promoting sports across different supply sectors is emphasised. This, was set to be achieved through encouraging the sport’s governing bodies to develop partnerships with the private sector, set strategic objectives for promoting their sport and work towards achieving quality schemes and performance indicators in order to secure governmental funding (DCMS, 2000; Green, 2004). Following this policy objective, another document was introduced, which to a similar degree emphasized upon this joint approach to sports policy. Game Plan was published by the Department of Culture Media and Sport (DCMS) in 2002 as an attempt to reconsider priorities adopt modernised techniques and improve the implemented strategies. Game Plan focused upon four main areas including grass-roots sports, elite sports, major sport events and delivery (DCMS/Strategy Unit, 2002). Game Plan also placed relatively increased emphasis on the externalities and benefits of sports and their role in achieving wider social benefits, which proves governments’ focus on achieving social objectives through investing in sports provision (Green, 2006). Further sport policy initiatives, following Game Plan shed light on government’s priority to focus on Olympic legacy due to the staging of the London 2012 Olympic Games. For instance, Sport England’s Strategy 2008-2011 intended to focus on community sports development as the foundation for achieving international sporting success. Therefore, this strategy placed an emphasis on three main principles: to excel, referring to increasing sporting excellence, to sustain, referring to sustaining sports participation rates and grow, referring to increasing regular recreational participation in sports. These principles were thought to be achieved through reducing bureaucracy, supporting National Governing Bodies in their aim to promote their sport mainly through government funding, increasing coaching training education, maximising the voluntary sector and promoting sport for all initiatives (Sport England, 2008).



Consequently, throughout the period from the late 1990s until today, sports policy in the UK focused on increasing grass roots sports participation as the basis for elite level sports development (Green & Houlihan, 2004). However, the two contexts are seen to be interlinked, despite being based on relatively distinct principles. For instance, mass participation focuses on equality of opportunity by giving access to less privileged individuals to sports, while elite sports focus on identifying and promoting a pool of exceptional individuals in their attempts to win major sport competitions. These alternatives are seen to be reconciled in Game Plan by the argument that the wider the participation base in sports, the broader is the potential to discover new talents and promote sporting excellence. At the same time, sporting excellence is considered to inspire greater rates of involvement in sports and mass participation. In contrast, as suggested by Green and Houlihan (2004, p.395) the period is also characterised by a shift in *“policy emphasis directed towards the ultimate-goal of medal-winning performances at the highest level”*. In this way there can be seen to be a conflict of interest as mass participation focuses on equality of opportunity while elite sports focus on the competition which promotes the hierarchical structure of sports (Green & Houlihan, 2004).

To sum up, the traditional pluralist phase along with the welfare reform phase clearly promoted sporting excellence by the emphasis of the former on national pride, as a “collective good” which had to be promoted by the state and of the latter on maximising the opportunities for each individual to express their needs and wants and excel at their chosen field (Branham, 1991; Houlihan & White, 2002). On the other hand, the neo-liberal phase impacted extensively upon the state funding in sports, as it pushed the public sector to focus more on the disadvantaged and implement “sport for all” policies in order to tackle inequalities and social disorders (Branham,1991; Houlihan & White, 2002). However, since the early 1990s, the market sector experienced a significant worldwide growth, especially the fitness industry, which increased the challenges for both the government and the voluntary sector in particular (e.g., Minton & Stanley, 2008; Scheerder & Vos, 2010b; Woolf, 2008).

Regardless of these shifts in policy emphasis, a common thread to the various policies is that mass participation in sport has various roles to play in society, and the voluntary sector is important to supporting that. The role of volunteering in sport has generally also been seen to be closely related to enhancing society through the formation of social capital.

## 2.3. Sports Volunteering, Community Enhancement and Social Capital

Volunteers can be viewed as a link between either the sports club or a sport event and the community. It is argued that one of the positive externalities derived from volunteering in such activities is that it contributes to social capital (Handy & Brudney, 2007; Misener & Mason, 2006). Social capital refers to the “trust and reciprocity” occurring on individuals’ relationships when working together for achieving a common goal (Bailey et al., 2003). In this regard, the role of sports and sport clubs in promoting social capital and a shared identity is commented in a number of sources (Coalter, 2007; Delaney & Keaney, 2005). For instance, Guillianotti (1999) argues that governments use sports as a tool for shaping national identities. Likewise volunteers are often described as the targeted ‘soft infrastructure’ following the legacy plans of governments aiming to host a major sport event (Solberg & Preuss, 2007). This refers to the potential of the mobilisation of human resources to other similar events and projects that the wider community would benefit from (Seippel, 2006). However, despite such claims from policy connected with sport concerning its role in the development of social capital, a lack of adequate conceptualisation of the term “social capital” is still evident in the literature (Nichols, Tacon & Muir, 2012). This suggests a need to consider how it can apply to sport.

Bourdieu was among the first scholars who developed the idea of social capital. He viewed social capital as *“the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance or recognition”* (Bourdieu, 1985, p. 248). The nature of these resources was considered to be mainly cultural and social rather than economic. Consequently, Bourdieu acknowledged the benefits of developing social networks, which would result in developing social and cultural capital and the advantages this exposure would bring to the individual as a form of power. Bourdieu (1985) defined cultural capital as the privileged knowledge and recognition that come from arenas such as upbringing,

social class, and family connections that afford individuals distinct personal and professional advantages (p.39). The underlying power structures that lead individuals to form social relationships was one of the main conceptions of Bourdieu in his view of social capital. Bourdieu (1985) asserted that involvement in social networks is a conscious and inherent choice and is driven by individuals' desire to maintain their social status and interests (Glover & Hemingway, 2005). Consequently, according to Bourdieu, social capital is constantly manipulated for the acquisition of personal benefits and ultimately economic benefits, as these two are directly related. Furthermore, Bourdieu (1985) concluded that some individuals have a distinct advantage comparing to others, in the way their social status is pre-determined by old family traditions and connections and enables them to access certain cultural and social resources at an earlier age, whilst the rest discover such resources later in life, after getting exposed to a school environment. This relates to Porter's (1998) view of social capital as belonging to individuals but only in relation to others. This implies that significant others as well as the environment affects the acquisition of social and cultural resources and hence the development of human capital which refers to the personal development of the individual and subsequently social capital which refers to the collective development of social networks who base their relationships on shared values and trust. Critics of Bourdieu's notion of social capital suggests that he largely emphasizes on social capital as an asset of the elites who have the power to exclude others from their social networks. Moreover, he believed social capital not to be inherently good but something constantly manipulated for the benefit of the elite in order to preserve their class, social networks and interests (Blackshaw & Long, 2005; Glover & Hemingway, 2005). Even though, the notion of exclusivity is evident in some social networks which promote participation to only like-minded people who satisfy certain criteria, it is not the only way social capital can be developed and not exclusively accessible to those with power.

Coleman's (1990) conceptualisation of social capital, stresses the significance of the social structures, norms and networks in developing human capital (in the form of knowledge, skills' acquisition, education, and expertise) and the

individuals' exercised free choice in making use of the various sources of capital development, as an expression of their self-interest. In other words, Coleman (1990) emphasized the importance of social capital in creating human capital in more individualistic terms. Consequently, he focused on the ability of human capital development to increase an individual's competencies in performing a certain task and how this affects their relations and behaviour with others, thus developing social capital. Furthermore, Coleman recognises that social capital consists of social networks that base their existence in relations of trust, obligations and expectations. However, access to these networks is not granted to outsiders unless they are committed to follow such pre-determined relations of trust, values and obligations (Glover & Hemingway, 2005). Coleman (1988) discussed the importance of six forms of social capital: obligations and expectations, information potential, norms and sanctions, authority relations, appropriable social organization, and intentional organizations. Obligations and expectations refer to "*incentives to invest in social relationships because investors trust that other members of the network will reciprocate*" (Glover & Hemingway, 2005, p. 391). This implies that people develop social relationships because they expect benefits in return. Information channels describe "*individuals access to specialized or privileged information that others have obtained*" (Glover & Hemingway, 2005, p. 391). Access to information channels implies the development of cultural capital as suggested by Bourdieu (1985). The third form of social capital refers to social norms, which suggests that an individual is engaged in social activities and interactions, based on social conventions even if the activity is not for the benefit of one self but for that of the general community (Glover & Hemingway, 2005, p.391). Authority relations, is a form of social capital that refers to "*transfer 'rights of control' from several group members to one member who may then employ the resulting extensive network access to achieve a specific goal*" (Glover & Hemingway, 2005, p. 391). Therefore, authority relations refer to power relations within social groups. Appropriable social organization was "one that was developed for one purpose but may be appropriated for another" purpose (Glover & Hemingway, 2005, p. 391). This form of social capital refers to transferring skills and competencies of a network of people to another area that would benefit from their contributions. For

instance, in this case, volunteers involved in sports clubs could have developed skills and competencies, which would be essential in other areas of sport development such as in sport events. Lastly, intentional organizations “*bring people together to create a new entity which directly benefits them and others who invest in it, but also benefits others who are less immediately involved*” (Glover & Hemingway, 2005, p. 391). This form of social capital again describes how the development of social networks, in that case volunteer networks could bring benefits not only to the individual volunteers involved in terms of human capital but also to the general community as cultural and social capital. Coleman (1990) also discussed the significance of social ties that determine individual’s relationships within a community. Granovetter (1973) was the first scholar to discuss the concept of social ties. Social ties can be either strong or weak. Strong ties describe the relationships with friends and family, with whom an individual interacts on a daily basis. In contrast, weak ties describe relationships with people other than friends and family that an individual forms on a more casual basis. However, Granovetter (1973) stressed the importance of weak ties in developing a broader network of relationships and interactions with a larger group of people. Consequently, Coleman (1990) concluded that strong and weak ties contribute to the development of social connections and networks and subsequently to forming social capital. Coleman’s conception of social capital is more concrete than that of other scholars, in the sense that it acknowledges the individual’s desire to bring about change, interact and form social relationships based on trust and make use of their skills that would subsequently lead to social capital development (Blackshaw & Long, 2005).

Putnam (2000) is another scholar that developed the notion of social capital. He defined social capital as “*connections among individuals – social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them*” (Putnam, 2000, p. 19). Putnam (2000) argued that social capital can be experienced in different forms. For instance, it can be found in both formal social networks such as membership of professional associations, voluntary associations, sports clubs etc. or informal networks such as relationships with friends, family or neighbours, which either take place less regularly and/or in informal settings.

Putnam (2000) distinguishes between two different forms of social capital, “bonding” and “bridging”. Bonding social capital refers to the strengthening of social ties of familiarity, trust and closeness between members of homogenous groups, while bridging applies to linking heterogeneous groups and the formation of social relationships and bonds within them. Woolcock (2001) extends the theory of social capital further, by introducing the concept of linking capital. This notion simply suggests a vertical relationship between different social strata and the attempts to mobilise and make use of a wider set of resources in order to maximise community involvement.

Putnam’s work, contrary to other scholars, emphasises group relationships and the development of social capital that can occur through these shared experiences. According to Putnam (2000), voluntary associations are a major element of community involvement. Voluntary associations reinforce opportunities for regular social interaction and collective action by bringing together strangers and contributing to the development of social bonds between them. Putnam (2000) suggested a decline of these associations and the opportunities for social networking they represented, and a move towards more individualistic action. Putnam (2000) attributed this decline in the increased time commitments of individuals due to work and family. Moreover, he suggested that the increased urbanization and the emergence of new technological advancements, which led individuals to pursue new forms of entertainment contributed to this decline of social capital. Another factor that led to the weakening of social interactions is generational change, as Putnam (2000) suggested that the new generations do not interact in the same way previous generations did (Blackshaw & Long, 2005; Putnam, 2000).

Consequently, according to Putnam (2000) social capital can be strengthened by the nature and level of volunteering within communities. Trust and reciprocity at a personal level developed within voluntary associations can be transferred to the wider community, as a generalized form of trust. Empirical evidence, in this regard is however weak (Nichols et al., 2012). Critics of Putnam’s conceptualization of social capital suggested that social capital is not equally

experienced and not in the same way from all members of an organization or from all members of the society at large (Hemingway, 1999; Misener & Mason, 2006; Sharpe, 2006). Blackshaw and Long (2005) asserted that inequalities within the wider community are evident in smaller associations within it. Blackshaw and Long (2005) suggested that most leisure organizations have formed their own power relations and group dynamics, which makes it difficult when it comes to joining this association. Therefore, even if a person is granted access to an organization, this does not imply that an equal access to smaller sub-groups or other resources within the organization will occur. This relates to Portes (1998) notion of social capital as belonging to the individual but in relation to significant others in particular contexts. For instance, Glover (2004) elaborated on the notion of exclusivity in organizations based along ethnic and social class matters that prevents other people from joining. In his study on community gardeners he noted that *“communal forms of leisure socially connect individuals with each other to forge reciprocal relationships”* (p. 144) but this only applies to individuals who share these common values.

For instance, in terms of sport organizations, Walseth (2008) reviewed the way bonding and bridging is formed and expressed at sports clubs in Norway. Qualitative results of this study suggest that sport clubs were potentially formed as an arena to strengthen existing friendships and reflected the similarities between the club members in terms of gender and ethnicity. This clearly reflects a form of bonding social capital. Therefore, this collective identity that is reinforced through membership of voluntary associations is more an identity-based trust, developed through shared norms and values between individuals. In this respect, in the majority of the voluntary sports clubs, this is reflected and linked to the particular sport they promote (Kramer, 2009; Nichols et al., 2012). To a similar extent, Vermeulen and Verweel (2009) concluded that sports clubs in the Netherlands recruited new volunteers from a network of existing or former players, which again reflects a form of bonding social capital.

Recognising the distinction between bridging and bonding social capital, it might be expected that if bonding dominates, the recruitment of new volunteers in



sport clubs is less likely to occur if outsiders do not share this common identity and values such as the love of sport (Nichols et al., 2012). This notion is consistent with Hoggert and Bishops' (1985) conceptualization of the voluntary sector as organised around enthusiasts, and groups of individuals sharing values. Nichols et al. (2012) further supports this idea by suggesting that volunteers in sport clubs are recruited on the basis that existing constituencies within the club trust their commitment to certain values, for example the promotion of a given sport or the respective club. This contradicts Putnam's (2000) assumption that a wider trust among members of the general community is facilitated by the involvement in voluntary organisations (Nichols et al., 2012). However, love of the sport could act as a potential basis for bridging social capital. As suggested by Nichols et al. (2012), the voluntary sports club could be less reluctant to recruit new members outside the club, when an evidence of love for the particular sport existed, such as an affiliation to the governing body, a coaching qualification, parental motivation to promote children's participation, or a sports-related degree, which would benefit the club in the long term. This in turn, implies a form of generalized trust but more restricted in a sense (Nichols et al., 2012). Moreover, as Coalter (2008) suggested, bonding is "*an essential first step in building the collective confidence, cohesion and cooperation*" to bridge and facilitate trust-building across heterogeneous groups (p.56). However, both conceptualizations of social capital (Coleman, 1990; Putnam, 2000), either referring to bridging and bonding social capital or exercising individuals' free choice for self-actualization through involvement in a variety of social networks can be developed through voluntary associations, even though building trust within the organization would require more time commitment in some instances from the individual's part (Nichols et al., 2012).

This, as several scholars note (Doherty & Misener, 2008; Seippel, 2008) is more evident in voluntary sports clubs rather than other voluntary associations due to the relevant isolation of sports clubs in terms of their members' interests which are concentrated and stem from the love of the sport concerned and thus do not encompass volunteers in a more broader sense. However, while being a member of a sport club or volunteering at a single sports event reflects meeting the needs

of like-minded people, it should be acknowledged that individuals bring into such social networks pre-existing levels of social capital developed over time, through their involvement in similar activities which facilitate social mobility (Nicholson & Hoye, 2008).

For the purposes of this study, the conceptualizations of social capital suggested by Coleman and Putnam are adopted as they include these main points:

- Membership of voluntary associations facilitates social capital development in the sense that it brings together individuals, who share the same interests and values and as part of this membership commitment they develop social bonds and trust.
- When bonding dominates at a particular association this may imply that individuals are less inclined to volunteer in other contexts as they have formed tight-knit relationships with the other members of the association. If it does not then bridging across activities is encouraged as volunteers may seek to satisfy their interests such as the love of the sport which would promote this transfer of volunteer effort across contexts.
- The notion of social ties and the desire of individuals to form social networks and satisfy their interests facilitate also social mobility and the transfer of effort across contexts.

These issues will be covered in detail in section 2.7 and 2.8 that deal with the promotion of future volunteering and the theoretical foundation underlying why people volunteer and how this behaviour changes over time and across settings.

## **2.4. The Evolution, Scale and Scope of the Sports Voluntary Sector in the UK**

*“Volunteerism is an expression of social trust and reciprocity”* (Doherty & Misener, 2008, p.120). Voluntary sport clubs in the UK emerged out of a desire for associativity, as described by Szymanski and Andreff (2006). Associativity reflects the *“tendency of individuals to create social networks and organizations outside of the family”* (Szymanski, 2006, p.1), which was evident during the 18<sup>th</sup> century. Hutson (n.d.) argues that voluntary associations reflected social groupings of the 19<sup>th</sup> century developed out of relationships of friendship or kinship and exhibited similarities in terms of their members’ interests. The majority of UK sport governing bodies were established during that period, as a way of expressing and satisfying the interests of like-minded people. An example of this is the Marylebone Cricket Club (MCC) out of which the governing body of cricket was formed in its current form (Torkildsen, 1999). Similarly, Downward et al. (2009) suggest that voluntary sport associations originate from associations of former pupils of public schools who were keen in retaining their associativity through playing their school sports. It is further suggested that team sports were disseminated in the broader educational system by such associations. It is also implied that the voluntary sector emerged as a way to correct government’s failure to supply society with sporting opportunities. Most governments would struggle to deliver additional social services and thus volunteering in several cases was used to facilitate the provision of community opportunities in a cost-effective way (Wolsey & Abrams, 2001). In other words, the heterogeneity of consumers’ demands implied that the government would have to cater for and satisfy a variety of needs and preferences, for what might be small-scale activities. However, governments tend to supply goods based on majority voting and hence this would lead to dissatisfied consumers, as it would be impossible for the public sector to satisfy such a variation in individuals’ interests (Downward et al., 2009; Weisbrod, 1978). Moreover, as Downward et al. (2009) point out the hierarchical nature of English sports implied some sort of competition and rivalry, which could only be facilitated by the voluntary sports

sector as its main priority is to satisfy the collective needs, rather than needs of the individual. In contrast, private sports centres focus on the improvement of the physique and image of the individual member and this is facilitated by higher participation costs. Therefore, it is evident that sport provision in the UK was historically left to groups of enthusiastic individuals who shared a common passion for promoting their sport to the community.

Governments' interest in promoting, influencing and controlling volunteering has developed gradually with the period after the Second World War being its focal and starting point. This coincided with the advent of policies (Beveridge report) aiming to promote a welfare state which despite being assumed by many that the need for charity and volunteering has to be removed this eventually did not happen, as Beveridge, the founder of the idea of the welfare state recognised volunteering as an integral part of a healthy democracy in his report titled *Voluntary Action* (Deakin 1995, 1996). It was also acknowledged that the importance of volunteerism as a form of activism is broader than just nationalised efforts to promote the wider welfare state (Rochester, 2006; Sheard, 1986). Therefore, the role of volunteering was sought to be supported and hence Volunteering England, an agency aiming to support this role was founded during the 1960s. During the end of the 1970s, the Wolfenden committee report on the future of voluntary organizations was published and was the key for the development of the sector, as it is today. This report highlighted the role of the sector and stressed the importance of local intermediary agencies in promoting, developing and maintaining voluntary action (Kendall, 2003; Osbourne, 1999). In the years that followed from 1979 to 1997, with the conservative governments of Margaret Thatcher and John Major as Prime Ministers, volunteering took the form of rolling back the state. Service planning and finance was distinguished from service delivery and the voluntary sector facilitated service provision in a cost-effective way as well as it enabled the state to reach its goals for welfare provision by focusing on the unemployed or other socially disadvantaged groups of individuals to take up volunteering (Howlett, 2008). The labour government of 1997 with Tony Blair as the Prime Minister showed a keen interest in promoting volunteering and voluntary associations as this would

facilitate its aim to promote a culture of partnership (Lewis, 2005, p.121). This was reflected in several attempts to raise the profile of the sector and enable under-represented groups to volunteer. Examples of this include the Millennium Volunteers scheme which specifically targeted young people and their involvement to the community, the Home Office Older Volunteers Initiative focusing on older people and the Black and Minority Ethnic Twinning Initiative targeting people from ethnic minorities and identifying strategies on how to engage them in volunteering (Howlett, 2008). In the recent past, emphasis has been placed on improving the existing volunteering infrastructure and support to the volunteers as well as on groups that are under-represented in volunteering or at risk of social exclusion and not only focusing on specific populations (Howlett, 2008).

Prior to hosting the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games, the formation of a Conservative-majority Coalition Government after the General Election in 2010 marked the promotion of the “Big Society” idea. The “Big Society” concept was proposed in an attempt to use volunteering as a means to “rolling back the state”, which, in other words is an attempt to reduce state deficit following the economic austerity and decentralize state intervention and power from the government to the individual, through enhancing citizens’ opportunities for a more active involvement in community life, and thus social capital enhancement (Alcock, 2010; Scott, 2011). As it is stated in the “Building a Stronger Civil Society” report, *‘together with citizens and communities, the voluntary and community sector sits at the heart of the Government’s ambitions to create a Big Society’* (Office for Civil Society, 2010, p.3), highlighting the significance of the voluntary sector in achieving the government’s Big Society ambitions to transfer ownership of welfare services provision from the public sector to the voluntary organizations and also to the individual volunteer (Alcock, 2010).

The rationale for the “Big Society” policy lies into the potential of informal educational pursuits such as volunteering to contribute to social capital enhancement in a cost-effective way, unlikely to more traditional methods such as education, which require a more active government involvement and

resources (European Commission, 2007; Morgan, 2013). The anticipated benefits for the individuals engaging in the process will be to enhance their self-esteem, confidence and leadership skills and consequently develop a highly skilled human capital (Paylor, 2011). However, it should be noted here that, as seen in section 2.3 social capital manifestations vary between and within sports and sport is often seen both as a means to integrate individuals coming from a homogeneous group of people, or to exclude others, who do not share similar values with those the sport represents, limiting their capacity to accumulate social capital (Coalter, 2007). Moreover, social capital formation depends on the depth and duration of a volunteers' involvement with the volunteer activity (Harvey et al., 2007; Nicholson & Hoye, 2008; Putnam, 2000). Consequently, the evidence to support whether the "Big Society" concept can foster a positive relationship between sport volunteering and social capital reinforcement is currently scarce (Morgan, 2013).

As discussed in previous sections, sports provision lies between two main contexts: sports clubs and elite sport events. Voluntary sport clubs act as the pool for the development of grass-roots sports, talent identification and their subsequent progress to elite level sports. The voluntary sector in the UK is administered and managed at a governmental level from the Department of Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) which is a public body that administers grants and aids support to public bodies that oversee the effectiveness of voluntary sport associations at a local level. For instance, Sport England, the former English Sports Council, is concerned with increasing mass participation levels. This goal is achieved through coordinating and funding County Sports Partnerships (CSP) which in turn coordinate and distribute funding to national sports governing bodies and local authorities for achieving their targets pertaining to the provision of sporting opportunities to the education, private and voluntary sports clubs sector. In contrast, UK Sport was founded in 1996 and is concerned with managing, funding and developing elite level sports through a channel of relevant performance directorates (DCMS, 2008). The Youth Sports Trust was established in 1994 and along with Sport England and UK Sport is another non departmental public body that is concerned with developing youth sports and PE

and school sports in particular. Sport England further cooperates with Volunteering England which is the national volunteering agency aiming to support and develop the voluntary sector within different contexts.

Sport volunteering is the largest area of volunteering at a global level (Cuskelly et al., 2006). For instance, there are more than 1 million volunteers in sport organisations in Australia and Canada. It is claimed that over five million sport volunteers exist in the United Kingdom providing services for approximately 1.2 billion hours each year and these time contributions are worth of £14 billion (Sport England, 2003; Torkildsen, 2005). This equates to 10% of Australian, 5% of Canadian and 11% of the English populations respectively (Cuskelly et al., 2006). The 1997 National Survey of Volunteering estimated an equal number although informal volunteering was not included at this survey (Davis Smith, 1998; Taylor et al., 2003). The 2005/6 Active people survey reported up to 2.7 million volunteers which suggests a lower number than the previous researches (Sport England, 2006). However, this figure includes sport volunteers in designated positions only (e.g. committee members).

Organised sports provide pathways to volunteer in a more formal nature such as by being a coach, official or committee member in sport clubs. Volunteering in English sporting organisations represents 26 per cent of total volunteering and constitutes the largest area of formal volunteering (Sport England, 2003). Sport England (2003) estimated that there are more than 106,000 volunteer sport clubs in England. The above figures show that volunteers sustain the involvement and participation in sports of over eight million members in volunteer clubs (Sport England, 2003). Therefore, sport volunteers enable the clubs viability by decreasing their operational costs as well as by providing low cost services to their members. Furthermore, they help the athletes to progress and provide pathways for socialising to the club members (Gaskin, 2008). Therefore, it is said that "*volunteering is the lifeblood of English sport*" (Sport England, 2003, p.4). However, as previously noted, sport volunteering has also an informal nature which is acknowledged by Sport England (2005c) suggesting the existence of such volunteers who help others in sports such as their friends or relatives but

without being affiliated to a club or other sport organisation. Several authors note that engagement in voluntary activities, either permanent or short-term, is important for active citizenship and community cohesion, as it facilitates the attainment of lifelong skills which enhance individuals' self-esteem and personal development (Davies, 1998; Sport England, 2003).

Over the years, the role of voluntary sport clubs in sustaining sports participation is acknowledged by the UK government, which has implemented several schemes aiming to raise the profile of the sector and provide the appropriate support to the volunteers. Among the first initiatives implemented for increasing the support provided to the volunteers was the Champion Coaching scheme. This initiative was launched during the 1980s and aimed to support volunteers in gaining coaching qualifications and in raising their profile and needs. Following the success of this initiative, a similar attempt was made with the establishment of the National Coaching Foundation that was later renamed to sports coach UK in 1983. The aim of this initiative was to provide coaching-education opportunities to volunteers throughout the UK. Another example of this is Sport England's Volunteer Investment Programme, which was then named Running Sport. This initiative aimed to help community sport clubs to support their volunteers by understanding the needs, the barriers they face in volunteering and ways to recognise and reward their efforts (Nichols & Taylor, 1998). To a similar extent, the sports policy report "*Sport, Raising the Game*" published by the DCMS acknowledged the benefits of supporting volunteers in transferring volunteer efforts to other relevant areas such as in sport development (Torkildsen, 2005). In a similar manner, several surveys were conducted at a national level aiming to inform sport volunteering policies and raise volunteers' support by overcoming the barriers they face in volunteering. Such surveys include the Valuing Volunteers in UK Sport produced by the Sports Council in 1996; the 2002 Sports Volunteering in England report carried out by Sport England as well as the Active People Survey carried out by Sport England in 2005/2006.



### 2.4.1. Sport Events

Apart from volunteering at a club or NSGBs level, events provide another avenue for volunteering in sport. Special events, such as sport events refer to large scale exhibitions or competitions, attract a significant number of participants or spectators (Monga, 2006). The event literature suggests that special events are characterized by either a one-off or a periodic occurrence which is either planned or unplanned (Getz, 1997). Their unique nature is explained by their variety in terms of their duration, management and people (Getz, 1997). Roche (1994) describes special events as *“short-term events with long-term consequences”* (p.1) while Goldblatt (1997) defines them as *“a unique moment in time celebrated with ceremony and ritual to satisfy specific needs”* (p.2). Similarly, McDonnell, Allen & O’ Toole (1990, p.10) argue that *“special events constitute specific rituals, presentations, performances or celebrations that are occasionally planned and created to mark a special occasion or to achieve particular social, cultural or corporate objectives”*. According to Getz (1997) different stakeholders involved in the event adopt different perspectives on how it is defined. The managerial approach describes special events as *“one-time or infrequently occurring outside normal programs or activities of the sponsoring or organising body”* (Getz, 1997, p.4). On the other hand, consumers describe events as *“an opportunity for a leisure, social and cultural experience outside the normal range of choices or beyond everyday experience”* (p. 4).

Sport events constitute the most common type of special events. Sport events are defined as any event where sporting competition or activity is the focus (Cuskelly et al., 2006, p.135). According to Ferrand, Chanavat et al. (2006) *“a sports event is a unifying social situation with an uncertain outcome, the ability to generate shared emotion and specific brand equity”* (p.10). Sport events are particularly organised in order to meet economic, societal and environmental objectives (Ferrand, Chanavat et al., 2006). In terms of societal reasons governments invest in sport events in order to improve their citizens’ well-being, to provide a legacy to the community and to show a degree of social responsibility (Ferrand, Chanavat et al., 2006). This is further supported by the

fact that in every major sport event there are training courses to enhance volunteers capabilities (Solberg & Preuss, 2007). In addition, some organizing committees launch human development programmes into the service sector (Solberg & Preuss, 2007). For instance, the Athens 2004 organising committee provided English courses for taxi drivers during the Olympic period (Solberg & Preuss, 2007).

## **2.4.2. Types of sport Events**

Sport events vary in terms of their size and level of sophistication (Cuskelly et al., 2006). There are different types of sport events which are distinguished by their duration, their occurrence, the type of activity they involve, the sporting disciplines and the participants who can be of different ages and abilities (ASC, 2000a). Gratton et al. (2000, p.190) identified the following typology for sport events:

- Type A: or Hallmark events which are irregular, one-off major international spectator events generating significant economic activity and media interest (e.g. Olympics, World Cup, European Football Championship).
- Type B: Major spectator events generating significant economic activity, media interest and part of an annual cycle of sports events (e.g. FA Cup final, Six Nations Rugby Union Internationals, Test Match Cricket, Open Golf, Wimbledon).
- Type C: Irregular, one-off, major international spectator/competitor events generating limited economic activity (e.g. European Junior Boxing Championships, European Junior Swimming Championships, World Badminton Championships, IAAF Grand Prix).
- Type D: Major competitor events generating limited economic activity and part of an annual cycle of sports events (e.g. national championships in most sports).

The existing literature has emphasised mostly hallmark or mega events. Hallmark events are defined as “*major fairs, expositions, special events, mega-*

*events and unique, status or major events cultural and sporting events of international status which they may be held on either a regular or one time basis*” (Getz, 1997; Hall, 1989, p.263; Hall, 1995; Mules & Faulkner, 1996). Hallmark sport events have four key characteristics. First and foremost, their size makes them distinct from other non-hallmark sport events, which means that national and international authorities, governments agencies, international and national federations are involved in the organization of such events in order to provide the essential infrastructure to support the event (Westerbeek, Turner & Ingerson, 2002). Second, Hallmark events are characterised by a significant exposure to the media, as they generate a world-wide interest and awareness for the event in particular and the host city in general. Therefore, the selling of broadcasting rights is very high prior or during such an event due to the high financial returns from sponsorship contracts. Third, the size of hallmark events requires a high technological infrastructure which must meet international federations and event-owners criteria such as advanced sporting infrastructure (stadiums and venues), suitable event location, skilled employees, accommodation and transport infrastructure of superior quality and event management expertise to successfully host those events (Westerbeek et al., 2002). Last but not least, it is essential for a bidding city to have support from both direct and indirect stakeholders such as the government, commercial companies and also local community’s support in order to be successful in the bidding process (Ernst & Young, 1992; Ingerson & Westerbeek, 2000; Mc Geoch & Korporaal, 1995).

## **2.5. Volunteers at Major Sport Events**

Major sport events such as the Olympic, Commonwealth Games and World Championships increasingly rely on volunteers' for successful staging of the event (Cuskelly et al., 2006). Such events have considerably grown in size and complexity and hence their staging presents organizational difficulties and financial burdens to the organizing committees. Consequently, a vast amount of volunteer workforce is needed and employed in a variety of areas in order to sustain their operations (Auld, Cuskelly & Harrington, 2009; Panagiotopoulou, 2005). The larger the event's size the more the organizing committees rely on volunteers' contributions (Downward & Ralston, 2005; Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998; Strigas & Jackson, 2003). Volunteers are involved in a variety of areas and roles such as media, marketing, venue management, transportation, first aid provision, registration, hospitality, customer service, administration, officiating, accreditation, language support, spectator services, ticketing volunteers, ushering services, specialist and general services whereas they contribute substantially to the viability of the event by using their skills and expertise (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Ralston, Downward & Lumsdon, 2002). Moreover, they are involved in managing and guiding the large numbers of crowds attending such events and enhancing spectators and participants' experiences. Consequently, this suggests considerable planning on the part of the organizing committees in recruiting and training members of the public to fulfil these tasks (Auld et al., 1999; Baum & Lockstone, 2007). The number of volunteers has considerably grown since the LA Olympic Games in 1984. The scale, complexity and the number of competing athletes and countries involved at the Olympic Games explains the reliance on a vast amount of volunteer resources. For instance, 40,000 volunteers assisted with the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, while approximately 45,000 volunteers were involved at the Athens 2004 Olympic Games (Cuskelly et al., 2006). In contrast, 10,500 volunteers were involved in the XVII Commonwealth Games held in Manchester in 2002 (Downward & Ralston, 2005). This was the largest volunteer workforce for a sport event held in the UK, before the last Olympic Games held last summer in London, as 70,000 volunteers assisted with the event's operations (London

2012, 2012; Magnay, 2012; Ralston et al., 2002). To a similar extent, 15,000 volunteers assisted with the 2006 Commonwealth Games operations, held in Melbourne, Australia (Cuskelly et al., 2006). Moreover, Russell (2005) notes that smaller scale sport events such as the London Marathon and the Wimbledon Tennis Championship involve approximately 6,000 and 5,000 volunteers respectively.

As previously noted, the Manchester Commonwealth Games was until recently the largest multi-sport event ever held in the UK. The recruitment, training and coordination of the large pool of volunteers involved was undertaken by Manchester 2002 Ltd, which developed several campaigns to attract individuals from the general public. An example of such an initiative is the “Count Yourself In” campaign which resulted in over 22,000 applications expressing interest to volunteer at the Games. Moreover, a Pre Volunteer Programme was undertaken aiming to raise interest and awareness about the benefits of volunteering among people representing socially disadvantaged groups such as those with low-income, the unemployed, or people from socially deprived areas. This initiative also aimed to offer opportunities for training among such members of the public in order to increase their competencies and experiences and enhance their future career prospects. Even though these initiatives were considered to be successful in part, as 10,500 assisted with the Games operations, the Organizing Committee failed to allow these individuals to be contacted after the Games for future volunteering opportunities as data protection schemes were not implemented at the recruitment process (GHK, 2010).

2012 Olympic Games held last summer in London were dependent upon the efforts of 70,000 individuals plus another 30,000 volunteers who assisted with the Paralympic Games operations. One of the key legacy targets set before the organization of the Games was their potential to inspire the younger generation to be more active in terms of sports participation, community volunteering and in cultural pursuits. Therefore, as with the Commonwealth Games another Pre Volunteering Programme (PVE) was implemented for the London 2012 Olympic Games. This time the PVE was implemented as an accredited National Vocational

Qualification (NVQ) in applied generic volunteering skills Level 1. This course provided training and knowledge in areas such as customer service, health and safety, and equality and diversity. Then each individual undertaking the course had the opportunity to apply this knowledge through placements in local sports clubs, leisure centres or other community and youth organizations. Each volunteer was provided with a support network including volunteer coordinators and mentors who assisted them when that was needed. Consequently, such initiatives along with other schemes implemented contributed to increasing volunteers' employability skills and raising awareness about volunteering and sports volunteering in particular which resulted in approximately 250,000 individuals applying to volunteer for the 2012 London Olympic Games. However, whether the legacy targets of the Organizing Committee were successful is an issue that needs to be addressed during the years to come (GHK, 2010).

It is evident, therefore, that volunteering is a *“key element of mega events that has the potential to contribute to social regeneration and the strengthening of social capital”* (Coalter, 2004, p.9). Therefore, organizing committees should place more emphasis on understanding of what motivates individuals to volunteer at major sport events, enhancing their experiences, assessing the outcomes of their experience and responding effectively to their need in order to develop a potential volunteer base, willing to assist with future events and community projects (Williams et al., 1995).

The above discussion, suggests that understanding the determinants of volunteering in both club and events is important for sports organisations such as the governing bodies of sports when seeking to recruit volunteers to support events organized by them at their respective sport and to keep them committed to the sport.

## **2.6. The Determinants of Volunteering**

The literature suggests that the main determinants of volunteering are motivations, socio-demographic context, engagement in sport and satisfaction with the volunteering experience.

### **2.6.1. Volunteer motivations**

The term motivation is used to describe all these 'complex forces, drives, needs, tension states, or other mechanisms that initiate and sustain volunteer involvement within a cause, club, event or community project (Miskel, 1982, p.137). Understanding volunteer motivation is essential for adopting effective volunteer recruitment, support, management and retention techniques (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Harrison, 1995).

Several authors have emphasised the links between volunteer behaviour and needs-based motivation theories (Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1953; McClelland, 1972). Based on their notions, human needs in volunteering are expressed in three different forms: achievement motivation, authority power motivation and affiliation motivation which are linked to the social capital notion. McClelland's theory (1972, 1988) suggests that these dominant motivational forces have an impact upon volunteer's decisions to assist in any voluntary activity. Achievement-oriented volunteers are driven by specific outcomes and hence they are primarily motivated by their need to achieve a certain goal. This is also linked to the development of social capital by Coleman (1990), who, as discussed in section 2.3, stressed the importance of individuals' expression of free choice to make use of their intellectual capital in performing a certain task and achieving goals, which in turn affects the individuals' relations with others, thus creating social capital. Power-motivated individuals are driven by their inherent desire to assert their authority, influence and lead others and hence increase their prestige. This kind of motivational force is linked to the social capital theory as explained by Coleman (1990) and Bourdieu (1985) who stressed that social capital development is driven by individuals' seeking to maintain their social

networks and social status and assert their authority in relation to others within social groups (Glover and Hemingway, 2005). In contrast, individuals with the affiliation motivation more prevalent are driven by the need to form and develop social relationships with others, interact and cooperate (McClelland, 1972, 1988). This again reflects the social capital literature and in particular Putnam's (2000) notion of social capital, which can be developed through affiliation to and interaction with social groups and networks that share values and trust.

Motivation to volunteer in sports is expressed in a variety of ways. A large body of the volunteering literature emphasizes the divide between intrinsic and extrinsic factors, whilst other authors argue that motivation to volunteer in sports emerges out of a balance between self-interest (albeit expressed in a variety of ways) with altruism. Intrinsic motivation is expressed through seeking involvement in activities that satisfy inherent needs, such as enjoyment and fun, leisure pursuits, the desire to contribute to a worthwhile activity, or the seeking of a challenge for personal gains, growth and human capital development (Ryan & Deci, 2002). In contrast, extrinsic motivation is expressed through the seeking of approval from significant others, external rewards or other benefits and social pressures. The volunteer has little or no control over such external influences, which may take a variety of forms (Antoni, 2009). An example of this is that several companies require their employees to volunteer, either for gaining experience and skills or in order to meet their social responsibility objectives towards the community. Often, both intrinsic and extrinsic factors influence individuals' decision to volunteer (Antoni, 2009). Pearce (1993) however suggests that altruism is not relevant in explaining volunteers' motivations. He rather notes that the term "prosocial" is better in describing such behaviour, as it involves a certain degree of self-interest which is combined with a desire to assist others while not involving any form of self-sacrifice on the part of the volunteer.

For instance, Clark and Wilson (1961) proposed a typology of measuring volunteer motivation and identified that there are both tangible (material rewards with a monetary value) and intangible dimensions (solidarity incentives



that foster emotional attachments) of volunteering. They stressed also the importance of purposive dimensions of motivations to volunteer (intangible motives that derive from the mission and the goals of the organisation) (Clark & Wilson, 1961). Being engaged in volunteering implies that the individuals may experience emotional rewards such as solidarity and friendship. Hence both tangible and intangible rewards stem from being engaged in a voluntary activity, such as meeting new people, access to training courses or sport competitions, which subsequently lead to the development of human (through the acquisition of skills) and social (through the development of social bonds and trust between individuals) capital. Parker (1997) argued that volunteering can be expressed in four different forms: altruism, serving a cause, leisure pursuits or market (expecting something in return).

### **2.6.1.1. Measuring Motivation of Sports Clubs Volunteers**

Such motivations have been investigated in the literature through formalised scales and then applied in the context of club and community volunteering. Several scales such as the Motivation to Volunteer (MTV) scale developed by Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) discuss the existence and importance of both altruistic and egoistic motivations for volunteering. Clary et al. (1998) adopted a functionalistic approach to assess volunteers' motivation. They developed the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) scale in order to delineate and measure the functions of volunteering. These functions were labelled: (a) values, which express individuals' altruistic concern for others; (b) understanding, which express volunteers' desire to gain knowledge, experience and skills; (c) social, which express volunteers' need for social interaction, interpersonal relationships and participation in activities that are viewed favourably by significant others such as family members or friends; (d) career, which express that volunteering may be a path for a future career and hence volunteers can gain specific skills for a future employment; (e) protective, which is concerned with the functioning of ego and the individuals' need to reduce negative feelings through volunteering; (f) enhancement, which indicates individuals' need for personal growth and development through voluntary work. The Volunteer Function Inventory showed

internal consistency among the different factors and stability among different group of people (Clary et al., 1998).

Several studies also take into consideration the notion that volunteering is a form of leisure activity (Burdge, 1969; Crandall, 1979; Defee et al., 1974; Dennis & Zube, 1988; Noe, 1973; Stern & Noe, 1973; Tedrick & Henderson, 1989). Beard and Ragged (1983) measured leisure motivation and suggested that *“individuals are driven to engage in leisure activities for different reasons, and the study of these reasons and their origins is central to the understanding of leisure behaviour”* (p. 227). They proposed a typology of four dimensions. These dimensions were titled (a) intellectual, which includes motives that are related to the satisfaction of mental needs such as learning and creating, (b) social, which includes motives that satisfy the need for interpersonal relationships, (c) competence-mastery, which includes needs for achievement, competition and challenge and (d) stimulus-avoidance which express individuals’ needs to avoid and escape from social contacts. Although the last subscale is less relevant to volunteering and more consistent with outdoor leisure activities the other subscales are consistent with the factors that are presented in most studies on volunteers’ motivation as well as within social capital literature (Strigas & Jackson, 2003). Stebbins (1996) also stresses the importance of *“leisure volunteering”* which means that volunteering is conceived as a leisure activity. Volunteers exchange their time, effort and labour for psychological benefits rather than financial gains (Green & Chalip, 1998). In other words, volunteering is first and foremost *“a satisfying or enjoyable experience (or a combination of both)”* (Stebbins, 1996, p.4) The leisure perspective of volunteering supports that the main reason for volunteering is self-interest and that volunteers tend to be unaware of the impacts their contribution have on society (Stebbins, 1996). Leisure volunteering has three main forms. It can be viewed as a serious, casual or project-based leisure activity (Stebbins, 1996). Serious leisure volunteering is defined as the systematic pursuit of an activity which is interesting in nature for the participants and acquires the combination of their intellectual capital such as skills, knowledge and experience (Stebbins, 1992). According to Stebbins (2000) leisure volunteering cannot be viewed as an obligation. In other words, although people

are committed to undertake an activity either by the circumstances or by external influences they nevertheless feel satisfaction and have pleasant memories and expectations from the voluntary activity. Thus, this behaviour is described as “agreeable obligation” which is associated with positive attachments to the voluntary activity.

Contrary to these more formalised scales of conceptualizing volunteer motivations, empirical work in England, and elsewhere, has also revealed a more informal framework of individual reasons for volunteering. Sport England’s (2003) major investigation in sport volunteering within clubs in the UK, was conducted through telephone interviews, questionnaire surveys and focus groups in 103 different sports clubs and notes that typical motivations include altruism in sports, expressed through helping the organization to achieve its goals by putting time commitment and personal efforts into sports. Self-interest is also a relevant reason for volunteering and is expressed through seeking social benefits such as friendship and camaraderie through club membership and volunteering reflecting the relevance of volunteering in stimulating social capital development as discussed in section 2.3 of this chapter (Cuskelly et al. 2006; Shibli et al., 1999; Sport, England, 2003; Welch & Long, 2006). Former athletes or players of clubs, driven by a desire to retain their links with the sport and their associativity with the club after their athletic career has ended, are the most prevalent constituency in VSCs that supports this notion (Cuskelly, et al., 2006; Nichols & Shepherd, 2006; Welch & Long, 2006). Coleman (2002) further confirms this tendency by suggesting that volunteer managers of the County youth Cricket league were less inclined to volunteer for altruistic reasons rather than to fulfil their own needs and interests. This thus implies that sport volunteers are more likely to volunteer for their own benefit than general volunteers do (Shibli et al., 1999). Other reasons that sport volunteering emerges include the provision of support to members of family and friends that participate in the club’s activities, such as their children (Doherty, 2005; Nichols & Shepherd, 2006) or in order to support a cause they believe in (Doherty, 2005). Shibli et al. (1999) also identified that most of the individuals volunteering in sports clubs initiate their involvement by offering to help (55%).

Being asked to help was also a significant reason in which volunteers became involved (52%). Therefore, this implies that clubs authorities can act proactively by asking their members or their relatives to start volunteering rather than waiting for them to offer to help (Shibli et al., 1999).

Similar trends have been identified by other studies across different countries. Cuskelly et al. (2006) identified that rugby club volunteers in Australia are motivated primarily by self-interest reasons such as enjoyment and fun derived from being members of the club or having fun when volunteering. Altruism is also relevant among them, as they suggested that supporting the club to survive is also significant. The National Survey of Giving, Volunteering and Participating (NSGVP) 2000 in Canada cited similar reasons. In particular, it is suggested that both general and sport volunteers start volunteering in order to support a cause they believe in or in order to use their skills and experience to support the organization. This reflects again the importance of sports volunteering in the development of social capital, by being an avenue for the enthusiasts of the sport to express their desire to make use of their intellectual capital to perform tasks, to share values and maintain their social networks through volunteering (Coleman, 1990; Doherty, 2005; Glover & Hemingway, 2005; Hoggert & Bishop, 1985; Putnam, 2000). It was also found, that sport volunteers in Canada are more likely to volunteer because someone they know is already volunteering in an organization, comparing to general volunteers. This corroborates Nichols (2006), who noted that more than half of sport clubs volunteers in the UK initially volunteer as a result of their children involvement. Both sport and general volunteers in Canada are less likely to volunteer in a club in order to explore their own strengths or because their friends are already volunteering (Doherty, 2005). Sport Volunteers in New Zealand are motivated by altruistic values as well as the love of sport, seeking of social interaction and feeling appreciated (SPARC, 2006).

### **2.6.1.2. Measuring Event Volunteers' Motivations**

The literature on sport event volunteering has emphasised at its potential to develop social capital and to foster community development (Misener & Mason, 2006). Community refers to both geographical proximity and some form of social communality that fosters interactions, respect, trust and mutual understanding between the wider social groupings that belong to this community. This particular approach stresses the importance of a widespread community participation in the development of human, environmental, political, economic and technological resources to empower its members to influence social change and to actively engage in social issues that affect their lives and to express their concern for the needs of the community (McMillan & Chavis, 1986). Volunteering at sport events can be seen as a form of engaging in civic activities and maximizing a community's potential to achieve social, cultural, economic, and political objectives, thus creating and expanding social capital. This expansion, as suggested by Putnam (2000), reflects bridging social capital, as a more generalised trust is achieved across individuals and groups with diverse backgrounds, when working together to achieve wider community objectives that accrue on the occasion of, or as a result of, hosting an international sport event. Moreover, as discussed in section 2.3 of this chapter, Coleman argued that social capital is often developed for *"one purpose but also being appropriate for another purpose"* (Glover & Hemingway, 2005, p. 391), which reflects on the potential of sport events in facilitating the social mobility of the human resources involved at one event to other future community events and activities.

As far as motivation to volunteer in events is concerned, the literature suggests that sport event volunteers tend to have different driving forces, attitudes and characteristics than those involved with community projects, education and social development activities. Volunteers involved in sport organizations tend to have a long-term involvement with the organization as they are motivated by both altruistic and self-interest factors (Davis-Smith, 1998). In contrast, altruism as a motive of volunteering for special events is not as significant as in other volunteering projects (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Treuren and Monga, 2002a). A number of studies have examined the motivations to volunteer at major sport

events and outcomes of such experiences. Several authors suggest that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors can influence individuals' propensity to volunteer at one-off mega events (Parker, 1992; Perkinson, 1992). For instance, Williams et al. (1995) measured volunteer motivation in a skiing competition by proposing a mix of purposive and solidary items within the five highest ranking items. Williams et al. (1995) concluded that volunteering at the Whistler's Men's World Cup of Skiing was driven by the need *"to socialize, in an outdoor setting with others sharing common interests or driven by the desire to support the national team and an enthusiasm for the event"* (p.87). Parker (1997) notes that the pursuit of leisure is a significant contributing factor explaining volunteers' involvement in sport events. As he further suggests, volunteers of such events are in a way fans of the particular sport in question and the opportunity to watch the event and meet the elites of the sport determines their involvement in event volunteering (Parker, 1997). Moreover, Andrew (1996) found that volunteers at an Australian sporting competition suggested that one of the main motivations to volunteer was the enjoyment the event brings and the opportunity to be part of it. Stebbins has discussed the leisure aspect of volunteering in great detail, noting the social benefits volunteering brings to the individual through meeting new people or through being part of a unique experience and feeling needed (Stebbins, 1996; 2012). This reflects individual's expression of free choice to engage in event volunteering and benefit from it through its potential to generate human and social capital.

Similarly, in the context of the Olympic Games, Roenningen (2000) found that Olympic-related volunteering is driven by the opportunity to experience something unique, to take part in an once-in-a-life time experience, the national pride and the desire to help the host country to achieve its objectives, to meet new people, create friendships, learn new skills and enhance career prospects, linking again sport events as sources of human and subsequently social capital. Moragas et al. (2000) suggest that the volunteers of the Calgary, Albertville and Lillehammer Winter Olympic Games were driven by a desire to belong to a group with shared objectives. Therefore, the adoption of certain features that create a sense of belonging to a team such as the uniforms, badges, accessories are an

effective strategy of the Organizing Committees for strengthening the feeling of collective identity of their volunteers (Moragas et al., 2000). To a similar extent, Pi (2001) reported that for the volunteers of the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games, forming relationships with others of different cultures and backgrounds was the most meaningful outcome of their experience, leading to increased levels of satisfaction from involvement. Kemp (2002) assessed the experiences of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games volunteers and found that the “celebratory atmosphere” the event brought and the opportunity to experience it from inside was among the most significant outcomes of their volunteering experience. Reeser et al. (2005) also identified that the polyclinic volunteers at the 2002 Salt Lake City winter Olympic Games were motivated by altruistic reasons, the opportunity to cooperate and meet a variety of people and the uniqueness of the event.

Motivation to volunteer at sport events has been also conceptualised with formalised scales, which sought to quantify the determinants of volunteer motivations and apply them to event-specific contexts. Most of the research instruments used in the literature to assess event volunteers’ motivations are based on the scale proposed by Cnann and Goldberg-Glen (1981). The aforementioned scale was a 22-item uni-dimensional research scale that was originally tested on 258 volunteers and 104 non-volunteers in the area of human services.

Farrell, Johnston and Twynam (1998) examined attributes of volunteers’ motivation and satisfaction at an elite Canadian sporting competition. Their sample included 300 volunteers from the 1996 Scott Tournament of Hearts who were selected randomly from a total of 900 volunteers. Farrell et al. (1998) proposed the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (SEVMS) which was based on Cnann and Goldberg-Glen’s (1981) research instrument. Farrell et al. (1998) modified the scale in order to be relevant for sport events. Principal components analysis with varimax rotation was employed, leading to the extraction of four factors. SEVMS identifies four underlying dimensions which express the desire to contribute to community by doing something useful; social

interaction, group identification and networking; extrinsic influences on an individual's propensity to volunteer; and, finally, the expectations of others. The combination of the factors explained 49.7% of the total variance and the alpha scores ranged from .86 to .65 (Farrell et al., 1998, p. 293) and thus all the factors were retained. Three attributes of satisfaction (satisfaction with volunteer experience, with the organisation of tournament and with tournament facilities) were also examined using a 5-point Likert scale. Farrell et al. (1998) concluded that volunteer motivations are dependent on the nature of the voluntary activity and hence event managers should be able to "*address the variety of motivations when seeking volunteers for special events*" (p.298) in order to manage them effectively, satisfy their needs and provide them with positive volunteering experiences.

Wang (2001) examined the relationship between volunteers' motivations and the intention to volunteer for the 2000 Olympic Games in Sydney, Australia. This study proposes a multi-dimensional instrument which consists of five factors. These factors include the altruistic value factor, which expresses the human values to offer their services to those in need. Personal development factor reflects the participants' need for self-development. The community concern factor reflects individuals' desire to improve their communities and to get involved in community events. Ego enhancement factor is concerned with the desire to enhance an individual's self-esteem and social approval motivations, reflecting people's desire to be favourable in their relationships with others. A quota sampling technique was adopted and a self-completion questionnaire was distributed to 935 individuals, aged 18 years old or over who were living in the metropolitan area of Sydney. The scale was constructed by combining items used in the existing literature and interviews with previous volunteers. The results revealed that personal development, ego enhancement and social approval motivations for sport volunteerism had a positive impact on the intention to volunteer in a major sporting event. It was suggested that the insignificance of the other two dimensions was issue specific and it may not be related to other volunteer contexts. Wang (2001) concluded that a variety of motivations contribute to individuals' behaviour in deciding to volunteer at a sport event. He



further suggested that along with motivations, other variables including time constraints and socio-demographic characteristics affect the intention to volunteer (Wang, 2001).

Strigas (2001) developed another scale to measure motivations of sport event volunteers. His sample included 477 volunteers from the Country Music Marathon. A set of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses revealed a five-factor model that explained the reasons for volunteering at events. The five factors included: The social functions of leisure factor which is concerned with people's needs for social interaction as well as people's needs for leisure and recreation. The Material factor is related to an expected material reward from the volunteer contribution. The Egoistic factor reflects the individual's needs for self-actualisation, self-esteem and achievement. The fourth factor is labelled Purposive and is concerned with the desire of volunteers to contribute to the event's viability and to the community. Lastly, the External Influences factor expresses the influence of others, such as social pressures or friends and relatives, in an individual's propensity to volunteer. Descriptive statistics were also conducted and showed that the egoistic motive was the most important set of incentives for volunteering at this particular event. The results confirmed that Strigas (2001) scale was a valid and reliable instrument.

The scale was further developed by Strigas and Jackson (2003) who broadly confirmed such factors in identifying five motivations linked to material gain; to contribute to the event; leisure; social interaction and family and external links. Bang and Chelladurai (2003) assessed volunteers' motivations, making use of a volunteer sample from the 2002 FIFA World Cup. Their study proposed the Volunteer Motivations Scale for International Sporting Events (VMS-ISE) and after a series of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, identified the importance of expressing values such as altruism expressed through community growth; patriotism; interpersonal contacts through meeting new people and developing friendships; personal growth through feeling needed and enhancing self-esteem; career orientation through gaining contacts and experience and, finally, extrinsic rewards connected with factors such as obtaining a uniform, and

access to the event, as the main reasons explaining volunteers' involvement in major sport events.

Khoo and Enghelhorn (2007) assessed volunteers' motivations at the 13th Malaysian Paralympiad by using a modified version of the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (SEVMS). The authors proposed a five-factor model of volunteer motivation. The five-factors included the purposive, solidary, commitments, family tradition and use of free time dimensions which in general reflect the SEVMS model. The sample of the study comprised of 301 volunteers out of a total of 458 volunteers who were involved in the event. A principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted in order to identify key factors. The results showed that the purposive and solidary factors were more common among Malaysian volunteers. However, the solidary factor was identified among the most cited reasons for volunteering. It is interesting to note, that these volunteers constituted a younger and more homogeneous group, and hence this is reflected by their seeking of social contacts and networking through volunteering. Moreover, the majority of them expected a reward from their contribution and incentives for their personal development. Khoo and Enghelhorn (2007) concluded that volunteering in sports varies and depends on the demographics of the volunteer population. Therefore, although altruistic motives are significant for sport volunteers, event managers should take into account that social interaction and personal development are important for some volunteers as well (Khoo & Enghelhorn, 2007).

Giannoulakis, Wang and Gray (2008) in their study investigated attributes of motivation for volunteers at the Athens 2004 Olympic Games and proposed and tested the factorial structure of the Olympic Volunteer Motivation Scale (OVMS). A convenience sample was selected which comprised of 146 volunteers offering their services in two different Olympic venues. The data was collected during the Athens 2004 summer Olympics and the authors obtained official permission to conduct the research only at these venues. The OMVS was a modified version of Strigas and Jackson (2003) motivation scale and aimed to examine motivations of volunteers participating in mega sporting events such as the Olympics. The

OMVS was consisted of three factors and a total of 18-items. The authors adapted nine items from Strigas and Jackson (2003) scale and the remaining items were specifically reflecting the nature of the Olympic Games (i.e. volunteer for the Olympic Games is considered to be prestigious). Principal component analysis was conducted in order to examine the construct validity of the OVMS. The analysis suggested the extraction of three motivation factors. The extracted three factors included Olympic Related motivations, reflecting volunteers' desire to be involved with the Olympics. The other two factors included the Egoistic, which expresses volunteers' needs for social interaction and the Purposive factor, describing volunteers' willingness to contribute to the success of the event. Cronbach's reliability alpha test showed satisfactory levels of the scale items internal consistency. Interestingly, it was found that the Olympic related factor was the most significant drive for Olympic volunteers. This is inconsistent with previous studies which showed the Purposive factor as the most dominant factor with regard to their motivation to participate in sport events. The uniqueness of the Olympic Games, makes it a once in a life time opportunity for the citizens of the host country to experience and participate. Therefore, it attracts volunteers for reasons that may differ to those that motivate volunteers in other sport events (Giannoulakis, et al., 2008).

Bang, Alexandris and Ross (2009) have added the love of sport in the VMS-ISE originally developed by Bang and Chelladurai (2003), as a general motivation for such volunteering and applied it to 206 individuals who volunteered for the Athens 2004 Olympic Games. The revised VMS-ISE in the context of the Olympic Games exhibited high internal consistency and validity. Their study revealed that expression of values was the main reason to volunteer at the Olympic Games, followed by patriotism, love of sport, interpersonal contacts, personal growth, career orientations and extrinsic rewards.

It thus seems that sport volunteers and event volunteers in particular are motivated by a variety of reasons. Moreover, the extent that these factors affect volunteers' behaviour also varies between individuals. Therefore, an important feature that stems from the analysis of volunteer motivations is the possibility

that these may change over time and across settings complicating the process of their recruitment (Slaughter, 2002). This behavioural change is an outcome of the nature of the event, the actual experiences and previous exposure and engagement with the sport and volunteering. For instance, it is argued that long-term volunteers are more likely to volunteer in order to give something back to the community, for example, through their involvement in sport clubs, rather than to experience being part of a unique experience, or the seeking of social interaction and networking (Cuskelly et al., 2006). The latter reasons might be much more relevant and prevalent at a sports event given its relatively unique and episodic nature. Therefore, the episodic nature of major sport events suggests that creating a volunteer pool of regular volunteers is fairly difficult to achieve (Holmes & Smith, 2009). Thus, as Cuskelly et al. (2002) identify, experiences may influence volunteers' levels of commitment to an organization or a voluntary cause, leading often to withdrawals when motivations are not met. The fact that interest in volunteering changes over time needs to be considered more closely by researchers, in order to evaluate the impact of such changes in time and context on future volunteering behaviour (Bang et al., 2009). It is also argued that future volunteering behaviour is determined by the socio-demographic profile of volunteers and their level of satisfaction with the activity, if already involved at the sports organization (Bang et al., 2009). Volunteer profile plays a key role in identifying trends and attitudes towards volunteering, as it reflects constituencies who are more interested in context-specific activities (Bang et al., 2009). To a similar extent, satisfaction with the volunteering experience may lead to higher levels of commitment with the sports organization (Stebbins, 1996), or may then lead the individual to progress to other volunteering pursuits or participation in a specific sport (Downward & Ralston, 2006). Consequently, the following sections evaluate how the context of volunteers, through their socio-economic circumstances as well as their more general engagement in sport, in addition to their experiences affects volunteering.

## 2.6.2. Socio-Demographic Characteristics

One area that has been shown to be a key predictor of individuals' attitudes towards volunteering is the contribution of the socio-demographic factors. Understanding volunteers' characteristics is essential in implementing well-informed policy strategies of recruitment of potential volunteers who may be unaware of ways to get involved (Doherty, 2005).

The existing literature suggests that the "typical" volunteers have certain characteristics. The 1997 National Survey of Volunteering in the UK revealed a gender balance in terms of involvement within general volunteering contexts. However, these volunteers predominantly represent the White British ethnic group, have a higher education and socio-economic levels. Pearce (1993) based on North American Volunteers also concluded that there is a positive correlation between higher income, educational level and occupational status with higher volunteer participation rates for organisations and associations. Pearce (1993) also found that women are more likely to join religious or social services groups while men are more likely to join professional associations that may be useful for their future career plans.

As far as sports club volunteering is concerned, Shibli, Taylor, Nichols and Kokolakakis (1999) after reviewing the Characteristics of Volunteers in UK Sport clubs, concluded that the success of partnership policies between the leisure providers is dependent on the degree an understanding of the general characteristics of sport volunteers is achieved. The empirical research of volunteers for VSCs and major single or multi-sport events reflects that sport volunteers are recruited from distinct constituencies and reflect in turn, a narrow profile comparing to general volunteers or a form of bonding social capital (Doherty & Misener, 2008). As Vermulen and Verweel (2009, p. 1206) point out "*sport is as much a divider as an integrator*", in the way it brings together homogenous groups with shared values and restricts access to outsiders.

Several authors have identified a positive correlation between higher social status and the propensity to volunteer (Cnaan & Amroffell, 1994; Gillespie & King, 1985). For instance, Sport England (2003) reports that unlikely general volunteers, sport-club volunteers tend to come from higher socio-economic groupings, possess a higher education level, are in full time employment and, typically, have a White-British ethnic background. Research evidence from the Active People Survey 2 (October 2007-October 2008) supports these findings as a higher rate of individual volunteers from higher socio-economic groups (5.6%) is reported compared to those from lower socio-economic groups (3.5%) (GHK, 2010). Further, as reflected by the 2005/2006 Active People Survey whites tend to volunteer more in sports than people from other ethnic backgrounds such as Asians or blacks, as a rate of 4% of volunteers from white communities has been reported comparing to 2% coming from those identified as belonging to black or ethnic minorities (Sport England, 2006). However, results of the 2007-2008 Active People Survey reveal an increase in the number of individuals representing Black or Ethnic Minorities who volunteered as a rate of 3.5% has been identified compared to 5.1% of volunteers from white communities (GHK, 2010). Moreover, parental motivation for volunteering is less relevant in the sporting context than elsewhere, as the majority of sport volunteers (68%) indicated no dependent children living at home (Shibli et al., 1999; Sport England, 2003). It could be argued that this is because males are more likely to volunteer in sports than females but also as a result of younger age-groups being more prevalent in volunteering (Sport England, 2003). The 2007 National Volunteering Survey in the UK suggests a twice higher rate of male sport volunteers than of female, by indicating a 30% volunteer involvement of men comparing to 16% of women. This finding is consistent with previous research from Sport England in 2003 and from Shibli et al. (1999) on the characteristics of volunteers in UK sports clubs (Low et al., 2007). More recent data confirm this evidence, as the Active People Survey 2 (October 2007-October 2008) reveals that the number of males who volunteer in sport has increased by 0.4% from 2005-2005, suggesting that there are 6.5% male volunteers in sport compared to 3.5% of female (GHK, 2010). As far as sport volunteers' age is concerned, the Active People Survey 2 (2007-2008) confirms previous findings by suggesting

that the age group between 16 to 25 years old is the most prevalent in sports volunteering (13.8%). The second largest group comes from the 35-44 age range whilst a decrease in volunteering is evident with older volunteers. However, volunteering has increased for the 35-44 and 65 plus by 0.4% and 0.2% respectively compared to previous surveys (GHK, 2010). It is argued that this is pronounced in formal volunteer roles within VSCs. For instance, a large percentage of volunteers (80-85%) undertake coaching roles within VSCs (MacDougall, 2007). In a similar study on County Youth Cricket volunteer managers in England, Coleman (2002) notes that the majority of the managers were male, with a high educational attainment, in full time employment and with no children under their dependency. It was also reported that the volunteer cricket managers were older than the average sport clubs volunteers. Thus, this implies that older individuals are more likely to volunteer in core managerial roles than people of a younger age (Coleman, 2002). Coleman (2002) also noted an average of 6.4 hours per week in terms of their time contributions. However, this could be underestimated as the majority of the volunteer managers suggested they volunteer elsewhere apart from cricket.

Similar trends have been reported in Canadian amateur sport organisations with males dominating the voluntary administrative roles within the clubs (Inglis, 1997). In contrast, females tend to volunteer more for the community, charities, schools, church or other less formal and general settings (Zappala & Burrell, 2001). However, these figures fail to take into account informal volunteering, whereas female volunteers undertake a supportive role in promoting their relatives' participation in sports, especially children, but without considering themselves as volunteers (Nichols & Shepherd, 2006). It is argued, that informal volunteering contributes significantly to VSCs viability (Nichols & Shepherd, 2006). Most sports volunteers in VSCs are in the relatively low age band of 35 to 44 years of age (Nichols & Padmore, 2005). Doherty (2005) added to these findings as she identified that the largest percentage of volunteers involved in community sports settings in Canada and other westernised societies belong to the 35 to 44 age range. On the other hand, it is argued that where present, older volunteers are more likely to undertake formal roles in clubs and commit more

hours to volunteering than younger volunteers (Zappala & Burrell, 2001; Sport England, 2003). In addition, club volunteers tend to fulfil multiple roles within the club and their time commitment is approximately 1.2 billion hours per year (Taylor et al., 2003). The weekly amount of hours that the volunteers contribute to sports volunteering equates to approximately 5 hours (Nichols, 2004). In general, the unemployed or individuals belonging to socially disadvantaged groups are under-represented in sport volunteering, reflecting social structures and values related to volunteering in general (Hustinx et al., 2010). In terms of the roles, sport volunteers undertake within their clubs, these are dominated by coaching, officiating, fundraising or administration within the clubs' committee (Sport England, 2003).

Comparative data from Canada and Australia both confirm and contradict UK findings in terms of sport volunteers' characteristics. Doherty (2005) notes that community sport volunteers in Canada are more likely be married and with dependent children living at home. It is also noted that Canadian volunteers reported a more active sports and volunteering participation profile when at a younger age (Doherty, 2005). In contrast, it was found that the majority of sport club volunteers in the UK have no dependent children under the age of 16 living at home (Taylor et al., 2003). Moreover, sport volunteers in the UK tend to get involved in approximately 4.6 different roles within the club during their volunteering career. This suggests a shortage of volunteers in most sport clubs and that most of the work is being undertaken by fewer people (Taylor et al., 2003). It is interesting to note, however, that compared to Canada and Australia, sport volunteers in the UK are younger in age (Cuskelly et al., 2006). Sport England (2003) concluded that over one hundred thousand clubs and over eight million members are benefited by sport volunteers in the UK. Cuskelly et al. (2006) notes that sport volunteers in the UK contribute more than 1.2 billion hours per year in sport clubs, contrary to Canadian and Australian sport volunteers, who are involved for 167 million and 130 million hours respectively (Cuskelly et al., 2006). The Volunteering in America 2007 study reported similar trends in general volunteering in the US, as it was found that 61.2 million people contribute to voluntary organizations. It was also reported that approximately



5.3 million Americans were involved informally in community volunteering. It was suggested that the time contributions of informal volunteering equated to 8.1 billion hours for that year (Grimm et al., 2007). Despite similar trends noted across countries in terms of volunteers' characteristics, their time contributions cannot be easily compared, as a result of population, and cultural differences between nations (Cuskelly et al., 2006). It is evident, however, that the voluntary sector and voluntary work is a major service provider across countries. Table 2.6.2 below notes the general characteristics of sport volunteers in the UK, Canada and Australia as reported by Cuskelly et al. (2006).

**Table 2.6.2. Sport Volunteers Characteristics in Different Countries**

	<u>England (%)</u>	<u>Australia (%)</u>	<u>Canada (%)</u>
<b>Gender</b>			
Male	67	60.2	64
Female	33	39.8	36
<b>Age Group</b>			
Less than 24	28	12.9	19
25-34 years	22	21.6	13
35-44 years	21	31.4	41
45 years and over	29	34.2	27
<b>Employment Status</b>			
Employed (full-time/part-time)	70	84	84
Not employed (unemployed or not in labour force)	30	16	16

Source: Cuskelly, Hoyer and Auld (2006). Working With Volunteers in Sport: Theory and Practise

In contrast, the research shows that single sport major-event volunteers' characteristics are fairly homogeneous and can reflect the gender and age profile of the participants and spectators of the specific sport concerned, producing similar profiles to club volunteers (Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Downward et al., 2005; Pauline & Pauline, 2009). More generally, Treuren and Monga (2002a) examined the demographic characteristics of special event volunteers in Australia and found that the gender of volunteers and the propensity to volunteer is dependent upon the nature of the event. Moreover, they found that event volunteers, similar to volunteers in other sport settings and general volunteers tend to be highly educated and in a professional occupational class.

Nonetheless, Downward et al. (2005) examined the gender differences of the volunteers in the 2002 Commonwealth Games and concluded that the volunteers' demographic profile depends on how large or unique the event is. In major multi-sport events, such as the Olympics, the association of the volunteer to the sport can also be less relevant, as volunteers are often involved to experience a once in a lifetime opportunity rather than for the sports' sake (Downward & Ralston, 2006; Chalip, 2000; MacAloon, 2000; Moreno, Moragas & Paniagua, 2000). Consequently, Ralston et al. (2003) found that the characteristics of the volunteers involved at the Manchester Commonwealth Games in 2002 were similar to those identified in the 1997 National Survey of Volunteering in the UK. 19.5% of these volunteers were identified to be under 24 years of age, while the proportions of the volunteers between 24 to 64 years of age were evenly distributed. The majority of the event volunteers were in full-time employment, while students and the retired were equally balanced. A high incidence of previous volunteering experience was reported from the event volunteers (76%), with the majority of them indicating a regular commitment to volunteering of more than six hours per week (58%) (Downward et al., 2005). Moreover, it was found that males were committing more hours and years in volunteering than females. Downward et al. (2005) also suggested that the mean experience of the Commonwealth volunteers was approximately 13.6 years and this reflects their commitment to the voluntary cause. The most prevalent area of previous volunteering involvement among the event volunteers was noted to be sports (54%), followed by volunteering in community projects (46%) and in education (32%). This contradicts the views of Lockstone and Baum (2009) that major sport event volunteering tends to be popular among groups of individuals who normally do not cross over from or to other voluntary activities.

### **2.6.3. Sports Engagement**

People engage in sports for several reasons ranging from competitiveness, social interaction, love for the game, challenge, personal or professional development, leisure and entertainment etc. (Kelinske et al., 2001; Koivula, 1999; Recours et al., 2004). The fact that major-event volunteers can be less connected with their

sport is indicative of the possibility that for single sport event, or club volunteering prior engagement in sport, for example as a participant, might be an important factor that underpins the motivation for sports volunteering. However, the role of sports engagement has not been emphasised or researched well in the volunteering literature. Many studies, such as those reviewed in the motivations literature in the previous section, do not investigate its relevance at all, or subsume its impact within generalised concepts such as the love of sport, or retaining links with clubs. For instance, Shank and Beasley (1998) originally proposed that sports can generate emotions and feelings that are of particular importance to the individual, which in turn can affect his or her involvement in sports. To a similar extent, Laverie and Arnett (2000) investigated sport fans' behaviour and suggested that as involvement in sports positively develops social interactions, supporting a sport team or club is a way to form an identity and feel part of a certain group with similar interests and experience satisfaction associated with this role. MacLean and Hamm (2007) interviewed 600 volunteers participating at the 2006 Canadian Women's Golf Championship and noted that the love for the sport, in that case golf was a major determinant of explaining volunteering behaviour.

Bang et al. (2009) also indicate that involvement in sport can determine an individual's behaviour and hence the mere love of sport can be an important factor motivating individuals and affecting volunteering. For instance, an individual who is emotionally attached to a certain sport either as a participant or as a fan may want to assist voluntarily a team or an event that promotes this sport in order to fulfil his inherent interest of the sport. Therefore, Bang et al. (2009) were among the first authors who proposed the inclusion of the love of sport as motivational factor explaining sports event volunteering.

Some other studies do, however, directly investigate the importance of previous sports engagement in explaining volunteer involvement. Burgham and Downward (2005) identify a strong influence of volunteers' previous participation in swimming, as well as the current participation of their children, in determining the decision to volunteer and the duration of the activity. Nichols

and Shepherd (2006) identify that in Wales a large proportion of club volunteers are participants in their sport. Based on broader England data, Dawson and Downward (2013) find that the decisions to engage in sports participation and sports volunteering, as well as the duration of the activities, are complementary rather than substitutes. Finally, based on small-scale qualitative research, Cuskelly and O'Brien (2012) identify that the psychological and social connection of former players and their affinity to the sport, can underpin the transition to become a volunteer.

#### **2.6.4. Satisfaction with the Volunteering Experience**

The final determinant to be considered concerns how satisfaction through experience of volunteering may affect continued activity in the future, and its potential transfer to other contexts. The first key thing to remember about satisfaction in volunteering is that it involves a form of work. As volunteers are assigned to specific tasks and jobs, they constitute an integral part of the labour of a sport organization and they are often compared to paid employees and job-related environments, with regard to their satisfaction (Chelladurai, 2006). There are many similarities to the working environment and experiences of all employees, either paid or volunteers. For instance, all employees are expected to interact with others within the organization and have certain expectations from their contribution (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2011). Job satisfaction referring to traditional work environments is defined as *"the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception of one's job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of one's important job values, providing the values are compatible with one's needs"* (Locke, 1976, p. 1304). In other words, satisfaction describes an individual's *"feelings or affective responses to facets of the situation"* (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969, p.6). As Tett, Meyer and John (1993) point out, job satisfaction can be described either as an affective response to the job viewed in its entirety (global satisfaction) or with regard to particular attributes that constitute the experience (facet satisfaction) such as supervision, rewards, communication etc.

Job related satisfaction in the context of paid employees has received considerable research attention, as it is perceived to influence important aspects of an organization's performance and effectiveness, such as retention and turnover of employees. On the other hand, research on volunteer's job satisfaction has been limited, despite the latter being of a distinctive nature (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2011). The elements that distinguish the work of a volunteer compared to that of a paid employee include volition, expressive orientation and the perceived values of the rewards obtained. Volition simply refers to the volunteers' free-will to engage in volunteer work that transcends social or economic benefits or rewards, as this is their preferred way of spending leisure time. On the other hand, paid work includes a coercive element, as social and economic circumstances lead individuals to pursue it rather than their free-will (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2011; Gidron, 1985; Pearce, 1983). Expressive orientation is the second element that distinguishes paid work from volunteering. According to Pearce (1983) "*volunteering and going to work represent vastly different psychological approaches to organizational participation*" (p.651). Volunteers' primary expressive orientation lies in their desire to help others and contribute to the society, whilst paid employees are predominantly oriented towards materialistic or tangible rewards and hence self-oriented reasons. The third element that differentiates paid work from volunteering is the perceived value of the rewards obtained. Volunteers place more value on the intangible rewards obtained from their volunteering work such as friendship, helping others, feeling needed and contributing to the club's viability compared to paid employees, who as expected value more the tangible benefits of their work such as salary and other benefit packages (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2011; Gidron, 1985; Pearce, 1983).

The literature on volunteers' satisfaction has been limited, or concentrated on only one aspect of satisfaction. This could be explained by the fact that until recently volunteer work was purely seen as altruistic, meaning that volunteers were seen as not expecting anything in return from their contributions (Chelladurai, 2006). However, as already discussed, the multi-faceted nature of

volunteering implies that several aspects can influence individuals' decision to start volunteering and commit to it, with altruism in the case of sport organizations or sport events often not being the primary motivator for volunteers (Chelladurai, 2006; Smith, 1981). Therefore, individuals get involved in volunteering to fulfil a variety of needs and expectations and hence understanding and fulfilling volunteers' needs is critical to sustain them in sport organizations and leads to their satisfaction. To illustrate this diversity in the measurement of the concept, some scholars have assessed volunteers' satisfaction in terms of the nature of work and their ability to complete tasks or with the operational procedures of the organization, the level of supervision within the organization or satisfaction overall with the experience, without focusing on a particular facet (Costa et al., 2006; Silverberg et al., 2001; Vecina et al., 2009).

Satisfaction can be classified in two different types, cognitive and affective. Affective satisfaction reflects the extent of individuals' experiencing positive feelings and emotions from their experience overall, while cognitive satisfaction refers to the extent individuals value and are satisfied with particular facets or aspects of their job or the situation such as pay, working hours and environment, rewards obtained, supervision etc (Chelladurai, 2006; Locke, 1976; Moorman, 1993). Affective satisfaction is more subjective in nature, as it focuses on the feelings one has for the situation overall, whilst cognitive satisfaction is more logical and objective, as it evaluates facets of the situation (Locke, 1976). Affective job satisfaction consists of two elements, moods and emotions. Moods are longer lasting but there is no clear cause of them, while emotions are more intense, short-lived and what causes them is more clear (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Emotions can be positive such as joy, pride, hope, enthusiasm and satisfaction or negative such as fear, stress, anxiety (Vecina & Chacon, 2005). When people experience negative emotions, they tend to respond instantly to such stimuli, they become alert and their facial expression reflects their worry, which can be easily identified by an independent observer. On the other hand, in the case of experiencing positive emotions, the response is not easily identifiable, is more subjective in nature, indirect "*less specific and longer lasting*" (Vecina &

Chacon, 2005, p. 32). Moods and positive and negative emotions and overall satisfaction with the experience are directly related (Brief & Roberson, 1989; Weiss et al., 1999). In particular, research has shown that the frequency someone experiences a positive emotion is a better predictor of overall job satisfaction than the intensity of the emotion, at the time it is experienced (Fisher, 2000). This reflects on the emotions' ability to lead to memory and event recollection. Recent research in the field has shown that emotional intensity is linked to greater memory confidence but not to memory consistency (Levine & Pizarro, 2004). On the other hand, cognitive satisfaction is more attribute-based.

These terms have been particularly employed in the field of consumption experiences, as important elements in determining consumers' satisfaction as well as in the field of tourism, which is seen as a form of consumption. Emotional involvement is integral to the tourist experience (Oliver, 1993; Westbrook, 1987). Thus, this implies that the notion of volunteering could be explained with reference to these two different types of satisfaction, as volunteers' experiences are also subject to both cognitive and affective processes. Thus, emotions derived from the volunteer experience can be examined using consumption-based satisfaction models.

For instance, drawing upon the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm, which is particularly used in consumption-based research, volunteers can be compared to consumers, who continue to purchase products or services, when they are satisfied with the outcome of consumption. However, as previously stated, satisfaction is multi-faced and the final result of a psychological process, thereby all the elements that constitute and are carried out during this process need to be taken into account (Oliver, 1996). An integral element that initiates this process is an objective that the individuals expect to reach by having a standard of comparison to draw upon (Milan & Esteban, 2004). Expectations are considered a key determinant of satisfaction followed by perceived performance on the actual outcome (Milan & Esteban, 2004). Consequently, the expectancy disconfirmation model suggests that satisfaction relates not only to the perceptions of the individuals for the actual derived experience, but also to the

initial expectations of the individuals that existed before their involvement with the process of consumption, such as their desires and needs, which expect to be fulfilled by the service provider (Milan & Esteban, 2004). A zero disconfirmation exists when the final outcome is equal to individuals' expectations; a negative confirmation exists when the results derived fall below expectations and a positive disconfirmation occurs when the perceived results of performance exceed expectations (Oliver, 1996). Therefore, volunteers continue to volunteer or seek alternative volunteering pathways, when their volunteering experience, meets their expectations from involvement, which implies their satisfaction with the outcome of "consumption". This thus implies that satisfaction is an emotional response to an experience, after a cognitive evaluative process has taken place (Oliver, 1993). Real-time satisfaction measurements have been developed to assess individuals' current or recently experienced state in an attempt to incorporate emotions into satisfaction studies, reflecting upon their importance in determining individuals' positive and negative feelings (Hull et al., 1992). However, Milan and Esteban (2004) argue that if individuals' satisfaction is measured at a current state, its measures are affected by issues of bias or positivity, as individuals tend to focus only on perceived performance of the service provider rather than reflecting upon their expectations prior to using the service or product and whether these have been actually met.

Notwithstanding these differences, the purpose of the current study is not to examine solely whether satisfaction with the volunteering experience affects individuals' future decisions to continue volunteering or to transfer their efforts to other similar contexts, but rather to understand how satisfaction interacts with the other key determinants of volunteering in influencing volunteers' decisions. The literature argues that volunteers' job satisfaction is founded in a link between motivations, expectations and actual experiences (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Ralston & Rhoden, 2005), which is essential in leading to higher levels of commitment to the sports organization and then consistency in subsequent behaviour (Stebbins, 1996). This idea is revealed in the distinction that is drawn between core and peripheral, or long-term and short-term volunteers noted earlier (Pearce, 1993). Core volunteers are considered to be highly committed to



their sport organization as they undertake more formal roles and volunteer consistently over periods of time (Pearce, 1993; Planty & Reginer, 2003). Continuity theory can explain this commitment as it assumes that individuals are *“both predisposed and motivated toward inner psychological continuity as well as outward continuity of social behaviour and circumstances”* (Atchley, 1989, p.183 cited in Cuskelly, 2005). Therefore, continuity theory suggests that these consistent volunteers undertake more responsibilities as they want to continue their involvement with the sport organisation in order to maintain their sports identity and social relationships even if they have stopped playing the sport (Cuskelly, 2004). Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004) suggested that long-term volunteers are more likely to form stronger ties with their organization contrary to short-term volunteers who do not associate enough with the organization. Long-term volunteers are further described as career volunteers due to their willingness and significant personal efforts to undergo training, develop and acquire particular skills in sport volunteering (Stebbins, 1996). Stebbins (1996 cited in Cuskelly et al., 2006, p.144) defined career volunteering or serious leisure volunteering as volunteers constantly seeking satisfaction *“through contributing to their own wellbeing or that of the general community”*. Evidence suggests that the depth of involvement and engagement in sport and volunteering is integral to social capital development and accumulation for the individual. However, this also implies that the individual should constantly seek to maintain the level of obtained social capital through an exchange and reinvestment process towards other related activities (Harvey et al., 2007; Nicholson & Hoye, 2008; Putnam, 2000).

On the other hand, peripheral volunteers take part in volunteering occasionally and express low levels of commitment. Likewise, short-term volunteers do not associate enough with the organization and are involved in tasks of one-off occurrence whilst long-term volunteers serve their organizations for several years and longer periods (Cuskelly et al., 2006). Stebbins (1996, 2005) refers to short-term volunteers as *“casual”* due to their occasional involvement in voluntary tasks which do not require specific skills in volunteering and can refer to volunteering pursuits that are short term, one-off, or occasional. Casual

volunteering is a less substantial experience than serious leisure. This means that casual voluntary activities require casual commitment as well as little or no special training from the volunteers involved (Stebbins, 1996). The third form of volunteering is expressed through project-based leisure activities. Project-based volunteering, despite being short-term, one-off or occasional, requires substantial planning, skills and efforts. Examples of project-based volunteering include sport events volunteering and volunteering for events in general (Stebbins, 2004). Cuskelly et al. (2006) also note that the degree and the extent of sport volunteers' involvement are directly associated. Therefore, it could be argued that volunteers with a high degree of involvement are more likely to volunteer for longer periods (Cuskelly et al., 2006). However, it is evident that sport volunteering may be becoming more peripheral and short term as there is a trend particularly in Australia where former core volunteers have reduced their volunteer involvement to a more casual contribution (Cuskelly et al., 2006). For instance, the proportion of sport volunteers in Australia who volunteer less than 40 hours per year has increased from 36% in 1991 to 45% in 1996. This suggests that there is a decline in sport volunteering as the proportion of those volunteers who contribute more than 140 hours per year was also declined from 26% to 18% (Cuskelly et al., 2006).

Cuskelly et al. (2006) suggest that transaction-specific elements of satisfaction such as social and personal rewards are integral to sustaining sport volunteering. Work and family commitments or less leisure time could be some potential reasons which explain episodic volunteering behaviour (Cuskelly, 2005). In this regard, research into community organisations, views volunteering as part of a social-exchange process, suggesting that if individuals experience fewer rewards than costs from their volunteer involvement with an organization, then this relationship is not likely to be maintained and volunteers may withdraw from their duties (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Gidron, 1983; Miller et al., 1990; Pearce, 1993; Starnes & Wymer, 2001; Zafirovski, 2005). This sentiment is echoed in community sports organisations. For example, Silverberg et al. (2001) concluded that job satisfaction of volunteers at public parks and recreation arises from a combination of the job environment and psychological needs that are met

by volunteering. Therefore, volunteers expect appreciation, support, sound operations, good communications with co-workers and meeting their personal aspirations, in exchange for their time and efforts currently and in the future. Moreover, Doherty (2005) identified that community sport volunteers are more satisfied when their volunteer work is enjoyable, worthwhile, allows them the opportunity to use their skills and experiences, and provides a pathway for attaining new competencies and experiences as well as being a source for social interactions and goals achievement pertaining to their volunteer role. Doherty (2005) also identifies aspects of experience leading to dissatisfaction among community sport volunteers and stresses the importance of a poorly-run organization, lack of challenging tasks or interest to the volunteer role, lack of support and appreciation to the volunteers and the amount of time required and the tasks allocated due to an increased bureaucracy in running the sport. To a similar extent, Gaskin (2008) noted that volunteers in English sports clubs were dissatisfied with the way the club is run, the lack of adequate club facilities and from not being recognised for their contributions. Moreover, multi-tasking and lack of time was identified as a critical issue deterring them from continuation of their service. Taylor et al., (2003) also noted that that the main challenges English voluntary sports clubs need to address include difficulties in recruiting new volunteers and volunteer shortages, the increased workload within the club which is left to fewer people, the lack of planning and volunteer management and family and work commitments, which put pressure on the current volunteers and lead to dissatisfaction. Seippel (2004), in a study on members of voluntary sport clubs in Norway identified similar trends such as lack of facilities, lack of support, lack of volunteer planning and coordination from the sports' governing bodies, which led to dissatisfaction of their volunteer workforce. Most recently, Schlesinger et al. (2012) identified that the solidarity experienced through volunteering, along with job satisfaction correlated positively with long-term volunteering commitment.

Similar sentiments are expressed at sports events. Churchill et al. (1974) noted that the job environment is an important element of satisfaction and hence it should be considered when assessing determinants of volunteers' satisfaction

with the experience. Elstad (1997) reported that satisfaction among volunteers involved in the 1994 Lillehammer Winter Olympic Games was determined by the opportunity to be part of the event, to develop social networks and to achieve certain task specific competencies. Farrell et al. (1998) concluded that apart from the level of fulfilling volunteers' expectations, prior communication and support, the volunteers participating at an elite sporting competition expected recognition from the event organizers and the athletes participating as well as a good level of organization and satisfaction with the facilities of the event. This implies that volunteer management is directly related to their perceived satisfaction with the experience (Hoye & Cuskelly, 2009).

As far as future volunteering is concerned, MacLeod and Hogarth (1999) suggest that satisfaction with specific job duties were major determinants of intentions to remain a volunteer. Reeser et al. (2005) supported the previous findings by suggesting that volunteers' recognition and performance appraisals by the event organizers significantly impacts upon the level of volunteers' satisfaction. Likewise, Downward and Ralston (2006) identified that prior event volunteering experiences at the Manchester Commonwealth Games increased the intention for engagement in future volunteering. Similarly, Doherty (2009) identified that satisfaction with experiences at the 2001 Canada Summer Games affected the future volunteering intentions of volunteers. In the latter case, the effects were noted to be different for volunteers planning the event, and those delivering the event on site.

The approach taken to measure satisfaction in this study is similar to what Pearce (2005) suggests, which describes satisfaction as a fully attitudinal process embracing at the same time cognitive, affective and implicit behavioural elements. This approach is more effective, as it takes into account volunteers' motivations and initial expectations with the volunteering experience in rugby. This thus allows the volunteers to view the situation as ongoing and hence to engage to both immediate evaluations and post-hoc reflections of specific elements of their experience and determine whether these expectations have been met, in a longer time frame (Pearce, 2005).

## **2.7. The Promotion of Future Volunteering**

The above discussions are indicative of a well-established literature that examines the determinants of broadly either VSC or sports-event volunteering. They suggest that the motivations of volunteers, and their related underpinnings deriving from volunteers' socio-economic background and their engagement with sport, as well as satisfaction with their experience, help to determine volunteer effort. To a greater or lesser extent discussion of each of these determinants also indicates how they can affect future volunteering. For example, through the desire to experience unique events, or to retain community connections, that volunteering is highly contingent on socio-demographic characteristics, and can be affected by sports participation.

However, it is only in a small number of studies in the event-volunteering literature that a direct examination of the transfer of volunteer effort to other contexts has been undertaken. For example, Solberg (2003) identifies that following experiences at the 1999 World Ice Hockey Championship, volunteers indicated their intentions to increase their volunteering in ice hockey clubs and other non-sport voluntary work, as well as major international sporting events and other sporting contexts. However, their subsequent behaviour was not as relevant as the one expressed in their intentions (Solberg, 2003). MacLean and Hamm (2007) note that experience of the 2005 Canadian Women's Open Golf Championships, increased volunteers' desires to be associated with a future golf event. In particular, such behaviour was influenced by volunteers' desire to promote women's golf, to promote development at a club level and to promote local community. Future volunteering was also more likely as a result of social influences, retirement and availability and volunteers' love for the sport indicating the relevance of attachment to the sport in determining future voluntary activity. However, the specific factors driving this behaviour were not statistically tested.

In contrast, Downward and Ralston (2006) statistically tested the possibility that experience of the Manchester Commonwealth Games encouraged volunteers'

greater interest in sport, as well as their intentions to participate in sport and also to volunteer in future sports and non-sports contexts. Significantly, this study simultaneously investigated the influence of differences in socio-demographic factors on future intended behaviour. Nonetheless, the impacts on specific sports were not investigated. Doherty (2009) also statistically tested the impact of volunteer experiences at the 2001 Canada Summer games on the likelihood of volunteering for another major festival or event in local communities, the extent to which volunteers would want to be involved in a future event in comparison to their recent degree of involvement, and whether their level of volunteering in the community in general would change following the Games. As Doherty (2009) noted, future volunteering behaviour is affected by the experiences associated with that behaviour in the past. However, as with Downward and Ralston (2006), the impacts on specific sports were not investigated. Moreover, Doherty, (2009) also noted that the study would be improved by accounting for the influence of the socio-demographic characteristics of the volunteers on their stated future behaviour, as these were not investigated.

Finally, Hallmann and Harms (2012) identified that the motivations to volunteer at a handball or equestrian event were positively associated with intentions for future sports club or sports event volunteering. However, once again, the specific nature of the intended future volunteering was not made clear. Further, by the authors' own admission, the model did not account for the satisfaction of volunteers and was thus incomplete.

Reviewing these particular studies shows that a simultaneous examination of the impact of sports-club volunteers' motivation, socio-economic status, engagement with sport and satisfaction would provide a more comprehensive account of both the transfer of volunteer effort across contexts as well as future intentions to volunteer. Likewise a concurrent analysis of the impacts of volunteering at an event for club volunteering and future event volunteering, whilst accounting for the same complete set of determinants has not been undertaken. Further,

research on clubs and events volunteers and their behavioural intentions to remain or engage in other volunteering pursuits is scarce.

It is with these issues in mind, that the current research is offered. Consequently, these determinants are applied to a study of how these factors affect sports-club and sports event volunteers in Women's rugby. It is essential for the development of women's rugby to understand their volunteers' motivations and satisfaction, along with their socio-demographic information, which may reinforce positive future volunteering behaviour and the potential for transferring volunteer efforts to sport specific events, continuation of sports-club volunteering and volunteering at other sport events. The next section examines the theoretical arguments that have been presented to explain such behaviour and which determine the specific hypotheses investigated.

## 2.8. Theoretical Foundation

Several theoretical frameworks have been adopted to examine why people volunteer and why and how volunteering behaviour changes over time and across contexts. However, no consensus or uniformly prevalent theoretical approach exists, which may reflect the multidimensional nature of volunteering, but also the differences in behaviour that occur across settings, disciplines and contexts (Hustinx et al., 2010). From a sociological, psychological or political science perspective, volunteering emerges out of a desire for civic engagement, social cohesion, formation of social capital and personality traits such as pro-social behaviour (Hustinx, et al., 2010). On the other hand, economists emphasise on the emergence of voluntary activity as a response to meeting the needs for sport participation of heterogeneous groups of individuals, which could not be met by either the government or commercial sector (Downward et al., 2009; Gratton & Taylor, 2000). Consequently an economics approach might focus on volunteering as the rational balancing of the costs and benefits of altruistic behaviour, and examine volunteering as the consumption-production of “club-goods” with the consequent development of human and social capital. Prior investment in human and social capital might then make it more economical for an individual to volunteer more as it contributes to their sense of individual well-being. The point about club-goods is that their consumption-production enhances individual well-being which may be directly influenced by enhancement in the well-being of specified others. Self-interest is not the same as selfishness (Downward et al., 2009).

In contrast the other approaches might draw upon social-exchange theory or disconfirmation theory. These suggest, respectively, that the organization and the volunteer are tied to an exchange interaction with the needs of both being met in order for this relationship to be maintained (Doherty, 2005). Emerson (1976) building upon social exchange theory, focused on the rewards-costs of social behaviour. Volunteers provide their time and services expecting in return non-monetary tangible or intangible benefits such as the cover of travel expenses, free meals, uniforms, social interaction, skills’ acquisition etc.



(Homans, 1958). Costs reflect the negative consequences of volunteers' involvement, for instance, the time spent in volunteering. If costs outweigh the rewards, there is a possibility for dissatisfaction and this may lead the volunteer to withdraw from the activity. Consequently, balancing rewards and costs is essential for retaining volunteers within an organization and ensuring longevity of their services (Doherty, 2009; Emerson, 1976). Alternatively, following a process called disconfirmation (Oliver, 1980) and similar to consumers who continue to purchase products or services when they are satisfied from what they experienced, volunteers may continue to volunteer depending on the extent to which their volunteering experience is satisfying, rewarding and meets their needs (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991).

Maslow's "Human Hierarchy of Needs" (1943, cited in Ghazali, 2003) can also be used to explain what drives volunteering behaviour, as according to his notion, human needs are hierarchical and follow a pyramid structure from lower basic needs to the higher needs, such as personal growth, or achieving self-actualization. Consequently, reaching higher needs is dependent upon the fulfilment of basic physical and physiological human needs. This is evident, in the volunteering literature suggesting that volunteers of higher socio-economic status are more likely to get involved in volunteering than those individuals who come from socially disadvantaged groups.

Another theory that explains why people volunteer is coproduction theory. Coproduction theory emphasizes upon the cooperative efforts among individuals to achieve a certain task (Silverberg, 1999). Brudney and England (1983) suggest that individuals are engaged in co-productive activities in order to enhance the quality of services delivered to them as they may be the direct beneficiaries of these. For instance, parents volunteer in coaching as their children are members of the club. Therefore, individuals engaged in coproduction activities believe that with their efforts the service is improved, as they have some responsibility for its delivery. These mutual efforts of individuals can then lead to developing cohesiveness and solidarity with the subsequent development of social capital (Silverberg, 1999). Despite coproduction theory originally developed to inform

political science, public administration and economics, it is perceived to be relevant in the volunteering context as well (Silverberg, 1999). Coproduction can be distinguished in three relevant types of activity: individual, group and collective. The more relevant pertaining to volunteering is group coproduction which refers to the mutual efforts, the teamwork involved and the active participation among different individuals in order to achieve an outcome such as the delivery of an event.

Several authors have also emphasised the functional approach in explaining volunteers' behaviour (Houle et al., 2005; Snyder, 1993). The functional approach of volunteerism illustrates that similar voluntary actions may engender and satisfy different psychological functions for different individuals, who they may be doing so for a number of reasons (Clary & Snyder, 1991; Snyder, Clary & Stukas, 2000). For instance a volunteer may be involved at a sports event, driven by an attachment to the specific sports that the competition focuses upon, while someone else may be driven by the desire for enhancing career prospects.

The functionalistic perspective also suggests that the functions served by volunteerism influence volunteers' decision to initiate and maintain their volunteer behaviour and sustain their commitment to the voluntary cause (Clary et al., 1998). Consistent with this approach is the notion that the level of volunteers' satisfaction with their experience depends on whether their psychological functions have been met (Clary et al., 1998). In other words, meeting volunteers' needs is significant for effective recruitment, management and retention of the volunteers (Clary et al., 1998). Therefore, this approach suggests that a "matching principle" between volunteers' motives and particular activities can be very useful for an organization (Snyder et al., 2000). In other words, volunteers who choose activities that satisfy their motivational functions and needs are more likely to be satisfied and serve the organization for longer in return (Snyder et al., 2000). The functionalistic approach further supports the idea that volunteering is multi-dimensional construct (Houle et al., 2007; Pauline, 2006).

In the current research, and recognising the multifaceted nature of volunteering, no specific theory is prioritised or specific alternatives tested between. Rather, to facilitate the empirical analysis, and following the approach of Downward and Ralston (2006), the current research embraces the shared predictions from these theoretical perspectives as hypotheses to be investigated. Consequently, it is expected that the motivations for, and satisfaction with, volunteering from VSC and event volunteers will not only contribute to further sports club and event volunteering intentions, but also transfer to volunteering at the same sports' events, as well as those of other sports or club volunteering activity. It is also to be expected that such behaviour will be influenced by engagement with sport and socio-economic circumstances.

Whilst these hypotheses take their foundation from either the VSC or event contexts it applies them to examining not only future club and event volunteering, but also the transfer of effort between VSC and event volunteering. Some suggestions for the mechanisms by which this happens can be offered. Common to the different theoretical traditions noted above, is the shared perspective that volunteering can increase social capital. The different theoretical perspectives on social capital, and the specific role of sport and sports clubs in promoting social capital are reviewed in a number of sources (Coalter 2007; Delaney and Keaney, 2005; Downward and Rasciute, 2012). Nonetheless, drawing on Putnam (2000), the literature generally recognises that both "bonding" and "bridging" social capital can be developed through voluntary association. Recognising this distinction suggests that it might be expected that volunteers who have formed tight-knit communities in clubs, or events through their joint experiences, might be less inclined to volunteer in a different context, such as an event or club respectively, even though it may be connected with the same sport if bonding dominates. If it does not, then bridging might be encouraged which would promote a transfer of effort across contexts. The balance of these forces needs to be identified empirically. Second, the motivations to volunteer, as discussed earlier in the specific context of events or VSCs, clearly draws upon deeper more abstract desires to satisfy self-interest, but also to express altruistic or pro-social behaviour. It follows, therefore, that

the volunteer will seek to express concrete expression of these motivations in a variety of different contexts. It might be the case that a volunteer is prepared to transfer their efforts to another context, even if the current experience has not been satisfactory in seeking to meet the needs expressed by the motivations. This implies that volunteers might substitute their efforts. This nuance represents an additional element to the standard hypothesis of the literature and comprises further theoretical novelty in the current research. The balance of these forces and the model proposed to examine them in the current thesis is illustrated in the figure 2.1 below. As discussed earlier, satisfaction with the experience, engagement to sport and volunteering, motivation and socio-demographics have been shown to determine future VSC or event volunteering activity. The model presented below suggests that the transfer of volunteer efforts between club and events can be achieved by the individuals' desire to meet their self-actualization needs and interests, which might be achieved by either bonding or bridging social capital, as suggested by Putnam (2000).

**Figure 2.1. Model of Sport Volunteers' behaviour**



## 2.9. Conclusion

From the review of the literature, it appeared that investigating the impacts of previous club and event volunteering experiences in promoting future volunteering and the transfer of voluntary effort across other contexts was a valid area of study and fills a gap in existing research. A number of specific aspects, which have been discussed in this chapter emerged as important for consideration in this study and underpin the research questions as specified in Chapter one. First, as discussed in section 2.2, following the increased interest of British governments on the wider benefits of sports and despite shifts in sports policy emphasis, the role of volunteering in supporting both mass participation and elite sport development goals and eventually on social capital development was acknowledged. The contributions of volunteering to social capital, as discussed in section 2.3 mainly occurs as it bonds together like-minded individuals who share the same values and enthusiasm and base their relationships on trust, obligations and expectations when working together to achieve a common goal. It was also discussed that volunteering has the potential to reinforce social mobility through individuals' seeking to fulfil their inherent interests that could not be fulfilled at particular contexts and hence developing social connections and networks with a larger group of people or in other words through bridging heterogeneous groups of individuals and forming relationships with them in order to facilitate the fulfilment of such interests and exercising individuals' free choice for self-actualization. Section 2.4 discussed how the voluntary sector and in particular voluntary sports clubs emerged as the foundation of sports development in the UK. In brief, voluntary sports clubs emerged to satisfy the interests of like-minded people who loved the sport and who were keen on retaining their associativity with the sport and the club. It was also discussed how British governments' interest in volunteering has developed gradually after the Second World War in an attempt to promote policies in support of a Welfare State vision. Volunteering as a form of activism and community involvement was acknowledged as an integral part of a healthy democracy and hence several policies were implemented to support the sector. With regard to sports, it was discussed that volunteer involvement takes place in

two main contexts, either in voluntary sports clubs or in elite single or multi-sport events. Therefore, as sport volunteering in the UK was found to be the main area of formal volunteering, two distinct public bodies were established in order to support sport development in general and the voluntary sport sector in particular, which include Sport England and UK Sport concerned with mass participation and elite sports development respectively. Section 2.4 of this chapter focused upon sport events, identified their typology and explained the differences in terms of their size, occurrence, type of activity and disciplines included, participants and spectators, media interest and economic activity. Following this, section 2.5 dealt specifically with volunteers at sport events and how and why organizing committees rely on volunteers to support the operational delivery of single or multi-sport events. It was concluded that event organizers should understand event volunteers' characteristics, motivations and aim towards creating a satisfactory experience that would facilitate the development of a pool of volunteers as part of the legacy of the event that may be willing to volunteer in other events and community projects in the future. Consequently, section 2.6 provided a comprehensive review of each one of the determinants of volunteering identified in the literature such as the motivation to volunteer, socio-demographic characteristics, previous and current engagement to sport and volunteering and satisfaction with the experience in both clubs and events in order to develop an understanding of how and why these factors determine future voluntary activity in both contexts. Section 2.7 reviewed previous research in the field that has applied similar models of explaining how such factors affect future volunteering. A gap in the literature was identified in the sense that previous studies have either included only a few of these determinants on their model or they focused only on the impacts of event volunteering experiences on future volunteering neglecting sports club volunteering and how involvement in sports clubs can determine both the retention of volunteer efforts as well as its transfer to other contexts such as sport events. Finally, section 2.8 emphasised the theoretical framework adopted for explaining why individuals volunteer and how and why volunteers' behaviour may change over time. The multifaceted nature of volunteering suggested that no specific theory is to be prioritized in the current project and

hence in order to facilitate the empirical analysis a number of theories and its shared predictions were embraced as hypotheses to be investigated. Consequently, chapter 3 that follows will provide a discussion of the ontological and epistemological underpinnings adopted, the methodological stance and the research strategy followed to satisfy the research objectives and answer the hypotheses under investigation.

# Chapter Three

## Methodology

### 3.1. Introduction

The concept of methodology refers to the analysis of methods on how a research problem should be undertaken (Blaikie, 2003). It includes *“the whole system of principles, theories and values that underpin a particular approach to research”* (Somekh & Lewin, 2005, p.347). This means that the process of methodology involves the discussion of the theoretical perspectives that underpin a research problem and how these theories are generated and what criteria should meet in order to be relevant for a particular research project (Blaikie, 2003). The term *“research”* describes the *“systematic process of discovery and advancement of human knowledge”* (Gratton & Jones, 2004, p.4). This means that the research involves a procedure of supporting new findings from the interpretation of previous knowledge (Walliman, 2001). This chapter will discuss the methodological underpinnings of the current research study. The aim is to review the key theoretical approaches that affect the research design. Moreover, the collection and the interpretation of the research data will be outlined. Furthermore, the selected research process will be analysed and justified according to the research’s aims and objectives. Blaikie (2007) points out that the process of generating new knowledge involves a number of choices from the researchers’ part. These include: the research problem that needs to be addressed, the research questions that need to be answered, the research strategies adopted to answer these questions, the researchers’ stance in investigating the problem and the research paradigm adopted along with the different assumptions about reality. The remainder of this chapter deals with these issues in more detail. Specifically, section 3.2 deals with how and why research questions need to be answered in the social inquiry process. Section 3.3 examines the philosophical foundation that underpins a particular research



problem. Section 3.4 examines the ways that the current study fits with certain ontological and epistemological stances. Section 3.5 emphasises the justification of the most suitable research strategies to address a social inquiry and answer research questions that arise from a research problem. Section 3.6 provides a justification of the case study strategy that was adopted for addressing the aim and objectives of the current study. Section 3.7 that follows reviews data collection approaches and justifies the use of surveys as the primary means of data collection at the current study. Section 3.8 deals with the context of which this research took place and in particular the population that the sample used in the current study was drawn from, the development of the research instruments and data collection procedures that were followed in seeking to meet the objectives of the study and answer the research questions. Section 3.9 addresses issues of validity and reliability that need to be taken into account when conducting a research project followed by section 3.10 that also considers ethical issues when conducting a research project that involves human subjects. Section 3.11 provides a brief description of the statistical tools and techniques used for the analysis of the data in the current study and lastly section 3.12 concludes this chapter that provided a discussion of the methodological underpinnings of this study.

## 3.2. Research Questions

The first and most fundamental step in the social inquiry process is to identify a research problem. This problem takes the form of a statement and needs to cover the area that needs investigation. However, a research problem can only be investigated through one or more research questions (Blaikie 2007).

Research questions are considered the next fundamental step in the social inquiry process. Research questions follow a hierarchical sequence in terms of the difficulty present in answering them and include three different main types: “what”, “why” and “how” types of questions. “What” questions are more descriptive in nature and seek to discover and describe patterns in social relationships. “Why” questions seek to address the causalities of the existence of a particular phenomenon. “How” questions deal with identifying the ways to achieve specific outcomes. A research problem can be addressed through all different types of research questions or it can include only one type. The hierarchical sequence in answering research questions implies that when there is no previous knowledge in a topic “what” questions are more relevant as a starting point before attempting to answer “why” and “how” types of questions. In contrast, when a problem is already described from previous related studies “why” and “how” questions are more relevant to address similar patterns of the problem. To a similar extent, a researcher can directly proceed to answering “how” types of questions when there is adequate knowledge regarding “what” and “why” types of questions. This thus implies that the nature of the research problem and the existing knowledge in a field determine the type of questions adopted to address it (Blaikie 2007). As detailed in Chapter 1, this project seeks to answer the following research “why” questions:

- Whether motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background and sports engagement of volunteers, as well as their satisfaction of volunteering within women rugby clubs will promote further volunteering in the club context.
- Whether motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background and sports engagement of volunteers, as well as their satisfaction of

volunteering within women rugby clubs contributes and promotes the transfer of volunteer efforts across other sporting contexts such as events.

- Whether motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background and sports engagement of volunteers, as well as their satisfaction of volunteering within women rugby events will promote further volunteering in the events context.
- Whether motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background and sports engagement of volunteers, as well as their satisfaction of volunteering within women rugby events promotes the transfer of volunteer efforts across other sporting contexts such as club volunteering.

### 3.3. Research Philosophy- Ontology and Epistemology

The foundations of the procedure used to conduct a piece of research rest in *“research philosophy”* (Saunders et al., 2003). The two most important elements or assumptions in the philosophy of science that are relevant to developing a research project is ontology and epistemology (Blaikie, 2003). Ontological and epistemological positions embody the researcher’s standpoint (Marsh, 2002) and *“embody different ways of viewing the social and political world”* (Sparkes, 1992, p.14) and hence social researches should avoid inconsistency between the two positions, in order to avoid contradictory research conclusions. However, it is often common that ontological positions are *“wrongly collapsed together with epistemology”* (Grix, 2002, p.179). Therefore, despite the similarities between the two positions, it is essential to keep them separate in a particular research project (Grix, 2002). Grix (2004) argues that *“ontology is the starting point of all research, after which one’s epistemological and methodological positions will logically follow”* (p.59).

Ontology *“refers to the claims or assumptions that a particular approach to social enquiry makes about the nature of social reality”* (Blaikie, 2003, p.6). In other words, ontology deals with *“what exists”* and reflects the researchers’ standpoint about the nature of the world (Marsh & Furlong, 2002). This means that the social world can be regarded either as having an external reality to social actors or as a reality interpreted differently from individuals (Bryman, 2008). Blaikie (2003) divides ontological assumptions into either being realist (objectivism) or constructivist.

Realism assumes that social phenomena exist (at least partially) independently of social actors and the everyday activities (Blaikie, 2003, Bryman, 2008). Moreover, these phenomena are ordered and can be observed and explained (Blaikie, 2003). Therefore, it can be assumed that knowledge has objective and undeniable elements (Hughes & Sharrock, 1997). Realism is further divided in

shallow realist (empirical or naïve realism), conceptual realist, cautious realist, depth or critical realist, idealist and subtle realist ontological positions<sup>1</sup>

In contrast, constructivism asserts that social phenomena are continually produced and reproduced by social actors; *“it is a pre-interpreted, intersubjective world of cultural objects, meanings and social institutions”* (Blaikie, 2003, p.203). This means that social phenomena *“are not only produced through social interaction but they are in a constant state of revision”* (Bryman, 2008, p.19). Consequently, constructivism assumes that different social contexts embody multiple realities (Blaikie, 2003). Therefore, different individuals can hold different perceptions of reality and hence *“there are no central values that can be rationally and universally grounded”* (Grix, 2004, p.61).

In the context of the current research a realist ontological position is adopted. This is because it is assumed that the motivations for volunteering, experience of and satisfaction with volunteering, volunteers’ socio-economic circumstance and their engagement in sport are concepts that have applicability across individuals

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<sup>1</sup> It is not the purpose of this thesis to examine these variants, but they are:

**Shallow realist:** “Assumes not only that the phenomena we study are independent of us, but that we can have direct contact with them, contact which provides whose validity is certain” (Hammersley, 1992, p.50). *“What we can observe is what exists, and is all that exists: ‘What you see is what is there’* (Blaikie, 2007, p.14).

**Conceptual realist:** Assumes that reality exists independently of human minds but it can be achieved only through making use of the human ability of thought and reason. It is a reality not directly observable but achieved through collective consciousness and a structure of ideas beyond the individual (Blaikie, 2007).

**Cautious realist:** As with shallow realist, it assumes that there is an independent external reality but that it cannot be observed directly by the individuals as human senses are imperfect and interpreting this reality may add bias. Therefore, even though reality is out there, it can never be justified to an ultimate sense and hence researchers *“need to be critical about their work precisely because of these human frailties”* (Guba, 1990b, p.20).

**Depth realist:** Claims that social reality consists of three levels: the empirical, that is what we experience through our senses, the actual that refers to the existence of events regardless of being observed or not and the real which refers to the structures or processes that generate events. This stratification of reality ranging from what is being observed to the structures and processes that cause events suggests that reality has an ontological depth that is independent of our knowledge of it and hence it suggests that observable phenomena can be explained by referring to underlying structures and mechanisms that explain them (Bhaskar, 1979, p.16)

**Idealist:** Assumes *“fundamental differences between natural and social phenomena; that humans, unlike things in nature, have culture and live in a world of their shared interpretations”* (Blaikie, 2007, p.17). Social reality involves a meaning-giving process of the social actors explaining the phenomena that constitute their daily lives (Blaikie, 2007).

**Subtle realist:** Emerged in an attempt to overcome deficiencies of the other realist positions. It acknowledges the existence of an external reality but rejects the idea that we have direct access to this reality, even though knowledge is based on assumptions and is constructed by individuals. However, it denies that *“knowledge must be defined as beliefs whose validity is known with certainty”* (Hammersley, 1992, p.52).

and context and are ultimately conducive to consistent measurement in these varying dimensions.

Epistemology refers to “*how we know what we know*” (Stoker, 1995, p.14-15) and “*what are the conditions of acquiring knowledge of that which exists?*” (Hay, 2002). It thus refers to the justification of what should be regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline (Bryman, 2008). It is a “*theory of knowledge*” (Blaikie, 2003, p.7), “*a theory or science of the method or grounds of knowledge*” (Blaikie, 2007, p. 18) and represents the criteria that should be met in order for reality to be distinguished from beliefs (Blaikie, 2003).

The main concern in epistemological discussion is whether the social sciences can and should be studied in the same manner as well as with the same methods and principles with the natural sciences (Bryman, 2008). There are two main epistemological queries that are directly linked to ontological assumptions. First, if the objectivist point of view is taken into account, social research can also be objective, at least partially, as it is assumed that social phenomena exist independently of individual perceptions. In contrast, constructivists believe that objectivity cannot be achieved in social research, as “*reality*” is affected by the social constructions and norms (Marsh & Furlong, 2002). Second, knowledge can be either directly or indirectly observable. Those who follow the “*scientific*” approach to epistemology believe that direct observation is possible and that it can help in the generation of knowledge. However, this position does not take into account that unobservable, deeper structures to the social phenomena might also exist (Marsh & Furlong, 2002). The “*hermeneutic approach*” in contrast to the “*scientific*” position states that social phenomena are not directly observable and that the establishment of causal relationships between phenomena that “*hold across time and space*” is impossible, as the reality is individually constructed (Marsh & Furlong, 2002).

A variety of specific epistemological positions exist. These include: empiricism, rationalism, constructionism, falsificationism, neo-realism and conventionalism (Blaikie, 2007). Empiricism asserts that knowledge can be attained through

observations of the world around us as a means for theory development and scientific representation. Moreover, ideas that are not confirmed through experiences are not valid and cannot be considered as scientific. Despite being criticized as a weak epistemology, empiricism has challenged the validity of tradition or other “*established laws and customs*” since antiquity (Collier, 1994, p.71). Rationalism, in contrast is an epistemology that supports the notion that social reality not only consists of what can be observed but also on unobservable structures that are innate to all human beings (Johnson et al., 1984). Falsificationism was proposed by Karl Popper (1959) to account for the weaknesses of empiricism. It implies that theories exist before observations take place. In other words, observations occur in order to test existing theories, in an attempt to reject false theories or accept true ones and not as a means to develop them.

The epistemology of neo-realism asserts that “*a scientific theory is a description of structures and mechanisms which causally generate the observable phenomena, a description which enables us to explain them*” (Keat & Urry, 1975, p. 5). In other words, neo-realism acknowledges the existence of causal relationships to reality which is independent and external to the observer. In contrast, rationalism supports the idea that reality is made of the observers shared, innate ideas (Blaikie, 2007). Contrary to rationalism and empiricism and falsificationism, constructionism claims that reality is constructed from individuals or groups giving meanings to their relationships with other people and the events of the natural world. Constructionism is known as having two different forms, constructivism or social constructionism. The former implies that knowledge is attained through the individual’s “*meaning-giving activity*” to social processes and everyday life, while the latter refers to the collective, inter-subjective meaning-giving activity in explaining social processes and attaining shared knowledge (Schwandt, 1994, p. 127). Consequently, in constructionism, reality is produced by social actors and their interpretations of the nature of daily events. Lastly, conventionalism acknowledges the effect of social norms and conventions in the construction of social reality. According to conventionalists, theories go beyond the available data in determining what is true or not. Conventionalism

implies that reality is constructed by science and hence it rejects empiricism “*as a norm that allows us to justify all accepted judgments by appealing to experience, conceived as a sufficient criterion of their truth*” (Kolakowski, 1972, p. 158).

As Blaikie (2007, p. 29) points out there are similarities and difference in the status of the knowledge of social reality that is produced based on these epistemologies. Knowledge can be presented as absolute when represented by empiricism and rationalism, or tentative through falsificationism and neo-realism, relative through constructionism or pragmatic through conventionalism.

In this thesis elements of rationalism, falsificationism and empiricism are adopted in that the research questions imply hypotheses, motivated by theory, to be examined empirically. However, it is not assumed that knowledge is absolute, but also tentative as it is recognized that this testing will take place in a context in which a variety of specific theories could be consistent with the analysis.



### 3.4. Research Paradigms

As Marsh and Furlong (2002) point out there are three main research paradigms that are available to social researchers and these indicate how ontological and epistemological assumptions are often combined in research. In this regard the term paradigm refers to *“a cluster of beliefs and dictates which for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research should be done, and how results should be interpreted”* (Bryman, 1988a, p. 4). Each paradigm determines the overall strategy adopted for a particular research in relation to the research question and holds different assumptions in interpreting social inquiry. Research paradigms are further distinguished as being classical or contemporary. Positivism, Critical Rationalism or post-positivism, and Interpretivism are the major classical research paradigms which provide different perspectives in explaining the relationship between the natural and the social sciences (Blaikie, 2007). In contrast, Critical Theory, Ethnomethodology, Social Realism, Structuration Theory, Contemporary Hermeneutics and Feminism represent the contemporary research paradigms. Critical Theory, Ethnomethodology, Social Realism, Structuration Theory and Feminism are based on Classical Hermeneutics and /or Interpretivism whilst Contemporary Hermeneutics extends further the anti-positivist traditions developed in Classical Hermeneutics (Blaikie, 2007). A realist or objectivism ontological assumption fits with Positivism, Critical Rationalism and Critical Realism philosophical approaches, while constructivism is assumed in Interpretivism, Critical Theory, Structuration Theory and Feminism paradigms. However, the boundaries between the different ontological positions may be blurred (Blaikie, 2003). Positivism, Critical Rationalism, interpretivism, Feminism and Critical Realism are the main research paradigms which aim to determine the way social phenomena are viewed and explained (Denzin and Lincoln 1998; Marsh and Furlong, 2002).

### 3.4.1. Classical Research Paradigms

Considering the multi-dimensional nature of sports volunteering and given the limitations of the sport volunteering literature in focusing mainly on specific aspects of volunteering experiences, thus narrowing our understanding of what in reality determines volunteering behaviour in several contexts, the function of this section and the following one on contemporary research paradigms is to provide a discussion of different research strategies that have been used in the literature. Moreover, it aims to provide the rationale for adopting the critical rationalism paradigm with the combined application of empiricism and rationalism for achieving the aims and objectives of the current study, and to enhance the existing knowledge in the field, by examining sport volunteers' behaviour from a holistic perspective based on their characteristics, current and past sport and volunteering experiences, motivations and satisfaction with such experiences. Therefore, in order to achieving this, a comprehensive discussion of alternative research strategies is deemed appropriate for justifying the combined application of different theoretical frameworks.

The French philosopher Auguste Comte developed the concept of Positivism. Positivism adopts a realist ontological position and has an epistemological position which asserts that only phenomena experienced by the senses can be regarded as real knowledge (the principle of phenomenalism) (Bryman, 2008). The positivist approach emphasizes on identifying and explaining the causal relationships of social behaviour by a consideration of conjunctions of events. In this way, positivists claim that science can be conducted in an objective (value free) and detached way (Bryman, 2008). Consequently, a major principle of positivism is that knowledge can be achieved through the gathering of facts that constitute the basis for laws (the principle of inductivism) (Bryman, 2008). Consequently, positivism assumes that scientific statements are clearly distinct from normative statements as the latter cannot be confirmed by the senses.

The methods that are associated with positivism therefore include quantitative or experiment-based measurements as well as qualitative research methods that are "*rigorously defined*" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003, p. 35). The key strengths of

positivism correspondingly are the provision of precise measurements and objective interpretation of the results.

The positivist approach has been criticised from several authors and advocates of the other philosophical paradigms. The main criticism is derived from the fact that positivism does not take into consideration the way individuals interpret the social world, their actions and the actions of others (Blaikie, 2003). Consequently, positivists fail to consider that the world is socially constructed and therefore is subject to individual views and attitudes (Blaikie, 2003). Moreover, the notion of objectivity and direct observation supported by positivism is challenged as *“observations are “theory-loaded” and hence there is more to seeing than meets the eyeball”* (Hanson, 1958, cited in Blaikie, 2003, p. 102). This therefore implies that the process of observation not only includes conscious interpretation of the social phenomena but is also affected by unobservable, unconscious facts which influence social behaviour (Blaikie, 2003). Blaikie (2003) supports this criticism by stating that *“observers are active agents, not passive receptacles”* (p. 102) which shows that observation is influenced by the experiences, attitudes and the social and cultural background of the observer.

The Interpretivist paradigm on the other hand *“requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of social action”* (Bryman, 2008, p. 16). This means that human behaviour is dependent on the individual interpretation of the physical world rather than a sensory experience (Blaikie, 2003). In other words, the interpretivist paradigm focuses upon understanding social behaviour rather than explaining it, in the sense of seeking to understand causes. Therefore, the social world is interpreted by a mixture of socially constructed meanings and hence social reality is a mixture of the different interpretations of the social world (Blaikie, 2003).

The fact that interpretivism allows researchers to *“gain an insider’s perspective”* is the main strength of this approach as the behaviours of those being investigated can be described and understood (Gratton & Jones, 2004, p.19).

However, as with the other research paradigms, interpretivism has been subjected to several criticisms. The main criticism from positivism is the lack of objectivity in judgements of the social world. For example, qualitative methods are typically emphasised by interpretivists, yet it could be argued that methods such as interviews and focus groups can add bias to the interpretation of the social actions (Devine, 2002). Further criticism is based on the interpretivist failure to acknowledge deeper structures in the social world (Blaikie, 2003). Although, interpretivists support the argument that social world is a product of interaction, they often fail to consider that social actors depend on partially independent institutions as well as on forms of power and hierarchical relations. Therefore, an individual's interpretation of the social world as well as social behaviour is influenced by the society's forms of discipline, rules and structures (Giddens, 1984). In this way, Outhwaite (1987a, p. 76, cited in Blaikie, 1993, p. 111) supports the argument that interpretivism commits an "*epistemic fallacy*". He argues that "*while interpretive processes are a significant part of what goes on in the social world...it does not follow that this is all that exists, or can be known to exist*". In addition to this statement Fay (1975, cited in Blaikie 2003) states that interpretivism fails to provide a subjective description of reality as it focus on the meanings of the social actions rather than the factors that cause them.

Critical rationalism is a philosophical foundation that evolved from Positivism over the course of the last century and advocates the position that even though the natural and the social sciences differ in their content, their underlying methods follow the same logic (Blaikie, 2007). It is often known as post-positivism as it rejects the epistemological assumption of empiricism that positivism advocates (Guba, 1990b; Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Contrary to positivism which focuses on verifying hypotheses, Critical rationalism places more emphasis on falsifying them through precise quantifiable measurements (Guba & Lincoln 1994). It incorporates the idea of conjecture and refutation as critical rationalism supports the notion that knowledge is justified through a process of trial and error, in which theories are tested against "*reality*" (Blaikie, 2007; Popper, 1972). The founder of Critical Rationalism, Karl Popper, rejected the inductive emphasis of positivism which supports that observations occur

before the development of scientific theories (Blaikie, 2003). According to Popper, every observation occurs with a point of reference in mind or a “*horizon of expectations*” that is a set of underlying theories (Blaikie, 2007, p. 114). Therefore, even though observations produce the problem that needs to be explained, it is assumed that a frame of theories is the prior foundation that is to be addressed (Blaikie, 2007). If these data are not consistent with the theory then the theory must be rejected or modified and retested and hence this approach is known as the “*method of hypothesis*”, the hypothetico-deductive method, deductivism or the method of falsificationism (Blaikie, 2007). As a result the critical rationalist approach is primarily associated with quantitative research and focusses on the derivation of predictions of behavior based on existing theory, which can be tested through the collection and examination of data (Gratton & Jones, 2004).

The difference between critical rationalism or deductivism and the other research paradigms is that the former advocates the notion that knowledge can never be justified in an ultimate sense and the investigation of what is true and real is an ongoing process. However, the acquisition of knowledge is always possible (Blaikie, 2003).

### **3.4.2. Contemporary Research Paradigms**

As previously noted, the contemporary research paradigms include: Critical theory, Ethnomethodology, Critical Realism, Structuration Theory, Contemporary Hermeneutics and Feminism. Critical theory is the examination and critique of society, culture and capitalism. It provides a critical foundation of the social structures that mould and influence human thoughts (Jensen, 2009). Structuration theory is a philosophical approach that suggests human action is pre-determined by a set of rules, laws and structures. However, these rules can be modified by human action. Therefore, this paradigm refers to human’s ability to act independently from social structures (Giddens, 1984). Feminism is a political movement that advocates equal social, political and economic rights for women in the social life and structures. It is thus a critique of male authority and also a supporting ideology of female emancipation (Jaggar & Rothenberg, 1993).

Critical Realism is the main contemporary paradigm and is presented below in more detail.

The main forms of realism are empirical realism and critical realism. Empirical realism suggests that reality can be understood through observation and the use of appropriate methods. However, as this form of realism supports an ideal correspondence between reality and the approach used to describe it, is often described as *naïve realism*. Therefore, it “*fails to recognise that there are enduring structures and generative mechanisms underlying and producing observable phenomena and events and is therefore superficial*” (Bhaskar, 1989, p.2 cited in Bryman, 2008, p.14). Consequently, it shares the characteristics of positivism. On the other hand, critical realism or depth realism asserts that reality can be understood through not only observable social phenomena but also through the presence of unobservable structures which influence human behaviour and impact upon society (Blaikie, 2003). Critical realists claim that there is an external reality independent from the researcher’s description of it which is attainable when unobservable, deeper structures of social reality are taken into account (Blaikie, 2003). The former statement is the main difference between critical realism and the positivist approach. Positivists claim that the acquisition of knowledge is achievable only through direct observation whilst critical realists advocate that such knowledge is attainable when unobservable, generative mechanisms and structures are taken into consideration (Bryman, 2008). However, as Bryman (2008) suggests critical realism shares some similarities with positivism. First, that the collection and application of data both in natural and social sciences should follow the same approach. The second common feature between the two paradigms advocates the view that there is an external reality independent of our descriptions of it, which is accessible to the scientists “*tools and theoretical speculations*” (Bryman, 2004, p. 543). In other words, it is acknowledged that reality is attainable not only through direct observation. Therefore, knowledge in social research can be empirically based (Blaikie, 2003). However, as previously stated, the two positions follow different approaches in obtaining of the explanatory knowledge (Blaikie, 2003).

Critical realism distinguishes between three different domains of reality which are the real, the actual and the empirical. These three layers of reality provide to the researcher a deeper understanding of what knowledge and reality is (Blaikie, 2003). As Wuisman (2005, p. 368) points out reality in critical realism is *“neither equal to nor explainable exclusively in terms of the empirical”*. The *“empirical”* refers to the observable events, experiences and structures within society, the *“actual”* focuses upon both the observable and the unobservable and unclear structures of the society. Lastly, the *“real”* layer of reality refers to those mechanisms that generate events and implies that these exist independently of our understanding of the world (Blaikie, 2003). Therefore, critical realism supports the notion that unobservable mechanisms are both real and the casual factor of events (Phillips, 2007). Therefore, in opposition to the other two paradigms which provide a more superficial definition of reality, critical realism seeks to provide a deeper understanding of what knowledge and reality is (Blaikie, 2003). Moreover, the critical realist approach provides the ontological and epistemological platform for adopting a mixed-method approach to research and triangulation (Downward, 2005).

Critical realist positions has long been criticised from positivists who are in opposition to the view that reality consists of unobservable structures (Marsh & Furlong, 2002). Moreover, interpretivists reject the argument that unobservable, deeper structures of the social world can be objective as well (Marsh & Furlong, 2002). Another criticism is derived from the fact that critical realism combines elements from both the other two paradigms which as many social researchers claim is impossible due to their *“fundamentally different ontological and epistemological underpinnings”* (Marsh & Furlong, 2002).

### **3.4.3. Current Study**

Taking into consideration all the above, social researchers should be aware that each research paradigm follows different pathways in analysing a particular research issue as they support different ontological and epistemological stances (Marsh & Furlong). The current research fits within the critical rationalist paradigm because, as noted above, the research adopts a cautious realist ontology and the epistemology of falsificationism, through the combined application of rationalism and empiricism.

This approach is appropriate for this study, as quantitative data collection occurs through questionnaires which measure dimensions of behaviour based on previously developed theoretical concepts and whose combination and analysis draws on previously defined frameworks.

As explained in sections 2.7 and 2.8 of Chapter 2, the current study adopts the theoretical framework that several aspects of volunteer motivations, the volunteering experience, volunteer socio-economic context and engagement with sport will affect volunteers' future behavior, and tests this through hypothesizing that as well as promoting similar volunteer activity, volunteers coming from a similar sport background have some similarities in terms of their characteristics and motivations and would be willing to transfer their efforts to a similar sporting context such as a sport event or a rugby club if satisfied from this previous experience. Quantitative data collection from the women's rugby context in England allowed the testing of these hypotheses and how this was facilitated is now discussed in more detail.



### 3.5. Research Strategies

Following the identification of the research problem and the adoption of the research questions, the next step in the social inquiry process involves the justification of the most suitable research strategy in order to answer such questions. There are four different strategies that aim to address research questions. These include: the Inductive Deductive, Retroductive and Abductive strategies.

The Inductive research strategy refers to “*constructing theories from empirical data by searching for themes and seeking to make meanings from evidence*” (Somekh & Lewin 2005 p.346). In other words, the Inductive approach begins with data collection, then proceeds to data analysis, which in turn is followed by developing theories and deriving generalizations. Inductivism is based on observations of certain facts which are the results of experiments or other forms of research (Blaikie 2007).

Harre (1972, p.42) summarized the inductive research strategy as being based on three principles: Accumulation, induction and instance confirmation. Accumulation refers to the gathering of data that are based on observable phenomena and the formation of statements to describe such observations. Induction refers to the generalizations made after conducting experiments or analysis on data gathered. Instance confirmation refers to the process of generalizations and describes whether the generalizations established describe accurately the observations made.

The deductive approach is alternatively known as hypothetico-deductive approach or the approach of conjecture and refutation. Deductivism also fits with the critical rationalist stance (Blaikie, 2003, 2007; Bryman, 2008). Deductivism implies that knowledge is acquired through a process of “*trial and error*” (Blaikie, 2007, p. 9). The deductive approach uses existing theory or new hypothesis as a starting point. Contrary to inductivism, therefore, the first stage in deductivism is to find explanations to a problem in the use of existing theory

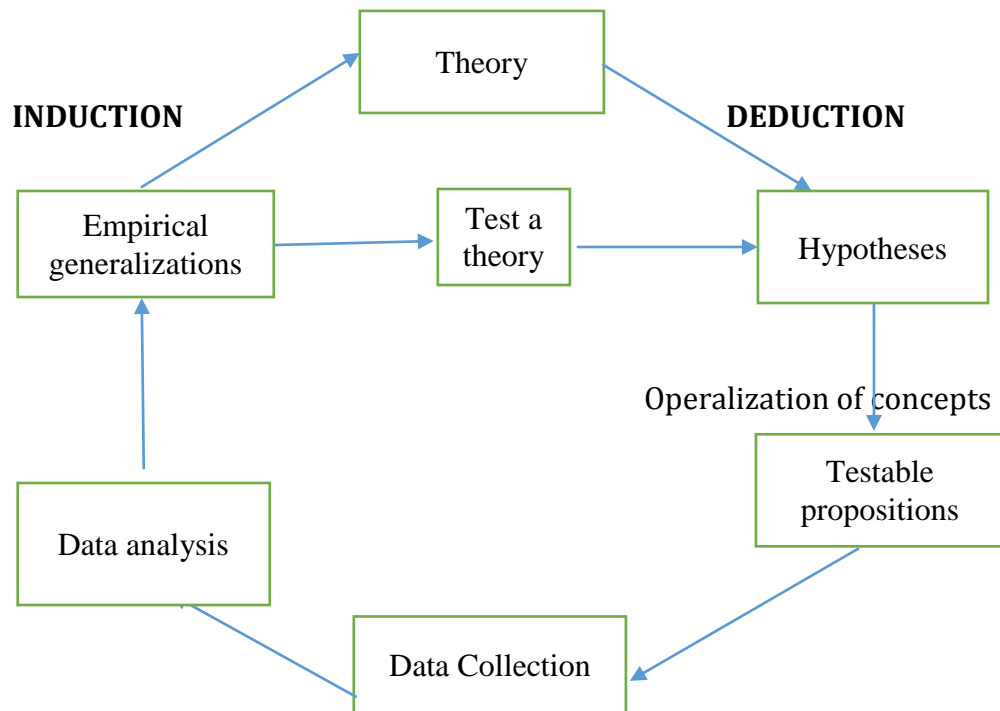
or by formulating a new theory. It is described as *“the process of using established theories as a framework to develop hypotheses”* (Somekh & Lewin 2005 p.346). General, deductivism implies that hypotheses are deduced and formed from an existing theory or a new conjecture and are then tested through the collection of new data. If tests do not confirm the theory then it should be rejected or modified. Figure 3.4 below known as Wallace’s scheme provides a graphical representation of the processes of induction and deduction and shows that in many respects induction and deduction are related.

In contrast, the Retroductive approach is:

*“a mode of inference in which events are explained by postulating (and identifying) mechanisms which are capable of producing them”* (Sayer, 2002, p.107).

Thus, the Retroductive research strategy suggests the formulation of theories that are assumed to elaborate on the cause of observable phenomena. The retroductive research strategy adopts a critical realist ontology and epistemology. Retroduction is similar to the abductive approach as they refer to the construction of theories by taking into account social actors’ everyday activities and the meanings that are derived from these. They also look to account for phenomena by appeal to structures and mechanisms that are not observed in the current data can test as implied in deduction. The abductive logic is based on the idealist ontologist and the constructionism epistemology (Blaikie, 2007).

**Figure 3.4: The cycle of theory construction and testing**



Source: Adopted from De Vaus, (1995); Wallace (1971)

The research strategy adopted for this study emphasises the deductive approach. As implied above, the deductive approach is more associated with quantitative research and allows testing hypotheses that are based on the existing knowledge and the prediction of future behaviour through original data collection (Gratton & Jones, 2004). The current study uses the existing theory as a framework to develop hypotheses which are then tested through quantitative data collection. This process along with a fuller discussion of the underpinnings of the research will be explained in detail in the subsequent sections.

## **3.6. Research Strategy-Case Study Approach**

This section focus upon the justification and explanation of the strategies adopted for data collection in the present study. The details of the data analysis are presented in the next chapter. One of the strategies available to the social researcher is the case study approach. Alternative strategies include experiments, archival analysis, histories and surveys. Each strategy is more suitable for a particular research depending on (a) the type of research question, (b) the control an investigator has over actual behavioural events, and (c) the focus on “*contemporary as opposed to historical phenomena*” (Yin, 2003, p.1). The research strategy adopted in this study is the case study approach. The materials presented in subsequent sections discuss the rationale for selecting a case study methodology for this research project.

### **3.6.1. What is a case study?**

Yin defines the case study as “*an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used*” (1989, p. 23). In other words, case studies provide an in-depth elucidation of a particular social phenomenon or setting (Bryman, 2008; Hamel et al., 1993). This focus of case studies on contemporary events is the main difference with the historical methods which deal with the past. Moreover, the case study approach can incorporate a variety of methods, in order to make observations, which can include both quantitative and qualitative features (Hakim, 2000, p.59). These methods might include participant observation, interviews, direct observation, document analysis, questionnaires, physical artefacts and archival records (Yin, 1994, p.80).

As Yin (2003) points out a case study is more applicable to answer questions related to “why” and “how” context-specific social phenomena exist, over which the researcher has little or no control. As previously noted, the research questions and their theoretical underpinnings determine the nature of the study

and the collection of the data. When a predominantly quantitative research design is employed, then the case study follows a deductive approach to the relevant theory and research, while when the nature of the design is qualitative then the case study tends to follow an inductive approach (Bryman, 2008). In the latter context a case study is also suitable for attaining analytic rather than statistical generalization, as case studies can generalize and expand theories rather than enumerating frequencies in large populations (Yin, 2009).

The advantage of using such case study research is based on its capacity to explore processes or behaviours that are atypical, informal, secret or little understood. Moreover, it is essential in understanding particular meanings associated with specific behaviours as well as social processes in their organisational context (Finn et al., 2000).

Despite the fact that the case study is a distinctive research strategy some criticism arises which reflects some of the concerns already noted above. The first concern when using case studies is the possibility of researchers influencing the findings by adding biased views. This normally happens when the case study researcher has not followed systematic procedures, as there is limited methodological guidance in conducting case study research (Yin, 2009). Another limitation of case studies is the fact that it is hard to attain generalisation from small number of observations. However, when doing such a case study the goal would be to attain analytic generalization rather than statistical generalization (Yin, 2009). Case studies are also criticised because researchers need more time to conduct them and they lead to massive, unreadable reports. Lastly, case studies are considered as failing to produce casual relationships. This means that there is no possibility to produce a particular effect by intervening to the research procedure when a particular treatment is made (Yin, 2003, 2009). This normally happens through experiments. However, as some methodologists point out, case studies should be viewed “as adjuncts to experiments rather than as alternatives to them” (Cook & Payne, 2002), as case studies can address issues related to “how” and “why” a treatment worked (Yin, 2009). More

fundamentally, case studies can be used to organise social-science research when no experiment is possible.

Adopting a specific case study design depends also on what a researcher aims to investigate. These designs include either single or multiple case approaches which can follow a holistic or embedded approach to their data collection. Prior to any data collection a decision must be made whether a single or multiple case designs is more useful in answering the research questions. Single case studies can provide detailed information for a specific context. However, single case study is often criticised as limited in its analytical power and generalizability to other situations or cases (Verschuren, 2003; Yin, 2003). Single case studies are more suitable for a particular research project when any of the five following rationales exists: Firstly, when the case is a critical test of existing theory. This refers to testing a well-developed theory on the grounds of whether the hypotheses will be valid or not; secondly, when it represents a unique or rare case, which according to Yin (2003) is more common in clinical studies; thirdly, where the single case is typical or representative of a specific situation, which means that the case study represents a broader category of cases that certain research questions would be also applicable; fourthly, when it serves a revelatory purpose whereas the researcher gives information, has the opportunity to observe and analyses a previously inaccessible phenomenon to social researchers and; lastly, when the single case is longitudinal and it can be studied at two or more different points in time.

Multiple case study design is more suitable when two or more cases are involved at the same study and they need comparison. Apart from deciding whether a single or multiple case study design is more suitable for a particular research, social researchers need also to decide whether to follow a holistic or embedded approach to their data collection. When not any subunits of analysis are incorporated to satisfy a research's aims and objectives the holistic approach is more relevant (Yin, 2003). Embedded design is advantageous when more than one units of analysis is involved. However, as Yin (2003) notes, attention is required to relate different subunits to the research purpose and question.

Hakim (2000) further subdivided case studies in terms of what they aim to assess. These classifications include: firstly, individual case histories; secondly, community studies; thirdly, social groups' case studies; fourthly, case studies of institutions or organizations; and, lastly, case studies assessing particular events, social interactions and relationships. However, a case study can fit into more than one of the sub-divisions presented above.

A single case study design was adopted for this particular study, as it provides an in-depth investigation and analysis of the context and the relationships between what determines volunteering activity of different types, that is sport clubs and events, as well as what might influence the transfer of effort between them.

In the current study, women's rugby volunteers are focused upon and considered to be those that have volunteered to the sport formally through a rugby club or with regard to the event through the governing body, which is the Rugby Football Union for Women (RFUW) for the benefit of the event. Therefore, informal volunteering referring to volunteering that is undertaken by individuals to support friends and family members to take part in sports without them being affiliated to a particular sports club or sport's governing body was not taken into consideration at this case study, as this would not fit with its aim and objectives.

Furthermore, *"some degree of prior knowledge may be necessary for suitable cases to be selected"* (Hakim, 2000, p. 62). Even though, the aim of the current study is not to generalize its findings to all sport volunteers in the UK, the literature suggests some uniformity in their socio-demographic characteristics and experiences. Consequently, the current findings may exemplify a broader category of cases across sport volunteers in the UK. Moreover, selecting volunteers employed within women's rugby in the UK was a matter of access, awareness of key stakeholders of the sport as well as fitting with the research aims and objectives as Stake (2005, p. 541) further suggests that it makes more sense to select a case study *"from which we feel we can learn the most"*.

The current case study design can be considered as both representative and revelatory. It is a typical example of the sports club delivery system in the UK, which are run by volunteers' efforts, have an NGB structure, as they are represented and supported by the sport's governing body, in that case the RFUW, which supports development of the sport in both grass-roots and elite level. Consequently, an embedded case study approach was also selected, as the present study aims to explore, understand and analyze the motivations, socio-demographics characteristics, experiences and satisfaction and engagement in sport on the future intentions of volunteers in women's rugby within two sub-units of analysis; both the clubs and the event system. The embedded design is more suitable to narrow the focus of the research and to make data analysis more manageable. As the RFUW also hosted the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup this suggested that selecting women's rugby volunteers in the UK could act as a revelatory case study, as no previous links between club and event volunteers have been investigated prior to this study. This study also followed a single case study approach as the comparative method of two or more case studies was not feasible. For instance, control sports that an international event was expected to be hosted from the National sport governing bodies (NSGB) did not exist at the time the research took place and hence finding "*naturally occurring cases that will provide the necessary comparative leverage*" (Hammersley, Gomm, & Foster, 2000, p. 239) was impossible. This case study adopted more than one data collection methods such as questionnaires and documentary evidence from previous related studies. The data collection methods adopted in this particular piece of research are discussed in more detail in the following section.



## **3.7. Data Collection**

This section focus upon the justification and explanation of the strategies adopted for data collection. In particular, this section focuses upon the available data collection strategies, the justification for using the surveys' method, its advantages and disadvantages, issues of validity and reliability, the procedure used as well as the participants of the study.

### **3.7.1. Data Collection Approaches**

Data collection when conducting a research project follows two different approaches. These include primary and secondary approaches (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Primary research refers to original data collected in any piece of research after the researcher has gained some understanding of the study area through secondary research and has applied specific research methods to data collection for answering the research questions. Secondary research refers to reviewing previous studies in a subject area, collating all relevant information and gaining an understanding at the subject area in order to apply similar methodology in the conduction of primary research. Secondary information can be accessed and found in e research articles, scientific books, newspapers, governmental reports and other relevant sources (Saunders et al., 2000).

The current study involves both primary and secondary sources, in as much that the existing literature as reviewed in Chapter 2, offered insights into the phenomenon being studied, the motivation for researching the topic as well as providing the theoretical framework supporting the methodology and research strategies adopted. However, the literature selected should be adopted on the basis it undergoes "*some sort of quality control*" (O' Dochartaigh, 2002, p. 10). A wide number of relevant research articles such as Bang and Chelladurai's (2003) development and validation of the Volunteer Motivation Scale for International Sporting Events, books, internet sources, policy documents and reports including Sport England's (2003) report into sports volunteering in the UK were consulted and used as a tool for comparing, contrasting and supporting the generation of

primary data and to assess the findings of the current study. The literature consulted was selected on the basis it was credible, reliable, referenced and used in other relevant research projects. However, the main approach involved the collection of primary data through survey.

### **3.7.2. Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches in Social Research**

As already emphasised each research paradigm is associated with different methods of data and this applies also to primary data collection. The characteristics of the data collected allow a distinction between quantitative and qualitative research (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Quantitative data collection allows a numerical measurement, observation and analysis of sporting behaviour and it is related to the positivist paradigm, and critical rationalism and, to an extent, critical realism (Gratton & Jones, 2004). On the other hand, qualitative research allows the understanding of non-quantifiable concepts such as emotions, feelings, experiences, attitudes, thoughts etc by using non-numerical data and hence is more relevant with the interpretivist approach (Gratton & Jones, 2004). As Veal (2006) points out quantitative research is more reliable when data are collected from a large number of people. In contrast, reliability in qualitative research is associated with the gathering of a great deal of information for a small group of participants (Veal, 2006).

Both types of data collection are useful when applied to relevant research environments and follow a specific research framework (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Therefore, the decision to apply either quantitative or qualitative methods in a study depends on the adopted philosophical position along with the research question rather than the researchers' skills and preferences (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Consequently, as the current study follows a critical rationalism philosophical approach and the use of quantitative data collection methods, the use of surveys was consistent with the existing theoretical framework followed for achieving the research aims and objectives. As Devine (2002, p. 205) argued

*“what is a valid method depends on the aims and objectives of a research project”* and hence this position is followed at the current research project.

Gratton and Jones (2004) classify interviews in four different categories: structured, semi-structured, unstructured and group interview or focus group. Structured interviews have a standard structure and the researcher asks a determined set of questions. Although in semi-structured interviews the researcher uses a standard set of questions as well, he or she can be more flexible in terms of the sequence and the alteration of some questions (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Unstructured interviews are led by the respondent as the researcher has only a general idea about the issues that have to be covered. Therefore, the respondent can be more spontaneous and elaborate his views. However, this type of interview can lack focus and this can affect the reliability and validity of the data (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Focus group is a type of interview involving a group of people who interact and share perspectives and ideas. This type of interview is usually semi-structured (Gratton and Jones, 2004). Participant observation is more relevant to descriptive research rather than explanatory research and is considered appropriate when the *“phenomenon under investigation can be directly observed”* (Gratton & Jones, 2004, p. 160).

A questionnaire is defined simply as *“a standardised set of questions to gain information from a subject”* (Gratton & Jones, 2004, p. 115). Questionnaires involve the collection through coding quantifiable, numerical data and hence they are associated with quantitative research (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Moreover, it is this use of quantitative data that makes questionnaires a transparent research method although it is almost impossible to achieve absolute objectivity (Veal, 2006). The main categories that questionnaires fall into include self-completion questionnaires delivered through the post or electronic media, as well as telephone and face-to-face questionnaires which may be completed by the researcher in consultation with the subject.

### **3.7.2.1. Advantages of Questionnaires**

The main advantages of using questionnaire surveys include the fact that it is a low cost research procedure which is essential when external funding is impossible for a research project (Cartwright, 1988). Moreover, questionnaires allow anonymity and confidentiality which can ensure the validity of the responses (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Furthermore, as Gillham (2000) points out questionnaires allow the collection of a large amount of data in relatively less time. Well-designed questionnaires eliminate the possibility of adding bias into the results which often happens with interviews (e.g. through body language) (Gratton & Jones, 2004). In addition, questionnaires provide structured data which are easily comparable and can be easily analysed statistically (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Another advantage of using self-completion questionnaires in a research project is that they allow the participant to fill in the questions in a convenient time frame (Gratton & Jones, 2004). This research study utilised self-completion questionnaires for data collection for the reasons highlighted above as well as due to the fact that using questionnaires is consistent with the existing literature and with what this research project aims to achieve.

### **3.7.2.2. Disadvantages of Questionnaires**

The disadvantages of using questionnaires in a research project are often associated with the use of self-completion surveys. For instance, there is no control over the person who completes the questionnaire unless the characteristics of the participants are specified. However, although the participants' characteristics are specified sometimes, there is still the possibility of someone else completing the questionnaire (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Moreover, self-completed surveys are associated with low response rates as the respondents forget to complete the questionnaire on time (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Another disadvantage with self-completed questionnaires is that they can restrict the researcher to use simple questions as complex questions may need clarification (Gratton & Jones, 2004). There is also a possibility of bias to be added when administering questionnaires with no specific time-frame for the

respondents to complete the survey. This is particularly problematic with attitudes-based questionnaires or when respondents are asked to recall something that happened in the past (i.e a questionnaire measuring satisfaction with the experience). This is because the nature of the response is affected by the respondent's ability to recall this past event, and hence this leads to respondents answering differently at different points in time or to answers that vary between respondents (Finn et al., 2000; Hurst, 1994). Lastly, there is no opportunity to get more specified details about a question once the participants answer it (Gratton & Jones, 2004). These issues highlight the need to ensure the questions are reliably and validly framed and that they are targeted at relevant respondents.

## **3.8. Context, Data and Variables**

### **3.8.1. Population, Sampling and Data Collection Procedures**

The review of the literature on volunteering in chapter 2 revealed that no links have been investigated so far between different volunteering opportunities as well as any similarities between club and event volunteers coming from a similar sport background. Therefore, the purpose of this research study is to explore how their motivations, socio-economic characteristics, sports engagement, and experience and satisfaction with volunteering, on volunteers' behavior in either sports club and sports event volunteering. This includes examining the transfer of volunteering effort across these contexts. In order to achieving these research aims and objectives, and based on the above discussion of case-studies and data collection, a two pronged quantitative research design was envisaged because of the following reasons:

- The Rugby Football Union for Women found this project as a useful tool for examining the current trends in rugby volunteering and expressed their willingness to help in the conduction of the actual research.
- It is a sport with organized competitions to both male and female sections from amateur to professional levels.
- It is represented by an autonomous National Sport Governing Body-the RFUW-which aims to boost participation levels at its respective sport.
- The RFUW hosted the Women's Rugby World Cup in August 2010, which as an international sport competition needed a volunteer workforce to support its operational delivery.

### **3.8.2. Development Procedure of the Research Instruments**

For addressing the research aims and objectives, three questionnaires were developed. A panel of experts was asked to thoroughly examine the questionnaires for content validity prior to the distribution phase and implementation. This panel included academics and professors from the Sports Policy and Management research group of Loughborough University as well as representatives from the RFUW including the East Midlands Development Manager, the RFUW Volunteer Resources officer and the RFU Volunteer Resources Director. The comments and suggestions that arose after this screening process led to some modification of the wording of questions when it was deemed necessary. The scope and the rationale for developing each one of these questionnaires will be discussed in the subsequent sections. Purposeful sampling was conducted on the basis that the selected participants of the study satisfied the research objectives. Sampling procedures are also described below in detail.

The first questionnaire aimed to address club volunteering in women's rugby. Consequently, the target of this questionnaire was specifically volunteers of rugby clubs who either expressed an interest to volunteer at the Rugby World Cup but this intention was not subsequently translated to actual event volunteering experience or to such rugby clubs' volunteers who actually volunteered for the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup (WRWC) then did not apply or volunteers who did not expressed an interest to volunteer at all at the women's world cup. This was identified by the inclusion of a question, which specifically asked the club volunteers whether they had actually volunteered for the 2010 WRWC or not. This questionnaire also included a series of questions which aimed to identify the current sport and volunteering engagement of the participants, their motivation to start volunteering in rugby clubs, their satisfaction with the volunteering experience in rugby clubs as well as their future intentions in terms of volunteering in clubs or other sport or rugby related events. Another section of the questionnaire aimed to identify the reasons that

prevented those club volunteers who suggested lack of interest to volunteer further for the 2010 WRWC. The last section of the clubs' questionnaire included socio-demographic questions in order to identify the characteristics of the participants.

This questionnaire was made accessible online through being developed by using the Bristol Online Surveys Web-page. The initial plan was to access the club volunteers' sample, with the help of the Volunteer Resources Officer, through emails directly sent from the RFUW headquarters to each one of the club authorities. However, as identified in a later stage of the process, there was no database held by the RFUW with the contact details of each volunteer helping out the rugby club system. Consequently, it has to be recognized that the population of women's rugby club volunteers is to a degree uncertain. Consistent with the developing profile of women's rugby, women's teams are often based at traditionally male clubs. Club volunteers may also share duties with the men's game, which is allowed for in the analysis. Clubs have merged or moved their base between clubs and cover much wider areas of recruitment of players and competition. For instance, the currently known club, Longton Ladies RUFC, began as Newcastle (Staffs) ladies in 2003. Consequently the specific club identities of volunteers were not a focus of the research rather than individual rugby volunteers' experiences and behaviour. However, as previously noted these individual volunteers could not be easily accessed. Therefore, women rugby clubs were identified from information provided on the RFUW web-page or in other related web pages by directly search. This process revealed that as suggested by the RFUW most women's rugby clubs are run with help from no more than five specifically identified formal volunteers (RFUW, 2010). This suggested a base population of approximately 750 volunteers for the total of 150 clubs that were identified through the RFUW web-page, as taking part in the national league structure of women's rugby at the time of the survey.

Nonetheless, as only 100 clubs had an active online page at the time of the survey, this constrained the sampling frame to the corresponding potential 500 club volunteers. After identifying the potential target sample of the current study



an e-mail including the link of the internet-administered questionnaire was sent to each one of the relevant club authorities and the volunteers identified online inviting them to take part in this research project and to identify relevant respondents coming from their clubs. The data collection stage was initiated in November 2010. It was suggested that it would be more rational to identify relevant volunteers after the beginning of the rugby season, ideally in the middle of November. The rugby season in England starts in October and this suggests that club volunteers are busy with the registration procedures during this time. Therefore, the response rate was expected to be higher after these procedures take place. This process resulted in the completion of 168 questionnaires from the women's rugby clubs volunteers. This equates to a 33.6% response rate which is deemed satisfactory for empirical analysis and as a high proportion of the relatively small population<sup>2</sup>. Table 3.8 outlines the women's rugby clubs from which the research sample was drawn.

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<sup>2</sup> The small sample size used in this study is comparable to several other studies in the field which included relatively small sample sizes. For instance Burgham and Downward (2005), in a case study of swimming examined the individuals' decision to volunteer and their time commitments. The sample size used was 126 individual volunteers and non-volunteers representing two clubs of the Amateur Swimming Association (ASA). Moreover, Hallmann and Harms (2012) examined the determinants of volunteers' motivations and their impacts on future engagement in two major sport events using a sample size of n=96 and n=83 respectively. Similarly, Wilson (2004) examined the choice to enter a coach education program among 112 volunteers in athletic clubs in the southeast of England. Coleman (2002) examined the characteristics of volunteer managers involved in Cricket, using a sample of 151 managers from 35 county cricket associations (CCAs) in England.

**Table 3.8. Women Rugby Clubs in England from which sample was drawn**

<b>CLUB NAME</b>	<b>CLUB DETAILS</b>
ALTON RUGBY FOOTBALL CLUB	<a href="http://www.alton-rfc.com/key-personnel.html">http://www.alton-rfc.com/key-personnel.html</a>
AVON RUGBY	<a href="http://www.avonrfc.co.uk/Committee_Member.aspx">http://www.avonrfc.co.uk/Committee_Member.aspx</a>
BARNES RUGBY F CLUB	<a href="http://www.barnesrfc.org/brfc-ladies.htm">http://www.barnesrfc.org/brfc-ladies.htm</a>
BASINGSTOKE RFC	<a href="http://basingstokerfc.com/club-info/officers/">http://basingstokerfc.com/club-info/officers/</a>
BATH	<a href="http://www.bathrugby.com/ladies/index.php">http://www.bathrugby.com/ladies/index.php</a>
BECCEHAMIAN LADIES	<a href="http://www.beccs-ladies.co.uk/contactus.htm">http://www.beccs-ladies.co.uk/contactus.htm</a>
BIDEFORD	<a href="http://www.bidefordrfc.co.uk/contacts.php">http://www.bidefordrfc.co.uk/contacts.php</a>
BLAYDON	<a href="http://blaydonwrfc.freesevers.com/news.htm">http://blaydonwrfc.freesevers.com/news.htm</a>
BRIDGNORTH RFC	<a href="http://www.bridgnorthrfc.co.uk/#/club-officers/4524391379">http://www.bridgnorthrfc.co.uk/#/club-officers/4524391379</a>
CAMBERLEY	<a href="http://www.camberlevrugby.org.uk/rugby/rugby3.shtml">http://www.camberlevrugby.org.uk/rugby/rugby3.shtml</a>
CAMP HILL RFC	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/camphillrfc/officials/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/camphillrfc/officials/</a>
CARLISLE	<a href="http://carlislerugby.co.uk/contents1a/">http://carlislerugby.co.uk/contents1a/</a>
DARLINGTON	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/darlingtonrfc/1/players-coaches-">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/darlingtonrfc/1/players-coaches-</a>
DEEPINGS	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/deepingsrugbyunionfc/1/team-">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/deepingsrugbyunionfc/1/team-</a>
DERBY	<a href="http://www.derbyrfc.com/contacts/contacts.php">http://www.derbyrfc.com/contacts/contacts.php</a>
DONCASTER DEMONS	<a href="http://www.drfc.co.uk/About-Us/News/2009/November/Well-">http://www.drfc.co.uk/About-Us/News/2009/November/Well-</a>
DORCHESTER	<a href="http://www.dorchester-rfc.co.uk/contact.php">http://www.dorchester-rfc.co.uk/contact.php</a>
DOVER	<a href="http://www.doverrfc.co.uk/websitenews.shtml">http://www.doverrfc.co.uk/websitenews.shtml</a>
EAST GRINSTEAD	<a href="http://www.egrfc.com/">http://www.egrfc.com/</a>
FARNBOROUGH	<a href="http://www.farnboroughrugby.co.uk/contact.htm">http://www.farnboroughrugby.co.uk/contact.htm</a>
FLEETWOOD	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/fleetwood/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/fleetwood/</a>
FOOTSCRAY	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/footscravrfc/officials/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/footscravrfc/officials/</a>
GUILDFORD	<a href="http://www.guildfordrugbyclub.co.uk/contact.htm">http://www.guildfordrugbyclub.co.uk/contact.htm</a>
HALIFAX VANDALS	<a href="http://www.halifaxvandalsrfc.co.uk/contacts.htm">http://www.halifaxvandalsrfc.co.uk/contacts.htm</a>
HAMMERSMITH	<a href="http://www.fulhamrugby.co.uk/clubhouse/committee/">http://www.fulhamrugby.co.uk/clubhouse/committee/</a>
HAMPSTEAD	<a href="http://www.hampsteadrugbyclub.co.uk/">http://www.hampsteadrugbyclub.co.uk/</a>
HARLEQUIN	<a href="http://official.sportnetwork.net/main/s463/st76654.htm">http://official.sportnetwork.net/main/s463/st76654.htm</a>
HARLOW	<a href="http://www.sharpsites.org.uk/website1/anewnav3.php">http://www.sharpsites.org.uk/website1/anewnav3.php</a>
HARTLEPOOL	<a href="http://official.sportnetwork.net/main/s388/st118289.htm">http://official.sportnetwork.net/main/s388/st118289.htm</a>
HASTINGS	<a href="http://www.hastingsrugby.org.uk/dyn/pages/hb-club-info/club-">http://www.hastingsrugby.org.uk/dyn/pages/hb-club-info/club-</a>
HEATON MOOR	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/heatonmoor">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/heatonmoor</a>
HENLEY	<a href="http://www.henleyhawks.co.uk/ContactUs.aspx">http://www.henleyhawks.co.uk/ContactUs.aspx</a>
HERTFORD	<a href="http://www.hertfordrfc.co.uk/ladies.htm">http://www.hertfordrfc.co.uk/ladies.htm</a>
HOVE	<a href="http://www.hoverfc.com/?p=club&amp;sp=contacts&amp;ml=1">http://www.hoverfc.com/?p=club&amp;sp=contacts&amp;ml=1</a>
ILKLEY	<a href="http://www.ilkleayrfc.co.uk/ladiesteams.html">http://www.ilkleayrfc.co.uk/ladiesteams.html</a>
KILBURN COSMOS	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/kilburncosmos/officials/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/kilburncosmos/officials/</a>
LETCHWORTH	<a href="http://letchworthgirls.blogspot.com/">http://letchworthgirls.blogspot.com/</a>
LEODENSIANS	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/leodiensian/officials/&amp;page=senio">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/leodiensian/officials/&amp;page=senio</a>
LEWES	<a href="http://www.lewesrfc.org.uk/index/contact/">http://www.lewesrfc.org.uk/index/contact/</a>
LICHFIELD	<a href="http://www.lichfieldrugby.co.uk/">http://www.lichfieldrugby.co.uk/</a>
LIVERPOOL COLLEGIATE	<a href="http://www.liverpoolcollegiaterugby.com/contact.html">http://www.liverpoolcollegiaterugby.com/contact.html</a>
LONDON WELSH	<a href="http://www.lwwrfc.org.uk/index.php?option=com_content&amp;task=bl">http://www.lwwrfc.org.uk/index.php?option=com_content&amp;task=bl</a>
LONGDON	<a href="http://www.longtonrugby.co.uk/Players.php?team=0">http://www.longtonrugby.co.uk/Players.php?team=0</a>
LOUGHBOROUGH	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/loughborough/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/loughborough/</a>
LUTTERWORTH	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/lutterworthrfc/officials/&amp;page=ju">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/lutterworthrfc/officials/&amp;page=ju</a>
MALVERN	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/malvernrfc/officials/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/malvernrfc/officials/</a>
MARLOW	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/marlow/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/marlow/</a>
MEDWAY	<a href="http://www.mrfc.net/women/index.htm">http://www.mrfc.net/women/index.htm</a>
MELLISH	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/mellishrfcltd/officials/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/mellishrfcltd/officials/</a>
MILLWALL	<a href="http://www.millwallrugby.com/club/committee.html">http://www.millwallrugby.com/club/committee.html</a>
MORPETH	<a href="http://www.morpethgirlsrugby.co.uk/">http://www.morpethgirlsrugby.co.uk/</a>
MOSELEY	<a href="http://www.moseleyrugby.co.uk/SITE_STRUCTURE/index_1.htm">http://www.moseleyrugby.co.uk/SITE_STRUCTURE/index_1.htm</a>
NEW ASH GREEN	<a href="http://home.btconnect.com/kevinallencrea/NAGRFC/ContactUs.ht">http://home.btconnect.com/kevinallencrea/NAGRFC/ContactUs.ht</a>
NEWBURY	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/newburyladies/officials/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/newburyladies/officials/</a>
NORTHWICH	<a href="http://www.northwichgirlsrugby.co.uk/index.html">http://www.northwichgirlsrugby.co.uk/index.html</a>
NUNEATON	<a href="http://www.nuneatonrugby.co.uk/contact.php#">http://www.nuneatonrugby.co.uk/contact.php#</a>
OLD ALBANIANS	<a href="http://www.oarugby.com/index.php?option=com_contact&amp;view=ca">http://www.oarugby.com/index.php?option=com_contact&amp;view=ca</a>

OLD CATERHAMIANs	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/oldcaterhamiansrfc/1/default.html">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/oldcaterhamiansrfc/1/default.html</a>
OLD DUNSDTONIANs	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/olddunstonians/officials/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/olddunstonians/officials/</a>
OXFORD	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/oxfordrfc/officials/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/oxfordrfc/officials/</a>
PAIGNTON	<a href="http://clubs.rfu.com/Clubs/portals/PaigntonRFC/ClubContacts1.as">http://clubs.rfu.com/Clubs/portals/PaigntonRFC/ClubContacts1.as</a>
PETERBOROUGH	<a href="http://www.prufc.com/officers.asp">http://www.prufc.com/officers.asp</a>
PLYMOUTH	<a href="http://www.plymouthalbion.com/">http://www.plymouthalbion.com/</a>
PRESTON	<a href="http://www.pgrfc.co.uk/club_off.asp">http://www.pgrfc.co.uk/club_off.asp</a>
READING	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/readingrugbyclub/officials/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/readingrugbyclub/officials/</a>
REDRUTH	<a href="http://www.redruthrfc.com/ClubInfo/Contact.aspx">http://www.redruthrfc.com/ClubInfo/Contact.aspx</a>
RICHMOND	<a href="http://www.richmondrc.co.uk/about-us/59">http://www.richmondrc.co.uk/about-us/59</a>
ROMFORD	<a href="http://www.romfordrugby.com/contact_us.php">http://www.romfordrugby.com/contact_us.php</a>
ROSSENDALE	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/rossendalerufc/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/rossendalerufc/</a>
SALISBURY	<a href="http://www.salisburvrfc.org/club/club-contacts/">http://www.salisburvrfc.org/club/club-contacts/</a>
SARACENS	<a href="http://www.saracenswomen.co.uk/index.php?p=custom67">http://www.saracenswomen.co.uk/index.php?p=custom67</a>
SCUNTHORPE	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/scunthorpe/1/players-coaches-">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/scunthorpe/1/players-coaches-</a>
SHEFFIELD	<a href="http://www.sheffieldrufc.co.uk/?page_id=125">http://www.sheffieldrufc.co.uk/?page_id=125</a>
ST MARY'S OLD BOYS	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/stmarysoldboyssw/officials/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/stmarysoldboyssw/officials/</a>
STAFFORD	<a href="http://www.staffordrugbyclub.com/">http://www.staffordrugbyclub.com/</a>
SUPERMARINE	<a href="http://www.supermarineladies.co.uk/contact/teamcontacts.shtml">http://www.supermarineladies.co.uk/contact/teamcontacts.shtml</a>
SUTTON	<a href="http://www.suttonrugby.co.uk/index.php?option=com_content&amp;vie">http://www.suttonrugby.co.uk/index.php?option=com_content&amp;vie</a>
TABBARD	<a href="http://www.tabardrfc.co.uk/women_indexa.htm">http://www.tabardrfc.co.uk/women_indexa.htm</a>
THURROCK	<a href="http://www.thurrockrfc.co.uk/admin/index.htm">http://www.thurrockrfc.co.uk/admin/index.htm</a>
TONBRIDGE	<a href="http://www.tjrfc.co.uk/index.php?option=com_content&amp;view=articl">http://www.tjrfc.co.uk/index.php?option=com_content&amp;view=articl</a>
TOTTONIANs	<a href="http://www.totties.org.uk/">http://www.totties.org.uk/</a>
VAGABONDs	<a href="http://clients.mysportsite.com/vagabondsiom.net/">http://clients.mysportsite.com/vagabondsiom.net/</a>
WELLINGBOROUGH	<a href="http://www.wrfc.net/content/view/60/99/">http://www.wrfc.net/content/view/60/99/</a>
WIMBLEDON	<a href="http://www.wimbledonrfc.co.uk/coaches.asp">http://www.wimbledonrfc.co.uk/coaches.asp</a>
WITNEY	<a href="http://www.witneyrfc.co.uk/">http://www.witneyrfc.co.uk/</a>
WOODBRIIDGE	<a href="http://www.woodbridgerugbyclub.co.uk/modules/page/Page.aspx?">http://www.woodbridgerugbyclub.co.uk/modules/page/Page.aspx?</a>
WORCESTER	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/worcesterrfc/officials/&amp;page=gen">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/worcesterrfc/officials/&amp;page=gen</a>
DROITWICH	<a href="http://www.droitwichrfc.co.uk/club/contacts/">http://www.droitwichrfc.co.uk/club/contacts/</a>
EVESHAM	<a href="http://www.eveshamrugbyclub.co.uk/Ladies/ladiescommittee.htm">http://www.eveshamrugbyclub.co.uk/Ladies/ladiescommittee.htm</a>
KINGSNORTON	<a href="http://www.kingsnortononline.co.uk/ContactDetails.aspx">http://www.kingsnortononline.co.uk/ContactDetails.aspx</a>
REDDITCH	<a href="http://www.redditchrugbyclub.com/links.php">http://www.redditchrugbyclub.com/links.php</a>
DUDLEY	<a href="http://www.dkrfc.co.uk/officers.htm">http://www.dkrfc.co.uk/officers.htm</a>
STRATFORD	<a href="http://www.dtrubee.dircon.co.uk/links.htm">http://www.dtrubee.dircon.co.uk/links.htm</a>
BUCKINGHAM	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/buckingham/officials/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/buckingham/officials/</a>
CHESTERFIELD PANTHERs	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/chesterfieldpanthers/officials/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/chesterfieldpanthers/officials/</a>
GLOSSOP	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/glossop/officials">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/glossop/officials</a>
MELBOURNE	<a href="http://www.melbourne-">http://www.melbourne-</a>
ASHFIELD	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/ashfield/officials/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/ashfield/officials/</a>
NOTTINGHAM	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/nottinghambootscorsairsrfc/offici">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/nottinghambootscorsairsrfc/offici</a>
PAVIORS	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/paviorsrfc/location/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/paviorsrfc/location/</a>
SLEAFORD	<a href="http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/sleafordrfc/officials/">http://www.pitchero.com/clubs/sleafordrfc/officials/</a>

In a similar manner two other questionnaires were developed. A questionnaire was used to obtain a good cross section of volunteers working in a number of capacities at the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup including those not typically experienced in clubs. The origin and past club-based experience of volunteers was also probed to allow triangulation to the research at a club-system level to explore the linkages between volunteer experiences. This questionnaire included similar questions to the one used as with the rugby-club context described above. It was envisaged to use the event questionnaire in order to identify the previous volunteering history, volunteers' experiences and impacts of

volunteering at the 2010 Women's World Cup. Only some questions that were irrelevant to the nature of event volunteering were slightly modified or excluded. Moreover, questions regarding participants' motivation to volunteer at the 2010 WRWC were also included. The questionnaire targeting the 2010 Women's World Cup volunteers was sent to the relevant individuals prior the start of the event, in the beginning of August 2010. Data protection policies of the RFUW did not allow access to the database with the contact details of the 2010 WRWC volunteers. Therefore, the RFUW representatives agreed to send an e-mail which included the link of the electronic questionnaire inviting the event volunteers to complete the survey and take part in the study. This happened so that the pre-event sentiment could be investigated. Seventy questionnaires were completed online. According to the volunteer resources officer of the RFUW and the official page of the Women's World Cup, around 300 volunteers assisted with the operations of the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup and hence this equates to 23.33% response rate (IRB, 2010).

The third survey was a follow up version of the pre-event questionnaire and aimed to measure the satisfaction of the volunteers after the event as well as the impacts of the event experience on their future behaviour. The follow up questionnaire was sent out to the same volunteers who completed the pre-event survey. This was achieved by including a question in the pre-event questionnaire inviting the respondents to disclose their email address if they would be willing to be contacted should a follow-up survey takes place. This process began in December 2010, three months after the completion of the 2010 WRWC.

The rationale for conducting the follow-up satisfaction survey sometime after the completion of the event was based on evidence that research on volunteers' experiences should take seasonal influences into account and administer the survey during a month where such influences can be minimized (ILO, 2011). As stated previously, the rugby season in England starts in the beginning of October; therefore conducting the post-event survey during that month could potentially add bias to the results, as rugby volunteers are busy with the registration procedures. Moreover, drawing upon the satisfaction literature, it is suggested

that investigating volunteers or consumers' satisfaction in the immediate aftermath of an event leads to higher reported satisfaction rates, as volunteers' enthusiasm from the involvement tends to still be quite high, focusing on the overall satisfaction with the experience rather than evaluating specific attributes of it (DCMS, 2013; Weiss et al., 1999). Emotions and the frequency someone experiences a positive emotion is a key predictor of overall job satisfaction (Fisher, 2000). This is supported further by Levine and Pizarro (2004) who suggest that despite experiences associated with emotional intensity can lead to greater memory confidence in terms of an event recollection, they are not associated with high memory consistency. Satisfaction, as reported in section 2.6.4 of this thesis is a multidimensional construct, which needs to be evaluated using several measures such as those related to volunteers' motivations, the ability of volunteers to complete tasks (intrinsic satisfaction) (Costa et al., 2006), satisfaction with the operating procedures (Silverberg et al., 2001), satisfaction with management elements (Vecina et al., 2009) or related to satisfaction derived extrinsically based on the benefits and rewards obtained by individual's actions (Stride et al., 2007).

If satisfaction is measured just after a recent experience has taken place, volunteers tend to evaluate it based on their affective stimuli rather than more cognitive responses. To illustrate this, Millan and Esteban (2004) point out if satisfaction is measured in the immediate aftermath of a recent experience, its scores are imbalanced, as the recipients of the experience tend to value it based on the perception of the service received without acknowledging or representing their expectations before using the product or service. In the case of large scale sport events, which normally tend to occur once in a person's lifetime, the focus is to evaluate the experience overall rather than as part of several processes (Babakus & Boller, 1992; Koelemejer, Roest, & Verhallen, 1993). Therefore, sufficient time needs to have passed for the immediate excitement to disappear and for achieving reliable satisfaction scores. As Pearce (2005) noted, if satisfaction is evaluated both as an ongoing and as a post-consumption attitude can effectively embrace affective, cognitive and implicit behavioural elements which support the multidimensionality of the term.

In the current study, several reminders were sent through e-mails to those volunteers who completed the pre-event survey, in order to achieve responses from the same participants. The process was finalized in July 2011. These three questionnaires aimed to link volunteers' socio-demographics and experiences to possible future behavior in rugby. Moreover, it was anticipated that by comparing results across subsamples, the impacts of successful volunteer participation in the world cup as well as in the rugby clubs system on volunteers' future behavior will be identified.

After the data collection stage was finalized, the responses of the event volunteers that were identified as currently being active at the rugby clubs system were combined with the responses of the club volunteers sample, who by design were not event volunteers,

### **3.8.3. Instrumentation**

Having outlined in broad terms the development of the research, this section outlines the development of the scales used for quantitative data collection and justifies the selection of the questions in each one of the questionnaires in more detail.

#### **3.8.3.1. Club Questionnaire**

As previously noted, the club questionnaire was specifically developed to assess individuals' volunteering experiences with the rugby-clubs system in England. The RFUW is the representative governing body of the sport in England.

The volunteers assisting with the rugby clubs operations which were taking part in the national league structures of women's rugby as described above were invited to take part in the survey through an official email sent to their respective club authorities. The first section included questions pertaining to identifying their current sport and volunteering engagement both in rugby and in other sport and general settings. It is important to recognize in this context, that women's rugby tends to be delivered as an outgrowth of existing male clubs,

with senior and junior sides. Therefore, this was addressed with the inclusion of a question that aimed to identify the context in which club volunteers primarily volunteer. Whether rugby is perceived as the most important activity among those volunteers who were volunteering in other settings was also addressed. The volunteer role currently performed and the hours committing in volunteering at the club both during the season and outside the competition season was also identified through relevant questions. Motivations to volunteer for women's rugby clubs were identified by the reasons proposed from Sport England's (2003) survey and were measured with a number of continuous<sup>3</sup> variables ranging from 1=not at all important disagree to 5= very important. For the analysis of satisfaction, 37 items were investigated as adapted from Silverberg and Marshall (2001) and the benefits of sports clubs volunteering, as identified by Sport England (2003). Questions were slightly modified when needed to be relevant with the current study aims and objectives. The questions were rated on a seven point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)<sup>4</sup>. Future intentions were also assessed to allow triangulation of evidence across the three different surveys by using the items adapted from Downward and Ralston (2006) research as with the pre-event survey. This project aimed to specify the nature of the intended future volunteering activity and hence it included questions about intentions to volunteer for specific events and activities in the future such as to volunteer for the 2012 London Olympic Games or to further volunteer for women's rugby clubs. Sheeran (2002) suggests that asking volunteers about their future intentions without referring to a specific event presents some limitations. These were sought to be eliminated in the current study by including specified intentions as explained above. As with the pre-event

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<sup>3</sup> Responses to a single Likert item are normally treated as ordinal data, because, especially when using only five levels, one cannot assume that respondents perceive the difference between adjacent levels as equidistant. However, Likert items are often treated as numeric and continuous allowing their mean or SD to be computed. This depends on the type of analysis you aim to do with them and it is most common in surveys measuring attitudes (Jacobsson, 2004; Jamieson, 2004). As it is explained in subsequent sections of this thesis, it is legitimate to treat them as continuous for the analysis of the current data, as similar research patterns are followed with several other studies in the field (i.e Downward & Ralston, 2006).

<sup>4</sup> Some of the items are expressed with negative wording as per the original scale. These were transformed with SPSS at the analysis stage, to reflect positive wording and to be consistent with the other items in the scale.

survey, the club volunteers were asked to disclose their socio-demographic characteristics through a series of questions adopted from Sport England's (2003) research study. For issues of building rapport with the participants which is more difficult to be achieved with online surveys such questions were asked at the end of the questionnaire.

### **3.8.3.2. Event Questionnaire (Pre-event)**

#### **1. Sports and Volunteering Engagement**

The first section of the pre-event questionnaire aimed to provide information regarding the sports and volunteering engagement of the event volunteer sample. This section, along with questions about sports, rugby and volunteer participation in other settings aimed to identify whether the survey participants were actively volunteering in a rugby club either currently or in the past. Consequently, this question helped to identify those that were actively volunteering at the rugby clubs context and to combine their responses with the actual clubs' volunteer sample as suggested at an earlier section. The context in which club volunteers primarily volunteer was also sought to be identified as with the clubs' questionnaire. Another question, in this section aimed to identify the volunteer role and the hours committing in their respective rugby clubs for those individuals it was applicable among the event volunteer sample.

#### **2. Motivation to Club Volunteer**

Another section of the event volunteer questionnaire was specifically designed to elicit motivations for being currently involved in a rugby club among those volunteers it was applicable. Motivations were measured by a series of questions that were adapted from Sport England (2003), which was the last major investigation into sports volunteering in England. Each of these variables was measured on a 5-point Likert scale as with the Sport England's survey (Taylor et al., 2003). It should be noted here, that Sport England's (2003) scale makes use of a hierarchical structure in



identifying the most common reasons of promoting club volunteering. However, the current study measured these by adopting a Likert scale for ease of interpretation and to be consistent with the other sub-scales used in each one of the questionnaires as well as for facilitating the regression analysis in satisfying the research aims and objectives. As the aim was to measure the importance of each of these statements in influencing individuals' decision to volunteer in rugby clubs, the scale used ranged from 1-not at all important to 5-very important. It was deemed appropriate to use a 5-point Likert scale in that case compared to the 7-point Likert Scales used for the event motivation statements in the other sub-scales of this survey, as the measurement of importance could not be described with 7 different elements, as it is the case with the level of agreement expressed in the other sub-scales of the current survey.

### **3. Motivation to Event Volunteer**

Another section of the questionnaire aimed to identify the importance of a series of statements in influencing the survey participants' decision to volunteer for the 2010 WRWC. For the analysis of event motivation a 38-item sub-scale was proposed. The motivation scale for this study was a modified version of Bang and Ross (2009) study, which was applied in the context of the of the 2004 Twin Cities Marathon. Bang and Ross (2009) have used in their study a modified version of the Volunteer Function Inventory for International Sporting Events (VFI-ISE) as proposed by Bang and Chelladurai (2003) in their study about the 2002 FIFA World Cup volunteers. Bang and Ross (2009) included in the original VMS-ISE which consists of six factors another set of motives that they deemed important in explaining the reasons that could force a person to volunteer for a sport event. This factor was the love of sport factor as Bang and Ross (2009) suggested that it could be a significant motivation among sport event volunteers. The current study proposed the inclusion of another set of motives that describe the leisure aspect of volunteering as suggested by Strigas and Jackson (2003). The leisure factor of sport event volunteering

was included in the present study as several authors suggest that volunteering is first and foremost a leisure activity (Beard & Raged, 1983; Henderson, 1989; Stebbins, 1996). Volunteering can be an example of gift-exchange behaviour as volunteers seek psychological gains in return for giving their time, efforts and labour (Green & Chalip, 1998). This particular behaviour matches the leisure behaviour and hence it was considered an important set of motives for assessing volunteers' motivations in the current study. Items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale indicating level of agreement ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The modified version of the VMS-ISE along with the inclusion of the leisure set of motives was chosen from the principal researcher for two reasons: First, because the statements included in the instrument were adequately describing most of the dimensions reviewed in the existing sport event volunteering literature. Second, because the VMS-ISE was identified as a valid and reliable instrument in its previous applications in other similar studies.

#### **4. Satisfaction with the Volunteering Experience prior to the Event**

The survey participants were also asked to assess the level of satisfaction with their volunteering experience if any in rugby prior to the event. For the analysis of satisfaction a 37-item sub-scale was developed. Nineteen items were adapted from Silverberg and Marshall (2001) scale who aimed to measure the level of job satisfaction for volunteers in public parks and recreation. Silverberg and Marshall's original scale consists of 23 items which sought to measure satisfaction with volunteering experiences by identifying six different dimensions of job satisfaction (contingent rewards, supervision, co-workers, operating conditions, nature of work, communication). All of the questions were rated on a seven point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), as with Silverberg and Marshall (2001) scale. The original satisfaction scale of Silverberg and Marshall (2001) comprised of items that alternate between positive and

negative wording related to volunteers' satisfaction. The items worded negatively were reversed during the analysis stage with SPSS, to avoid reporting incorrect data. This otherwise could pose a threat to the dimensionality of the items of the current scale, as for example when the mean scores of each factor were calculated to identify their relative importance on volunteers' reported satisfaction, negatively written items would contribute less to the overall mean score of the factor that comprised them, and this would reflect dissatisfaction, when it was meant to reflect satisfaction. Moreover, some items were removed from the original scale, as they were incompatible with the specific nature of sport clubs volunteering (such as questions related to supervision) or their wording was slightly modified in order to be suitable for use with the rugby volunteers' sample. For instance, the statement included in the original scale "*communications seem good within the department*" was changed to "*communications seem good within my club*". The rest of the items reflected the sport clubs' volunteering literature and the benefits associated with the sport volunteering experience, for example, satisfaction with the volunteer role and the contribution or satisfaction from helping the club to function, as identified in Sport England (2003).

## **5. Future Intentions**

The questionnaire also elicited the intentions of volunteers to continue volunteering in rugby clubs, to volunteer for further rugby events, and to volunteer for other sports events. Similar to the club questionnaire, a number of statements that were used to investigate volunteers' future behavioural intentions were adapted from Downward and Ralston (2006) research who sought to explore the sport development impacts of event volunteering with the XVII Manchester Commonwealth Games as a result of experiences at the event. However, some of the items that originally used in Downward and Ralston (2006) study were excluded as they were addressed to the specific research context of their study. Respondents once again were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement on a

seven-point Likert scale, as with satisfaction above, with 7 indicating strongly agree and 1 indicating strongly disagree.

## **6. Socio-Demographics**

Sport England's (2003) study was used as a framework for the adoption of the socio-demographic questions that were used in the event questionnaire. As previously noted, socio-demographic questions were positioned at the end of the questionnaire, for avoiding issues of this being considered as offence and after the sample could have an idea of what the survey aims to address.

### **3.8.3.3. Event Questionnaire (Post-Event)**

#### **1. Satisfaction with the Volunteering Experience at the event**

Volunteers involved in the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup were also asked to complete a 36 items scale that explored the factors that may have contributed to their satisfaction with their volunteering experience at the event. Responses to all questions were graded using a seven point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The satisfaction scale used in the current study was a modified version of Farrell et al., (1998) study on attributes of motivation and satisfaction of volunteers at an elite sport competition. Farrell et al. (1998) scale examines specific aspects of the event experience such as its facilities, organizational aspects, athletes' attitudes, training and support received for performing their volunteer duties, ceremonies and other events related to the tournament etc which are considered as important in determining the level of satisfaction of the volunteers' involved with the event experience. Moreover, several other items were adapted from Reeser, Berg, Rhea and Willick (2005) study who sought to explore

attributes of satisfaction with the experience among the Polyclinic volunteers involved at the 2002 Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games. Reeser et al. (2005) adapted Farrell et al. (1995) scale, slightly modified it and also included other items that thought to be relevant in assessing the experience of volunteers at the event.

## **2. Future Intentions**

As with the other two questionnaires, the statements that were used in the follow-up questionnaire to investigate volunteers' future intentions were adapted from Downward and Ralston (2006) and were slightly modified to reflect the scope of the current research project. Downward and Ralston (2006) sought to explore the future intentions of 2002 Manchester Commonwealth Games volunteers as a result of their experiences at the event.

### 3.9. Judging the Quality of Research Designs

Any empirical social research study, such as the current case study is criticised in accordance to its quality. The quality of a study is assessed on the basis it satisfies certain criteria. These criteria include: construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability. Validity refers to the ability of a research instrument to measure what is designed to measure (Atkinson et al., 2000). Construct validity refers to the extent the concepts being studied are being described and identified with the correct operational measures. According to Yin (2009) construct validity is achieved when a chain of evidence is followed (e.g. establish links between the theoretical framework, hypothesis formation, data collection, data analysis and conclusions made). Moreover, construct validity is achieved when triangulation of evidence is used. This was achieved in the current study, as multiple sources of evidence were used such as a combination of questionnaires and secondary data collection sources. Moreover, the survey instruments were drawn upon scales and variables identified in the literature and were based on other valid instruments applied in similar volunteering contexts. Internal validity is suggested to be applicable only in explanatory or causal studies rather than descriptive or exploratory studies and reflects the seeking to form causal relationships between the phenomena being studied, whereas an event is believed to lead in other occurring events (Yin, 2009). External validity refers to whether the results are applicable to different situations and whether a generalization of the findings can be achieved beyond the case study (Veal, 2006). Issues of external validity and how this was addressed in the current study will be covered in the results section in Chapters 5 and 6 of the thesis. Reliability describes the extent to which a research project can produce the same results if its operations (such as data collection methods) would have to be repeated in a different time frame and with different participants (Veal, 2006). There are three potential threats to a study's reliability which include:

- **The Subject Error:** It refers to the error and the bias added to the responses when the participants respond differently at different times. This error was eliminated at the current study as its purpose was not to

compare participants' views through test-retest research methods and the sampling methods used were consistent across the three different surveys.

- **Subject Bias:** It refers to the reliability threat that occurs when participants suspect what the researcher wants to “hear” and base their answers on what they feel it is correct to say. This threat was reduced by not disclosing to the participants any information on what the research aims and objectives are rather than some general information about the project and by reminding to them that there are no “right” or “wrong” answers. Moreover, the purpose of the survey and other relevant information was disclosed at the beginning of each survey and hence no further information was provided in different sections.
- **The Researcher Error:** Different research approaches may lead to different responses. The current study followed a consistent method in designing the surveys and in selecting the questions included in each one of the surveys. Moreover, as mentioned earlier, the surveys were screened prior to implementation from experts on the field. These included the East Midlands Development Manager, the Volunteer Resources Officer, and the RFU Volunteer Resources Director. Despite the difficulties in the recruitment of the sample participants, a consistency was expressed in identifying the sample through contacting official club authorities or with the help of the RFUW Volunteer Resources Officer. Therefore, potential threats to reliability from the researcher's standpoint were eliminated.

### **3.10. Ethical Considerations**

Ethical issues should be taken into account when conducting a research project especially when human subjects are involved (Veal, 2006). Ethical issues may arise both during the design and during the implementation phase of the research project as well as during the presentation of the results (Veal, 2006).

Deception is one of the main issues that a research project should avoid (Gratton & Jones, 2004). It is also ethically appropriate to ensure confidentiality and anonymity when undertaking a research project (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Therefore, this research project ensured that the participants were not harmed in any way. It was clearly stated to all participants that their involvement in the study was voluntary and that their personal information would remain confidential. No incentives or other rewards were utilised and no questions required the participants to disclose their names or other confidential information apart from their email address in the pre-event survey and in order to facilitate the research's objectives. However, only the principal researcher had access to these contact details and it was ensured that they remained confidential throughout the data collection and analysis process. It is interesting also to note that the participants of the study were all adults.

### **3.11. The Evaluation Process**

After completing the data collection phase, in dealing with the data of this study, the analysis was conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 18) and STATA 12. The SPSS software manages a large deal of information that originates from surveys which is inserted at the computer in a quantifiable format. A series of descriptive statistics and factor analytic techniques could be obtained. Multiple regression analysis then took place through the use of STATA. Details of these methods and their justification are discussed in more detail in the following chapter



### **3.12. Conclusion**

This chapter has presented and discussed in detail the ontological and epistemological stance adopted, the methodological underpinnings and the research strategy followed to satisfy the research objectives. It was justified that a Critical Rationalist philosophical approach fitting with the ontology of cautious realist and the epistemology of falsificationism would be more relevant to satisfy a deductivist research strategy of testing existing theories against reality through a process of conjecture and refutation. A case study method of data collection was used as the hypotheses formed were tested against reality at a specific volunteering context that is the individuals volunteering for Women's rugby in England both in the rugby clubs and the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup contexts. Original quantitative data collection occurred through the development of a series of self-completion questionnaires that were distributed online to the participants of the study. Participants were recruited on the basis they satisfied certain criteria, with the main one being their formal involvement with volunteering in women's rugby in both contexts, as described before. Therefore, in both contexts likely future volunteering activity in different contexts was sought to be explored in order to identify the impacts that initial experience has in recruiting and developing volunteering in other contexts. Likewise validated dimensions of motivation, experiences, socio-demographics and satisfaction were used as a model to inform the questionnaire research. The analysis of the data is addressed and presented in subsequent chapters.

# Chapter Four

## Techniques of Analysis

### 4.1. Introduction

In the previous chapter, it was made clear that in order to satisfy the aim and objectives of the current study certain techniques of analysis should be applied to the data. This chapter provides an overview of the statistical concepts used in the current thesis. It covers a range of analytic techniques that were applied to the data. Section 4.2 outlines the main features of descriptive statistics such as frequency distributions, cross-tabulations, the mode, the median, minimum, maximum, lower and upper quartile values. Section 4.3 then follows and deals with hypotheses formation and testing. Section 4.4 covers effect sizes and statistical power of a test. The chapter proceeds with section 4.5 which outlines the main features of inferential statistics such as the exploratory factor analysis, and multiple regression analyses. Lastly, section 4.6 concludes the chapter and summarizes which techniques of analysis were adapted for the analysis of the data and in order for meeting this thesis' aim and objectives. Descriptive statistics help the researcher to acquire a general picture of their data while inferential statistics infer relationships or differences between the variables in a study (Gratton & Jones, 2010). It should be noted here that quantitative research involves different types of data manipulation. These include descriptive analysis, experimental or inferential research and research synthesis which reflects a combination of techniques (Thomas & Nelson, 1996). Each technique is discussed and explained in detail, noting their use in conducting research in order to assist the readers with the subsequent chapters of the thesis that deal with the analysis of the data collected. Moreover, it could be used as a framework for other PhD researchers and scholars in the field when considering different research techniques for their data analysis and manipulation.

## 4.2. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics such as averages and frequencies are mainly used to describe and summarize individual samples, or for comparing samples. It should be noted here that different descriptive statistics are of use depending on the measurement of a variable (Field, 2005; O'Donoghue, 2012).

There are four different types of measurement of a variable. These are the nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio scales. Nominal and ordinal scale variables are both categorical. Nominal scale variables represent named values which are not ordered naturally such as male or female while ordinal variables are ordered hierarchically. An example of an ordinal scale is to determine the importance of children involvement with rugby as a reason to volunteer for a rugby club. This variable can be measured with the following hierarchical values: *“very important”*, *“important”*, *“neutral”*, *“unimportant”* or *“not at all important”*. Therefore, comparisons can be applied to ordinal variables to assess their level of significance in terms of a hierarchy (Field, 2005; O'Donoghue, 2012). Interval and ratio variables are numerical variables which are used to measure quantifiable terms such as time commitments to volunteering, number of years involved in club volunteering etc. Interval variables in particular are used to measure fixed points or intervals on the measurement scale that have a fixed distance between each other. An example of this is four years of a volunteers' commitment to a rugby club is not only greater than another individual's two years of commitment to their respective rugby club but exactly two points greater than two. Therefore, interval variables apart from allowing comparisons of their values, also allow the subtraction of the exact value of their difference. Comparison across scales is constant only for ratios of the differences in values. This is because each scale has an arbitrary zero-point. Ratio variables, in contrast carry the same zero-point. Therefore, even though they are similar to interval scale variables in the sense that they allow subtractions, they differ in their ability to allow divisions between the concepts being measured. For example, in the case of measuring volunteers' time commitments a volunteer who commits to volunteering 8 hours per week has a four times greater time commitment than

someone who volunteers only for 2 hours per week. In that case, 0 represents no time commitment to volunteering. Interval and ratio scale variables can be either discrete or continuous (Field, 2005; O'Donoghue, 2012). Continuous variables make use of real numbers while discrete variables make use of either integer or cardinal numbers. Discrete interval scale variables are integer values while discrete ratio scale values are cardinal numerical values (Field, 2005; O'Donoghue, 2012).

With regard to nominal variables three main types of descriptive statistics are used to summarize them which include: First, frequency distributions, which allow the expression of the number of participants in each category either as a numerical representation or as a percentage of cases. For example, the number of female participants as opposed to male participants can be expressed with the use of frequency distributions. Second, with cross-tabulations of frequencies, which allow comparisons between the frequencies of two or more different nominal variables. For instance, a researcher apart from identifying the gender of the participants may be interested in identifying which gender is more likely to participate in a certain sport and this can be explored with cross-tabulations. Finally, the mode expresses the value that is found to be the most common among all the categories. For instance, when male participants are more prevalent in a study then the modal gender will be male (Field, 2005; O'Donoghue, 2012). Ordinal variables, similar to nominal variables can be also described by using frequencies distributions, cross-tabulations or the mode, as they are discrete and consist of a finite number of values. However, ordinal variables can be also described with other descriptive statistics such as the median, minimum, maximum, lower and upper quartile values. The median value represents the value in the middle of an ordinal scale when this is reported in an ascending order. However, in the case of a scale having an even number of cases, then there will be two values in the middle. If these values are represented by the same number, then this is the median. If however, these values are not the same, then the median lies between these two values, as for ordinal scales the mean is not an accurate representation of the average, as it assumes an interval between different points on the measurement scale which does not exist in ordinal scales.

For example, in the case of an ordinal variable that is measured with five possible values such as “*not at all important*”, “*unimportant*”, “*neutral*”, “*important*” and “*very important*”, the median would lie between “*neutral*” and “*important*” which both represent different values and hence the mean could not be determined (Field, 2005; O’Donoghue, 2012). In contrast, whilst interval and ratio variables can be recoded to ordinal and nominal scales, they can also be summarized using measures of location along with measures of dispersion. When the values of a scale are symmetrically distributed, then a normal distribution is measured and the mean is the most appropriate measure of location of all scores, as it summarizes all the values of the scale which are evenly distributed below and above the mean. When the values are shown to be clustered at one end of the scale, this then means that they are asymmetrically distributed. This tendency is described as skewness and the median is more relevant to identify the location of skewed values<sup>5</sup> (Field, 2005; O’Donoghue, 2012).

Dispersion can be measured with the use of variance, standard deviation, range and inter-quartile range. Dispersion in interval and ratio scale variables is measured with standard deviation, which is calculated using all the variables in the scale. The standard deviation, or square root of the variance, captures the square root of the average squared deviation of data values around the mean. It indicates how well the mean represents our data. When small values of the standard deviation relative to the mean value are observed, this then reflects that all data points are close to the mean or the central tendency of a dataset. When a relatively large standard deviation value is observed in comparison to the mean value, this then suggests that the mean is not an accurate representation of the data, as most data points are distant from the mean value. In contrast, standard deviation with a zero value means that all the points on a dataset are the same (Field, 2005).

For skewed variables, dispersion can be measured with the inter-quartile range, which reflects the difference between the lower and upper quartile values and

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<sup>5</sup> When using non-normally distributed variables in tests, the central limit theorem can justify the use of the normal distribution and its derivatives for sample moments of variables.

hence the variability of the sample. The range reflects the largest and smallest values in a sample is not the preferred method for interval and ratio scale variables as it can be considerably influenced by the minimum and maximum values of the data, or outliers, resulting in a failure to include most of the values in a sample. In contrast, the inter-quartile range takes into account the location of the upper and lower variables within the scale and their relation to all the other variables. Therefore, these values are evenly located within the scale (Field, 2005; O'Donoghue, 2012).

### **4.2.1. Relevant Distributions**

Frequency distributions, as noted above, indicate the number of cases which occur more often in each category measured. They are a measure of probability indicating how likely a particular score is to occur in data. As a result they provide the foundation of statistical testing. For nominal and ordinal variables the  $\chi^2$  test is typically used. This is based on a comparison of observed to expected frequencies for discretely occurring values. For interval and ratio scales, which approximate or reflect continuous sets of values, inference can be based on mean and variances and, consequently, the normal distribution and the t and F distributions are used.

The standard normal distribution provides the foundation of most of this inference as probabilities for values of this distribution are identified. Consequently by subtracting the mean of the variable and dividing it by the standard deviation, a particular normal distribution is transformed into the standard normal distribution as a z-score (Field, 2005; O'Donoghue, 2012). The values of the mean and standard deviation in a standard normal distribution are 0 and 1 respectively, with zero representing the central point of a dataset. Therefore, the standard normal distribution along with the z-scores is a useful tool in calculating the likelihood particular scores will occur. Certain z-scores are of particular importance as their values cut off important values in the distribution. For instance, the z value of 1.96 is important as it cuts off the top 2.5% of a distribution while it's opposite end (-1.96) cuts off the bottom 2.5% of a distribution. Consequently, these values taken together account for 5% of the

cut-off point of all scores, or in other words, 95% of all scores are located within the boundaries set by the values of -1.96 and 1.96. Similarly, the values of +/- 2.58 and +/- 3.29 are also important as they represent the cut off points for 1% and 0.1% of the z-scores respectively. In other words, 99% of z-scores are located within -2.58 and 2.58 while 99.9% of z-scores are between the values of -3.29 and 3.29 respectively (Field, 2005; O'Donoghue, 2012).

The t-distribution is often used for testing, with smaller samples and when the population mean is unknown and estimated. The probability values just described then become contingent of degrees of freedom as the mean is estimated from the sample. In large samples it approximates the normal distribution. An important feature of these distributions is that they can also apply to the distribution of sample means that could follow from repeated sampling. This is because of the Central Limit (O'Donoghue, 2012). This suggests that sample means can form the basis of tests about average behaviour. The F-Distribution is also a useful distribution as it can be used to compare variances (O'Donoghue, 2012). As show below in the discussion of regression analysis both of these distributions are important (Field, 2005; O'Donoghue, 2012). This is because the average effects of variables upon one another can be examined, as well as the extent to which they are related, that is share variation.

#### **4.2.2. Dependent and Independent Variables**

Apart from a consideration of the measurement of variables, their role in a study also needs to be taken into account. Consequently, variables can further be distinguished as dependent and independent according to the purpose being used for in a study (Fallowfield et al., 2005; Vincent, 1999). Dependent variables are those that are measured as a representation of changes in behaviour that is to be understood. Independent variables are the variables that are assumed to bring about those changes. In the current study, and reflecting the research questions, the dependent variables are the future intentions of the volunteer sample to further volunteer for another rugby or sport event or for a rugby club and the independent variables are the motivation, satisfaction, socio-demographics and sport or volunteering experiences variables.

### 4.3. Testing Hypotheses

As noted in chapter 3, a topic of interest is tested in quantitative research through the formulation of research questions, selection of variables and testing certain hypotheses (O' Donoghue, 2010). Hypotheses, actually represent research questions that are tested statistically, that is whether some kind of effect exists in our sample after applying a statistical model to the data collected and assess whether the result confirm these initial predictions (Field, 2005). Therefore, hypotheses stand for the anticipated outcome of a precise research question and for testing whether a statement is valid or not (O' Donoghue, 2012).

In the current context, the research questions, and understanding the dependent and independent variables suggests that tests will be undertaken to assess whether future volunteering behaviour in the rugby clubs or rugby events and sport events contexts is determined to an extent by volunteers' socio-demographic characteristics, motivations to volunteer, current and past engagement to sport and volunteering as well as satisfaction with such volunteering experiences. The same model will be applied to the data collected in order to assess whether these determinants of future volunteering behaviour also promote in an extent the transfer of volunteer effort across other contexts and activities.

As Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch (1997) suggest hypothesis testing follows five steps: First, to formulate the hypotheses of a study, second, to specify the level of significance for the test to be valid, that is the p level of significance, third, to select the statistical test to use to be fitted to the data, fourth, to decide the region of the test statistic value that allows the rejection of the null hypothesis and lastly, to decide which hypothesis to accept or reject based on the value of the test statistic (O' Donoghue, 2012).

There are two types of research hypotheses. These include the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) and the alternative hypothesis ( $H_A$ ). The null hypothesis represents an absence of relationships, differences or correlations between the concepts being



measured or compared. In contrast, the alternative hypothesis reflects a relationship or difference between the variables being compared. A research study can only satisfy one of the two statements, either the null or the alternative hypothesis or hypotheses, as these two are mutually exclusive (O' Donoghue, 2012). The alternative hypothesis can take different forms in order to describe all the possible outcomes of a research question. This characteristic can be described as the hypothesis being one tailed or two tailed, as the possible outcome of the research question is in a particular direction (Anderson et al., 1994). For instance, in one-tailed hypotheses, in the current project, the null hypothesis can be expressed as: "volunteers' motivations, socio-demographics, sport and volunteering engagement and satisfaction suggest no significant difference in their stated intentions to volunteer for a future rugby, sport event or a rugby club as well as on promoting the transfer of effort across contexts". In contrast, the alternative hypothesis is formed as being in two possible directions. First,  $H_{A1}$ : Satisfaction with the volunteering experience contributes significantly to the volunteers' stated intentions to volunteer for a rugby event, sport event or rugby club comparing to motivations, socio-demographics and sport engagement which do not contribute significantly to the prediction of volunteers' future behaviour. The second alternative hypothesis is:  $H_{A2}$ : Previous sport and volunteering engagement contributes significantly to the volunteers' stated intentions to volunteer for a rugby event, sport event or rugby club comparing to volunteer motivations, socio-demographics and satisfaction with the volunteering experience which do not contribute significantly to the prediction of volunteers' future behaviour. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis is formed as being in a direction that favours a significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables as opposed to a non-significant relationship.

Two-tailed hypotheses are those that do not specify the direction of the relationship. Using the previous example, the null hypothesis is formed as above claiming no significant difference after applying the effects of the independent variables on volunteers' future intentions while the alternative hypothesis states that there is a significant difference on volunteers' future intentions but the

independent variable that has the greatest effect on the dependent is not specified. It is interesting to note here, that one tailed hypotheses should be used when there is theoretical evidence from previous studies that any difference between the samples being tested is assumed in a particular direction otherwise it is not recommended (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 1998; O' Donoghue, 2012). In practice, moreover, in many regression studies it is routine simply to report two-tailed p values.

As Fisher (1925) suggests the criterion for accepting that variation in the data as represented by a model is true by being confident that there is a 95% possibility of this result being genuine. To establish whether the variation in our data is systematic, that is the variation explained by the model fitted to the data and not unsystematic, that is due to natural differences between the sample (such as differences in certain characteristics within subjects) we calculate the test statistic. The test statistic, which in specific contexts draws upon a particular distribution, has known properties, such as the frequency of certain values occurring and as such the probability of a certain value occurring can be calculated through various techniques. The test statistic is then typically calculated by dividing the variation between observed and hypothesized values as indicated by the model, by some other measure of variation of such as that not explained by the model, or variation in the sample values (Field, 2005). This is illustrated in the equation 4.1. as presented below.

$$(4.1) \text{ Test statistic} = \frac{\text{Variance explained by the model}}{\text{Variance not explained by the model}}$$

In general, the more variation in the data between the sample and hypothesised values of a variable, the higher the value of the test statistic and hence the higher the likelihood that this result did not occur by chance. When the test is large enough to assume that the variation in the data is due to the effect of the model being applied, in order to estimate the sample effect, then the probability of this happening by chance falls. Typically a significance level of 0.05 (Fisher's criterion) is employed, as indicated above. A relationship that satisfies Fisher's

criterion is often described as being statistically significant. In other words, this allows us to reject the null hypothesis, subject to a 5% of error.

The significance level is thus a representation of the chance of a Type I error occurring when the null hypothesis is true but we reject it assuming that there is a genuine effect in the population (Field, 2005). In contrast, Type II error occurs when it is concluded that there is no effect in the population when in fact there is. This potentially occurs when we obtain small test statistics (Field, 2005). Cohen (1992) suggests that the probability of committing a Type II error should be very small and recommends a value of .02 or 20%. This value is known as the  $\beta$ -level. When the probability of committing Type I error (e.g. make the significance  $\alpha$  level smaller) is reduced, then the probability of committing a Type II error is increased. This is due to decreasing the level at which an effect is potentially observed. Therefore, it is up to the researcher to decide whichever level of significance to accept in order to avoid Type II error which is more serious than Type I error (Howell, 2002; Field, 2005). In the current research focus is upon avoiding Type I errors of a standard size such as the 1%, 5% and 10% levels of significance.

#### **4.4. Effect Size and Statistical Power of a Test**

The previous section has covered how to determine whether there is an effect in the population by determining the significance level of the relationships between the variables of the study. However, apart from determining the existence of an effect, it is also important to assess whether this effect is meaningful enough. Therefore, the size of an observed effect needs to be measured in a standardised way (Field, 2005). This means that the effect size can be measured across different studies in a similar way, despite differences in variables, measures or other properties of the study. The size of an effect reflects the meaningfulness of a difference or the percentage of the variance observed in the dependent variable that is explained by the effects of the model (Murphy et al., 1999; O' Donoghue, 2012). The F-Statistic, Cohen's (d), Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) and standardised normal or t-statistics give an indication of effect sizes (Field, 2005; Murphy et al., 2009). Pearson's r coefficient in particular deals with the strength of the relationship between variables and lies between -1 and 1 with -1 and 1 representing a perfect negative and positive correlation respectively while 0 represents an absence of effect (Field, 2005). The effect size in a given sample is used as a measure of the likely effect size in the population, as normally researchers do not have access to the entire population (Field, 2005).

Statistical power represents the likelihood of a test rejecting the null hypothesis when this is actually not true. In other words, the statistical power of a test is its ability to detect a statistically significant effect in the population when this actually exists, which proves that there is a relationship between the variables of a given study (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 1998; O' Donoghue, 2012). As noted in the previous section, this contradicts the Type II error idea which represents the probability of not detecting an effect when such effect actually exists. Consequently, this is represented as being  $1-\beta$ . As Cohen (1992) recommended a value of 0.2 for  $\beta$  or a Type II error, then according to this value the corresponding power of a test value should be equal to  $1-0.2$  or 0.8. In other words, the power of a test should be at least 0.8 or representing an 80% chance of estimating a genuine effect (Field, 2005). Consequently, the effect size in the

population, the sample size, the probability (the  $\alpha$ -level) level accepted for the effect to be considered as significant and the statistical power of a test (its ability to detect a statistically significant effect when it genuinely exists) are related (Field, 2005; O' Donoghue, 2012). Therefore, the power of a test can be calculated as long as the  $\alpha$ -level is selected, the sample size is known and the effect size is estimated based on the sample size. If the power of this test ( $\beta$ ) is .8 or more, then the test has achieved enough power to detect any existing effects. If the value of  $\beta$  is less than .8 then the test needs to be replicated in order to increase the power of the study (Field, 2005). There are two ways of increasing the power of a test. The first one is by altering the significance levels such as by increasing the  $\alpha$  level from 0.05 to 0.01. This would result to reducing the value of  $\beta$  and increasing the value of  $1-\beta$ . The second method to achieve a desired level of power is to include more participants in the study. Cohen (1992) has proposed some guidelines as a framework for achieving a certain power level based on the number of participants used in a study. He recommended that for achieving the desired power level of .8, for a 0.05 level of significance, then 783 participants are needed for a small effect size ( $r=.1$ ), 85 participants are required for a medium effect size ( $r=.3$ ) and 28 participants for a large effect size ( $r=.5$ ) (Field, 2005).

## **4.5. Data Analysis Methods**

This section provides an overview and justification of the inferential statistical techniques that were used in the current research project, for the processing and analysis of the data.

### **4.5.1. Factor Analysis**

Factor analysis is a method that aims to reduce and to summarize data in less dimensions than it was originally measured. This means that factor analysis enable the researchers to identify less underlying dimensions (factors or latent variables) from an initially larger number of variables (e.g. questionnaire responses). The original or observed variables in factor analysis are considered as dependent variables of some latent, underlying or hypothetical set of dimensions (factors). Moreover, factor analysis can be used as a precursor to the use of other analytic techniques such as regression, correlation or discriminant analysis, through the identification of appropriate variables. Through the reduction of an interrelated group of variables to a smaller set of factors, factor analysis explains the maximum amount of common variance in a correlation matrix using the least available explanatory means (Field, 2005). The term “correlation matrix” refers to a table showing the inter-correlations among all variables (Hair et al., 1998). There are two main factor analytic approaches; exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Selection of the appropriate factor analytic method depends upon the researchers’ objectives. EFA is used when the aim is to explore a data set and to identify hidden dimensions and their interrelationship and correlation structure with the observed variables (Tucker & MacCallum, 1997). EFA is normally used at the initial steps of analysis, as there is no information about the latent variables. At the EFA, there is no specific hypothesis that needs to be tested, as the objective is to identify factors or dimensions not easily recognized. On the contrary, CFA intends to test specific hypotheses or assumptions about to confirm the interrelationships between the latent and the observed variables. This information is based on initial conclusions of EFA (Hair et al., 1998).

As the current study, aimed to explore a unique data set such as the volunteers involved in women's rugby and identifying underlying dimensions of their experiences through assessing their motivation and satisfaction, an EFA approach was adopted. In situations, where the research lacks of strong theoretical or empirical basis for the support of strong assumptions pertaining to the number of common factors and the variables that these factors are consisted of, EFA is a more relevant approach than CFA (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Strahan, 1999). The current study sought to test certain hypotheses such as whether aspects of the volunteering experience determine future volunteering behavior in similar or different contexts by exploring a unique volunteer dataset. Therefore, the data-driven approach of EFA is more relevant in this context, as CFA is likely to be more relevant when a specific model is already in place and needs to be justified (Fabrigar et al, 1999; Field, 2005).

#### **4.5.1.1. Performing an EFA**

As far as applying EFA is concerned, a researcher needs to make some important decisions. First, the sample size and the number of the variables that are included in the study is an important consideration. Second, the researcher needs to determine whether EFA is the most appropriate statistical method to use, given the nature of the research problem. Third, assuming that EFA is the most appropriate method to use, the researcher needs to select a method to fit the model to the data. Fourth, the number of factors that should be included in the model needs to be decided. Lastly, a rotation method of the initial factor analytic procedure is usually appropriate to conduct, as the factors are more easily interpreted (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Strahan, 1999). These decisions affect the nature of the results obtained and are now discussed in turn.

#### **4.5.1.2. Sample Size and number of variables**

At this stage, the researcher needs to take into account which variables as well as the number of variables that should be included at the analysis. Moreover, an important consideration for the analyst is how the variables will be measured and whether the sample is large enough to run the analysis. Any variable relevant to the research problem can be included in the analysis as long as it is appropriately measured. In this case, interval and ratio variables are considered relevant for conducting EFA. With respect to the sample size, the general guidelines suggest that 100 or more observations are appropriate for factor analysis while samples of 50 or fewer observations should not be factor analyzed. Generally speaking, there should be an available ratio of 2:1 of observations to variables for the use of factor analysis. Therefore, in cases of smaller sample sizes or lower ratio of observations to variables, the results should be interpreted cautiously (Hair et al, 1990).

#### **4.5.1.3. Choosing a Method**

There are numerous available options for deciding the general factor model. The most widely used approaches are principal components analysis and common factor analysis. Choosing the appropriate factor model depends upon the research's objectives. Both principal component analysis and factor analysis are data reduction techniques that summarize the original information and produce a smaller set of factors within the data to represent different underlying dimensions (O' Donoghue, 2012). Principal components analysis is used when the primary objective is to summarize the original information provided to a minimum number of factors while achieving the maximum proportion of variance in the data. Each new component produced is a function of the original variables. This function is described as eigenvector (O' Donoghue, 2012, p. 326). Principal components analysis is also used when the original variables are correlated to some extent (Manly, 2005). On the contrary, common factor analysis identifies underlying dimensions or factors not easily recognized (Hair et al., 1990).



Principal components analysis is also distinguished from common factor analysis in the communalities estimates that are used (Field, 2005). The term communality describes the proportion of common variance in a given variable. Common variance is the total variance of a variable that is shared with all the other variables. Consequently, a variable that does not share any of its variance with all the other variables will have a communality of 0 while if this variance is shared the variable will have a communality of 1 (Field, 2005). Factor analysis mainly deals with identifying this common variance shared between variables by excluding the specific and error variance when extracting factors (Hair et al., 1990). In contrast, principal components analysis assumes that the total variance is common variance and hence the communality of each variable is 1. To achieve this, principal component analysis transposes the original data into a set of linear components and hence it identifies to what extent each variable contributes to a component (Dunteman, 1989). For that reason, PCA was chosen as a method of factor extraction in the current thesis.

#### **4.5.1.4. Establishing the number of factors**

There are two main approaches to deciding the number of factors to extract when conducting an EFA. First, the appropriate number of factors can be achieved by examining the eigenvalues and second by examining the scree plot diagram. The eigenvalues are the sum of squares for a factor and represent the amount of variance accounted for by a factor (Hair et al., 1990). The best procedure to examine the eigenvalues is the Kaiser criterion of sampling adequacy, which suggests that eigenvalues should be greater than 1. This criterion simply suggests that since the eigenvalues represent the amount of variation that is explained by a factor, then an eigenvalue of 1 represents a significant amount of variance, which is equivalent to at least a variable (Field, 2005). Therefore, it seems rational to keep factors with large eigenvalues (Field, 2005). However, as Joliffe (1972, 1986) suggests, Kaiser's criterion is too strict and proposes the retention of all factors with eigenvalues greater than .7 instead. Therefore, the challenge for the researchers is to decide whether an eigenvalue is large enough to represent a meaningful factor. To overcome this problem, another approach was developed by Cattell (1966). Cattell (1966) proposed to

plot a graph of each eigenvalue (Y-axis) against the factor which it represents (X-axis). This graph is known as scree plot (see figure 1). While this study mainly used the eigenvalues criterion for factor extraction, scree plots were consulted in several occasions, as for variables that were equal to 1 or slightly greater the scree plot can give an accurate representation of whether a factor is meaningful enough to explain the variations in the variables.

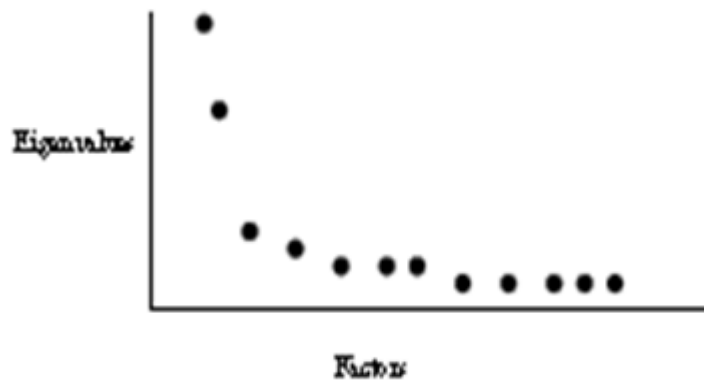


Figure 4.1: Example of a Scree Plot Diagram

#### 4.5.1.5 Factor Rotation

Generally, after factor extraction most variables tend to have high loadings as well as the largest amount of variance on the most important factor and small loadings on the remaining factors. This makes the interpretation of the results difficult. To overcome this problem, a technique was introduced which makes factor discrimination more obvious. This technique is called factor rotation (Field, 2005). The ultimate goal of factor rotation is to redistribute the variance equally between factors in order to achieve a more meaningful and simpler factor solution (Hair et al., 1990).

Factor rotation implies that the reference axes of the factors are rotated in order for the variables to load highly to only one factor. This implies that the eigenvalue of the primary principal component is reduced while the eigenvalues of the remaining components are increased. While rotating the extracted principal components, a higher correlation with the variable used to interpret them is achieved and at the same time they are as independent of each other as

possible (uncorrelated) (O' Donoghue, 2012). By maximizing high loadings and minimizing low loadings on factors, a simple structure in results is achieved (Field, 2005). There are two different ways of rotating factors: orthogonal and oblique solutions. In orthogonal solutions, the factor axes are maintained at 90 degrees, which means that each factor is independent of all other factors and their correlation is zero. Orthogonal rotation ensures that the factors remain uncorrelated after applying the rotation (Field, 2005). In contrast, factors extracted using oblique solutions are correlated, as it is assumed that the original variables are also correlated to some extent. If the researchers' goal is to reduce a large number of variables to a more manageable set of uncorrelated variables, which can then be used to subsequent regression or other analysis, then orthogonal extraction solution is more appropriate. However, if factor analysis aims to prove that the variables are correlated, then an oblique solution is more appropriate (Hair et al., 1990).

Orthogonal rotation can be undertaken according to a number of methods such as varimax, quartimax and equamax while oblique rotation by oblimin and promax. The varimax rotation is preferred when the components are assumed to be independent between each other (O' Donoghue, 2012). This rotation tends to maximize the dispersion of factor loadings within factors. This means that Varimax rotation achieves more interpretable results, as it achieves fewer variables to load highly in only one factor. On the other hand, Quartimax rotation focuses on rotating the initial factor in such a way to maximize the loadings of variables in one factor. Equimax rotation is a combination of both Quartimax and Varimax rotation. With regard to oblique types of rotation, oblimin rotation allows factor correlations determined by the value of a constant called delta. If the value of delta is zero then high correlation of the factors is not allowed. If the delta value is greater than zero (up to .8) then the factors are highly correlated whilst delta values of lower than zero (down to -.8), factors are less correlated. Overall, choosing between orthogonal or oblique rotation depends on whether the researcher believes that the underlying factors are related in any way or not (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 1998; O' Donoghue, 2012). To meet the aims and objectives of the current study, Varimax orthogonal rotation was adopted as it

was assumed that the underlying factors are independent of each other and non-related.

#### **4.5.1.6. Significance of the Factor Loadings**

Apart from selecting the factor model, the researchers should also specify how the factors are to be extracted. This is determined by assessing the factor loadings. The term “factor loading” represents the correlations between the original variables and the factors. Squared factor loadings indicate the amount of variance a variable contributes to each factor which is indicative of its substantive importance to the factor it contributes (Hair et al., 1990). Once the factor structure has been decided, the next step is the interpretation of the results or in other words to decide which variables represent each factor. There are some criteria for interpreting the factors: First, the variables that load on a factor need to be interpretable and share some conceptual meaning. Second, at least 3 items should load on a factor with significant loadings ( $>0.30$ ). Third, an item does not load significantly ( $>0.45$ ) in more than one factor. Fourth, the items that load on different factors are clearly measuring different constructs.

Therefore, the main criterion for placing variables in factors is by assessing the factor loadings of each variable (Field, 2005). In general, researchers accept a loading value of more than .3 as important. However, as Stevens (1992) recommends the significance of a factor loading depends primarily on the sample size which subsequently affects the reliability of the factor analysis. He further recommends that “*for a sample size of 50 a loading of .722 can be considered significant, for 100 the loading should be greater than .512, for 200 it should be greater than .364, for 300 it should be greater than .298, for 600 it should be greater than .210 and for 1000 it should be greater than .162*” (Stevens, 1992, pp.382-384 cited in Field, 2005 p. 637). Several other authors have concluded that the sample size and the significance of the factor loading contribute to a stable factor solution. For instance, Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988) concluded that if a factor has four or more loadings greater than .40 then is considered as reliable despite small sample size. Further, they suggested that when the sample size is equal or greater than 150 participants, then factors with 10 or more

loadings greater than .40 are reliable (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang and Hong (1999) concluded that the minimum sample size for conducting factor analysis depends on the values of the communalities. When all communalities are above .6, then even small samples (less than 100 participants) are adequate. For communalities between .5 and .6, then samples of around 100 to 200 participants are adequate. However, when the communalities are low enough (<.5) and the solution produces a large number of underlying factors, then a sample above 500 participants is recommended (MacCallum, et al., 1999). Another alternative technique to determine whether the factor solution is reliable is the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) (Kaiser, 1970). *“The KMO can be calculated for individual and multiple variables and represents the ratio of the squared correlation between variables to the squared partial correlation between variables”* (Field, 2005, p. 640). The KMO statistic takes values that range from 0 to 1. A value of 0 indicates that factor analysis is not appropriate, as it is assumed that the correlations pattern is not compact enough to yield distinct factors. In contrast, a value close to 1 indicates opposite results and hence factor analysis is appropriate for summarizing the original variables (Field, 2005). Kaiser (1974 cited in Field, 2005, p. 640) further recommends that KMO values greater than .5 are *“barely”* acceptable, values between .5 and .7 are *“mediocre”*, values between .7 and .8 are *“good”*, values between .8 and .9 are ‘great’ and values above .9 are *“superb”*.

Other general guidelines include that, the larger the sample’s size the smaller the factor’s loading that is to be considered as significant. Moreover, the larger the size of the factor loading, the more significant the factor loading is considered. Another rule suggests that the larger the number of variables being analysed, the smaller the loading to be considered significant. Lastly, the larger the number of factors, the larger the size of the loading on later factors to be considered significant for interpretation (Hair et al., 1990). However, the significance of a loading gives little insight into the extent that a variable contributes to a factor. To overcome such problem, researchers should aim to interpret the squared factor loadings, which similar to  $R^2$  provide an estimate of the amount of the variance in a factor explained by a particular variable. Therefore, as Stevens

(1992) recommends only factor loadings with values of .4 or greater should be interpreted as they represent approximately 16% of the variance in the variable.

#### **4.5.1.7. The Use of Factor Scores**

Factor scores are useful for further analysis such as regression analysis. Factor scores are linear combinations of all of the variables that were important in making the factor, weighted by the corresponding factor loading and they represent the newly derived variables when used in subsequent analysis. A second use of factor scores is to overcome problems of multicollinearity in regression analysis. This will be covered in depth in subsequent sections but in short, if our original variables have been identified as multicollinear after using them in a multiple regression analysis, then EFA assists with reducing the dataset in a number of uncorrelated factors. These new derived factor scores can then be used as predictor variables in a newly run regression analysis and the problem of multicollinearity is solved as these predictor scores are uncorrelated (Field, 2005). In most instances, factor scores are idealized, which means that positive loadings are being described with a value of 1, intermediate loadings are described with a value of 0, while strongly negative loadings are assigned to -1 value. Researches, should bear in mind though, that factor scores are always collinear with the variables that generated them (Hair et al., 1990).

#### **4.5.2. Regression Analysis**

Regression analysis is a statistical procedure that aims to investigate relationships between variables. In particular, researchers seek to examine the hypothesised casual effects between dependent and independent variables. The investigator can then examine the “statistical significance” of the estimated relationships which simply reveals the degree of confidence that the estimated data show a relationship between variables that is close to their true relationship (Sykes, 1992). There are different types of regression analysis which depend upon the number of the explanatory variables. When only one explanatory

variable is involved in the analysis, the procedure is termed “simple regression”. When multiple prediction or explanatory variables are involved in the analysis then the procedure is termed “multiple regression”. The application of the regression procedure depends on two criteria: (a) the two variables need to be correlated and (b) the variables have a linear relationship between each other. Regression analysis aims to find the best linear relationship to fit the data collected and to estimate the intercept and the gradient of that line (Sykes, 1992). The most accurate model that finds the line which best summarizes the data collected is called the method of least squares (Field, 2005). The mathematical type that describes this relationship is given in the equation 4.2 that follows:

$$(4.2) \quad Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + \varepsilon_i$$

Where:

- Y=the criterion variable, or the value of Y that we want to predict
- X= The predictor, independent, explanatory or exogenous variable which is used for the prediction of the values of Y
- $\alpha$ =a constant term (intercept), Y value when X=0
- $\beta$ =slope, the unit of change in the values of Y for an 1 unit change in the values of X (also known as the regression coefficient or the gradient)
- $\varepsilon$ = reflects other ‘underlying’ factors that influence the Y values
- i= The index of observation

The regression coefficient (b) however, only suggests an indication of the expected average change (the observed data are scattered around the line. Consequently, using significance testing is also essential for accurate estimates (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 1998).

### 4.5.2.1. Model of Fit and Prediction Errors (Residuals)

Despite using the equation shown above when aiming to identify the relationship between two variables, any attempt to predict the Y value for a specific value of X contains a measurement error. Therefore, it is essential to predict how well the regression line or model fits the data. Model fit can be estimated by comparing the observed scores of Y (the values of Y from the sample of data) with the expected values of Y (the predicted values of Y by the regression equation). The difference between Y (observed) and Y (predicted) shows the size of error (residual or deviation). In other words, it indicates how well the model predicts each observed data point, as it is the closest estimate of our true values based on the predicted values (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 1998).

The method of ordinary least squares (OLS) consequently seeks to estimate the intercept and gradient in such a way that the linear relationship minimises the amount of difference or prediction errors (residuals) between the observed data points and those predicted by the model. The OLS method minimizes the sum of squared residuals  $SS_R$  (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 1990).

The sum of squared differences or the total sum of squares ( $SS_T$ ) indicates the total amount of difference observed when the most basic model is applied to the data. This basic model only includes an intercept to measure the mean of the dependent variable and the value of  $SS_T$  indicates how well the mean as a model describes the observed data (Field, 2005). The difference between the  $SS_R$  and  $SS_T$  is called the model sum of squares ( $SS_M$ ) which indicates how improved prediction of the dependent variable is by adding the independent variables in the regression model. Therefore,  $SS_M$  indicates how much variation is explained by the model while  $SS_R$  indicates the variation explained by exogenous factors that are not controlled by the researcher. If the value of  $SS_M$  is large then the regression model improved considerably the prediction of the outcome variable. In contrast, when the value of  $SS_M$  is small, then the regression model is slightly more accurate than the mean is in predicting the outcome variable. The proportion of improvement in our predictions, after applying the regression model can be calculated by R-squared (Field, 2005).



### 4.5.2.2. R-Squared

The R-squared indicates the amount of variance in the dependent variable that is “explained” by the model. It is also known as the coefficient of multiple determination and gives the percentage of deviation in the dependent variable after adding the effect of the independent variable into the model. It can be calculated by dividing the model sum of squares ( $SS_M$ ) by the total sum of squares ( $SS_T$ ), so it represents the change in the variance that the model results to comparing to the initial variance. It is represented by the equation 4.3. as given below:

$$(4.3) \quad R^2 = \frac{SS_M}{\text{Total } SS_R}$$

However, R-square will always increase when more variables are added to the model which is due to the chance variance. Therefore, it is essential to use the adjusted R-square statistic when comparing models with different numbers of variables included, as it remains the same when more variables are added to the model, as it takes into account the number of terms entered into the model (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 1998). This is illustrated in the equation 4.4. given below:

$$(4.4) \quad R^2_a = R^2 - \frac{k(1-R^2)}{n-k-1}$$

Where:

- $n$  = the number of cases used to construct the model
- $k$  = is the number of terms in the model (not including the constant).

If the number of cases is small and the number of independent variables is large, then a larger difference between R-square and adjusted R-square is implied. In contrast, when the number of independent variables is smaller comparing to the sample cases, then the R-square and adjusted R-square values will not differentiate that much. When a variable is added to the model and results in a great reduction of the deviation, then this variable has a large effect on the prediction of Y for that model. In contrast, if the added variable does not imply a

great reduction of the deviation, then this variable has a small effect on the prediction of Y for that model. This change in the deviation from adding up an explanatory variable at the model determines the significance of that variable's effect on the prediction of Y. For estimating the degree an explanatory variable predicts the criterion variable, one can simply compare the deviations to the model before and after adding the variable. In simple OLS this estimation can be achieved by comparing the RSS statistic for the full regression model ( $Y = \alpha + \beta x$ ) with that for the null model ( $Y = \alpha$ ) (Field, 2005). The significance of the deviation between the two models can then be tested with the use of an F-test which will be explained in the following section.

### **4.5.2.3. The F-Test**

Another method of assessing the model through the use of the sum of squares is the F-test. The F-test is based upon the ratio of the improvement in the prediction due to the model (Model sum of squares- $SS_M$ ) and the difference between the model and the observed data (Residual sum of squares  $SS_R$ ). However, this is calculated by using the mean sums of squares rather than the sums of squares themselves (MS). The Mean sums of squares are calculated by dividing the sums of squares by the degrees of freedom. The degrees of freedom for the model sums of squares is the number of variables in the model while for the residual sums of squares, the degrees of freedom are represented by the number of observations minus the number of parameters being estimated (i.e. the number of beta coefficients as well as the constant). Consequently, the F-ratio is a measure of the improvement of the model in predicting the outcome comparing to the level of the inaccuracy of the model (Field, 2005). This can be calculated with the equation 4.5. given below:

$$(4.5) \quad F = \frac{MS_M}{MS_R}$$

It is assumed that in a good model, the F-ratio will be greater than 1, as it is expected that the model results to a great improvement in the prediction of the

outcome and hence  $MS_M$  will be large comparing to the difference between the model and the observed data ( $MS_R$ ) which will be small (Field, 2005).

#### **4.5.2.4. Assumptions in OLS Simple Linear Regression**

Ntoumanis (2001, p. 120-1) suggested that apart from the relationship between the independent and the dependent variable being linear, two other criteria determine whether the regression equation explains successfully the relationship between two variables (criterion and predictor variables). First, both the criterion and the predictor variables should be free of outliers or extreme values, as these may distort the line from being linear, as the further away the extreme value is from the regression line results to an increase on the squared distance from the line of best fit. Residual values should be also free of outliers, as it may transform the regression equation. The second assumption is concerned with residual values which should be independent, homoscedastic and normally distributed. Residual values being homoscedastic implies that their variance is similar for all the values of  $x$  (independent variable). Residual values being independent of  $x$  implies that there is little or no correlation between residuals and the independent variable of the equation and that the order of measurement is unrelated to these residual values. Normality of the residuals can be checked with statistical tests such as the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test or the Shapiro-Wilk test (O'Donoghue, 2012). If these criteria are satisfied then we can assume that the relationship between our variables is linear and can be described with a simple regression equation (Anderson et al., 1994, p. 521; Vincent, 1999; p. 111). If not then a transformation is needed in the model, for example using standard errors that are robust to heteroscedasticity (Hair et al., 1990; O'Donoghue, 2012).

#### **4.5.2.5. Assessing the Significance of the Coefficients (Individual Predictors)**

As mentioned earlier, in the regression equation the gradient or slope ( $b$ ) coefficient reflects the change in the dependent variable for a unit of change in the independent or predictor variable. In general, it is implied that the larger the regression coefficient the stronger the association between the independent and the dependent variable, which means that the independent variable causes a large degree of change in the dependent variable (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 1998). If the model we use is not good enough in predicting the outcome or criterion variable, then the value of  $b$  would be equal to zero. This would suggest that even though there is a change in the predictor variable, the value of the criterion variable remains the same. In other words, a regression coefficient equal to zero suggests that for a unit change in the predictor variable results to a non-change to the dependent variable and as this coefficient represents the slope of the line, this being equal to zero would suggest that the regression line is flat. Therefore, this suggests that the predictor variable does not significantly predict the criterion variable, as its gradient value is not significantly different from zero. To assess the null hypothesis that the value of  $b$  is equal to zero the t-test statistic is used. The t-test determines whether the value of  $b$  is significantly different from zero (sig.  $<0.05$ ) and hence the predictor variable contributes to predicting the outcome in the criterion variable. The t-test takes into account the standard error when calculating whether  $b$  values are different or equal to zero, as their values depend on the units of measurements and tend to increase when the units of measurement increase (Field, 2005).

#### **4.5.2.6. OLS regression with multiple explanatory variables**

In most cases, the OLS procedure is applied with multiple explanatory variables added to the model. This is the case in the current research as detailed earlier. Multiple regression analysis requires that the dependent variable is metric and the independent variables are metric or dichotomous. The equation is similar to

the one above for only one explanatory variable. However, this time the criterion variable is predicted by multiple independent or explanatory variables ( $X_1$  to  $X_3$ ), where  $\beta_1$  to  $\beta_N$  represent the coefficients for all the independent variables in the equation (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 1998). Consequently, for each extra predictor variable added to the model, there will be its own regression coefficient. Therefore the equation for multiple OLS regression takes the form as shown in the equation 4.6. below:

$$(4.6) \quad Y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \dots + \beta_n X_{ni} + \varepsilon_i$$

Where:

- $\alpha$ = The constant or intercept (the value of Y when all explanatory variables are zero)
- $\beta$ =the value of Y when a unit change occurs in X, whilst all the other explanatory variables are controlled
- $i$ = is the index of observation running from  $i=1,2,3,\dots,\dots,\dots$ sample size.

Despite this model being more complicated, it follows the same principles with the simple regression model. It aims to identify all the potential predictors that explain the maximum change in the criterion variable. In multiple regression analysis, the sum of squares is calculated in a more complicated way but their assumptions are the same as with the simple regression. Therefore, to a similar extent,  $SS_T$  represents the difference between the observed values and the mean value of the dependent variable,  $SS_R$  represents the difference between the values of the outcome variable predicted by the model and the observed values. Also,  $SS_M$  reflects the difference between the values of the criterion variable predicted by the model and the mean value. The model in multiple regression analysis is also assessed with the multiple correlation coefficient (multiple R) which is the correlation between the observed values of the criterion variable and the predicted by the multiple regression model values of the criterion variable. Therefore, multiple R and  $R^2$  indicate how well the model predicts the observed data or in other words the strength of the relationship between the predictors and the criterion variable. Large values of multiple R suggest a large

correlation between the observed and predicted values of the criterion variable. Values of multiple R close or equal to 1 suggest a perfect positive correlation between the values of Y estimated with those predicted. As such,  $R^2$  is interpreted in exactly the same way, as in simple regression, that is the percentage of variation in the dependent variable that is a result of the model manipulation (Field, 2005). Likely to simple linear regression analysis, an F test is further used to determine whether our findings for a particular sample can be representative of the population this sample is drawn from. Furthermore, a t-test is used to evaluate relationships between each predictor variable with the criterion variable (Field, 2005).

Multiple regression analysis is dependent upon the number of predictors included and the way these are entered into the model (Field, 2005). The selection of the prediction variables should be based on their theoretical importance in predicting the outcome and their use in past research. Moreover, the order these predictors are entered into a model has an effect on the results depending on whether these predictors are correlated or not. As such, multiple regression analysis is distinguished in three different types. Standard multiple regression evaluates the relationships between a set of independent variables and a dependent variable. In standard multiple regression, all of the independent variables are entered into the regression equation at the same time. Hierarchical regression evaluates the relationships between a set of independent variables and a dependent variable, by assuming that predictors should be entered in terms of their importance in predicting the outcome. This normally happens when the effects of the predictor variables to the criterion variable are known from past research. If the effects of the predictor variables on the dependent variable are not known, then the independent variables can be either added into the model at the same time or the predictor that is assumed to have a larger effect on the dependent variable can be entered first. Unlike to hierarchical regression, in forced entry regression all predictors are added to the model at the same time. However, strong theoretical foundations should exist in order to select the independent variables that will constitute a model. Stepwise regression (forward or backward) investigates the independent variable that has

the strongest relationship to a dependent variable by following a stepwise process (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 1990). The forward method begins with a basic model that only contains the constant ( $\alpha$ ). It then selects the strongest predictors out of the ones available by investigating which one of those has the highest correlation with the outcome variable. Each time, a new predictor variable is added to the model and if this variable improves the ability of the model to predict the criterion variable, then is retained into the model and the computer is looking for another predictor with high correlation with the dependent variable. Forward regression can be described as a partial correlation as the effects of each predictor are controlled while new predictors are added into the model and hence the model estimates how much “new” variance is explained by each predictor variable when is added to the model (Hair et al., 1990; Field, 2005). In contrast, in the backward method, all the independent variables are placed into the model at the same time and then the contribution of each one is assessed by a t-test that examines their level of significance. The level of significance for each one of the independent variables is assessed by comparing this value with a removal criterion. This removal criterion value can be either an absolute or a probability value of a test statistic. Predictor variables are removed when they do not make a significant contribution to how well the model predicts the dependent variable and the model accounts for the remaining independent variables (Field, 2005). When choosing between stepwise methods, backward method is more reliable as it accounts for the independent variables that cause suppressor effects. These suppressor effects occur when a variable has a significant effect in predicting an outcome but only when another variable is held constant. Therefore, forward regression is more likely to exclude predictor variables with suppressor effects that contribute significantly to the outcome than the backward method (Field, 2005). Standard regression was adopted in the analysis of the data as a common framework was sought to be explored in the sense that all of the variables were considered equal in terms of their importance in predicting volunteers’ future behavior and hence there would have to be inserted in the model at the same time.

#### **4.5.2.7. Sample Size in Multiple Regression Analysis**

Choosing the appropriate sample size before running a regression analysis is an important consideration that impacts upon the study's findings. The sample size determines whether there is a significant relationship between the dependent and the independent variables. A study using a smaller number of cases than recommended is more likely to commit a Type II error. Moreover, as far as generalizability of the results of the study is concerned, small samples lead to conclusions that are not applicable to the population the sample is drawn from (Brooks & Barcikowski, 2012).

Some general guidelines that aim to determine the appropriate sample size for running a regression analysis recommend that the larger the sample size the better our prediction will be. This is due to the fact that the value of R is dependent upon the sample size and the number of predictors in the equation and this value tends to indicate stronger effects with small sample sizes (Field, 2005). However, this rule is simple enough and does not take into account the different methodological variations in exploring a dataset. To overcome this issue, Green (1991) suggested that choosing the sample size depends on whether a researcher aims to test the overall fit of the regression model ( $R^2$ ) or only the individual predictors within the model (coefficients). For assessing the model overall, he recommended a sample size of a minimum of  $50 + 8k$  cases, with k representing the number of predictors. Therefore, in a regression equation with 10 independent variables, the recommended sample size would be 130 participants. For assessing the individual predictors, he recommended a sample size of  $104 + k$ , so for 10 predictors, the sample size would have to be 114 participants. However, in most instances a researcher is interested in detecting both the overall fit and the contribution of each individual predictor in explaining the model. Therefore, in that case Green (1991) recommended calculating both the overall fit and the individual predictors' values as explained above and further choose the one with the larger value. However, this rule is also quite simple and does not explain the effect the independent variables have on the outcome. Consequently, several authors have suggested that the sample size



required for applying multiple regression analysis depends primarily on the size and power of the relationship a researcher aims to detect between the predictors and the outcome variable. Power is the likelihood to detect a statistically significant R-square ( $R^2$ ) value for a pre-determined sample size. In other words, it is the probability that the study will have a significant result if the research hypothesis is true. Several criteria need to be satisfied to achieve the desired level of power of a test. These include the effect size, which refers to the strength of association between variables and/or the strength (size) of the difference found (large effect size increases power), sample size (large  $n$  increases power) and level of significance (high  $\alpha$  increases power). Effect size in multiple regression is a combination of effect size and sample size (Cohen, 1988). Cohen and Cohen (1983) recommended that for the desired power level of .80 the sample size to detect a statistically significant relationship is dependent upon the size of the effect. More specifically, they recommended that for detecting a large effect and with a number of up to 20 predictors then a sample size of 80 cases is enough. For detecting a medium effect, the recommended sample size varies between 100 to 200 participants depending on the number of predictors (100 for 6 predictors or less and 200 for up to 20 predictors) (Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

#### **4.5.2.8. Multicollinearity**

An issue that often causes concern in the interpretation of the results in multiple regression analysis is the presence of multicollinearity between two or more independent variables. Multicollinearity reflects a high correlation or a perfect linear relationship between two or more predictors. Perfect collinearity implies that one at least predictor is perfectly correlated with another predictor and hence they have a correlation coefficient equal to 1 (Hair et al., 1998; Field, 2005). Multicollinearity poses a threat to the regression coefficient estimates, as increased multicollinearity results to an increase in the standard errors of the coefficients, which in turn affects their statistical significance (Field, 2005). Consequently, multicollinearity increases the probability of committing a Type II error, as a potential significant predictor of the outcome may be found as non-significant and removed from the model. Another threat posed by

multicollinearity is that the size of  $R$  which indicates the correlation between the independent and the dependent variables is reduced which subsequently reduces the size of  $R^2$  that can be achieved which indicates the proportion of variance in the outcome that is explained by each individual predictor. When multicollinearity is present between two or more predictors, the total variance that these predictors account for is shared, which means that if one of the variables is removed, then the remaining variable accounts for a little amount of the remaining variance. Therefore, uncorrelated predictors contribute to explaining a larger amount of unique variance in the outcome. Another issue with multicollinearity is that the individual contribution in the outcome from each one of the predictors cannot be easily assessed, as the predictors account for similar variance in the outcome. There are two ways to diagnose multicollinearity. The first one is the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) measure which indicates to what extent the variance of the regression coefficients is inflated by multicollinearity. In short, VIF reflects whether a predictor is highly correlated with another predictor. If the value of VIF is equal to 0, there is no correlation between the independent variables. When VIF is 1 the independent variables are correlated to some extent but this association is not large enough to cause problems in the outcome. Myers (1990) suggested that the maximum acceptable value of VIF would be 10 otherwise higher values would be a concern of multicollinearity. Another way of identifying multicollinearity problems is by using the tolerance statistic. The tolerance statistic indicates the amount of variance in an independent variable that is not explained by the other predictors. If tolerance values are small then a multicollinearity problem exists as most of the variance in a predictor variable is explained by the other independent variables. The minimum acceptable value for tolerance is .10. As such, values equal to .2 or below indicate a serious concern of multicollinearity (Menard, 1995).

#### **4.5.2.9. Assumptions in Multiple Regression Analysis**

Several assumptions need to be satisfied by a particular dataset in order to form and apply a regression model on them, so as the results obtained could be further generalized to a population of interest. A regression model applied to a particular sample can lead to conclusions about the general population if first and foremost the predictor variables used in the model are either interval or categorical (with two categories) and the dependent variable is unbounded interval or continuous (Field, 2005; O'Donoghue, 2012). Second, there must be a statistically significant relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Third, this relationship needs to be of the correct strength. The strength of the relationship is measured with multiple R which would be very weak when the correlation is less than or equal to 0.20; greater than 0.20 and less than or equal to 0.40 is weak; greater than 0.40 and less than or equal to 0.60 is characterized as moderate; greater than 0.60 and less than or equal to 0.80 is strong; and greater than 0.80 is very strong. Multiple R-square gives the percentage of deviation in the dependent variable after adding up the effects on it from the independent variables.

#### **4.5.2.10. Logistic Regression Analysis**

Logistic regression is a technique that can be applied to dependent variables that have two categories. The independent variables that predict the outcome variable in a logistic regression analysis can be either categorical or continuous. Since the outcome variable in logistic regression is dichotomous, the assumption of linearity that normal regression is based on is usually violated and hence linear regression cannot be applied to dichotomous data (Berry, 1993). Therefore, in logistic regression contrary to the method of ordinary least squares, a binomial probability theory is preferred as there are only two values that can be predicted. Contrary to the linear regression methods whereas the criterion variable is predicted from a combination of each independent variable multiplied by its respective coefficient, in logistic regression, interest is in the probability of the dependent variable (Y) occurring by having known values of

the independent variables. When there is only one independent variable, the logistic regression equation takes the form as shown in the type 4.7 below:

$$(4.7) \quad P(Y) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-(b_0+b_1X_1+\varepsilon_i)}}$$

Where:

$P(Y)$ = the probability of Y occurring

$e$ = the base of natural logarithms

$b_0, b_1, X_1, \varepsilon_i$ = coefficients similar to those employed in linear regression

When there are several predictors, we are still interested in assessing the probability of  $P(Y)$  occurring but the logistic regression equation is expanded to include all the predictor variables and hence it takes the form as shown in the equation 4.8. that follows:

$$(4.8) \quad P(Y) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-(b_0+b_1X_1+b_2X_2+\dots+b_nX_n+\varepsilon_i)}}$$

Therefore, the logistic regression equation expresses the linear regression equation in logarithmic terms and hence it overcomes the problem of violating linearity, as the data take a linear form but their relationship itself is non-linear (Berry, 1993). As such, the logistic regression equation expresses the probability of classifying the observed data into one of the two given categories by also taking into account the regression coefficients ( $b$ ) which as in ordinary linear regression reflect the unique contributions of each independent variable on the prediction of the criterion variable. In logistic regression, the maximum likelihood method is used, as it estimates the probability of the observed data occurring by selecting the coefficients that maximize this likelihood.

Therefore, similar to OLS multiple regression analysis, a model is fitted to the data in order to estimate values of the criterion variable by using known values of the predictor variables. It is then determined which predictor variables are statistically significant, by calculating the coefficient and standard error for each

individual predictor. Moreover, it is determined whether the overall model is statistically significant and which regression assumptions are valid.

Logistic regression analysis assesses the probability of an event occurring divided by the probability of it not occurring which is formally known as the odds. When the odds are equal to 1 the probability of an event happening is equal to the probability of the event not happening. When the odds are greater than 1 then this means that the probability of the event happening is greater than the probability of the event not happening. The odds ratio is the ratio of two odds which is the ratio of an event occurring for one group divided by the odds of success for another group. The log odds, alternatively known as logit is the natural logarithm of the odds. The coefficients of the regression output are expressed in log odds units. Therefore, the results of the logistic regression analysis take the form of assessing through the coefficients how a unit change in an independent variable affects the log odds ratio when all the other variables in the model are held constant or how an exponential coefficient affects the odds ratio of the dependent variable have one or another of the categorical values. Probabilities of these effects can also be derived for typical values of the independent variables, such as their mean. Therefore, the dependent variable can only take two values: 0 or 1. Consequently, in logistic regression, instead of estimating a numerical value for the dependent variable, the probability that the dependent variable belongs to one group rather than the other is assessed (Field, 2005).

As with multiple regression analysis using ordinary least squares, multicollinearity (correlated predictors) suggests a potential threat for the data. As multiple logistic regression aims to discover the combination of explanatory variables that best fit the observed data, if the predictor variables are correlated then it is not easy to identify such combination. Logistic regression analysis can be conducted using several procedures. The forward method assesses each predictor variable individually and begins with selecting the predictor variable that fits better the data on its own. The next step is to examine whether the remaining variables will add significantly to the overall fit of the model. This

procedure is repeated until no variables remain or none are significant to the improvement of the overall fit of the model. In contrast, the backward method starts with a model that contains all the predictor variables available. Each variable is individually examined on whether removing it from the model would significantly diminish the overall fit. Any variable that does not cause a significant effect to the model if not included, is then removed. This examination of the explanatory variables continues until only significant variables are included in the model.

#### **4.5.2.10.1. Assessing the Logistic Regression Model**

As previously noted, the criterion variables can take two values, either 0 which expresses the probability that the outcome did not occur or 1 which suggests that the outcome did occur. As with the linear regression models which use  $R^2$  to assess whether the model fits the data well by comparing the differences between the observed and the predicted values of  $Y$ , the logistic regression model uses a similar method to assess the fit of the model by comparing the predicted with the observed values of  $Y$ . This can be achieved with the log-likelihood statistic (Field, 2005). The log-likelihood is an estimation of the sum of the probabilities of the predicted and observed values. Therefore, it is analogous to the residual sum of squares used in multiple regression, as it indicates how much unexplained variance exists in our data after fitting the model. Large values of the log-likelihood statistic are associated with poorly fitting statistical models, as this shows a large amount of variance in our data that is not explained by the model. The log-likelihood statistic is estimated using the equation 4.9. below (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

$$(4.9) \quad \log - likelihood = \sum_{i=1}^N [Y_i \ln(P(Y_i)) + (1 - Y_i) \ln(1 - P(Y_i))]$$

The log-likelihood statistic can be also used to compare different models by examining differences between their log-likelihoods. This is normally beneficial when the researcher is interested to compare the logistic model with a baseline model. This baseline model is usually one that included only the constant.

Contrary to multiple regression where we use the mean of all scores as the baseline model when no other information is provided, in logistic regression the mean cannot be used as all scores consist of two values and hence the baseline model consists of the number of cases that occurs more frequently along with the constant (Field, 2005). Consequently, this is calculated by a chi-square test that tests the significance of the difference between the likelihood ratio (-2LL) for the logistic regression model minus the likelihood ratio for the baseline model. This is given by the equation 4.10. below:

$$(4.10) \quad x^2 = 2[LL(New) - LL(Baseline)]$$

$$(df = k_{new} - k_{baseline})$$

Consequently, the chi-square test assesses the significance of the researcher's model comparing to the baseline model. Significance at the .05 level suggests that the logistic regression model significantly predicts the outcome comparing to the null model (all b coefficients being zero). If the chi-test fails to reach the required significance level, this then means that the null hypothesis is true, that is the independent variables do not contribute significantly to the prediction of the dependent. Therefore, the chi-square test assesses the goodness of fit of the model (Field, 2005).

#### **4.5.2.11. Assessing the Predictors with the Wald Statistic or Z-statistics**

Similarly to linear regression when the contributions of the individual predictors on the outcome are assessed by using the t-test statistic, in logistic regression the statistical significance of individual regression predictors is tested through a similar method which tests the null hypothesis that b=0. This statistic is called the Wald chi square statistic. It tests whether the b coefficient for each independent variable is significantly different from zero and hence it contributes significantly to the prediction of the outcome (Field, 2005). The Wald statistic has a chi-square distribution and as with the t-test is calculated by dividing the value

of the regression coefficient with its standard error as given below in the equation 4.11:

$$(4.11) \quad Wald = \frac{b}{SE_b}$$

The z statistic is the regression coefficient divided by its standard error: Squared z-statistics values represent the Wald statistics. The z statistic is the result of testing the evidence of whether the null hypothesis is equal to zero through the p-value which assesses the statistical significance of this evidence. The z statistics and p-values are derived from the log odds ratio and its standard error, SPSS reports these values squared and calls them Wald statistics.

#### **4.5.2.12. Assessing the Model with R and R<sup>2</sup>**

In logistic regression, another measure of how well the model fits the data apart from the likelihood ratio is the pseudo R-square. This is similar to the multiple correlation coefficient R and its corresponding R<sup>2</sup> which are indicators of how well a model fits the data. Similar to R-square, the pseudo R-square ranges from 0 to 1 with higher values indicating a better model fit and that the predictors contribute to the outcome variable significantly. However, contrary to R-square, pseudo R-square cannot be used as an indication of the proportion of variation in the dependent variable that is the result of the model. The pseudo R-square can be calculated by dividing the model chi-square (log-likelihood) by the original -2LL (the log-likelihood of the model without the inclusion of any predictors. Therefore, it is a measure of how the model has improved after the inclusion of the predictors (Homer & Lemeshow, 1989). The Pseudo-R-square is given by the equation 4.12 below:

$$(4.12) \quad R^2_L = \frac{-2LL (\text{Model})}{-2LL (\text{Original})}$$



## **4.6. Conclusion**

This chapter aimed to address the analysis techniques that are used in quantitative data analysis. Emphasis was given on particular aspects of statistical procedures that facilitated the data analysis of the current research project. In particular, this study uses frequency distributions to describe general volunteering trends, characteristics, time commitments etc, as well as the mean and standard deviation to assess the central tendency of each variable of interest and its dispersion from the mean or how well the mean represented the data used in each case. The research also adopted principal component analysis to explore underlying dimensions of volunteers' motivation and satisfaction. Moreover, OLS multiple regression and Logistic regression methods were applied. Logistic regression analysis was applied to the club volunteer sample to identify the impacts of club volunteering experiences on volunteers' likelihood to having volunteered for the 2010 WRWC. Likewise, OLS was applied to both the club and event volunteers' sample to identify the impacts of volunteers' characteristics, engagement to the sport, motivations to volunteer and satisfaction with the experience on their future volunteering behaviour. Chapters 5 and 6 that follow deal with the analysis of the data and the main findings arose by applying such statistical techniques to the data collected in each case.

# Chapter Five

## Results of Club Volunteers

### Analysis

#### 5.1. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impacts of experiences at clubs and events on volunteers' future intentions as well as whether these promote and contribute to the transfer of effort across other sporting contexts. The specific objectives of this investigation were: First, to describe the type of volunteers who run women's rugby and hence to identify their characteristics. Second, to identify volunteers' experiences; that is motivations, sports and volunteering engagement, satisfaction with the volunteering experience in women's rugby, that are hypothesized to determine and impact upon their future volunteering behaviour as well as to the transfer of volunteers' efforts across different contexts such as events. Third, to examine the relationship between volunteers' experiences in clubs and events and how these may impact upon the recruitment, retention and development of volunteers as well as on their future behaviour in volunteering. Fourth, to make potential recommendations regarding the recruitment and retention of rugby volunteers in women's rugby. This chapter focuses upon and provides the analysis of the club volunteers sample and reports in more detail the results of the descriptive analysis, exploratory factor analysis and both OLS and logistic regression analysis of the stated impacts of experiences on the future intentions of women's rugby clubs volunteers on their future behaviour as well as if they actually volunteered for the Women's rugby world cup in 2010.

As noted in Chapter 1 and Chapter 3, this study adopts the notion that future volunteering behaviour depends on volunteers' socio-demographics, sports and volunteering engagement, motivations and satisfaction. Therefore, this model of analysis is established and followed in the current chapter. The chapter begins with section 5.2 which reports the findings of the descriptive analysis that establishes the demographic profile of the volunteers' sample within women rugby clubs and outlines their current and past sport and volunteering experiences both in rugby and in other contexts, as well as their motivations. Descriptive statistics were then used in section 5.2.4 to examine the importance of each of the 37 satisfaction items. This was facilitated by calculating their means and standard deviations. The chapter then proceeds with section 5.3 which reports the descriptive results of the dependent variables measuring volunteers' future intentions pertaining to club and rugby or other sport event volunteering. The chapter then proceeds with section 5.4 that reports the results of the exploratory factor analysis of satisfaction item. This includes the interpretation of each one of the factors, analysis of their internal consistency and their mean scores, which suggest their importance in contributing to the satisfaction of volunteers with the clubs' experience. Finally, section 5.5 of this chapter presents the results of the regression analyses where all the determinants of volunteering are combined in order to assess their impacts upon event volunteers' future behavior. The findings of the study are then summarized in section 5.6 that reviews the results and concludes the Chapter.

## **5.2. Context, Data and Variables**

### **5.2.1. Population, Sampling and Data Collection**

As noted in Chapter 3, the sampling procedure adopted in the current study yielded a total of 168 responses. Incompletion of some items meant that for most variables and for each of the analyses conducted 161 responses were usable. In absolute terms this is a small sample. However, given that the population of volunteers in women's rugby is relatively small and the response rate of the current study represented a large proportion of this, the sample was deemed satisfactory for empirical analysis. For example, it was covered in Chapter 3 that the study was based on an audit of respondents identified as formally volunteering in women's rugby clubs that were taking part in the national league structure of women's rugby at the time of the survey. The participants were approached through email invitations with the link to an internet-administered questionnaire that were sent to each of the contact addresses identified for the 100 women's rugby clubs that had an active online page at the time the survey took place. It should be noted here, as in Chapter 3 that female rugby clubs are either in a developing stage, or they share duties with male clubs and hence the specific club identities were not a focus of this research rather than individual volunteers' experiences at the women's rugby clubs' context. Therefore, as suggested by the RFUW's records most women rugby clubs are run with help from no more than 5 specifically identified formal volunteers. This constrained the sampling frame to the corresponding potential 500 club volunteers (RFUW, 2010). Consequently, the response rate of 33.3% achieved is deemed satisfactory for empirical analysis. Section 5.5 also discusses the adequacy of the sample for regression purposes. The survey instrument was initially distributed prior to the rugby world cup aiming to identify those club volunteers who were willing to volunteer for the event and then following an audit of respondents and actual event volunteers' contact details, as provided by the RFUW; it was possible to identify those that actually volunteered at the rugby world cup.

## **5.2.2. Independent Variables**

### **5.2.2.1. Socio-Demographic Profiles of Club Volunteers**

Table 5.2.1 below provides details of the socio-demographic variables used in the analysis which also outlines the volunteers' sample characteristics. The variables are all measured as binary values and hence the mean values are presented only for convenience and to indicate the sample proportions of the relevant categories being measured. The data reveal an equal gender distribution between males and females, which suggests that volunteer support in women's rugby is not highly gendered. Only approximately 27% of the sample have dependent children. This probably reflects the relatively balanced proportion of the age groups between 25 and 60 years of age, suggesting perhaps fewer connections with children as a form of association with women's rugby than in other sports. This can be linked to the fact that, as several authors suggest, sport volunteers in Westernised societies are more likely to become involved between the age of 35 to 44 years. This, in particular occurs in community sport settings where parents are asked to engage in service to help with coaching or other duties (Doherty, 2005; Harvey, Donnelly, & Lévesque, 2005; Nichols & Padmore, 2005; Nichols & Shepherd, 2006). It is interesting to note that out of the 27% of volunteers with dependent children, 12.4% of this total belongs to the age range 35 to 44 years and 8.7% comes from the age range between 45 to 59 years of age. As regards the education level of the survey participants, the data reveal a high incidence of degree-level education (66.6%). As generally volunteers having dependent children associated with sport tend to come from the 35 to 44 years age group, the wider age profile of the volunteers involved in women's rugby clubs suggests that either older volunteers in women's rugby experience less constraints from family commitments, or that they might have had children later in life. This could also be reflected in the high educational profile of volunteers. As Doherty (2005) explains individuals are more prepared to volunteer in sport after the age of 35 as an earlier age they either focus on finishing their education or establishing a career before moving to start a family. Moreover, as noted in Chapter 1, higher education has been instrumental in facilitating the establishment and growth of women's rugby. In 1983 members of university women rugby teams across the

Country provided the foundation basis of the original Women’s Rugby Football Union (WRFU) that became the Rugby Football Union for Women in 1994 (Houlihan & White, 2002). Reflective of the broader sports clubs volunteers’ population trends, however, approximately 92% of the sample is White British and 79% of the sample is in full-time employment.

**Table 5.2.1: Socio-demographic variables**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev</b>
Gender	‘1 Male, 0 Female’	0.497	0.502
Children	Have children ‘1 Yes, 0 No’	0.267	0.444
Ethnicity	‘1 White British, 0 Other ethnicity’	0.919	0.273
Education	‘1 Degree level education, 0 Other’	0.621	0.468
Fulltime	‘1 Full time work, 0 Not’	0.795	0.405
Partime	‘1 Part time work, 0 Not’	0.087	0.283
Student	‘1 Student, 0 Not’	0.031	0.174
Retired*	‘1 Retired, 0 Not’	0.050	0.218
age1824	‘1 Aged 18 to 24 years, 0 Not’	0.149	0.357
age2534	‘1 Aged 25 to 34 years, 0 Not’	0.267	0.444
age3544	‘1 Aged 35 to 44 years, 0 Not’	0.224	0.418
age4559	‘1 Aged 45 to 59 years, 0 Not’	0.248	0.433
age6069**	‘1 Aged 60 to 69 years, 0 Not’	0.112	0.316

\*Unemployed is omitted category

\*\*Aged 70 years and above is omitted category

Table 5.2.1.1 below provides a more clear representation of the frequencies of the relevant categories being measured to represent the distribution of the sample in terms of their socio-demographic characteristics and their engagement to sport and volunteering.

**Table 5.2.1.1. Descriptive Statistics of Club Volunteer**

<b>Category</b>	<b>Classification</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
<b>Gender</b>	Male	49.4%	83
	Female	50.6%	85
<b>Ethnicity</b>	White-British	92.3%	155
	White-Irish	2.40%	4
	White-Other	1.2%	2
	Asian-other	0.5%	1
	Black-Caribbean	1%	2
	Asian-Indian	0.5%	1
	Any other Mixed	1.8%	3
<b>Age</b>	18-24	14.3%	24
	25-34	26.2%	44
	35-44	22.6%	38
	45-59	25.6%	43
	60-69	11.3%	19
<b>Employment</b>	Full-time	79.8%	134
	Part-Time	8.9%	15
	Student	3.6%	6
	Retired	4.8%	8
	Unemployed	3.9%	5
<b>Education</b>	Degree or higher	61.3%	103
	Below degree level	10.1%	17
	Qualifications/apprenticeship	3%	5
	GCE A Level/equivalent	8.3%	14
	GCSE grades A C	9.5%	16
<b>No of Dep. Children</b>	No qualifications	2.4%	4
	None	64.9%	109
	One	13.7%	23
	Two	10.1%	17
	Three or more	3.6%	6
<b>Age of dep.children</b>	N/A	7.7%	13
	Under 2 years	3%	5
	2-4 years	4.8%	8
	5-9 years	5.4%	9
	10-15 years	15.5%	26
<b>Play rugby</b>	Yes	58.3%	98
	No	41.7%	70
<b>Participate other sport</b>	Yes	43.5%	73
	No	56.5%	95
<b>Currently volunteering</b>	Yes	97%	163
	No	3%	5
<b>Past Volunteering</b>	Yes	6%	10
	No	1.2%	2
<b>Type of Competition</b>	Women's game	66.1%	35
	Men's game	20.8%	21
	Children's game	12.5%	1

## **5.2.2.2. Sport Participation and Volunteering Engagement of Club Volunteers**

As the current study sought to explore the experiences of the volunteers in their respective rugby clubs along with their sport participation or general volunteering behaviour. Table 5.2.2 provides descriptive information on the sports engagement of volunteers in a number of binary and continuous variables. The first sets of variables reveal a high degree of sports engagement generally, but particularly with rugby. Almost 60% of the sample currently played the game, with approximately 67% of the sample primarily volunteering in the women's game but, nonetheless, indicating the joint efforts with the men's game as noted in Chapter 1. A small majority of the respondents did not participate in any other sport (55.9%) at the time of the survey. However, this implies that a large percentage of the sample (44.1%) participated in other sports. It is interesting also to note that 31.7% of the sample stated that they volunteer elsewhere apart from rugby and the majority revealed that rugby is the most important volunteer activity they are involved with comparing to their other volunteering commitments. The majority of those who volunteer elsewhere apart from rugby stated that they volunteered for other organizations not listed in the current survey (16.7%), followed by 9.5% of participants who volunteered for other sports apart from rugby. These latter results hint at the potential for the transfer of volunteer effort across contexts.

On average, the volunteers have been involved at their respective rugby clubs for 7.3 years. In terms of the hours that they contributed to their clubs in season, the majority of the respondents stated that they volunteer for 8.6 hours while they commit to their clubs 6.5 hours on average out of season. As is normal with years of experience and hours volunteered, the data suggest skewed distributions. However, a high level of club volunteering commitment is evident both outside and during rugby season. The main role the volunteers are involved with in their rugby clubs is that of the coach (26.2%), followed by a 11.3% being committee members, 9.5% involved as secretaries and 7.1% being team captains.



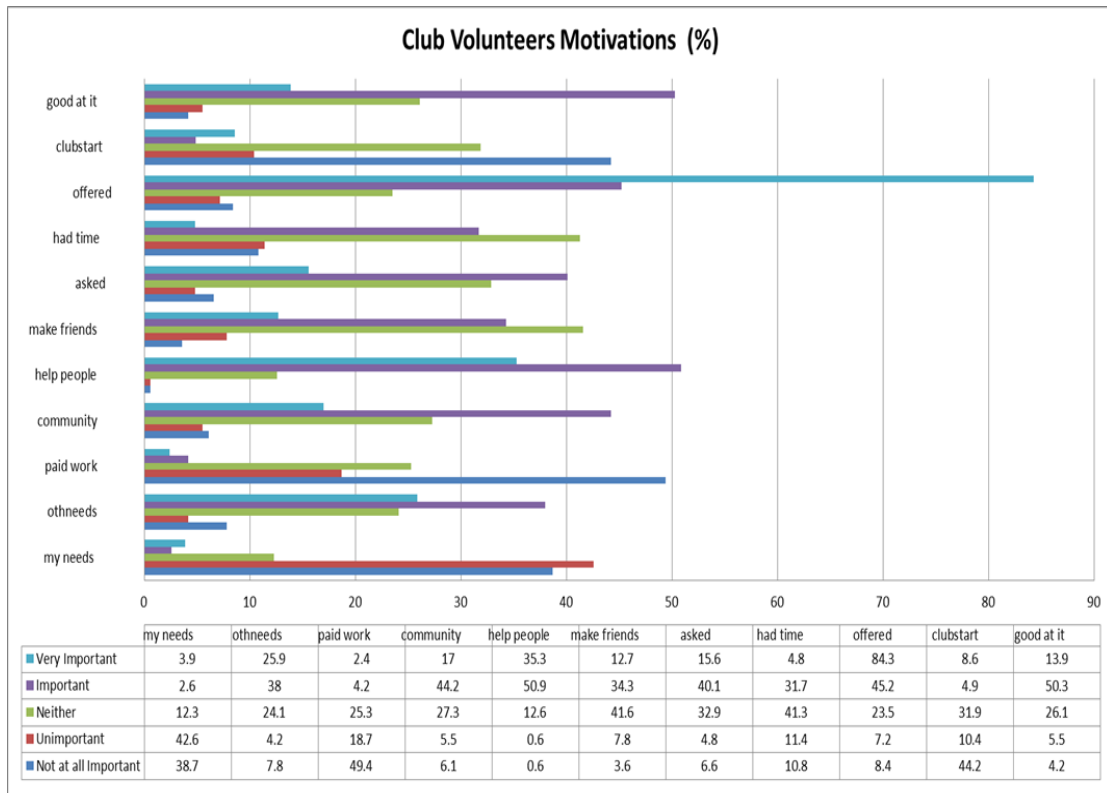
### 5.2.2.3. Motivations of Club Volunteers

Table 5.2.2 also includes the motivations of club volunteers. As noted in Chapter 3, the motivational variables were measured by a series of questions adapted from Sport England's (2003) study, which was the last major investigation into sports volunteering in England. Each of these variables was measured on a 5-point Likert scale. The motivational variables in this study reflect the sentiments expressed in that study and the literature review. The most highly ranked motivations reflect some self-interest, that is meeting the individual's needs (Mean=4.11), but, it is noted that this is in the context of also wanting to help people (Mean=4.206), to meet the needs of family and friends (Mean=3.67) and the community (Mean=3.59). Reasons that follow in importance include volunteers' perception that they are "good at it", which is indicative of their self-confidence that they possess the necessary competencies and skills to perform their volunteer tasks effectively. This is also reflected by the fact that there is a balance between the participants who had offered to help and those who have been asked to help in the rugby clubs' context, which reflects both the volunteers' self-confidence of having the necessary skills to volunteer for the club as well as significant others' perceptions of them having the required skills in being competent to volunteer and hence asking them to contribute to the club. Motivations related to starting the club are less relevant in the current context, despite the developing stage of the sport of women's rugby (Mean=2.22). The same is the case of motivations concerned with undertaking club volunteering activity because of it being connected with their paid employment (Mean=1.93). Figure 5.1 provides a graphical illustration of the sample's distribution in each of the categories being measured with the Likert scale to represent the level of importance of the motivational reasons included in the study to influence individuals' decisions to volunteer in women's rugby clubs.

**Table 5.2.2. Sports engagement and motivation variables**

<b>Variable Name</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St.Dev</b>
<i>Engagement</i>				
plyrugby	161	Playing rugby '1 Yes, 0 No'	0.590	0.493
plyothsp	161	Playing other sport '1 Yes, 0 No'	0.441	0.498
type	161	Volunteer in women's game '1 Yes, 0 No'	0.666	0.474
years	161	Years volunteering at the club	7.373	7.328
hrsseason	161	Weekly hours volunteering in season	8.689	10.150
hrsnotseason	161	Weekly hours volunteering out of season	6.515	9.720
othvol	161	Volunteer elsewhere ' 1 Yes, 0 No'	0.317	0.466
<i>Importance</i>	161	Rugby is more important '1Yes, 0 No'	0.286	0.900
<i>Motivation</i>	<i>Range: '5 very important to 1 unimportant'</i>			
myneeds	159	Meets my needs or interests	4.119	0.970
othneeds	159	Meets needs of friends, family etc	3.673	1.145
paidwork	159	Connected to paid work	1.937	1.071
community	158	A need in the community	3.594	1.047
help	160	I wanted to help people	4.206	0.728
friends	159	Wanted to make friends, meet people	3.459	0.946
asked	160	I was asked for help	3.531	1.046
hadtime	160	Had time to spare	3.081	1.040
offered	159	I offered to help	3.535	1.095
clubstart	156	I started the club	2.231	1.304
goodatit	158	I am good at it	3.652	0.944

**Figure 5.2. Club Volunteers' Motivations**



### 5.2.2.4. Satisfaction with ClubVolunteering Experience

Finally, table 5.2.4 presents the set of items that were used to construct the independent variables measuring satisfaction from a factor analysis as presented in the next section. As noted in Chapter 3, some items were adapted from Silverberg et al. (2001) who aimed to measure the level of job satisfaction for volunteers in public parks and recreation. The items that were irrelevant with the rugby volunteers' sample were removed or slightly modified. The remaining items reflected the sport clubs' volunteering literature and the associated benefits associated with the sport volunteering experience, for example, as identified in Sport England (2003). All of the questions were rated on a seven point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

As shown in table 5.2.4, mean scores are typically above four, and close to five or six with standard deviations less than two, and often close to one. This suggests broad satisfaction with experiences. There are some nuances apparent in the data. The first is that lower means scores around three or four are typically

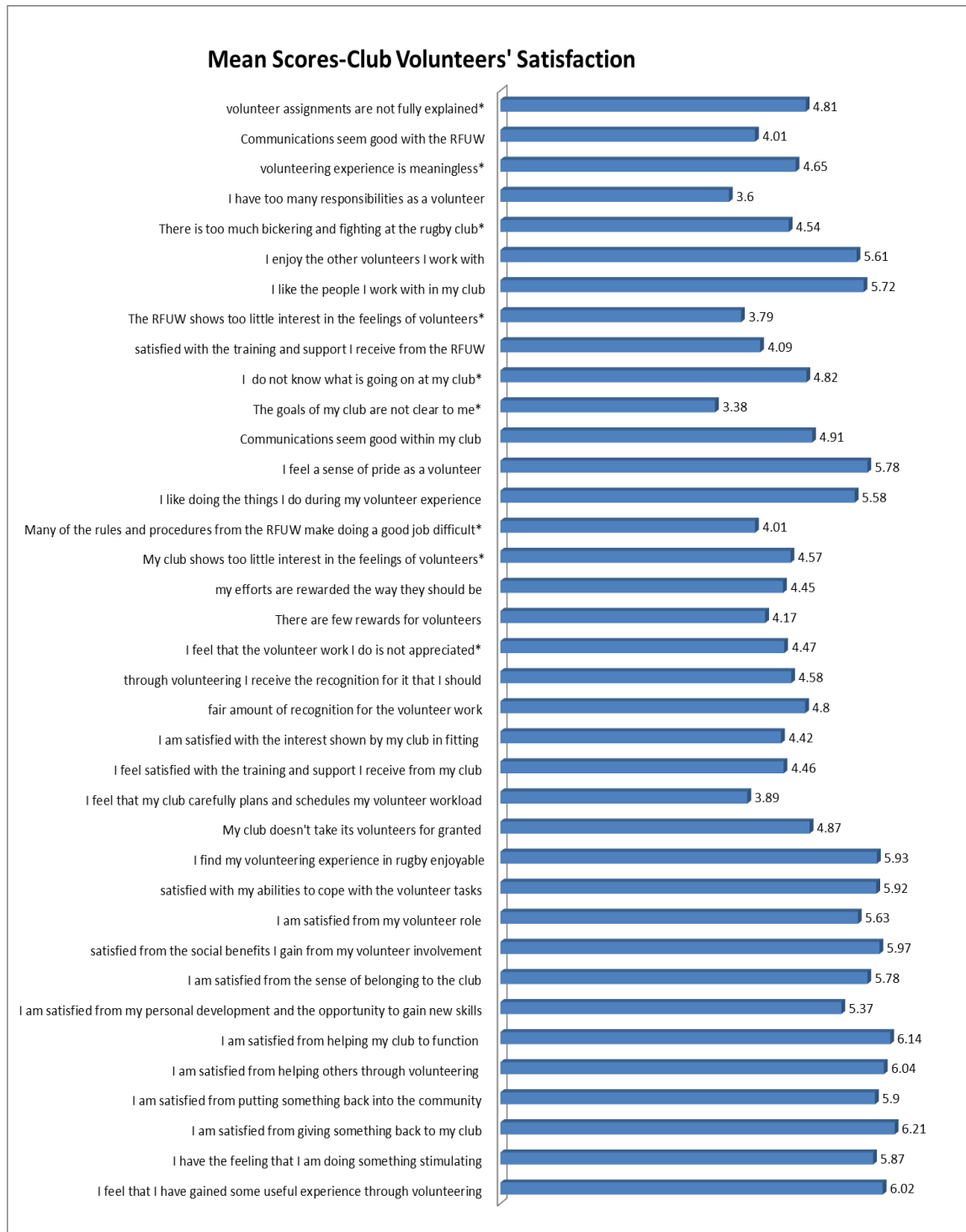
accompanied by higher standard deviations, indicating less uniformity in satisfaction. The second is that it is the items measuring negative experiences that typically fall into this category. This suggests that there is the possibility of a distinct subset of volunteers that have experienced lower satisfaction than others and hints at the potential relevance of dissatisfaction on future volunteering. The higher means scores above six appear to be broadly connected with satisfaction from the volunteering experience, the role undertaken in contributing to the community and helping the club to function, mean scores above five reflect satisfaction with the relationships with co-workers within the club and group integration, satisfaction with the opportunity for personal growth and participation efficacy, as well as satisfaction with the work assignment. Mean scores around four are typically connected with good relationships within the club, training and support received from the club and lower scores associated with job tasks, lack of organizational support, lack of rewards for volunteers and lack of communication in, and appreciation from, the club and the RFUW. The items can be identified from Table 5.2.4. Figure 5.2.4 provides a graphical representation of the mean satisfaction scores in an attempt to make it easier for the reader to interpret the results and understand the significance of each item for volunteers' satisfaction with their experience in women's rugby clubs in England.

**Table 5.2.4: Satisfaction Items: Summarised Responses**

<b>Item</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St.Dev</b>
I feel that I have gained some useful experience through volunteering in rugby	168	6.02	1.199
I have the feeling that I am doing something stimulating	168	5.87	1.128
I am satisfied from giving something back to my club	168	6.21	1.014
I am satisfied from putting something back into the community with volunteering	168	5.9	1.139
I am satisfied from helping others through volunteering in rugby	168	6.04	0.99
I am satisfied from helping my club to function successfully	167	6.14	1.049
I am satisfied from my personal development/opportunity to gain new skills	168	5.37	1.429
I am satisfied from the sense of belonging to the club and the community I have gained	167	5.78	1.262
I am satisfied from the social benefits I gain from my volunteer involvement in rugby	166	5.97	1.157
I am satisfied from my volunteer role	168	5.63	1.265
I feel satisfied with my abilities to cope with the volunteer tasks I am asked to do	167	5.92	1.092
I find my volunteering experience in rugby enjoyable and worthwhile	167	5.93	1.175
My club doesn't take its volunteers for granted	167	4.87	1.606
I feel that my club carefully plans and schedules my volunteer workload	167	3.89	1.552
I feel satisfied with the training and support I receive from my club	167	4.46	1.597
I am satisfied with the interest shown by my club in fitting activities to my preferences	164	4.42	1.401
I feel I receive a fair amount of the recognition for the volunteer work I do	166	4.8	1.453
When I do a good job in terms of volunteering I receive the recognition for it that I should	166	4.58	1.461
I do not feel that the volunteer work I do is appreciated*	167	4.47	1.689
There are few rewards for volunteers	164	4.17	1.653
I feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be	164	4.45	1.479
My club shows too little interest in the feelings of volunteers*	167	4.57	1.565
Many of the rules and procedures from the RFUW make doing a good job difficult*	157	4.01	1.410
I like doing the things I do during my volunteer experience	166	5.58	1.171
I feel a sense of pride as a volunteer with my rugby club	165	5.78	1.174
Communications seem good within my club	168	4.91	1.443
The goals of my club are not clear to me*	167	3.38	1.555
I often feel that I do not know what is going on at my club*	166	4.82	1.562
I feel satisfied with the training and support I receive from the RFUW	161	4.09	1.702
The RFUW shows too little interest in the feelings of volunteers*	157	3.79	1.585
I like the people I work with in my club	168	5.72	1.358
I enjoy the other volunteers I work with	167	5.61	1.348
There is too much bickering and fighting at the rugby club where I volunteer*	166	4.54	1.676
I have too many responsibilities as a volunteer	168	3.60	1.590
I sometimes feel my volunteering experience is meaningless*	167	4.65	1.755
Communications seem good with the RFUW	159	4.01	1.454
My volunteer assignments are not fully explained*	168	4.81	1.454
Valid N (listwise)	166		

\* These items were transformed with SPSS into positive statements for the analysis. The items were negatively written in the scale adapted from Silverberg & Marshall (2001).

**Figure 5.2.4. Club Volunteers' satisfaction-Mean Scores**



## **5.2.3. Dependent Variables**

### **5.2.3.1. Future Plans in Sports Volunteering**

Table 5.3 provides details of the dependent variables measuring the future behavioural intentions of the rugby clubs' volunteer sample as well as their rugby world cup volunteering. All of the variables except actual volunteering at the rugby world cup, 'rwc', were scored on a seven-point Likert scale with values ranging from "1 – strongly disagree" to "7- strongly agree". The statements that were used to investigate volunteers' future intentions were adapted from Downward and Ralston (2006), who sought to explore the future intentions of 2002 Manchester Commonwealth Games volunteers as a result of experiences at the event. In contrast, the variable "rwc" was a binary variable scored "1 – volunteered" and "0 - did not volunteer" as values. As the mean values of a binary variable are sample proportions, approximately 24%, (N=70) of the sample had actually volunteered for the 2010 Women's rugby world cup. Figure 5.3 provides a graphical illustration of the frequencies' distribution of the sample in each of the categories being measured with the Likert Scale to represent the level of agreement with the variables measuring the future behavioural intentions of the rugby clubs' volunteer sample. Data on the other variables indicate that there is also support for further volunteering intentions, but this tends to prioritize club activity, as indicated by a higher mean value and smaller standard deviation than is the case with future volunteering at rugby events and other sports events. The results reflect a positive attitude (Mean=4.76) towards major sport event volunteering (e.g. at the London 2012 Games), as an outcome of the club volunteering experience, while a stronger likelihood to volunteer for any rugby related event was reported (Mean=5.29). These results hint at the potential for the transfer of volunteer efforts across activities within the sport and in other sports. The implications of this for policy makers is that if club volunteering experience increases the level of sport event or club volunteering, then this can contribute to a network of trained and committed individuals who may be willing to offer their services in a wide array of activities. This potential is

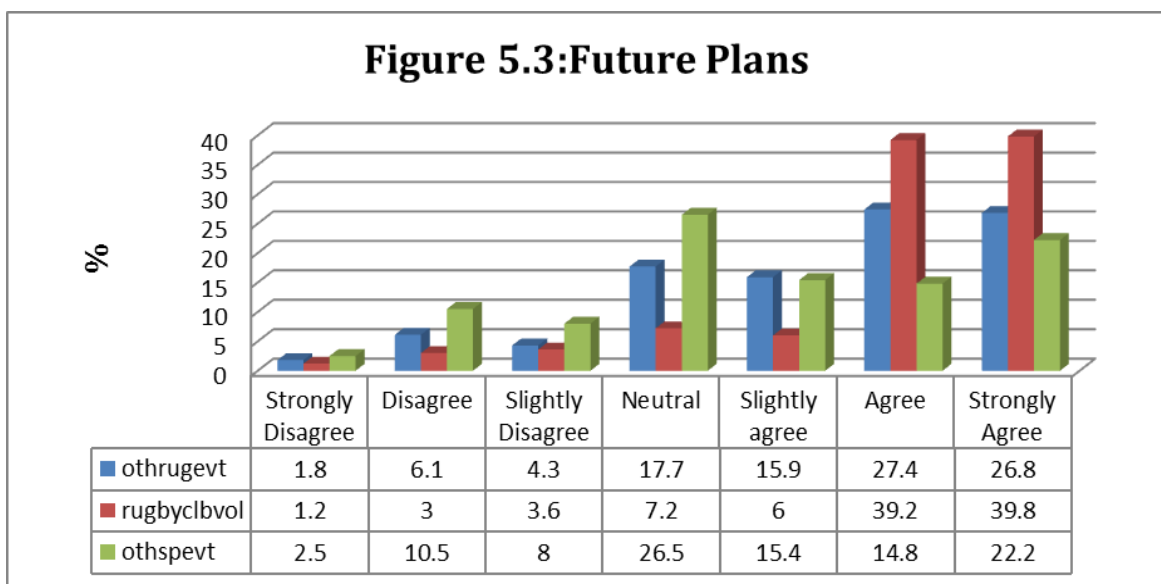
covered in subsequent sections of this chapter dealing with reporting the results of the exploratory factor and OLS and logistic multiple regression analyses.

**Table 5.3. Dependent Variables**

Variable Name	Description	Mean	Standard Deviation
rwc	Volunteered at the Rugby World Cup or not	0.235	0.426
othrugevt	I am willing to volunteer for any other rugby-related event	5.298	1.573
rugbyclbvol	I intend to continue volunteering at my rugby club	5.894	1.381
othspevt	I am willing to volunteer for any major sport event	4.764	1.708

N=161

**Figure 5.3. Future Plans of Club Volunteers' Sample**





### 5.3. Factor Analysis

To summarise and measure volunteer satisfaction with their experience all of the 37 items measuring satisfaction were analysed by principal component analysis (PCA). Incompletion of some items meant that for most variables only 141 cases were usable for the factor analysis.

An examination of the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy suggested that the data matrix was ideal for factor analysis (KMO=.861) which is above the recommended factorable value between .6 and .7 (Kaiser, 1974). Bartlett's test of sphericity suggested that the data matrix was significant at the .001 level  $\{\chi^2(406) = 2980,488, p < .001\}$ , indicating that factor analysis was appropriate for the current dataset, as the hypothesis that the variance and covariance of the scale items suggest an identity matrix, was rejected. Therefore, there are some relationships between the variables we want to include in the analysis (Field, 2005). Decisions on the number of factors to extract and the item loadings were based on the following guidelines in keeping with the literature and as discussed in section 4.5.1.6 of chapter 4: (a) factors had an eigenvalue which was greater than 1.0, (b) an item had a factor loading equal to or greater than 0.45 without having multiple loadings equal to or greater than 0.45 in other factors, (c) a factor was interpretable in terms of the loaded items and lastly (d) a factor had at least three items (Hair et al., 1990, 1998; Stevens, 1996). In order to optimise the factor structure and to equalise the contribution of each factor to the total variance, Varimax rotation was performed which makes the extracted components as independent of each other (uncorrelated) as possible (O'Donoghue, 2012). Despite recognising that the satisfaction items used in the research instrument of the current study are to some extent correlated, varimax rotation was chosen as the most appropriate solution to maximize the independence of the extracted factors, identify each variable with a single factor and to avoid as much as possible issues of multicollinearity in the subsequent regression analysis. Initially eight factors were extracted by considering their eigenvalues being greater than 1.0, as well as the percentage of the total variance

explained by each factor. However, three factors comprised either only two items, or had low reliability and these were eliminated from further analysis (Stevens, 1996). Follow-up runs of PCA were conducted and the items that did not meet Stevens (1992) criteria were eliminated. The final subsequent run of PCA resulted in a five factor solution. The five factors explained collectively 67.2% of the total variance in the data. In particular, factor 1 explained 29.2% of the variance, factor 2 explained 11.8%, and factor 3 contributed 9.3% to the total variance. Lastly, factor 4 and factor 5 explained 9% and 7.8% of the total variance respectively. The results of the final orthogonal rotation are shown in Table 5.4. The total variance explained by each factor and their reliability estimates are also presented.

**Table 5.4. Factor Analysis**

<b>satisfaction items</b>	<b>rolesatis</b>	<b>rewards1</b>	<b>communication</b>	<b>support</b>	<b>rewards2</b>
I feel that I have gained some useful experience through volunteering in rugby	0.781				
I have the feeling that I am doing something stimulating	0.827				
I am satisfied from giving something back to my club	0.696				
I am satisfied from putting something back into the community with volunteering	0.653				
I am satisfied from helping others through volunteering in rugby	0.825				
I am satisfied from helping my club to function successfully	0.787				
I am satisfied from my personal development and the opportunity to gain new skills	0.741				
I am satisfied from the sense of belonging to the club and the community I have gained	0.74				
I am satisfied from the social benefits I gain from my volunteer involvement in rugby	0.82				
I am satisfied from my volunteer role	0.759				
I feel satisfied with my abilities to cope with the volunteer tasks I am asked to do	0.691				
I find my volunteering experience in rugby enjoyable and worthwhile	0.809				
I like doing the things I do during my volunteer experience	0.651				
I feel a sense of pride as a volunteer with my rugby club	0.71				
I feel I receive a fair amount of the recognition for the volunteer work I do		0.891			
When I do a good job in terms of volunteering I receive the recognition for it that I should		0.858			
I feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be		0.773			
*My club shows too little interest in the feelings of volunteers			0.485		
*The goals of my club are not clear to me			0.865		
*I often feel that I do not know what is going on at my club			0.898		
*My volunteer assignments are not fully explained			0.72		
My club doesn't take its volunteers for granted					
I feel that my club carefully plans and schedules my volunteer workload					
I feel satisfied with the training and support I receive from my club				0.59	
I am satisfied with the interest shown by my club in fitting the volunteer tasks in my preferences				0.804	
Communications seem good within my club				0.662	
*I do not feel that the volunteer work I do is appreciated					0.756
There are few rewards for volunteers					0.828
*Many of the rules and procedures from the RFUW make doing a good job difficult					0.636
<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>	0.943	0.867	0.81	0.844	0.66
<b>Eigenvalues after Rotation</b>	8.472	3.423	2.697	2.627	2.276
<b>Total Variance After Rotation (%)</b>	29.214	11.803	9.301	9.057	7.848

**n = 141**

\* These items were transformed into positive statements with SPSS for the analysis stage. The items were worded negatively in the original satisfaction scale adapted from Silverberg & Marshall (2001).

### **5.3.1. Factor Interpretation**

The first factor comprises fourteen items. Based on the content of the loaded items, two broad categories of satisfaction are evident in factor 1. Some of the items reflect satisfaction from contributing to the club, from helping others and the community, as well as satisfaction from the volunteer role, the volunteering experience and the benefits associated with this volunteering involvement. Therefore, factor 1 was labelled “Satisfaction with the volunteer role and the contribution” (rolesatisf).

The second factor comprises three items. It is evident that the items contained at the second factor reflect satisfaction from volunteering gained by feeling appreciated and rewarded for the volunteers’ efforts. Therefore, the second factor was labelled “Satisfaction with contingent rewards” (rewards1).

The third factor comprises four items. These reflect a broader dissatisfaction with communications within women’s volunteers’ rugby clubs. This is evident by the items that constitute factor 3, which suggest lack of clarity of the club’s goals and what it aims to achieve, lack of awareness of the volunteer assignments, lack of awareness of the operating conditions and the organizational structure within the club and volunteers’ belief that the club does not care enough for their individual feelings. Therefore, the third factor was labelled “dissatisfaction with communications” (communication).

The three items that comprise factor 4 reflect volunteers’ satisfaction with the support received from the club in order to perform their volunteer duties such as feeling that their efforts are not taken for granted, that the club is determined to meet their preferences in matching volunteer tasks with their skills and capabilities, satisfaction with communications within the club and satisfaction with training and support provided by the club in performing their volunteer duties effectively. Therefore, factor 3 was labelled “Satisfaction with clubs’ support” (support).

Three items comprise factor 5. These items reflect volunteers' dissatisfaction with lack of appreciation and rewards for their efforts, and for the operating conditions of running rugby clubs following the procedures of the RFUW. Therefore, factor 5 was labelled "dissatisfaction with volunteers' appreciation" (rewards2).

Significantly, the communication and rewards2 factors measure elements of dissatisfaction connected with club organisation and communications and the lack of reward for volunteers.

### **5.3.1.1. Factor Mean Scores and Standard Deviations**

Mean scores and standard deviations for each of the satisfaction factors with the club experience were calculated in SPSS. Table 5.3.1.1 provides a summary of the mean scores and standard deviations for each factor. For a factor to be considered as important in contributing to the satisfaction of the volunteers involved with a women's rugby club in England, a score of 4.0 or higher, on a 7 point scale was deemed appropriate, while at the same time achieving a relatively low standard deviation score. The most important factor contributing to the volunteers' satisfaction with the club experience as indicated in the descriptive analysis is the factor related to the volunteer role and the contribution, followed by the rewards1, support, communication and rewards2 factors. These results provide supporting evidence that although volunteers feel satisfied with their role and the opportunity to give something back to the clubs and help others, more effort is needed from the club authorities and the RFUW to support their volunteers, through the provision of training opportunities, induction and orientation to the club procedures and culture, as well as to communicate clearly with them the club's goals and what is expected from them to accomplish. Finally, clubs and the RFUW authorities need to show that volunteers' efforts are not taken for granted and their contribution is appreciated.

**Table 5.3.1.1. Descriptive Statistics of Satisfaction Factors**

Club' Satisfaction Factors	Mean	Std. Deviation
Satisfaction with the role & the contribution	5.87	1.160
Satisfaction with contingent rewards	4.61	1.464
Dissatisfaction with communications	4.40	1.534
Satisfaction with clubs' support	4.60	1.480
Dissatisfaction with volunteers' appreciation	4.22	1.584

### 5.3.2. Reliability Analysis

The internal consistency of each satisfaction factor was assessed by estimating Cronbach's reliability alpha. Kortina (1993) suggests that the value of  $\alpha$  depends on the number of the items on the scale. Therefore, scales with a lot of items tend to have higher  $\alpha$  scores. As Cronbach (1951) suggested, when several factors exist then the test should be applied separately to each factor and then to them overall. Correlations between an item and the sum of all other items in each identified satisfaction factor were above 0.40. The Cronbach's Alpha reliabilities for each of the extracted factors ranged from 0.66 to 0.94. As the current study follows a broadly exploratory research framework, in keeping with the literature, a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.60 was adopted as acceptable (Hair et al., 1998; Suhr & Shay, 2009). The findings demonstrate that the implemented satisfaction scale was a reliable instrument (Borg, Gall & Gall, 1993; Nunally, 1978). In particular, Factor 1, "satisfaction with the volunteer and the contribution" had an alpha of 0.94, "satisfaction with contingent rewards" factor had an alpha of 0.86. The factor "dissatisfaction with communications" had an alpha of 0.81. The factor Satisfaction with clubs' support achieved an alpha value of 0.84. Finally, factor 5, "dissatisfaction with volunteers' appreciation" had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.66. Convergent validity was also achieved as each of the items loaded significantly on its specified factor (Anderson & Gerbing, 1998).

## 5.4. Regression Analysis

In this section results of the regression analysis are presented. The regressions examine the impact of the club volunteer's satisfaction with, and motivation for, volunteering, their engagement with sport, and the volunteer's socio-demographic characteristics upon the decision to volunteer for the women's rugby world cup, and intentions to volunteer further for rugby events, the rugby club and other sports events.

In the regression analysis the available sample was 131 responses, which comprised the maximum set of observations across all of the variables analysed for this purpose. This further reduces what is a small sample as noted earlier. Now, rules of thumb for regression analysis, often suggest that a ratio of five observations to one variable is required<sup>6</sup> (Hair et al., 2006). Thirty three covariates are used to measure motivation, socio-economic characteristics, sports engagement and satisfaction with volunteering which suggests a required sample size of 165, closer to the largest sample for some of the variables. However, it can be shown that for a multiple regression, based on a widely accepted level of the power of a test of 0.8, a significance level of five per cent, the 33 covariates to be employed in the study, and a conventionally "large" effect size of 0.35, a minimum sample size is 100 observations (Cohen, 1988).

This coupled with the interpretability of the results discussed below, indicates that the analysis has some reliability.

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<sup>6</sup> Larger samples more accurately represent the characteristics of the populations from which they are derived. Sample sizes for regression models are generally based on two approaches: (1) Rules of thumb, involving the number of independent variables to be included in the model are often used in psychometric research to obtain accurate sample sizes for regression analysis (Cohen, 1988; Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Green, 1991). However, these should be interpreted with caution as (2) Sample sizes based on effect sizes (betas or correlations for linear regression, adjusted odds ratios for logistic regression should also be considered for determining the power of a test (Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

**Table 5.4. Regression Analyses**

	rcw	Marginal Effect	othrugevt	rugbyclbvol	othspevt
rolesatisf	0.738** (2.09)	0.348	0.217 (1.26)	0.442*** (3.56)	0.336** (2.18)
rewards1	-0.512 (-1.36)		-0.0297 (-0.22)	0.195 (1.52)	-0.205 (-1.32)
communication	1.870*** (4.18)	0.088	0.390*** (2.69)	-0.0621 (-0.53)	0.287* (1.64)
support	0.811* (1.84)	0.038	-0.0505 (-0.31)	-0.0431 (-0.37)	0.295 (1.57)
rewards2	-0.450 (-1.12)		-0.127 (-1.12)	-0.0750 (-0.70)	0.0134 (0.10)
plyrugby	2.235* (1.79)	0.099	0.172 (0.40)	0.00711 (0.02)	0.189 (0.42)
plyothsp	-0.854 (-1.05)		-0.344 (-0.95)	0.210 (0.79)	0.0648 (0.18)
type	-0.640 (-0.63)		-0.485 (-1.26)	-0.223 (-1.00)	-0.0873 (-0.21)
years	-0.121* (-1.71)	-0.006	0.00107 (0.04)	0.0170 (0.93)	0.0187 (0.70)
hrsseason	0.239 (1.45)		0.00157 (0.03)	-0.0262 (-0.68)	-0.0220 (-0.36)
hrsnotseason	-0.220 (-1.41)		0.0108 (0.20)	0.0291 (0.68)	0.0171 (0.23)
othvol	1.016 (1.29)		0.128 (0.31)	-0.437 (-1.52)	0.582 (1.33)
myneeds	-0.620 (-1.60)		-0.104 (-0.54)	-0.163* (-1.73)	0.0689 (0.34)
othneeds	1.345*** (2.57)	0.063	-0.253* (-1.77)	0.0546 (0.58)	-0.353** (-2.48)
paidwork	0.617 (1.39)		-0.166 (-1.11)	0.0516 (0.42)	-0.0836 (-0.50)
community	-0.300 (-0.66)		0.188 (1.16)	0.00298 (0.02)	0.0899 (0.54)
help	0.916 (1.59)		0.0509 (0.22)	-0.395** (-2.15)	0.380* (1.85)
friends	0.158 (0.22)		0.496** (2.17)	0.334** (2.24)	0.245 (1.02)
asked	-0.407 (-0.80)		0.0730 (0.54)	-0.100 (-1.13)	0.107 (0.65)
hadtime	1.210** (2.18)	0.057	-0.283 (-1.84)	0.191 (1.63)	0.00375 (0.02)
offered	0.282 (0.74)		0.344** (2.35)	0.121 (1.25)	0.126 (0.76)
clubstart	-0.374 (-1.27)		-0.0885 (-0.68)	-0.118 (-1.10)	-0.0691
goodatit	0.673 (1.17)		-0.0843 (-0.46)	0.0910 (0.46)	-0.239 (-1.16)
gender	0.725		0.540	0.226	0.626



	(0.64)		(1.43)	(0.93)	(1.44)
children	-0.660		-0.0680	0.508	0.0220
	(-0.57)		(-0.17)	(1.63)	(0.05)
ethnicity	7.245***	0.079	1.135**	1.741***	1.470***
	(2.56)		(2.32)	(3.98)	(2.99)
education	2.699***	0.118	-0.516	0.0486	-0.418
	(2.64)		(-1.62)	(0.18)	(-1.15)
Fulltime	-4.950**	-0.708	0.734	-0.311	0.226
	(-2.01)		(0.92)	(-0.46)	(0.31)
Parttime	-2.958		1.468	-0.346	0.772
	(-1.14)		(1.56)	(-0.44)	(0.86)
Student	-6.857*	-0.058	1.034	0.715	0.0992
	(-1.78)		(1.06)	(0.86)	(0.11)
Retired	1.924		2.116**	0.720	0.878
	(0.94)		(2.38)	(1.15)	(0.92)
age1824	0.590		1.096	0.689	2.694***
	(0.29)		(1.45)	(0.99)	(3.27)
age2534	-2.603		1.153	0.703	1.789**
	(-1.21)		(1.42)	(1.08)	(2.25)
age3544	-1.162		0.594	-0.0599	1.708**
	(-0.55)		(0.81)	(-0.09)	(2.11)
age4559	-0.176		0.364	0.716	1.003
	(-0.11)		(0.57)	(1.40)	(1.57)
_cons	-18.82**		1.998	4.061***	-0.198
	(-3.10)		(1.38)	(4.01)	(-0.14)
n	131		131	131	131
R <sup>2</sup>			0.367	0.446	0.394
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.551				
Wald $\chi^2(35)$	49.83**				
F (35, 95)			3.11**	4.63***	4.91***

*t* statistics in parentheses

\*  $p < 0.1$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$

Table 5.5 provides the regression results for each of the dependent variables, which are given at the top of the relevant column. As “*rwc*” is a binary variable, a logistic regression was employed. In the other cases of Likert scales, ordinary least squares (OLS) regression was employed<sup>7</sup>. For each model the table presents

<sup>7</sup> It is common practice to treat ordinal scales as either nominal, through recoding or continuous. This depends in part on the type of analysis that is sought. Likert scales are a typical example of ordinal scales, and a common practice to treat them as continuous. When the Likert Scale consists of 5 or more categories, then there is relatively little harm in treating it as continuous. Some researchers also treat Likert scales as continuous when there are 4 ordinal categories, despite this often being problematic. This distinction applies particularly to the dependent variable used in the analysis, not in the response categories used in the survey where multiple items are combined, e.g. for calculating the mean or sum (Johnson & Creech, 1983; Zumbo & Zimmerman, 1993). In the case of the current study, it is considered legitimate to treat them as continuous, following the rationale of similar studies in the field such as of Downward and Ralston (2006).

estimated coefficients and the corresponding (asymptotic) “z” or “t” values. The latter are all calculated using robust standard errors to control for potential problems of heteroscedasticity. This might arise because of the use of cross-section data, due to subpopulation differences or because error terms are not independent and identically distributed (e.g. this normally occurs when the sample is not collected at random which may lead to the participants having similar characteristics between each other which would not be the case if they were randomly selected) (Berry & Feldman, 1985). Issues of heteroscedasticity may also be present when measurement of the dependent variables takes place on truncated scales (Berry & Feldman, 1985). The table also details the sample sizes as “n”. The “pseudo”  $R^2$  along with the corresponding Wald test statistic, which tests the null hypothesis that the “pseudo”  $R^2$  is equal to zero, are also presented for the logistic regression. The corresponding  $R^2$  and F statistic for the OLS regressions are also presented. For ease of interpretation, significant variables at the 1%, 5% and 10% level are reported and are indicated by “\*\*\*”, “\*\*” and “\*” respectively. In the case of the logistic regression, for “rwc”, marginal effects are presented for significant variables, to indicate the scale of effects; that is the probability of volunteering for the rugby world cup, for a given unit change in the independent variable concerned. All VIF statistics were below 10 with the vast majority of variables less than 2, which is indicative of no serious multicollinearity in the results. Nonetheless the oldest age-group was dropped in the estimation because of no variation in the data and consequent collinearity with the constant. The fact that this occurs for the oldest age groups is to be expected.

Before commenting on the specific results it is worth recalling the hypotheses under investigation. The first is that it is expected that the general determinants of volunteering, such as satisfaction, motivations, sports engagement and socio-economic characteristics, will not only be relevant for further VSC volunteering, will also be relevant for the transfer of effort to volunteering across contexts, that is to their becoming engaged in events. This might stem from bonding social capital developing into bridging social capital. However, it is also hypothesised that the impetus to volunteer, for example stemming from altruism and self-

interest, might mean that a volunteer is prepared to transfer their efforts to another context, even if the current experience has not been satisfactory. The results from the research support these hypotheses.

To begin with, to a greater or lesser extent, specific variables measuring satisfaction, sports engagement, motivation and socio-economic factors affects each of the dependent variables. This can be illustrated by examining each equation in turn.

For “rwc”, the analysis suggests that for the satisfaction with the volunteer role and the contribution, dissatisfaction with the communications within clubs and satisfaction with support within the clubs raises the likelihood of the club volunteers having volunteered for the women’s rugby world cup. For the sports engagement variables, currently playing rugby enhances the chance of volunteering for the rugby world cup. However, this is not the case for years volunteering. This perhaps indicates the relative uniqueness of the rugby world cup as well as the opportunity costs of time.

The latter is also suggested in consideration of the motivation variables in which as well as looking to meet others’ needs, which captures the usual altruism of volunteering, time availability expressed as having time to spare increases the probabilities of volunteering at the event. The socio-economic variables confirm that white British are more likely to volunteer in sport and for the world cup, as with respondents having a higher education profile. Significantly being in full-time work and being a student are factors that reduce the probability of having volunteered for the world cup. This suggests that both the lack of time and income might have constrained opportunities to volunteer and the transfer of effort across contexts, and is again perhaps linked to the uniqueness of the event.

The OLS results for “othrugevt” show that for the satisfaction variables, dissatisfaction with communications within the club would promote a greater intention to volunteer for another rugby event. None of the sports engagement variables are significant. For the motivation variables, moreover, and consistent with the literature, significant determinants are connected with the personal

objectives of seeking to make friends but there is also evidence of altruism by offering to help, and then in meeting the needs of current friends and family. Being of white ethnicity and retired are the main socio-economic variables increasing the stated intention to volunteer at another rugby event. These results suggest a potential basis of future volunteering from those with more time availability because of different work status, and who see volunteering mostly in altruistic terms or for meeting their personal objectives. Clearly this is a target of potential event-volunteer recruits.

The regression results examining future intentions to continue volunteering in the club, 'rugbyclubvol', show that satisfaction with the roles undertaken and the contribution is significant for the satisfaction variables. An altruistic motivation is potentially identified in that having the personal needs of the volunteer being met by the volunteer experience reduces the intention of further volunteering in the club. However, there is also evidence of self-interest, as discussed in the literature. This is because volunteers are also more likely to express an intention to increase their volunteering in the future as a result of seeking to make friends rather than to help others, which would logically include their current friends. Being of white ethnicity is the only socio-economic variable that is significant.

The final set of regression results examine the intention of volunteers to offer to become engaged in other sport events, measured as "othspevt". The satisfaction variables are also consistent with the results for actual rugby world cup volunteering. In particular, the satisfaction variables that are significant include satisfaction with current roles and also with dissatisfaction with communications within the clubs. None of the sports engagement variables are significant. The motivation variables are suggestive of less altruism. As with "othrugevt", having a motivation to meet the needs of others in the family is negatively signed and this is shown to reduce the stated intention. This implies that volunteering in another sport is less associated with volunteers' current constituencies, where they have formed tight-knit relationships and in which family and friends are more likely to be located or have connections. However, this does not mean that an altruistic motivation is missing, as seeking to help others is, in contrast, a positive impact on intentions to volunteer. Clearly this is an issue to take into

account when seeing to recruit volunteers. Males are also more likely to volunteer, as suggested in the literature and, finally, age groups from 18 to 24 years up to 35 to 44 years are more likely to offer to volunteer in this context. This suggests that across all ages, satisfaction from volunteering in one sport could be a basis for harnessing volunteer activity in another sport. As with the other contexts, having a white British ethnicity is more likely to increase intentions to volunteer for another sports event, other than rugby, but there is also evidence of age effects unlike in the other regressions.

Overall, therefore, there is evidence that both the retention of club-volunteering effort, as well as its transfer to other contexts is affected by volunteer satisfaction as experienced through the club. There is also evidence of altruistic motivations, in seeking to help others, and not necessarily those such as family or pre-existing friends. Sports engagement and the socioeconomic context also affect the results, but less generally. Collectively these results suggest statistical support for the hypothesised impact of variables that affect VSC activity, as well as the potential to transfer volunteer effort across contexts as stated earlier in Chapters 1 and 2.

It is also apparent, however, that there are some variations in the emphasis of the results. For example, sports engagement was only significant for actual volunteering at the rugby world cup. It was also only evident here that previous volunteering experience was less likely to promote (world-cup) volunteering and that the motivation of “having time” was more likely to do so, as was meeting the needs of existing friends and family. This suggests that the volunteering activity associated with this major international sports event for women’s rugby, compared to the other contexts, had a degree of greater spontaneity and uniqueness associated with it and primarily draws upon existing club connections. The former might also explain why the income and time constraints associated with working full-time work and being a student also both had a negative influence on actual volunteering at the event, but not in the other contexts.

In contrast, in the analysis of other rugby events, which is most likely to include local festivals and regional tournaments, older retired volunteers were more

likely to express an intention for further volunteering. The significant motivations were also to create and make friends rather than to help current family. Making friends also appears to be one of the main motivations for further intended club volunteering, and this suggests that a degree of self-interest is predominant. This is because if club volunteering meets volunteer needs, they are less likely to continue volunteering in the future. This reduced intention is also the case in connection with the motivation of seeking to help others. These results suggest that with club volunteering, a degree of satiation of future intended activity can occur, once the needs to make friends are met.

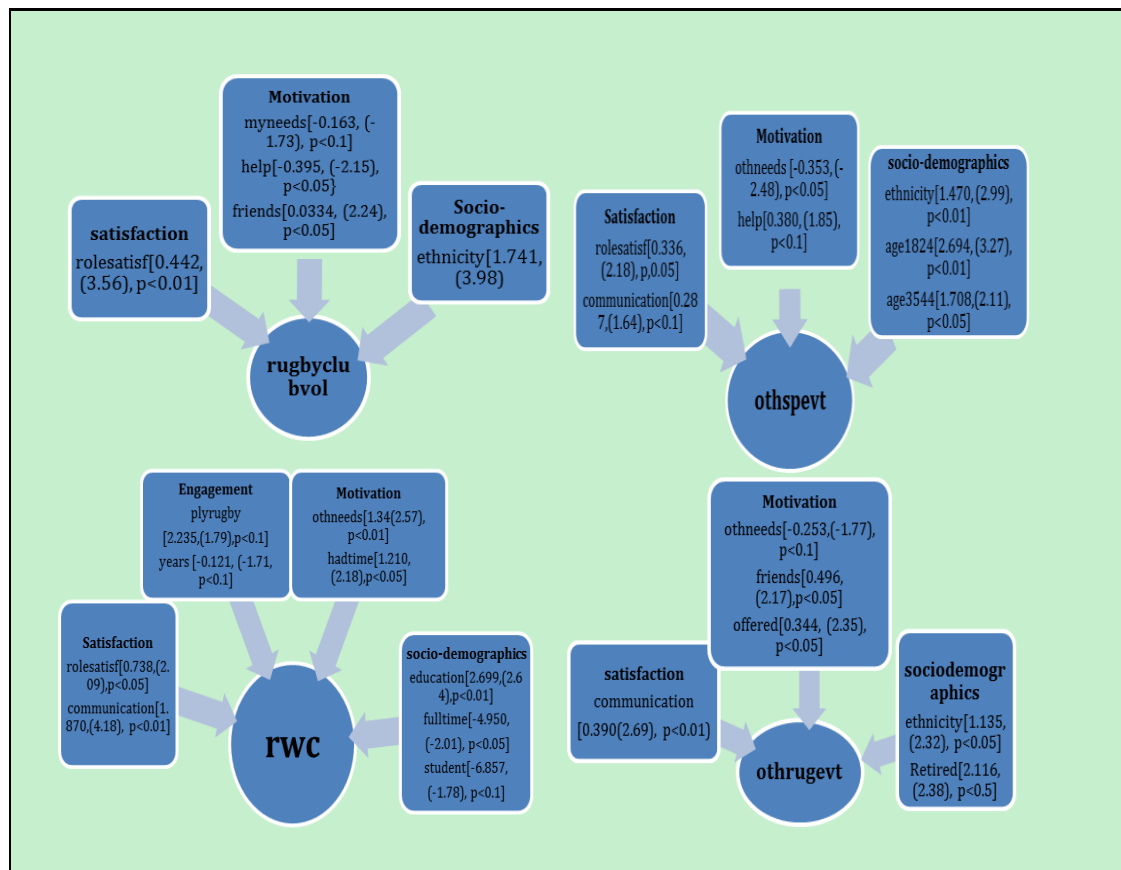
Finally, it is only with the results for other sports events that significant age effects are identified. They indicate that intentions to volunteer for other sports events are most likely for the younger to middle-aged groups. As sports event volunteering is often seen as a pathway for future career development, this explains why younger age volunteers are more likely to intent to volunteer for such events. As no age effects are significant in the rugby volunteering equations, this suggests that variations in age have no obvious effect on volunteer behaviour within the sport, but transferring volunteering activity to other sports could be age limited. This could of course, reflect a reluctance of older volunteers to move across contexts, as well as the commitments that older volunteers will typically have in their sport.

These results consequently imply that despite the general applicability of the established framework by which satisfaction, motivations, sports engagement and socio-economic circumstances affect volunteer behaviour, and can be employed to examine the transfer of effort across contexts, considerable nuance exists depending on that context. Indeed further variation in the results also provides support for the further hypothesis noted above, in which it is argued that the general drives to volunteer, for example stemming from altruism and self-interest, might mean that a volunteer is prepared to transfer their efforts to another context, even if the current experience has not been satisfactory.

In this regard, the communication factor, as one of the satisfaction variables, as noted earlier, actually records a lack of communication and organisation in the

club and yet it is shown to have a positive effect on either rugby world cup volunteering, or intentions to volunteer at other rugby events, or other sports events but not future club volunteering. In this context there is a negative, but insignificant effect. This means that there are “push” factors to volunteering in other contexts that arise from unsatisfactory club volunteering, that could both reduce this, but also imply some substitution of effort to a different context rather than the building of a complementary set of interests and community. Figure 5.4 below summarizes the main findings of the club volunteers’ analysis. As it is shown there, satisfaction affects the findings collectively while engagement with the sport was only significant in the “rwc” case.

**Figure 5.4. Summary of the Key Findings of the Model**



**Note:** The bracketed items show the correlation coefficients, z and t values for logistic or OLS regression and the level of significance used in each case.

## 5.5. Conclusion

The analysis in this chapter provides some quantitative evidence of the hypotheses formed to support the research aim and objectives of the current study. In particular, the current chapter aimed to examine the actual impact of club volunteering experiences in promoting future VSC and event volunteering activity. More specifically, it first addressed whether motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background and sports engagement of volunteers, as well as their satisfaction of volunteering within women rugby clubs will promote further volunteering in the club context. Second, this chapter answered whether motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background and sports engagement of volunteers, as well as their satisfaction of volunteering within women rugby clubs also contribute and promote the transfer of volunteer efforts across other sporting contexts such as events.

The analysis focused upon a sample of volunteers involved at the women's rugby clubs system in England taking part in the National League Structure, with a percentage of those having volunteered for the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup held in London in August 2010. As noted in chapter 3, 150 clubs were identified as taking part in the National League Structure of Women's rugby and 100 of those had an active online page which facilitated the survey distribution to the relevant volunteers. In summary, the current chapter aimed to provide a comprehensive descriptive analysis of women's rugby clubs volunteer characteristics, their engagement to the sport generally and with rugby in particular, their volunteering pursuits and experiences in rugby or other contexts as well as their motivation and satisfaction with such experiences. The sentiments expressed in the review of the sports volunteering literature provided further supporting evidence of the results of the current study confirming that sport clubs' volunteers in general come from certain constituencies and their behaviour is to an extent predicted by their past and present sport and volunteering experiences, engagement to the sport, motivations and satisfaction with volunteering experiences. These determinants of volunteering were found in the current study as contributing to a greater or



lesser extent to the volunteers' future behaviour in similar contexts such as in the continuation or satiation of club volunteering as well as to the transfer of their effort across different contexts such as in other rugby or sport event volunteering activity as a result of developing bonding social capital into bridging social capital and reflecting the desire to meet people and make friends coming from different constituencies through volunteering. Moreover, the desire to meet personal needs and helping others to meet their needs for sports participation or in other words the combination of altruistic and egoistic reasons suggest that the potential for the transfer of volunteering effort across contexts is also relevant if the needs of volunteers haven't been met in one context and hence volunteers seek satisfaction through the substitution of their efforts. Therefore, the current study apart from confirming the existing literature, also added on the body of knowledge by suggesting that certain factors can either promote future volunteering in different contexts or may mitigate volunteers' desire to get involved in other contexts.

However, as expected and confirmed both in the descriptive analysis and further in the regression analyses, this substitution of volunteering effort and the desire to get involved in other volunteering contexts is often constrained by lack of time availability as well as financial resources. For example, in the case of the "rwc" participants were more likely to have volunteered for the event if they had time, while being in full-time employment or full-time education constrained them from doing so. Moreover, in the case of "otherugevt" retired volunteers were more likely to express an intention to volunteer in such contexts, which clearly relates to more time availability. This is an area of concern and suggests that policy decisions should be taken from the relevant authorities in order to recruit and retain the volunteer workforce. Overall these findings can help to inform policies not only on specific organizations such as the RFUW which seek to recruit and retain volunteers for meeting their mass participation and elite performance commitments but also as an intervention in helping to establish a link between different volunteering opportunities where individuals' leisure expectations are met and hence the potential of volunteering in developing social capital is being harnessed. The current study proceeds with Chapter 6 with an

analysis assessing the future volunteering intentions of the volunteers involved at the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup.

# Chapter Six

## Results of 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup Volunteers Analysis

### 6.1. Introduction

Following Chapter 5, the purpose of this chapter is to illustrate the results of the descriptive analysis and inferential statistics analysis of a sample of individuals who volunteered for the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup held in London in August 2010. As implied in Chapter 1 which dealt with the introduction to the study and Chapter 3 that addressed the methodological underpinnings of this research project, the results of this chapter facilitates four main objectives. The first is to examine and describe the participants' characteristics that volunteered for the 2010 WRWC event and based on these to draw on conclusions of whether the sample is representative of the wider women rugby volunteers' population in England. The second is to explore and identify volunteers' experiences at the event such as the contributing motivating factors that initiated their involvement with the event, satisfaction with their volunteering experience at the event, their past and current sport and volunteering engagement experiences as well as their future behaviour in volunteering. In particular, the hypotheses under investigation in this chapter are that the above factors determine and impact upon volunteers' future behaviour as well as to the transfer of volunteers' efforts across different contexts such as club volunteering or other sport event volunteering. The third objective of the study is to explore the linkages between volunteers' experiences at the event and in rugby clubs and how these may impact upon the recruitment, retention and development of volunteers in women's rugby as well as on their future volunteering behaviour.

Fourth, this thesis based on the analysis of the data aims to make potential recommendations regarding the recruitment and retention of rugby volunteers in order to develop a volunteer pool that is willing to contribute to the sport in a wide range of activities than just rugby events. Descriptive statistics were first utilized to establish the demographic profile of volunteers at the event as well as to outline their previous and current experiences as sport participants and volunteers. Second, descriptive statistics were then used to examine the importance of each of the volunteer motivation, satisfaction, expectations and future intentions items through calculating their mean and standard deviations. The descriptive statistics analysis is reported in sections 6.3 and 6.4 of the current chapter. The analysis then proceeds with section 6.5 that reports the results of the exploratory factor analysis that was used to summarize volunteers' motivation and satisfaction with the event experience as well the interpretation of each one of the emerging factors. Section 6.6 of this chapter presents the results of the regression analyses where all the determinants of volunteering are combined in order to assess their impacts upon event volunteers' future behaviour. Finally, the findings are then summarized in section 6.8 that concludes this Chapter.

## **6.2. Context, Data and Variables**

### **6.2.1. Population, Sampling and Data Collection**

As detailed in Chapter 3, the event survey participants were approached at two different stages in time, prior to the event in order to assess their current and past volunteering and sport experiences and motivations to volunteer for the event, as well as after the completion of the event in order to assess their satisfaction with the experience from volunteering at the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup. This was facilitated by encouraging those that took part in the pre-event survey to disclose their email addresses should a follow-up survey takes place after the completion of the event.

Data from the RFUW suggest that approximately 300 volunteers assisted with the events' operations. The sample of the current study included 70 individuals which equates to a 23.3% response rate. As noted in Chapter 3, data protection policies of the RFUW did not allow access to the database with the contact details of the 2010 WRWC volunteers and hence this constrained the sampling frame and the gathering of data from more participants. Therefore, the 70 individuals were obtained first by being approached directly by RFUW representatives through e-mail invitations to complete the survey and those that agreed to take part in the study were then, secondly, directly approached by email to take part in the post event survey. As noted in Chapter 5, this sample size is small and falls below that of the regression analysis conducted there. However, as the population of volunteers in women's rugby is small, analysis proceeded with the general caveat that the results should be treated with caution.

## 6.3. Independent Variables

### 6.3.1. Socio-Demographics

Table 6.3.1 summarizes the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample. The variables, as with the clubs' volunteers sample, are measured as binary values, with the mean values indicating the sample proportions of the respective categories being measured. The data reveal a balanced gender distribution between male and female as 35 of the participants were male and 35 were female. Six age categories reveal that the majority of volunteers (35.7%) came from the age group 18-24 with 28.6% from the second largest age group of 45-59. As expected at an event context, the age groups suggest skewed distributions within the sample (Doherty, 2005). The data also reveal a high incidence of degree-level education for the majority of respondents as 61.4%, were educated to degree-level or higher. A large percentage (57.1%) of the respondents stated that they were in full-time employment at the time of the survey, followed by 15.7% in part-time occupations, 12.9% being students, 8.6% retired and 5.7% being unemployed. The respondents were predominantly white British (93%). The vast majority of respondents (81%) had no dependent children living at home. This is perhaps indicative of the younger age background of the volunteers involved with the event followed by those volunteers at the 45 to 59 age range who tend to have children that are grown up and do not live any longer under their dependency. These results confirm the sentiments expressed in the literature review that event volunteers tend to come from a younger age profile and are less motivated to volunteer for sports as a result of children associated with the sport as it may be the case in the sports clubs context. From the 19% of the sample who answered that they have dependent children under the age of 16 living at home, 10% had children aged 10-15 years, followed by 7.1% with children 2-4 years, 1.4% with children under 2 years and 1.4% with children from 5 to 9 years old. Out of the 19% of volunteers with dependent children, 10.2% of this total belongs to the age range 35 to 44 years, 4.3% comes from the age range between 45 to 59 years of age, 2.9% belongs to the age range 18 to 24 years and 1.4% comes from the 60 to 69 age range.

**Table 6.3.1: Socio-demographic variables**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev</b>
Gender	'1 Male, 0 Female'	0.500	0.504
Children	Have children '1 Yes, 0 No'	0.19	0.392
Ethnicity	'1 White British, 0 Other ethnicity'	0.930	0.259
Education	'1 Degree level education, 0 Other'	0.610	0.490
Fulltime	'1 Full time work, 0 Not'	0.571	0.498
Parttime	'1 Part time work, 0 Not'	0.157	0.366
Student	'1 Student, 0 Not'	0.129	0.337
Retired	'1 Retired, 0 Not'	0.086	0.281
Unemployed	'1 Unemployed, 0 Not'	0.057	0.204
age1824	'1 Aged 18 to 24 years, 0 Not'	0.357	0.482
age2534	'1 Aged 25 to 34 years, 0 Not'	0.142	0.352
age3544	'1 Aged 35 to 44 years, 0 Not'	0.142	0.455
age4559	'1 Aged 45 to 59 years, 0 Not'	0.285	0.455
age6069**	'1 Aged 60 to 69 years, 0 Not'	0.071	0.259

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\*\*Aged 70 years and above is omitted category

When comparing the demographic characteristics of the club volunteers' sample with the 2010 WRWC volunteers, similar patterns are revealed generally. It is evident, that in both samples an equal gender representation is shown, which is indicative of the gender representation of the participants of the specific sport concerned, as generally males are overrepresented in sports volunteering compared to females. However, in terms of the employment status, it is evident that a larger percentage of the club volunteers are in full time employment

compared to the event volunteers. Moreover, a larger percentage of the event volunteers come from groups less likely to commit to sports club volunteering, for example, part-time employees, students and retired. This could indicate that a large percentage of volunteers are committed to project-based volunteering than career volunteering, due to time availability and financial resources. Another interesting trend is revealed with regard to the age of the participants of the two surveys. The event volunteers tend to come from a younger age group, between 18 to 24 years compared to club volunteers who are more likely to volunteer when at the age group of 25 to 34 years. The second largest group of the event volunteers' sample comes from the age group of those between 45 to 59 years, which could indicate again the opportunity costs of time. Nichols and Shepherd (2006) also explained this, by stating that individuals between 45 to 59 years of age reduce their sport participation and seek substitutes. This difference in volunteers' behaviour might also be explained by the transitions and the differences in people's life stages (Nichols & Shepherd, 2006). As Doherty (2005) notes, individuals before the age of 35 focus on finishing their education or establish a career, which is supported by the current study, as the largest percentage of individuals who volunteered for the event were between 18 to 24 years.

### **6.3.2.Sports Participation and Volunteering Engagement**

Table 6.3.2 summarizes the sport and volunteering engagement of the event volunteers' sample. The sport participation and volunteering behaviour of the participants was assessed through a number of binary and continuous variables. A 54% of the sample currently played the game, with 34% of the respondents participating in other sports which shows a commitment to sports participation among the sample. The majority of the event volunteers (54%) confirmed their current involvement with club volunteering in rugby. However, from the remaining 46% of the event volunteers who were not involved in club volunteering at the time of the survey, approximately 26% stated that they were volunteering in rugby clubs in the past. Of the 54% of those who reported an active rugby-club involvement at the time of the survey, approximately 29% volunteered primarily for the women's game which equates to 9 individuals.



This reveals that the volunteers involved at the 2010 WRWC represent a wider rugby constituency, as the majority of them volunteered in other rugby contexts than women's rugby. Moreover, a larger percentage of the event volunteers volunteered elsewhere compared to the club volunteers' sample, which again shows that the volunteers involved at the WRWC were not necessarily involved in the women's rugby context. In terms of the volunteer role undertaken in rugby clubs, 20% of the event volunteers were involved in coaching for their respective rugby clubs, followed by 8.6% being match officials, 7.1% being secretaries, 2.9% volunteering as committee members, 2.9% being team captains and 12.9% involved in other volunteer roles not listed in the current survey. Skewed distributions of the years of involvement in, and hours volunteered at rugby clubs are revealed by the data, but a high level of volunteer commitment is evident both during and outside the rugby season, as an average of (Mean =4.60) hours is reported during rugby season, whilst volunteers commit slightly less hours to club volunteering outside the rugby season (Mean=3.60). Significantly, 44% of the respondents volunteered for other organizations, with 11.4% of those being involved in schools volunteering, 9.8% involved in other sport clubs, 9.8% involved in charities, 4.9% volunteering for uniformed groups and 1.6% of them were involved in religious groups. Interestingly, a large majority (63.9%) of the volunteers were involved in other organizations not listed in the current survey. These results suggest the potential of harnessing volunteer efforts across contexts as discussed in Chapter 5. Interestingly, a large majority (65%) of those involved in other volunteering contexts along with rugby, considered rugby as the most important voluntary activity they are involved with, which also reveals a certain attachment to the sport. The volunteers with previous (present and past) volunteering experience in the rugby clubs' system were also asked to indicate the extent of their satisfaction with the overall experience of being a club volunteer. This was measured in a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1-very dissatisfied to 5-very satisfied. An examination of the overall satisfaction with the rugby clubs' volunteering experience (Mean= 4.73) suggested that the sample was highly satisfied generally with their current or past experiences as volunteers in rugby.

**Table 6.3.2. Sports engagement and volunteering variables**

Variable Name	n	Description	Mean	St.Dev
<i>Engagement</i>				
plyrugby	70	Playing rugby '1 Yes, 0 No'	0.543	0.502
plyothsp	70	Playing other sport '1 Yes, 0 No'	0.343	0.478
Type	70	Volunteer in women's game '1 Yes, 0 No'	0.290	0.455
Currentlyvolunter	70	Currently volunteering in clubs '1 Yes, 0	0.543	0.502
pastvolunteering	37	No' Past volunteering in clubs '1 Yes, 0 No'	0.260	0.440
years	70	Years volunteering at the club	4.37	6.265
hrsseason	70	Weekly hours volunteering in season	4.60	6.102
hrsnotseason	70	Weekly hours volunteering out of season	3.59	5.058
othvol	70	Volunteer elsewhere ' 1 Yes, 0 No'	0.442	0.500
Importance	33	Rugby is more important '1Yes, 0 No'	0.479	0.485
Satisfaction	54	Range: '5 very satisfied to 1 very satisfied'	4.35	0.894

### 6.3.3. Event Motivation

The motivation scale that was drawn upon in this study was a modified version of Bang and Chelladurai (2003) scale for international sporting events that was originally applied in the context of the 2002 FIFA World Cup. The VMS-ISE suggests six dimensions of sport event volunteering: Expression of Values,

Patriotism, Interpersonal Contacts, Career orientation, Personal Growth, and Extrinsic rewards. These dimensions of volunteering reflect the general volunteer motivation literature, suggesting that volunteers are motivated by a combination of altruistic and egoistic factors as well as certain psychological functions that are met through voluntary activity (e.g., Clary et al., 1998; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Farmer & Fedor, 2001; Tedrick & Henderson, 1989). The literature on motivation of volunteers in international, special sports events suggests that motivations related to taking part in something unique, national pride, social networking, career orientation, personal growth and extrinsic rewards are also important drives of event volunteering (Andrew, 1996; Farrell et al., 1998; Johnston, Twynam, & Farrell, 1999, 2000; Preuss & Kebernik, 1999; Shibli, et al., 1999; Williams, et al., 1995). The present study includes another volunteering motivation dimension, named Love of Sport, which was adapted from Bang et al (2009) study. Bang et al. (2009) used the original VMS-ISE but also claimed that Love of Sport is also significant motivation among sport event volunteers. In an attempt to reflect the leisure nature of volunteering, items that reflected that volunteering can be because of individuals seeking for “pleasure”, “enjoyment” and “fun” were included in the present motivation survey. These items that reflected the leisure nature of volunteering were adapted from Srigas and Jackson (2003) who suggest that volunteering is first and foremost a leisure activity (Henderson, 1989; Stebbins, 1996). Volunteers can be examples of exhibiting gift-exchange behaviour as they seek psychological gains and give in return their time, efforts and labour (Green & Chalip, 1998). As this particular behaviour matches the leisure behaviour, it was thus considered as important to be included in the current study for assessing event volunteers’ motivations.

The motivation scale used in the current study comprised of 38 items in total. Items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale indicating level of agreement ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The modified version of the VMS-ISE was chosen as a relevant research tool for two reasons: First, because the factors included in the instrument adequately described most of the dimensions reviewed in the existing sport volunteering literature. Second, both the VMS-ISE and the other event volunteering motivation dimensions were

identified from previous studies which used confirmatory factor analytic techniques, as valid and reliable.

Table 6.3.3 outlines the means and standard-deviations for each statement. As indicated in the table 6.3.3, event volunteers are more motivated by the statements which are close to a mean score of five or six with standard deviations less than two or close to one. These higher mean scores, around 5 or 6, reflect motivations of an altruistic nature, such as in order “to make the event a success”, “to do something worthwhile”, “to help others”, or due to the love for the sport as the statement “Rugby is something I love” was among the most highly valued items. Less prevalent motives, with mean scores lower than four are concerned with motives describing volunteering as a leisure activity such as “by volunteering I feel less lonely”, “I wanted to slow down the pace of my life” and “I wanted to escape from my own troubles”. Lastly, lower mean scores of around 3 suggest motivations concerned with extrinsic rewards such as “I wanted to get tickets/free admission”, “I wanted to get free food at the event” and “I wanted to get uniforms/licenced apparel” reflecting their relative insignificance in motivating the survey participants to volunteer for such a sport event. A more clear presentation of the level of importance of each motivational statement in influencing individuals’ decision to volunteer at the event is presented in figure 6.1.

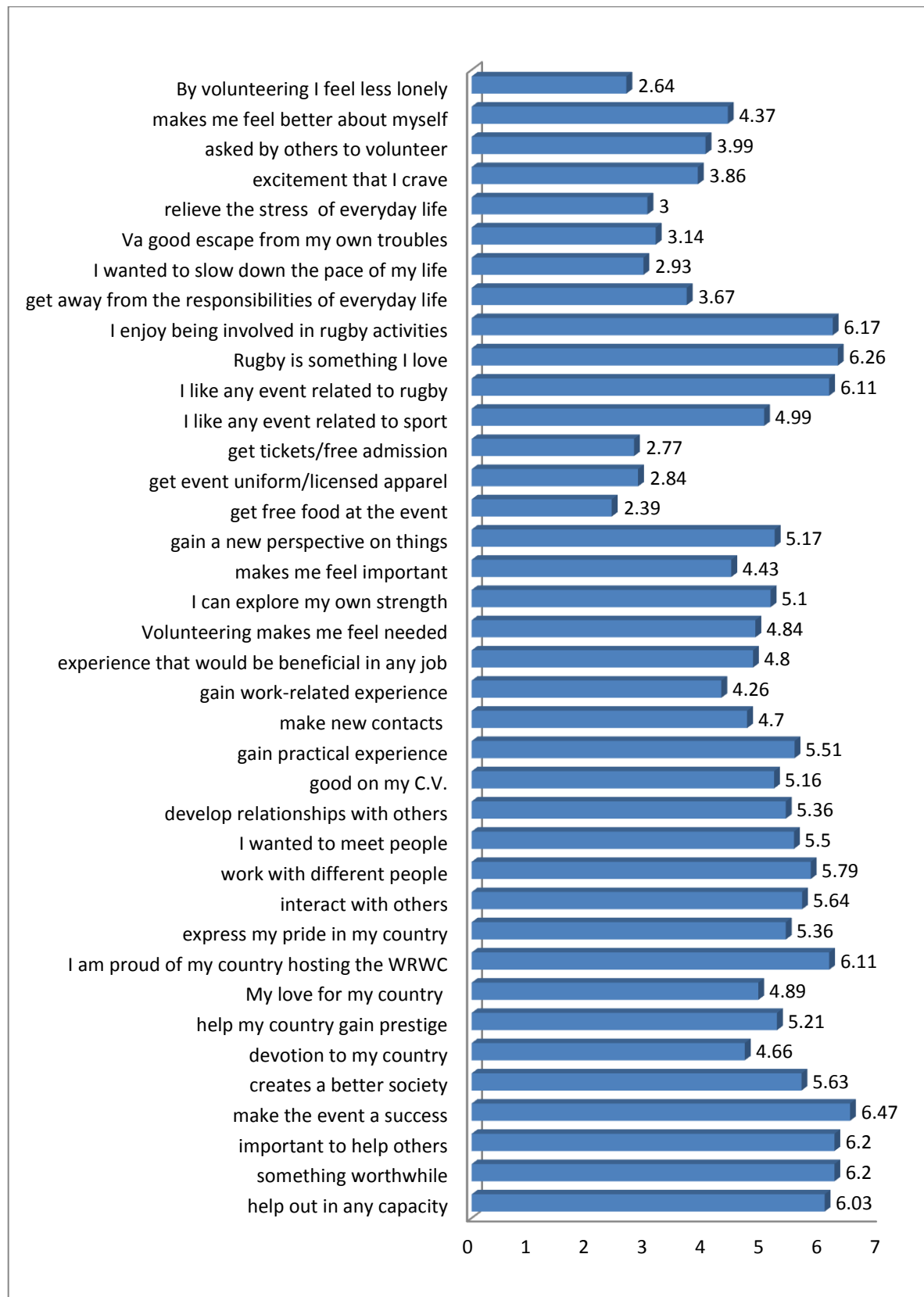
**Table 6.3.3. 37 Event Motivation Items (n=70)**

<b>Item</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St.Dev</b>
I wanted to help out in any capacity	70	6.03	1.129
I wanted to do something worthwhile	70	6.20	.957
I feel it is important to help others	70	6.20	.957
I wanted to help make the event a success	70	6.47	.737
Volunteering creates a better society	70	5.63	1.241
Because of my allegiance/devotion to my country	70	4.66	1.463
I wanted to help my country gain international prestige	70	5.21	1.463
My love for my country makes me want to help it to host an event	70	4.89	1.528
I am proud of my country hosting the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup	70	6.11	1.136
I want to express my pride in my country	70	5.36	.917
I wanted to interact with others	70	5.64	1.091
I wanted to work with different people	70	5.79	1.062
I wanted to meet people	70	5.50	1.349
I wanted to develop relationships with others	70	5.36	1.373
Volunteering experience will look good on my C.V.	69	5.16	1.501
I wanted to gain some practical experience	70	5.51	1.236
I could make new contacts that might help my business or career	70	4.70	1.662
I wanted to gain work-related experience	70	4.26	1.831
I wanted to gain experience that would be beneficial in any job	70	4.80	1.807
Volunteering makes me feel needed	70	4.84	1.379
I can explore my own strength	70	5.10	1.229
Volunteering makes me feel important	70	4.43	1.647
Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things	70	5.17	1.569
I wanted to get free food at the event	70	2.39	1.582
I wanted to get event uniform/licensed apparel	70	2.84	1.878
I wanted to get tickets/free admission	70	2.77	1.866
I like any event related to sport	70	4.99	1.388
I like any event related to rugby	70	6.11	1.029
Rugby is something I love	69	6.26	1.120
I enjoy being involved in rugby activities	69	6.17	1.098
I wanted to get away from the responsibilities of everyday life	70	3.67	1.631
I wanted to slow down the pace of my life	70	2.93	1.183
Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles	70	3.14	1.516
I wanted to relieve the stress and the tension of everyday life	70	3.00	1.319
I wanted to provide myself with the excitement that I crave	70	3.86	1.755

**Table 6.3.3. Continued....**

<b>Item</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St.Dev</b>
I was asked by others to volunteer at the 2010 WRWC	70	3.99	1.900
Volunteering makes me feel better about myself	70	4.37	1.704
By volunteering I feel less lonely	70	2.64	1.373
Valid N (listwise)	68		

**Figure 6.1. Event Motivations Summarised Responses**



### **6.3.4. Event Volunteers' Satisfaction**

Volunteers staffing the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup were also asked to complete a 36 items scale that explored the factors that may have contributed to their satisfaction with their volunteering experience at the event. Responses to all questions were graded using a seven point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Table 6.3.4 records the responses on the event volunteers' satisfaction. Satisfaction scores were in general quite high. The highest ranked items contributing to volunteer satisfaction tended to focus on the areas of organization of the event, the overall experience, and the facilities of the tournament as well as on volunteers' self-recognition. The lowest ranked items reflected aspects of the event planning, work assignment, and athletes' attitudes. However, as the overall means are generally high, the volunteer sample at this event should be considered as highly satisfied with their overall experience at the 2010 Women's rugby world cup as well as with the organizational aspects of the event experience.

As this research shows volunteer satisfaction with the experience in an event is not only related to fulfilling volunteers' expectations but is also dependent on the degree the volunteers are satisfied with the organization of the event and the competition facilities and hence providing supporting evidence of the sentiments expressed in the review of the sport event volunteering literature (Farrell et al., 1998). Therefore, event organizers should pay attention to these event attributes in order to ensure high volunteer satisfaction and commitment for future volunteering.



**Table 6.3.4. 36 Satisfaction with the Event Items (n=70)**

<b>Item</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St.Dev</b>
I was satisfied with the volunteering experience in general	70	6.33	1.188
I was satisfied with the recognition I received	70	6.07	1.289
I was satisfied with the support I received to do my volunteer job	70	6.19	1.231
I was satisfied with the information I received	70	6.07	1.243
I was satisfied with the prior information I received regarding the event and my volunteer tasks	69	5.91	1.380
I was satisfied with the information I received at the event	70	6.01	1.335
I was satisfied with the organization of the 2010 WRWC	68	6.29	1.198
I was satisfied with the communication with other volunteers	67	6.07	1.222
The working relationships were collegial	66	6.03	1.252
The players were appreciative of the care I provided	56	5.68	1.363
The players were agreeable to work with	60	5.95	1.032
The players' attitudes contributed to a positive experience	64	5.88	1.374
My professional colleagues exhibited positive attitudes	70	6.07	1.344
Staffing levels were acceptable	70	5.89	1.420
My background was appropriate for the level of expertise demanded	69	6.48	1.158
I enjoyed the opportunity to interact with people from other cultures	70	6.10	1.287
I felt I made a positive contribution to the athletes' experience	65	6.18	1.249
The experience was challenging and stimulating	68	5.94	1.392
The work load was acceptable	70	5.93	1.397
I found the pre-event training to be acceptable	64	5.98	1.061
The method for allocating shifts was fair and unbiased	68	5.63	1.727
The level of pre-event communication was acceptable	69	5.78	1.571
I was satisfied with the ceremonies	60	5.95	1.383
I was satisfied with the opening ceremony	54	5.70	1.537
I was satisfied with the rugby activities for spectators	63	5.86	1.413
I was satisfied with the organization of Rugby Games	64	6.20	1.287
I was satisfied with the organization of social events during the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup	55	5.45	1.620
The facilities were well designed	67	6.37	1.166
I was satisfied with the ease of movement around the facilities	68	6.28	1.195
I was satisfied with the access at the facilities	68	6.25	1.164

**Table 6.3.4: Continued.....**

<b>Item</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St.Dev</b>
I was satisfied with the cleanliness of the facilities	68	6.22	1.220
I was satisfied with the visibility of the Rugby Games	66	6.00	1.347
I was satisfied with the on-site availability of bathroom facilities	67	5.88	1.354
I was satisfied with the on- site availability of food	70	5.36	1.523
I was satisfied with the air quality at the facilities	66	6.26	1.305
I was satisfied with my volunteer role	68	6.09	1.432
Valid N (listwise)	66		

## **6.4. Dependent Variables**

### **6.4.1. Intentions-Future Plans in Sports Volunteering**

The statements that were used to investigate volunteers' future intentions were adapted from Downward and Ralston (2006) as discussed in Chapter 5 and reflected the scope of the current research project. Downward and Ralston (2006) sought to explore the future intentions of 2002 Manchester Commonwealth Games volunteers as a result of their experiences at the event. The statements reflected attitudes and intentions towards volunteering in rugby clubs "rugbyclubvol", rugby events "othrugevt", or other future sport events "othspevt". As noted in Chapter 5, all of the variables were scored on a seven-point Likert scale with values ranging from "1 – strongly disagree" to "7-strongly agree".

Table 6.4.1 below reveals that the event experience has the potential to translate into more club activity (Mean=5.77), which reflects the relevance of the transfer of effort across different contexts. More significantly future volunteering at rugby events is rated most highly (Mean=6.06), as indicated by a higher mean value and smaller standard deviations. A positive likelihood to get involved in other future major sport events is also evident among rugby event volunteers (Mean=5.88). This statement reflects on the potential of the transfer of volunteer efforts across different sporting contexts and activities for example like the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games. As with the club volunteers' sample the aspects of the individuals' experiences and socio-demographics that contribute to predicting, sustaining and promoting volunteers' commitment to the sport and to the transfer of their efforts across other sporting contexts are explored further in subsequent sections of this chapter that cover the exploratory factor and OLS regression analyses sections.

**Table 6.4.1. Dependent Variables**

<b>Variable Name</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>
othrugevt	I am willing to volunteer for any other rugby-related event	6.06	1.136
rugbyclubvol	I intend to continue volunteering at my rugby club	5.77	1.322
othspevt	I am willing to volunteer for any major sport event	5.88	1.310

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Valid N (listwise)=65

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## **6.5. Factor Analysis**

### **6.5.1. Factor analysis of Event Motivation**

Principal component analysis with a Varimax (orthogonal) rotation was undertaken on the 37 scale questions from the motivation to volunteer at the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup from the data gathered from 70 participants. Despite the small sample size, the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin measure of sampling adequacy suggested that the sample was factorable ( $KMO=.605$ ) as the recommended factorable values are between .6 and .7 (Kaiser, 1974). Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant,  $\chi^2(703)=2395.831$ ,  $p<.001$ , indicating that factor analysis was appropriate for the current dataset, as the hypothesis that the variance and covariance of the scale items suggest an identity matrix, was rejected. Consequently, this suggests a relationship between the variables we want to include in the analysis (Field, 2005).

Decisions on the number of factors to extract and the item loadings were based on the guidelines suggested by several statisticians as indicated in Chapter 5 (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 1998; Stevens, 1992) in keeping with the literature. However, as the sample size from the current survey is relatively low at  $n=70$  and the sampling adequacy poor (i.e. being less than 100 is "poor") analysis was nonetheless conducted, as the general population did not exceed the 300 individuals at the time of the event. Therefore, it was decided that convergent validity could be achieved by increasing the value of the factor loadings that would be considered as significant. Consequently, a loading of .6 was considered as significant and was adopted for interpreting the factor loadings on the current dataset. Moreover, items were retained based on achieving factor loadings equal to or above .6 that did not have substantial (.4 or greater) cross loadings. Other general guidelines followed included the retention of factors which had an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 that they were interpretable in terms of the loaded items and lastly at least three items were included in each factor (Hair et al., 1990, 1998; Stevens, 1996).

When loadings less than 0.60 were excluded, the analysis initially yielded a nine-factor solution with a simple structure (factor loadings  $\geq .60$ ). After a close

examination of the rotated structure matrix, it was found that factor 9 did not satisfy the criteria for factor extraction. It comprised of only two items that were not interpretable in terms of the loaded items and one of the items was negatively signed, with a factor loading lower than the recommended value of .60. For this reason, a follow-up run of PCA was conducted by excluding the item described above which was: "I wanted to help out in any capacity". There followed a further set of iterations of analysis that ultimately yielded an eight-factor solution. An examination of the KMO (.694) and the Bartlett test of Sphericity suggested that the data matrix was factorable and significant at the .001 level  $\{\chi^2(465)=1856.784, p<.001\}$ . The eight factors explained collectively 80.4% of the total variance. More specifically, factor 1 explained 13.2% of the variance after rotation, factor 2 explained 12.7%, factor 3 contributed 11.6% to the total variance, factor 4 a further 10.9%, factor 5 explained 8.6%, factor 6 explained 8.1%, and factor 7 and 8 a further 7.7% and 7.3% of the total variance respectively. The results of an orthogonal rotation of the solution are shown in Table 6.6.1. In particular, table 6.6.1 demonstrates the results of PCA on motivation, item loadings, and the total variance explained by each factor and their reliability estimates.

**Table 6.5.1. Factor Analysis-Event Motivations**

Motivation Items	Career orientation	Patriotism	Interpersonal Contacts	Leisure	Extrinsic Rewards	Expression of Values	Personal Growth	Love of Rugby
I wanted to do something worthwhile						.736		
I feel it is important to help others						.758		
I wanted to help make the event a success						.779		
Because of my allegiance/devotion to my country		.835						
I wanted to help my country gain international prestige		.882						
My love for my country makes me want to help it to host an event		.875						
I want to express my pride in my country		.830						
I wanted to interact with others			.832					
I wanted to work with different people			.821					
I wanted to meet people			.850					
I wanted to develop relationships with others			.712					
Volunteering experience will look good on my C.V.	.896							
I wanted to gain some practical experience	.788							
I could make new contacts that might help my business or career	.857							
I wanted to gain work-related experience	.798							
I wanted to gain experience that would be beneficial in any job	.791							
Volunteering makes me feel needed							.890	
I can explore my own strength							.644	
Volunteering makes me feel important							.732	
I wanted to get free food at the event					.764			
I wanted to get event uniform/licensed apparel					.840			
I wanted to get tickets/free admission					.851			
I like any event related to rugby								.619
Rugby is something I love								.862
I enjoy being involved in rugby activities								.839
I wanted to get away from the responsibilities of everyday life				.672				
I wanted to slow down the pace of my life				.725				
Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles				.906				
I wanted to relieve the stress and the tension of everyday life				.947				
By volunteering I feel less lonely				.610				
<b>Cronbach's a</b>	0.915	0.909	0.923	0.859	0.885	0.863	0.871	0.794
<b>Eigenvalues</b>	4.11	3.941	3.595	3.401	2.685	2.512	2.398	2.288
<b>Total Variance after Rotation (%)</b>	13.258	12.712	11.596	10.97	8.66	8.104	7.736	7.382

n=70

## 6.5.2. Factors Interpretation

Five items loaded onto Factor 1. This factor consists of items that reflect the career dimension of volunteering at sporting events. Therefore, Factor 1 was labelled “career orientation”. Four items loaded highly on the second factor that describe the desire of the volunteers to serve their country, by helping it to successfully host an international event, as suggested by the existing volunteering literature (Bang & Chelladurai, 2003; Bang & Ross, 2005). Therefore, the second factor was labelled “Patriotism”. Four items loaded onto the third factor. This supports the notion that volunteers seek to build social networks, make friendships through their experience at an international event which can act as a platform where a large group of individuals get together for a common goal (Bang & Chelladurai, 2003). Therefore, the third factor was labelled “interpersonal contacts”. Five items had significant loadings onto the fourth factor. This factor describes the leisure dimension of volunteering which suggests that individuals may be engaged to voluntary activities in order to escape from the troubles of their daily routine. Therefore, it was labelled “leisure”. Three items loaded onto the fifth factor and describe that extrinsic rewards may also be a motivational factor for volunteers at international sporting events, as certain individuals are involved with such an event in order to experience something that would otherwise be less affordable to attend and be part of. This factor was labelled “extrinsic rewards”. Three items loaded significantly onto the sixth factor. This factor consists of items related to altruism. Altruism as a motivational factor of volunteerism suggests that volunteers take part in events motivated by a desire to help others such as athletes, spectators, visitors and contribute to the event success (Bang & Chelladurai, 2003; Bang and Ross, 2005). This factor was labelled “expression of values”. The seventh factor reflects the need of individuals to get involved in sport event volunteering in order to enhance their self-esteem and self-actualization. It was labelled “personal growth”. The eighth factor consists of three items that are related to the derived volunteering motivations due to the love of the particular sport factor, as suggested by the review of the literature. Therefore, the eighth factor was labelled “Love of Rugby”. Convergent validity



was ensured by achieving high item loadings in each extracted factor (Anderson & Gerbing, 1998).

### **6.5.2.1. Reliability Analysis**

To examine the reliability of the motivation scale and each motivation factor, Cronbach's  $\alpha$  test was used (Field, 2005). A value of .6 to .8 is an acceptable value for Cronbach's  $\alpha$ . However, as Cortina (1993) points out the value of  $\alpha$  depends on the number of the items on the scale. Therefore, scales with a lot of items tend to have higher  $\alpha$  scores. As Cronbach (1951) suggested, when several factors exist then the test should be applied separately to each factor and then to them overall. However, as the current study adopts an exploratory research framework, a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.60 was deemed acceptable for assessing the internal consistency of the extracted motivation factors (Hair et al., 1998; Suhr & Shay, 2009). Correlations between an item and the sum of all other items in each identified motivation factor were above 0.40. The Cronbach's alpha reliabilities for each of the extracted motivation factors ranged from 0.79 to 0.92. The findings demonstrate that the implemented motivation scale was a reliable instrument (Borg, Gall & Gall, 1993; Nunally, 1978). In particular, Factor 1, "Career Orientation" had an alpha of 0.915, "Patriotism" factor had an alpha of 0.909. The internal consistency of the factor "Interpersonal Contacts" as suggested by the achieved Cronbach's alpha was 0.923. The factor "Leisure" achieved an alpha value of 0.859. The "Extrinsic Rewards" factor had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.885, while the "expression of values" factor has an alpha of 0.863. Lastly, the factors "Personal Growth" and "Love of Sport" achieved Cronbach's alpha scores of 0.871 and 0.794 respectively. Consequently, the reliability scores for each individual factor are quite high, which shows the motivation scale emerged from the exploratory factor analysis is a reliable instrument.

## 6.5.2.2. Motivation Factor Mean Scores and Standard Deviations

Mean scores and standard deviations for each of the motivation factors were calculated in SPSS. Table 6.5.2.2 provides a summary of the mean scores and standard deviations for each factor. For a factor to be considered a strong motivating factor, a score of 4.0 or higher, on a 7 point scale was deemed appropriate, while at the same time achieving a relatively low standard deviation score. The most important factor influencing individual's decisions to volunteer at the WRWC as indicated in the descriptive analysis is the expression of values factor followed by the love of rugby factor. The factors that follow in importance include the interpersonal contacts, patriotism, career orientation and personal growth. The factors that scored relatively low in importance include the leisure and extrinsic rewards factor. Therefore, the sample of the current study was primarily motivated by an altruistic desire to help others and to make the event a success stemming from their love of the sport and their self-interest to maintain their associativity with the sport by being involved in related rugby activities such as the 2010 WRWC. Moreover, their desire to meet people and interact with others with similar interests influenced their decisions to volunteer for this international rugby event.

**Table 6.5.2.2 Descriptive Statistics of Motivation Factors**

<b>Motivation Factors</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Career Orientation	4.88	1.399
Patriotism	5.02	1.211
Interpersonal Contacts	5.57	1.105
Leisure	3.07	1.130
Extrinsic Rewards	2.67	1.605
Expression of Values	6.29	.788
Personal Growth	4.79	1.274
Love of Rugby	6.19	.910

### **6.5.3. Factor Analysis-2010 WRWC Volunteers'**

#### **Satisfaction**

The satisfaction scale used in the current analysis of events was a modified version of Farrell et al.'s (1998) study of attributes of motivation and satisfaction of volunteers at an elite sport competition. Several other studies on event volunteers' satisfaction were also used as a framework for developing the satisfaction scale used in this study (see Reeser et al., 2005). A principal component analysis with a Varimax (orthogonal) rotation of the 36 scale questions from this satisfaction after the event survey was conducted as above, on the data gathered from the 70 participants. An examination of the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin measure of sampling adequacy suggested that the sample was ideal for factor analysis ( $KMO=.839$ ), as suggested by Kaiser (1974).

**Table 6.5.3. Factor Analysis-Satisfaction with the Event**

	Rotated Component Matrix <sup>a</sup>			
	facilities	Org of the event	attitudes	Support
I was satisfied with the support I received to do my volunteer job				.629
I was satisfied with the prior information I received regarding the event and my volunteer tasks				.731
I was satisfied with the communication with other volunteers				.637
The players were appreciative of the care I provided			.824	
The players were agreeable to work with			.865	
The players' attitudes contributed to a positive experience			.790	
I found the pre-event training to be acceptable				.728
I was satisfied with the ceremonies		.753		
I was satisfied with the opening ceremony		.645		
I was satisfied with the rugby activities for spectators		.757		
I was satisfied with the organization of Rugby Games		.677		
I was satisfied with the organization of social events during the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup		.696		
The facilities were well designed	.679			
I was satisfied with the ease of movement around the facilities	.841			
I was satisfied with the access at the facilities	.845			
I was satisfied with the cleanliness of the facilities	.903			
I was satisfied with the visibility of the Rugby Games	.866			
I was satisfied with the on-site availability of bathroom facilities	.840			
I was satisfied with the air quality at the facilities	.798			
<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>	<b>0.958</b>	<b>0.890</b>	<b>0.868</b>	<b>0.867</b>
<b>Eigenvalues</b>	<b>6.191</b>	<b>3.193</b>	<b>2.931</b>	<b>2.767</b>
<b>Percentage of Total Variance</b>	<b>32.582</b>	<b>16.804</b>	<b>15.428</b>	<b>14.565</b>
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.				
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.				
Rotation converged in 6 iterations.				

The results of a final orthogonal rotation of the solution are shown in table 6.5.3 which presents the results of an orthogonal rotation of the solution, the eigenvalues and the percentage of variance explained by each factor. This emerged after refinement of an initial five-factor solution. The solution is based

on a factorable sample ( $KMO=.883$ ) and is significant at the 0.001 level ( $\chi^2(171)=1280.428, p<.001$ ). The four factors emerging from the analysis, explain 79.3% of the total variance.

### **6.5.3.1. Interpretation of Satisfaction Factors**

Factor 1 consists of seven items related to volunteers' reported satisfaction with the facilities of the event such as the ease of access, the air quality, the cleanliness and air quality. Therefore, this factor was labelled "satisfaction with the tournament facilities". Five items loaded onto the second factor and were related to volunteers' satisfaction with the organization of the WRWC and other issues related to the event activities, such as the opening ceremony. This factor was labelled "satisfaction with the organization of the event and other rugby related activities". Three items loaded significantly onto the third factor. These items described the perceptions of the volunteers regarding the athletes' attitudes and whether those contributed to a positive experience. This factor was labelled "satisfaction with the athletes' attitudes". Lastly, the fourth factor consists of four items that describe aspects of pre-event training, information and support provided to the volunteers at the WRWC to perform their duties effectively. Therefore, factor 4 was labelled "satisfaction with support to volunteer". As with the previous scales emerged, convergent validity was also achieved as each of the items loaded significantly on its specified factor (Anderson & Gerbing, 1998).

### **6.5.3.2. Reliability Analysis**

The internal consistency of the event satisfaction scale and of each emerged satisfaction factor was assessed with Cronbach alpha. As with the previous scales, an alpha value of 0.60 was deemed appropriate for meeting the exploratory framework of this research project. Correlations between an item and the sum of all other items in each identified satisfaction factor were above 0.40. The Cronbach's alpha reliabilities for each of the extracted motivation factors ranged from 0.86 to 0.95. The findings suggest that the implemented

satisfaction scale was a reliable instrument (Borg, Gall & Gall, 1993; Nunally, 1978). More specifically, factor 1, “Satisfaction with tournament facilities” achieved an alpha of 0.958. The second factor, “satisfaction with the organization of the event and other rugby related activities” achieved an alpha score of 0.89. The third factor “satisfaction with the athletes’ attitudes” and the fourth factor “satisfaction with the volunteering experience” were highly reliable as they achieved an alpha score of 0.868 and 0.867 respectively. These findings suggest that the satisfaction scale implemented and the factors emerged from conducting exploratory factor analysis are reliable and internally consistent.

### **6.5.3.3 Satisfaction Factors: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations**

Mean scores and standard deviations for each of the satisfaction factors with the event experience were calculated in SPSS. Table 6.5.2.3 provides a summary of the mean scores and standard deviations for each factor. For a factor to be considered as important in contributing to the satisfaction of the volunteers involved at the 2010 WRWC, a score of 4.0 or higher, on a 7 point scale was deemed appropriate, while at the same time achieving a relatively low standard deviation score. The most important factor contributing to the volunteers’ satisfaction with the event experience as indicated in the descriptive analysis is the factor related to the facilities of the event, followed by the perceived support, training and information to perform the volunteer duties factor. Satisfaction with athletes’ attitudes followed in importance with the lowest reported satisfaction factor being the one related to the organization of the event and other rugby related activities. However, all satisfaction factors achieved considerably high scores reflecting a general satisfaction with the volunteer experience at the event.

**Table 6.5.3.3. Descriptive Statistics of Satisfaction Factors**

Satisfaction Factors	Mean	Std. Deviation
Satisfaction with the facilities	6.12	1.138
Satisfaction with the organization of the event & other rugby related activities	5.73	1.212
Satisfaction with the athletes' attitudes	5.77	1.138
Satisfaction with support received to perform volunteer duties	6.01	1.047

## 6.6. Regression Analysis-Event Sample

In this section results of the regression analysis are presented. The available sample for regression analysis included 63 responses, which comprised the maximum set of observations across all of the variables analysed. As 32 covariates are used to measure motivation, socio-economic characteristics, sports engagement and satisfaction with volunteering based on a widely accepted level of the power of a test of 0.8, a significance level of five per cent, and a conventionally “large” effect size of 0.35, a minimum sample size required is 98 observations (Cohen, 1988). However, as the overall population of the 2010 WRWC volunteers did not exceed the 300 individuals and as this study follows an exploratory framework and does not aim to statistically generalize its findings to the wider sport event volunteers’ population, the available sample of 63 responses, was deemed appropriate for regression analysis despite posing some limitations in the findings of the analysis.

As with Chapter 5 OLS multiple regression analysis was performed in order to examine the impacts of event volunteers’ socio-demographics, experiences, motivations and satisfaction on their intentions to volunteer for future rugby events, with a rugby club or for other sport events. Table 6.6 presents the regression results for each case. The dependent variables are shown at the top of each column. For each regression model, the estimated coefficients and the corresponding (asymptotic) “t” values are given and presented in the table 6.6 below. Issues of heteroscedasticity within the data were accounted for by using robust standard errors to calculate “t” values. These might occur because of subpopulation differences or because error terms are not independent and identically distributed (e.g. this normally occurs when the sample is not collected at random which may leads to the participants having similarities between each other which would not occur if they were randomly selected) (Berry & Feldman, 1985). The table also details the sample sizes as “n”. The corresponding R<sup>2</sup> and F statistic for the OLS regressions are also presented. Significant variables at the 1%, 5% and 10% level are reported and are indicated by “\*\*\*”, “\*\*” and “\*” respectively. The corresponding R<sup>2</sup> and F statistic for the OLS regressions are



also presented. All VIF statistics were below 10 with the vast majority of variables less than 2, suggesting that there is no serious multicollinearity in the results. However, it was only the oldest age-group that showed no variation in the data, which is indicative of collinearity with the constant. However, the fact that this occurs for the oldest age groups is to be expected. Therefore, it was dropped from further analysis.

As with Chapter 5, before proceeding on commenting and explaining the results of the regression analysis, it is worth recalling what this research aims to achieve and what the hypotheses under investigation are. Firstly, it is expected that the general determinants of volunteering such as volunteers' socio-economic background, their motivation to volunteer, sports engagement and satisfaction with the experience that have been shown to promote either event volunteering or VSC activity, will be shown to be also relevant in promoting the transfer of their efforts across other volunteering contexts, that is in that case to becoming engaged in other rugby, sport events or rugby clubs. This, as explained in Chapter 2 that deals with the review of the literature, might stem from bonding social capital into bridging social capital. It is also hypothesized that volunteers driven by a desire to meet their motivation needs from volunteering, for example stemming from altruism and self-interest are prepared to transfer their efforts across other contexts in an attempt to fulfil such motivations both when the volunteering experience is satisfactory or not.

**Table 6.6: Event regression analysis**

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	othruevt	rugbyclbvol	othspevt
Career Orientation	-0.458 (-1.43)	-0.0180 (-0.04)	-0.167 (-0.37)
Patriotism	0.0481 (0.30)	0.114 (0.47)	0.00712 (0.04)
Interpersonal Contacts	-0.0416 (-0.16)	-0.304 (-0.99)	0.0804 (0.27)
Leisure	-0.0957 (-0.54)	-0.173 (-0.68)	-0.0660 (-0.33)
Extrinsic Rewards	-0.211 (-0.88)	-0.253 (-0.84)	-0.237 (-0.88)
Expression of Values	0.198 (0.71)	0.255 (0.89)	0.158 (0.47)
Personal Growth	0.236 (0.95)	0.174 (0.61)	0.332 (1.66)
Love of Rugby	-0.219 (-0.68)	0.0825 (0.26)	-0.323 (-1.18)
facilities	0.181 (0.89)	0.0102 (0.06)	0.165 (0.57)
rugby_activities	-0.0378 (-0.18)	0.350 (1.67)	-0.286 (-1.35)
attitudes	0.0171 (0.08)	-0.485* (-2.14)	-0.356 (-1.87)
support	0.399** (2.75)	-0.165 (-0.84)	0.536* (2.30)
plyrugby	-0.852 (-1.28)	0.950 (1.00)	-0.284 (-0.40)
plyothsp	-0.152 (-0.26)	-0.541 (-1.00)	-0.0107 (-0.02)
type	0.397 (0.79)	0.736 (1.08)	0.440 (0.84)
years	0.00832 (0.16)	-0.0338 (-0.51)	-0.000906 (-0.02)
hrsseason	0.00363 (0.04)	0.0191 (0.19)	0.0159 (0.17)

hrsnotseason	0.0323 (0.26)	-0.0355 (-0.29)	0.0282 (0.25)
othvol	0.259 (0.63)	0.224 (0.41)	-0.162 (-0.31)
gender	-0.129 (-0.47)	0.421 (1.27)	0.185 (0.71)
children	-0.0849 (-0.17)	-0.715 (-1.17)	-0.0178 (-0.03)
ethnicity	-0.101 (-0.14)	-1.186 (-1.05)	-0.0204 (-0.04)
education	0.991* (2.13)	0.328 (0.61)	1.075** (2.81)
Fulltime	0.619	-1.664	-0.115
Parttime	0.0808 (0.11)	-1.037 (-1.01)	-0.319 (-0.38)
Student	0.427 (0.45)	-1.278 (-0.97)	-0.0397 (-0.04)
Retired	-0.129 (-0.15)	-0.933 (-0.85)	-0.0504 (-0.06)
age1824	0.468 (0.28)	0.192 (0.09)	-0.493 (-0.27)
age2534	-0.00603 (-0.00)	0.995 (0.48)	-0.223 (-0.12)
age3544	-1.194 (-0.84)	1.139 (0.62)	-0.825 (-0.55)
age4559	-0.380 (-0.37)	1.072 (0.92)	-0.455 (-0.50)
_cons	5.152*** (4.14)	6.498*** (4.17)	5.805*** (5.06)
<i>N</i>	63	63	63
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	0.533	0.472	0.534

<sup>8</sup> As it is evident from the regression analysis results, there are very few significant variables but a reasonably sized  $R^2$  which suggests that some multicollinearity may be present in the estimates, as expected with the small sample size used. This was taken into account and as explained in the following page, an F-test was used to make the results more accurate.

As shown in table 6.6, each of the dependent variables appears to be affected by only one individual variable associated with satisfaction. Satisfaction with the experience of the RWC could increase other rugby and other sport event volunteering. In contrast, being appreciated by the players could reduce the intention to volunteer further for clubs. These results suggest that not only could a good experience of event volunteering promote further event volunteering in rugby and across other sports contexts but it also may substitute for club volunteering. In the former cases, moreover, having a degree-level education might also reinforce the potential for future volunteering. As noted earlier, this suggests the importance of higher education for women's rugby.

However, these limited significant individual variables and the relatively high  $R^2$  suggest that despite the amenable VIF statistics, some multicollinearity may be present in the estimates, despite it not being sufficient to cause problems with the estimation. For example, in the case of the other rugby events "othrugevt" equation the independent variables explained 53.3% of the variance on volunteers' stated intentions ( $R^2 = .533$ ,  $F=[31,31]=2.45$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). The model also explained 47.2% of the variance in volunteers' intentions to continue volunteering at a rugby club "rugbyclubvol". Finally, the results for the "othspevt" equation show that the independent variables accounted for 53.4% of the total variance.

To allow for this, therefore, F-Tests of blocks of variables were undertaken to examine the motivation, satisfaction, socio-demographic and sports engagement variables on each dependent variables.

The results suggest that satisfaction variables have a jointly significant effect for 'othrugevt' ( $F=[4,31]=3.14$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). The satisfaction variables also contribute jointly to the intentions to volunteer for othspevt ( $F=[4,31]=3.54$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and similarly for rugbyclubvol ( $F=[4,31]=3.63$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). None of the motivation, socio-demographics and sports engagement variables emerged as significant in promoting future rugby club activity after the experience at the 2010 WRWC.

Taking into consideration the above regression results suggests that future volunteering effort in both rugby events or other sport events or voluntary rugby

clubs is retained and promoted to other contexts by volunteer satisfaction as experienced through a sport event context that is the 2010 WRWC. There is no evidence of motivations or sports engagement variables in promoting such intentions. Certain socio-economic variables, that is in this case is the education level of the participants affect the results and in particular stated intentions to volunteer for future rugby or other sport events. Consistent with the analysis of the club-volunteers sample as presented in Chapter 5, these results also provide statistical evidence for the hypothesised impact of standard variables affecting both retention of volunteering and the transfer of volunteer effort to other similar contexts.

In this regard, these results also imply that even though certain variables determine future volunteer behaviour and can also contribute to the transfer of effort across contexts, the context that the voluntary activity takes place also determines future volunteering behaviour and provides further variation in the results. For instance, the satisfaction with athletes' attitudes factor has been shown to have a negative effect in promoting future club volunteering despite having a positive effect on either volunteering for other rugby events or other sport events. This means that certain factors which "push" volunteering in certain sporting contexts can also "pull" volunteers away from it in other contexts based on whether the general drives of volunteering, for example stemming from altruism and self-interest are met by such experiences. In that case, volunteering at an international major rugby event is seen as an once-in-a-life time opportunity contributing to the motivation of most of sport event volunteers. Consequently, interacting with and helping elite athletes to participate at the event is an opportunity that cannot be met at the clubs' context but it can be subsidised through volunteering at similar rugby events or other major sport event contexts.

It is also apparent however, that generally the variables provide considerable variation in the emphasis of the results, with satisfaction variables having the greatest impact in determining future volunteer behaviour collectively. However, the small sample used in this analysis may have contributed to an extent to the findings not being representative of the true relationships between variables.

## 6.7. Conclusion

The volunteer workforce constitutes an integral component for the successful staging of international single or multi-sport events. It has been argued that sport event volunteering brings a wide range of benefits to the general community which not only include the financial benefits of balancing the costs of organizing such events but also the social benefits and the development of social capital through activities that promote bonding between homogenous groups or bridging between individuals with less common characteristics. The purpose of this analysis was to explore attributes of socio-demographics, motivations, satisfaction and sport engagement of volunteers involved in the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup, held in August 2010 in London. The current analysis provides statistical evidence of the hypotheses developed prior to the conduction of the research, that certain variables such as the motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background, the engagement to sport and volunteering as well as the satisfaction with the volunteering experience at the 2010 WRWC determine future volunteering behaviour, promote further volunteering in the event context as well as the transfer of volunteer efforts across other sporting contexts such as events.

This was facilitated by a comprehensive descriptive analysis of the variables included in the study and by examining the factor structure of the volunteer motivation scale, specifically developed for addressing motivations to volunteer at an international sporting event context. Attributes of satisfaction contributing to volunteers' experience at the event were also examined and summarized through exploratory factor analysis. Sports engagement along with socio-demographics were also examined to shed light on whether these influence volunteers' future intentions to get involved in other similar events or club volunteering. Results of this study have confirmed the multidimensionality of sport event volunteer motivations and that several aspects of the volunteering experience at events contribute to the satisfaction of volunteers. Consistent with the analysis of the club volunteers' sample, as explained in chapter 5, certain determinants of volunteering were shown to predict to a greater or lesser extent volunteers' future behaviour in similar contexts or the transfer of their efforts to

different contexts reflecting the development of bonding social capital into bridging social capital through activities that satisfy event volunteers' interests. It was also found that depending on the context certain factors may "pull" volunteers' away from volunteering at different contexts once their needs from such an experience have been met or could not be met through the substitution of their efforts. One positive legacy that emerged from the event experience is that individuals of a higher educational background who found the experience satisfying were more likely to volunteer for similar or different events in the future. This is suggestive that satisfaction from volunteering at one event could be the basis for volunteering at another event and this is more likely to occur in highly educated individuals. This is a potential target for the RFUW in meeting their elite operational delivery and goals once similar projects and opportunities accrue.

Consequently, event organizers should pay more attention in understanding their volunteer characteristics and driving forces in order to harness their skills and experiences and retain them by providing a satisfying experience at future projects and events developed by them. It follows that the uniqueness of the event and the development of a rugby identity that is more collective in nature than just a result of a particular experience would provide individuals with a sense of belonging and could help to harness the potential of volunteering in developing social capital among different groups of individuals who do not necessarily share the same characteristics and values than for example in clubs (MacClancy, 1996).

# Chapter Seven

## Conclusions

### 7.1. Introduction

This chapter provides the concluding observations of this thesis. Its contribution to future research and to the theory of sports clubs and events volunteers' characteristics, motivation, satisfaction, engagement with sport and volunteering and how these variables may determine future behaviour is also acknowledged. Limitations of the research are noted as well as the practical implications for volunteer management. In addition, insight into issues that need to be addressed with future research in the field, as well as how future policies in sports volunteering could better harness volunteer efforts across different contexts, maintain a committed to the organization or cause volunteer workforce and contribute to its potential to be seen as a source of social capital that contributes broadly to the sporting needs of the society. In particular, section 7.2 of this chapter reviews what each chapter covered and how it contributed to meeting the thesis' aim and objectives. Section 7.3 then follows and reviews the main findings of this study, deals with the contributions of this research to the body of knowledge, and the implications these findings have for sport club and event volunteering policy makers. Section 7.4 addresses the limitations of the study and provides some recommendations for future research. Finally, section 7.5 provides some concluding observations that arose and were covered in this thesis



## 7.2. Review of the Thesis

As discussed in chapter 2 that dealt with the review of the volunteering literature, several factors have been identified as determining volunteers' future behaviour and attitudes towards volunteering in both sport clubs and sport events contexts and include the motivation to volunteer, the socio-demographic characteristics of volunteers, their past and current engagement to sport and volunteering and their satisfaction with the volunteer experience (Bang et al., 2009). Nonetheless, as noted in chapter 2, despite previous studies having acknowledged the impacts of these factors on volunteers' future involvement, research on the field has been limited and has focused only on sport event based activity and its impact on future volunteering. Therefore, little is known about how sports club volunteering activity contributes to future volunteering. The current study aimed to fill this gap in the volunteering literature by focusing on a formal sport volunteering context in England and as such it investigated the impacts of these determinants of future volunteering in both rugby clubs and a rugby major event context. Therefore, the aim of this study was to explore whether club and event volunteering activity provide the basis for the continuation of that activity as well as the transfer of volunteer efforts across other event based or club based activity respectively within the given sport, or across sports in order to contribute towards society's broader sporting needs and subsequently to the development of social capital.

In particular, the current thesis sought to answer the following research questions: First, to explore whether motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background and sports engagement of volunteers, as well as their satisfaction of volunteering within women rugby clubs will promote further volunteering in the club context. Second, to investigate whether motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background and sports engagement of volunteers, as well as their satisfaction of volunteering within women rugby clubs contributes and promotes the transfer of volunteer efforts across other sporting contexts such as events. Third, to identify whether motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background and sports engagement of volunteers, as well as their satisfaction of volunteering within women rugby events will promote further volunteering in

the events context. Fourth, to answer whether motivation to volunteer, the socio-economic background and sports engagement of volunteers, as well as their satisfaction of volunteering within women rugby events promotes the transfer of volunteer efforts across other sporting contexts such as club volunteering.

To achieve this, it sought to meet the following objectives: First, to identify the general characteristics of the RFUW volunteers both in the clubs and the 2010 WRWC contexts. Second, to investigate motivations to volunteer in such contexts, previous sport and volunteering experiences and engagement to rugby in particular, satisfaction with volunteering experiences which along with the volunteers' socio-demographics are factors that impact upon and determine to a greater or lesser extent future volunteering activity and its transfer across other contexts. This transitional decision-making, as it was explained in previous chapters such as in Chapter 2 is either the desire to maintain strong bonds within an existing homogenous group or a desire to bridge social capital across heterogeneous groups, in an attempt to satisfy and meet further underlying individual needs by substituting volunteer efforts in other similar contexts. This can reflect both the result of a satisfactory or an unsatisfactory volunteering experience. To explore such linkages between different volunteering opportunities in clubs and events and how they impact upon the recruitment, retention and development of the volunteers was the third objective that this study aimed to address. Lastly, the study sought to make potential recommendations for informing future strategies with regard to the recruitment and retention of rugby volunteers.

These issues have been explored by adopting the critical rationalistic philosophical approach, which is associated with the ontology of cautious realist and the epistemology of falsificationism. Following this, a deductivist research strategy that uses existing theories against reality by forming hypotheses, which then examines in a process of conjecture and refutation through quantitative data collection methods, was deemed more appropriate to underpin the critical rationalist stance. The method of case study was adopted as a research strategy, as the focus of this research was to test hypotheses against reality at a specific

volunteering context such as the context of the volunteers formally involved with club or event activity in women's rugby in England.

The analysis began with chapter 5 that sought to investigate the impacts of club experiences in promoting future VSC as well as transfer of volunteer efforts across other contexts such as other rugby or sport events. This analysis focused on 168 individuals who were identified as formally volunteering for rugby clubs that were taking part in the National League Structure of Women's rugby in England. A percentage of these volunteers had also volunteered for the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup held in London in August 2010. The main findings that arose from the analysis of the Club volunteers sample confirm the existing literature on sports clubs volunteering, as the volunteers involved with the women's rugby club system in England exhibit similar characteristics to those of the sport volunteers in the UK and are motivated by a combination of altruistic and self-interest reasons as identified by empirical studies in the field (Coleman, 2002; Shibli et al., 1996; Sport England, 2003). This is reflective of volunteers' desire to meeting their own needs for sports participation which coincides with the need of others such as friends or family members to take part in sports, a goal that is facilitated by volunteers' efforts.

Results of the PCA analysis suggested the emergence of five satisfaction factors associated with the club volunteering experience. These include satisfaction with the volunteer role and the contribution, with contingent rewards, with clubs' support and dissatisfaction with communications within the club and with volunteers' appreciation. These latter factors reflect a potential relevance of dissatisfaction with aspects of the club volunteering experience on future volunteering. The results of the regression analysis confirmed the hypotheses under investigation which suggested that future volunteering activity is to a greater or lesser extent determined by volunteers' socio-demographic characteristics, current and previous sport and volunteering experiences, engagement to the sport, motivations and satisfaction with volunteering experiences. Moreover, it was found that these determinants of volunteering are also relevant for the transfer of volunteer efforts across contexts such as to their becoming engaged in events as a result of volunteers' seeking to further meet

their underlying motivations from volunteering, stemming from altruism and self-interest and even when the current volunteering experience has not been satisfactory. The results of the club volunteers' analysis also showed that certain factors can "push" future volunteering such as dissatisfaction with communications within clubs which promoted the likelihood to having volunteered for the 2010 WRWC as well as the likelihood to volunteer for future rugby and other sport events and reflects developing bonding social capital into bridging social capital in an attempt to fulfil volunteers' motivations through substitution of their efforts.

The analysis proceeded with chapter 6 that sought to investigate the impact of the experiences at the 2010 WRWC in promoting future rugby event activity as well as transfer of volunteer efforts across other sport event contexts or VSC activity. The analysis focused on a sample consisting of 70 individuals who assisted voluntarily with the 2010 WRWC operations, held in August 2010 in London. The main findings that arose from the analysis of the event volunteers' sample suggest a younger age profile of the volunteers involved at the event as well as a high incidence of degree-level education, engagement to sports in general, rugby in particular and volunteering.

Results of the PCA with varimax rotation for the motivations to volunteer at the event scale, specifically developed for international sport event contexts, confirm the multi-dimensional nature of sport event volunteering, as eight factors emerged in seeking to explain the reasons that influenced individuals to volunteer for such an event. These factors include: career orientation, patriotism, interpersonal contacts, leisure, altruism, expression of values, personal growth and love of rugby. To a similar extent, PCA analysis suggested the emergence of four factors related to satisfaction with the event experience. These include: satisfaction with the tournament facilities, satisfaction with the organization of the event and other rugby related activities, satisfaction with athletes attitudes and satisfaction with the support received to perform the volunteer duties. These factors reflect that both the environment that the event takes place as well as attributes of the volunteering experience such as communication, support and

rewards to the volunteers are important elements of satisfaction with the event volunteers' experiences.

Regression analysis was performed, which embraced all the different determinants of volunteering as identified in the review of the literature and confirmed the hypotheses under investigation, that to a greater or lesser extent future volunteering activity in the rugby events' context as well its transfer to VSC or other sport events activity is determined by such factors, reflecting the development of bonding social capital into bridging social capital in seeking to satisfy further event volunteers' interests. In particular, it was found that satisfaction as experienced at a single-sport event context, in this case the 2010 WRWC contributes significantly to the retention and promotion of future volunteering effort in similar or different sporting contexts. This suggests that a satisfactory event volunteering experience could not only promote further event volunteering in rugby and across other sport event contexts but it also may substitute for club volunteering. The level of education of the volunteers involved at the event was also found as a significant determinant of future volunteering and in particular for future rugby or other sport events.

As with the analysis of the club volunteers' sample, it was found that certain factors can "push" future volunteering in certain contexts, while at the same time "pull" volunteers' away in other contexts, such as satisfaction with the athlete's attitudes that has been shown to promote future rugby and sport event activity and to reduce stated intentions to volunteer further for clubs, once volunteers' underlying needs from volunteering have been met or could not be met through substituting their efforts to such contexts. With these issues in mind, the challenge for policy makers and the RFUW authorities is to provide a sense of belonging and reinforce social bonds and trust between their volunteer workforce, promote a collective rugby identity that is not only the result of a particular experience and emphasise upon the interrelationship between mass and elite sport development through involving in this endeavour their elite athletes and through liaising with clubs or the community in general in order to enable bridging across different activities they organize and promote further the

development of social capital. These issues and recommendations are covered in more detail in section 7.3 that follows.

### **7.3. Research Study Contributions and Policy Implications**

This research study has contributed to the existing literature on sport volunteering in a number of ways. To begin with, this project is the first study that has sought to examine the linkage between sports club volunteering and event volunteering in a single sport. Consequently, it adds to the body of knowledge for both club and major single sport event volunteering. It is also the first study to embrace the complete set of dimensions that are perceived to be relevant to understanding volunteer behaviour in each case; that is, satisfaction, motivations, sports and volunteering engagement and socio-economic characteristics, in this endeavour. Previous similar research endeavours, despite recognising the contribution of all these dimensions in determining future volunteering activity, as well as their contributions to the transfer of volunteer efforts across contexts such as between VSC and events, have failed to include them all in their analysis of understanding future behaviour in sport volunteering. Further, to apply such determinants of volunteering to a study of how these factors affect both sports-club volunteers and event volunteers' decisions is unique. In particular, some studies have only addressed the impact of sport event volunteering on future volunteering. The current study is innovative in the sense that it addresses a gap in the sport volunteering literature by examining how sports' club volunteering provides a platform not only for the continuation of club-based volunteering activity but also a platform from which volunteer effort in sport events in the same sport, or in different sports is being harnessed. Moreover, contrary to previous studies, this project sought to specify the nature of the intended future volunteering activity by questioning about intentions to volunteer for specific events and activities such as to volunteer for the 2012 London Olympic Games or to further volunteer for women's rugby clubs. For instance, Doherty (2009) in her research on the legacy of volunteers involved with the 2001 Canada Summer Games suggests that one of her study limitations was that it failed to measure more specific behavioural intentions to volunteer in the future and this could have probably reduced the strength of the relationship between volunteer experiences and their future

intentions. Furthermore, the current study is the first research attempt which adopted the notion of bonding and bridging social capital to explain the transitional decision making process that volunteers undertake in order to transfer their efforts between VSC and events activities. Moreover, the findings of the current study also contribute generally to the body of knowledge on sport volunteerism by providing insights about the socio-demographic characteristics, motivations to volunteer both in clubs and events, satisfaction with volunteering experiences, intent to remain or transfer volunteer effort and prior sport and volunteering experiences in such contexts that volunteering is essential for their sustainability in social and economic terms.

To sum up, this case study offers an understanding and contributes to the body of knowledge by exploring the possibility of volunteering being harnessed in similar but quite distinct contexts, as a result of previous club and event volunteering experiences at a given sport and influenced by volunteers' socio-demographic characteristics, motivations, engagement with the sport and satisfaction. As Hakim (2000) suggests case studies can contribute significantly to knowledge. Therefore, as this case study is a typical or representative case of the phenomenon being studied, as the sample used was representative of its population, this then means that the emerged findings could be indicative of more general trends in sports volunteering.

To facilitate the empirical analysis and given the multi-dimensional nature of volunteering no specific theory has been prioritized in this piece of research. In terms of the contribution to the theory, therefore, the current research has synthesized and embraced several theoretical perspectives and formed hypotheses to be investigated. One theoretical perspective on its own would not have been sufficient to fully understand the complexity of the situation and the behavioural decisions individuals undertake pertaining to whether to volunteer or continue to volunteer. The notion of bonding and bridging social capital was also adopted as a framework in understanding why people volunteer, continue to volunteer, feel satiated in volunteering or substitute their efforts through other similar activities, as a result of seeking to meet their underlying personal needs. The cases of actually volunteering for the rugby world cup, and intentions to



volunteer for other rugby events, further club-rugby volunteering and volunteering at other sport events have been examined in both contexts. The main general finding of this research project is that there is evidence in support of the relevance of the widely known determinants of volunteering to the continuation of future club and event volunteering as well as to its transfer to further club activity, rugby and other sport events. This highlights the potential for sports governing bodies to recruit efforts from their existing volunteers in either clubs or events to assist with future activities and events organised by them, and that potential exists to transfer volunteer activity across to other sports. Generally the research indicates that satisfied club or event volunteers have the potential to transfer effort to other contexts.

In particular, the analysis for the club volunteers' sample as presented in chapter 5 indicates that this potential could be harnessed by systematically communicating opportunities and the benefits of volunteering, by sufficiently supporting volunteers throughout to accomplish their tasks and by promoting of a rugby identity that is more collective than just the club. However, the research also indicates that despite the general applicability of the established model of certain factors that includes satisfaction, motivations, sports engagement and socio-economic circumstances, which affect volunteer behaviour, and can be employed to examine the transfer of effort across contexts, considerable nuance exists depending on that context. Consequently, other, more tailored mechanisms might need to be developed in order to harness such potential. More specifically, the analysis broadly indicates that it is the uniqueness of the world cup that can be harnessed for club volunteers as part of a shared rugby experience contributing to their bonds with the sport, but if the event is not to primarily recruit from current players and those with more flexibility in time and income, planning needs to be undertaken to develop more flexible timescales for involvement, and, perhaps, to offer some support towards the costs of volunteering in other locations, as the results showed a negative likelihood to having volunteered for the women's rugby world cup from students and those in full-time employment.

Event policy makers should also try to find a good match between the interests and abilities of the club volunteers and their tasks at the event. Identifying and communicating the world-cup more clearly as being part of the continuum of a shared rugby experience, and perhaps in this regard less “unique” by volunteers, might also be needed to help to recruit existing longer-term and more experienced club volunteers. In seeking to meet their event policy objectives, the RFUW could probably also target those club volunteers that experience lack of satisfaction with the current practices, organisation and communications within their clubs and seek to substitute their efforts to other contexts such as other rugby events, as a desire to meet their personal needs through volunteering. Clearly this is a target of potential event-volunteer recruits.

For recruitment to other rugby events from the existing club volunteer workforce, policy could emphasise the opportunity to make friends. However, it appears that such an opportunity rests on volunteers being retired. If this involves drawing upon existing and older club volunteers, who might also carry large club volunteering burdens, then clearly further coordination support might be offered by governing bodies to help to facilitate cross-club responsibilities. Acting proactively on the part of the RFUW and communication of opportunities should also be in place, as even though such volunteers are willing to offer to help in other rugby events, they are not aware that their help is needed or ways to get involved.

From the point of view of generating further club volunteering, matters appear to be more complicated, as the analysis presented in section 5.5 of chapter 5 suggested some satiation of activity, for example, once the personal need of making friends is satisfied. This suggests that greater club memberships and the potential that this has for making new friends might need to be harnessed. Governing bodies might seek to embrace wider communities than they have done before. For example, this might take place in connection with other sports clubs, or universities, schools and community groups through, for instance, organizing local and regional festivals and tournaments, demonstrations of the sport, community days etc. Lastly, in connection with volunteering in other sports, the results suggest that capitalising on younger to middle-aged

volunteers might be appropriate. As noted above, this might be consistent with them having less club responsibilities and thus more time available to volunteer in other contexts. It remains, however, that across these contexts having an opportunity to have a satisfying experience and enjoying the volunteer tasks and one within which altruistic objectives of contributing to the club and the community can be met should be a general policy emphasis for recruitment and retention of effort as well as its potential transfer.

This last objective is important because, uniquely, the current research indicates that a common determinant of either volunteering at the rugby world cup, or other rugby and sports events, is poor satisfaction with a club experience. This suggests that some recruitment of volunteers to events can involve a substitution of effort as volunteers seek to satisfy their motives elsewhere. The challenge for policy is thus not to assume that all recruitment at such events is a success, but to ensure that existing volunteer networks are maintained and that such recruitment takes place in which it is fully viewed as a complementary activity, an aim towards which the policies described above might be targeted. Clearly this is an important area of future research. In order to maintain existing volunteer networks, clubs and Governing Bodies need to work closely and ensure that volunteers have enjoyable experiences by getting to know them, their skills and experiences, providing them with an appropriate induction and orientation to get to know the mission and history of the organization, clearly defining roles and ensuring their responsibilities meet their interests, identifying needs for personal development and communicating internal and external opportunities for training and support through e.g. social-media, websites or emails, acknowledging and appreciating their contributions through organizing reunions or other special events and providing them with a team to strengthen their links with the other club members and to recognise their efforts. Moreover, volunteers need to feel valued about their time contributions, so apart from reimbursing their expenses, sport organizations could think of ways to make them feel part of the team. This can be achieved by providing a team uniform, thank you letters and certificates of recognition, awards at special events and

reunions or acknowledging them in club newsletters and committee meetings, and giving them discounts to attend special events (ASC, 2000).

To a similar extent, the analysis of the 2010 WRWC volunteers' sample broadly indicates that satisfaction with the experience at the event might encourage the desire of volunteers to get involved in and transfer their efforts to other contexts. Despite, some variations in the emphasis of the results, it is evident that there is opportunity to develop this transfer of volunteer effort for those volunteers with a high educational profile and who found the experience at the event satisfying and rewarding. This suggests that a targeted strategy could be employed from the RFUW and event organisers who should work more closely with clubs or through liaison with local universities to identify highly educated individuals for help with events in order to better harness volunteering potential whilst seeking to emphasize the broader sport connection of volunteers at clubs and the interrelationship between mass and elite sport development. Moreover, providing opportunities for skills acquisition and training through qualifications could further attract new members to rugby clubs, who are committed to their lifelong education and further promote clubs' roles as hubs of human and subsequently social capital. Importantly, the analysis does not reveal strong differences in the motivation of volunteers, which suggests that the themes of extending altruistic behaviour, with some self-interest in helping to meet people and to make friends could also be used in this endeavour. The context of volunteering has also been shown to encourage or mitigate volunteers' desire to transfer their efforts to other contexts. In this regard, as the satisfaction with the athletes' attitudes has been shown to promote both future rugby event and sport event volunteering but mitigating volunteers future involvement in clubs, future policies could be developed from sport governing bodies that could harness their elite athletes in endeavours of recruiting club volunteers.

Consequently, it follows that whilst more research is needed on this transitional decision-making, the results suggest that event organizers should work more closely with clubs and vice versa to better harness volunteering potential and to help the club and sport be seen as more closely related. Yet it has to be noted, that overall, there is evidence that volunteers' satisfaction can both drive future

club and event volunteering, thus adding to retention, as well as to promote an intention to volunteer in other rugby and sports events as part of a transitional decision-making process between VSC and events stemming from altruism or self-interest. In this respect there is no necessary conflict of interest to be managed. Overall, thus, the research suggests that existing women's rugby volunteers do provide the potential for further support of sports activities both within the sport and in other sports. The implication is that governing bodies could further target current club volunteers to support their own events, or through liaison with other governing bodies and sports policy agencies, to support other sports. Therefore, sport governing bodies, club authorities and event organizers should give strong consideration to understanding their volunteer characteristics and driving forces in order to harness their skills and experiences and retain them by providing a satisfying experience which is also fulfilling for the volunteer, at future projects and events developed by them. On this basis, good experiences of club or event volunteering can be more efficiently harnessed and provide a transfer of volunteering effort and subsequently harness volunteering potential in developing social capital by promoting a shared rugby identity and by increasing the sense of belonging of volunteers to a wider rugby community.

The role of volunteering in embracing wider communities than before is especially critical nowadays and can be effectively harnessed, as there is a shift in the way the UK's Coalition Government perceives the role of communities, and thus in their policy making and objectives (McCabe, 2010). To illustrate this, the Big Society policy emerged aiming to acknowledge the value of the voluntary sector as an asset in empowering social action and a more dynamic and active community engagement, development and responsibility "*to put more power and opportunity into people's hands*" across neighbourhoods, communities, social enterprises, charities, clubs and local authorities (Cabinet Office, 2010, p. 1). In particular, given the effective staging of the London 2012 Olympic Games, community sport provision through volunteering is anticipated to lead the legacy objectives of the Coalition Government, to increase mass participation and thus community involvement and social capital through active citizens' engagement

(Cabinet Office, 2010, Evans, 2011). Therefore, this objective is not only beneficial to the community as a whole, but also to the individual volunteers engaging in the process and increasing their self-esteem, their sense of belonging, communication, leadership, problem solving and other skills or in other words their human capital (Gottlieb & Gillespie, 2008; Paylor, 2011).

The value placed in volunteering and the recognition of the voluntary sector as an active agent, not only for sports provision and increased sports participation, but also for the development of human and subsequently social capital, through engagement of individuals in political and community participation makes England a unique and special context, whereby the potential of volunteering to contribute to a bottom-up approach to policy implementation and to achieve wider social and cultural benefits is acknowledged. However, there is a lack of empirical evidence to support whether this bottom-up approach to policy implementation coincides with the values, willingness, ability and interest of the grass-roots organizations to be involved in the process (May et al., 2013). Given that British volunteers are involved in sport clubs for the love of the sport and to maintain their interest and give something back to the club (Allison, 2001) rather than to achieve the Government's policy aspirations, it is doubtful whether the individual volunteer will be engaged in the "Big Society" mission.

Moreover, there is evidence that some NGBs fail to communicate wider policy objectives with their sport clubs network (May et al., 2013). In addition, some VSCs are reluctant to change when wider policy objectives do not seem to directly benefit the club and its members (May et al., 2013). It also appears that the English sporting context is unique in its resistance to follow continental Europe models of forming multi-sport hubs, where enthusiasts of different sport are brought together to share their love of sport, cooperate and create opportunities of social mobility translated as an interest to various forms of sport participation (May et al., 2013). Furthermore, the current policy objectives of leaving a lasting London 2012 legacy through "*harnessing the United Kingdom's passion for sport to increase grass-roots sport participation, particularly by young people*" (DCMS, 2010), does not seem "fit for purpose".

This, is due to the fact that by *“shifting the responsibility for the sporting infrastructure from local government to the voluntary and private sector, with a resultant decreased investment in both hard and soft sporting infrastructure”* (Devine, 2013, p. 274) underrepresented groups in sports will continue to be excluded and attracting new volunteers or retaining existing ones will continue to be a big problem facing NGBs (Taylor, 2004), as *“especially small, informal sports clubs either do not understand the devolved remit for extending participation or do not wish to do this”* (Harris et al., 2009). Thus, more research is needed to identify whether such policy objectives have been translated into wider community involvement and social action and whether National Governing Bodies (NGBs) and sport clubs have been transformed into active agents of the Big Society idea (Griffiths & Armour, 2013). Nonetheless, NGBs and sports clubs could benefit from such governmental efforts, to communicate to a wider audience the potential of volunteering in influencing social action and involvement, and hence maximizing their membership, volunteering and participation base. Key to achieving this is the deployment from NGBs of effective volunteer recruitment strategies targeting specific groups of the population, for instance, in the case of the RFUW those with a high educational attainment.

As discussed, in Chapter 2 of this thesis, a large percentage of sport volunteers are highly educated and as detailed in sport England’s (2002) research, according to the national population survey, 54% of sport volunteers were educated to 17 years or above. This trend compared to the data from this case study of women’s rugby suggests that women’s rugby volunteers are highly educated, as 62.1% of the club volunteers’ sample and 61% of the event volunteers’ sample reported being educated to degree level or higher, which is considerably higher than the percentage of the general population of sport volunteers. This is indicative of a specificity of the characteristics of the volunteers involved in women’s rugby compared to volunteers involved in other sports and as discussed in section 1.5 reflects the instrumental role of higher education in the foundation of the RFUW and in the development of women’s rugby. Therefore, the current emphasis of involving more people in the Big Society ambition, through for example engaging in volunteering and charitable

giving should coincide with the values of the sport and its volunteer network. Particular emphasis is also needed in understanding what drives volunteering in each particular sector and maximizing the potential for the volunteering experience to be satisfying and rewarding for the individual, thus creating a committed volunteer workforce willing to contribute to a wider range of community activities and subsequently reinforcing social capital development. To conclude, therefore, with regard to the women's rugby volunteer network, this thesis provided some insights on the volunteer infrastructure that runs the sport in England and how volunteers' experiences can be effectively harnessed by the RFUW for retaining them into rugby or for communicating to them other related to the sport opportunities, that could facilitate social mobility, bridge social capital and contribute to the Big Society idea.



## **7.4. Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Research**

Despite being argued in section 7.2 of this Chapter that this research has made a significant contribution to knowledge by providing insights on how certain variables determine future volunteering activity in similar contexts as well as the transfer of volunteers' efforts in different activities and projects, there are some limitations to the study that should be acknowledged as well as recommendations for future research. The main issues of consideration that will be discussed in this section are related to sample size, accessibility and data collection, generalizability of findings, validity and reliability.

First, a limitation of this study is that of generalizability and external validity. The results of this study pertain to the volunteers involved in Women's rugby in England in either the rugby clubs or the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup contexts. While the current case study of volunteers in women's rugby in England has been examined and investigated with robust methods, the extent to which the knowledge and understanding offered by this research can be applied to other sport volunteers' samples is questionable. Consequently, generalizing from this research's findings is limited to this specific population of women's rugby in England. Nonetheless, the main general findings are that there is evidence in support of the relevance of the widely known determinants of volunteering; that is volunteers' socio-demographics, motivations to volunteer, sport and previous volunteering engagement and satisfaction, to the continuation of future club or event volunteering as well as its transfer to other rugby and other sport events. Moreover, the results of the current study provide supporting evidence of the sentiments describing general volunteer trends, motivations and characteristics as expressed in the review of the sport volunteering literature. Consequently, future studies could adopt a similar methodology in exploring sport volunteers' future behaviour as a result of and determined by their socio-demographics, past sport and volunteering engagement, motivations to volunteer and satisfaction with the volunteering experience as with the present study. Consequently, external validity and

generalization of the findings can be achieved beyond this case study in other future studies, through adopting similar research patterns and including a larger amount of survey participants.

The sample sizes used in the current study in the two different contexts were both rather small and in particular the sample size for the individuals that volunteered for the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup. Clearly, a greater sample size would improve the robustness of the findings. However, given that the population of individuals volunteering for women's rugby in England is relatively small, the sample used in this piece of research was deemed representative of such population. Moreover, as mentioned earlier in chapter 3, the current case study can be considered as representative of the area that is to be addressed, as the participants of the survey satisfied the criterion of being formally involved in volunteering for rugby either in clubs or at the 2010 WRWC.

Issues of accessibility posed some limitations to the current study. As noted in chapter 3, all participants have been approached via email. In particular, the volunteers involved at the 2010 WRWC were approached directly by the volunteer coordinator of the RFUW, as access to the volunteer database of the RFUW was not granted due to data protection policies. Therefore, lacking control over the survey distribution posed some limitations in increasing the response rate, ensuring that a common approach was followed when contacting the survey participants or ensuring whether all event volunteers have been reached. Therefore, it was deemed essential that a covering note and some general guidelines and instructions to assist respondents with completing the survey would have to be included in the email. The volunteer coordinator of the RFUW was then kindly requested to email the survey in each one of the event volunteers at the same time, in order to eliminate bias in their responses. To a similar extent, since no database was available from the RFUW, club volunteers have also been reached via email after identifying their contact details through their club's web pages and through requesting to the club secretaries to electronically distribute the survey to the relevant individuals. Furthermore, a deadline for submitting the questionnaire was set which meant that the URL of the surveys was not accessible after that specific time frame. Therefore,

accessibility issues in both instances may have posed some limitations in gathering the data and reaching the participants. However, the bias in the responses was eliminated as common methods were followed when approaching survey participants.

Another limitation of the current study is the lack of longitudinal data from the club volunteers' sample. Longitudinal data would also be better in tracking the shifts of volunteering activity over time in order to better understand the link between the determinants of volunteering and future volunteering activity. Therefore, even though asking participants about their intent to further volunteer in rugby clubs, rugby events or other major sport events was suitable to satisfy the research aims and objectives, it should be noted that intentions are anticipated outcomes and not actual behaviour (Sheeran, 2002). Therefore, future studies should actually monitor the number of volunteers who went to volunteer at another events or projects as a result of their previous experiences in similar projects. The use of longitudinal data which monitor volunteers' experiences such as motivations, satisfaction and intentions as well as actual behaviour at different time frames is essential in order to better understand how volunteers' experiences determine future volunteering and whether future intentions change across different points in time. Future studies could also employ mixed-method research approaches, for instance to incorporate face-to-face interviews or focus groups. This could enable the researcher to refine items and to clarify more clearly and gain a greater understanding of motivations to volunteer, satisfaction with the experience and future behaviour as well as to increase the validity and reliability of the scales adopted.

Future research endeavours could also generate new items or refine the items used in the current study in order to better represent the factors of interest. As previously noted, given the nature of this women's rugby specific study, an exploratory research framework was adopted for analysis as it was deemed more appropriate for this context. Therefore, items from previous research were modified or new items were generated that were perceived to better represent the context of the study. However, in few instances the results show low

reliability estimates. Thus, future research can contribute to refining and improving the current scale items or use such items that may better describe the meanings associated with each satisfaction construct or being more relevant to address the relationships between volunteers' attitudes and factors related to the organization of the event at specific contexts. Furthermore, it is also recommended that future research in the field examines these factors through confirmatory factor analysis that will allow verification of these findings in other similar sporting contexts. Moreover, the methods adopted in the current study could possibly be adopted and applied to different locations, settings, populations, sports or level of sports.

This study also focused on examining how volunteer experiences affect and determine their future actions more collectively. Future research efforts could possibly explore variables that deal with individual differences among demographic characteristics such as age, gender, employment status and education which may contribute to a greater or lesser extent to certain groups of individual volunteers' decisions as opposed to other groups. For example, male and highly educated individuals may be more inclined to volunteer for other sport events than for example female volunteers. Such a study could potentially enhance club authorities and sport governing bodies understanding of factors that shape future volunteer action by acknowledging the socio-demographic differences of particular groups in each case respectively and this will inform policies and enable them to design better recruitment and retention strategies of their volunteer workforce.

## 7.5. Concluding Observations

The impact that volunteers have on the operations and sustainability of both sport clubs and major sport events is critical and substantial. This study followed a framework and introduced a model of understanding volunteers' future behaviour in two closely related but quite distinct contexts. In particular, this study addressed a gap in the literature by exploring whether club or event based volunteering activity provides the basis for the continuation of that activity within rugby or across other sports. This research study has also highlighted a number of issues that are not directly related to the aims of the study but could provide opportunity for further investigation in the field.

The challenge for sport organizations, event organizers and sport governing bodies is to facilitate bridging social capital between small groups of enthusiasts by stimulating access to activities of interest that maximise this potential. The framework and methods adopted in this study will provide the RFUW, event organizers, human resources managers and volunteer coordinators with useful insights into how volunteer characteristics, motivations and experiences may impact on volunteers' intentions to continue volunteering or to transfer their efforts to similar activities, thus adding to their retention and subsequently develop social capital. Voluntary sports clubs can bring people together who are rather homogeneous to the extent they share similar interests, values and understandings. In contrast, sport events may represent the demographic profile of the participants in the specific sports concerned or garner more diverse groups of people who do not necessarily share the same values and their motivations to volunteer vary. However, volunteering in both contexts facilitates cooperation and reinforces the development of social bonds and trust. Therefore, it is essential to sustain volunteer participation in sports by understanding why people volunteer and enhance volunteers' intrinsic satisfaction from the voluntary activity (Cuskelly et al., 2005). Sport organizations, volunteer coordinators and event managers therefore, should place more emphasis on identifying the various factors influencing volunteers' satisfaction with their experience (Chacon, Vecina, & Davila, 2007; Cheung, Tang, & Yan, 2006; Finklestein, 2008; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). This will inform volunteer

recruitment strategies and will result in effective retention of a pool of trained and committed individuals who have the willingness to volunteer in future projects. Volunteers are more likely to volunteer again and stay committed to an organization if the actual volunteering experience is satisfying, rewarding and meets their unique needs (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). Consequently, satisfaction with the volunteering experience may lead to higher levels of commitment with the sport organization (Stebbins, 1996). This can be linked to the development of a core network of experienced volunteers who develop core competences in running the sport and thus ensuring its sustainability (Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Farrell et al., 1998).

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# APPENDICES

# Appendix One

## Cover Letter to Club Volunteers

Dear Rugby Volunteer,

I am a researcher from Loughborough University who, on behalf of the Rugby Football Union for Women (RFUW), is investigating the expectations and experiences of those who dedicate their free time to help women's rugby. My contact at the RFUW is Ms Holly Hart, Volunteer Coordinator (Hollyhart@rfu.com<mailto:Hollyhart@rfu.com>). The aim of the research is to collate insights from those who help to facilitate women's rugby, or who are directly involved in running and supporting it through coaching, officiating and other voluntary activities, and then feed these insights back into the planning decisions of the RFUW.

As you are one of these people, as identified from your club website and RFUW records, who helps to run and support the provision of women's rugby, I would be very grateful if you could take about 15 minutes of your time to complete the electronic questionnaire that can be found at:

**<https://www.survey.lboro.ac.uk/nonapplicant>**

All data collected will be held anonymously and securely and analysed in the aggregate. No personal data is retained. Your opinions will make a difference to local and national policy decisions regarding volunteering in rugby, so thank you for taking time to complete this survey.

I would also be very grateful if you could circulate this request for information and the completion of the questionnaire to any others at your club, that you feel are connected with women's rugby, as I recognise that the RFUW website details may be inaccurate or incomplete.

With thanks in anticipation of your help

Yours sincerely,

Ms Niki Koutrou

Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy

Loughborough University

Leicestershire

LE11 3TU

email:N.Koutrou@lboro.ac.uk

Tel: 01509223278/07530239355

# Appendix Two

## Cover Letter to the 2010 WRWC volunteers (Pre-Event)

Dear volunteer,

On behalf of Holly Hart and the RFUW, I am a researcher from Loughborough University who is investigating the expectations and experiences of those who offered to volunteer at the Rugby World Cup that is shortly to take place. Holly and the RFUW would very much appreciate if you would take the time to complete the electronic questionnaire that can be found at:

**<https://www.survey.lboro.ac.uk/rugbyworldcupvolunteering>**

before the event starts so that valuable insights from you can be used to help to further plan and support volunteering in women's rugby in the future. Your insights are extremely important and so your cooperation in completing the on-line questionnaire would be very much appreciated. The survey takes around 15 minutes. All data collected will be held anonymously and securely and analysed in the aggregate. No personal data is retained. Your opinions will make a difference to local and national policy decisions regarding volunteering in rugby, so thank you for taking time to complete this survey.

Yours faithfully

Niki Koutrou, on behalf of Holly Hart.

PhD Candidate

Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy

Loughborough University

Leicestershire

LE11 3TU



# Appendix Three

## Cover Letter to Event Volunteers (Post-Event)

**To:**  
POST EVENT VOLUNTEER SURVEY,

Dear Mrs .....,

You may recall from an email that you received prior to the Women's Rugby World Cup, that on behalf of Holly Hart and the RFUW, I am a researcher from Loughborough University who is investigating the expectations and experiences of those who offered to volunteer at the event. Now that the event is over, and some time has passed, I would be very grateful if you could once again take the time to complete the electronic questionnaire that can be found at:

**<https://www.survey.lboro.ac.uk/rugbypostevent>**

The aim is to help the RFUW to get a longer term view of your experiences as a volunteer. The survey takes around 15 minutes to complete and all data collected will be held anonymously and securely and analysed in the aggregate. No personal data is retained. Your opinions will make a difference to local and national policy decisions regarding volunteering in rugby, so thank you for taking time to complete this survey.

Yours Faithfully  
Niki Koutrou, on Behalf of Holly Hart

Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy  
Loughborough University  
Leicestershire  
LE11 3TU  
email:N.Koutrou@lboro.ac.uk  
Tel: 01509223278/07530239355

# Appendix four

## Questionnaires



### 2010 WRWC Volunteers' Survey

#### Welcome to the 2010 Rugby Volunteering Questionnaire

Welcome to this survey of volunteers in women's rugby in the UK. Volunteers are people who dedicate their free time to help their sport, with no payment for their work, other than expenses. Volunteers are important for the development and growth of rugby as they help rugby clubs and the sport in general to survive. If you are involved as a volunteer in rugby we would like to hear your volunteering experiences.

The aim of this online survey is to explore the expectations, motivation, satisfaction experiences and future plans of you as a volunteer in women's' rugby and how these dimensions impact upon your sporting and personal/professional development.

This survey is being conducted by the Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy (ISLP) of Loughborough University, with the support of the Rugby Football Union for Women (RFUW). Therefore this presents a real opportunity for the views of the volunteers in women's rugby to be heard collectively. Your contribution to this research is valuable as your opinions can help the RFUW and rugby clubs to enhance their support for volunteers, as well as to make well-informed decisions regarding their recruitment, retention and development.

The survey takes around 15 minutes. All data collected will be held anonymously and securely and no personal data is retained. Your opinions will make a difference to local and national policy decisions regarding volunteering in rugby, so thank you for taking time to complete this survey.

## 2010 WRWC Volunteers' Survey

### Current Volunteering Behavior in Women's Rugby

Please find below a series of questions about:

**Section 1.** Your current volunteering behavior

**Section 2.** Motivation to volunteer at the 2010 WRWC

**Section 3.** Satisfaction with volunteering experience

**Section 4.** Future Plans

**Section 5.** About you - details that will help our analysis

All questions appear on this page. When you click on the CONTINUE button at the bottom of this page your answers will be **submitted automatically**. You will not be able to return to this page to make amendments.

Please note that every question/every part of question needs an answer whether it is applicable to you or not. In case it is not, please choose the not applicable answer in the relevant question.

#### CURRENT VOLUNTEERING BEHAVIOUR

1. Do you actively play rugby at the moment?

- Yes  
 No

2. Do you actively participate in any other sport?

- Yes  No

Please state sport

3. Are you currently involved in volunteering for a rugby club in the UK?

- Yes (go to Question 5)
- No (go to Question 4)

4. Were you a volunteer in a rugby club in the UK in the past? (whether you answer yes or no go to Question 9) *(Optional)*

- Yes
- No
- Not Applicable

5. What is your current main role as a volunteer in this club? *(Optional)*

- Chair
- Committee Member
- Match Official
- Coach
- Team Captain
- Secretary
- Treasurer
- Fixtures secretary
- Not Applicable
- Other *(please specify):*

6. Do you volunteer primarily in the: *(Optional)*

- Women's game
- Men's game
- Children's game

7. Over how many years have you volunteered for your rugby club?  
Please state years *(Optional)*

8. On average how many hours a week do you do voluntary work for your Rugby club?

(Please give an estimate, no matter how approximate it is).  
Please state hours in season and out of season *(Optional)*

**9.** How satisfied are you with your overall (current and past) volunteering experience in your rugby club?

- Very dissatisfied    Dissatisfied    Neither Dissatisfied/nor satisfied    Satisfied  
 Very Satisfied    Not applicable

**10.** Do you do voluntary work for any other organisation at the moment?

- Yes (go to Question 11)  
 No (go to Question 12)

**11.** If 'Yes' please specify the other type (s) of organisation you volunteer for (please tick any that are applicable) *(Optional)*  
*(select all that apply)*

- School (Parents Assoc., Governors, etc.)    Uniformed groups (Scouts, Guides, etc.)  
 Other Sport (football, netball, cricket club etc.)    Charities (OXFAM,RNIB,NSPCC etc.)  
 Church,religious groups  
 Other *(please specify):*

**12.** If you volunteer in many areas as well as in rugby, is rugby the most important activity for you in terms of volunteering?

- Yes  
 No  
 Not applicable

**13.** When you started volunteering at the club was it for any of the following reasons? (Please tick ONE BOX ONLY for each of the following statements).

	Not at all important	Unimportant	Neither important/nor unimportant	Important	Very Important
a. It's connected with my needs or interests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. It's connected with the needs or interests of other members of my family or friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. It's connected with my paid work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. There was a need in the community	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. I wanted to improve things/help people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. I wanted to meet people/make friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
g. Someone asked me to help	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
h. I had time to spare	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

i. I offered to help	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
j. I started the club	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
k. I am good at it	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
l. I thought it would give me the chance to learn new skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**MOTIVATION TO VOLUNTEER AT THE 2010 WOMEN'S RUGBY WORLD CUP (WRWC)**

**14.** How much do you agree with the following statements regarding the importance of factors in the table below in influencing your decision to volunteer at the 2010 Rugby World Cup.(Please tick ONE BOX ONLY for each of the following statements)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly agree
a. I wanted to help out in any capacity	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. I wanted to do something worthwhile	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I feel it is important to help others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. I wanted to help make the event a success	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. Volunteering creates a better	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

society							
<b>f.</b> Because of my allegiance/devotion to my country	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>g.</b> I wanted to help my country gain international prestige	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>h.</b> My love for my country makes me want to help it to host an event	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>i.</b> I am proud of my country hosting the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>j.</b> I wanted to interact with others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>k.</b> I wanted to work with different people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>l.</b> I wanted to meet people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>m.</b> I wanted to develop relationships with others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>n.</b> Volunteering experience will look good on my C.V.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>o.</b> I wanted to gain some practical experience	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



<b>p.</b> I could make new contacts that might help my business or career	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>q.</b> I wanted to gain work-related experience	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>r.</b> I wanted to gain experience that would be beneficial in any job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>s.</b> Volunteering makes me feel needed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>t.</b> I can explore my own strength	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>u.</b> Volunteering makes me feel important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>v.</b> Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>w.</b> I wanted to get free food at the event	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>x.</b> I wanted to get event uniform/licensed apparel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>y.</b> I wanted to get tickets/free admission	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>z.</b> I like any event related to sport	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>aa.</b> I like any event related to	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

rugby							
<b>ab.</b> Rugby is something I love	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ac.</b> I enjoy being involved in rugby activities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ad.</b> I wanted to get away from the responsibilities of everyday life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ae.</b> I wanted to slow down the pace of my life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>af.</b> Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ag.</b> I wanted to relieve the stress and the tension of everyday life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ah.</b> I wanted to provide myself with the excitement that I crave	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ai.</b> I was asked by others to volunteer at the 2010 WRWC	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>aj.</b> Volunteering makes me feel better about myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ak.</b> By volunteering I feel less lonely	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

## SATISFACTION WITH VOLUNTEERING EXPERIENCE

15. Please indicate the level of your agreement with the following statements concerning your satisfaction with your experience from being Rugby volunteer (Please tick ONE BOX ONLY for each of the following statements).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
a. I feel that I have gained some useful experience through volunteering in rugby	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. I have the feeling that I am doing something stimulating	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I am satisfied from giving something back to my club	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. I am satisfied from putting something back into the community with volunteering	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. I am satisfied from helping others through volunteering in rugby	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. I am satisfied from helping my club to function successfully	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<p><b>g.</b> I am satisfied from my personal development and the opportunity to gain new skills through volunteering</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<p><b>h.</b> I am satisfied from the sense of belonging to the club and the community I have gained through volunteering in rugby</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<p><b>i.</b> I am satisfied from the social benefits (e.g. meeting new people, friendship, camaraderie, team spirit) I gain from my volunteer involvement in rugby</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<p><b>j.</b> I am satisfied from my volunteer role</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<p><b>k.</b> I feel satisfied with my abilities to cope with the volunteer tasks I am asked to do</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<p><b>l.</b> I find my volunteering experience in rugby enjoyable and worthwhile</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<p><b>m.</b> My club doesn't take its volunteers for granted</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<b>n.</b> I feel that my club carefully plans and schedules my volunteer workload	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>o.</b> I feel satisfied with the training and support I receive from my club	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>p.</b> I feel satisfied with the training and support I receive from the RFUW	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>q.</b> I am satisfied with the interest shown by my club in fitting the available volunteer activities to my preferences, skills and capabilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>r.</b> I feel I receive a fair amount of the recognition for the volunteer work I do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>s.</b> When I do a good job in terms of volunteering I receive the recognition for it that I should	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>t.</b> I do not feel that the volunteer work I do is appreciated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>u.</b> There are few rewards for	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

volunteers							
<b>v.</b> I feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>w.</b> My club shows too little interest in the feelings of volunteers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>x.</b> The RFUW shows too little interest in the feelings of volunteers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>y.</b> I like the people I work with (in my club)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>z.</b> I enjoy the other volunteers I work with	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>aa.</b> There is too much bickering and fighting at the rugby club where I volunteer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ab.</b> Many of the rules and procedures from the RFUW make doing a good job difficult	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ac.</b> I have too many responsibilities as a volunteer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ad.</b> I sometimes feel my volunteer experience is meaningless	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<b>ae.</b> I like doing the things I do during my volunteer experience	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>af.</b> I feel a sense of pride as a volunteer with my rugby club	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ag.</b> My volunteer experience in rugby is enjoyable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ah.</b> Communications seem good within my club	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ai.</b> The goals of my club are not clear to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>aj.</b> I often feel that I do not know what is going on at my club	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ak.</b> My volunteer assignments are not fully explained	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**FUTURE PLANS**

**16.** How does the experience of volunteering in Rugby affect your future plans? (Please tick ONE BOX ONLY for each of the following statements).

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly Disagree</b>	<b>Neither Disagree Nor Agree</b>	<b>Slightly Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>	<b>Don't know</b>
<b>a.</b> I am willing to volunteer for any	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

other rugby related event								
b. I intend to continue volunteering at a/my rugby club	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I am willing to volunteer for any other major sport event (e.g. London 2012 Olympic Games)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENT**

Finally, a few questions about yourself:

**17. Age**

18 - 24  25 - 34  35 - 44  45 - 59  60 - 69  70+

**18. Gender**

Male  Female

**19. Number of dependent children under 16 living at home (if any)**

None  One  Two  Three or more  Not applicable

**20. Age of youngest dependent child (if any)**



Under 2 years  2 - 4 years  5- 9 years  10 -15 years  Not applicable

**21. Employment status**

In full-time employment  In part-time employment  In full time education Retired  
 Unemployed

**22. Highest level of educational attainment**

Degree level or higher  
 GCSE grades D-G/commercial  
 Higher education below degree level  
 qualifications/apprenticeship  
 GCE 'A' level or equivalent  
 Foreign or other qualifications  
 GCSE grades A-C or equivalent  
 No qualifications  
 Other *(please specify):*

**23. Ethnicity (please tick corresponding box)**  
*(select all that apply)*

White-British  Asian-Bangladeshi  White Irish  Asian-Other  Black-Caribbean  
 White-Other Chinese  Black-African  Asian-Indian  Mixed --  
White & Black Caribbean  Black-Other  Asian-Pakistani  Mixed-White and  
Asian  Any other Mixed  
 Other *(please specify):*

**24. Please write your email address**

## **Women's Rugby Clubs Volunteers**

### **Welcome to the 2010 Rugby Volunteering Questionnaire**

Welcome to this survey of volunteers in women's rugby in the UK. Volunteers are people who dedicate their free time to help their sport, with no payment for their work, other than expenses. Volunteers are important for the development and growth of rugby as they help rugby clubs and the sport in general to survive. If you are involved as a volunteer in rugby we would like to hear your volunteering experiences.

The aim of this online survey is to explore the expectations, motivation, satisfaction and experiences of you as a volunteer in women's' rugby and how these dimensions impact upon your sporting and personal/professional development.

This survey is being conducted by the Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy (ISLP) of Loughborough University, with the support of the Rugby Football Union for Women (RFUW). Therefore this presents a real opportunity for the views of the volunteers in women's rugby to be heard collectively. Your contribution to this research is valuable as your opinions can help the RFUW and rugby clubs to enhance their support for volunteers, as well as to make well-informed decisions regarding their recruitment, retention and development.

The survey takes around 15 minutes. All data collected will be held anonymously and securely and no personal data is retained. Your opinions will make a difference to local and national policy decisions regarding volunteering in rugby, so thank you for taking time to complete this survey.

## Women's Rugby Clubs Volunteers

### Current Volunteering Behavior

Please find below a series of questions about:

**Section 1.** Your current volunteering behavior

**Section 2.** Your satisfaction from your volunteering experience in rugby

**Section 3.** Rugby Event Volunteers

**Section 4.** Your future plans

**Section 5.** Your expectations from volunteering in rugby

**Section 6.** About you - details that will help our analysis

All questions appear on this page. When you click on the CONTINUE button at the bottom of this page your answers will be **submitted automatically**. You will not be able to return to this page to make amendments.

### CURRENT VOLUNTEERING BEHAVIOUR

1. Do you actively play rugby at the moment?

Yes  No

2. Do you actively participate in any other sport?

Yes

No

Please state sport

3. Are you currently involved in volunteering for a rugby club in the UK?

Yes (go to Question 5)

No (go to Question 4)

**4. Were you a volunteer in a rugby club in the UK in the past? (whether you answer yes or no go to Question 9) (Optional)**

Yes

No

Not Applicable

**5. What is your current main role as a volunteer in this club?**

Chair

Committee Member

Match Official

Coach

Team Captain

Secretary

Treasurer

Fixtures secretary

Other (please specify):

**6. Do you volunteer primarily in the: (Optional)**

Women's game

Men's game

Children's game

**7. Over how many years have you volunteered for your rugby club?**

Please state years (Optional)

**8. On average how many hours a week do you do voluntary work for your Rugby club?**

(Please give an estimate, no matter how approximate it is).

Please state hours in season and out of season

9. How satisfied are you with your overall (current and past) volunteering experience in your rugby club?

- Very dissatisfied
  Dissatisfied
  Neither Dissatisfied/nor satisfied
  Satisfied
  Very Satisfied

10. Do you do voluntary work for any other organisation at the moment?

- Yes (go to Question 11)
  No (go to Question 13)

11. If 'Yes' please specify the other type (s) of organisation you volunteer for (please tick any that are applicable) *(Optional)*  
*(select all that apply)*

- School (Parents Assoc., Governors, etc.)
  Uniformed groups (Scouts, Guides, etc.)
  Other Sport (football, netball, cricket club etc.)
  Charities (OXFAM,RNIB,NSPCC etc.)
  Church,religious groups
  Other *(please specify)*:

12. If you volunteer in many areas as well as in rugby, is rugby the most important activity for you in terms of volunteering?

- Yes
  No
  Not applicable

13. When you started volunteering at the club was it for any of the following reasons? (Please tick ONE BOX ONLY for each of the following statements)

	Not at all important	Unimportant	Neither important/nor unimportant	Important	Very Important

<b>a.</b> It's connected with my needs or interests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>b.</b> It's connected with the needs or interests of other members of my family or friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>c.</b> It's connected with my paid work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>d.</b> There was a need in the community	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>e.</b> I wanted to improve things/help people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>f.</b> I wanted to meet people/make friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>g.</b> Someone asked me to help	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>h.</b> I had time to spare	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>i.</b> I offered to help	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>j.</b> I started the club	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<b>k. I am good at it</b>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>l. I thought it would give me the chance to learn new skills</b>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**14.** Please indicate the level of your agreement with the following statements concerning your satisfaction with your experience from being a Rugby volunteer (Please tick ONE BOX ONLY for each of the following statements)

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly Disagree</b>	<b>Neither Disagree/ Nor Agree</b>	<b>Slightly Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<b>a. I feel that I have gained some useful experience through volunteering in rugby</b>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>b. I have the feeling that I am doing something stimulating</b>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>c. I am satisfied from giving something back to my club</b>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>d. I am satisfied from putting something back into the community with volunteering</b>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>e. I am satisfied from helping</b>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

others through volunteering in rugby							
<b>f.</b> I am satisfied from helping my club to function successfully	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>g.</b> I am satisfied from my personal development and the opportunity to gain new skills through volunteering	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>h.</b> I am satisfied from the sense of belonging to the club and the community I have gained through volunteering in rugby	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>i.</b> I am satisfied from the social benefits (e.g.meeting new people, friendship, camaraderie, team spirit) I gain from my volunteer involvement in rugby	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>j.</b> I am satisfied from my volunteer role	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>k.</b> I feel satisfied with my abilities to cope with the volunteer tasks I	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



am asked to do							
<b>l.</b> I find my volunteering experience in rugby enjoyable and worthwhile	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>m.</b> My club doesn't take its volunteers for granted	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>n.</b> I feel that my club carefully plans and schedules my volunteer workload	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>o.</b> I feel satisfied with the training and support I receive from my club	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>p.</b> I feel satisfied with the training and support I receive from the RFUW	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>q.</b> I am satisfied with the interest shown by my club in fitting the available volunteer activities to my preferences, skills and capabilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>r.</b> I feel I receive a fair amount of the recognition for the volunteer work I do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<b>s.</b> When I do a good job in terms of volunteering I receive the recognition for it that I should	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>t.</b> I do not feel that the volunteer work I do is appreciated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>u.</b> There are few rewards for volunteers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>v.</b> I feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>w.</b> My club shows too little interest in the feelings of volunteers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>x.</b> The RFUW shows too little interest in the feelings of volunteers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>y.</b> I like the people I work with (in my club)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>z.</b> I enjoy the other volunteers I work with	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>aa.</b> There is too much bickering and fighting at the rugby club where I volunteer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<b>ab.</b> Many of the rules and procedures from the RFUW make doing a good job difficult	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ac.</b> I have too many responsibilities as a volunteer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ad.</b> I sometimes feel my volunteer experience is meaningless	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ae.</b> I like doing the things I do during my volunteer experience	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>af.</b> I feel a sense of pride as a volunteer with my rugby club	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ag.</b> My volunteer experience in rugby is enjoyable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ah.</b> Communications seem good within my club	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ai.</b> Communications seem good with the RFUW	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>aj.</b> The goals of my club are not clear to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ak.</b> I often feel that I do not know what is going on at my	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

club							
a. My volunteer assignments are not fully explained	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

15. Did you volunteer for the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup?

Yes  No

**FUTURE PLANS**

16. How does the experience of volunteering in women rugby clubs affect your future plans? (Please tick ONE BOX ONLY for each of the following statements).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree/No r Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
a. I am willing to volunteer for any other rugby related event	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. I intend to continue volunteering at my Rugby club	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I am willing to volunteer for any other major sport event (e.g. London 2012 Olympic)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Games)

## DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Finally, a few questions about yourself:

### 17. Age

- 18 - 24  25 - 34  35 - 44  45 - 59  60 - 69  70+

### 18. Gender

- Male  Female

### 19. Number of dependent children under 16 living at home (if any)

- None  One  Two  Three or more  Not applicable

### 20. Age of youngest dependent child (if any)

- Under 2 years  2 - 4 years  5- 9 years  10 -15 years  Not applicable

### 21. Employment status

- In full-time employment  In part-time employment  In full time education   
Retired  Unemployed

### 22. Highest level of educational attainment

- Degree level or higher  
 GCSE grades D-G/commercial  
 Higher education below degree level  
 qualifications/apprenticeship  
 GCE 'A' level or equivalent  
 Foreign or other qualifications  
 GCSE grades A-C or equivalent  
 No qualifications

Other (*please specify*):

**23. Ethnicity (please tick corresponding box)**

*(select all that apply)*

- White-British    Asian-Bangladeshi    White Irish Asian-Other    Black-Caribbean    White-Other Chinese    Black-African    Asian-Indian    Mixed -- White & Black Caribbean    Black-Other    Asian-Pakistani    Mixed-White and Asian    Any other Mixed

Other (*please specify*):

## **2010 RUGBY VOLUNTEERS POST EVENT QUESTIONNAIRE Final**

### **Welcome to the 2010 Women's Rugby Volunteering Questionnaire**

Welcome to this follow up survey for the volunteers at the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup.

The aim of this online survey is to explore the satisfaction and experiences of volunteers at the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup and their impact upon the sporting and personal/professional development of the volunteers, as well as on their future behavior.

This survey is being conducted by the Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy (ISLP) of Loughborough University, with the support of the Rugby Football Union for Women (RFUW). Therefore this presents a real opportunity for the views of the volunteers in women's rugby to be heard collectively. Your contribution to this research is valuable as your opinions can help the RFUW and your rugby clubs to enhance their support to their volunteers and members, as well as to make well-informed decisions regarding the recruitment, retention and development of their volunteers.

The survey takes around 10 minutes. All data collected will be held anonymously and securely and no personal data is retained. Your opinions will make a difference to local and national policy decisions regarding volunteering in rugby, so thank you for taking time to complete this survey.

## 2010 RUGBY VOLUNTEERS POST EVENT QUESTIONNAIRE Final

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE VOLUNTEERS AT THE 2010 WRWC

Please find below a series of questions about:

**Section 1.** Satisfaction with your volunteering experience at the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup

**Section 2.** Future Plans

All questions appear on this page. When you click on the CONTINUE button at the bottom of this page your answers will be **submitted automatically**. You will not be able to return to this page to make amendments.

### SATISFACTION WITH VOLUNTEERING AT THE 2010 WOMEN'S RUGBY WORLD CUP

Please tick ONE BOX ONLY for each of the following statements

**1.** Please indicate the level of satisfaction with your experience as a volunteer at the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly agree
a. I was satisfied with the volunteering experience in general	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. I was satisfied with the recognition I received	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



<b>c.</b> I was satisfied with the support I received to do my volunteer job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>d.</b> I was satisfied with the information I received	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>e.</b> I was satisfied with the prior information I received regarding the event and my volunteer tasks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>f.</b> I was satisfied with the information I received at the event	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>g.</b> I was satisfied with the organization of the 2010 WRWC	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>h.</b> I was satisfied with the communication with other volunteers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>i.</b> The working relationships were collegial	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<b>j.</b> The players were appreciative of the care I provided	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>k.</b> The players were agreeable to work with	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>l.</b> The players' attitudes contributed to a positive experience	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>m.</b> My professional colleagues exhibited positive attitudes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>n.</b> Staffing levels were acceptable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>o.</b> My background was appropriate for the level of expertise demanded	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>p.</b> I enjoyed the opportunity to interact with people from other cultures	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>q.</b> I felt I made a positive contribution to the athletes' experience	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<b>r.</b> The experience was challenging and stimulating	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>s.</b> The work load was acceptable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>t.</b> I found the pre-event training to be acceptable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>u.</b> The method for allocating shifts was fair and unbiased	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>v.</b> The level of pre-event communication was acceptable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>w.</b> I was satisfied with the ceremonies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>x.</b> I was satisfied with the opening ceremony	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>y.</b> I was satisfied with the rugby activities for spectators	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>z.</b> I was satisfied with the organization of Rugby	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Games							
<b>aa.</b> I was satisfied with the organization of social events during the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ab.</b> The facilities were well designed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ac.</b> I was satisfied with the ease of movement around the facilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ad.</b> I was satisfied with the access at the facilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ae.</b> I was satisfied with the cleanliness of the facilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>af.</b> I was satisfied with the visibility of the Rugby Games	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ag.</b> I was satisfied with the on site availability of bathroom facilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<b>ah.</b> I was satisfied with	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

the on- site availability of food							
ai. I was satisfied with the air quality at the facilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
aj. I was satisfied with my volunteer role	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>

## FUTURE PLANS

Please tick ONE BOX ONLY for each of the following statements.

2. How does the experience of volunteering at the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup affect your future plans?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree/No r Agree	Slightl y Agree	Agree	Strongl y Agree
a. I intend to continue volunteerin g in my Rugby club	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. I am willing to volunteer for any other major sport event (e.g. London 2012 Olympic Games)	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
c. I am willing to	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

volunteer  
for any  
other rugby  
related  
event

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3. Please indicate the main job you performed as a volunteer at the 2010 Women's Rugby World Cup:

4. Please write your email address