

A Conceptual Approach to Sport Volunteerism



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Abstract

The increasing needs of human labor in conjunction with the limited resources available drive several voluntary organizations to recruit more and more volunteer workers to complement or even enrich their services to the society. The growing use of volunteer labor in different facets of everyday life created a compelling need for all these people who were involved with human service agencies to review and re-evaluate the existing knowledge regarding volunteer activity. Understanding what motivates people to offer free assistance is important because agencies would be able to use this knowledge to appeal more persuasively to potential volunteers. Volunteers today are a very important element of leisure, recreation and sports. Staging big athletic events, such the Olympic Games, would not be feasible, without the use of a large amount of sport volunteers. However, research on volunteerism in sports is based largely on concepts and measures derived from studies of volunteers in non-sport industries. An extensive literature review revealed that the knowledge regarding the internal structure of motivation to volunteer remains limited. The literature review revealed a lot of methodological weaknesses in the way that research about volunteer motivation has been conducted. These weaknesses, in addition to the fact that the conceptual frameworks, that have been proposed so far, do not take under consideration all aspects of volunteerism in sport settings, create a compelling need for additional research, and approach of this phenomenon from a different angle. For the purposes of this paper, six typologies of incentive systems have been discussed with the belief that they describe better volunteerism in sport. The proposed theories seem to cover a great deal of the unique aspects and needs of sport volunteers. However, only after the analysis of empirical data will be safe to draw conclusions about the conceptual basis and the internal structure of volunteerism in sport.

Identification of Research Area

In the 1980s societal trends indicated that human service agencies were going to face severe financial problems in the 1990s and into the 21st century (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). Today, the increasing needs of human labor in conjunction with the limited resources available drive several voluntary organizations to a dead end. In order to respond effectively to these problems many public and private human service agencies started recruiting more and more volunteer workers to complement or even enrich their services to the society.

Volunteer labor is extremely valuable to an organization because it provides its administrators with the ability to sustain services, expand the quantity, quality and diversity of these services and at the same time keeps the budget in its set limitations. The core of the voluntary sector comprises organizations operating in the following fields: general purposes; education and training; health; social care accommodation & housing; culture & recreation; sports; religious activities; promotion of business; environment and animals. The activities that these organizations undertake include service delivery, campaigning, advocacy and representation, resource, in terms of both funds and volunteers.

The growing use of volunteer labor in different facets of everyday life created a compelling need for all these people who are involved with human service agencies, voluntary or not, to review and re-evaluate the existing knowledge regarding volunteer activity. Recruiting and retaining volunteer labor are primary marketing problems

(Green & Chalip, 1998; Herron, 1997; Kotler & Andersen, 1996). Understanding what motivates people to get involved in an organization providing free assistance, time and expertise is extremely important because agencies could use this knowledge to design their marketing efforts in a way that could appeal persuasively to this free labor during recruitment time (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). The whole procedure of evaluating motivational theories and incentives in addition to designing the marketing tools for recruitment and retention of volunteer labor requires a very careful approach and consideration. Recruitment and selection processes of volunteers can be proved a very expensive endeavor in most cases (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). Limited knowledge of current trends in volunteerism or ignorance of the real needs and motives of volunteers can be proved catastrophic for the expansion of volunteer human resources, the morale of the organization, or the execution of a special event.

Additionally, it is also important for the recruiters of volunteer labor to understand that, although the motives that initially influence people to offer free services to any organization may differ from these motives that keep them involved for long time, it is for the benefit of the organization to detect and understand the initial motives of those who commit themselves for long time periods (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Gidron, 1984). These are the kind of volunteers that recruiters would prefer to attract more than the short-term volunteers because they save the organization time and monetary resources. The best way to attract long term commitment volunteers is "to appeal to their motives as long as such motives are known" (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991, p. 270).

While volunteers have been offering their precious services to human service agencies for a very long time, "they have largely been taken for granted; it is a new phenomenon to consider them a subject worthy of study" (Ellis, 1985, p.11). Until a couple of decades ago there were no university program offering single courses or academic major in managing a volunteer program. At that time, some scholars and faculty started showing an interest in questioning issues related to volunteerism in general and its implications on the society. Since then adequate research has been done, especially on charity organizations, concerning issues related to the recruitment and retention of volunteer labor (Schlegelmilch & Tynan, 1989; Wymer, Reicken, & Yavas, 1996).

Despite the growing amount of literature about volunteers, very little is also known about the different kinds of volunteer work and the motivational patterns behind them. Studies "tend to lump categories of volunteers together into large aggregates that do not illuminate possible important differences in patterns of volunteering among various populations" (Ellis, 1985, p.11). Until it has been clearly described who volunteers for what, scholars cannot move on to more in depth studies of other issues related to volunteers. A firmer foundation of knowledge about volunteering than the existing one should be developed.

Definition of Volunteering

Volunteering as defined by the National Center for Volunteering in the United Kingdom "is any activity which involves spending time, unpaid, doing something which aims to benefit someone, individuals or groups, other than or in addition to close relatives or to benefit the environment including animals" (N.C.VO National Report, 1998, <http://www.etwelfare.com/Country/UK-Nat.htm>).

The Australian Bureau of Statistics Voluntary Work survey in 1995 included the following definition of a volunteer: "someone who willingly gives unpaid help, in

the form of time, service or skills, through an organization or group. An organization or group is any body with a formal structure. It may be as large as a national charity or as small as a local book club. Informal and temporary gatherings of people do not constitute an organization.* (ABS Voluntary Work: Preliminary, 1995). This definition of volunteering currently includes three important concepts: a) the provision of a service to the community, b) freedom of choice to become involved, and c) non-payment of the service provided (except reimbursement expenses). Current Australian literature is also clear that volunteering is not about coercion to be involved, limitation of women's right to workforce participation, substitution of paid workers or provision of a cheaper, "second class" service.

Profile of Volunteerism in U.S.

The 1999 National Survey for "Giving and Volunteering in the United States" is the sixth in a series of biennial national surveys that report trends in volunteer and charitable behavior. These surveys chart public attitudes about a variety of issues that affect the climate for giving and volunteering, and explore behavioral and motivational factors that influence giving and volunteering (Gallup Organization, 1999).

In May 1999 the Gallup Organization conducted interviews with 2,553 adults aged 18 years old and more. The sampling error for this sample was plus/minus 3%. Respondents were asked about their own volunteering experiences, motivations for giving and volunteering, and opinions and attitudes about nonprofit organizations. The results of this survey are reported at the paragraphs that follow. In 1998, 56% of the adults in the U.S., aged 18 and over, volunteered their services to a voluntary organization, event, or program, averaging 3.5 hours of volunteer work per week. This percentage is significantly higher than 1995 (it used to be 49%), although the average weekly hours per volunteer have declined since then (it used to be 4.2 hours). According to the report, the average number of hours volunteered may have declined due to the broader participation of individuals who did not regularly volunteer (Gallup Organization, 1999).

The total number of volunteers reached 109.4 million adults, significantly more than the 93 million adults who reported volunteering their services in 1995. The value for this labor, which was equivalent of over 9 million full time employees, was \$225 billion (Gallup Organization 1999).

Women volunteered more than men did. The survey revealed that 62% of the women asked, had volunteered at least once during the past year. Only 49% of the men asked gave the same answer. Nevertheless, men who volunteered committed more time at their volunteer activities than the opposite sex. They recorded 3.6 hours/week as compared to 3.4 hours /week for women (Gallup Organization 1999).

There were also differences in volunteering patterns related to age factors: adults 35- 44 years old volunteered the most in 1998; 67% of the people belonging at this age range committed themselves in volunteer activities, with an average of between 3.8 and 3.9 hours per week. The age group that followed consisted of 45-55 year old adults; 63% of them also volunteered an average of approximately 3.9 hours per week. Younger adults between 18-24 year old were positioned third at the rank with 46% of them volunteering an average of 3 hours per week. The surprise came from those aged 75 and over: 43% of them assumed tasks as

volunteer workers, an increase of 9% since 1995 (Gallup Organization 1999). Another interesting point at this survey were the attitudes of minority groups towards volunteerism. An encouraging point is that both groups, African American and Hispanics have increased their participation percentages in volunteer activities. This increase was significant for African American adults, who saw their level approach 47%, in contrast of 35% they recorded in 1995. Hispanics also volunteer in a percentage that reached 46%. This is a significant increase if someone consider that at the 1995 survey, the percentage of the Hispanic population who reported participation in voluntary activities was 40% (Gallup Organization 1999). The survey revealed that the type of volunteer work performed most frequently was in order of significance: a) direct service activity that includes services like undertaking shopping or repairs on behalf of people in need, b) fundraising, c) advising and/or counseling, d) organizing an event, and e) visiting people/ offering companionship (Gallup Organization 1999). Accordingly, the most popular activity areas in order of significance were: a) informal activities, b) religion, c) youth, d) education, and e) recreation (Gallup Organization 1999).

Results of great importance were also revealed concerning the frequency patterns of volunteering among adults. Forty-one percent of volunteers reported that they offered their services in a sporadic, one- time activity. Thirty-nine percent said that they volunteered either weekly, bi-weekly or monthly. Finally, only a small portion of volunteers (9%) acknowledged they volunteer at special occasions like Christmas or Hanukkah. When they were asked to indicate the reasons that inspired them to volunteer, they cited the following statements in order of importance: a) feeling compassion for those in need, b) having an interest in the activity or work, c) gaining a new perspective on things, and d) the importance of the activity to people the volunteer respects (Gallup Organization 1999).

The executive summary report selected not to provide detailed information for all household income brackets, marital status categories, full or part -time employment, and education levels of those volunteered in 1998. The partial information reported about the preceding factors was selected only because of its usefulness to help readers understand the demographic characteristics of those most likely to volunteer at the future. According to the information provided: a) 42% of the households with an average income below \$20,000 reported that participated in some volunteer activity, and b) 68% of the households with an annual income between \$40,000 -\$49,000. This percentage is up 15 percentage points from the percentage of the same category households that reported volunteering in 1995 (Gallup Organization 1999).

The education level is a major factor that influences significantly the decision making process of prospective volunteer workers towards participation in voluntary activities. According to the report, college graduates were up to 60% more likely to volunteer than those respondents with only a high school diploma (Gallup Organization 1999).

While the National Survey of Giving and Volunteering in the United States (1999) included demographic questions about marital and employment status, the executive summary report did not include all results from these findings. The following information are what they let the public know: a) people that were divorced, separated, or those living with a partner reported an increase in volunteering up to 16 percentage points from the percentage that the same groups reported in

1995; b) part-time employees reported an increase in volunteering up to 13 percentage points from 1995; and c) respondents who were not employed reported an increase in volunteering up to 10 percentage points from 1995 (Gallup Organization 1999).

Finally, it is important to note here that 90% of the respondents volunteered when asked. Forty-two percent of the volunteers found out about activities through personal contact, while 35% through participation in an organization. Only one percent of respondents learned about volunteering via the internet (Gallup Organization 1999).

Trends and their Implications

Short-term or "Episodic" Commitments

Most new volunteers today seek assignments with a clear beginning, middle and end. One-time-only volunteering opportunities continue to expand. The good news in all this is that after people have gotten their feet wet in a successful volunteer effort, they often turn around and ask what they can do next. Volunteer program managers should start thinking of "retention" in terms of an ongoing sequence of short-term assignments.

Singles as a Target Audience

Connected to the popularity of one-day volunteer projects, there's a new awareness of an old fact: people who volunteer make friends with other volunteers who share their interests. In a world in which young people delay marriage and in which divorce hits half the couples in the U.S., it isn't surprising that volunteering is being adopted as part of the singles scene. An increasing number of programs are targeting single volunteers, either as their only participants or for specially-designated work shifts.

Welfare Reform

This is an issue with inconsistent effect on volunteer programs because each state handles it differently--as do a number of other countries around the world. As public assistance rolls are decreased by requiring able-bodied men and women to get a job or go to school, the question of where volunteering fits into the picture is raised. In many states, volunteering is a legally-approved alternative to a paying job or training, allowing someone to keep welfare benefits if s/he logs a certain number of community service hours which are viewed as benefiting the public. However, in some states, the opposite reasoning applies: if someone is volunteering, then they can't be seriously looking for a paying job, so community service is disallowed.

Internet-based Distance Learning

The number and quality of Web sites, listservs and newsgroups offering resources for volunteer program leaders continue to grow. Several exciting uses of this electronic medium, including complete books are available at no charge online, increasing the use of audio, and the introduction of "streaming video" for distance learning options. Complete online courses in volunteer management are also available - with some institutions even giving academic credit - so now the challenge is to see how volunteer program managers can adapt the technology to train and update active volunteers.

Family Volunteering

While receiving much lip service over the years, most agencies have not yet found meaningful ways to put family units to work as volunteers. Interest in this idea is increasing as evidenced by new guidebooks, training materials, and conference presentations. To make the idea work, they have to recognize the many variations that the word "family" covers today. Intact nuclear families today are in the minority. However, volunteer programs can tap into grandparents raising grandchildren, divorced parents, and homes with adults who are each other's "significant other."

Volunteers in Sport Settings

Any sport or voluntary organization, city council, or governmental agency that takes the initiative to stage a sport event, must plan, organize, coordinate, and execute numerous activities concerning the event's organization and promotion in addition to controlling the competition and dealing with the athletes (Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998).

Activities of organizers include, but are not limited to, promoting the event to sponsors and spectators prior to the games, providing venue support (ticketing and ushers), and dealing with parking, concessions, and security needs. In major sport events like World Championships or the Olympic Games, these activities are extended to logistics, accreditation, media, VIP and sponsors hospitality, merchandising sales, medical support, volunteers' training and supervision etc. To overcome the lack of skilled event employees and at the same time to cut the operational cost of hosting the sport event, the organizers appeal to the community asking for volunteer workers to assume the tasks mentioned. From that standpoint, volunteers "enable administrators... to complement and enrich... current services and expand both the quantity and diversity of services without exhausting the agency's budget" (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991, p. 270).

Today, volunteers are "a core component of sport service delivery" (Green & Chalip, 1998, p.14) and play a significant role in the overall success of many major sport competitions (Beamish, 1985; Berlonghi, 1994; Daly, 1991; McPherson, 1986; Williams, Dossa, & Tompkins, 1995). They serve sports as coaches, administrators, fund-raisers, and staff members. They can be found assisting local sport programs (recreation leagues administrated by city authorities), national (Special Olympics programs), or international sport events (Soccer World Cup). Hallmark events, such as the Olympic Games, would not have any chance of success without the contribution of skills, time and commitment by the thousands of the volunteers who respond to the organizing committee's calls. The 1996 Olympic Games in Atlanta required up to 40,000 volunteers (Emmons, 1996); the number for the Sydney Games increased to 50,000 volunteers both for the 2000 Olympics and Paralympics which followed. The Georgia Games in Atlanta, an annual Olympic type all state event for youth, attracted over 3,500 people at the 2000 event. They volunteered their time for positions ranging in duties from security officers to hospitality and cleaning crews. Other state or local events may need only several dozen volunteers to function; however, their impact and contribution to the efficient organization of minor sport events should not be underestimated. Research focusing on volunteerism in sport settings today is limited, and all the measurements, and concepts that have emerged so far are derived from studies of volunteers in non-sport sectors. The data collected has been proven insufficient

to support "whether volunteering in sport is driven by considerations that are unique to sport" (Green & Chalip, 1998, p.14). Furthermore, these studies, although they provide valuable information about the concept of motivation to volunteer and its internal structure, fail to answer adequately all the questions concerning the complex nature of volunteer behavior in sports.

Nature of Sport Volunteer

Volunteering in research "is frequently approached from a human resource perspective" (Green & Chalip, 1998, p.14). In order to recruit volunteers, administrators write job descriptions, advertise at the media, contact formal interviews, train and supervise the same way they do with paid staff (Brudney, 1990; Green & Chalip, 1998; Lauffer & Gorodezky, 1977; McCurley, 1994). However, Tedrick and Henderson (1989) support that volunteering is better conceptualized as a leisure choice- not an analog to work. Volunteers are exchanging their time, effort and labor, in order to gain not financial benefits but rather psychological gains (Green & Chalip, 1998). That conclusion makes volunteering look similar to a leisure choice.

Other studies have also demonstrated that volunteering services, or participation in voluntary associations in general, is considered by many people as a form of leisure activity (Burdge, 1974; Crandall, 1979; Deffe, Schultz & Pasewark, 1974; Dennis & Zube, 1988; Noe, 1973; Stern & Noe, 1973). Beard and Raghed (1983) in their study of measuring leisure motivation proposed that, "individuals are driven to engage in leisure activities for different reasons, and the study of these reasons, their origins, and etiology is central to the understanding of leisure behavior" (Beard & Raghed, 1983, p.227). Dennis and Zube (1988), and Green and Chalip (1998) have also stated that very little are known about the decision processes involved in adopting leisure activities, and even less about the decision processes that lead to volunteer behavior.

The conclusion that is drawing from the presiding theories is more than obvious: sport volunteerism could be conceptualized as a leisure choice, and be further investigated to reveal its unique qualities that lead in a different approach in recruiting methods, incentive, and retention strategies for sport volunteers.

Theoretical Background

Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991), reported that the way volunteer motivation research had been conducted shows a lot of methodological weaknesses: "what is known about motivation to volunteer is neither systematic, nor consistent... the literature is mostly descriptive" (Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen, 1991, p.270). Studies about volunteerism "tend to lump categories of volunteers together into large aggregates that do not illuminate possible important differences in patterns of volunteering among various populations" (Ellis, 1985, p.11). The range of institutions that have been studied so far is not wide enough to include organizations such as recreational parks, museums, sport groups, and sport events, in order to better analyze the demographic characteristics of these volunteers (Ellis, 1985). These weaknesses, in addition to the fact that the conceptual frameworks that have been proposed so far, do not take under consideration the unique aspects of volunteerism in sport settings, create a compelling need for additional research, and a new approach of this phenomenon from a different angle.

After an extensive review of literature, six incentive systems emerged as predominant

to adequately explain volunteerism in sport. These typologies of incentives seem to cover sufficiently all unique aspects and needs of sport volunteers. However, only after the analysis of the research results, will it be safe to draw conclusions about the conceptual basis and the internal structure of sport volunteerism. The typologies that are going to be discussed at this paper are the following: a) Schondel, Shields and Orel (1992), b) Clark and Wilson (1961), c) Knoke and Wright-Isak (1982), d) Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998), e) Beard and Raghd (1983), and f) Clary, Ridge, Stukas, Snyder, Copeland, Haugen, and Miene (1998).

Incentive Systems

In order to give an adequate description of what incentive systems are and their role in the motivational process of volunteers, a descriptive definition of incentives is necessary to help readers understand better the internal structure of those systems. Chester Barnard (1938) stated that, "the contributions of personal efforts which constitute the energies of organizations are yielded by individuals because of incentives. The egotistical motives of self-preservation and self-gratification are dominating forces; on the whole, organizations can exist only when consistent with the satisfaction of these motives, unless, alternatively, they can change these motives. The individual is always the basic strategic factor in organizations. Regardless of his history or his obligations he must be induced to cooperate, or there can be no cooperation" (Barnard, 1938, p.139).

According to Knoke and Wright-Isak (1982), the incentive system of an organization "can fruitfully be viewed as a social control mechanism"(Knoke and Wright-Isak, 1982, p. 231). The organization expects from its members, staff and volunteers, not only to commit their time, efforts, knowledge, expertise, but also their psychological support, money and material goods in exchange of certain inducements. These inducements vary depending on the situation and the type of the organization. They can be material incentives like monetary rewards, merchandise, and memorabilia, or non-material benefits like the opportunity to socialize and interact with other people, social status that derives from the association with a specific organization etc. The organization, using all these commitments from its members enhances the probability to achieve its set goals. In certain occasions also, using an effective incentive system, helps the organization to save a great deal of its monetary resources, and use them for other purposes.

When an incentive system is totally absent, or its initiation has been proven ineffective, the members of an organization tend to form and pursue their own private objectives that do not necessary agree with the goals and the purposes of the organization. Incentive systems "serve two functions: a) stimulating commitment to the organization, and b) acquiring member-contributed resources" (Caldwell & Andereck, 1994, p. 36).

Incentive Characteristics

Incentives in literature have the following characteristics:

1. Incentives are "by definition scarce"(Clark & Wilson, 1961, p.132). Benefits from volunteering should be perceived as relatively rare by potential volunteers, otherwise there is no inducement for them to commit their time, effort, expertise and labor. In Olympic games, for example, there is a small number of volunteer positions for people who act as liaisons between the various National Governing Bodies (and their respective teams) and the Organizing Committee of the Games. These positions

carry an extreme importance and are perceived very prestigious among volunteers. The screening process that involves several interviews, in conjunction with the demand for special skills and abilities job description, do not keep people away from applying; the unique benefits and opportunities the positions offer, compensate volunteers for all the efforts, time commitment, and labor they exchange for this one-a-lifetime opportunity.

2. Incentives must be perceived by potential volunteers as valued (Knocke & Prensley, 1984). If also the probability of receiving them is perceived to be high, incentives are perceived as even more valuable (Prestby, Wandersman, Florin, Rich, & Chavis, 1990).

3. Incentives should be varied and mixed (Knocke & Wright-Isak, 1982). A given incentive may have more effect upon some people than others (Clark & Wilson, 1961). The inequality at the distribution and the possession of the resources in the society have as a result that incentives do not have the same effect upon people. A small increment in wealth cannot induce a multimillionaire to commit time and effort to an organization; however the same increment could be a great incentive for a white-collar worker. Membership also in a given organization may be perceived as prestigious by a person whose social status is considered low, while the same membership constitutes no inducement for another person who perceives her/his status as a high one. (Clark & Wilson, 1961).

4. Benefits should be selective; only those who actually participate or contribute should receive the benefits (Olson, 1965; Prestby et al., 1990). Incentives need to be focused on each volunteer's personal contribution, service and commitment, and be given only to those of the volunteers who actually participate in the common effort. Potential volunteers tend "to refrain from participation if they believe others will participate, since they can receive the same "collective" benefits obtained by the participants and thus enjoy a free ride." (Prestby et al., 1990, p.120).

5. The incentives that an organization offers to attract potential volunteer workers should not necessarily coincide with its goals and objectives. People tend to volunteer not only because they agree with the stated goals of an organization, but also for their own personal reasons. Volunteer recruiters need to recognize this fact, detect and evaluate the needs of prospective volunteers, and use more than one type of incentives in order to persuade a greater number of people to commit their time and skills towards the organizational goals (Knocke & Wright-Isak, 1982).

6. A specific incentive "may appeal to more than one motive, or may affect different motives" in different potential volunteers (Knocke & Wright-Isak, 1982 p. 231).

7. An organization's "incentive output must not exceed its available incentive resources" (Clark & Wilson, 1961, p. 133). Excessive, with no rationale payments of wages, benefits, and bonuses to volunteer labor could have as a result to lead even a wealthy organization to serious economic problems. A "net outflow of incentive resources will produce decreases in organizational size and/or levels of activity, and will ultimately produce either an alteration in the incentive system or organizational collapse" (Clark & Wilson, 1961, p.133).

Motivational Typologies

Schondel, Shields, and Orel (1992) examined the concept of needs in relation to the motivation of volunteers. They adopted a two-parameter model by classifying

motivation as extrinsic and intrinsic. According to Pinder (1985), extrinsic motivation "refers to behavior which is intended to attain a desirable external reward, or avoid a negative consequence" (Schondel et al., 1992, p.57). On the other hand, intrinsic motivation "is reflected in efforts which constitute its own rewards; there is no obvious external reward, or ulterior purpose behind an individual's actions" (Schondel et al., 1992, p.58).

Extrinsic motivation is associated with two distinguished categories of needs: a) existence needs, and b) relatedness needs. Existence needs are responsible for the pursuit of food, water, sleep, sex, warmth, and safety (Alderfer, 1972). Some of these needs could be satisfied by voluntary work. In sports, young professionals often get involved in volunteering their services in a sport event in order to acquire the experience and the insight needed to pursue a career in sports at the future. Relatedness needs are associated with the human tendency "to seek out, interact, or affiliate with other people" (Schondel et al., 1992, p.58).

A great deal of voluntary activity is channeled to satisfy relatedness needs of the individual.

Intrinsic motivation is associated with: a) internal needs, like the need for self-actualization, that permits the person to fulfill her potential; b) self-esteem, that increases the person's regard for herself; c) competence, which describes the desire of the individual to interact effectively with her environment; d) achievement, which outlines the efforts of an individual to excel against her one's standards of excellence; and e) the need for power, which is the desire of people to have an impact on others.

Summarizing their research, Schondel, Shields, and Orel (1992) stated that different people have different needs to satisfy, and a human behavior (like volunteering) serves more than a single need at a time.

Clark and Wilson (1961) first and Knoke and Wright-Isak (1982) later proposed two typologies of incentive systems that are very similar to each other. Clark and Wilson classified their incentives as material, solidary, and purposive. Knoke and Wright-Isak identified also three analytically distinct categories: utilitarian, affective, and normative. Their typology, although parallel to Clark and Wilson's work, goes considerably further in taking under consideration the multiple types of incentives which may be offered within an organization.

Material (utilitarian) incentives are "tangible rewards that have a monetary value or can easily be translated into ones that have" (Clark & Wilson, 1961, p.134; Caldwell & Andereck, 1994; Knoke & Prenskey, 1984; Knoke & Wright-Isak, 1982; Prestby et al., 1990). These incentives can be money in the form of wages and salaries, memorabilia, volunteer uniforms, etc. Knoke and Wright-Isak (1982) also considered social status or prestige from belonging to an organization to carry utilitarian value, not necessarily a monetary one, against which all the costs of volunteers' contributions could be calculated. In sports for example, the social status that derives from volunteering services to a sport event with some visibility in the community, local, national or global, has been proven many times a strong motivator for people to volunteer).

Solidary (affective) incentives are intangible rewards that "derive in the main from the act of associating (Clark & Wilson, 1961, p.134); they are designed "to foster emotional attachments" among members (Knoke & Wright-Isak, 1982, p.233). They have no monetary value and "cannot easily be translated into... (rewards) that have." (Clark & Wilson, 1961, p.134; Caldwell & Andereck, 1994; Farrell,

Johnston & Twynam, 1998; Knoke & Prensky, 1984; Knoke & Wright-Isak, 1982; Prestby et al., 1990). Interpersonal relationships are the main component of solitary (affective) incentives. Activities are designed "to bring an emotional response that will establish affective bonds; all serve to motivate commitment on an emotional level" (Knoke and Wright-Isak, 1982, p.233). These category of incentives includes opportunities for interpersonal relationships, friendship development, group membership and identification, the status resulting from volunteering services at the specific sport event, social interaction, personal contact with the athletes, formal ceremonies to recognize volunteers, testimonial events, etc.

Purposive (normative) incentives are also intangible incentives that "derive in the main from the stated ends of the association" and are based on global concerns of a suprapersonal nature (Clark & Wilson, 1961, p.135; Knoke & Wright-Isak, 1982; Knoke & Prensky, 1984; Prestby et al., 1990; Caldwell & Andereck, 1994; Farrell, Johnston & Twynam, 1998).

Farrell et al (1998) at their study of sport volunteerism supported in a great degree what Cnaan and Goldberg (1991) had proposed earlier at their typology of incentives. Farrell's findings supported the existence of the purposive and solitary factors; furthermore, they ended up proposing another two new factors. They called them commitments and external traditions. According to the definitions they gave, the commitment factor "contains incentives that link external expectations and personal skills with commitment to volunteer" (Farrell et al., 1998, p.293) The external tradition factor "expresses motivations related to external influences (like family traditions and the use of free time) on an individual's volunteer career" (Farrell et al., 1998, p.293). The results of this study are of a great significance because, unlike the other typologies discussed before, this study examined specifically sport volunteers in an elite sporting event. The findings could be generalized, and their typology could be tested again in different sporting events in order to increase its external validity.

Another point that was taken under serious consideration at the design and the development of this research endeavor was the remark that Tedrick and Henderson (1989) made at their book *Volunteers in Leisure*. According to their approach to volunteerism, volunteering is better conceptualized as a leisure choice. Other studies have also demonstrated that volunteering services, or participation in voluntary associations in general, is considered by many people as a form of leisure activity (Noe, 1973; Stern & Noe, 1973; Defee et al. 1974; Burdge, 1974; Crandall, 1979; Dennis & Zube, 1988). From that standpoint, there was a compelling need to examine the typology that Beard and Raghed (1983) proposed in their study of measuring leisure motivation. According to them, "individuals are driven to engage in leisure activities for different reasons, and the study of these reasons, their origins, and etiology is central to the understanding of leisure behavior" (Beard & Raghed, 1983, p.227) They proposed four subscales that were entitled: a) intellectual, which includes motives that satisfy needs for mental activities such as learning and creating; b) social, which consists of needs for interpersonal relationships and for the esteem of others; c) competence-mastery, which assesses individual needs for achievement, challenge and competition; and d) a stimulus-avoidance subscale that includes motives that serve individual needs to escape, or to avoid social contacts (Beard & Raghed, 1983). Although the stimulus-avoidance component seems to fit more to outdoor leisure activities and has probably nothing to do with volunteerism in sport events, it is more that obvious that the other three components

coincide with some of the proposed subscales in other incentive typologies. Clary et al. (1998), in their attempt to understand and assess the motivations of volunteers, adapted a functional approach to motivation as it has been described in the classic theories of attitudes offered by Katz (1960) and Smith et al. (1956). Both scholars had proposed that "the same attitudes could serve different functions for different people; attempts to change attitudes would succeed to the extent that they addressed the functions served by those attitudes." (Clary et al., 1998, p.1517). In their incentive typology, Clary et al. (1998) proposed a set of six motivational functions served by volunteerism. These factors (functions) were labeled: values [involves opportunities for volunteers to "express values related to altruistic and humanitarian concerns for others" (Clary et al., 1998, p.1517)]; understanding [involves opportunities for volunteers to "permit new learning experiences and the chance to exercise knowledge, skills and abilities" (Clary et al., 1998, p.1518)]; social [involves opportunities for volunteers "to be with one's friends or to engage in an activity viewed favorably by important others" (Clary et al., 1998, p.1518)]; career [involves opportunities "for career-related benefits that may be obtained from participation in volunteer work" (Clary et al., 1998, p.1518)]; protective [involves processes associated with "the functioning of ego, like addressing one's own personal problems" (Clary et al., 1998, p.1518)]; and enhancement [involves opportunities for volunteers to "obtain satisfactions related to personal growth and self-esteem" (Clary et al., 1998, p.1518)].

Discussion

An extensive literature review revealed that what we know today regarding the internal structure of motivation to volunteer remains limited and in many cases conflicting; at the case of sport volunteerism this knowledge is extremely narrowed. Many models have been proposed by scholars, "but few have been tested empirically and even then the findings have supported competing models" (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991, p. 275). Most of these studies were based either on a conceptual analysis, or on an empirical analysis of one program. Few of them have focused on the relationships among the various components of motivation to volunteer. That actually means that, most of these studies have provided a list of motives, and some have attempted to group them conceptually, but none have examined the extent to which they overlap (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). Today, the question still exists: is there is a single-category typology, a two-category typology, a three-category typology, or a more complex typology of motivation to volunteer? The literature about volunteers' motivation in general, and about direct service in particular, is mostly descriptive. Most studies examine only one program or aggregate volunteer data from a variety of samples (Ellis, 1985). The concept also of motivation itself is not defined uniformly in these studies (Horton-Smith, 1981).

Two different scholars could give at the same term a different operational definition. In addition, research about volunteers in sport settings" is based largely on concepts and measures derived from studies of volunteers in non-sport industries" (Green & Chalip, 1998, p.14). These results have been proven insufficient to clarify whether volunteering in sport settings is driven by factors that are unique to sport. Furthermore, these studies although they provide a lot of information about the concept of volunteerism and its internal structure, cannot answer all the questions concerning the complex nature of volunteer behavior in sports.

Most of the times, researchers approach volunteerism and volunteers from a human

resource perspective, as staff who are unpaid (Brudney, 1990; Green & Chalip, 1998; Lauffer & Gorodezky, 1977; McCurley, 1994). However, Tedrick and Henderson (1989) support that volunteering is better conceptualized as a leisure choice. Volunteers are exchanging their time, effort and labor, in order to gain not financial benefits but rather psychological gains (Green & Chalip, 1998). That makes volunteering look more as a leisure choice. For these reasons, a different approach in recruiting methods, motivation, and retention strategies is more than necessary. Unfortunately, voluntary association involvement as a form of leisure behavior has been minimally discussed.

A final point is that, despite their importance, "only a few studies have examined the costs of voluntary organization participation and no studies have constructed a typology of costs similar to Clark and Wilson's incentive model" (Prestby et al., 1990, p. 121). The research on costs indicates that volunteers at their search for volunteering opportunities often face costs such as time, effort, personal expenses (Kjandemans, 1984), conflicts with other volunteers or paid staff (Friedmann, Florin, Wandersman, & Meier, 1988), lack of social support, especially when the group they volunteer their services is not socially accepted (Friedmann et al., 1988; Wandersman, Florin, Friedmann, & Meier, 1987), and in many cases partial or full disagreement with certain goals or activities that the organization adapts (Prestby et al., 1990).

Recommendations for Future Research

As it was stated before, researchers argue that volunteering is better conceptualized as a leisure choice (Tedrick & Henderson, 1989). Additional research should be done towards this direction, in order to examine if this statement is true, or partially true, for sport volunteerism. All research that has been done so far is based to a great degree on concepts, theoretical frameworks, and measures that have been transferred from human services, approaching the phenomenon from a human resource angle. Studies about volunteerism and motivation in leisure research fields could help scholars to see sport volunteerism with a different eye, and propose solutions that package the volunteer product in a way that "it meets the leisure needs of likely candidates" (Green & Chalip, 1998, p.14). In addition, it has to be determined in research whether volunteerism in sport is driven by factors that are unique to sport settings.

The next logical step at this exploration is the construction of a typology that better describes the internal structure of sport volunteerism. The only published attempt known is the typology that Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998) proposed by dividing their motivation model into four categories: purposive, solidary, external traditions, and commitments. However, its external validity should be further tested. A new constructed typology tailored to the needs of sport volunteerism should be applied in different sport and recreation settings and, if it is feasible, in different countries - where the cultural factor could have a greater influence in the decision-making or the motivational processes of the volunteers- or in different type and size sporting events - from elite sport events like the Olympic Games to regional events like State High School Championships- in order its effectiveness in measuring volunteers' motivation to be evaluated. Additional research should be also conducted in order to develop a theory concerning the significance of motives to volunteering in sport events. This theory needs to take under consideration the size, location,

purpose, composition of the volunteer labor, and impact of the sport event on the hosting community, and create a sport event taxonomy for volunteers based on the presiding factors.

An area that needs special consideration is the area of costs associated with the voluntary activity. Research should further investigate the connection that exist between costs and benefits that derive from volunteers' involvement and construct a typology of costs similar to the typology of incentives. This endeavor could possibly help the scholars to determine whether differences in participants' reported benefits and costs are associated with different levels of participation. Another area that has to be scrutinized is whether motives for joining a sport organization as a volunteer differ from motives for continuation of membership at the same organization. Factors like volunteer experience satisfaction, as well as organizational and management factors (that may have a role in the overall satisfaction) should be also taken under consideration.

Differences in motives should also be examined under the prism of demographic and/or psychographic factors. Specifically, researchers should determine whether differences in joining (or continuing) as a volunteer in a sport organization are affected by factors, like age, gender, income, and educational level. It should be also interesting to study the motivation differences between volunteers and salaried staff in sport settings.

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