



UNIVERSITY OF PELOPONNESE  
FACULTY OF HUMAN MOVEMENT AND QUALITY OF LIFE SCIENCES  
DEPARTMENT OF SPORTS ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT

MASTER'S THESIS

“OLYMPIC STUDIES, OLYMPIC EDUCATION, ORGANIZATION  
AND MANAGEMENT OF OLYMPIC EVENTS”

**What motivates Olympic volunteers? The impact of Olympic  
volunteering on social capital. The Case of the London 2012 Games  
Makers**

Niki Koutrou

**Supervisor:** Dr Benoit Seguin  
Professor

Sparta,  
January,  
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## Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter provides an insight into the study by outlining the rationale for this research. A brief background of the study is provided along with the aim and objectives, research questions and explanations of terms.

### 1.1. Definition of Volunteering

A critical question arises on how volunteering is defined. The concept of volunteering differs and is dependent on the social, cultural and religious perspective that volunteering refers to (Moragas et al., 2000). Even though there is little universal agreement on how volunteering is defined (Cuskelly, Hoyer, & Auld, 2006) the term incorporates some common elements such as the non-obliged commitment of the individuals to reach specific goals based on their free will, the lack of monetary rewards, the offer of services to others by being motivated by principles of altruism and solidarity and the gift of time (Hedley & Davis Smith, 1992; Cordingley, 2000; Zappala & Burrell, 2001). 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'*.

Even though the above definition describes the voluntary activity that is undertaken through formal bodies, organizations and groups, it fails to consider the actions that are expressed from individuals who do not belong 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). Sport volunteers likely 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)*.

## **1.2. The Olympic Games and Evolution of the Concept of Olympic Volunteering**

Hallmark or mega-events are defined as *'major fairs, expositions, special events, mega-events and of 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'* (Hall, 1989, p.263; Getz, 1997; Hall,1995; Mules & Faulkner,1996). Moreover, hallmark events generate significant economic activity and media interest as they attract international spectatorship. Hallmark events are characterized by the potential of national and international tourism development (Hall 1989; Hughes et al., 1997). The Olympic Games is the most prominent example of all hallmark or mega events which involve a variety of activities that offer opportunities for showcasing the host countries, strengthen their image around the globe, market them as tourist destinations, enhance the national pride of their citizens (Getz, 1997) and provides them with *"a sense of community and unity which can even transcend social and ideological divisions"* (Furrer, 2002, p.5).

The main element that differentiates the Olympic Games from other mega-events is the specific ideals that support the constitution of the Olympic movement (Panagiotopoulou, 2000a). Pierre De Coubertin, the founder of the Modern Olympic Movement throughout his life supported the idea that sport for all should be fostered by the Olympic Movement (Chalip, 1999). The Olympic Games not only constitute the largest athletic event on a global sphere but also promote the possibility of participation of ordinary people. Apart from the elite athletes and those who are directly related to the competitive part of the event, the organization of the Olympic Games involves the contribution of various stakeholders such as the volunteers, the citizens of the host city, the visitors etc. who have the opportunity to get in a way involved with the event (Panagiotopoulou, 2000a).

The concept of the Olympic volunteer was firstly defined in the official report of the 1992 Barcelona Games. As stated in the official report of the XXV Olympiad Barcelona 1992, the Olympic volunteer *'is a person who makes an individual, altruistic commitment to collaborate, to the best of his/her abilities in the organization of the Olympic Games, carrying out the tasks assigned to him/her without receiving payment or rewards of any other nature'* (COOB, 92, p.381 cited in Moragas et al., 2000, p. 134).



The voluntary participation of individuals at the Olympic Games emerged gradually according to the social changes of the time and the nature of the Games themselves. The period between the Athens 1896 to Berlin 1936 Games is characterized by the anonymous efforts of volunteers through various organizations such as federations and clubs as well as the boy scouts and army (Moragas et al., 2000; Panagiotopoulou, 2005). The aim of this volunteer work at that era was to promote the educational and social nature of sports to the youth. The phase from the London Games of 1948 to Montreal 1976 was characterized by a social, economic and political reform due to the post-war industrial development (Moragas et al., 2000; Panagiotopoulou, 2005). The Olympic Games of that period took place in the industrialized countries and hence each Olympic event had distinctive features depending on the social structure and the volunteer tradition of the organizing country. The significance of the volunteer work continued to increase gradually through the traditional volunteer organizations (boy scouts, the army) but also through individual efforts (Moragas et al. 2000, p.135). During the period from Lake Placid 1980 Games to Seoul 1988 the concept of the Olympic volunteer gradually takes its present form. Their role is fundamental for the Organizing Committees which incorporate the volunteer element to their program and objectives (Moragas et al. 2000, p.135). In recent years from the Albertville and Barcelona 1992 Summer and Winter Games to those of Athens in 2004 the role of volunteers has become fundamental not only for providing a cost-effective way of staging the Olympic Games but also for achieving the goals of the Olympic movement to '*contributing to a better and more peaceful world*' through familiarizing the ordinary people to the Olympic ideals of solidarity, team spirit and participation (Houlihan, 2004). Consequently, the organizing committees are now in charge of recruiting and coordinating the volunteers as part of an effective hosting and sustainability of the Olympic Games (Moragas et al., 2000; Panagiotopoulou, 2005).

Lake placid 1980 Games were important for the evolution and for shaping the present form of the concept of the Olympic volunteer. In the Official Report of the Games it was stated that "*Without this army of volunteers, 6,700 strong, the XIII Olympic Winter Games could not have become reality*" (ORLPWG, 1984, p.165). The Lake Placid Volunteers served in all kinds of areas from sport officials, messengers and marshals to clerks, collators and crowd-controllers. Even though they worked long hours and other than

uniforms, free meals and official certificates they received no financial rewards, they left with the feeling that they were an integral part of the Olympic Games. Therefore, the Lake Placid Games were marked with a spirit of altruistic collaboration and solidarity through the various tasks that the volunteers were involved with (ORLPWG, 1984, p.165).

Subsequent Games followed Lake Placid example with the Los Angeles 1984 Games being the most prominent moment of Olympic volunteerism of the modern times since approximately 30,000 people offered their services to a wide range of tasks. However, as Clapés (1995, p.2) points out the reasons for such a reliance to the volunteers from the Organizing Committee of the 1984 Games reveal a materialistic nature since volunteers were used for reducing the cost of the Games. After 1992 and the Albertville/Barcelona Games there is a growing trend of Olympic volunteers who are primarily motivated from a self-interest to the Games and committed to the success of the Games without expecting any monetary rewards in return (OCAWG, 1992, p. 38-40). Volunteer efforts are substantial for the viability of the Olympic Games, as volunteers are involved in a variety of areas such as marketing, communications spectator services, media, transportation or catering services and contribute their skills to the effective hosting of the event (Ralston, Downward and Lumsdon, 2002; Cuskelly et al., 2006). The Olympic Games involve a substantial number of volunteers. During the Athens 2004 Olympic Games approximately 60,000 people offered their services to the event while in Sydney 2000 Games 45,000 volunteers were involved. The London 2012 Games relied on the efforts of approximately 70,000 individuals (London2012, 2012). Therefore, the number of volunteers in each Olympic Games increases gradually due to the tremendous increase of the Games' cost and the need for resources (Panagiotopoulou, 2005).

### **1.3. Motivation of Olympic Volunteers**

Volunteers are the best ambassadors of the Olympic ideals that are associated with the Olympic movement. The importance of the volunteers for the success of the Olympic Games has political, economic, cultural and athletic dimensions. In terms of political dimension volunteers represent the unity of the citizens to achieve a common purpose such as the organization of the Games. In an economic point of view, volunteers' efforts

contribute to the reduction of the Games' cost through the absence of wages as well as to the development of a basis of high skilled individuals who can be used in other economic sectors in the long-term. In cultural terms, volunteering develops the human capital, enhances solidarity and cooperation as well as it promotes diversity and multiculturalism by giving the opportunity to people from different backgrounds to work closely to achieve a common goal. The athletic dimension of the Games is also promoted through volunteering as the volunteers support the training of the athletes and the smooth conduction of the competitions during the Games (Moragas et al., 2000).

As volunteers have become a vital part of an Olympic Games Organizing Committee who contribute to its success, it is essential to explore and understand the reasons that lead individuals to donate their time and skills for achieving their organizational goals for an effective staging of such an event (Chinman & Wandersman, 1999). Analysis of these motivations is a relatively new phenomenon in the literature and it is considered a vital approach to ensure that recruitment and retention of volunteers is sustainable for such events (Clary, 2004).

Despite the significance of volunteers for the delivery of the Olympic Games, research on Olympic volunteers' motivations and on the social significance of their efforts (Chalip, 1999, p.206) is still limited (Karlis, 2003; Bang, Alexandris & Ross, 2009). Moreover, even though the contribution of Olympic volunteers is significant for meeting the Games' needs, it is evident that are not used sufficiently by their countries after the Games and hence the skills developed during Games time are lost (Auld, 1999). Consequently, further research in sport event volunteering and Olympic volunteers in particular, is beneficial for the event organizers in order to maximize the value that can be derived from the effective use of their volunteers. Moreover, volunteers involved at the Olympic Games can constitute a network of committed and trained individuals who they may be willing to offer their skills and services to other events or organizations within local communities and benefit the society in the long term.

#### **1.4. The Purpose of the Study**

This research projects aims to contribute to the body of knowledge by investigating and determining the factors affecting individuals' decisions to volunteer for the London

2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games. Moreover, it aims to identify whether these factors along with volunteers socio-demographic characteristics and sport participation experiences have an impact on the individuals future plans pertaining to volunteering, participation in sport and personal/professional development, which in other words contribute to the development of social capital. For achieving the research aim, volunteers involved at the Fleet transport department during the Olympic Games of London 2012 were approached for completing an online survey and their answers aimed to address the following specific objectives:

- To identify the general demographic characteristics of the London 2012 volunteers or Games Makers
- To identify the key motivational factors which led the Games Makers to volunteer for the London 2012 Olympic Games
- To identify whether the experience of volunteering at the London 2012 Olympic Games impacts upon volunteers future decisions in volunteering or sport participation
- To make potential recommendations on effective volunteer management and maximize the benefits from utilizing these human resources from a legacy perspective

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

### **2.1. Introduction**

The aim of this review is to synthesise and critique the available data in order to provide an overview of volunteer motivation in the context of the Olympic Games, one of the largest special events in existence. This chapter provides a review of the literature on sport volunteering. Moreover, it assesses the findings of previous research on sport volunteering and uses them as a framework for the development of the research strategy for the current study. The chapter begins by highlighting the importance of sport volunteering, the benefits that can offer to the individuals and to the society in general as well as key facts about sport volunteers. It then addresses the roles of volunteers at mega sport events. The chapter continues by discussing the development of the theoretical framework on sport volunteers' motivations focusing on three theories: social exchange theory, coproduction theory, and the functionalist perspective of volunteerism. The section that follows provides an overview of specific motivations of sport volunteers. The chapter concludes by discussing the theoretical foundation for this study, and by describing the model adopted for achieving the research aims and objectives.

## **2.2. Importance of Volunteering in Sports**

*Volunteering in sports is defined as individual volunteers helping others in sports and receiving either no remuneration or only expenses (Sport England, 2005c, p.9).*

The definition of sport volunteering includes all the voluntary activities that can be undertaken in different sport settings either formal or informal. For instance, there are volunteers that contribute regularly to their sport organisations while other volunteers are involved with one-off tasks such as helping at a sport event. This is considered as formal volunteering, as it is expressed through established sport organizations. However, informal volunteering is also relevant, as there are people who actually help others in sports (e.g. friends and family) but without being affiliated to a sport organization (Sport England, 2005c). For instance, parents who drive their children and other team members to competition matches can be described as informal volunteers.

Therefore there are different types of volunteers which depends on the nature of the activity that are involved with. Sport volunteers are distinguished by their degree and extent of involvement. With regard to the degree of volunteers' involvement, Pearce

(1993) identifies core and peripheral volunteers. Core volunteers are normally highly committed to their sport organization as they undertake more formal roles and express consistency in volunteering (Pearce, 1993; Planty & Reginer, 2003). On the other hand peripheral volunteers take part in volunteering occasionally and express low levels of commitment. Short-term and long-term volunteering describes the extent of sport volunteers' involvement. Short-term volunteers 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). Long-term volunteers are further described as career' volunteers due to their willingness to undergo training and develop particular skills in sport volunteering (Stebbins, 1996). On the other hand, Stebbins (1996) refers to short-term volunteers as 'casual' due to their occasional involvement in voluntary tasks which does not require specific skills in volunteering.

The degree and extent of volunteers' involvement in sports is directly related as volunteers who express higher degrees of involvement are more likely to volunteer for longer periods (Cuskelly et al., 2006). As Cuskelly (2006) points out volunteers' participation in sport is initiated by a desire to help others (altruism) as well as an interest to the sport itself (self-interest) and these are the main reasons that sustain their volunteer involvement in sports. Therefore, although most volunteers initiate their involvement in sports due to the aforementioned reasons, it is the self-interest that differentiates them in terms of the degree and extent of involvement, as consistency in volunteering reveals high levels of self-interest and satisfaction from the activity itself (Cuskelly, 2006). Consequently, there are sport organizations with permanent designated volunteer positions while other sport organizations such as the Olympic Games and other sport events in general require from their volunteers to carry out certain tasks and achieve specific objectives in a specific time frame.

Voluntary activity, either permanent or short-term, is important for active citizenship and community cohesion, as it promotes the involvement of individuals to the community and the attainment of lifelong skills which enhance individuals' self-esteem and sense of accomplishment (Davies, 1998; Sport England, 2003). Volunteers' contributions sustain sports and promote sports participation, healthy lifestyle; improve physical and mental well-being and strengthen the social bonds

(DCMS/Strategy Unit, 2002). However, there is a lack of empirical evidence to support further the above statements (Gaskin, 2008). Apart from benefits to the individuals, volunteering in sports enables the viability of sport organizations, as it helps them to decrease their operational costs and to provide low-cost services to athletes, members and the community (Gaskin, 2008). A report from Sport England into sports volunteering in the UK suggests that over one hundred thousand clubs and over eight million members are benefited by the volunteer contributions in the UK (Sport England, 2003). Sport volunteers in the UK contribute more than 1.2 billion hours per year to their sport organizations while in Canada and Australia sport volunteers are involved for 167 million and 130 million hours respectively (Cuskelly et al., 2006). *The Volunteering in America 2007* report suggested that 61.2 million people offered their time, effort, and services to assist with an organization's operations. To a similar extent, 5.3 million Americans volunteered for their communities informally. Their volunteer work equated to 8.1 billion hours for that year (Grimm et al., 2007). Despite the differences in volunteer time contributions, these hours are not easily comparable due to population, and cultural differences between nations (Cuskelly et al., 2006). However, it is evident that voluntary activity is major provider of services in these 4 countries.

### **2.3. Socio-Demographic Characteristics**

One area of note that has been largely omitted from the motivation measurement field is the contribution of socio-demographic factors towards motivation and attitude in volunteering. Research has shown that a number of these characteristics may be more prevalent among volunteers, suggesting a potential contributory role. For instance, level of education is found to be a stable predictor of volunteering behaviour in all settings (Bang et al., 2009). In the formalised context of Olympic volunteering middle class individuals are more likely to contribute, whereas other groups are more likely to participate in local volunteering or informal activities (Zappala & Burrell, 2001). In general, those without employment and those with long-term illnesses and at risk of exclusion are under-represented in the volunteer community, reflecting a level of social and financial stability inherent to many volunteers (Hustinx et al., 2010). Age may also be an important factor; while adults between the ages of 35 and 54 are most likely to volunteer overall for large events, the hours spent doing voluntary activities is much higher in those aged 65 years or over, while younger age groups tend not to commit so

much time to volunteering (Zappala & Burrell, 2001). Other factors, such as marital status and gender may also play a role in determining volunteer activity and while a great deal of research suggests that female and male volunteering is equal in community settings, for large events the skew seems in favour of male volunteers, reinforcing the stereotypical male interest in sports and sporting events (Bang et al., 2009). To a similar extent, Sport England (2003) reports that sport volunteers in the UK tend to be of White-British ethnic origin, are highly educated and come from a high socio-economic background. The majority of sports clubs volunteers in particular, tend to be aged between 35-44 years (Nichols & Padmore, 2005). On the other hand, volunteers involved at sport events tend to reflect the demographic profile of the participants in the specific sport that the event is focused. However, the larger and more unique the event, for instance the Olympics, the broader the demographic profile of the volunteers involved who may have little or no connection with sport (Downward & Ralston, 2006; Chalip, 2000; MacAloon, 2000; Moreno, Moragas & Paniagua, 2000).

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

'Special events' is a term that can be applied to a number of large exhibitions and sporting events, attracting large numbers of participants and spectators (Monga, 2006). Increasingly, such events are becoming more complex and take place on a larger scale leading to financial pressures and organisational difficulty. Consequently, an expanding reliance on unpaid volunteers in a multitude of roles during these events has been noted (Panagiotopoulou, 2005). Volunteers are vital in managing the large numbers of spectators and enhancing the experience of event participants and a great deal of time is spent recruiting and training members of the public to fulfil these tasks (Auld et al., 1999). Specifically, the Olympic games represents a special event reliant on large numbers of volunteers due to the large number of competing athletes and the complexity inherent in scheduling events and managing crowds (Baum & Lockstone, 2007). In recent games (Sydney, Athens and Beijing) masses of volunteers were involved in multiple aspects of the event process and over 70,000 volunteers were expected to be involved in the upcoming London Olympics this year (Magnay, 2012).

Volunteer services are vital for the efficiency and success of sport events regardless of their size. However, the bigger the size of the event the more the organizing committees



rely on volunteer' efforts (Downward & Ralston, 2005; Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998; Strigas & Jackson, 2003). For instance, the Honda PGA Classic tour requires between 1,200 – 1,400 volunteers each year while approximately 70,000 volunteers assisted with the London 2012 operations (London2012, 2012). Volunteers at sporting events are needed for a variety of roles ranging from 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 with their knowledge and expertise (Downward & Ralston, 2005; Cuskelly et al., 2006).

The numbers of volunteers involved at major sport events is substantial. For the 2002 Commonwealth Games in Manchester, United Kingdom, 10,500 volunteers assisted with the event's operations (Downward & Ralston, 2005). Before the London 2012 Olympic Games, this was the largest volunteer workforce involved at a sports event in the UK (Ralston, Downward & Lumsdon, 2002). Similarly, 15,000 volunteers were involved for the 2006 Commonwealth Games in Melbourne, Australia (Cuskelly et al., 2006). The scale of the Olympic Games explains the involvement of a larger number of volunteers. For instance, 40,000 volunteers assisted with the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, while 45,000 volunteers sustained the Athens 2004 Games operations (Cuskelly et al., 2006).

The aforementioned figures show 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, identifying what motivates individuals to volunteer at major sport events and the outcomes of their experience is essential for creating a strong volunteer base for future community events (Williams et al., 1995). For instance, volunteers of the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games stated that the development of relationships with others of different cultures and backgrounds was the most meaningful outcome of their experience who led to their happiness and satisfaction from involvement (Pi, 2001). Volunteers of the Sydney Games reported that the most meaningful outcome of their Games experience was being part of a unique event and of the “celebratory” atmosphere the event brought (Kemp, 2002). Farrell et al (1998) found that the desire to help make the event a success was the most important

reason for volunteering in an elite sporting competition. Williams et al. (1995) identified that the most important reason to volunteer at the Whistler's Men's World Cup of Skiing was the need to 'socialize, in an outdoor setting with people who share common interests, support the national team and enthusiasm for the event' (p.87). Ralston et al. (2004) found that altruism, involvement and the uniqueness of the event were the main motivators of the volunteers in the 2002 Commonwealth Games. Similar to Ralston et al (2004), Reeser et al. (2005) identified that the polyclinic volunteers at the 2002 Salt Lake City winter Olympic Games were motivated by a sense of altruism and the desire to work with a variety of people and to be involved in a unique event. Therefore, sport volunteers and particularly those involved with events are attracted by reasons related to the nature of the event and the volunteer experiences. However, as Slaughter (2002) suggests the motivation of sport event volunteers may change over time. For instance, long-term event volunteers are more likely to volunteer in order to give something back to the community rather than for social interaction and networking which might be their initial motivation to volunteer in the event (Cuskelly et al., 2006). Therefore, sport event volunteers should not be treated as a homogenous group as their motivations vary and tend to change over time (Cuskelly et al., 2006). As Roenningen (2000, p. 184) suggests the incentives that influence the individuals to volunteer at the Olympic Games include their willingness to take part in an once-in-a-life time experience, the national pride and patriotism by helping their country to successfully host the Games, meeting new people and creating friendships, being part of a group as well as enhancing skills and capabilities. Belonging to a group or a team has been one of the main incentives for the volunteers of the Calgary, Albertville and Lillehammer Winter Olympic Games (Moragas et al., 2000). 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). These identifying features of the Games volunteers have been used in the past as well. For instance in the Berlin Games of 1936 "the interpreters had flag pins in their lapel to identify them all over the city" (Moragas et al., 2000).

## **2.5. Theoretical Background of Volunteers' Motivations**

Several theories have been applied in order to understand the nature of volunteer motivation. The multidimensional nature of volunteer motivations is evident by the fact that there is not any widely accepted approach and reflects that motivations vary based on different volunteering opportunities (Hustinx et al. 2010). The most well-known theories include social exchange theory, disconfirmation theory, Maslow's human hierarchy of needs, coproduction theory, and the functional approach to volunteerism. Social exchange theory supports the notion that volunteering is an interaction between an individual and an organization with the needs of both being met in order for the relationship to be maintained (Doherty, 2005). This exchange relationship involves the provision of services from the volunteer's part in return of tangible and intangible rewards of non-monetary value such as meals, travel expenses, recognition, skills acquisition etc. (Homans, 1958). Emerson (1976) further expanded on the social exchange theory by focusing on the rewards-costs of social behaviour. Rewards include tangible and intangible benefits that the individual or the organisation gains from the volunteering activity. Costs include the negative consequences of the relationship, such as the time required for the completion of the tasks. When the costs outweigh the rewards the volunteer may withdraw from their duties and hence ensuring that there is a balance between rewards and costs is essential for obtaining volunteers for an organization and for the continuation of their services at future events (Emerson, 1976; Doherty, 2009).

Based on social exchange theory, disconfirmation theory suggests that volunteers likely to consumers who continue to purchase a product when they are satisfied from its quality, they may continue to volunteer depending on whether their volunteering experience meets their needs and is satisfying and rewarding (Oliver, 1980; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). Maslow's "Human Hierarchy of Needs" (1943, cited in Ghazali, 2003) suggests that human needs follow a continuum and are ordered from the basic needs to higher needs such as self-actualization needs. Therefore, in order for people to reach their self-actualization and development needs, they should first fulfil physical and emotional needs. Therefore, this further explains why individuals of higher socio-economic status tend to get involved more in voluntary work than people of lower socio-economic status.

Coproduction theory also explains volunteers' motivations and emphasises on the cooperative efforts among certain individuals in order to complete a goal. Coproduction emphasises on the collective behaviour and the spirit of solidarity and cohesiveness that is developed through the mutual efforts and the consequent development of social capital (Silverberg, 1999). Coproduction activities are further distinguished in individual, group and collective. In the major sport events context such as the Olympics, group coproduction is of particular relevance for the viability of the event, as without the teamwork, collective efforts and cohesion of all the volunteers involved is impossible to achieve such a demanding goal (Silverberg, 1999). According to the coproduction theory, individuals volunteer as they realise the importance of their involvement for the successful staging of an event. A second reason suggests that is the volunteers' curiosity behind their involvement. Another reason that leads volunteers to this mutual provision of services is because their friends or relatives are benefited from their efforts, such as parents helping at their children sports clubs etc.

The functional perspective of volunteerism suggests that different individuals satisfy different psychological functions and needs when they are engaged in similar or different voluntary actions (Clary & Snyder, 1991; Snyder, Clary & Stukas, 2000). For instance, a volunteer may be involved at a sports event because of the love of the sport, while someone else may seek an opportunity for social networking. This approach also suggests that the organizations should adopt a 'matching principle' in order to match volunteers' motives with specific activities and consequently recruit, manage and retain their volunteers effectively within their operations (Snyder et al., 2000). Therefore, individuals who volunteer in activities that satisfy their motivational needs tend to be satisfied and help their organisations for longer periods (Snyder et al., 2000). Clary (2004) further expanded on the functionalistic approach by suggesting that volunteers 'motivations serve six psychological functions. These functions include the values, the understanding, the career, the social, the protective and the enhancement functions. The values function reflects the desire to help others and to contribute to the society. The understanding function refers to the desire of the volunteers to acquire and apply skills and abilities through their involvement in volunteering. The career function describes the possibility of individuals getting involved in volunteering in order to increase and enhance their career prospects. The social function reflects the desire of the individuals

to socialize with others through involvement in community events and projects. The protective function describes volunteering as a tool that allows individuals to escape from the problems of daily life. Lastly, the enhancement function suggests that individuals volunteer in order to increase their self-esteem, self-confidence and self-development (Clary et. al, 1998, Houle, Sagarin, & Kaplan, 2007). The functionalistic approach emphasizes on the multi-dimensional nature of volunteering and explains that an individual may volunteer for a variety of reasons in order to fulfil different psychological functions (Pauline, 2006; Houle et. al, 2007).

## **2.6. Motivational Factors of Sport Event Volunteering**

Research into motivation has largely focused on the divide between intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Intrinsic motivation entails activity based on inherent satisfaction, either as enjoyment through activity or facing a challenge for personal gain (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Conversely, extrinsic motivation may take a number of forms and involves a separable outcome being achieved. External motives are outside the volunteer's immediate control. For instance, this may be through threat of punishment or the temptation of rewards, a need for approval from others, seeking fame or achieving other outcomes that are considered beneficial in some regard (Antoni, 2009). In a broad sense intrinsic motivation can be considered altruistic, where there is not desired outcome from the activity apart from enjoyment or the desire to contribute to a worthwhile cause. However, it is often the case that extrinsic factors and intrinsic motivation co-exist in a volunteer. Extrinsic factors are not necessarily negative aspects of the volunteer mentality, but rather reflect the desire to participate in a worthwhile cause due to external rewards or social pressures (Antoni, 2009).

Other authors have argued that the extrinsic/intrinsic divide is not sufficiently detailed to describe volunteer motivation. Parker (1997) suggested four reasons for volunteering: altruism, market (expecting something in return), cause-serving and the pursuit of a leisure experience (Parker, 1997). Meanwhile, Clary and colleagues have suggested six different categories underlying volunteer behaviour: social, value, career, understanding, enhancement and protective functions (Clary et al., 1996). Therefore, there is a great deal of uncertainty among researchers as to the fundamental aspects of motivation that need to be addressed among volunteers. However, the majority of models feature several overlapping domains, such as altruism, pursuit of leisure, career aims, promotion of a cause and social development. Therefore, the following sections will attempt to highlight the most consistently noted themes in the research, while briefly discussing other factors in a situation-specific context.

### **2.6.1. Altruism and motivation**

The act of volunteering can take many guises in society and includes community work, social development, education and sports events (Cuskelly et al., 2006). Overall, volunteering is often considered to be an altruistic act reflecting a caring approach towards the community and this has been shown to be the case in community projects and social development strategies in particular (Bladen, 2008). However, the evidence for altruism in determining the motivation of volunteers for sporting events, such as the Olympics, is less robust and the suggestion is that this is not as significant a factor as with other forms of volunteering (Treuren & Monga, 2002). One of the major problems with attributing research from other volunteering settings is that the Olympics represents a unique short-term volunteering event, rather than the long-term volunteering seen with other commitments (Harrison, 1995). Furthermore, the unique ethos of the Olympics relates to national pride and sports, two features that do not feature heavily in other forms of volunteering (Bladen, 2008). The contrast between long-term volunteering and short-term 'focused' voluntary activity helps to explain the reduced impact of altruism in Olympic volunteers. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004) studied these patterns of volunteering and noted that long-term volunteers are often strongly tied to their organisation, while short-term volunteers may have fewer ties and therefore are less likely to be acting altruistically (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2004). The focused nature of the work and the structured time schedules suggests that specific aims are being achieved and according to some authors that is distinct from a purely altruistic approach to activity (Wilson & Musick, 1997).

### **2.6.2. Rewards**

In contrast to traditional altruistic behaviour another approach to assessing why people become involved in Olympic volunteering is the possibility of rewards (Antoni, 2009). Olympic volunteers are not paid and therefore financial rewards are not a relevant incentive towards voluntary activity. However, other forms of rewards may be an important contributor towards volunteering in this context. For instance, commonly noted rewards include free food at the sporting event,

uniforms or related apparel and free tickets or admission to events, all of which can be classified as incentives or rewards for volunteers (Wu, 2002).

The introduction of this feature into the research body is noted as Bang and Chelladurai (2003) explored the motivational factors underlying volunteering during the 2002 FIFA World Cup and found that there were six main factors, including extrinsic rewards: the provision of free food, accommodation, uniforms and admission to the football matches. Following this study, rewards have been explored in a number of volunteer settings, with mixed results. A result study by Bang and Ross (2009) found that extrinsic rewards were rated as the lowest factor for volunteer participation in the 2004 Twin Cities marathon. However, it may be the case that the rewards were not comparable with those for Olympic events (marathon access is free for all and limited merchandise is on offer) and as such it is unclear if these findings apply to the Olympics.

### **2.6.3. Volunteering as a leisure experience**

Parker (1997) notes that volunteers may participate in special events for a variety of reasons, including altruism, market value and to further a cause in which they believe, but if the underlying aim is to have a leisure experience then this should be considered a distinct motivational factor (Parker, 1997). This has been an area of much interest for researchers and studies have shown that during special events the pursuit of leisure activities ranks among the most common reasons for volunteering among some individuals (Twynam et al., 2002). However, this was not a consistent finding among volunteers and many did not acknowledge the pursuit of leisure as a contributory factor, suggesting that only a sub-group of volunteers can be described in this manner.

To some extent the leisure aspect of volunteering in sporting events is understandable: the volunteers may have the opportunity to watch the sports in question and this may be a determinant in their participation. Andrew (1996) demonstrated that volunteers at an Australian sporting event rated the enjoyment of being involved among the greatest motivating factors. Stebbins has recently discussed the relationship between leisure and volunteering in greater detail,



noting that it has become an increasingly important aspect of the volunteering community, particularly with regards to sports, reflecting the numerous benefits and enjoyment that can be gained from short-term volunteering at large events (Stebbins, 2012).

#### **2.6.4. Love of sport**

Closely connected with the idea of volunteering as leisure in the Olympic setting, is the professed love of sport in volunteers. The focus of the Olympics is sporting achievement and it is often noted that volunteers are devoted fans of the Olympics or a number of sporting events therein (Monga, 2006). Consequently, studies have highlighted the individual impact of a love for sports on motivation for volunteering in the Olympic Games and other sporting events.

Researchers interviewed over 600 participant volunteers from the 2006 Canadian Women's Golf Championship and noted that a love of sport (in particular golf) was a major determinant of volunteering (MacLean & Hamm, 2007). Furthermore, the volunteers stated that they have previously or would in future volunteer for similar events, though not necessarily others where golf was not involved, indicating the strength of a love for relevant sports in determining voluntary activity. Other studies have noted that love of sport frequently comes among the highest factors that have motivated volunteers during the early stages of competition and therefore it can be concluded that specific Olympic volunteers are likely to be fans of Olympic events or individual sports for which they have volunteered their services (Bang & Ross, 2009).

#### **2.6.5. Career Development**

The need for volunteers in the Olympic setting has been well recognised and the president of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) Jacques Rogge suggested that governments utilise the volunteer resource as a form of sustainable development and social capital (Giannoulakis et al., 2008). As the emphasis on volunteers has formalised, so to have many of the tasks performed during the Olympics, such that professionalization of volunteer activities has occurred to a large extent (Giannoulakis et al., 2008). Indeed, one of the key factors involved in

volunteer activities during the Athens Olympic Games was the sharing and recognition of expertise among the volunteers (Fairley et al., 2007). These volunteers were gaining skills and learning in a work environment akin to an internship, which some authors suggest is an opportunity to gain professional experience and may have a profound impact on future employment seeking (Moragas et al., 2000). Therefore, volunteers may act to acquire new skills and develop experience in a field of interest, as part of a wider career goal.

Indeed, one of the earliest studies to assess motivation among Olympic volunteers highlighted that volunteers considered job-related competence and networking among the major factors behind their participation (Elstad, 1996). Despite the fact that this is one of a few studies to specifically focus on Olympic Games (albeit the Winter Olympics), there has been a lack of validation of these findings by other researchers. Furthermore, researchers have noted that of all factors the lowest rated among volunteers for special events was 'wishing to gain practical experience toward paid employment' (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991, p.55). Similarly, Farrell and colleagues noted that practical experience and on-the-job education were not among the most important factors for volunteering in the Canadian Women's Curling Championship (Farrell et al., 1998). However, Giannoulakis et al. (2008) noted that the volunteers in the Athens Olympic Games rated egoistic motives as the second most common, behind Olympic-related motives, a category including need for social interaction, interpersonal relationships and networking. Therefore, within this category the need to network may be a vital aspect of Olympic volunteering and organisers should consider that fact that long term opportunities and career-focused tasks during Olympic volunteering may reinforce a strong volunteer base, particularly in the current economic climate where task-related experience is vital in securing employment (Giannoulakis et al., 2008).

#### **2.6.6. Community Enhancement**

The Olympic Games only takes place every four years and the number of competing nations and cities vying for the privilege of hosting duty means that the event may only take place in a local city once during a person's lifetime. The vast

global audience and the expectations surrounding the host city place a renewed emphasis on the local community to provide a world-class venue and services to match during the two-week competition. Often regeneration and construction of venues occurs in the years leading up to the Olympics and such changes can transform communities in a profound way- engagement of the community is therefore an integral aspect of the Olympics (Monga, 2006). The desire to contribute towards the good of the community and not only show the city in a positive manner, but also assist in the improvement of local services, is a strong marketing aspect for volunteering and organisers hope to instil this sense of community among the volunteer population.

Perhaps one of the most consistent findings in the published research on volunteer motivation is the expression of volunteering contributing because they wanted to make the event a success (Farrell et al., 1998; Monga, 2006; Giannoulakis et al., 2008). Williams et al. (1995) found that the need to support the national team and strengthen community spirit were among the top motivators for volunteers during a World Cup downhill skiing event, while Andrew (1996) noted that 'being a part of the event' was important to many volunteers in an Australian sporting event. It has also been noted that one-off sporting events, such as the Olympics, often encourage a strong sense of community among volunteers, with individuals motivated by the desire to develop this sense of community after the event has passed, maintaining a valuable legacy for the local and national population (Scott, 2004). Solberg and Preuss (2007) emphasise on the 'soft-infrastructure' benefits of sport events, which refers to the development of a pool of volunteers willing to volunteer for future events. This notion reflects the importance of social capital in volunteering groups.

Social capital can be defined as 'the trust and reciprocity that may result from people, within a community, working together towards a common goal' (Bailey et al., 2003, p.5). Social capital suggests that the entire community can benefit from the activities and services made available by the Olympic Games and reflects the need not only for short term improvements in infrastructure, but also a long term legacy of sporting commitment and community spirit (Bailey et al., 2003). Authors

have highlighted the ability of sporting events, such as the Olympics, to be a source of social capital, with volunteers providing the important link between the community and the event itself (Misener & Mason, 2006). Research suggests that volunteers who are involved in sporting events and are motivated by contributing to their community often continue to volunteer in the same manner in future events (on a variety of scales), citing social capital as an important goal (Bang et al., 2009). Therefore, it is clear that for some individuals the idea of contributing and enhancing the local community is an important aspect of volunteering, indicating that social capital can result from the recruitment of volunteers in the Olympic setting.

#### **2.6.7. Olympic-Related Motivations**

A limited number of studies have assessed the specific characteristics, experiences and motivations that lead individuals to volunteer for the Olympic Games. The distinctive nature of the Olympic Games suggests that individuals may be willing to offer their services because of the opportunity to be part of a unique experience, meet with Olympic athletes, and be associated with the Olympic values. Therefore, Olympic related motivations are more relevant and dominant among Olympic Games volunteers. Gianoulakis et al., (2008) were the first that noted the importance of Olympic related reasons in explaining individuals' involvement at the Olympic Games as volunteers. Therefore, research instruments measuring motivations specific to the Olympic Games should further applied to other Olympic contexts. This would enable the development of a research framework that can explore and investigate accurately the specific nature of Olympic volunteering and the characteristics of the Olympic volunteers.

#### **2.7. Measuring motivation**

In order to provide an insight into the behaviour and motivation of volunteers in a variety of settings, researchers have sought to quantify the factors suggested to determine motivation. This is often performed retrospectively, based on the responses of volunteers to a number of probing or open-ended questions regarding their volunteering habits. The Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale

(SEVMS) was devised following a study on volunteer motivations during a Canadian sports competition and emphasised community, social interactions, traditions and commitments (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). However, this scale has limited utility when assessing large scale sporting events, which incorporates different factors.

Within the context of sporting events, measurement of volunteer motivation has been attempted in a quantitative fashion by a number of authors. Farrell, Johnston and Twynam (1998) examined volunteers' motivation and satisfaction at an elite sporting competition and proposed the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (SEVMS), a 28-item scale which resulted to a four factors model. The extracted motivation factors of volunteering included the purposive, solidary, external traditions and commitments. The purposive factor refers to the individuals' desire to give something back to the community. The solidary factor reflects the desire for social interaction and networking that is facilitated through volunteering. The external tradition factor describes the extrinsic dimension of volunteer motivation and the influences of significant others in an individuals' decision to volunteer. Lastly, the commitment factor is based on the coproduction approach, as it suggests that individuals commit their skills to a volunteer activity to achieve common objectives. Farrell et al., (1998) summarised that the nature of the voluntary activity determines volunteer' motivations.

Williams et al., (1995) assessed volunteers' motivation at a skiing competition and further supports the purposive and solidary factors as motivating individuals to get involved in sport events. Therefore, this suggests that altruism, as a motivating factor is also relevant in the sports event context. Strigas (2001) assessed the views of 477 volunteers of the Country Music Marathon. His results revealed a five-factor model of event volunteer motivations. The five factors were: The Social functions of leisure which refers to the need for social networking and leisure through volunteering. The Material factor refers to the individual's need for tangible or intangible rewards other than money, such as uniforms, memorabilia, satisfaction from the involvement etc. The Egoistic factor refers to the seeking for self-actualisation, personal development and the increase of self-esteem through

event volunteering. The Purposive factor refers to volunteers' recognition of their efforts achieving a purpose that benefits the community or the events' viability. The External Influences factor reflects the influences of significant others such as friends, relatives or even community organizations that the individual is affiliated on his/her decisions to volunteer. Wang (2001) assessed the relationship between volunteer motivations and intentions to volunteer for the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games. A self-completion questionnaire was distributed to 935 students who were residents of Sydney area. Wang's (2001) model proposes five motivation factors which include: The Altruistic Value factor which refers to the human values affecting individuals' decisions to volunteer. The Personal Development factor refers to the need of volunteers for personal development. The Community concern factor refers to individuals' desire to improve the community they live in by offering their services as an act of good will. Ego Enhancement factor refers to the need for personal development and self-actualisation through volunteering and Social Approval factor reflects individuals' desire to be favourable and increase their social bonds with others. The results of the survey revealed that the main motivation factors affecting volunteers' intentions to event volunteering are Personal Development, Ego Enhancement, and Social Approval. Moreover, it was found that other variables including socio-demographics and time constraints affect the intentions to volunteer for future events (Wang, 2001).

Giannoulakis and Colleagues (2008) were one of the limited studies that assessed volunteer motivations at an Olympic Games context. Their sample comprised of 146 individuals who volunteered for the Athens 2004 Olympic Games. The survey instrument, the Olympic Volunteer Motivation Scale (OVMS) consisted of 18-items and after Principal Component Analysis three factors were extracted. 9 items of the OVMS were adapted from Strigas and Jackson (2003) motivation scale and the remaining items were specific to the nature of the Olympic Games, i.e. "being a volunteer at the Olympic Games is considered to be prestigious". Apart from Olympic related motivations, the Egoistic factor, which reflects volunteers' desire for personal development and other tangible and intangible rewards and the Purposive, which describes volunteers' commitment to the event' success were relevant among the Athens 2004 volunteer sample. Interestingly, the Olympic

related factor was the most significant motivation explaining the specific nature of such an event, which can only occur at a city once in an individual's lifetime (Giannoulakis et al., 2008). The Volunteer Motivations Scale for International Sporting Events (VMS-ISE) initially developed to assess volunteers' motivations, using a sample from the 2002 FIFA World Cup revealed a six factor solution after a series of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. The six-factor model included the expression of values, patriotism, interpersonal contacts, personal growth, career orientation and extrinsic rewards factors, as explaining the reasons of an individual's propensity to volunteer for a major sport event. The VMS-ISE has been shown to be a useful tool in this regard as the goodness-of-fit demonstrated its robustness and validity (Bang & Chelladurai, 2009). Another study from Bang, Alexandris and Ross (2009) aimed to assess the validity of the VMS-ISE at the context of the Olympic Games. 206 volunteers of the Athens 2004 Games completed the survey. The revised scale assessed 29 items within seven domains, including the love of sport factor which simply suggests that the love of sport is a significant reason leading individuals to volunteer for major sport events. The revised VMS-ISE exhibits high reliability and validity (Bang et al., 2009). However, there is limited use of this scale in the context of Olympic events and in light of the frequency of the Olympics it may take a considerable amount of time to accumulate sufficient data to assess the motivation of volunteers in this setting.

## **2.8. London 2012 Games Makers**

London 2012 volunteers and staff were called 'Games Makers' as their efforts helped the London Games to happen. The recruitment process of the volunteers began officially in September 2010. 240,000 applications from prospective volunteers were received and around 100,000 people were interviewed at selection centres across the UK. The selection process took place from February 2011 until April 2012. All successful applicants had to attend at least three training sessions for acquiring the necessary skills and preparation to deliver their services efficiently. Some of the volunteers had also the opportunity to help in the delivery of the London Prepares Series test events: A number of sport events prior to the Olympic Games, testing the capability of the London 2012 Organizing Committee (LOCOG) to deliver the Games at the best possible standards (London 2012, 2012).

The London 2012 Games aimed to promote diversity, an issue which reflects the diverse cultural background of the London citizens who come from a variety of cultures and backgrounds. Games Makers were required to be 18 years old on 1<sup>st</sup> January 2012, in order to be eligible to apply for a role at the Games. LOCOG, however, encouraged applications from young people aged between 16 to 18 years through an exclusive volunteering program, as inspiring young people to take up sports was one of the promises of LOCOG as a lasting legacy after the Olympic Games. People with disabilities were also encouraged to apply for being Games Makers, revealing LOCOG's commitment to respecting, supporting and promoting diversity through London Olympic Games. 70,000 selected Games Makers delivered 8 million hours of service and helped in a variety of areas such as customer services, transport, event services at competition and non-competition venues, accreditation, workforce services etc. Apart from the official LOCOG volunteers, plenty of other trained volunteers helped with the organization of the event. These included London Ambassadors, Travel Champions and Ambassadors, who were appointed from the Mayor of London, leaving a long-lasting soft-infrastructure legacy for the city of London. McDonald's, one of the TOP sponsors of the Olympic Movement has helped the London 2012 Organizing Committee in recruiting, selecting and training the Games Makers with the aim to contribute to a long-lasting volunteering legacy and strengthening of the social capital (London 2012, 2012).

## **2.9. Conclusion**

Despite the research completed in this field, it is clear that motivational analysis is a complex discipline and that the factors described above are likely to be insufficient in all scenarios. Furthermore, the motivation of volunteers has been shown to change over time in some settings, complicating the nature of the process. For instance, Cuskelly and colleagues found that sport volunteers often changed their motivations for participating in events based on initial perceptions and then eventual outcomes of previous volunteering (Cuskelly et al., 2002). Changes in motivation also resulted in variable levels of commitment to the voluntary cause, indicating that the factors underlying motivation to volunteer may profoundly influence the level of participation among the interested public.



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 on future volunteering behaviour (Bang et al., 2009).

In summary, it is clear that Olympic volunteers are motivated by a variety of factors and that the impact of these factors may vary considerably from one individual to another. Some volunteers may act altruistically, while others seek to gain specific experience or pleasure from the experience of Olympic volunteering; often, a combination of factors is required to explain behaviour in this context. Perhaps most striking is the sense of community contribution and commitment to a legacy associated with Olympic volunteers. This feature lends credence to the idea that the Olympic Games can carry a meaningful level of social capital, ensuring that the community is brought together and is equipped to continue in a similar vein following the end of the games. While other volunteers may act through a love of sport, or for personal/career development, the contribution towards the community should not be underrated and future research should aim to explore the association between volunteering and social capital with expansion of motivational factors to include socio-demographic and transient criteria in order to provide a comprehensive framework for the recruitment and maintenance of a strong volunteer cohort for future community events and projects.

### **Chapter 3: Methodology**

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a justification for the research methods utilised at the current study. The term methodology refers to the overall approach and methods adopted for conducting a research project (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Research is '*a systematic process of discovery and advancement of human knowledge*' (Gratton & Jones, 2004, p.4). Therefore, research is a procedure mainly carried out to enhance our knowledge or to generate new knowledge based on existing theory explaining phenomena (Walliman, 2001).

#### **3.1. Research Philosophy**

The term research philosophy refers to the different approaches available for conducting a research project. There are two research traditions, which follow a different approach on how to research a topic in sport and leisure studies. These two different traditions are positivism and interpretivism (Gratton & Jones, 2004). The positivist research perspective allows the prediction of future behaviour through the precise measurement of 'facts'. Furthermore, positivism explains human behaviour by using reliable numerical measures that can be controlled by the social researcher (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Therefore, positivism is associated with quantitative, experimental or qualitative data collection methods that are 'rigorously defined' (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003, p. 35). Human behaviour, in positivism is explained by the relationship of cause and effect. Therefore, the research by directly observing human behaviour can explain and predict future behaviour (Finn, Elliott-White & Walton, 2000). Interpretivism, on the other hand, is more subjective in nature. It advocates that social world is constructed based on the way individuals interpret social phenomena (Blaikie, 2003). It fails to consider deeper structures and hierarchical relations in an individual's interpretation of the social world (Blaikie, 2003). Interpretivism is associated with qualitative data collection techniques such as interviews and focus groups (Gratton & Jones, 2004).

The current study adopts a positivism approach to conduct research, as it is based on the existing theory and the precise measurement of facts for predicting future behaviour of Olympic Games volunteers.

### **3.2. Data Collection Approaches**

There are two different approaches in conducting a research project and collect data. These two approaches include primary and secondary research (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Primary research involves the collection of new data for answering the research questions. Secondary research involves all existing data that have been justified and assessed in previous related studies. These for instance, include research articles, scientific books, newspapers, governmental reports and other relevant sources (Saunders et al., 2000). The current study involves both primary and secondary sources, as existing literature was used as a framework for developing the primary research tool. A number of relevant research articles, including Bang & Chelladurai's (2003), Giannoulakis et al., (2008) were used as a tool for comparing, contradicting and supporting the findings of the current study.

#### **3.2.1. Primary Research**

The initial decision that a researcher needs to make before conducting a research project is on how to go about collecting the data. There are two different data collection methods: quantitative and qualitative methods. Quantitative data are numerical in nature and involve statistical procedures for testing the research hypotheses and come to a conclusion. In contrast, qualitative research involves the analysis of non-numerical data for analysing human behaviour (Veal, 2006). Quantitative research involves data collected from a large number of participants in order to ensure its reliability. On the other hand, qualitative research is reliable when rich data and information is gathered from a smaller number of people (Veal, 2006). Both types of data collection techniques are useful when applied to relevant scientific contexts and follow a specific research framework (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Consequently, the current study followed a quantitative approach of data collection through questionnaires, as this approach was consistent with the existing theoretical framework suggested by the event volunteering literature.

### **3.3. Case Study**

Case study is *“an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, when the boundaries between the phenomenon and*

*context are not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used”* (Yin, 1989, p.23). To elaborate into this, a case study focuses on contemporary events and aims to analyse them from a sociological perspective (Bryman, 2008). The case study approach utilises a variety of methods, both quantitative and qualitative, to conduct observations. These methods include interviews, participant observations, questionnaires, direct observations, document analysis, archival records etc. (Yin, 1994). The advantage of using a case study approach is its applicability in different research strategies, either exploratory or explanatory. Even though, case study is more applicable in explanatory research, to answer questions on ‘why’ and ‘how’ social phenomena exist, its capacity to explore behaviours that are atypical, informal or not well understood makes it suitable also for answering ‘what’, ‘how many’, ‘who’ and ‘where’ types of questions through quantifiable data (Finn et al., 2000; Yin, 2003). Case study is also suitable for attaining analytic rather than statistical generalization, as case studies generalize and expand theories rather than enumerating frequencies in large populations (Yin, 2009).

Case study can be distinguished in single or multiple, which either follows a holistic or embedded approach to data collection. A decision must be made, prior to data collection on which case study approach to follow. Single case study assesses a specific context and provides detailed information (Yin, 2003). Single case studies are more applicable to research projects when any of the following rationales exists: (a) When the case study provides a critical test of existing theory, (b) when it represents a unique or rare case, (c) when the case study is representative of a specific situation, (d) when it reveals information for inaccessible phenomena to social researchers, (e) when it is longitudinal, which means that it can be studied at two or more different points in time. Multiple case study design involves two or more case studies at the same research project, which need to be compared. Contrary to single case studies, multiple case studies have more analytical power (Yin, 2003). Single or multiple case studies may then follow a holistic or embedded approach to data collection. Holistic design does not involve any subunits of analysis to satisfy the research aims and objectives.

Embedded design, on the other hand, involves a number of different subunits for analysis (Yin, 2003).

The current study adopted a single case study approach, as it explores a unique case, by using a sample of volunteers involved at the London 2012 Olympic Games and provides an in-depth investigation of this specific context. Evaluating the sport event volunteering context from an Olympic Games perspective can be investigated by using the case study method. As this research aims to explore, understand and analyse the unique characteristics, motivations and future intentions of London 2012 Games Makers, a holistic approach was selected, as it involves no further subunits of analysis but it focuses on a specific sample.

### **3.4. Participants**

This study includes a sample of volunteers from the 2012 Olympics in London, England. These individuals were volunteer drivers based at the Park-Lane fleet depot. Fleet services are car-based transportation for ensuring the rapid, safe and accurate transportation of the Games Family such as athletes, officials, IOC members etc. There are three types of fleet services during Games time which depend on the status and privileges of the clients. These services include T1, T2 and T3 services. T1 services were offered to highly prestigious individuals, including IOC members and National Olympic Committee presidents. This type of service ensures a dedicated driver-Olympic assistant for only one client. T2 services were offered to the IOC working groups and their officials such as WADA, CAS, technical officials and delegates of National Olympic Committees with less than 40 members. This type of service ensured a pool of volunteer drivers serving two clients belonging to the aforementioned groups. T3 services ensured the car-based transportation around London and within the Olympic route network of IOC guests, family members and other highly prestigious guests. Volunteers involved at the current study were serving T2 clients and in particular the IOC working groups, as this was the group served from the Park Lane fleet depot. 200 volunteers were serving T2 clients during Games time at the Park Lane and EXCEL depot. The sampling technique used for this research project was convenience sampling technique. As the primary researcher was a scheduler of the T2 drivers at

the Park Lane depot was easier to gain their contact details. However, the participants are not typical of all the volunteers involved at the London 2012 Games and may not hold the same views. The survey sample consisted of 163 individuals which equates to 81.5% response rate. Therefore, the sample of the current study is representative of its population.

### **3.5. Questionnaires**

Questionnaire surveys is the most frequent method in leisure and sport studies (Veal, 2006). Questionnaires include “*a standardised set of questions to gain information from a subject*” (Gratton & Jones, 2004, p.115). Questionnaires involve quantifiable data in the form of numbers and are considered a transparent research method. Well-designed questionnaires eliminate the bias on the responses which can easily happen during an interview, as verbal and non-verbal reactions of the researcher can lead the responses of the interviewee and affect the reliability of the study (Gratton & Jones, 2004). This research study utilised questionnaires for data collection for four reasons: First, questionnaires are a low cost research procedure, which is essential when external funding is not available for conducting a research project (Cartwright, 1998). Second, questionnaires allow the collection of data in relatively less time comparing to other methods (Gillham, 2000). Third, they allow anonymity and confidentiality and hence enable a higher response rate (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Lastly, using questionnaires is consistent with the existing literature and with what this research project aims to achieve.

#### **3.5.1. Research Instrument**

The survey instrument was designed to elicit the participants’ socio-demographic information, their current sports engagement, including their volunteering experience in other contexts, as well as to measure their motivation for volunteering at the Olympic Games. The questionnaire also elicited the intentions of volunteers to continue volunteering in other sport events or general contexts. Intention items were adapted from Downward & Ralston (2006) study aiming to investigate the future intentions of the 2002 Manchester Commonwealth Games volunteers. Similar to their questions, the items asking about intentions for future volunteering were specified into questions indicating future behaviour for sport-

event specific volunteering, for sports club volunteering, for general volunteering, for sports participation etc. Items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale indicating level of agreement ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

The motivation scale for this study was a modified version of Bang and Chelladurai (2003) study, which was applied in the context of the of the 2002 FIFA World Cup. The VMS-ISE developed by Bang and Chelladurai (2003) includes six dimensions: Expression of Values (5 items), Patriotism (5 items), Interpersonal Contacts (4 items), Career orientation (5 items) and Extrinsic rewards (2 items). A further factor, named Love of Sport factor (4 items) was included at the current study, which was adapted from Bang et al., (2009) study. Bang et al., (2009) used the original VMS-ISE but they claimed that Love of Sport is also significant motivation among sport event volunteers. In an attempt to reflect the specific context of the Olympic Games, a set of items were adapted from Giannoulakis et al., (2008) Olympic Volunteer Motivation Scale (OVMS). The Olympic related factor consisted of 7 items out of the 15 originally proposed from Giannoulakis et al., (2008) as these were considered that reflected the nature of the Olympic Games, as an event associated with sports and education values. The motivation scale used in the current study comprised of 36 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 from the principal researcher for two reasons: First, because the factors included in the instrument were adequately describing most of the dimensions reviewed in the existing sport volunteering literature. Second, because the VMS-ISE was identified as a valid and reliable instrument. Appendix A includes the questionnaire that was used in the current study.

### **3.5.1.1. Validity and Reliability**

Reliability describes the extent to which a research project can produce the same results if it 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 reduced as all the survey participants were contacted at the same time to complete the survey or they were asked to fill in the survey when they had free time before or after their volunteering shifts.
- **Subject Bias:** When participants suspect what the researcher wants to 'hear' and try to give 'correct' answers. This threat was reduced by not disclosing to the participants any information on what the researcher aims to achieve and by reminding to them that there are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers.
- **The Researcher Error:** Different research approaches may lead to different responses. The current study used two different data collection methods. However, the researcher followed the same procedure in both methods and did not discuss with any of the participants about the research objectives. Moreover, the purpose of the survey and other relevant information was disclosed at the beginning of the survey and hence no further information was provided.

Validity refers to the ability of a research instrument to measure what is designed to measure (Atkinson et al., 2000). There are two types of validity named internal and external (Vincent, 1999). Internal validity reflects the accuracy of the data in describing the phenomenon being studied. External validity refers to whether the results are applicable to different situations (Vincent, 1999; Veal, 2006). Both types of validity were achieved at the current study, as the survey instrument was a modified version of other valid instruments and can be applied to different Olympic Games volunteer samples.

Socio-demographic questions were asked at the end of the questionnaire. As Veal (2006) suggests that personal questions are not taken as offence, when are asked at the end of a questionnaire and when a rapport is established between the researcher and the respondent. Understanding Games Makers characteristics was considered essential in order to develop an Olympic Games volunteer profile and on predicting their future behaviour in terms of volunteering, which if positive is a



significant legacy of the event, in terms of developing a network of committed individuals who will be willing to offer their services in a wider range of activities and develop social capital.

### **3.5.2. Procedure**

Data collection took place one month prior to the London 2012 Olympic Games (June 2012) and during Games time (July, August 2012). Two methods of recruiting potential participants were utilised. First, by hand-distributing the survey to volunteers who offered their services at the transport functional area based in the non-competition venue of Park Lane. The principal researcher was able to secure official permission for survey distribution as a scheduler of the transport functional area. By establishing personal rapport with the participants, it was easy to ask them whether they would be willing to assist the researcher in assessing volunteer motivation and intentions by completing the survey. Second, an online survey was developed and emailed to the volunteer drivers in order to fill it out at their free time. The data collection was completed in September 2012.

### **3.6. 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. Lastly, the participants of the study were all adults.

### **3.7. The Evaluation Process**

After completing the data collection phase, the data analysis was conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 18). A series of descriptive statistics, factor analytic techniques and multiple regression analysis took place for analysing the data and justifying them with the existing literature.

#### **3.7.1. Factor Analysis**

Factor analysis is a technique that aims for data simplification by summarizing the original information to a more manageable set of underlying dimensions (Field, 2005). Factor analysis is distinguished in exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). EFA is used to explore an underlying factor structure within a dataset of observed variables without imposing the outcome of the analysis. EFA aims to identify hidden dimensions and hence there are not specific hypotheses. In contrast, CFA aims to verify the factor structure of a dataset. Therefore, the interrelationships between the observed and the latent (underlying) variables is already known.

The current study adopts an EFA approach as it is applied to a unique dataset whereas no specific information between the latent and the observed variables exists. When the research lacks of strong theoretical and empirical evidence regarding the number of common variables and their interrelationships, then EFA is more applicable (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). Therefore, as EFA generates hypotheses based on the data is more relevant for the current study, as the study is not based in a specific model that needs justification (Fabrigar et al., 1999; Field, 2005).

Factor analysis aims to discover and extract factors from a wider set of variables. The criteria for extracting factors include: (1) Kaiser's criterion which suggests that common factors are those with an eigenvalue greater than one (Nunnally, 1978), (2) The scree plot approach suggests that factors should be extracted by plotting a graph of each eigenvalue (Y-axis) against the factor it represents (X-axis) (Cattell, 1966). However, after factor extraction a large amount of common variance is distributed to the first factor. Subsequent factors account for the

remaining common variance until no variance remains (Child, 1990). Once the number of factors is decided, the second step in exploratory factor analysis is to find the loadings for each of the factors (Newsom, 2008). The term factor loading describes the correlation between a variable and the factor that it represents (Hair et al., 1990). The most commonly used factor extraction methods for achieving this purpose are: 1) Principal Components Analysis which assumes that there is no measurement error. It is often used for deriving factors that may be employed in other statistical analysis, such as regression analysis (Downward & Ralston, 2007). 2) maximum likelihood (e.g., canonical factoring), 3) alpha factoring, 4) image factoring, 5) principal axis factoring with iterated communalities (e.g., least squares) Newsom (2008). A technique that simplifies and equalises the factor structure in order to achieve equal amounts of variance in all factors was introduced. This technique is called factor rotation (Hair et al., 1990). Factor rotation includes two techniques: orthogonal and oblique rotation. In orthogonal rotation the factors are assumed to be uncorrelated with one another. Consequently, this method is often used to provide variables for regression analysis (Downward & Ralston, 2007). Oblique rotation derives factor loadings based on the assumption that the factors are correlated. Thus, the oblique rotation gives the correlation between the factors in addition to the loadings (Newsome, 2008). The most used rotational strategies include:

Orthogonal rotation: varimax, quartimax, equamax.

Oblique rotation: oblimin, promax, direct quartimin

The next step after factor extraction techniques is the interpretation of the results. There are some criteria for interpreting the factors: (1) The variables that load on a variable to be interpretable and share some conceptual meaning, (2) The items that load on a factor are at least 3 with significant loadings ( $>0.30$ ), (3) An item does not load significantly ( $>0.45$ ) in more than one factor, (4) The factors that load on different factors are clearly measuring different constructs. A factor loading is considered significant when it satisfies some criteria that relate to the sample size. Some general guidelines suggest 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 .21 and for 1000 it should be greater than .162* (Stevens, 1992, pp.382-384 cited in Smith, 2005 p. 637). 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).

### **3.7.2. Regression Analysis**

Regression analysis is a statistical method which aims to identify relationships between variables. The number of independent variables in a study determines the type of regression analysis that needs to be applied. When only one independent variable is used in the analysis for identifying its effect on the dependent, the procedure is described as 'simple regression'. In contrast, multiple regression aims to analyze the relationship between many independent variables and a dependent variable. Two criteria determine whether regression analysis is applicable to the data. First, the independent and dependent variables need to be correlated and second, the relationship between the variables is linear. The mathematical type that describes this linear relationship in simple regression is:

$$Y=\alpha+bX+\varepsilon$$

Where:

- Y=the dependent 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
- b=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)
- $\varepsilon$ = reflects other 'underlying' factors that influence the Y values

In multiple regression the relationship between variables is described as:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3$$

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

Multiple regression is distinguished in three different types. Standard multiple regression evaluates the relationships between a set of independent variables and a dependent variable. Hierarchical regression evaluates the relationships between a set of independent variables and a dependent variable, by taking into account the effects of some other independent variables on the dependent variable. Stepwise regression investigates the independent variable that has the strongest relationship to a dependent variable by following a stepwise process.

This study adopts a standard multiple regression method whereas all of the independent variables are entered into the regression type at the same time. As the aim of the study is to identify the impacts of volunteers' experiences, socio-demographics and motivations on volunteers' intentions and subsequently on developing a legacy from their involvement at the event, then the potential relationship between the independent variables to the intentions is measured with standard multiple regression. The regression output provides information about the multiple R and  $R^2$ , which measure the strength of the relationship between the set of independent variables and the dependent variable. Moreover, F test investigates whether the relationship between the variables can be generalized to the population represented by the sample. Furthermore, a t-test identifies the relationship between each independent variable and the dependent variable. Two criteria need to be satisfied for a regression equation to provide a relationship between variables. First, a statistically significant relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Second, this relationship needs to be of the

correct strength. The strength of the relationship is measured with multiple R which would be 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. However, as R -square is affected by the number of the independent variables that are added to the model, the use of adjusted R square is more appropriate, as it does not increase (Hair et al., 1990; Field, 2005).

## **Chapter 4: Results**

This chapter contains the results of the quantitative data analysis performed in this study. The information includes descriptive statistics and statistical test results exploring volunteers' motivations and future behaviour reflecting the research objectives of the current study. Specifically, the results of the exploratory factor analysis and other tests are reported in this chapter.

### **4.1. Descriptive Statistics-Independent Variables**

#### **4.1.1. Demographics**

Data were examined prior to the analysis in order to identify any missing data or outliers which might seriously affect results of the analysis. Table 4.1 summarizes the demographic information of the participants in this study. There is an approximate balance in terms of the gender of the participants, as 83 of the participants were male (50.9%) and 80 were female (49.1%). The majority of volunteers were highly educated, holding a university degree (42.9%), followed by those who had a postgraduate degree (16.6%), A 'levels or equivalent (11.7%) or those below degree level (9.2%). In terms of marital status, the majority of volunteers were single (53.4%), followed by those who were married (43.6%) and a small proportion of widowed individuals (3.1%). The employment status revealed that the majority of volunteers were in full-time employment (49.1%), followed by retired volunteers (24.5%), students (12.3%), part-time employees (9.8%) and unemployed (4.3%). The majority of the volunteers of the current

study were of White-British ethnic origin (79.1%), followed by (10.4%) of other white ethnic backgrounds. In terms of nationality, the majority of the participants were British nationals (87.1%). The majority of volunteers (28.8%) were in the 45-59 age range, followed by 26.4% in the 60-69 age range, 19% in the 18-24 age range, 16% aged 25 to 34 years, 8.6% aged between 35 to 44 years and lastly, 1.2% in the 70+ age range.

#### **4.1.2. Sports and Volunteering Engagement**

Survey participants were asked whether they currently participate in sports. 66.9% stated that they participate in sports with the majority (33.7%) indicating that they take up more than one sports. The participants were also asked whether they had volunteered in other Olympic Games before and 98.8% indicated that it was their first experience as Olympic volunteers. 62% of the sample indicated that they are currently involved in volunteering for other organizations. A small majority of those (21.5%) indicated that they volunteer for a wide range of organizations not listed in the current survey. Another 16% indicated that volunteer for a sports club followed by 10.4% that volunteered for charities. In terms of hours of involvement in volunteering, the data suggest skewed distributions, however the majority indicated that they volunteer for 2 hours (23.5%), followed by 19.4% indicating that they volunteer for 4 hours.

**Table 4.1 Frequencies of Socio-demographics and Experiences**

Demographic Information	Classification	Frequency (N=70)	Percent (%)
Gender	Male	83	50.9%
	Female	35	49.1%
Ethnicity	White-British	65	79.1%
	White Irish	1	4.3%
	Asian-Indian	3	1.4%
	Mixed white-Asian	1	1.4%
Age	18-24	25	19%
	25-34	10	16%
	35-44	10	8.6%
	45-59	20	28.8%
	60-69	5	26.4%
Employment	Full-time	40	49.1%
	Part-Time	11	12.3%
	Student	9	12.3%
	Retired	6	24.5%
	Unemployed	4	4.3%
Education	Postgraduate	43	16.6%
	Degree Level	5	42.9%
	Below degree level	7	9.2%
	A' Levels	9	11.7%
	GCSE	2	2.9%
	Qualifications/Appr. Other (not listed)	4	5.7%
Nationality	British	57	81.4%
		13	18.6%
Marital Status	Single	10	53.4%
	Married	3	43.6%
	Widowed		3.1%



### **4.1.3. Descriptive Statistics of Olympic Volunteering Motivations**

Individual items were assessed on the level of influence they had for the London 2012 Games Makers. Table 4.1.3 shows that some motives have more influence over individuals' decision to volunteer for the Games than others. The statements that most respondents agreed with suggest that volunteers are motivated primarily by motives of altruistic nature such as in order 'to do something worthwhile', 'to help others', 'to make the event a success' as well as because of the unique nature of the event, as 'volunteering at the Games is an one in a lifetime opportunity'. Less prevalent motives are concerned with extrinsic rewards such as 'I wanted to get tickets/free admission' and 'I wanted to get uniforms/licenced apparel'.

<b>Descriptive Statistics-Items</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
I wanted to help out in any capacity	163	6.06	1.318
b. I wanted to do something worthwhile	163	6.44	1.060
c. I feel it is important to help others	163	6.29	1.042
d. I wanted to help make the event a success	163	6.15	1.344
e. Volunteering creates a better society	163	6.04	1.278
f. Because of my allegiance/devotion to my country	163	5.42	1.575
g. I wanted to help my country gain international prestige	163	5.53	1.376
h. My love for my country makes me want to help it to host an event	163	5.79	1.452
i. I am proud of my country hosting the 2012 Olympic Games	163	5.56	1.536
9.I want to express my pride in my country	163	5.96	1.416
j. I wanted to interact with others	163	5.97	1.130
k. I wanted to work with different people	163	6.06	1.087
l. I wanted to meet people	163	5.90	1.169
m. I wanted to develop relationships with others	163	5.37	1.428
n. Volunteering experience will look good on my C.V.	163	4.88	1.838
o. I wanted to gain some practical experience	163	4.89	1.764
p. I could make new contacts that might help my business or career	163	4.15	1.823
q. I wanted to gain work-related experience	163	4.25	1.985
r. I wanted to gain experience that would be beneficial in any job	163	4.41	1.855
s. Volunteering makes me feel needed	163	4.60	1.631
t. I can explore my own strength	163	4.96	1.732
u. Volunteering makes me feel important	163	4.28	1.779
v. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things	163	5.24	1.478
x. I wanted to get event uniform/licensed apparel	163	3.02	1.905
y. I wanted to get tickets/free admission	163	3.98	2.107
z. I like any event related to sport	163	4.86	1.777
ab. I like any event related to my favourite sport	163	4.80	1.756
ac. sport is something I love	163	5.61	1.627
ad. I enjoy being involved in sport activities	163	5.75	1.509
ae. I enjoy being involved in Olympic related activities	163	6.02	1.349
af. I have passion for the Olympic and Paralympic Games	163	5.99	1.308
I want to become associated with the Olympics	163	5.76	1.502
ah. I want to attend an Olympic event	163	6.09	1.549
ai. Volunteering at the Olympic Games is an once in a lifetime opportunity	163	6.13	1.412
aj. Being a volunteer at the Olympic and Paralympic Games is considered to be prestigious	163	5.48	1.513
ak.I want to experience the spirit of solidarity and peace that is associated with the Olympic philosophy	163	4.66	2.035
Valid N (listwise)	163		

## 4.2. Factor Analysis of Event Motivation

The construct validity of the motivation scale used for the current sample was examined through principal component analysis (PCA). PCA was specifically used to estimate the actual eigenvalues. Principal component analysis with a Varimax (orthogonal) rotation of the 36 scale questions from the motivation to volunteer at the London 2012 Olympic Games was conducted on data gathered from 163 participants. An examination of the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin measure of sampling adequacy suggested that the sample was ideal for factor analysis (KMO=.862) which is above the recommended factorable value between .6 and .7 (Kaiser, 1974). Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant,  $\chi^2 (630)=4650.635$ ,  $p<.001$ , 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: (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 (Stevens, 1996; Hair et al., 1990; Hair et al., 1998). When loadings less than 0.45 were excluded, the analysis yielded a seven-factor solution with a simple structure (factor loadings  $\geq .45$ ). The reason for accepting the .45 value as the minimum value for considering a factor loading as significant is based on Steven's (1992) guidelines. Initially 7 factors were extracted explaining 71.7% of the total variance. The first factor explained 31.3% of the total variance, followed by another 14.5% explained by the second factor. Therefore, 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). After a close examination of the rotated structure matrix, it was found that factor 7 comprised with two items that were not interpretable in terms of the loaded items and one of the items was negatively signed. Therefore, factor 7 was eliminated

from further analysis. For this reason, a follow-up run of PCA was conducted by excluding the loaded items in factor 7 which were: I want to experience the spirit of solidarity and peace that is associated with the Olympic philosophy and 'I like any event related to my favourite sport'. The follow-up run of factor analysis suggested an ideal sample for factor analysis ( $KMO=.870$ ) and that it was significant  $\{\chi^2(561) = 4390.293, p < .001\}$ . However, after a close examination of the factor structure matrix, it was found that the sixth factor comprised with only two items and factor 4 was not well defined by all of the loaded items. Moreover the item 'I like any event related to sport' had loadings of  $\geq .45$  in two factors. Therefore, this item and the items 'volunteering at the Olympic Games is an once in a lifetime opportunity', 'being a volunteer at the Olympic Games is considered to be prestigious', 'I wanted to attend an Olympic event' and 'I like any event related to my favourite sport' were eliminated from future analysis.

A further follow-up run of PCA was conducted resulting in a five-factor solution. An examination of the  $KMO (.869)$  and the Bartlett test of Sphericity suggested that the data matrix was factorable and significant at the .001 level  $\{\chi^2(465) = 4057.724, p < .001\}$ . The five factors explained collectively 67% of the total variance. In particular, factor 1 explained 17.5% of the variance, factor 2 explained 17.2%, and factor 3 contributed 13.1% to the total variance. Lastly, factor 4 and factor 5 explained 12.2% and 6.2% of the total variance respectively. The results of an orthogonal rotation of the solution are shown in Table 4.2. In particular, table 4.2. demonstrates the results of PCA on motivation, the item loadings, the total variance explained by each factor and their reliability estimates.

**Table 4.2 Motivation Factors**

<b>Rotated Component Matrix<sup>a</sup></b>					
	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
I wanted to help out in any capacity					
b. I wanted to do something worthwhile			.495		
c. I feel it is important to help others					
d. I wanted to help make the event a success	.702				
e. Volunteering creates a better society	.707				
f. Because of my allegiance/devotion to my country	.847				
g. I wanted to help my country gain international prestige	.837				
h. My love for my country makes me want to help it to host an event	.859				
i. I am proud of my country hosting the 2012 Olympics	.881				
9. I want to express my pride in my country	.776				
j. I wanted to interact with others				.817	
k. I wanted to work with different people				.831	
l. I wanted to meet people				.771	
m. I wanted to develop relationships with others				.672	
n. Volunteering experience will look good on my C.V.		.800			
o. I wanted to gain some practical experience		.770			
p. I could make new contacts that might help my business or career		.864			
q. I wanted to gain work-related experience		.846			
r. I wanted to gain experience that would be beneficial in any job		.824			
s. Volunteering makes me feel needed					.616
t. I can explore my own strength					.564
u. Volunteering makes me feel important					.551
v. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things					.570
x. I wanted to get event uniform/licensed apparel		.714			
y. I wanted to get tickets/free admission		.644			
ac. sport is something I love			.782		
ad. I enjoy being involved in sport activities			.822		
ae. I enjoy being involved in Olympic related activities			.796		
af. I have passion for the Olympic and Paralympic Games			.724		
I want to become associated with the Olympics			.636		
<b>Eigenvalues after Rotation</b>	<b>5.442</b>	<b>5.344</b>	<b>4.091</b>	<b>3.806</b>	<b>1.944</b>
<b>Total Variance after Rotation (%)</b>	<b>17.554</b>	<b>17.270</b>	<b>13.195</b>	<b>12.278</b>	<b>6.272</b>
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.					
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.					
a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.					

#### **4.2.1. Factor Interpretation**

The first factor comprises of seven items. Based on the content of the loaded items, two broad categories of motives are evident in factor 1. Some of the items reflect a desire to contribute to the society and provide their help in making the event a success. Other items in factor 1 reflect a desire of the volunteers to benefit with their actions and to express their pride in the country. Therefore, factor 1 was labelled 'Patriotism and community values'.

The second factor comprises of seven items. It is evident that the items contained at the second factor reflect a desire for benefits and rewards from the volunteering involvement at the Olympic Games such as enhancing future career prospects by gaining skills and experience, by developing a social network which may then be beneficial for a future career. Moreover, two items in factor two reflect the desire for extrinsic rewards such as the opportunity to get tickets to attend an Olympic event or to get the official uniform of the Games. Therefore, the second factor was labelled 'Career orientation and other Contingent Rewards'.

Factor 3 comprises of six items. These reflect two broad categories of motives as suggested by previous studies such as love of sport, which suggests the importance and the personal interest of an individual for sports and Olympic-related such as the desire of volunteers to be involved in the Olympic Games, meet with Olympic athletes and promote the Olympic movement. However, the Olympic Games is first and foremost a major sport event. The values that the Games represent are perpetuated through the use of sport as a tool. Therefore, the third factor was labelled 'Love of Sport and the Olympic Games'. The item 'I wanted to do something worthwhile' was not interpretable with the rest of the items and it was eliminated from further analysis.

The items that comprise factor 4 suggest that volunteers are motivated by a desire to build social networks, to meet people and to make friendships from their involvement at the Olympic Games. Therefore, factor 3 was labelled 'Interpersonal Contacts'.

Four items comprise factor 5. These items reflect the desire of individuals to volunteer for an event in order to increase their self-esteem and self-development from the interaction with others, cooperation and teamwork that are experienced in a sporting event. Therefore, factor 5 was labelled 'Personal Growth' factor.

#### **4.2.2. Reliability Analysis**

The internal consistency of each motivation factor was assessed by estimating Cronbach's reliability alpha. Correlations between an item and the sum of all other items in each identified motivation factor were above 0.40. The reliability estimates for each factor ranged from 0.77 to 0.93 with a mean value of 0.87. The reliability of each factor satisfied Nunally and Bernstein's (1994) criterion of considering a factor as reliable if Cronbach's alpha is higher than 0.70. In particular, Patriotism and Community Values factor had an alpha of 0.93. The career orientation and other contingent rewards factor had an alpha of 0.90. The love of sport and the Olympic Games had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.86. Interpersonal Contacts factor had an alpha of 0.91. Lastly, Personal Growth factor alpha was 0.77. Convergent validity was also achieved as each of the items loaded significantly on its specified factor (Anderson & Gerbing, 1998).

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

Mean scores for each of the motivating factors were calculated in SPSS. Table 4.2.3 provides a summary of the mean scores for each factor and individual variables. Factor mean scores were calculated by adding each question and dividing by the number of questions. 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. The factors which scored highly, as indicated by calculating the means include the love of sport and the Olympics factor, the interpersonal contacts factor, followed by the Patriotism and community values factor. The career orientation and other contingent rewards factor achieved lower scores, as shown in table 4.2.3.

**Table 4.2.3. Mean Scores & Standard Deviations of Motivation Factors**

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Overall Mean
<b>Patriotism and Community Values</b>			
d. I wanted to help make the event a success	6.15	1.344	
e. Volunteering creates a better society	6.04	1.278	
f. Because of my allegiance/devotion to my country	5.42	1.575	5.77
g. I wanted to help my country gain international prestige	5.53	1.376	
h. My love for my country makes me want to help it to host an event	5.79	1.452	
i. I am proud of my country hosting the 2012 Olympics	5.56	1.536	
9.I want to express my pride in my country	5.96	1.416	
<b>Interpersonal Contacts</b>			
j. I wanted to interact with others	5.97	1.130	
k. I wanted to work with different people	6.06	1.087	5.82
l. I wanted to meet people	5.90	1.169	
m. I wanted to develop relationships with others	5.37	1.428	
<b>Career Orientation and Other Contingent Rewards</b>			
n. Volunteering experience will look good on my C.V.	4.88	1.838	
o. I wanted to gain some practical experience	4.89	1.764	
p. I could make new contacts that might help my business or career	4.15	1.823	
q. I wanted to gain work-related experience	4.25	1.985	4.22
r. I wanted to gain experience that would be beneficial in any job	4.41	1.855	
x. I wanted to get event uniform/licensed apparel	3.02	1.905	
y. I wanted to get tickets/free admission	3.98	2.107	
<b>Love of Sport and the Olympic Games</b>			
ac. sport is something I love	5.61	.627	
ad. I enjoy being involved in sport activities	5.75	1.509	
ae. I enjoy being involved in Olympic related activities	6.02	1.349	5.82
af. I have passion for the Olympic and Paralympic Games	5.99	1.308	
I want to become associated with the Olympics	5.76	1.502	
<b>Personal Growth</b>			
Volunteering makes me feel needed	4.60	1.631	
Volunteering makes me feel important	4.96	1.732	4.77
I can explore my own strength	4.28	1.779	
Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things	5.24	1.478	



### 4.3. Descriptive Statistics- Dependent Variables

Table 4.3 reports some preliminary descriptive results of the variables measuring the future behavioural intentions of the London 2012 Games volunteer sample. As the results reveal, there is some evidence that the experience at the London 2012 Olympic Games will increase the likelihood of the participants to volunteer for other major sport events in the future (M=5.13, SD=1.476). There is also strong evidence that volunteers are not willing to quit volunteering and to look for further volunteering opportunities in the future (M=2.10, SD=1.570).

**Table 4.3. Intentions Descriptive Statistics**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
I intend to participate more in sports	163	4.54	1.701
I am now more aware of a wider range of volunteering opportunities	163	4.94	1.366
willing to volunteer for any other major sport event	163	5.13	1.476
I intend to follow a sport related career/gain qualifications	163	3.14	1.993
I intend to volunteer for a sports organization	163	4.79	1.673
I am now more interested in voluntary work than before	163	4.35	1.476
I intent to quit volunteering	163	2.10	1.570
Valid N (listwise)	163		

### 4.4. Regression Analysis

This section provides a presentation of the results of the regression analysis. Standard multiple regression analysis was performed in order to examine whether there are any impacts of volunteers' socio-demographics, experiences and motivations on their intentions to participate in sports, or volunteer for future community and other events. Multiple regression analysis for the intention to participate more in sports indicated that the fourteen independent variables (age, gender, marital status, employment, education, nationality, ethnicity, participation in sports, volunteer engagement in other organizations, Patriotism, Interpersonal contacts, career orientation & other contingent rewards, love of sport and the

Olympics, personal growth) accounted for 18% of the variance in volunteers' intention to participate more in sports after the experience at the London 2012 Olympic & Paralympic Games ( $R=.501$ ,  $R^2=.251$ , adjusted  $R^2=.180$ ,  $F=[14,148]=3.538$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). One significant predictor of intent to participate more in sports emerged: the Love of Sport and the Olympic Games factor ( $b=.538$ ,  $Beta=.317$ ,  $t=2.909$ ,  $p<0.005$ ). Further, the independent variables explained 8.7% of the variance in volunteers' intention to volunteer for any other major sport event ( $R=.408$ ,  $R^2=.166$ , adjusted  $R^2=.087$ ,  $F=[14,148]=2.106$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). However, no significant individual predictors emerged. The multiple regression model with all fourteen predictors produced 6.9% of the variance on volunteers' increased interest for volunteer work than before the Games ( $R=.387$ ,  $R^2=.149$ , adjusted  $R^2=.069$ ,  $F=[14,148]=2.085$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). No significant individual predictors of this variance emerged. The volunteers suggested also that their involvement with the London 2012 Olympic Games made them more aware of a wider range of volunteering opportunities than before, as suggested by the 9.8% prediction of the independent variables ( $R=.406$ ,  $R^2=.165$ , adjusted  $R^2=.098$ ,  $F=[14,148]=2.255$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). The factor Love of Sport and the Olympic Games emerged as a significant predictor of the variance ( $b=.374$ ,  $Beta=.274$ ,  $t=2.396$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). The regression analysis for the intention to follow a sports related career/gain qualifications and training courses explained 34.3% of the total variance ( $R=.632$ ,  $R^2=.399$ , adjusted  $R^2=.343$ ,  $F=[14,148]=7.029$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). Four significant predictors of intending to follow a sport related career/gain qualifications emerged: age ( $b=-.248$ ,  $Beta=-.189$ ,  $t=-1.980$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), ethnicity ( $b=.170$ ,  $Beta=.223$ ,  $t=3.154$ ,  $p<0.005$ ), Patriotism and Community values ( $b=-.461$ ,  $Beta=-.231$ ,  $t=-2.830$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and love of sport and the Olympic Games ( $b=.823$ ,  $Beta=.413$ ,  $t=4.236$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). The independent variables explained 9.9% of the variance in intending to continue volunteering for a sports organization ( $R=.420$ ,  $R^2=.176$ , adjusted  $R^2=.099$ ,  $F=[14,148]=2.266$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). Three significant predictors emerged: level of education ( $b=.129$ ,  $Beta=.185$ ,  $t=2.401$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), interpersonal contacts ( $b=.412$ ,  $Beta=.255$ ,  $t=2.645$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and volunteered for other organizations ( $b=-.190$ ,  $Beta=-.224$ ,  $t=-2.812$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). Lastly, volunteers' socio-demographics, experiences and motivations accounted for 8.7% of the variance in explaining the intention to quit volunteering ( $R=.407$ ,  $R^2=.165$ , adjusted  $R^2=.087$ ,  $F=[14,148]=2.096$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). Three significant

predictors emerged: Gender ( $b=-.541$ ,  $Beta=-.173$ ,  $t=-2.122$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), the love of sport and the Olympic Games factor ( $b=.385$ ,  $Beta=.245$ ,  $t=2.133$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and the Interpersonal contacts factor ( $b=-.351$ ,  $Beta=-.224$ ,  $t=-2.301$ ,  $p<0.05$ ).

## **Chapter 5: Discussion**

Human resources is an integral component for the successful staging of mega sporting events. Specifically for the Olympic Games, the Organizing Committees not only rely on paid staff but the amount of individual volunteers involved is excessive. The increasing costs of organizing an event of such scale would be a burden for the Organizing Committees. Therefore, volunteers' contribution is substantial not only for balancing the costs of the Games, but also for the social benefits that the event may bring to the country and the general community (Ritchie, 2001). It has been argued that these benefits include the strengthening and development of the 'soft infrastructure'. In other words, one aspect of the legacy of the event is the development of social capital, by helping individual citizens to acquire skills, experiences and change their attitudes towards community and social involvement which is expressed by community volunteering (Ritchie, 2001). Despite the growing interest pertaining to the Olympic Games' volunteers, little research has addressed their specific characteristics, experiences and the benefits that may accrue to the community after their involvement at the Games. Moreover, most of the research in volunteer motivations, characteristics and experiences, and how these may impact on their future decisions of involvement, has focused in regional, special or single sport events.

The purpose of the current study was to explore attributes of motivations of volunteers involved in the London 2012 summer Olympic Games by examining the factorial structure of the volunteer motivation scale, specifically developed for addressing motivations to volunteer at the Olympic Games. Other aspects of volunteers' experiences along with socio-demographics were also examined to shed light on whether these influence volunteers' future intentions to get involved

in other events or community projects. Results of this study have confirmed the multidimensionality of sport volunteer motivations.

The data analysis revealed five motivation factors with satisfactory validity and reliability scores. The five extracted factors namely Patriotism and Community Values, Career Orientation and other Contingent Rewards, Love of Sport and the Olympic Games, Interpersonal Contacts and Personal Growth met all the statistical criteria set for conducting exploratory factor analysis. In particular, Love of Sport and the Olympic Games and Interpersonal Contacts were found as the predominant factors. This confirms the existing literature on Olympic volunteers' motivations (i.e. Giannoulakis et al., 2008) which suggests that Olympic volunteers are either devoted fans of the Olympic Games and of sports, or they want to be part of a unique event, experience the Olympic values and admire the sporting achievements which is the focus of the Games. Furthermore, the Games provide a platform for engaging in collaborative work, meeting new people and experiencing a celebratory atmosphere whereas the development of friendships is promoted. Therefore, this proves that the interpersonal contacts factor is a prevalent reason for volunteering at the Olympic Games. Patriotism and Community values factor, which is altruistically oriented was also an important set of motivations. The desire to work as part of a team in order to support the country and take pride in the event success is evident at one off events such as the Olympic Games (Solberg and Preuss, 2007). The career and other contingent rewards factor was the least prevalent set of motivations. Even though, working for such an event promotes the development of skills which may be beneficial for a future career, rewards were not as important as other motivations. This is again explained by the distinctive nature of the Games which is more influential comparing to other events (Giannoulakis et al., 2008). Therefore, Games volunteers are more likely to volunteer influenced by the opportunity to be part of it rather than for altruistic reasons or the seeking of rewards and personal growth.

The sports and volunteering engagement variables reveal a high degree of sports engagement generally among the Games volunteers. Almost 67% of the sample currently played sports, with 62% of the sample volunteering for other

organizations and contexts. These latter results hint at the potential for the transfer of volunteer effort across contexts.

Of particular interest in this study was the identification of the impacts of volunteers' experiences and socio-demographics on their future intentions, in terms of sport participation and volunteering. One positive legacy that emerged from the event experience is the intention to participate more in sports. In particular, love of sports and the Olympic Games raises the likelihood of volunteers to get involved in sports. This is suggestive of sports specific 'push' factors which promote sports participation.

Another positive legacy of the event experience is the desire of volunteers to get involved in other major sport events in the future as well as their enhanced awareness of a wider range of volunteering opportunities and ways to get involved in volunteering projects in the future. Love of sport and the Olympics factor again increases this probability. This is suggestive that satisfaction from volunteering at one event could be the basis for volunteering at another event.

Further, the findings suggested that love of sport and the Olympics, and being of white British ethnic background promotes the desire to follow a sports related career, gain qualifications and attend training courses. Moreover, belonging to a younger age group also promotes this likelihood. This suggests that, younger age volunteers perceive volunteering as a pathway for developing and enhancing their future career prospects and further validates the career dimension as a reason for volunteering. In contrast, being motivated primarily by patriotism and community values reduces this probability. This is suggestive of event specific 'pull' factors, from those who see volunteering at the Olympic Games more in altruistic terms and as a tool for promoting community spirit.

Interpersonal contacts, level of education and volunteering involvement in other organizations emerged as significant predictors of the intentions to continue volunteering at a sports organization. Motivational variables are suggestive of seeing volunteering as a tool for social interaction and networking. Clearly, the

possibility of social interaction can be seen as a potential strategy for recruiting volunteers in sport organizations. Level of education also promotes the intention to volunteer in sports organizations. This confirms the existing literature on volunteers' socio-demographics suggesting that highly educated individuals are more likely to volunteer in a variety of contexts comparing to individuals with a lower education level (Bang et al., 1999). The variable 'volunteering in other organizations' is negatively signed. This is suggestive that volunteers currently involved in other volunteering contexts rather than sports are less likely to commit time and effort in a sports organization. Clearly, this indicates that volunteering for sports is not the main area of volunteer involvement among the present sample.

The final set of regression results examined the intentions to quit volunteering and are highly consistent with the existing literature. Females are more likely not to quit volunteering in general. This confirms females' preference in volunteering for community projects rather than sports. The motivation variables are suggestive of less altruism. The seeking of social interaction and networking and the love of sports are important factors preventing volunteers from quitting volunteering in general. Clearly this is a target of potential event-volunteer recruits.

It appears that the involvement with the event promotes future community volunteering even though the effects of the event experience are relatively small. However, the experience of volunteering with an event can impact on volunteers' future behaviour and benefits the community in the long-term. Therefore, event organizers should pay more attention in understanding their volunteer characteristics and driving forces in order to harness their skills and experiences at future community projects. Clearly, the event brought together a diverse group of individuals who worked together towards a common goal, motivated by community spirit, patriotic values, the possibility of being part of a unique experience and the love of sports. It is evident, that the event experience raised volunteers' awareness and interest in volunteering as a tool for social interaction, community involvement and personal/professional development. Therefore, event organizers must ensure that future volunteering opportunities provide opportunities for social interaction, for contributing to the community, share

values and experiences, increase volunteers' self-esteem, develop their skills and enhance their affiliation to sports, as sports are considered 'vehicles of identity' which provide individuals with a sense of belonging and differentiate them from other groups individuals who do not share the same values (MacClancy, 1996).

### **5.1. Practical Implications**

The impact of volunteering on the effective staging of major sport events is substantial in political, economic, athletic and social terms. The instrument developed in this study will provide event organizers, human resources managers and volunteer coordinators with a useful tool for understanding volunteer characteristics, motivations and experiences and how these may impact on their intentions and subsequently on the development of social capital. This will enhance their 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. However, event managers should pay attention to the 'matching principle' which suggests that volunteers are more satisfied when their volunteer tasks match their motivations (Clary et al., 2002). Recruitment of volunteers is first and foremost a marketing problem and especially for large scale sport events such as the Olympics is critical for ensuring the success of the event (Green and Chalip, 1998). Volunteers who found the experience beneficial and worth are keener on continuing volunteering for future events and hence the development of social capital is developed and enhanced through cooperation and commitment in achieving a common goal.

### **5.2. Limitations of the Study**

The sample of the current study was selected only from the transport department and the non- competition venues of the Fleet Depots Park Lane and Excel (convenience sample). Future motivation studies should adapt other sampling techniques and include samples from a plethora of Olympic competition and non-competition venues in order to increase the representativeness of the Olympic volunteer population and increase the external validity of the study. Moreover, using a mixed distribution method could be a threat for adding bias to the study. However, the bias were eliminated by setting a deadline for submitting the online

questionnaire and by including a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study and instructions on how to complete the questionnaire. Moreover, the legacy of the event pertaining to social capital was measured by examining the impacts of the experiences on volunteers' future intentions. However, 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 Lastly, the motivation scale developed at the current study needs to be retested with confirmatory factor analysis in future studies in order to increase its construct validity and confirm the theoretical concept of Olympic Games volunteers' motivations.



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## **Appendices**





## **OLYMPIC VOLUNTEERS (GAMES MAKERS) QUESTIONNAIRE**

Welcome to this survey of volunteers at the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games. 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 sports in general. If you are involved as a volunteer at the London 2012 Games we would like to hear your volunteering experiences. The aim of this survey is to explore the motivation and experiences of you as a volunteer at the Olympic and Paralympic Games and how these dimensions impact upon your sporting, personal/professional development and future plans.

This survey is being conducted by the International Olympic Academy (IOA) and the University of Peloponnese. Therefore, this presents a real opportunity for the views of the Olympic volunteers to be heard collectively. Your contribution to this research is valuable as successful management of volunteers at one event has positive implications for the maintenance of a strong volunteer base in the community for future events. 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, national and international policy decisions regarding sport event volunteering and volunteering in general, so thank you for taking time to complete this survey. If you would like more information regarding the survey do not hesitate to contact me at: **N.Koutrou@lboro.ac.uk**. Alternatively, you can complete the survey online by following the link: **<https://www.survey.lboro.ac.uk/olympicvolunteering>**

1. Do you actively participate in any sport? Yes  No   
If yes which sport?
2. Were you already an Olympic volunteer in another Games before this last experience at the London 2012 Olympic Games? Yes  (go to Q3) No  (go to Q4)
3. If 'Yes' where was it?  Sydney 2000 Olympic Games  Athens 2004 Olympic Games  Beijing 2008 Olympic Games  
 Other (please specify):
4. Do you do voluntary work for any other organisation at the moment?  
Yes  (go to Q5) No  (go to Q7)
5. If 'Yes' please specify the other type (s) of organisation you volunteer for (please tick any that are applicable)  
 School (Parents Assoc., Governors, etc.)  Uniformed groups (Scouts, Guides, etc.)  
 Other Sport (football, netball, cricket etc)  Charities (OXFAM,RNIB,NSPCC etc.)  
 Church,religious groups

Other (please specify):

6. On average how many hours a week do you spend in volunteering activities?

(Please give an estimate, no matter how approximate it is).

**MOTIVATION TO VOLUNTEER AT THE LONDON 2012 OLYMPIC GAMES**

**7. How much do you agree with the following statements in the table below in influencing your decision to volunteer at the London 2012 Olympic Games? (Please tick ONE BOX ONLY for each of the following statements).**

Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't Know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9
1. I want to help out in any capacity							
2. I want to do something worthwhile							
3. I feel it is important to help others							
4. I want to help make the event a success							
5. Volunteering creates a better society							
6. Because of my allegiance/devotion to my country							
7. I want to help my country gain international prestige							
8. I want to express my pride in my country							
9. My love for my country makes me want to help it to host an event							
10. I am proud of my country hosting the 2012 Olympic & Paralympic Games							
11. I want to interact with others							
12. I want to work with different people							
13. I want to meet people							
14. I want to develop relationships with others							
15. Volunteering experience will look good on my C.V.							
16. I want to gain some practical experience							
17. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career							
18. I want to gain work-related experience							
19. I want to gain experience that would be beneficial in any job							
20. Volunteering makes me feel needed							
21. I can explore my own strength							
22. Volunteering makes me feel important							
23. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things							
24. I want to get event uniform/licensed apparels							
25. I want to get tickets/free admission							
26. I like any event related to sport							
27. I like any event related to basketball/wheelchair basketball							
28. Sport is something I love							
29. I enjoy being involved in sport activities							
30. I enjoy being involved in Olympic related activities							
31. I have passion for the Olympic & Paralympic Games							
32. I want to become associated (be part of) with the Olympic & Paralympic							
33. I want to attend an Olympic event							

34. Volunteering at the Olympic Games is an once in a lifetime opportunity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9
35. Being a volunteer at the Olympic & Paralympic Games is considered to be prestigious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9
36. I want to experience the spirit of solidarity and peace that is associated with the Olympic Philosophy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9

**FUTURE PLANS IN VOLUNTEERING**

**8. To what extent you think your volunteering experience at the London 20112 Olympic & Paralympic Games will affect your future plans? (Please tick ONE BOX ONLY for each of the following statements).**

Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree	Don't Know
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>9</b>

1. I intend to participate more in sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know 9
2. I intend to volunteer for a wider range of activities/ Organizations than before	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know 9
3. I intend to continue volunteering at a sports organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know 9
4. I am now more aware of a wider range of volunteering opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know 9
5. I intent to volunteer if any other major sport event happens in the UK	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know 9
6. I intend to follow a sport related career/or gain Qualifications/or attend training courses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know 9
7. I intend to quit volunteering	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know 9

**DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENT**

**Finally, a few questions about yourself:** (Please tick one from each question)

**9. Age**

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

**10. Gender**

Male     Female

**11. Please indicate your marital status**

Single     Married     Widowed

**12. Employment status**

In full-time employment     retired   
 In part-time employment     in full time education

Unemployed

**13. Highest level of educational attainment**

- Postgraduate Degree (Msc, MA, PhD)  Degree level  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*):

**14. What is your nationality?**

**15. Ethnicity** (please tick corresponding box)

- White-British  White-Other  White Irish  Asian-Bangladeshi  
 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*):

**16. Please write your email address** (optional, if you are willing to take part in a follow-up survey after the Games finish)

**Thank you for taking the time to answer this questionnaire!**