



Sports Economics, Management and Policy

Series Editor: Dennis Coates

Kirstin Hallmann

Sheranne Fairley *Editors*

# Sports Volunteers Around the Globe

Meaning and Understanding of  
Volunteering and its Societal Impact

 Springer

# **Sports Economics, Management and Policy**

Volume 15

**Series Editor**

Dennis Coates, Baltimore, MD, USA

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Kirstin Hallmann • Sheranne Fairley  
Editors

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and its Societal Impact

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction



Sheranne Fairley and Kirstin Hallmann

**Abstract** Volunteers are an integral component of sport events throughout the world (Cuskelly et al. 2006; Kemp 2002). Sport and event managers must therefore understand the motives and experiences of volunteers in order to effectively recruit, retain, and manage volunteers. Western countries such as Australia and the United States have a strong history of hosting events that utilize a considerable number of volunteers. Events such as the Olympic Games have been recognized as a potential impetus for a volunteering career (Fairley et al. 2014, 2016) and therefore may increase the interest in volunteering in the host country. There is an increasing trend for Asian countries to host sport events (Dolles and Soderman 2008). With increased event hosting, there is an increasing need for volunteers (Kim et al. 2010). Research, however, suggests that there are significant differences between how volunteering is perceived and conceptualized in different countries and cultures (Fairley et al. 2013; Handy et al. 2000; Halsall et al. 2016). While large-scale events rely on volunteers regardless of where they are held, the prevalence of volunteering both in relation to sport and society varies by country. This book examines the cultural environment in which volunteering takes place by identifying the ways in which volunteering is conceptualized, valued, and enacted in different countries.

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## 1.1 Background and Aim

Volunteers are an integral component of sport events throughout the world (Cuskelly et al. 2006; Kemp 2002). Sport and event managers must therefore understand the motives and experiences of volunteers in order to effectively recruit, retain, and manage volunteers. Western countries such as Australia and the United States have a strong history of hosting events that utilize a considerable number of volunteers. Events such as the Olympic Games have been recognized as a potential impetus for a volunteering career (Fairley et al. 2014, 2016) and therefore may increase the interest in volunteering in the host country. There is an increasing trend for Asian countries to host sport events (Dolles and Soderman 2008). With increased event hosting, there is an increasing need for volunteers (Kim et al. 2010). Research, however, suggests that there are significant differences between how volunteering is perceived and conceptualized in different countries and cultures (Fairley et al. 2013; Handy et al. 2000; Halsall et al. 2016). While large-scale events rely on volunteers regardless of where they are held, the prevalence of volunteering both in relation to sport and society varies by country. Some nations, such as Australia and many European countries, have sport systems that are strongly reliant on volunteers (Cuskelly et al. 2006; Jones 2004). In these countries the provision of services offered by sport clubs is predominantly run by volunteers (Vos et al. 2011; Wisner et al. 2005), while other countries have sport systems that are run almost exclusively by paid staff.

Understanding cultural background is useful when attempting to recruit, manage, or retain volunteers (Randle and Dolnicar 2009). Research by Fairley et al. (2013) noted that significant cultural differences exist between Australian and Korean event volunteers. It was the actual process of writing that article that highlighted the need to appropriately acknowledge the influence of culture on volunteering, through the use of appropriate research methods. The pivotal component of that research was the first and second authors discussing that Korean volunteers in the survey noted they received a stipend for volunteering. The authors also realized that they were essentially using a scale developed in the West and applying it to an Asian context. The authors therefore wondered what they were missing in accurately capturing the true cultural conceptualization and motives of volunteers in any specific country. They also noted that the dominant focus in the literature on sport and event volunteers was to examine volunteers in different countries and contexts by conducting a factor analysis of a laundry list of items and scales developed in the West (cf., Fairley et al. 2013). For example, Han and Nguyen (2008) examined differences between Japanese and American volunteers at Ladies Professional Golf Association events. They found Japanese volunteers preferred social and material rewards, while their American counterparts preferred egoistic and purposive rewards. Similarly, Kim et al. (2010) examined the differences among volunteers in youth at events in South Korea and the United States and found differences across groups. They attributed the differences to contextual factors such as the event type or organization, rather than to culture. This type of research, while interesting, is potentially limiting the progression of new knowledge by not allowing for cultural or contextual nuances to emerge.

Research, supported by the generous funding of the Sasakawa Sport Foundation, sought to understand the cultural meaning of volunteering in Japan (Yamaguchi et al., 2017). This research was viewed as particularly timely in the Japanese context, given that Japan has numerous upcoming events that will require a substantial number of volunteers, such as the 2020 Tokyo Olympic Games. It was the presentation of this research at an international conference that led to initial discussions between the editors of this book.

While sport events, which require a large number of volunteers, are now commonly held throughout the world, what Yamaguchi et al. (2017) highlighted was that volunteers are not generally used in the Japanese sport system. This is in stark contrast to countries such as Australia or Switzerland where the sport system, especially at the grassroots level, has been run almost entirely by volunteers (Cuskelly et al. 2006; Lamprecht et al. 2011). Indeed, volunteers are central to many sport programs and sport clubs, acting in a variety of positions including management positions (Vos et al. 2011; Wisner et al. 2005). The considerable differences in how volunteers are used and viewed in relation to both sport events and sport systems in different countries could be strongly influenced by culture.

There is a lack of agreement on whether certain cultural characteristics such as individualism or collectivism are more conducive to volunteerism. For example, while some suggest it is in line with a collectivist culture (Hofstede 2001; Wilson and Musick 1997), others have suggested it is more in line with individualist cultures (Kemmelmeier et al. 2006). Further, a country's actual organizational system also influences volunteering. The size and scope of the nonprofit sector, which is strongly reliant on volunteers, in different countries vary (Ruiter and De Graaf 2006) – thus, the respective rates of volunteering also differ.

In summary, we know little about how the meaning and use of volunteers differs by country and culture. Much of the research on sport and event volunteers has relied on scales developed and tested in Western nations and has often neglected to consider the unique cultural characteristics that influence the meaning and activity of volunteering. This book examines the cultural environment in which volunteering takes place by identifying the ways in which volunteerism is conceptualized, valued, and enacted in different countries. Understanding variations in cultural norms in volunteering will allow us to develop strategies to effectively recruit, manage, and retain volunteers in different countries. Noting that individuals also travel to different countries to volunteer at events (Fairley et al. 2007), understanding the differing cultural nuances and backgrounds of the volunteer workforce is necessary.

## 1.2 Structure of the Book

The purpose of the book is to understand and learn from the cultural conceptualizations of volunteering from various nations. Compiling a book that provided authors with the ability to adequately explain unique cultural perspectives on volunteering,

yet, allowed comparisons among countries was not easy. The chapters follow the same structure to allow comparisons. However, it's worth noting that the use of a common structure may inhibit the way a phenomenon that is embedded in culture can be explained. Each chapter included a section on the meaning and understanding of the term "volunteer" in the country or culture, the volunteer workforce, volunteering in sport, and the relationship between volunteering, state, and civil society.

In addition, some chapters provided further explanation on a particular topic. The Australian chapter explored leveraging events for volunteer outcomes; the Canadian chapter focused on volunteers and aging; the New Zealand chapter examines the World Masters Games; Sri Lanka presents a new study; and the Swiss chapter investigates volunteer clusters in clubs and at events. Where availability of data on volunteering was an issue, authors collected their own data (e.g., India, Paraguay, and the Gambia).

The chapters are presented in alphabetical order of the country name as it is known in English.

### 1.3 Country Inclusion

The book includes chapters from 24 countries. This includes from Africa (3: Botswana, the Gambia, South Africa), the Americas (4: Brazil, Canada, Paraguay, the United States), Asia (6: China, India, Japan, Oman, South Korea, Sri Lanka), Europe (9: Belgium (Flanders), Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Russia, Slovakia, Spain, Switzerland, the United Kingdom), and Oceania (2: Australia, New Zealand). While the country selection was strategically designed to cover a diverse range of countries from different regions, the availability and willingness of authors to deliver a chapter were also key. The editors are sincerely thankful for all authors who have contributed to this book.

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# Chapter 2

## Australia



Sheranne Fairley and Pamm Phillips

**Abstract** Volunteerism is a central part of Australian society. Volunteering is culturally significant with its roots firmly entrenched in the history and development of the country. The importance of volunteering is reflected in the number of government and non-government agencies who have worked hard to establish and refine its definition which has provided legal status and stability for those who volunteer and for those who engage volunteers as a legitimate part of the workforce. In the sport sector, volunteers have been described as the backbone of the sport system. Sport relies heavily on volunteers – not only to stage sport events but also to deliver sport to the masses through a well-structured and formal network of community clubs and organizations. Australia’s hosting of large-scale events such as the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games, the 2006 Commonwealth Games, the 2007 FINA World Swimming Championships, and the 2018 Commonwealth Games has illuminated the value of volunteers, the reliance upon them, the skills that they contribute, the work that they undertake, and the contribution that they make to Australian society. Further, these events highlight how important engaging in volunteer roles can be to the health and well-being of those individuals. While events can be leveraged for volunteer outcomes, there is much more that can be done to capitalize on the attention that events bring to volunteers and the contribution that they make to society.

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## 2.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

Australia has a long and rich history in volunteering which has its fundamental roots in the country's origins as a British penal colony. Further, the nation's first peoples (Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders) have a unique and complex concept of kinship, reciprocity, and family responsibilities which have shaped the place of volunteers in Australian society and the dependence upon them in many sectors of the community (Oppenheimer and Warburton 2014). The importance of volunteers to Australian society is perhaps reflected through the annual celebration and recognition of volunteers in National Volunteer Week (Volunteering Australia 2018, p.1). It celebrates and acknowledges the contribution of one in four Australians who volunteer. Volunteers contribute an estimated 14.6 billion AUD to the economy and involve over six million people – in a population of 25 million people. Volunteers are the mainstay of the nonprofit sector in Australia (Oppenheimer and Warburton 2014).

Oppenheimer (2012) argues that volunteering is socially constructed and our understandings of volunteering can therefore be culturally specific. The definition of volunteering in Australia has recently undergone some changes as it is recognized that the role and work of volunteers are evolving. Two organizations in Australia provide key definitions of volunteer and volunteering: Volunteering Australia (VA) – the peak body for volunteering – and the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS). These are important definitions as they set guidelines for the management and measurement of the contributions of volunteers and volunteer work in the country.

Early definitions of volunteering in Australia (such as the original definition in 1996) suggested that for an activity to be defined as such could only take place “in nonprofit organizations” (Volunteering Australia 2015, p.1). Early definitions did not include or capture the concept that someone who gives their time to help care for a person with a disability or someone who gives their time to provide one-on-one coaching with a particular athlete is a volunteer. In 2015, Volunteering Australia broadened their definition of volunteering which now states “Volunteering is time willingly given for the common good and without financial gain” (Volunteering Australia 2015, p.1). Central to the revised and current definition is that the activity does not result in financial gain and individuals engage in the activities willingly. This was perceived to be more encompassing of the current Australian view on volunteering and removed restrictions imposed by earlier definitions. Further, Volunteering Australia perceived that it also alleviated previous debates about whether someone who receives a stipend to cover incidental costs would preclude an individual from being considered a volunteer.

The other agency that also provides a definition of volunteering is the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS). Important statistical information about the profile of volunteering in Australia has been collected by and is made available through the ABS – the government's population data agency. Data that the ABS publish are used to inform a wide range of government policy decisions about volunteering and

volunteer management as will be discussed further in this chapter. In light of the changes that Volunteering Australia has made to the definition of volunteering, the ABS has also recently reviewed its definition of volunteering and released a report in March 2018. While government and national consultations were conducted to facilitate the ABS adopting the definition, concern was expressed about the subjective concept of “common good” and how that would be captured and quantified. Further, it was deemed important to retain continuity in the reporting of a volunteering rate. Therefore, the ABS has kept its existing definition of volunteering as “The provision of unpaid help willingly undertaken in the form of time, services or skills, to an organization or group, excluding work done overseas” (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2014, n.p.). However, also noting the need to reflect emergent trends, the ABS agreed to make changes to the General Social Survey (GSS) to collect information about a broader range of volunteer activities including informal and spontaneous volunteering from 2019 onward. The ABS will monitor future data collection on volunteering and adjust as necessary.

## 2.2 Volunteer Workforce in Australia

Defining volunteering is not merely an academic exercise, but in the Australian context has become an increasingly important task. Defining and delineating volunteer work, roles, and responsibilities from those of professional employees – who may work alongside volunteers and take on similar roles and responsibilities in organizations – is a legal necessity. Volunteers and professional staff are involved in the delivery and management of core services and products to the wider public in Australia. As both volunteers and paid professional staff can provide core business activities and have a duty of care to consumers, there are legal implications for defining the work that they undertake, as well as any associated accountabilities. For example, Safe Work Australia provides work health and safety laws for all workplaces, and as of 2015, it ensures volunteers have the same legal rights as paid workers (Commonwealth of Australia 2018b). The law outlines the ways in which volunteers can meet their work health and safety obligations, but also explains what volunteers can expect from the organizations for which they work. This is important because a volunteer working in a “volunteer association” is not covered by the work health and safety laws, but a volunteer working in an organization that also employs individuals is covered by the laws. If an individual is injured undertaking volunteer duties, there are certain situations where they will not be covered by laws such as this one. Further, in 2014, Australia’s Fair Work Act was amended to include substantial revisions to cover workplace bullying and harassment which also covers volunteers.

Defining and placing boundaries around what is or is not volunteering provides legal protection not only for individuals who volunteer but also for the organizations that engage volunteers as part of their workforce. Organizations that employ paid staff must adhere to various minimum standards of remuneration and working

conditions and can contest complaints in industrial tribunals. On the other hand, volunteers have no legal entitlement to remuneration, have few workplace protections, and can be “dismissed” without notice. Incorrectly classifying an employee as a volunteer could give rise to litigation, orders for back pay, and penalties. Moreover, incorrectly treating a volunteer as a worker can also be problematic. For example, in the sport sector, a former Australian Olympic marathon runner (Rob de Castella) was training a squad of indigenous athletes to compete in the New York marathon. One of the coaches took Mr. de Castella to a Civil and Administrative Tribunal claiming that he was unfairly dismissed from his volunteer position (for which he was not paid, but reimbursed for expenses and provided with a laptop and mobile phone). It was determined by the Tribunal that under the circumstances that had arisen in the case, Mr. de Castella was able to terminate the volunteer coach (Inman 2013). Thus, the importance of defining volunteering, particularly in with the rise of increasing professionalism in sport and the employment of paid staff to work alongside volunteers, cannot be dismissed.

Unfortunately, it has been noted that formal volunteering (individuals engaging in official volunteer roles and positions) in Australia is in decline with the rate of volunteering dropping from 36% in 2010 to 31% in 2014 (Volunteering Australia 2015). A similar decline has been noted in the sport sector, but because the hours and tasks required to sustain the sport sector have not changed, we still need, for example, coaches, umpires, administrators, or managers. However, for many years, fewer people have been taking on greater proportions of volunteer efforts that are required to be fulfilled (Cuskelly 2004) and are also approaching their volunteer roles differently. For example, research has suggested that there are core and peripheral volunteer roles and an individual’s level of commitment and involvement differs considerably (Ringuet-Riot et al. 2014). Clearly, the volunteer landscape is changing as there is evidence that there has been an increase in the number of people who identify as informal volunteers (Volunteering Australia and PwC 2016). Table 2.1 provides an overview about some of Australia’s volunteer characteristics.

**Table 2.1** Australia’s volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in Australia
Population size	25 million <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	English
Volunteer rates (year)	n.a.
Existence of voluntary sport clubs	yes
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	2018 Gold Coast Commonwealth Games
Sport volunteer rates	1/3 of population volunteer in sport
The word for volunteering	Yes
The meaning of the word	Time willingly given for the common good and without financial gain
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	Sydney 2000 Olympic Games

Source: <sup>a</sup>Australian Bureau of Statistics (2018)



### 2.3 Volunteer Management in Sport

The importance of volunteers in Australian society is probably clear to the reader from the chapter thus far. In Australia, there has been considerable attention paid to collecting data about what volunteers do and how to define their roles, as well as providing legal protection. One sector of Australian society that has the largest reliance on volunteers is sport. Indeed, sport and physical recreation organizations are the most common type of organization in which Australians volunteer. Thirty-one percent of Australians volunteer in sport and contribute the greatest number of hours in volunteering compared to any other sector of society (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2014). Volunteers have been described as the “heart and soul” (Commonwealth of Australia 2018a, p.29) and the backbone of Australian sport (Shilbury et al. 2017). It is perhaps not surprising that they have been described this way as it has been estimated that 158 million hours are contributed each year by over 1.8 million volunteer roles and responsibilities in Australian sport (Commonwealth of Australia 2018a). This helps to service the 8.4 million adults and three million children who participate in sport. Individuals who volunteer in sport also participate in sport (70%) and attend sport events (90%; Australian Bureau of Statistics 2014). A higher proportion of individuals volunteer for sport and recreation in rural and regional areas (22%) than in metropolitan areas (14%; Australian Bureau of Statistics 2012). Australian women volunteer more than men, but this is not the case in sport and recreation (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2014).

Australians are increasingly feeling time poor, and this is believed to have an impact on their willingness to volunteer (Volunteering Australia 2015). Census data reveals that individuals with children under 15 are more likely (23%) to volunteer in sport (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2014). That is, parents form a core volunteer base. Parents often believe that the increased fees that they pay for their child’s sport should cover the basic provision of delivery and services for sport participation. However, there are also increasing pressures on all volunteers and for the organizations that engage volunteers as part of their workforce to complete compliance programs and training. This is largely in response to societal demands for accountability and legal risk mitigation and has had an impact on willingness to volunteer.

It has been noted that the Australian sport system’s reliance on volunteering has resulted in inconsistencies in the management and delivery of sport. Not all volunteers deliver the same experiences to participants. Volunteer roles encompass all areas of sport including governance, administration, and delivery, and although volunteers work tirelessly in their roles, not all volunteers are skilled in the areas in which they undertake volunteer work. When it comes to the business of sport at grassroots levels of sport in Australia, community sport clubs have been almost exclusively composed of volunteer administrators and managers (Cuskelly et al. 2006).

As the Australian sport system professionalizes, and sport organizations begin to pay individuals to take on some of the core responsibilities in the management and delivery of sport, paid professional staff displace volunteers. These volunteers may

have held their roles for many years and may have built up considerable expertise, be invested in the role, and have much of their identity and social networks tied up in the sport organization. Displacing committed volunteers can be a core source of tension in sport organizations and have detrimental impacts on the displaced volunteers and the organizations that need to move professionally trained and qualified people into roles that are crucial for the business and sustainability of their sport organizations (Shilbury et al. 2017).

There is an abundance of programs, materials, and information available for both volunteers themselves and for those who manage volunteers. There has been substantial investment in resources to assist sport organizations to connect with and manage volunteers. For example, government departments have provided resources. Sport and Recreation Victoria provides resources for building the capacity of volunteers with funding through targeted grants (Sport and Recreation Victoria 2018), the Department of Sport and Recreation in Western Australia provides volunteer recognition programs (Department of Sport and Recreation 2018), and the Office of Sport in New South Wales provides training and recruitment programs (Office of Sport 2018) and a variety of online resources.

Further, many sport organizations, particularly those with substantial revenue such as the AFL (Australian Football League), have recognized the need to build volunteer capacity and resources for volunteer management. The AFL is one of the highest participation sports in Australia and has a national professional league. The AFL has invested heavily in volunteer and volunteer management training programs as they understand the reliance on volunteers for their sport to not only survive but to be successful in participation and performance. The AFL recognized that the volunteer landscape has changed, noting that individuals who do want to engage in volunteering in the sport desire a shorter commitment of time and more likely will engage in projects rather than longer-term involvements that have been traditionally required of volunteers in the sport context. As a result, the AFL has developed online tools to facilitate individuals to volunteer in the sport (AFL Community 2018a) and tools to assist clubs in volunteer management and recruitment, as well as to provide volunteer recognition through a national award scheme (AFL Community 2018b).

The volumes of materials and resources and the investment in building capacity in the volunteer sector are another signal of the importance of their work and the need to keep them engaged and involved. Volunteers are often friends and family of sport participants or have themselves come through a sport club. Community is therefore important. Sometimes volunteers have lacked the knowledge or skills to undertake certain tasks. Shilbury et al. (2017) note that almost two-thirds of the volunteer workforce do not have the skills or qualifications to undertake the roles for which they volunteer. The impact of this on a broader sport system is of some concern – which is why organizations such as government departments, Volunteering Australia, and most sport organizations have invested heavily in resource development, with links to external volunteer resources, as well as building the capacity of volunteers and building capacity in organizations to appropriately manage a volunteer workforce.

Volunteers undertake roles in sport club management, administration and governance, coaching, umpiring, scoring, timekeeping, and team management as well as facility maintenance. The reliance on volunteers is perhaps highlighted by examining the nature of coaching in the Australian context. Research has shown that 78% of all coaches in Australia are volunteers (Dawson et al. 2013); that is, the individuals who are responsible for introducing participants to their first experiences of sport and tasked with providing fundamental skill development (the core business for any sport organization) are most likely voluntarily undertaking the role.

## 2.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

The peak governing body of Australian sport, Sport Australia (previously the Australian Sports Commission), has a program to support the effective management of volunteers. Sport Australia is a government agency that is part of the Department of Health in the Commonwealth of Australia. In 1994, a collaboration between Sport Australia (at the time referred to as the Australian Sports Commission), the Australian Society of Sport Administration, and the Confederation of Australian Sport, alongside various sport and recreation departments, created a Volunteer Management Program. Since then there have been multiple iterations of programs designed to guide the management of volunteering. In 2017, Volunteering Australia responded to Sport Australia's National Sports Plan with suggestions for consideration of how to best integrate aspects of volunteer management into the plan (Volunteering Australia 2017). In this way, volunteering and volunteer management are linked to government (or "state") and society. The links between volunteering, state, and society are further distilled throughout this section of the chapter.

Volunteering in Australia is inextricably entwined with broader societal and governmental policy and demands. It has already been noted in this chapter that the government has been involved in defining and delineating the legal status of volunteers. In the sport sector, a current issue illuminates this interdependence. In August 2018, the federal government released a new national plan for sport and recreation in Australia: *Sport 2030* (Commonwealth of Australia 2018a). Sport Australia (the Australian Sports Commission which changed its name to Sport Australia with the launch of the new plan) will lead the operationalization (or implementation) of the new plan. *Sport 2030* has four priorities – to build a more active Australia (increase participation), to achieve sporting excellence (advance high performance), to safeguard the integrity of sport (prevent corruption), and to strengthen the sport industry (to build capacity). *Sport 2030* has defined five target outcomes (Commonwealth of Australia 2018a) which are to:

- *Improve the physical health of Australians* – through the benefits of sport and physical activity, including reduced risk of chronic conditions.
- *Improve the mental health of Australians* – through the recognized mental health benefits of sport and physical activity, including the improved management of mental illness and greater social connectedness.

- *Grow personal development* – from taking up a new challenge to setting a new personal goal or striving for the podium; being active can help everyone endeavor to be their best self.
- *Strengthen our communities* – by harnessing the social benefits of sport including through improved cohesion and reduced isolation.
- *Grow Australia's economy* – by building on the already significant contribution of sport to the Australian economy.

It is noted that “these outcomes will help to create a healthier, more prosperous Australia at an individual, local, regional and national level –built on a success in sport that will be the envy of world” (Commonwealth of Australia 2018a, p.5). The outcomes (as listed above) signal that *Sport 2030* is not just about the development of sport. Rather, *Sport 2030* signals that the federal government has some clear aims to harness sport as a vehicle to impact the mental and physical health and personal growth of individuals who participate in it and, at a societal level, harness sport to have a broader social and economic impact. In other words, *Sport 2030* provides the foundations for a clear shift to development of societal benefits through sport.

*Sport 2030* is also clear in noting the importance of volunteers in sport in Australia – referring to them as the “heart and soul” (Commonwealth of Australia 2018a, p.29) and at the “heart of the system” (p.9). However, the 72-page document (Commonwealth of Australia 2018a) specifically refers to volunteers only eight times and spends less than one-quarter of a page (p.29) dedicated to any discussion about the role, responsibilities, or impacts of the plan on volunteers in sport. In the section that discusses volunteers, there is a concluding (and highlighted) statement that notes: “The Australian Government will prioritise, in partnership with the states and territories, sporting organisations and other stakeholders, initiatives to help recruit, train, reward, and recognise volunteers” (p.29).

It has already been noted in this chapter that there is an abundance of resources offered by sport organizations themselves, federal and state government departments who are responsible for sport, as well as organizations that support all volunteers (beyond sport) such as Volunteering Australia. It is noted in *Sport 2030* that one of the benefits to the sport sector from the plan will be: “building capability and capacity within sporting organizations across event and volunteer management as well as marketing and promotion. Such investment will in turn allow sports to more effectively deliver local, territory, state and national events into the future” (p.57).

What is of interest when viewing *Sport 2030* with a lens of volunteering in sport is that the plan marks a clear shift to development of societal benefits through sport. That is, sport is considered as a vehicle through which mental, physical, and personal growth outcomes can be achieved. This is perhaps a lofty aim given that statistics suggest that over two-thirds of volunteers are currently not equipped to carry out the operational roles that they currently undertake – it is difficult to imagine how a workforce of volunteers will be trained and ready to enhance both the mental and physical well-being of sport participants.

### ***2.4.1 Sport Events, State, Society, and Volunteering***

Another way that the link between volunteering and state and society is strengthened is the complex nature of event volunteering. Australia has hosted a number of significant sport events over the last 20 years that have required the use of a substantial number of volunteers including the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games (50,000 volunteers), the 2006 Melbourne Commonwealth Games (15,000), and the 2018 Gold Coast Commonwealth Games (15,000). The volunteer labor at the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games was estimated to be worth 109 million AUD. Coincidentally, the United Nations General Assembly had proclaimed that the year 2001 was the International Year of the Volunteer – thus increasing and prolonging the focus on Sydney’s use of 50,000 plus volunteers. For some, the experience of volunteering at the Sydney Olympic Games was the impetus for a volunteering career with individuals then seeking experiences to travel to further Olympics to volunteer (Fairley et al. 2007) or to seek further opportunities to volunteer in various sport and non-sport capacities in Sydney (Fairley et al. 2007, 2014). Pioneer volunteers – those who had volunteered in the seven-year lead-up to the event, which is essentially a form of continuous volunteering rather than episodic volunteering – sought opportunities to continue their volunteer career once the Olympic Games was over (Fairley et al. 2014). Specifically, Fairley et al. (2014) found that volunteers developed a role identity related to their volunteer positions at the 2000 Sydney Olympics, which encouraged continued volunteering once the event was over. The 2018 Gold Coast Commonwealth Games was viewed as an opportunity to engage and encourage future volunteering not just within the host community but also in regional communities (Fairley et al. 2016a). Thus, events can be used to leverage volunteering. This will be further outlined in the discussion below.

### ***2.4.2 Leveraging Events to Build Volunteer Capacity in Sport Clubs***

Volunteers are vital to the Australian sport system. They are prevalent in sport clubs at the level of community sport, but also at high-profile (mostly professional) sport events. Both sport club and event managers in Australia are concerned with the recruitment and retention of volunteers. Importantly, there are rarely any organizational or managerial actions taken that link volunteers at the events to the sport systems of club and community level sport.

Recent research has suggested that large-scale events may be a useful tool to attract individuals to volunteer in other roles or capacities outside of the event for which they originally volunteered (Fairley et al. 2014, 2016b). Indeed, Fairley et al. (2016b) found that for some individuals, volunteering at the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games was the impetus for a volunteer career in a variety of events and contexts. Given the media attention that events are given, and the high number of volunteers

needed at large-scale events, there are ample opportunities to use events to increase volunteer capacity more broadly throughout a sport system. Using the sport of tennis in Australia as an example, this section discusses how event and sport managers can devise strategies to engage volunteers from an event into their sport system to serve at community levels of the sport.

Tennis Australia is the governing body of the sport of tennis in Australia. Specifically, Tennis Australia is responsible for developing the sport of tennis through its promotion, facilitating participation and development, investing in the development of tennis facilities around the nation, and staging local and international events (Tennis Australia 2018). Tennis Australia's hallmark event is the Australian Open, one of four global Grand Slam tennis events, which is held in January each year. While the Australian Open is the pinnacle of Australian tennis, there are a series of tournaments that occur in the lead-up to the event.

Tennis Australia regularly employs over 500 staff throughout Australia. However, the organization grows to over 5,000 staff and volunteers during the Australian summer – which is at the height of the tennis tournament event schedule in the country. The sport, like most others in Australia, relies on volunteers for its survival – both at events and the sport at the grassroots level. At the club level of the sport, volunteers can include coaches, officials, club management, administration, and maintenance. The Australian Open engages volunteers in both on- and off-court capacities. For on-court roles, Tennis Australia recruits, trains, and engages approximately 350 volunteer ball kids; over 400 officials including referees, linespersons, and review officials; and over 3,000 off-court volunteers including drivers, court services, spectator services, data recorders, scoreboard personnel, and data analysts (Webb 2010).

The Australian Open event attracts a considerable number of spectators and media attention. The 2017 Australian Open attracted 785,763 fans to attend the event, 16.3 million unique visitors to the tournament website, over one million hashtag mentions of the official tournament social media handle, and 37.7 million video views (Tennis Australia 2017). Thus, in addition to the individuals who are exposed to the event through their volunteer role, opportunities to leverage volunteer involvement in the event are increased by the attention that the event generates. However, to date, there has been no formal attempt to leverage the event for volunteerism. It is useful to understand the existing processes in order to understand how the event could be leveraged.

Tennis Australia advertises national volunteer vacancies through their official website (Tennis Australia 2018). Applications for volunteer positions are treated in the same way as any application for a paid position with the organization. That is, the formal process of application is conducted via Tennis Australia's online portal where any applicant can submit an application. Therefore, volunteers need to submit a CV at the very least and can include a cover letter that describes their skills in relation to the position for which they apply. For example, those who wish to apply to volunteer at the Brisbane International Tennis Tournament (in December/January) apply through the Tennis Australia employment application portal as do volunteers who wish to apply for the Australian Open or any other event that is conducted by Tennis Australia. This portal therefore is the central information source for those

who are interested in being involved in a role with any of the events – either as a volunteer or a paid staff member. While the portal advertises event volunteer roles, the link does not advertise volunteer roles that are available in sport clubs. This could be a missed opportunity. Those who are visiting the website are interested in roles within the sport of tennis.

Tennis Australia invests heavily in their volunteer recruitment process around events. They are strategic in that they include high-quality promotional material at the very beginning of recruitment. For example, those who want to apply for a volunteer role at the Brisbane International Tournament can view links to promotional videos from the previous year's tournament that have been created specifically so that individuals have an understanding of the role and the environment that they would experience if they were a volunteer. Interestingly, the promotional materials do not display direct links between (a) how existing volunteers in sport clubs naturally link to the event and (b) how volunteering at the events may prepare individuals to volunteer at sport clubs. This could be another medium that could be used to help link individuals to volunteer at sport clubs.

While there have been considerable efforts designed for the recruitment and retention of volunteers at both the club level and for events, these efforts are largely done in isolation of one another. In other words, there are no direct links or pathways to facilitate the movement of volunteers from clubs to events or from events to clubs. There is little evidence to suggest that Tennis Australia is leveraging the Australian Open to assist clubs throughout the sport to recruit and retain volunteers in the sport. In other words, there are no direct efforts to capitalize on the increased amount of media attention and exposure to volunteering that events create, for the recruitment and retention of volunteers at the club level. Yet, this could be an opportunity for knowledge transfer and skill transfer of volunteers between the two silos.

While leveraging strategies could be designed to encourage individuals of all ages to volunteer in sport clubs, it might be an opportunity to create a culture of volunteering within the kids of the clubs. Specifically, ball kids are recruited as volunteers during the Australian Open. The CEO of Tennis Australia reports that ball kids learn about teamwork and responsibility and also gain social experiences while having the opportunity to be on-court with some of the most high-profile tennis players in the world (Critchley 2014). Ball kids get uniforms (tops, shorts, socks, runners, hats, sunglasses), water bottles, cooling neck wraps, a gift pack, and a thank you function. They also receive a daily food and drink allowance, including fresh fruit and healthy snacks in the ball kids' lounge and access throughout much of the precinct. Gift packs have included items such as the highly sought-after Australian Open player towel, merchandise, ground passes, stadium tickets, and a pair of Beats by Dr. Dre headphones. However, while it is admirable that ball kids receive a range of rewards such as material gifts, recognition, and a great experience, it should be recognized that they develop skills from their volunteer engagement at the event such as teamwork and discipline. While the specific role of a ball kid is not necessary at the club level of the sport on a weekly basis, it is worth considering if their skill set and exposure to volunteering can be leveraged at the club levels of the sport. While ball kids are contacted throughout the year to gauge their

interest and hopefully commit to the following year's event (if they are eligible), it is not clear whether their involvement in the tennis community is leveraged beyond this. The same goes for all of the volunteers who are engaged at the event each January. The event provides considerable exposure to the sport of tennis and provides opportunities for over 5,000 volunteers, as well as exposure to the benefits of volunteering. This exposure and exposure to volunteering could be capitalized on how can tennis clubs capitalize on the skill sets, knowledge, and experience of the event to create and foster a community of volunteering within tennis clubs.

Concurrently, Tennis Australia provides many resources to those who are responsible for the management of volunteers in clubs – many of whom are volunteers themselves. Resources include a guide for how volunteers should be recruited and recognized, as well as strategies to manage volunteers (Tennis Australia 2018). Perhaps, these resources as key documents relating to volunteering in the clubs could be updated to include information on how to successfully leverage the event for volunteer outcomes.

Research on event leverage is important as it highlights that benefits do not naturally occur. Instead, events should be viewed as “seed capital” through which strategic planning is required to reach a stated objective (O'Brien and Chalip 2008). While recent research has examined how sport clubs can leverage events for sport participation outcomes, or a lack thereof (Chalip et al. 2017), research is yet to examine how sport clubs can leverage events to build the volunteer capacity of the sport system at the community level (through clubs) while ensuring that the needs of the volunteers and clubs are met.

## 2.5 Conclusion

Volunteering is a key part of the Australian way of life, and volunteers are the backbone of the Australian sport system. It is clear from the discussion in this chapter that volunteering and volunteerism in Australian society is dynamic. Volunteering is recognized as an important part of almost every sector of society and most important to sport. The role and engagement of volunteers has been formalized with much investment in defining the place of volunteers in the workforce. Volunteers have legal and structural rights in Australian society which highlights their importance and value. With increasing formalization of volunteering, it is clear that the reliance upon them will not change at any time soon. Key events in Australia such as the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games, the 2006 Commonwealth Games, and the 2018 Commonwealth Games have drawn attention to volunteerism and highlighted the reliance upon them. While events can be leveraged for volunteer outcomes, it is clear from this chapter that there is much more that can be done to use events as the catalyst for further shining the spotlight on the value and worth of volunteers and volunteerism, as well as the need to further explore and understand volunteer management in the future.



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# Chapter 3

## Flanders (Belgium)



Erik Thibaut and Jeroen Scheerder

**Abstract** Because of the federalized structure of Belgium, sports volunteering is a complex policy issue. On the one hand, sports participation has been a Flemish policy area since 1970, while on the other hand social security and thus volunteerism are a federal policy domain. Based on a representative sample for Flemish inhabitants aged 15-86, it was found that in 2014, 8.3% of the population indicated they had been a sports volunteer at least once during the past year, making sports the most popular sector for volunteers. The majority of the Flemish sports volunteers are male, middle-aged, and highly educated, have a high income, and are sports participants. The sports club sector is by far the preferred setting for sports volunteers, while their engagement can be episodic (44%) or continuous (56%). The numbers indicate that both the number and the proportion of volunteers have risen through the last decades. As the Belgian government has decided to extend the legislation about the remuneration of “leisure work” in 2018, numerous stakeholders will keep an eye on whether this will induce a change in sports volunteering in Flanders.

### 3.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

Belgium is a federal Western European country with a population of approximately 11 million inhabitants, with Flanders as the Dutch-speaking northern part constituting about 59% of the total population. The federalized political structure means that sports volunteering is a complex policy issue in the Flanders region. Although sports participation has been a Flemish policy area since 1970, the power of the Federal Belgian State covers social security (e.g., volunteerism) and related legislation. While the current contribution focusses on the sports context of volunteerism, the

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focus here is on Flanders. Nevertheless, we will often refer to the federal (Belgian) legislation, as it often interferes with (sports) volunteering.

Although in Belgium the first volunteering organizations emerged at the end of the 19th century and a law provided nonprofit organizations with a legal status in 1921 (European Commission 2008), the government did not interfere with the legislation of volunteerism for a very long time. On July 3, 2005, the first volunteer law created a legal status for volunteers, which has been extended and adapted by the laws of 2009 and 2014. Based on this federal law (Belgian Government 2014), the Flemish Organization for Volunteerism (Vlaams Steunpunt Vrijwilligerswerk 2018a) defines volunteering as follows:

- A person who dedicates himself or herself to a nonprofit organization
- For which he or she does not receive a remuneration (although reimbursement of expenses is allowed when strict rules are followed)
- Only when he or she performs this activity on a voluntary basis

Nevertheless, the Flemish/Dutch word *vrijwilliger* does not always have the same meaning (European Commission 2008). For example, given the fact that some volunteers receive reimbursements and that sometimes these reimbursements are hidden remuneration (Scheerder et al. 2010), some people and stakeholders state that not all volunteers are “real” volunteers. Indeed, in Flanders there is a growing debate about the professionalization of sports clubs and the remuneration of sports volunteers (Vos et al. 2012). Scheerder et al. (2010) therefore distinguished a third category that blurs the sharp distinction between volunteering and labor, a category that is referred to as “paid volunteering” (Sheard 1995) or “semi-agoral labor” (Scheerder et al. 2010). Given the faint difference between sports volunteering, paid volunteering, and labor, it is not always easy to draw a sharp line between these concepts. The conceptualization of volunteering is especially an issue when the results of sports surveys are analyzed and compared with each other.

The conceptualization about what should be considered as “real volunteering” versus what as “labor” varies between the different stakeholders. In this respect, the discussion about the recently agreed law amendment (see also Sect. 3.1) demonstrates that the federal government defines (sports) volunteering rather broadly compared to certain academics, civil organizations, and the governments’ own definition in the past. According to this governmental agreement, in the near future, it will be possible for retirees and non-part-time laborers to receive significant amounts of remuneration for their “volunteering” work that is free of taxes. By doing so, the federal government aims to correct for the gray zone that currently exists and to support volunteers in receiving a modest remuneration for the work they do (Toeloose 2017). On the contrary, multiple civil society representatives state in a public declaration that a consequence of this new amendment will be that organizations that depend on “real” volunteers will not be able to compete with organizations that are capable of financially remunerating people for the work they perform (Het brede platform tegen gratis bijkluken 2017). The current discussion demonstrates that different stakeholders define the concept of “volunteerism” differently and also that volunteerism is often misused to dodge labor taxation (Scheerder et al. 2010).

In the years before 2018, volunteers were allowed to receive modest compensation for their work. For 2017, they could receive (i) a maximum of 34.0 EUR a day and 1,361.23 EUR a year plus a transport refunding of 0.35 EUR (car) or 0.23 EUR (bike) per km (with a maximum of 2,000 kilometers) or (ii) a refund based on actual expenses (receipts) (Vlaams Steunpunt Vrijwilligerswerk 2018d).

Recently in December 2017, the federal Belgian government agreed to adopt a new law about the remuneration of certain activities in the nonprofit leisure sector, called “leisure work” (as opposed to “volunteering”; Vlaams Steunpunt Vrijwilligerswerk 2018b). More specifically volunteering work will be free of taxes for people who do not work part time (i.e., at least 80% of a full-time job) and for retirees, and this is for a maximum of 500 EUR a month and 6,000 EUR a year (Vansevenant 2017). For other categories (the part-time workers and unemployed), the volunteering law of 2005 remains applicable.

While it will be interesting to analyze the effect of the changed policy of the remuneration on the “volunteers” that can appeal on the new legislation (i.e., retirees and people who work more than 80%), at the moment we can only provide insights into the expenses and the number of sports volunteers of Flemish sports clubs before this legislative change. Based on the data of the Flemish Sports Club Panel ( $n = 1,002$  sports clubs), it was found that in 2014, 49.8% of the sports clubs pay some kind of remuneration to their volunteers and/or paid workers (Claes et al. 2017; Scheerder et al. 2017). When considering only the clubs that pay remuneration, they spent on average 30.3% of total expenditure on salaries/remunerations (18,062 EUR), or 321.8 EUR per volunteer/worker.

Vos et al. (2012) estimated the economic value of sports volunteering in Flemish sports clubs at 420 million EUR. This is more than ten times the economic value of the paid workers in fitness and health centers, indicating that volunteers have a considerable economic value. Nevertheless, the researchers highlight that economic rules cannot be transferred blindly to voluntary sports clubs. The latter is also demonstrated when the human resource cost (HR cost) of volunteer work in sports clubs, that is, the shadow price of the staff cost at minimum wages for one sports active person, is calculated: The higher the HR cost, the lower the efficiency. Vos et al. (2012) found that for sports clubs, the HR cost is 254.4 EUR compared to 160.5 EUR for fitness and health clubs, meaning that the paid staff of fitness and health centers are more cost-efficient when compared to volunteers.

## 3.2 Volunteer Workforce in Belgium

### 3.2.1 Statistics

Table 3.1 presents an overview of a number of the key characteristics of volunteering in Flanders. More particularly the data focus on inhabitants aged 15 till 86 years, which is the age range of the Participation Survey (Smits et al. 2015). The latter is a structured oral survey concerning the leisure habits among a representative

**Table 3.1** Flanders' volunteer characteristics in 2014

Characteristic	Status quo in Flanders
Population size (15-86 years)	5,263,778 <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	Dutch (French and German in other Belgian regions)
Volunteer rates (at least one activity a year)	29.6% <sup>b</sup>
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	yes
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	n.a.
Sports volunteer rates	8.3% <sup>b</sup>
The word for volunteering	Vrijwilligerswerk
The meaning of the word	People who dedicate oneself to a nonprofit organization, without remuneration (although to a certain extent reimbursement of expenses is allowed), and who perform this activity voluntarily
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	The federal law agreement about volunteering (2005) The federal law agreement about paid volunteering work (2017)

Sources: <sup>a</sup>Belgian Government (2017); <sup>b</sup>Smits (2015)

sample of 3,949 Flemish inhabitants. The figures indicate that 29.6% of the Flemish inhabitants between 15 and 86 years old participated in volunteer work at least once a year (Smits et al. 2015). This number is in line with the 28.6% that is reported by the Socio-Cultural Trends Survey in 2007 (Sterker Vrijwilligen 2010). Nevertheless, the proportion of volunteers that is found depends heavily on the definition that is used. Another report based on numbers of VRIND, for example, estimates the number of Flemish volunteers at 1.2 million, which is about 20% of the population (European Commission 2008).

In the past ten years, Flanders did not host mega sports events that can be thought to have significantly affected sports volunteerism in Flanders. Since the organization of the World Championship Cycling (Zolder) in 2002 and the European Championship Soccer in 2000, no big sports events in major sports disciplines have been organized in Flanders or Belgium. Some of the non-frequent major sports events of the last few years that took place in Flanders are the World Championships in Gymnastics (2013), European Hockey (2013), and European Championships in Volleyball (2015), but the impact of these events is expected to be relatively low.

To provide more detailed insights into Flemish volunteering, an overview of the sectors that sports volunteers are active in is given in Table 3.2. Sports is the sector in which volunteers are mostly involved (27.6% of the volunteers), followed by welfare (25.1%) and neighborhood work (16.9%). Regarding sports, it follows that in 2014, approximately 8.3% of the Flemish inhabitants (15-86 years) participated at least once a year in a volunteering activity.

**Table 3.2** Fields in which sports volunteers are active, in percentage of the total number of volunteers ( $n = 1,270$ )

Field	Rate
Sports	27.9
Welfare	25.3
Neighborhood	16.4
Cultural/art/hobby club	13.7
Youth	13.5
Social movement	12.9
Women/elderly	8.4
Politics	5.8
Other	14.7

Source: Smits (2015)

### 3.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

A more detailed overview of the functions of sports volunteers, and the (sports) structures they are active in, is given in Table 3.3. Six out of ten sports volunteers are active in organizational functions and logistics. The second most practiced function is trainer (licensed and non-licensed), followed by directorship in a sports club.

When looking at the sports structure, it was found that the vast majority of the volunteers opt for the sports club setting. This is not surprising, as the sports club sector is mainly driven by voluntary work (Scheerder et al. 2015). Approximately one out of ten sports volunteers is active in a sports federation, a sports event, or a non-sports (e.g., youth or other leisure) organization.

Because the results presented above demonstrate that a sports club is by far the most preferred setting for sports volunteers, it is interesting to research this type of volunteer more thoroughly. The Flemish Sports Club Panel aims to provide insight into the profile of a typical sports club volunteer. The numbers indicate that there are more male (60%) than female volunteers (Scheerder et al. 2017).

The Participation Survey 2014 provides a more detailed insight in the (other) determining factors of sports volunteering. The results of a logistic regression analysis of 3,275 respondents – of whom 296 were sports volunteers – are given in Table 3.4. The results are controlled for being a sports participant in the present (sports participant) and in the past (sports during youth), which can both significantly influence factors of sports volunteerism. Men were indeed found to have a higher chance of being a sports volunteer. Among sports volunteers, both young adults and the middle-age category (18-65) were overrepresented when compared to older (65+) and non-adults. The latter is in line with the results of previous research in Flanders that found adults aged 35-54 years to be the predominant group in overall (also non-sports) volunteering (European Commission 2008). Finally, the level of education and income also positively influence the odds of being a sports volunteer.

**Table 3.3** Function and sports structure in which the sports volunteers ( $n = 327$ ) are active

Function	Rate (%)	Sports structure	Rate (%)
Organization/logistics	63.7	Sports club	80.5
Director	22.8	Sports events	11.6
Finance/administration/communication	17.2	Sports federation	10.2
Trainer (non-licensed)	15.5	Non-sports organization (e.g., youth)	9.6
Accommodation management/supervision	13.3	School sports	2.6
Trainer (licensed)	11.1	Neighborhood sports	1.4
Referee/jury	10.8		

Source: Theeboom et al. (2015)

**Table 3.4** Logistic regression results for the determining factors for being a sports volunteer or not

	Coefficient (odds ratio)	$p > z$
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	2.04	0.000
<i>Female (ref.)</i>		
<i>Age</i>		
<i>15-17 (ref.)</i>		
18-34	3.63	0.022
35-54	4.75	0.008
54-65	4.10	0.018
65+	2.36	0.164
<i>Income</i>		
<i>&lt;1,899 EUR (ref.)</i>		
1,900-2,899 EUR	1.91	0.011
2,900-3,699 EUR	2.58	0.000
>3,700 EUR	2.42	0.000
<i>Education</i>		
Full-time student	0.38	0.046
Primary school	0.50	0.034
Secondary school (short)	0.68	0.149
Secondary school (long)	0.61	0.059
<i>Higher education (ref.)</i>		
<i>Sports participant</i>		
Yes	2.86	0.000
<i>No (ref.)</i>		
<i>Sports during youth</i>		
Yes	1.96	0.000
<i>No (ref.)</i>		
Constant	0.004	0.000

Source: Authors' own calculations based on Lievens et al. (2015) and Theeboom et al. (2015)



Finally, it was found that volunteers in Flemish sports clubs feel (very) appreciated, a conclusion that also holds when the results are compared to other European countries. Moreover, approximately 60% of the volunteers have been connected to the club for more than five years (Scheerder et al. 2017). The latter findings could be an indication that the sports volunteerism policy of sports clubs is organized relatively well, although there are also indications that socioeconomic minorities are underrepresented in sports clubs.

### 3.3.1 *Changes over Time*

It should be stated that comparing data between studies has many pitfalls, because of differences in the data-gathering methodology and the conceptualization of sports volunteerism. Therefore it is more interesting to look at data of cross-sectional studies, carried out at different points in time. Nevertheless, comparing results over time based on cross-sectional data is difficult for Flanders, because the data that are comparable over time are limited.

First, Breda and Goyvaerts (1996) found for Belgium (Flanders, Brussels, and Wallonia) that 12.9% of the citizens above 16 years performed voluntary work “on a regular basis” in 1992. Based on the same household panel survey, but for the year 1994, Laporte et al. (1997) reported a share of 15% of the Flemish inhabitants who were active in sports volunteering. One could thus argue that the proportion of sports volunteers has risen in the period 1992-1994. Second, based on the Socio-Cultural Trends Survey, it was found that between 1997 and 2007, the number of overall volunteers rose from 3.9% to 5.3% of the population, while in the same period, the proportion of sports within overall volunteering also rose from 23% to 28.6% (Sterker Vrijwilligen 2010).

Additional data of the Flemish Sports Club Panel 3.0 ( $n = 1,002$  sports clubs, year 2015) make it possible to provide further insight into the sports volunteer evolutions as experienced by the Flemish sports clubs. The majority of the Flemish sports clubs indicate that finding and retaining sports volunteers is not really a problem, a conclusion that also holds when the answers of the sports clubs are compared to other European countries (Scheerder et al. 2017; Van der Roest et al. 2017). On average, the sports clubs report that the number of volunteers within sports clubs has been stable during the last five years. The sum of the shares of sports clubs that saw a decline in sports volunteers between 11 and 25% (9.8%) or a decline of more than 25% (4.7%) is a little bit lower with sports clubs that noticed an increase between 11 and 25% (12.6%) or more than 25% (4.4%). Moreover, most sports clubs indicate that the number of volunteers remained more or less the same (64.3%).

**Table 3.5** Frequency on with which the voluntary activity takes place (in percentage based on the number of volunteers)

Field	Rate overall ( $n = 1,270$ )	Rate sports ( $n = 351$ )
Once, for a short period (couple of hours to few days)	21.4	21.9
Once, for a longer period (couple of weeks to 1 year)	3.8	3.7
On a yearly basis, for a shorter period or an event	19.2	23.1
Episodic	44.4	48.7
On a regularly basis, one or a few times a month	31.1	29.1
On a regularly basis, one or a few times a week	17.6	15.7
On a regularly basis, (almost) daily	6.9	6.6
Continuous	55.6	51.3

Source: Authors' own calculations based on Lievens et al. (2015) and Theeboom et al. (2015)

### 3.3.2 *Contrasting Continuous Versus Episodic Volunteers*

In Table 3.5, an overview is given of the frequency that volunteers are involved in their sports club(s) and whether this is a continuous or an episodic activity. The table demonstrates that the frequency of overall volunteers and sports volunteers does not differ significantly. In addition, it is demonstrated that for sports, the number of episodic volunteers is more or less the same as the number of continuous volunteers.

## 3.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

In the previous Sect. 3.1, we described how the Belgian government developed a specific legislation to foster volunteerism, more particularly in 2005 (with adaptations in 2009 and 2014). This law provides a legal basis for every (sports) volunteer to receive a modest remuneration by the (sports) organization he or she is active in. Although these remunerations are strictly limited, a new legislation that is expected in 2018 will slacken these restrictions for retirees and for non-part-time laborers.

While paying the abovementioned reimbursements to sports volunteers is optional and not obligatory for sports organizations, the legislation imposes other obligations (Vlaams Steunpunt Vrijwilligerswerk 2018c). First, sports organizations have to inform their volunteers about the organization's purpose, the procedure of optional remunerations, and the insurance(s) they have bought for their volunteers. Regarding the latter, sports organizations are obliged to provide insurance for civil liability in the event of accidents, although this is not the case for injuries volunteers cause to themselves. Since 2018, the Flemish government gives

organizations the option to take out a free volunteer insurance for 100 “men days” (the sum of all volunteer days of all volunteers), which also insures them for personal injuries (Vlaanderen 2018).

Additional to the abovementioned direct initiatives, the Flemish government also (financially) supports organizations that foster (sports) volunteerism. One example is the Flemish Organization for Volunteerism (Vlaams Steunpunt Vrijwilligerswerk 2018c), which publishes tools on their website to support Flemish organizations in their volunteering work. Specific to sports, the organization that coordinates all the sports federations “Vlaamse Sportfederatie” is funded for their support platform “Dynamo” (Dynamoproject 2018). This initiative contains a wide variety of education programs for sports organizations. Sports clubs can, for example, subscribe to a module of five training workshops that help them in finding and retaining sports volunteers.

### 3.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, we could state that there are a relatively large number of sports volunteers in Flanders, also when compared to other sectors. Moreover, the sports volunteering figures certainly have not evolved in a negative direction. Given the expected legislative change regarding sports volunteerism, we are curious to monitor the effect on the sports volunteer numbers in Flanders.

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# Chapter 4

## Botswana



Louis Moustakas

**Abstract** Botswana is a large but sparsely populated country within Southern Africa. Independent since 1966, the country has developed a vast and multilayered sports system featuring a myriad of organizations. Underpinning these organizations is a pool of over 3,000 volunteers who ensure the delivery of programs and events. Though Botswana is a collectivistic society that embraces values of cooperation and respect, personal and financial considerations nonetheless play a role in the nature of volunteering, both in sports and generally. The state also provides explicit support to a variety of volunteering initiatives, including financing the Botswana Sports Volunteer Movement, running the Botswana National Service Programme, and managing the Graduate Volunteer Scheme. In spite of this support, however, the aforementioned initiatives have come under frequent criticism, and, if unresolved, these criticisms risk eroding the overall quantity and quality of volunteers in the country, which in turn will have a detrimental effect on the sports sector and civil society in general.

### 4.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

Botswana is a landlocked country in Southern Africa sharing borders with Zimbabwe, Zambia, Angola, Namibia, and South Africa. The country has a population of 1.8 million inhabitants, with 25% of that population living in the main urban centers of Gaborone and Francistown, while the rest is spread across a landmass of over 600,000 square kilometers (CIA World Factbook 2016; Merriam and Ntseane 2007). Colonized in 1885 by the British as the Protectorate of Bechuanaland, Botswana has been fully independent since 1966 and has had more than four decades of uninterrupted civilian leadership (CIA World Factbook 2016). Though there are a number of ethnic groups and languages, Botswana is a largely collectivistic

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society where individuals embrace ideas of mutual help, cooperation, and respect (Merriam and Ntseane 2007; Rankopo et al. 2006). Today, with its strong democratic tradition, free press, progressive social policies, and high capital investment, Botswana is regarded as one of the most stable and prosperous countries in Africa (CIA World Factbook 2016; Merriam and Ntseane 2007; Preece and Mosweunyane 2004). Despite the country's relatively small size, the sports system is host to a wide array of sports, organizations, and events – most of which are mostly or entirely volunteer-led. Given the vital role of volunteering in the Botswana sports system and beyond, it is important to understand the cultural and societal context underpinning volunteering in the country.

Botswana is a collectivistic society where identity is determined by the group to which one belongs and not by individual characteristics; as such, Botswana culture embraces notions of spirituality, connectedness, and *botho* (Merriam and Ntseane 2007). The latter is a defining concept for Botswana<sup>1</sup> and includes ideas of respect for human life, civic duty, mutual help, generosity, cooperation, and harmony (Lewis and Stephen 2005; Merriam and Ntseane 2007; Preece and Mosweunyane 2004; Rankopo et al. 2007). Therefore, notions of volunteering and service are extensions of the *botho* concept and are grounded “in the culture and traditions of the people of Botswana” (Rankopo et al. 2007).

Though English is the official language of Botswana, Setswana is the dominant language and is spoken as a first language by over 75% of the population (CIA World Factbook 2016). In Setswana, the term for service is *tirelo* and implies something that is done for others or to help people (Rankopo et al. 2006, 2007). The word for volunteering, meanwhile, is *boithaopo* and refers to the act of helping other people without expecting payment (Rankopo et al. 2006, 2007). Nonetheless, gifts of appreciation for investment of time and effort are acceptable, and, as such, the terms for service and volunteerism are often used interchangeably (Rankopo et al. 2006, 2007).

In spite of the aforementioned collectivistic notions and the lack of financial expectations embedded within the term *boithaopo*, the daily reality is much more complex. Just over 30% of the population lives below the poverty line, and the unemployment rate in the country is estimated at around 20% (CIA World Factbook 2016). Large and sparsely populated, there is little in the way of formal public transportation, making transportation another daily issue. Therefore, though outright remuneration is not necessarily expected for volunteering, there is the anticipation that basic costs and necessities, such as transport or food, will be covered and that a small daily allowance will be awarded. Indeed, these expectations are deeply embedded within the sports sector. For individuals sitting on the volunteer committees of National Sport Federations (NSFs), the Botswana National Sports Council (BNSC) – the country's principal sports authority – sets out a formal policy on how such committee members should be remunerated (Botswana National Sports Commission, n.d.b). Similarly, the Sports Volunteer Movement (SVM) (Botswana

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<sup>1</sup> Botswana is the plural demonym for people of Botswana, whereas a single person from Botswana is referred to as a Motswana.

Sport Volunteer Movement 2016) expects its volunteers to receive a daily stipend of 50 BWP<sup>2</sup> along with the provision of other necessities such as food or transport (Regoeng 2017). These expectations are such that, when they are not met, volunteers tend to disengage or protest. For example, NSFs reported that volunteers who did not receive their monetary allowances during the African Youth Games were reluctant to, or outright refused to, volunteer with those organizations in the future (Moustakas 2016). Similarly, volunteers for the Netball World Youth Championships in 2017 protested when they were informed they would not receive a daily allowance (Regoeng 2017).

Though individuals may volunteer to perfect their skills, gain social capital, parlay their experience into future employment, or become involved in sports or purely to serve their communities (Preece and Mosweunyane 2004), the presence of remuneration and other compensation has an impact on the nature of volunteers and volunteering. While some view the resources provided through volunteering as a token of gratitude, others see these resources as a necessity to complete their volunteering duties or even as a means to improve their own circumstances. For example, volunteers “may use transport provided for their own chores, take some of the food provided for the needy to their families at home, and use any monetary allowance for their personal needs” (Rankopo et al. 2006).

In short, though remuneration is not necessarily the key motivator for volunteers in sports or elsewhere in Botswana, given the social and economic context of the country at a minimum, it plays a role as a hygiene factor.

## 4.2 Volunteer Workforce in Botswana

The organization and provision of volunteers in Botswana are relatively centralized, thanks to the existence of the Sports Volunteer Movement (SVM), which is a sub-department of the Botswana National Sports Council (BNSC). The SVM maintains a national database of registered sports volunteers, and sports organizations or event organizers can tap into this database to request volunteers. Thus, this database also allows us to get a sense of the number of sports volunteers in the country.

Earlier in its history, the SVM reported having around 500 volunteers registered in its database (Botswana National Sports Commission n.d.a), whereas as of 2016, over 3,000 were reported as registered (Botswana Sport Volunteer Movement 2016). One notable reason for this increase was the 2014 African Youth Games (AYG) hosted in Gaborone. Taking place over ten days between the 21st and 31st of May 2014, it was the biggest event ever hosted in the country, featuring competitions in 21 different sports and welcoming approximately 2,000 athletes from 51 countries (Anderson 2014). In the lead-up to this event, a large drive for volunteers was conducted, and numerous new individuals registered online in the SVM database.

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<sup>2</sup>Abbreviated as BWP, the currency of Botswana is the Pula. As of this writing, the value of 1 BWP is 0.084 EUR.



Though exact data is unavailable, interviews with actors in the Botswana sports system indicate that the AYG contributed to an increase in the quantity and availability of volunteers (Moustakas 2016).

The numbers from the SVM database, however, do not tell the whole story. As this database is meant to punctually serve the volunteering needs of NSFs and sporting events, many of these volunteers are likely to contribute only episodically, and these numbers may exclude many individuals who volunteer in a regular, continuous fashion. For example, each of the 38 organizations affiliated with the BNSC has a mostly volunteer-led executive committee of anywhere between 6 and 10 people (Botswana National Sports Commission 2016). These individuals are involved in the day-to-day operations of their respective organizations and may fulfil any number of roles, including general secretary, treasurer, or even equipment manager. Outside of these committees, there are likely further volunteers involved in the running of local clubs or other organizations for which there is no readily available data. And, with only an estimated 40% of the population having Internet access (CIA World Factbook 2016), it would be unreasonable to assume that an online database could capture the entirety of sports volunteers in the country. Given this wide array of factors, one can assume that the number of sports volunteers in Botswana likely exceeds the 3,000 reflected in the SVM database. A summary of Botswana's demographic, sports, and volunteering information is presented in Table 4.1.

Whatever its size, ultimately this volunteer workforce ensures that regular programs, coaching activities, and larger events such as the Botswana Games or World Netball Youth Championships are delivered (Kebadiretse 2012; Kgobogoe 2015; Regoeng 2017; Botswana Sport Volunteer Movement 2016). On the individual level, research also shows that volunteering experience can contribute to skill development and the building of their social capital (Chinman and Wandersman 1999; Doherty 2009; Downward and Ralston 2006; Elstad 1996; Kemp 2002; Preece and Mosweunyane 2004). In Botswana, we see such development reported by individual volunteers interviewed regarding their involvement in the planning and delivery

**Table 4.1** Botswana's volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in Botswana
Population size	2,214,858
Official languages	English, Setswana (de facto)
Volunteer rates (year)	n.a.
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	yes
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	Gaborone 2014 African Youth Games
Sports volunteer rates	Approx. 3,000 registered volunteers
The word for volunteering	Boithaopo
The meaning of the word	The act of helping others without expecting payment
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	Botswana Games, 2014 African Youth Games

Source: CIA World Factbook (2016)

of the African Youth Games. Many interviewees reported that their experience as volunteers during the Games helped develop their skills and confidence, while also sometimes even opening the door to new opportunities (Moustakas 2016). This idea of individual development through volunteering is also recognized by formal government policy, as the main state programs supporting volunteering in the country all explicitly name skill development, employment, and community development as part of their goals (Republic of Botswana 2014; Embassy of the Republic of Botswana in Sweden 2015). However, as much as research on the individual level often finds positive outcomes, these state-run programs have a much more mixed track record, which is discussed in Sect. 4.4.

### 4.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

Despite Botswana's relatively low population and young history as an independent nation, its sports system is nonetheless diverse and multilayered, featuring government, the Botswana National Sports Commission (BNSC), the Botswana National Olympic Committee (BNOC), over 30 National Sports Federations (NSFs), school sports organizations, and numerous other multi-sports organizations (Botswana National Sports Commission 2016). This system, especially at the NSF level, relies primarily on the work of volunteers both at the operational and board level (Moustakas 2016). Indeed, official policy states that "the administration of national sports governing bodies is done on a voluntary basis" (Botswana National Sports Commission n.d.b) and, more broadly in the country, "most if not all NGOs depend on voluntary staff to run their activities and programs" (Lekorwe and Mpabanga 2007, p.13). Thus, most boards and committees for these various organizations are volunteer-led, and the delivery of regular sports programs or events such as the Botswana Games likewise largely falls on the shoulders of volunteers (Botswana National Sports Commission n.d.a). Outside of sports, numerous government programs over the years have also explicitly provided support to volunteering and civil service, especially with respect to youth volunteering (Rankopo et al. 2006).

Overall, there are two main centers of power in Botswana sport, namely, the Botswana National Sports Commission (BNSC) and the Botswana National Olympic Committee (BNOC). The BNOC is responsible for the country's participation in all Olympic and Commonwealth events and generally supports the development of Olympic athletes and the Olympics movement more broadly (Botswana National Olympic Committee 2014). In contrast, the BNSC is an arm of the Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture (MYSC), receives most of its funding from government, and has broad authority over the Botswana sport system (Botswana National Sports Commission 2016; Parliament of Botswana 2014). Within the BNSC, there is a department solely dedicated to the registration and provision of volunteers for sports organizations and events. This department, known as the Sports Volunteer Movement (SVM), maintains a national database of registered sports volunteers. When the need arises, NSFs and national events can tap into this database to request

volunteers. The SVM also sets the general policy and expectations relating to the conditions and per diems associated with sports volunteering.

#### 4.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

The role of the state in the promotion of national volunteering programs in Botswana has been a checkered one, with varying levels of formal state support for volunteering and civil service activities over the years. From 1980 to 1999, all individuals who completed their secondary education were expected to complete a year of voluntary service through a program known as *Tirelo Setshaba* (Preece and Mosweunyane 2004; Rankopo et al. 2007). Though voluntary at first, in 1984, the government made *Tirelo Setshaba* an entry requirement for many further education courses and occupations.

Serving numerous fields, including agriculture, education, industry, and community development (Rankopo et al. 2007), the program was meant to provide school leavers with opportunities for self-development, work experience, and cultural exposure (Molefe and Weeks 2001). At its inception, *Tirelo Setshaba* had only 28 participants, but by the end of the 1990s, there were approximately 6,000 participants. In spite of this sharp uptick in participation, the program was nonetheless cancelled in 1999 due to the high costs and lack of financial sustainability of *Tirelo Setshaba* (Molefe and Weeks 2001; Preece and Mosweunyane 2004; Rankopo et al. 2007). After a nearly 15-year hiatus, *Tirelo Setshaba* was revived in 2014 in the form of the Botswana National Service Programme (BNSP). Targeting individuals who have not completed formal tertiary education, and not compulsory like its earlier iteration, the goals of the BNSP are nonetheless similar to its predecessor, namely, to help provide services in different parts of the country and allow volunteers to acquire valuable professional experience (Republic of Botswana 2014; Parliament of Botswana 2014).

In contrast, in 2008, the Botswana National Internship Program (BNIP) was launched to help combat youth unemployment among university graduates. Through the BNIP, unemployed graduates were eligible to be employed as interns in government or the private sector for a maximum period of two years while also obtaining a monthly stipend of 1,400 BWP (Lemmenyane 2015; Mogomotsi et al. 2017). The main aim of this program was to “facilitate the transfer of skills for youth employability and to aid a smooth integration of graduates into the economy” (Mogomotsi et al. 2017, p.3). In reality though, only a limited number – approximately 30% – of participants were absorbed into the job market following their internship (Batweng 2015; Diraditsile 2016; Mogomotsi et al. 2017), and the NIP was largely criticized for its lack of focus on skill development and mentorship (Batweng 2015; Lemmenyane 2015; Diraditsile 2016). As a result of these criticisms and perceived lack of success, the NIP was replaced by the Graduate Volunteer Scheme (GVS) in 2015. Specifically targeting university graduates, the GVS is similar in many respects to the BNSP as it also offers a monthly stipend to participants and focuses

on developing the employment skills of its volunteers (Embassy of the Republic of Botswana in Sweden 2015). Indeed, the GVS specifically targets young unemployed graduates or graduates not currently engaged in an internship (Embassy of the Republic of Botswana in Sweden 2015).

While it remains too early to comprehensively evaluate the impact and quality of the newer BNSP and GVS initiatives, media reaction to the programs has been mostly negative, and early statistics indicate that there have been issues in attracting and retaining volunteers (Batweng 2015; BOPA 2015; Shabani 2014). For example, in its first year, nearly half of the registered volunteers in the new *Tirelo Setshaba* program dropped out (Shabani 2014). Similarly, reports also indicate that the GVS has had difficulty attracting individuals, as recruitment for the program has been well below initial targets and that, by 2016, only 74 out of a targeted 5,000 volunteers were enrolled (BOPA 2015; Rantsimako 2016). This may be partially due to the fact that, though similar to the former BNIP, the GVS offers a significantly lower monthly stipend than the BNIP (Lemmenyane 2015) and the 600 BWP stipend is indeed comparable or lower to the salaries of many non-university jobs (Botswana Gazette 2015).

Though exact figures are unavailable, these various programs have provided volunteers and interns for a variety of sectors, including national sports organizations and events such as the African Youth Games (Moustakas 2016). Outside of these more wide-ranging initiatives, there also exists a state-related structure dedicated solely to supporting volunteering in sports. Indeed, as mentioned in Sect. 4.2, there is a division of the BNSC exclusively dedicated to the registration, training, and provision of sports volunteers known as the Sports Volunteer Movement (SVM). Formed in 2000 and officially launched in April 2001, the SVM aims to promote sports development by building a “a pool of skilled volunteer coaches, referees/umpires, judges, and administrators” (Botswana Sport Volunteer Movement 2016, p.1). The SVM has local offices in eight regions of Botswana, and each of these regions is administered by a seven-person committee. Beyond the provision of volunteers for events and NSF’s as mentioned earlier, the SVM also facilitates the training of volunteers in a number of related areas, including coaching, event management, and first aid (Botswana Sport Volunteer Movement 2016).

Though academic literature from Botswana and elsewhere suggest that volunteering in sports, and generally, provide opportunities for individual skill development and the building of social capital (Chinman and Wandersman 1999; Doherty 2009; Downward and Ralston 2006; Elstad 1996; Kemp 2002; Preece and Mosweunyane 2004), it is an open question whether these state-supported programs truly achieve their goals at the societal level. Beyond the aforementioned BNSP and GVS, there is a myriad of other youth skill development and employment programs in Botswana (Diraditsile 2016). Taken as a whole, however, these programs often replace long-term employment and provide only temporary relief (Mogomotsi et al. 2017; Sekwati et al. 2002), at times even being abused by government and private sector actors who simply reuse interns or volunteers as inexpensive labor without giving them proper employment (Diraditsile 2016).

## 4.5 Conclusion

Botswana is a collectivistic society underpinned by the *botho* concept, which encompasses various notions of respect, civic duty, and cooperation (Lewis and Stephen 2005; Merriam and Ntseane 2007; Preece and Mosweunyane 2004; Rankopo et al. 2007). The terms for volunteering and service, *boithaopo* and *tirelo*, respectively, further reflect these values (Rankopo et al. 2007).

To a large extent, the Botswana sports sector relies on this cultural underpinning to ensure its continued operations and viability. Vast and diverse, there are well over 40 national-level sports organizations, and each of these organizations relies on a pool of volunteers to administer and deliver programs, activities, and events. Based on available numbers from SVM, there are over 3,000 individuals registered in its database (Botswana Sport Volunteer Movement 2016). However, it is likely that the actual number of sports volunteers in the country is much larger, especially since this database does not necessarily account for individuals involved in regular voluntary activities at the local or club level or for individuals who serve on various voluntary committees.

The state also supports sports volunteering and volunteering more broadly through a host of programs. Other than providing direct financial support to the BNSC, which manages the SVM, the state also manages and finances volunteering initiatives such as the BNSP and GVS. Academics and the media alike are mostly unanimous in their criticism of these programs, however, arguing that they do not provide the advertised skill development and do not truly lead to enhanced employment opportunities (Diraditsile 2016; Mogomotsi et al. 2017). Some even go so far as to argue that the birth of these newer programs was the result of pre-election political patronage (Diraditsile 2016).

In Botswana, like elsewhere, volunteering is not a mere altruistic pursuit, but it is often something done with the expectation that individuals will be able to make new connections, develop their skills, and bolster their prospects of gainful employment. Though volunteering remains strong in sports and in civil society more generally, policy makers and academics will need to seriously consider how to better support these volunteers, especially in terms of focused skill development initiatives, support in finding employment, and access to educational opportunities. If state-supported programs continue to be seen as failing in these areas, the sports and civil society sectors risk feeling the consequences of a smaller, less engaged, and lower quality volunteer workforce.

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# Chapter 5

## Brazil



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**Abstract** Volunteering in Brazil is historically connected to religious initiatives, but the complexity of its concept has changed over time. From simple acts of charity, regarded as assistencialism, it evolved to be considered an instrument of social change. The Brazilian volunteer is an engaged, active, and participative citizen who, by donating time, work, and talent to causes of social interest, seeks to solve social problems. Despite an estimated workforce of 33 million volunteers, the rate has changed little in the last decade and is considered low compared to other countries. Volunteering is regulated by the law N° 9.608/98. In Brazil, volunteering mostly takes place in religious, health, social assistance, or educational organizations of a private or public nature. The field of sports and physical activities favors volunteering initiatives that meet social demands, mostly using sports as a tool for social inclusion, integration, and education of socially excluded populations. Health promotion activities, event organization, or sports club management are other practices of sports volunteers. Sports mega events have also benefited from the work of volunteers in the last decade, a fact that has generated critics and protests. Currently, the state, with its neoliberal perspective toward social problems, entails to the civil society an increasing responsibility to meet the social demands, thus masking its own inefficiency.

### 5.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

Brazil is the largest country in Latin America and the fifth most populated in the world, home to 207.7 million citizens. The country is listed as one of the most socially unequal in the world, with 10% of the population living near poverty or below the income poverty line (United Nations 2016). Increasing social problems threaten Brazilian society constantly. The country improved economically and

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socially in the last two decades but is currently going through a deep political and economic crisis that jeopardizes the social achievements of the past (Martins 2017; Oliveira and Rossignoli 2017). Achievements can also be credited to the work of an engaged and active volunteer workforce, especially in the field of political militancy.

The volunteer's responsibility to develop the Brazilian society increases at the same rate as the problems volunteers face. Through participation in religious, political, educational, cultural, health, or sports institutions, the volunteer acts as a driver of social change, being a central part of the Brazilian civil society. To comprehend its meaning, a brief history of volunteering in Brazil is presented.

### ***5.1.1 Brief History of Volunteering in Brazil***

Volunteering in Brazil starts with the foundation by the Portuguese Catholics of the Holy Houses of Mercy in the 1600s, the first institutions with volunteers in the workforce. Volunteering at the time was driven by a feeling of compassion and realized through acts of charity, which was strongly encouraged by churches at the time. Thus, volunteering has a strong religious character, reinforcing moral values and religious aspects through its practice. From the 1600s to the 1900s, consequently, volunteering was regarded as *assistencialism*.<sup>1</sup> In the 1900s volunteer work expanded due to a greater involvement of the state and the appearance of new institutions, such as the Red Cross, the Scout Movement, and the immigrant sports clubs (D'Aiuto and Bramante 2006). However, by the 1930s, the government centralized most social assistance initiatives as part of its welfare policies, consequently reducing voluntary practices. It was only in the 1960s that the voluntary sector became influential again and engaged in a combative spirit propelled by a feeling of indignation. The failure of welfare policies and the inefficiency of the state increased political activism, and with the repression of the military regime, activists turned their efforts to voluntary initiatives. This shift added the idea of social change to the practice of volunteering (Corullón and Medeiros Filho 2002).

During the 1970s and the 1980s, the number of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and associations rose, composed of a more politicized volunteer workforce that contributed to the democratization of the country, the safeguarding of civil rights, and the construction of a civil society (Landim 2001). In this context the campaign Sports for All began in 1977. Supported by volunteers, it proposed the democratization of physical activities and sports, which resulted in a greater accountability from the state over sports and leisure policies in the 1990s. Another landmark was the creation of the Child's Pastoral (*Pastoral da Criança*) in 1983,

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<sup>1</sup>Assistencialism are policies of social or financial assistance which attack symptoms and not causes of social ill, imposing silence and passivity to the recipient (Freire 1974).

considered one of the most important NGOs in Brazil (D’Aiuto and Bramante 2006; Cavalcante et al. 2015).

After the end of the military regime and redemocratization of the state at the beginning of the 1990s, the volunteer gradually became an actor of social change, and a participative and active citizen, as civil society was regarded as the best alternative to an inefficient state (Corullón and Medeiros Filho 2002). At that time, the creation of the Citizenship Action Against Hunger, Misery and for Life (*Ação da Cidadania Contra a Fome, a Miséria e Pela Vida*) was a representation of this meaning. Created by the sociologist Herbert de Souza in 1993, it aimed at eradicating hunger and misery in the country, and with the support of prominent personalities and media vehicles, it stimulated every citizen to create solutions for the problem of hunger in Brazil (D’Aiuto and Bramante 2006). Corullón and Medeiros Filho (2002) have stressed that the creation of the Volunteers Program by the state in 1996 was decisive for the development of an organized volunteering movement. The program’s purpose was to implement a modern culture of volunteering based on the concept of efficiency of the services and on the qualifications of volunteers and institutions. This new vision was disassociating from the ideas of charity and alms-giving. It represented a volunteer culture closer to the logics and values of the market (Landim 2001). Following the Volunteers Program, the state regulated volunteer work through law N° 9.608/98 (Federal Republic of Brazil 1998). Broadly, it determines the following:

- Volunteering is a nonpaid activity provided by a private individual to a public entity of any nature or to a private not-for-profit organization with civic, cultural, educational, scientific, recreative, or personal assistance objective.
- Volunteering does not generate employment bonds nor labor obligations.
- Volunteering demands the celebration of a volunteer contract between parts, specifying the object and conditions of the work.
- Volunteers may be reimbursed for proved expenses incurred during the development of their activities.

Thus, defining, promoting, and regulating voluntary work ratified another meaning of volunteering assumed in the 1990s. Even if classic aspects from its religious origins are present, such as compassion, solidarity, and charity, the emphasis is on education and the professional qualifications of people. The essence of this new volunteerism is to overcome assistencialism and to promote active citizenship (Corullón and Medeiros Filho 2002).

### 5.1.2 Defining Volunteering

It is difficult to find one specific definition for volunteering in Brazil, due to its multifaceted character and forms. However, *voluntariado* (the word for volunteering in Portuguese) can be understood more clearly through the work of Landim (2001). According to Landim (2001), there are three dimensions of volunteering in Brazil:

the charity volunteering, the militant volunteering, and the new volunteering. Culturally, the meaning of volunteering transits through these three dimensions, and traits of each can be found simultaneously in an action or individual.

The first dimension is related to charity and mutual assistance, associated with religion and the idea of assistencialism. It is of an individualistic character. Volunteering is characterized by social interactions marked by personification and ties of solidarity and reciprocity, incurring obligations to the ones involved. Volunteering, before an individual autonomous choice, is regarded as an obligation, a commitment, and a consequence of that mutual dependence. It is difficult to identify if the volunteering is public or private, religious, or historical.

The second dimension corresponds to militancy and activism. Volunteering here relates to the participation in social movements, in the organized civil society and organizations that fight for social justice, rights, and equality. It is usually an organized and collective action that seeks social change and progress.

The third dimension is referred to as “new volunteering.” In this case, volunteering is developed through official initiatives, for instance, the United Nations Volunteers program, the FIFA Volunteer program, or state programs. The official character of these initiatives contributes to the visibility of this type of volunteering. Volunteering is associated with ideas brought from the labor market, such as competence, efficiency, results, and talent.

### **5.1.2.1 Money and Volunteering**

The Brazilian Volunteer Law suggests that volunteers might be compensated for the expenses incurred during their activities, and this compensation can assume different natures. Forell and Stigger (2017) investigated the meaning of volunteering in a public social program where volunteers received an allowance for their work. The authors noted that the payment to volunteers brought some uncertainty to the notion of volunteering, as whether or not participants were really volunteers. Some statements even pointed to the nonexistence of volunteering in cases of monetary compensation. For some volunteers, the exchange of money for work reduces their expectations of the long-term benefits obtained from volunteering.

Money is also a topic of discussion when it is seen as a substitute for volunteering. Most people (70%) believe the donation of money or resources is not a substitute for the need for volunteering (Itaú Social Foundation 2014).

### **5.1.2.2 Episodic and Continuous Volunteering**

A study by the Brazilian Institute of Public Opinion and Statistics (IBOPE 2011) pointed out that approximately half of the volunteers in Brazil are volunteering continuously, with a defined frequency, while the other half do it sporadically, even just once a year. Santos et al. (2016) investigated the motives to engage in

temporary or continuous volunteering projects, highlighting that Brazilian volunteers are more motivated by altruistic reasons and personal interests. The scenario for episodic volunteering, a topic still scarce in scientific publications in Brazil, was the 2014 FIFA World Cup. The authors identified that for the continuous volunteers, the higher motivation was related to personal benefits, such as acquiring knowledge or information, developing new skills, improving the curriculum, and networking. Episodic volunteers, besides being interested in personal benefits, also demonstrated an altruistic motivation, related to the benefits of society, realizing good actions, collaborating, and helping others. The authors concluded that motivation in continuous volunteering is associated with a higher level of professionalization of the volunteer's work, while in temporary projects, volunteering is more romanticized, a more philanthropic vision, resembling its historical concepts.

## 5.2 Volunteer Workforce in Brazil

Possessing the fifth largest population in the world combined with a great demand for volunteers, due to extensive social problems within the country and an inefficient state, should lead to an increase in the volunteer workforce in Brazil, but relative numbers indicate that for the past two decades little has changed.

Salamon et al. (2013) claim that the impact of volunteering in the Brazilian economy is estimated to be 0.6% of the GDP, a value close to 15 billion USD in 2013. In 2000, an estimated 22.6% of the population – 19.7 million people – donated time to an institution or to an individual outside their closest relationships (Landim 2001). Ten years later, another report pointed out that the volunteer rate was 25%. This percentage was split by 11% of active volunteers and 14% of people who had volunteered in the past (IBOPE 2011; Table 5.1).

More recently, a study from the Itaú Social Foundation (2014) suggested that 11% of Brazilians were volunteering, equivalent to 16.4 million volunteers. Another 17% had volunteered before but were not engaged in any activity at that moment. The remaining 72% admitted having never participated in voluntary initiatives.

An international study on solidarity by the Charities Aid Foundation (CAF) allows comparisons with 139 countries, and it indicated an evolution of the Brazilian volunteer rate in recent years. In 2016, the World Giving Index (CAF 2017) asked individuals if they had volunteered time to an organization in the past month, and results indicated that 20% of Brazilians had done so. This number was higher than the 18% of 2015, the 13% of 2014, and the 16% of 2013. Brazil ranked 63rd in 2016, 79th in 2015, and 99th in 2014. The rate also points to Brazil being the fifth country in absolute number of volunteers, with an estimated 33 million people volunteering in 2016.

**Table 5.1** Brazil's volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in Brazil
Population size	207.7 million <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	Portuguese
Volunteer rates (year)	13% (2014), 18% (2015), 20% (2016) <sup>b</sup>
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	Yes
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	2007 Pan American Games, 2011 Military World Games, 2013 World Youth Day, FIFA Confederations Cup Brazil 2013, 2014 FIFA World Cup Brazil, Rio 2016 Olympic Games, Rio 2016 Paralympic Games
Sports volunteer rates	17% of volunteers develop sports activities <sup>c</sup>
The word for volunteering	<i>Voluntariado</i>
The meaning of the word	Active participation of the individual in society, which arises from the will to contribute to social change and to his/her own development, not demanding a compensation for his/her work
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	Creation of <i>Pastoral da Criança</i> and APAE; repression from the military regime; Citizenship Action Against Hunger, Misery and for Life in 1993; creation of the Volunteers Program in 1997; passing of Volunteer Law 9.608/98; International Year of Volunteers of the UN; 2007 Pan American Games; 2014 FIFA World Cup; Rio 2016 Olympic Games; Rio 2016 Paralympic Games

Sources: <sup>a</sup>United Nations (2016); <sup>b</sup>CAF (2017); <sup>c</sup>OECD (2015)

### 5.2.1 Profile of Volunteers in Brazil

When it comes to gender, the Brazilian population is composed of more women (51.5%) than men (48.5%). The study from IBOPE (2011) maintains that this trend applies to the volunteer workforce, with slightly more women volunteering. Most Brazilian volunteers are employed full time or part time (67%) and have kids (62%). Lower classes participate less in volunteering activities (17%). Education is rather high, with 58% having at least completed secondary school. Most of the activities are developed in religious institutions (49%).

To identify group characteristics, the study by IBOPE (2011) segmented the volunteering workforce into three profiles: the traditional (31%), the participative (49%), and the connected (20%) volunteer. The traditional volunteer is over 50 years old, is married with children, belongs to the lower classes, and has a lower level of education. Volunteers commit themselves for more than seven years, with no frequency. The volunteers are highly satisfied with volunteering. The participative volunteer is 30 years old or younger, highly educated, and of a higher social class. This individual is usually a student or part-time worker and volunteers for less than one year, but regularly. This individual tends to work in educational organizations.

Besides fundraising, the main activities of this volunteer involve culture, education, and sport. This volunteer tends to be more critical toward volunteering. The connected volunteer works full time and is between 25 and 59 years old and has a good education. This individual is a social media user and has full access to technologies. Volunteering frequency is not established. This volunteer works in social assistance institutions, usually serving children or young people.

### 5.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

Of 290,000 nonprofit institutions, 72% depend solely on the work of volunteers. The number of sports and recreation organizations relying on volunteers is estimated to be around 25,000, with 80% of them concentrated in the South and Southeast regions (IBGE 2012). In a country like Brazil, many NGOs use sports as a tool for social change, supporting socially vulnerable youngsters, promoting citizenship, human development, and social inclusion. Volunteers in these organizations have a duty to transmit sporting values like discipline, teamwork, and leadership, to prepare youngsters for their future as citizens (Pinto and Oliveira 2017).

Besides NGOs, sports clubs also engage a large volunteer workforce, although the number of sports clubs has been reduced from 30,000 in the 1970s to 11,000 in 2017 (DaCosta 2006; Fenaclubes 2017). Sports club volunteering is found in both amateur and professional levels, with notorious cases appearing in professional football, where volunteer directors are called *cartolas*, occupying highly politicized roles, with great power and visibility. In recent years, volunteering in professional sports became the focus of a series of critiques, mainly due to the lack of professionalization of these volunteers and the use of the role for personal benefits (Mattar 2014).

#### 5.3.1 *Volunteers in Sports Mega Events*

One of a number of arguments to justify the investments in sporting mega events in Brazil was the social legacy of the culture of volunteering. The first international mega event in Brazil was the 1950 FIFA World Cup; however, its organization and operationalization were conducted by hired workers and public employees. There were some big sporting events with the participation of volunteers in the past, such as the 1963 Universiade in Porto Alegre and the 1963 Pan American Games in São Paulo; however, these used a smaller proportion of volunteers compared to recent mega events (D'Aiuto and Bramante 2006).

In the last decade, Brazil has hosted a series of sports mega events that, added up, had a volunteer workforce of almost 120,000 people. The first event in this series was the 2007 Pan American Games in Rio de Janeiro, which had the support of 15,000 volunteers. Next was the 2011 Military World Games, also in Rio de Janeiro, with an estimated workforce of 10,000 volunteers (Bush 2011).

In 2013 and 2014, Brazil hosted the FIFA Confederations Cup and the FIFA World Cup, respectively. For these events, FIFA had a program to select volunteers designated to work at the official sites, while the Brazilian government launched an independent program for volunteers under its own responsibility that worked in public spaces like airports or at tourism information points. The program from FIFA received 152,101 registrations. From this, a total of 5,652 volunteers were selected to work in the Confederations Cup, 43% being female and 57% male volunteers. Another 13,153 volunteers were selected to work in the World Cup, spread across 12 different host cities. In 2014, Brazilians accounted for 93% of the workforce, with 53% male volunteers and 47% female volunteers (FIFA 2014). Contrary to FIFA's report, no official data on the government's program were available, with estimates prior to the events indicating that 7,000 volunteers would be selected for work during the Confederations Cup and 18,000 for the World Cup.

The 2016 Summer Olympic Games and the 2016 Summer Paralympic Games were both hosted in Rio de Janeiro. The volunteer selection process for both events received 242,757 applications worldwide, with 60% coming from Brazil (IOC 2016). Women accounted for 50% of the applications, and 50% of the Brazilian applicants were 25 years old or younger. The initial prediction was to select 70,000 volunteers, later reduced to 50,000. For the Olympics Games, 35,000 volunteers were selected from 161 countries, while 15,000 volunteers worked on the Paralympic Games. Approximately 30% of the selected volunteers did not turn up for their allocated shifts at the Games, with individuals citing poor training and working conditions as justification for absenteeism (Lima 2016).

These events and their volunteering programs were not immune to critics, despite their economic and sporting success. Legal experts and academics in Brazil considered that volunteering was used as a substitute of formal labor, as a means of reducing costs. In the case of FIFA, which made a huge profit from the events, a public manifesto was released by labor legal experts accusing the institution of breaking the volunteers' law, despite the existence of a temporary law (12.663/12) safeguarding FIFA's interests (Boitempo 2014).

## 5.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

Although the origin of volunteering in Brazil, rooted in religious initiatives, is similar to other countries, the difference is that in Brazil, these associations are legitimized by the state, while in other countries the voluntary sector seeks state autonomy (Cavalcante et al. 2015).

Landim (2001) affirms that volunteerism can assume a negative connotation in the eyes of the people because of a historical addictive relationship between state and society, and public and private agents, which was developed in the contexts of patrimonialism and corporatism. Philanthropic actions were long associated with the exchange of favors, political patronage, and diversion of public resources.

Public programs to stimulate volunteering have been founded in this context. One example is the National Volunteering Program (PRONAV), operating from

1979 to the beginning of the 1990s. With volunteer cores spread nationally, the coordination of the program was the responsibility of the first ladies of national, state, and municipal levels. This centralization on state actors facilitated actions of patronage, disruption of public resources, and assistencialist practices, which reproduced inequalities and hierarchies across the nation.

Melo et al. (2015) claim that during the 1990s, a neoliberal perspective was adopted by the state that reduced costs and reviewed the machinery of government. In the neoliberal logic, social problems are the responsibility of individuals, and they must be solved in the private sphere, be it through the individual's own efforts or, when this is not possible, through private institutions of the civil society, linked to volunteering or donation practices (Bonfim 2010).

Thus, state actions that should guarantee social rights were substituted by private initiatives from the civil society, including in the field of sports. This became a common process, and, during the 1990s and 2000s, there was a significant increase of private nonprofit organizations executing public policies or privately financed projects (Melo et al. 2015). For the authors, this process of decentralization of state actions, by delegating state functions to private organizations, highlights a process of commercialization of social policies. Through legal instruments, the state transfers the responsibility for the execution of social policies to the civil society.

This process was investigated by Forell and Stigger (2017), who identified a precarious implementation of sports and leisure policies by volunteers in the state program "Open School" (*Programa Escola Aberta*). The use of a voluntary workforce led to impoverished intervention practices in the cases studied, first because it did not attract the required skilled workers and, second, because of a discontinuity on volunteering (volunteers regularly dropped out of the program). The sum of these factors generated a prejudice to the beneficiaries in the sense that most of the activities developed had no pedagogical basis. Additionally, similarities to formal employment were found, with volunteers being compensated per number of hours or days of work and subordinated to the directors of the school.

In this type of relationship between state and society, based on a neoliberal paradigm, it is expected that the services provided by private organizations and their volunteers are more qualified than the state services and that these organizations represent society's aspirations. However, heterogeneous interests and purposes, mismanagement of resources, and lack of transparency have all led to poor services provided, especially in sports initiatives, portraying a frequent scenario in Brazil (Melo et al. 2015).

## 5.5 Conclusion

Brazil is flooded with social problems that appear to have no solution, but through social initiatives and volunteer work, many demands not addressed by the state are being met. The work of volunteers must be praised, and since they are more politicized, they now promote an active citizenship and democratic participation to society.



Despite the work undertaken by volunteers, the culture of volunteering should be addressed by private organizations and the state and by academics. Volunteering rates have changed little compared to past decades, and people need to be stimulated to volunteer once more. State and civil society need to review their responsibilities concerning the development and implementation of social policies, since the current model often receives criticism.

Finally, volunteering demands more academic studies, since there is a lack of literature on the topic – for instance, on episodic volunteering, consequences of sports events volunteering or the impact of compensation on volunteers' motivation.

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# Chapter 6

## Canada



**Katie Misener and Kristen Morrison**

**Abstract** Volunteers are the backbone of the nonprofit and voluntary sector in Canada. The act of volunteering represents an important tradition in a country which projects a powerful global image of inclusion, diversity, and policy innovation. Volunteering offers individuals of all ages an opportunity to foster meaningful engagement and create community change. Volunteers are central to the operations of amateur sport organizations and events in Canada where sport volunteers get involved for many reasons such as helping their sport and/or community, using their skills and experiences, and because they are often passionate about the sport themselves or are parents of children who participate. Sport volunteers take on many diverse roles, such as coach, referee, official, or administrator, and offer their time and dedication in episodic or continual roles. This chapter reviews the characteristics of Canadian sport volunteers and the key factors shaping the volunteer experience.

### 6.1 The Meaning of Sport Volunteering

Canada is a country of approximately 37 million people spanning ten provinces and three territories stretching from the Arctic Circle in the north to the United States-Canada border in the south (Statistics Canada [n.d.](#)). Canada boasts of its diversity as a cornerstone of the country's identity, with two official national languages (French and English) and a society of mixed religions, cultures, and interests. With immigration playing a leading role in Canada's population growth (Statistics Canada [2018b](#)), the country projects a powerful global message of inclusion, policy innovation, and prosperity (Momani and Stirk [2017](#)). Many Canadian government agencies, nonprofit organizations, and corporations are taking leadership to instill these values in

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the Canadian workforce and throughout communities to build a more involved, cohesive Canada. Indeed, connections and engagement are two critical elements of developing a sense of belonging where people are more likely to take action with others for common purposes (Vital Signs Report 2015). As captured in the Vital Signs Report published by the Community Foundations of Canada, “Communities need to send signals of acceptance and inclusion; and individuals need to cultivate connection with other people and engagement in the community” (p. 1). These notions of meaningful engagement and the opportunity to create community change underpin the voluntary sector in Canada.

In general, volunteering is understood as a pursuit that offers individuals the opportunity to contribute their time and work together with others to have a direct impact on organizations, communities, and the lives of other Canadians (Doherty et al. 2014). Volunteering in Canada is defined as participation in any activity, without monetary compensation, for a group or organization, such as sport or community associations, religious organizations, or schools (Vézina and Crompton 2012). Across Canada, volunteering is recognized to be linked with social networks as an important way to build social capital and community attachment (Wang et al. 2017).

However, the understanding and meaning of volunteering may vary based on an individual’s cultural background. For example, Quebec, the French-speaking province of Canada, uses the term “le bénévolat” to refer to the activities that individuals undertake that is intended to contribute to a philanthropic or community-based cause (Fortier, Thibault and Leclerc 2015; Thibault 2002). While the meaning of “le bénévolat” is similar to that of the English term “volunteering,” French-speaking people in Quebec are less likely than English-speaking people in Quebec to volunteer formally for an organization or association (Wang et al. 2017). Instead, French-speaking people in Quebec are more likely to help in an informal role by caring for children and older adults than English-speaking or other language-speaking people in non-Quebec areas (Wang et al. 2017). This suggests that French-speaking people residing in Quebec may view their role in giving back to their community differently than English-speaking people. Similarly, Aboriginal people in Canada view volunteerism as an inherent part of their culture and as a result give back to their communities through less formal activities (Edwards 2011; Volunteer Alberta 2004). In fact, there is no term for “volunteer” in most Indigenous cultures and is instead best understood as “helping out” and caring for others (Edwards 2011). This cultural understanding of volunteering is derived from the historical need to share resources and care for others in order to survive difficult environments (Edwards 2011; Little, Auchterlonie and Stephen 2005).

Despite the cultural differences that influence the understanding of volunteering in Canada, volunteerism plays an important role across the country, offering many benefits for both the individuals who volunteer and the organizations that they volunteer for.

## 6.2 Volunteer Workforce in Canada

In Canada, the number of volunteers has grown faster than Canada's population between 2004 and 2010 (Vézina and Crompton 2012). In fact, 12.7 million Canadians 15 years and older volunteered in 2013, contributing their time, skills, and energy to helping groups and organizations without monetary compensation (Turcotte 2015). In other words, more than four in 10 Canadians over 15 years of age volunteered in 2013. Overall, in 2013, Canadians volunteered an average of 154 hours (Turcotte 2015). See Table 6.1 for a summary table.

Volunteer rates differ across Canada. In 2013, the highest volunteer rate for individuals 15 years and older was seen in Saskatchewan (56%), followed by Manitoba (52%), and Nova Scotia (51%). In contrast, Quebec, Canada's French-speaking province, had the lowest rate of volunteering, where approximately 32% of the population over the age of 15 volunteered. Rural and less urban regions typically have higher rates of volunteering (Turcotte 2015).

However, the likelihood of volunteering may change based on a person's life stage, due to changes in their interests and obligations. For example, younger people have to juggle different responsibilities than working parents or retired empty nesters. More than half (66%) of younger Canadians aged 15 and 19 volunteered in 2013. In comparison, 42% of Canadians between 20 and 34 years of age and 48% between ages 35 and 44 reported volunteering. Individuals aged 55 and older were slightly less likely to volunteer; pre-retirees (aged 55 to 64) had a volunteer rate of 41%, while seniors (aged 65 and older) had a rate of 38%. However, older adults

**Table 6.1** Canada's volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in Canada
Population size	37 million (2018) <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	English and French
Volunteer rates (year)	44% (2013)
Existence of voluntary sport clubs	Yes
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	Olympic Games (2010) Paralympic Games (2010) Pan American Games (2015) Parapan American Games (2015)
Sport volunteer rates	n.a.
The word for volunteering	Volunteering; <i>le bénévolat</i> <sup>b</sup>
The meaning of the word	Participation in any activity, without monetary compensation, for a group or organization, such as sport or community associations, religious organizations, or schools <sup>c</sup>
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	Vancouver Olympic Games (2010); Calgary Olympic Games (1988); Pan American Games (2015); Wildfire in Fort McMurray, Alberta (2016); Syrian refugee crisis (2011)

Source: <sup>a</sup>Statistics Canada (2018a); <sup>b</sup>Thibault (2002); <sup>c</sup>Vézina and Crompton (2012)

generally volunteered more hours than younger adults, with seniors aged 65 to 74 reporting an average of 231 volunteer hours in 2013 (Turcotte 2015).

Household income is another factor associated with differing volunteer rates in Canada. Individuals with household incomes of 100,000 CAD or over were more likely to volunteer than those with lower household incomes. While individuals who are employed outside of the home reported a higher volunteer rate than those unemployed or not in the labor force, on average, they also reported less volunteer hours (Vézina and Crompton 2012). Although employed individuals typically are in the age range where approximately half of Canadians volunteer (25-54 years), the time constraints of their job may partly explain why they volunteer less hours (Vézina and Crompton 2012).

Gender, education, marital status, and having children are also factors that influence volunteer rates and hours. Women were slightly more likely than men to volunteer (Turcotte 2015). Additionally, Canadians with at least some postsecondary education were also more likely to volunteer, and those who obtained a postsecondary credential volunteered more hours of their time on average than those who did not graduate from postsecondary school (Turcotte 2015; Vézina and Crompton 2012). Moreover, individuals who were single and never married were more likely to volunteer (47%) than those who are married or in a common-law relationship (42%; Vézina and Crompton 2012). Canadians who were widowed were less likely to volunteer (32%), which may be partly explained as widows or widowers typically comprise an older age group. Having school-aged children between the ages of 6 and 17 years considerably increased the likelihood of volunteering (Vézina and Crompton 2012). This may be due to the fact that many school-aged children participate in before- and after-school activities, including sport that may not occur without parental involvement. Notably, those born in Canada are more likely to volunteer than their immigrant counterparts, yet both groups are similar in their propensity for informal volunteering by providing informal care to others (Wang et al. 2017).

### ***6.2.1 Older Adult Sport Volunteers in Canada***

In Canada, the aging of the baby boomer generation (born between 1946 and 1964) means that 16.8% of Canada's population is 65 years of age or older (Statistics Canada 2017). For the first time in census history, Canada has more seniors aged 65 years and over than children under 15 years (Statistics Canada 2017). Although Canada's population continues to age, many baby boomers continue to work longer than previous generations. While the 1980s and the early 1990s saw a trend toward early retirement, the employment rate of individuals 55 years and over has increased between 1997 and 2010, suggesting that some Canadians are choosing to work longer, delaying their retirement (Carrière and Galarneau 2011). This trend of delaying retirement may help to explain why seniors, aged 65 and older, are less likely to volunteer than other age groups, yet those who do volunteer generally contribute

more hours than younger adults (Turcotte 2015). Older adults who are retired may seek to find meaning in their lives in other ways beyond work commitments and as such may turn to volunteering as a meaningful leisure time pursuit.

Volunteering is a rewarding and beneficial leisure activity for older adults and offers many benefits. Indeed, volunteering reflects an active lifestyle during later life and is one way for older adults to engage in meaningful social roles, connect with others, and gain new skills (Chambre 1987; Gill 2006; Price 2007). Volunteering in a formal capacity, such as within an organization or a club, has been associated with increased confidence and self-esteem and a stronger sense of purpose in life (Li and Ferraro 2005; Warburton 2006). Being active through formal volunteering also provides older adults with increased social interaction which works to counter isolation and loneliness (Warburton 2006). Overall, volunteering has many positive links to physical, mental, and social well-being of older adults.

### ***6.2.2 Economic Contribution of Volunteers***

In 2013, over 12.7 million Canadians, 15 years and older, volunteered almost 1.97 billion hours or the equivalent of approximately one million full-time jobs (Turcotte 2015). However, most of the volunteer work is done by the few, with just 10% of volunteers contributing over half of the volunteer hours provided to nonprofit and charitable organizations (Vézina and Crompton 2012). The top 10% of volunteers each volunteered for more than 390 hours in 2010 – the equivalent of working a minimum of 10 weeks at a full-time job (Vézina and Crompton 2012).

Employer-supported volunteering (ESV) also represents a new dimension of the volunteering landscape in Canada, providing an important economic contribution in the form of volunteer labor. Employer-supported volunteering is any activity undertaken by an employer to encourage and support volunteering in the community by its employees. Some examples of employer-supported volunteering include pro bono work (Allen 2012; e.g., offering consulting services to nonprofit organizations), mentoring, and team or group volunteering. ESV was once considered to be an exceptional and uncommon practice among corporate Canada, but has recently emerged as a more mainstream practice (Volunteer Canada 2016). A representative survey of 990 businesses across Canada found that 53% of respondents either encouraged their employees to volunteer during work hours or worked with their employees to accommodate their volunteering activities (Easwaramoorthy et al. 2006). Other companies support employees who volunteer their personal time through paid time off or flextime (flexible time). While these companies are “doing the right thing” by encouraging and supporting employee volunteer efforts, businesses acknowledge that their support is often part of an overall organizational strategy (Hall et al. 2007). Some benefits that an organization may realize through its support of employee volunteering include being able to attract top talent, improve employee engagement and retention, and strengthen relationships with the local community (e.g., clients, customers, partners; Volunteer Canada 2016).

### 6.3 Volunteer Management in Sport

The sport and recreation sector remains one of the most likely places for Canadians to volunteer (Sinha 2015). Canadian sport volunteers get involved to help their sport or community and use their skills and experiences or because they have been personally affected by the organization/cause (Harvey et al. 2005; Lasby and Sperling 2007). Interestingly, most people (93.8%) who volunteer for a sport organization do not do so to improve their own job/employment opportunities (Harvey et al. 2005). However, Canadians who volunteer their time in sport-specific roles are often passionate about the sport themselves or are parents of children who participate in the sport. While most sport and recreation volunteers (86.4%) have a background in sport participation themselves, they also indicate that they first became involved as volunteers because a child or spouse was involved (51%; Harvey et al. 2005). Additionally, some sport and recreation organizations themselves have compulsory volunteer work that participants or their family must complete as a condition for their involvement in the organization (Reilly and Vesic 2002/2003).

Although most volunteers focus on helping just one or two nonprofit or charitable associations, sport and recreation organizations receive the most volunteer support, with 12% of people over the age of 15 volunteering their time to these organizations in 2010 (Vézina and Crompton 2012). In fact, these dedicated people volunteered an average of 120 hours to sport and recreation organizations (Vézina and Crompton 2012). However, most of the volunteer hours dedicated to sport and recreation organizations are contributed by the same volunteers. For example, 25% of volunteers contribute 78% of the hours volunteered for Ontario sport and recreation organizations (Lasby and Sperling 2007).

Sport and recreation organizations are more likely than other nonprofit and voluntary organizations to report challenges in recruiting and training suitable volunteers (Lasby and Sperling 2007). Additionally, medium-sized organizations, which comprise the majority of amateur sport organizations, are more likely to report capacity issues with respect to volunteers (Lasby and Sperling 2007). Sport and recreation volunteers tend to be 25 years and older and are often involved because they have children who participate with that organization (Vézina and Crompton 2012). According to the 2010 General Social Survey, parents were involved in their children's sport as sport administrators (7%), coaches (5%), or referees (2%; Canadian Heritage 2013).

Over two million Canadians reported volunteering as an administrator for an amateur sport organization, representing approximately 7% of the population. Although men are more likely to report involvement in this capacity than women, this gap has shrunk since 1992. In 2010, 8% of Canadian men indicated that they volunteer in amateur sport administration versus 6% of Canadian women (Canadian Heritage 2013). Interestingly, Canadians between the ages of 15 and 19 as well as between the ages of 35 and 55 are more likely to report involvement as an amateur sport administrator. Canadians who possess a university degree, as well as those with a household income of 80,000 CAD or more, are also more likely to be involved as a sport administrator.



Despite the overall trend within the broader voluntary sector for women to be more likely to volunteer than men, men were more than twice as likely to coach in amateur sport than women. However, since 1992, the proportion of women participating in coaching activities has slowly grown (Canadian Heritage 2013). Other factors related to the likelihood of involvement in amateur coaching include a person's level of education, family income, and the primary language they spoke during their childhood. For example, Canadians with a university degree are more likely to be involved in coaching than those without a degree, and those with a household income of 80,000 CAD or more are also more likely to volunteer as coaches. Canadians whose primary language is English are more likely to be involved in coaching (6%), compared to Canadians who are Francophone (4%), or those who grew up speaking another language (3%).

Between 2005 and 2010, the number of adult Canadians involved in amateur sport as either a referee, official, or umpire has increased by 25%. In 2010, close to 600,000 Canadians reported being involved in sport as a referee, official, or umpire (Canadian Heritage 2013). Similar to the trend seen in amateur coaching, women are becoming more involved in the officiating of amateur sport. Approximately 3.1% of male Canadians reported acting as a referee, official, or umpire, versus 1.1% of females.

### ***6.3.1 Older Adult Sport Volunteers in Sport***

Volunteers are the backbone of many community sport clubs and take on multiple roles, such as coach, trainer, administrator, and committee member. However, the typical sport volunteer profile is not the older adult; rather, most sport volunteers are younger (35-44 years of age), male, and employed full time outside of the home (Doherty 2005). While older adults may not fit to this "typical sport volunteer profile," those older adults who do volunteer in sport organizations have much to give these community organizations as they bring personal sport experience, having participated in sport organizations as athletes themselves or as coaches. Research on this demographic in Canada has found that volunteering provides older adults with a way to give back to sport, a leisure activity that has often been a large part of their life (Hamm-Kerwin et al. 2009; Lyons and Dionigi 2007).

There are several contextual factors that influence whether older adults engage as sport volunteers. Hamm-Kerwin et al. (2009) position these factors within a framework of structural, cultural, cognitive, and situational dimensions of volunteering behavior. For example, demographic variables such as gender and marital status and former employment status have been found to represent key structural factors which increase the likelihood of volunteering. Cultural factors that encouraged older adults to volunteer in their local sport clubs included their previous involvement in sport, whether they volunteered in the past, and whether they had family/friends who volunteer both within and outside of sport (Hamm-Kerwin et al. 2009). Cognitive factors included key reasons for volunteering in sport such as the opportunity to use

their skills, to build social connections, and to stay active. Finally, the situational dimension included factors of everyday life that either prevent or increase the likelihood of volunteering such as the quality of one's health, spouse's employment status, and awareness of volunteer opportunities (Hamm-Kerwin et al. 2009). This multidimensional investigation provided key insight into the many complex factors which older adults navigate through their sport volunteer roles.

### **6.3.1.1 Benefits for Older Adult Sport Volunteers**

Older adult sport volunteers experience many benefits through their involvement. For example, older adult sport volunteers often find meaning in their ability to contribute to youth development in their communities and interact with children through their involvement in sport clubs (Misener et al. 2010). Additionally, the multiple roles that older adult sport volunteers take on allow them to interact with people, which can be particularly meaningful during retirement (Misener et al. 2010). Further, the friendships that they developed while volunteering at sport clubs became another reason for older adults to remain involved (Lyons and Dionigi 2007; Misener et al. 2010). Volunteers who take an active role in sport clubs in later life also benefit from living an active, healthy life. Not only does the activity keep them exercising, but their volunteer roles help to keep their minds active while decreasing or preventing them from getting bored, particularly postretirement (Misener et al. 2010).

From an organizational perspective, older adult sport volunteers may provide sport clubs with skills based on experience, availability, and greater loyalty and confidence (Gill 2006). Research has found that older adult sport volunteers made a positive contribution to their sport club through their attitudes and beliefs, such as their perseverance, positivity, hard work, and sense of humor (Misener et al. 2010).

### **6.3.1.2 Challenges for Older Adult Sport Volunteers**

While older adults typically describe their sport club volunteering experiences as positive, some may experience negative aspects. In particular, some volunteers may experience negative interpersonal relations with other club members that cause tension, anxiety, or disappointment (Misener et al. 2010). Relatedly, if a sport club does not have enough other volunteers, those who do contribute their time to the club may feel as if their volunteer role is more of an obligation requiring extensive time commitment beyond desirable expectations (Misener et al. 2010). While sport clubs have a difficult time recruiting and training skilled or experienced volunteers, the older adults who do volunteer may find that the extensive time commitment required due to limited "helping hands" is frustrating (Misener et al. 2010). Additionally, as sport clubs are beginning to formally outline requirements and credentials that potential volunteers must first meet, such as first aid certifications, coaching courses, and police checks, in order to ensure a safe and fair atmosphere, older

adult volunteers may feel as if their previous hands-on experience is discounted in favor of new policies and procedures (Misener et al. 2010).

Clear communication, purposeful recruiting of skilled older adults who are passionate about sport, better coordination among various roles within organizations, and job sharing may be ways to improve the older adult sport volunteer experience (Misener et al. 2010). Encouraging clubs to monitor the experience of these valued contributors is imperative to ensuring that the volunteer experience remains positive and attractive to additional volunteers. Opportunities abound for future research in this area in order to provide new insight related to enhancing the meaning-making opportunities for this demographic within the sport context.

### ***6.3.2 Sport Event Volunteers***

While volunteers are critical to the day-to-day operations of amateur sport organizations, they are also key to the overall operations of many sport events. These sport events may be episodic in nature, occurring only once a year, such as the Scotiabank Toronto Waterfront Marathon, or may be one-time events without expectation that they will reoccur, such as the Pan American Games hosted in Toronto in 2015. These events vary by size and may have different volunteer bases that they can draw upon. For example, large-scale events, such as the Pan American Games, may be able to draw upon volunteers that reside outside of the host city, while small-scale sport events, such as a local canoe/kayak race, may be limited to volunteers within its local community (Kerwin et al. 2015).

Canada has hosted mega-sporting events a number of times over the last five decades, with recent examples including the 2010 Winter Olympic Games in Vancouver and the Pan American Games in 2015. These mega-events relied heavily on volunteers. For example, at the 2010 Winter Olympic Games in Vancouver, of the 55,000 workforce members for the Games, approximately 25,000 were volunteers (International Olympic Committee 2010). Some of these volunteers (6,500) also contributed to the Paralympic Winter Games that occurred immediately following the closing of the Olympic Games. Almost 3,000 of these volunteers (14%) were bilingual, which was an important consideration by VANOC, the Vancouver Organizing Committee. As the Department of Canadian Heritage provided funding for the Vancouver Olympics, services had to be offered to the public in both official languages, English and French. However, one of the Vancouver Olympic Games' failures was not having enough bilingual volunteers at some venues (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages 2010). This highlights both the need and difficulty of recruiting volunteers able to assist with sporting events who hold the necessary skills, such as language fluency.

The Pan American Games have been held in Canada three times, including twice in Winnipeg, Manitoba (1967, 1999), and once in Toronto, Ontario (2015). Both the 1967 and 1999 Games relied on substantial volunteer effort; the 1967 Games only created 12 paid jobs and relied on volunteers to run the rest of

the Games (Field and Kidd 2016). The 1999 Pan American Games relied on approximately 20,000 volunteers (Field and Kidd 2016), while the 2015 Pan American and Parapan American Games set a goal of assembling more than 23,000 volunteers (Toronto 2015 Pan Am/Parapan Am Games). Volunteer responsibilities continue to grow with each iteration of the event. For example, each of the volunteers for the 2015 Pan American Games was asked to contribute 12 shifts over 18 game-time days, while the Parapan American Games volunteers were asked to volunteer for six shifts over nine days. Volunteers were assigned to one of over 50 functional areas, such as sport competition (e.g., referee, announcer, scorer), event services (e.g., host, team lead), transport (e.g., driver), and medical (e.g., first responder, massage therapist), based on their availability, geography, and skills.

While not classified as mega-events (see Müller 2015), other events such as the annual Rogers Cup (tennis) and Invictus Games (hosted in 2017 for wounded and injured veterans) have also been held in Canada, offering specialized sport volunteer experiences.

Small-scale sport events also offer important ways for citizens and sport fans to get involved in hosting others and showcasing sport within local communities. In these cases, sport event volunteers often assume several roles due to the limited catchment of volunteers within the local community (Kerwin et al. 2015). It is important, however, for all sport event volunteers to understand what tasks they are supposed to undertake and how they have to do them (means-ends/scope ambiguity), and understand where they fit in within the event operations (performance outcomes ambiguity; Rogalsky et al. 2016). This knowledge is related to volunteers' perceptions of their role performance, satisfaction with their role, overall satisfaction with their volunteering experience, and their intention to volunteer in the future (Rogalsky et al. 2016). These factors continue to shape the volunteer experience and determine whether individuals and communities will bid to host sport events in Canada in the future and showcase the assets of the country through the spectacle of sport.

## 6.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

Most provinces and territories across Canada have policies in place that require or recognize volunteer hours toward high school course credits. Of the six provinces and territories that mandate community service as a requirement for high school graduation, most require students to complete between 25 and 40 hours of volunteer work. Quebec, the French-speaking province in Canada, requires only 10 hours of mandatory community service as a requirement for high school graduation. Other provinces and territories, such as New Brunswick, Manitoba, Nova Scotia, and Nunavut, offer specific courses that incorporate community service hours and count toward high school graduation.

These governmental policies and practices may help to explain why younger Canadians between the ages of 15 and 19 are more likely to volunteer than any other age group, but only contribute approximately half of the number of volunteer hours.

In 2013, Canadians between 15 and 19 years of age contributed an average of 110 hours, and younger adults between 20 and 34 years of age devoted approximately 136 hours for a group or organization. In contrast, Canadian seniors volunteered an average of 231 hours in that same time frame (Turcotte 2015).

According to one province's Ministry of Education (Ontario), the purpose of incorporating community service into high school requirements is to encourage students to develop an awareness and understanding of their civic duty and of the role that youth can play in supporting and strengthening their communities. To understand the impact of mandatory volunteering in high school, Padanyi et al. (2010) surveyed undergraduate students at two Ontario universities. They found that while Ontario's mandatory high school community service program did introduce some students to the voluntary sector, many students already had exposure from volunteering during elementary school. Further, although mandatory high school community service programs are aimed at encouraging students who likely would not have volunteered in high school in an attempt to get them to continue to volunteer later in life, Padanyi et al. (2010) found that these students were no more likely to volunteer later on than those who did not volunteer in high school. Overall, students did not view mandatory volunteering in high school as genuine volunteering and instead saw it as a compulsory activity or something that was only done for the student's own benefit, namely, the fulfillment of a high school graduation requirement. Despite this finding, Padanyi et al. (2010) also found that approximately half of the students volunteered more than 80 hours, double the Ontario high school minimum requirement of 40 hours. In fact, some high school graduates volunteered even more – in 2015, 66 students graduated from an Ontario high school with more than 999 volunteer hours (Sagan 2015).

While the Northwest Territories, one of Canada's three territories, also requires mandatory volunteering as part of its high school curriculum, it offers a unique and guided program to facilitate youth volunteering. The Northwest Territories has operated the NWT Youth Ambassador Program since 2007, offering a structured volunteer experience for its youth at various territorial, national, and international events (Proactive Information Services 2017). From 2007 to 2016, the NWT Youth Ambassador Program offered 650 participants 30 opportunities for volunteering, including major sporting events (e.g., 2007 Canada Winter Games, 2010 Olympic Games) to smaller events such as Ottawa Winterlude in 2015. Most participants reported personal growth (59%) and making healthier choices (41%) as a result from their volunteer experiences through NWT Youth Ambassador Program.

With respect to the sport sector specifically, the most recent Canadian Sport Policy (2012) sets out a framework that provides direction for Canadian governments (i.e., municipal, provincial, and federal levels), institutions, and organizations in order to promote and celebrate participation and excellence in sport, and also specifically highlights the important role that volunteers play in achieving system objectives. This is notable in a time when sport participation is declining and sport organizations compete for members and funding. The Canadian Sport Policy (2012) provides guidelines and suggested actions endorsed by federal, provincial, and territorial government representatives that sport organizers may choose to adopt.

## 6.5 Conclusion

The voluntary sector in Canada is vibrant and dynamic, and Canadians offer a vast amount of time, energy, and passion to the sector. Without the voluntary sector and the important role of volunteers, many social services would not exist, particularly in rural Canada (Ryser and Halseth 2014). Given the wide-reaching geographic area, multiplicity of cultures, and diverse volunteer pathways, more place-based policies are needed to support and build the capacity of the voluntary sector (Ryser and Halseth 2014).

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# Chapter 7

## China



Ye Xing, Sheranne Fairley, Yan Wang, and P. Monica Chien

**Abstract** This chapter provides an overview of the meaning, development, and role of volunteering in modern Chinese society. Fundamentally, volunteering in China is underpinned by traditional virtues and cultural values such as benevolence, harmony, and selflessness. The communist ideologies of dedicating one's life to serving the people and helping others also help to shape the perception of volunteering. While the top-down initiatives of the state contributed to the growth of volunteering in China, recent mega-events such as the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, the 2010 World Expo in Shanghai, and the 2010 Asian Games in Guangzhou further raised the profile of volunteering in the country. As a result, volunteering has transformed from compulsory service to a respected position, generating significant economic benefits. Volunteer workforces seem to be concentrated in large cities. Sport volunteers are comprised of mainly students, perhaps due to the perception that volunteering offers opportunities for social networking and enhancement of one's employability. Despite the legacies of recent mega-events, volunteering for community sport remains an uncommon practice. There is a need to develop a better understanding of volunteering and activities involved, with regulations to protect the rights and interests of volunteers. Research is required to inform future volunteering policies and strategies in China.

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## 7.1 Meaning and Understanding of Volunteering

There is a strong cultural history of helping one another in China dating back thousands of years (Zhuang 2010). The fundamental elements of ancient Chinese philosophers (诸子百家) such as “Confucius” and “Mozi” and commonly practiced religions lent themselves to the ideology of volunteering (Zhuang 2010). Specifically, Confucian benevolence, Mohist universal love, legalists’ law to aid the poor, Buddhist leniency, and the accumulation of merits (common across multiple religions) all lend to helping people (Wang 2013; Yang 2011). Confucian and Mohist philosophies in particular “were the main influence in inspiring people to help each other in neighborhood and circles of family and friends” (Zhuang 2010, p.2847). Thus, it has been suggested that there are deep roots of volunteerism in Chinese traditional virtue and contemporary culture (Wang 2013; Yang 2015; Yin 2015). However, others have suggested that the Western concept of volunteering is foreign to Chinese culture and have therefore applied Western definitions of volunteering in Chinese contexts (Li 2009; Liu 2008; Wang 2000). Some have suggested that large-scale volunteering in China did not start until the latter half of the 2000s century (Shen 2009). Thus, while the underlying philosophy of helping people is strongly rooted in Chinese culture, volunteering in modern China is seen to be underpinned and influenced by the West (Wang 2000).

Another significant influencer of the current Chinese perception of volunteering is Mao Zedong’s endorsement of Lei Feng, a member of the Liberation army who was denoted as a model citizen as he displayed selflessness in dedicating his life to serving the people (为人民服务; Peng 2007; Wang et al. 2014). Specifically, Lei Feng gave freely of himself through assisting citizens who were in need by providing financial support, collecting books for children, and teaching those who did not have opportunity to study (Zhu 2006). Mao highly praised Lei’s selflessness and actively encouraged Chinese citizens to emulate Lei’s behavior (雷锋精神; Chong 2011). Thus, the term “yiwu laodong” (义务劳动) evolved into “xuexi Lei Feng” (学习雷锋), or learn from Lei Feng, and became widely used as an expression to suggest the nature of volunteering which included sacrifice, selflessness, helping others, and hard work. These characteristics exemplify the Lei Feng spirit that is embedded in Chinese traditional virtue and communist system in contemporary society (Palmer and Ning 2017; Peng 2007). However, some scholars have argued that Lei Feng spirit is different from volunteering as Lei Feng spirit is based on true altruism, whereas other volunteer activities are not (Wang and Lin 2003).

The first volunteer association in China was founded in Shenzhen in 1989 (Zhang 2016). The term “volunteer” was used to describe individuals who were active in helping residents in need (Palmer and Ning 2017). However, 2008 is noted as “Year Zero” of volunteering in China given the considerable amount of Chinese citizens who volunteered to help around the Wenchuan earthquake and also at the 2008 Beijing Olympic and Paralympic Games (Zhang 2016). The events have seen the change of volunteer activities being top-down government-led to more bottom-up and spontaneous (Wei and Cui 2011). Even though the meaning and activities of

volunteering have evolved, the core definition of volunteering in China still represents individuals who provide social services to aid society without receiving any extrinsic rewards (Li 2009). Wei (2006) suggests that volunteering in China includes activities such as community volunteering, environmental protection, event volunteering, animal protection, and overseas volunteer services.

There are multiple terms used to represent volunteers in China with differences between mainland China, Taiwan, and Hong Kong (Peng and Wang 2012). It has been suggested that some of these differences relate to the religious and political ecologies and the ruling ideologies (Laliberté 2015). For example, Taiwan's perception of volunteering is believed to be influenced by the cultural legacies from Japan's colonization of the country. Similarly, volunteering in Hong Kong is thought to be shaped by both Christian and British religious influences. By contrast, volunteering in mainland China is believed to be influenced by political authorities. These differences can also be seen in the words used to represent volunteering in each country. The word commonly used to describe "volunteers" in China is "Zhi yuan zhe" (志愿者). In Hong Kong "yi gong" (义工) is more commonly used, while in Taiwan the term is "zhi gong" (志工) (Peng and Wang 2012). However, "yi gong" (义工) translates to "obligatory worker." Thus, the word literally refers to people who feel obligated and responsible to devote their time, energy, and skill to promote social development through participating in social services (Xia 2007). In 1990, another term for volunteering in China emerged – "yiwu fuwu ren yuan" (义务服务人员) – based around Beijing's hosting of the Asian Games (Luo 2013). The 1990 Asian Games saw the mobilization of 200,000 registered and 200,000 unregistered volunteers directly from state-owned enterprise and universities with the majority being members of the Communist Youth League of China (Luo 2013).

## 7.2 Volunteer Workforce in China

The first report on volunteer service in China, the "Blue Book of Voluntary Service: Annual report on the development of voluntary services in China," was produced in November 2017 (China Volunteer Service Federation [CVF] 2017). The report suggests that there were 32.78 million registered volunteers in China at the end of 2016, representing 2.56% of the overall population of China (CVF 2017). Volunteering was particularly high in certain cities, such as Beijing (17.11%), Chongqing (15.2%), and Shanghai (10.85%). Students represent the largest population of volunteers (CVF 2017). Showing the rapid rise of volunteering in China, this figure rose to 42.42 million by June 2017 and then to 93.15 million by August 2018 (National Volunteer Information System n.d.). On average, individuals volunteered for 13.85 hours annually. However, Shanghai's population of registered volunteers contributed on average 65.79 hours. Concurrently, the number of volunteer organizations in China also increased – from 287,516 in 2016 to 479,004 in 2018 (National Volunteer Information System n.d.).

In addition to the high number of registered volunteers, it is estimated that the total number of registered and unregistered volunteers reached 134.8 million in 2016 – a figure representing 9.75% of the population (Zhai et al. 2016). Approximately one-third (32.3%) of those individuals aged over 18 volunteered for social services, such as poverty reduction and assisting with the elderly and disabled. Frequency of volunteering varies: 22.54% volunteer monthly, 12.22% volunteer weekly, and 1.88% volunteer daily. Over 40% of volunteers (42.11%) prefer to volunteer on the weekend. The most common activities that volunteers undertake are community service (60.01%), social assistance (53.99%), and environmental protection (49.76%). Table 7.1 provides an overview about the characteristics of the volunteer workforce in China.

There are now numerous organizations in China responsible for the promotion of volunteering, including China Volunteer Service Federation, Chinese Young Volunteers Association (linked to the Communist Youth League of China), China Literary and Art Volunteers' Association, and the China Poverty-Alleviation Promotion of Volunteer Service. Additionally, many volunteer service organizations operate at the provincial and regional level (CVF 2017). For example, the Communist Youth League of China recruits students through educational settings to participate in volunteer activities (Zhang 2016).

China has hosted several international events since the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. These included the 2010 Asian Games, the 2010 World Expo, the 2011 Summer Universiade, the 2014 Youth Olympic Games, and the 2016 G20 Summit. An overview of the number of volunteers that each event utilized can be seen in Table 7.2. Since these events adopted the Beijing Model of Volunteering (discussed in the next section), they demonstrated similarities in how volunteers were categorized, recruited, and managed (Zhang 2016).

**Table 7.1** China's volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in China
Population size	1.39 billion by 2017 <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	Mandarin
Volunteer rates (year)	2.56% registered volunteers and estimated 9.75% registered and unregistered by 2016
Existence of voluntary sport clubs	no
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	2008 Olympic and Paralympic Games; 2010 Asian Games; Expo 2010; 2011 Summer Universiade; 2014 Youth Olympic Games; 2016 G20
Sport volunteer rates	n.a.
The word for volunteering	Zhi yuan zhe (志愿者)
The meaning of the word	Individuals who provide social services without receiving any extrinsic rewards
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	1990 Asian Games in Beijing; 2008 Olympic and Paralympic Games in Beijing, the 2010 World Expo in Shanghai, and the 2010 Asian Games in Guangzhou, Wenchuan earthquake

Source: <sup>a</sup>National Bureau of Statistics of China (2018); <sup>b</sup>(Zhai et al. 2016)

**Table 7.2** The number of volunteers at recent large-scale events in China

Event	Host city	Number of volunteers	Volunteers' nickname	Venue volunteer applicant
2008 Olympic and Paralympic Games	Beijing	Olympic Game-time venue volunteer (77,169) Paralympic Game-time venue volunteer (44,261) City volunteer (400,000) Social volunteer (1,000,000) Cheering squad volunteer (20,000) <sup>a</sup>	Bird's Nest Generation (鸟巢一代)	1,125,799
2010 Asian Games	Guangzhou	Game-time venue volunteer (60,000) Paralympic game-time venue volunteer (25,000) Social volunteer (500,000) <sup>b</sup>	Green Goat (绿羊羊)	1,512,331(all kinds of volunteers)
Expo 2010	Shanghai	Venue volunteer (77,000) City volunteer (130,000) <sup>c</sup>	Little Cabbages (小白菜)	610,000
2011 Summer Universiade	Shenzhen	Venue volunteer (20,000) City volunteer (250,000) Social volunteer (1,000,000) <sup>d</sup>	Scallion (小青葱)	30,000
2014 Youth Olympic Games	Nanjing	Venue volunteer (18,551) <sup>e</sup>	Little Limes (小青柠)	103,000
2016 G20	Hangzhou	Venue volunteer (3,760) <sup>f</sup>	Little Lotus Leaf (小青荷)	26,266

Sources: <sup>a</sup>Wei (2010); <sup>b</sup>Guangzhou Asian Games Organizing Committee (2009); <sup>c</sup>Bureau of Affairs Coordination for Shanghai World Expo (2010); <sup>d</sup>Shenzhen 2011- The 26th Summer Universiade (n.d.); <sup>e</sup>NYOGOC (2014); <sup>f</sup>Million Volunteers Service G20 (2016)

### 7.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

In the context of sport, there are generally two types of volunteers in China: community sport volunteers and sport event volunteers (Chen 2010). Community sport volunteers are usually referred to by the term “gongyixing shehui tiyu zhidaoyuan” (公益性社会体育指导员) or voluntary sport instructors. Voluntary sport instructors provide services such as coaching and training, as well as administration of grassroots sport clubs (Ministry of Labor and Social Security 2011). In recent years, free coaching and training is often offered as part of a state-driven volunteering program in various communities, including Shanghai (Shanghai Sports Bureau 2015).

In comparison to sport event volunteering in China, volunteering for community sport is not a common practice. It is estimated that only two million individuals are voluntary sport instructors (Liu and Dai 2018). Minimal data exists on this volunteer segment. Thus, from a sport volunteer standpoint, sport volunteering is more episodic at events rather than continuous.

In 2008, the Year of Volunteering in China, 49 million individuals volunteered to assist with the Wenchuan earthquake. About 77,000 individuals volunteered at the Beijing Olympic Games, and just over 44,000 individuals volunteered at the Beijing Paralympic Games. During the Beijing Olympic Games, volunteers devoted over 200 million hours. Around the Games, there were also 400,000 city volunteers and over one million social volunteers and 20,000 cheer squad volunteers (Beijing Organizing Committee for the Olympic and Paralympic Games [BOCOG] 2010). These events provided a potential impetus for further volunteering in China given the recognition and high praise from the government (Luo and Huang 2013). It is believed that the heightened attention bestowed to volunteering not only led to an increase in event volunteering but also bolstered the status of volunteering in Chinese society (Wei and Cui 2011).

The Beijing Model of Volunteering refers to the volunteer management and operational mechanisms of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, which integrated China's ideological system, organizational system, operational system, and activity system (Wei 2010). While the call for volunteers was open to the entire population, the venue volunteer workforce for each event was dominated by university students (e.g., 83.43% for the Olympic Games). Likewise, city volunteers, who were stationed around the Olympic venues and other key city locations, were mostly recruited through local high schools and the Communist Youth League of China (Wei 2010). Social volunteers, who created harmonious and courteous spaces around key city locations, mainly consisted of retired or unemployed citizens (Wei 2010). The docking system to recruit venue volunteers, where one university acted as the provider of the majority of volunteers for one or more Olympic venues, was effective and easily managed by BOCOG (Zhuang and Girginov 2012).

While it was widely suggested and claimed that Beijing would capitalize on the volunteer system developed for the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games (BOCOG 2010), there has been limited evidence of an increase in continuous volunteering since the event (Wei 2010). Lu, Liu, and Li (2012) published a review article that suggests academic interest in Chinese volunteering in sports began in 2002 as a result of Beijing being awarded the 2008 Olympic Games. They found 223 articles on event volunteering in China between 2002 and 2011. However, they suggest that there is a lack of depth or systematic research direction in the literature. Since the event, research on sport volunteering in China has suggested that volunteering at the Olympic Games fostered social networking, enhanced graduate employability, and increased the understanding of volunteering in Chinese society (Zhuang 2010). In addition to an increase in volunteering in China, there has been an increase in Chinese nationals who volunteer at events abroad (Yang 2015). For example, many Chinese volunteers joined the taskforce at the 2016 Rio Olympic and Paralympic Games ("Selection process underway", 2014), making China the 4th largest volunteer source country for the event.

## 7.4 Volunteering, State, and Society

The view of charitable behavior and the perception of volunteering in China have changed over time given the evolution of political structures, social development, and social norms (Shen 2009). The recent prominence of volunteering in China is seen as a top-down initiative of the state (Chong 2011). The government's active promotion of the activity has seen a shift from volunteering as a form of compulsory service to a respected position (Chong 2011). Indeed, traditional Chinese cultural beliefs place the government as the primary provider of welfare as opposed to non-profit or charity organizations (Xu and Ngai 2011). Thus, three government departments, the Communist Party Youth League, the Ministry of Civil Affairs, and the Office of Spiritual Civilization, are believed to be primarily responsible for volunteering in the country.

While the first legislation relating to the management of volunteers was developed in Guangdong province in 1999, the first national legal framework has only recently been launched. China's regulation on volunteer service was passed in the State Council executive meeting on June 7, 2017, and took effect in December 2017. The regulation is a guideline for organizations that use volunteers, detailing rules and legislation for engaging volunteers. The regulation signifies capital support for volunteer groups (Ding and Luo 2017). The purpose of the framework is "to develop the field of volunteer service and carry forward the volunteer spirit of dedication, brotherly love, mutual aid and improvement, to regulate volunteer service and protect the lawful rights and interests of volunteers, volunteer service organizations, and the recipients of volunteer service, and to advance the progress of civilization" (China State Council 2017, p.1). Article 3 of China's regulation on volunteer services specifically defines volunteer activities as those that benefit other people or social groups for no financial gain (China State Council 2017). Article 19 further suggests that volunteer service organizations must provide certain work conditions to volunteers which take into account safety and protect their legal rights and interests, including personal injury insurance (China State Council 2017). In most cases, volunteers receive no remuneration. However, volunteers may have their costs reimbursed at the discretion of the organization.

As China makes a transition from a planned economy to a market economy (Cheng and Foley 2018), the conventional meanings attached to volunteering could change (Hsu and Huang 2016). For many young Chinese, volunteering may act as a catalyst for change, given individuals use volunteering as a pathway to achieve higher-level goals. Having a nuanced understanding of the interplay between traditional and modern values, therefore, will help establish a volunteering system that better addresses volunteers' needs.

Large-scale events in China have also had a major impact on volunteering in the country (Wei and Cui 2011; Zhuang 2010). For example, the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, the 2010 World Expo in Shanghai, the 2010 Asian Games in Guangzhou, and the Hangzhou G20 in 2016 have all raised the profile of volunteering in the

country. Specifically, these events have both required a large number of volunteers and, perhaps, enhanced the perception of volunteering.

Despite the growth and progress of volunteering in China, development of volunteering is still in its infancy and has room for improvement (Wei 2010). In particular, the recruitment and management of volunteers needs to keep up with the laws and regulations. The Chinese Government has a strong influence on volunteering in the country (Hustinx et al. 2012). For example, Halsall, Cook, and Wankhade (2016) suggest the dominant Chinese Communist Party reinforces the Confucian value of fostering a harmonious society, which is the main civil value for volunteers. Similarly, Cai (2010) suggests that the socialist value of volunteering is endowed with political meaning, which, in turn, has influenced the practice of volunteering. Further, the collectivist culture of China, which respects authority (Hsu 1985), could also contribute to the government's influence on society. This is evidenced in the top-down intervention of the government that has largely shaped the current landscape of volunteering in China (Tan 2016).

## 7.5 Conclusion

Volunteering in China has evolved over time. Political and cultural reform, together with influence from the West, has continued to shape the meaning and essence of contemporary volunteering. Underlying the activity is a motivation to help others but also an inspiration to provide collective good. Through volunteering, individuals expect to have benefits such as social networking and self-development, as demonstrated by some preliminary, albeit limited, studies on volunteering in China. Given the significance of the volunteer workforce and volunteers' extensive involvement in various types of activities, volunteering policies and strategies in China require further attention from researchers and practitioners. The legacies of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, as well as several large-scale events that followed, could provide a framework to inform subsequent development in the sport volunteering context. It is also worthwhile to consider leveraging the top-down government-led initiatives while facilitating bottom-up approaches, in order to increase the dispersion of volunteers and volunteering activities. A better understanding of the mechanisms for volunteer recruitment, management, and retention is needed to turn the transient sport event volunteers into continuous volunteering.

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# Chapter 8

## Finland



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**Abstract** The voluntary sports sector is the core of the sports system in Finland. Typically sports volunteers are coaches and active parents in sports clubs or volunteers in sports events. The importance of nonprofit sports clubs dates back to the mid-1800s when the first sports clubs were founded in Finland. The foundation of the strong voluntary civic sector stems from the historical background in which sports club formation was closely connected to temperance, labor, and youth movements of the independence seeking society. Nowadays there are nearly 10,000 sports clubs, most of them nonprofit registered associations, and hundreds of sports events organized annually in which an estimated half a million Finns work voluntarily. The future challenges of sports volunteering in Finland relate to the demographic changes and economic fluctuations of the society and individualistic motives of the citizens.

### 8.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

In Finland, the sports system consists of three major elements: first, voluntarism in sports clubs and sports events; second the public sector subsidizing municipalities for sports; and third, the private sector providing commercial sports activities in the profit-making market and thus offering sports-related business opportunities and enhancing professional sports (Laine and Vehmas 2017a).

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The voluntary sector has been the most important sector of the Finnish sports system since the organization of modern sports in the country. Even though the significance of voluntarism has changed over the years, Finnish amateur sports continue to rely upon voluntary civic activities. If the number of hours worked by volunteers in sports organizations were multiplied by the average hourly fee for employees according to the national accounts, the imputed value of unpaid work in 2010 was approximately 1.16 billion EUR (Lith 2013). In 2010 Finland's GDP (Gross Domestic Product) was 180 billion EUR at current prices (Laine 2017; Statistics Finland 2011).

The history of civic society in Finland dates back to the late 1800s. The formation of the civic society was rapid during the late 1800s and the early 1900s when a number of regional and local departments were established in the country. The early days of the voluntary work organizations, including sports clubs, were often related to politics, mostly at the local communal level. Traditionally, there has been a strong organizational structure based on associations in Finland. The role of the third sector is to act as an extension to the public sector. Although the third sector is not as related to politics as before, parties still have a strong organizational standing. A key feature in the Finnish civic society is differentiation, and mixed associations widely promote issues that they find important. Even today, sports clubs are among the most central organizations in the civic society in Finland (Itkonen 2000; Koski et al. 2015).

There are more than 10,000 sports clubs and 130 sports federations and other national sports organizations in Finland. Most of the Finnish sports clubs (ca. 95%) are registered nonprofit associations. Nevertheless, it is somewhat interesting that most Finns – the adult population especially – engage in physical activities self-sufficiently and independently (Koski 2013; Vehmas and Ilmanen 2013).

Volunteering can be defined as activity or work that is conducted for the benefit of a single individual or a community without monetary compensation or salary. In the Finnish language, the word *vapaaehtoinen* translates to something that is “free of conditions.” Thus, voluntary work is based on free will and it is not compulsory. Duties and responsibilities – for example, for family – are not defined as voluntary work. Voluntary work and activities are done with the knowledge and skills of common people and are done so with free will (e.g., Nylund and Young 2005).

The general principles of volunteering often include equality, reciprocity, non-pay, nonprofessionalism (amateurism), reliability, and commitment. Confidentiality, secrecy, tolerance, neutrality, cooperation, and joy of the activity are also principles that are often associated with voluntarism. Voluntary work needs to happen on the conditions of those that are helped and assisted, and it should give possibilities to grow as a person (e.g., Karreinen et al. 2010).

The concept of volunteering embraces different kinds of activities in varying degrees and sectors of society. According to Lehtinen (1997), voluntary work is a process that makes people reform together their quality of life and overcome difficulties. In addition to the possibility to help and improve via voluntary work, an individual may achieve a better quality of life and platforms for a societal influence and experiences of activities that are meaningful (Hämäläinen 2016; Lehtinen 1997; Mykkänen-Hänninen 2007).

Volunteering in sports is a visible part of the civic sector in Finland. Sports clubs have been traditionally classified as organizations whose activities and operations are based on voluntary work. However, when looking more closely at sports clubs, one can argue whether volunteering is the best concept to describe the activities that are conducted in the clubs. Studies and every day experiences indicate that sports club activities could be also defined as quasi-voluntarism, especially when moving further away from the very core activities of the actors. Therefore, civic activity is a better concept to describe voluntarism in sports.

The core meaning of voluntary work stems from the idea of unpaid (moneyless) work. There is indeed a relatively low number of paid staff in sports clubs. Nowadays, however, coaches and instructors often receive some level of monetary compensation for their work in sports clubs, at least so that their expenses, for example, for traveling, are remunerated (Heikkala 2009; Koski 2000).

Sports volunteering can be defined by the different volunteering roles. According to Unruh (1979), people attach to different social worlds as strangers, tourists, regulars, or insiders, based on their commitment to the voluntary activity (Unruh 1979). Of the different sports participant types in Finland, competition and recreational athletes seem to most often volunteer in sports clubs. Typical roles of the volunteers in sports clubs are “jacks of all trades,” who work in maintenance, supporters, officials, and marketing personnel in sports events, chauffeurs, instructors, trainers, fund-raisers, couches, administrators, and referees and judges (National Sport Survey 2010).

## 8.2 Volunteer Workforce in Finland

Volunteering in general has an important role in people’s lives in Finland (see Table 8.1). Finns spend an average of 18 hours per month in voluntary work, which is more than four hours per week on average. More than a third of the population has volunteered in an association, movement, or political party at some point in their life. However, there is still a greater number of Finns who have never volunteered (Hämäläinen 2016; Karreinen et al. 2010).

There are approximately 20,000 sports clubs in Finland, of which some 10,000 clubs are actively functioning. Nearly 90% of Finnish children have at least tried out the services of sports clubs before the age of 18 (Koski 2013). According to Mononen, Blomqvist, Koski, and Kokko (2016), 62% of Finnish children and youth (9-15 years) participate in sports club activities. An estimate of 500,000 adults annually use the services of sports clubs and federations. Sports clubs are mainly nonprofit, with ownership being cooperatively based on membership (Vehmas and Ilmanen 2013).

The Finnish sports system has undergone some major changes during the last few years. Nowadays, most sports clubs belong to sports-specific domain organizations that connect them to the central organization of the National Olympic Committee. Municipalities support sports clubs directly through subsidies and indirectly by

**Table 8.1** Finland's volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in Finland
Population size	5.5 million <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	Finnish, Swedish, and Sami
Volunteer rates (year)	25%
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	yes
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	See Table 8.2
Sports volunteer rates	11% (over 15 years)
The word for volunteering	<i>Vapaaehtoinen</i>
The meaning of the word	Volunteer (to do something with free will without preconditions)
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	For example, Neste Rally of Finland

Sources: <sup>a</sup>Statistics Finland (2011); European Commission (2018)

offering inexpensive sports facilities. The role of the state is to steer and subsidize activities on a national level and to create favorable conditions for sports and physical activity (Vehmas and Ilmanen 2017).

Alongside some other European countries (e.g., Belgium, Germany, and the Netherlands), Finland has historically and traditionally had a strong nonprofit voluntary sports sector, which has had implications for how other sports sectors have developed. In Finland the promotion of sports and physical activity has been part of the Nordic model of welfare. Sports participation possibilities of the different population groupings have been an important aim of the sports policy in which, for example, both men and women should have equal opportunities in sports, from recreational to professional levels (Laine and Vehmas 2017b).

Despite the widely recognized significance of the voluntary sports sector in Finland, there is a scarcity of adequate statistics and other quantitative knowledge about the work force in sports clubs and sports events. Different sources keep records especially about the sports participation rates of club members, but usually this knowledge is scattered. The available statistics about voluntary work in Finnish sports clubs during the 2000s include the National Sport Survey (2010), the Young People's Leisure Study (Berg and Myllyniemi 2013), and the Eurobarometer (European Commission 2014, 2018; Lehtonen and Hakonen 2013).

According to the National Sport Survey carried out in 2009-2010 in Finland, voluntarism interests people. There were over 500,000 Finns aged 19-65 engaged in voluntary work in sports in various tasks. The number has increased in 10 years by over 100,000 persons. The time spent in sports volunteering was 11 hours per month. Football was the most common sport where people volunteer followed by ice hockey and track and field. Even though the number of paid workers in sports organizations is increasing, volunteers are still needed (Ministry of Education and Culture 2017).

According to the 2013 Eurobarometer (European Commission 2014), the number of Finns doing voluntary work in sports has decreased. The share of citizens aged 15 years and older doing voluntary work in sports was 17% in 2009 and 13% five years later. Most people (42%) do voluntary work only occasionally – for example, at sports events. Comparably, 29% volunteered 1-5 hours per month, 19% 6-20 hours, and 9% more than 21 hours per month. However, this also includes other voluntary work around sports, not only in sports clubs (European Commission 2014). During the first decade of the 2000s, 15% of Finnish men and 10% of Finnish women took part in voluntary work at sports clubs (Lehtonen and Hakonen 2013).

According to the latest Eurobarometer (European Commission 2018), the share of Finnish citizens aged 15 years and older doing voluntary work is now 11%, which is 2% less than in 2013. It seems that there is still great variety in how much time people spend on voluntary work; for example, 34% of people do voluntary work only occasionally at individual events. This “event volunteering” has decreased the most (by 8%). The proportion of people who do voluntary work from one to five hours per month is 30%, from six to 20 hours 24%, and more than 20 hours 11% (European Commission 2018).

According to the latest Eurobarometer (European Commission 2018), the most common type of voluntary work is organizing or helping at a sporting event (44%), and this of course correlates to time that is used for voluntary work. The second most common type of volunteering is transportation (33%), the third coaching (30%), after which is being a member of board or committee (24%). The next four most common types of volunteering are supporting day-to-day activities (21%), administrative tasks (20%), maintaining sports facilities (18%), acting as a referee or in other official tasks (15%), and maintaining sport equipment (4%; European Commission 2018).

The voluntary situation has been approached also from the sports clubs’ point of view. A study about sports clubs in Finland has been conducted every tenth year. The first data were collected in 1986 and the most recent data are from 2016. During that time, the requirements of the club activities have increased, and thus both the quality and quantity expectations for the voluntary activities have grown (Koski and Mäenpää 2018).

Regarding different roles and commitment levels in sports clubs, it appears that the number of very active volunteers had clearly increased. The number of those volunteers who were less active but participated at least once a month had also increased, although not by as much as the number of active volunteers. Although there are evidently more voluntary workers in sports clubs than ever, the most common problems still concern voluntary potential (Koski 2012).

The study also included estimates and considerations about the voluntary work. Approximately half of the clubs estimated that the number of volunteers had decreased, and approximately a quarter estimated that the number of volunteers had increased. Half of the clubs also saw that commitment to volunteering had become more project-based. Some 15% of the clubs thought that commitment was more persevering than before, and 45% saw that volunteers were more active than before. Ten years earlier the same figure had been approximately 33%. The biggest change



regarding the evaluations of the volunteers dealt with know-how. According to approximately 60% of the sports clubs, know-how of the volunteers had increased (Koski and Mäenpää 2018).

### 8.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

There are hundreds of sports events in Finland every year, and many of them can be considered as major sports events (see Table 8.2). The type of volunteering varies in these events. When the most common type of voluntary work is to help to organize events (45%), only 5% help to maintain sports facilities, 27% do voluntary work by providing transportation, and 22% are coaches or support in day-to-day activities (European Commission 2014). It seems that the type of voluntary work correlates with the time spent on voluntary work, meaning that momentariness and the sporadic nature of volunteering today seem to be a trend in sports.

At the beginning of the 2000s, 5% of the volunteers were very active, mostly (60%) men aged 30-45 years. The inclination to do voluntary work seems to be associated with the sports club participation of one's own children. In 2000, only some 27% of the most active volunteers did not have their own children, and these were usually young single men. At that time, approximately 37% of the Finnish adults had children, but the same share of those who were active sports volunteers was 57%. Typically, volunteering parents had two children between 10 and 15 years of age (Koski 2000).

The National Sport Survey and lifestyle studies also suggest that volunteers are typically highly educated and in good positions at work. Managers and upper clerical workers seem to be overrepresented. Active volunteers seem to value diligence, societal activeness, high status, and self-development. On the contrary, they disregarded idleness and lack of principles (Koski 2000). Voluntary work in sports clubs is also associated with social activeness in general. Social networks and circle of friends are broader than with Finnish people in average (Koski 2009).

According to Berg and Myllyniemi (2013), approximately 65% of the parents whose children participate in the sports clubs were involved in club activities almost daily. Parents with higher economic status do more voluntary work in sports clubs than those with lower incomes. The most active parents are the ones with children aged 10-14 years. The most common way to volunteer is by taking part in fundraising which involves 15% of the parents. Nine percent of the parents work as officials and 8% as coaches. Four percent of the parents work voluntarily as team leaders or in the boards of the clubs (Berg and Myllyniemi 2013).

Of the 10-29-year-old children and youth, 18% have done voluntary work in sports at some times during the past year. Comparably, the amount of voluntary work increases when children and youth themselves exercise or play sports in the sports club. Of those who exercise at least once a week in sports clubs, 30% also work as a volunteer in the club. The most common forms of voluntary work are to take part in fundraising (9%) and coaching (9%; Berg and Myllyniemi 2013).

**Table 8.2** Major sports events in Finland 2009–2017

Sport	Year	Duration (days)	Level	Amount of volunteer	Spectators (sold tickets)	Athletes (M/W)	Competing nations
Figure skating <sup>a</sup>	2017	5	WC	450	69,000	193	36
Nordic skiing <sup>b</sup>	2017	12	WC	3,100	180,000	663 (423/240)	60
Basketball <sup>c</sup>	2017	7	EC	420	75,000	72 (6 teams)	6
Gymnastics <sup>d</sup>	2015	7	World Gymnaestrada	3,120	78,000	21,000	50
Ice hockey <sup>e</sup>	2012	17	WC	800			
Track and field <sup>f</sup>	2012	6	EC	2,000			
Youth Olympic Festival <sup>g</sup>	2009	8	European Games	1,500		3,500	49
Rally	Annually	4	World Cup				
Orienteering <sup>h</sup>	Annually	2	Jukola Relay	1,500	15,000 <sup>i</sup>	15,000	20

Sources: <sup>a</sup>Figure Skating (2017); <sup>b</sup>Sports Marketing Intelligence (2017); <sup>c</sup>Tammivaara (2018); <sup>d</sup>Gymnastic: Gymnaestrada (2015); World Gymnaestrada is a gymnastic exhibition with no competition); <sup>e</sup>Heinonen and Vesanen (2012); <sup>f</sup>Rönkä (2012); <sup>g</sup>European Youth Games (2009); <sup>h</sup>Jukola (2018); Jukola Relay is an international relay competition for sports clubs and unofficial circle of friends and workmates); (There are no tickets and the approximate number of spectators includes, e.g., families, staff, and VIP; Source concerning Basketball; Tammivaara 2018)  
 Note: WC World Championships, EC European Championships

## 8.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

In many ways, a unique relationship between state and society in Finland has had an impact on how sports and physical culture has developed over the decades. Sports activities at the local level have been based on sports clubs and national sports associations are responsible for organizing elite sports in their own sport and develop commonly sport-specific cultures.

In Finland, as well as in other Nordic countries, the development of the voluntary sports movement is parallel with the development of the welfare state. Their roots are closely connected with the values of social equality (Andersen and Ronglan 2012). This means that the role of the state as a partner of the sports movement is based on the importance of the sports organizations' role in maintaining the welfare state (Norberg 2011; Bergsgard and Rommetvedt 2006).

The relationship between sports organizations and government is defined in the Sports Act, which was established in 1980. The state and its Ministry of Education and Culture are in charge of the general directing, developing, and reconciliation of the sports sector. Until 2014, the sports organizations' roles were central, because the Sports Act defined sports organizations as responsible for organizing sports and physical activity (2§, 1998/1054). This responsibility was obviated in a renewed Act that came into effect in 2015. However, national sports organizations are still entitled to have state subsidies (10§, 2015), and municipalities must create physical activity conditions for the inhabitants of the municipality by developing local and regional cooperation, constructing and maintaining sports infrastructure, and supporting sports clubs (5§; 2015).

Thus, the government, municipalities, sports federations, and local sports clubs are all involved in sports policy. The Sports Act (2015) outlines the overall aims of sports policy. The stated aim is to promote recreational, competitive, and elite sports and related civic activity. Sport is a means of enhancing the population's health and well-being and supporting children's and young people's growth and development. Other objectives laid down in the Act are equality and equity, tolerance, cultural diversity, and sustainable development of the environment. Under the Act, the Ministry of Education and Culture coordinates intergovernmental work within different ministries and provides subsidies for national sports federations and the infrastructures of municipalities. The municipalities take care of the facilities, maintenance, and subsidizing of local sports clubs. The federations and clubs are responsible for organizing sports for people. That is the basic idea of Finnish sports policy (Vehmas and Ilmanen 2017).

National sports organizations were subsidized for the first time at the beginning of the 1910s. Already then the financial basis of both national and local sports organizations was founded on the extensive health benefits and responsibility for taking care of the community responsibility (Vasara 2004).

The state sport budget is almost totally (99.5%) made up of National Lottery funds (Ministry of Education and Culture 2017). In 2015, one-quarter of the sports

subsidies were directed to the civic sector of sports, which in practice meant 123 national and regional sports organizations.

The state subsidies for the municipalities were 19 million EUR in 2015. The use of state subsidies varies because of the strong autonomy of municipalities. At the end of 2016, there were 313 municipalities in Finland (Kuntaliitto 2017), all of which could independently decide how to use the state subsidies. Because of this, subsidies are not granted to every municipality, or the clubs themselves do not apply for subsidy. According to Koski (2013), less than half of the sports clubs in the country – close to 4,700 sports clubs – received public support in the form of funding from their home municipalities. The state's subsidies for the municipalities are about 3% of the operational costs of the local sports sectors. In addition to the state subsidies, the municipalities allocate approximately 690 million EUR tax revenue to sports and PA every year that, for example, enables construction and maintenance of sports facilities and services that are directed to disabled body people and senior citizens (Ministry of Education and Culture 2017). In 2015, 28.5 million EUR were directed toward sports facilities construction, 19 million EUR to the sports institutes, and nearly 12 million EUR to elite sports. Subsidies for health-enhancing PA (8.8 million EUR) are mainly project subsidies to two national programs (School on the Move and Fit for Life) and individual projects implemented by sports organizations or other sporting organizations.

## 8.5 Conclusion

Despite the slightly decreasing number of sports volunteers shown in the latest Eurobarometer, volunteering still holds a key position in the organization of Finnish sports. The contribution of the coaches and parents in sports clubs and volunteers in sports events is vital for the activities and functioning of the physical culture. State subsidies to sports and the growing role of the commercial sports sector cannot alone provide the citizens with the easy access, good quality, and equally provided sports services if it was not for the volunteers in sports. Referring to the “life world” by Jürgen Habermas (1979), sports have traditionally been organized in Finland around the civic sector, whose activities follow the principles of communicative action. However, sports volunteering is facing challenges that can have an impact on how sports and physical activities are provided for in the future. Aging of the society, increasing individualization, and global economic fluctuations will all have an impact in the motives and preconditions of sports volunteering. The polarization trend is unfortunately becoming more and more evident in Finland by creating a gap between the well-off citizens and those who are becoming alienated. It is therefore crucially important that new forms of collaboration between the public, private, and voluntary sectors of sports are found in which volunteering in sports is still seen as a meaningful, enjoyable, and significant form of community act.

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# Chapter 9

## The Gambia



Pascal Mamudou Camara and Maximilian Seltmann

**Abstract** Volunteering in Gambian sports derives its inspiration from traditional voluntary practices embedded in the social fabric of a diverse society. Drawing from telephone interviews that were conducted with a volunteer (the Chairman of Secondary School Sports Association), a volunteer coordinator (the Media and Marketing Officer of the Gambia Football Federation), and data from an annual community football tournament “Super Nawettan,” the state of volunteering in organized sport in the Gambia was assessed. The study shows that organized sports depend largely on a diverse pool of voluntary workforce in the execution of community, national, and international sports events in the country. However, unfavorable working conditions, insufficient reward, and recognition for volunteer efforts are changing the perception and approach to volunteering in general. This has implications for organized sports in a small and developing country as it could potentially affect the development of local sports.

### 9.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

#### 9.1.1 *The Sport System of the Gambia*

The Gambia is a former British colony that gained its independence in 1965. With a population of 2 million, it has a Presidential Republic governmental system with the President being both the Head of State and Government. The executive powers are exercised by the government and legislative powers are exercised by both the government and parliament. The country has seven administrative regions, with the Capital Banjul and Kanifing Municipality being governed by “elected” mayors, while West Coast Region, Lower River Region, Central River Region, North Bank Region, and Upper River Region are headed by “appointed” governors (The Gambia Bureau of Statistics 2013; Constitution of the Republic of the Gambia 1997).

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The Ministry of Youth and Sports (MOYS) is the government arm responsible for sport. The Ministry is headed by a Minister who is assisted by a Permanent Secretary and two Deputy Permanent Secretaries, one of whom is entirely responsible for sports and related matters. Furthermore, a Directorate of Planning (DOP) is responsible for planning the ministry's development agenda. There are six satellite institutions under the DOP, of which the National Sports Council (NSC) is the institution entirely in charge of coordinating, supervising, and evaluating the implementation and impact of sports programs within the national sports policy framework (Ministry of Youth and Sports [MOYS] 2010).

At the regional level, each of the seven administrative regions has a Regional Sports Committee (RSC) headed by the elected Regional Sports Chairperson and assisted by elected district sports chairpersons. The secretariats of the Regional Sports Offices are headed by a sports coordinator who is also secretary to the RSC and assisted by others. The staff of the Regional Sports Offices is all staff of the Ministry and supervised by the DOP.

In the regulatory framework, the 1997 Constitution of the Gambia identified sports under the social objectives of government and states that: "The State shall endeavor to ensure that adequate sports facilities are established throughout the Gambia and that sports are promoted as a means of fostering national integration, health and self-discipline and international friendship and understanding" (Constitution of the Republic of the Gambia 1997). Generally, the National Sports Council Act 2000 and a ten-year National Sports Policy Act serve as the blueprint for sports development.

In the private sector, the Gambian National Olympic Committee recognizes 24 national sports associations contrary to NSC's 15 recognized associations. Most of the sports organizations have regional and district structures such as in football and wrestling (The Standard 2015).

Most sport activities, with the exception of "May Day Sports" and "Sports for Health," which are organized by the NSC, are voluntary community-based initiatives. Football is the most popular sport in the country, and the most attractive football event is the summer community football tournaments locally called "Nawettan," derived from the Wolof word "Nawet" which means "rainy season." Young adolescents mobilize themselves or through the support of individuals within the community to form a Nawettan team that plays in their respective zone, all voluntarily organized. Each zone, as recognized by the Gambian Football federation, then forms and presents a team for the "Super Nawettan championship," the conclusion of which heralds the commencement of the respective national football leagues (The Point 2017).

Sports in the school system is mainly organized by the Primary School Sports Association and the Secondary School Sports Association. The former organizes an annual national athletics championship on Independence Day, while the latter hosts the most attended athletics championship in the country called the "Interschools." The seven regions are further categorized into four regions which host the heats before the qualified schools meet at the national stadium for a three-day final of the event. Though athletics stand out among the programs of the school sports



associations, they also organize national championships in other sports disciplines, prominent among them, football, volleyball, basketball, and chess. All events of both associations are organized and implemented by physical education teachers and other teachers in the school system on voluntary basis (Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education [MoBSE] 2016; Ceesay 2018).

Among the most outstanding recent international achievements attained in sport are the 2005 and 2009 African U-17 Football Champions on home soil and in Algeria, silver medal in Judo in the All Africa Games, Brazzaville, 2015, and gold and silver medals in Athletics at the Islamic Solidarity Games, Baku, 2017 (Camara 2013). Other than the national stadium, state-constructed facilities are mainly mini-stadiums in the regional capitals, and “community centers” in most of the towns, with the other available facilities being predominantly community initiatives or school-owned facilities.

Although the government specifies its responsibilities, as stipulated in the Constitution and Sports Council Act 2000, to take up its role in the provision and delivery of sports facilities, programs, and projects, its input has been minimal. Most of the significant and evident initiatives have been voluntary through community initiatives and sports organizations’ programs.

### 9.1.2 The Term “Volunteering”

Due to its history as a British colony, English is the official language in the Gambia. The three most spoken native languages are Mandinka, Fula, and Wolof; however, they are not official languages nor are they taught at school (The Gambia Bureau of Statistics 2013). In the Wolof language, the term *wa keelu defal* best describes the English term volunteering. The term derives from the verb *waakirlu* (to volunteer) and basically implies a moral or spiritual duty to society. The *warugal* which means duty requires that a person does work to support others without getting paid for it as a reciprocal action toward the society. This origin of volunteering already sheds light on the deep roots of voluntary work in the Gambian society. Article 7 of the “Cultural Charter for Africa” states that “the driving force of Africa is based more on development of the collective personality than on individual advancement and profit” (Organisation of African Unity 1976). Generally African society is traditionally interpreted as a communitarian society (Gyekye 2011). This collective and communitarian interpretation of culture and society explains the origins of volunteering. What is true for the entire west African region (Schramm 1974) also holds true for the Gambia: helping out and volunteering are an essential part of the life of each individual and the collective with the reward mostly associated with divine intervention. Phrases such as *Def te Yallah tah* which literally translates as “Done for the sake of God” are usually associated with the execution of voluntary activities in the society.

Help, therefore, is offered openly and intuitively without the expectation for remuneration. Typical examples could range from the formal organizational

character of volunteering such as when youth of a village decide to mobilize themselves to help out an older family on the farm against a surging weed or the individualized character of dishing dinner for a guest from afar who is hosted in a different home. To some extent, *waakirlu* could also be associated with a similar term *jaapaleh* (to assist) where the volunteer could be compensated for the assistance being rendered.

## 9.2 Volunteer Workforce in the Gambia

In contrast to other countries on the African continent, the Gambia does not have a concrete policy dedicated to defining, steering, and regulating volunteering in the country (Graham et al. 2013). As a result, national statistics of voluntary involvement are not available (cf. Table 9.1).

## 9.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

Arising from the lack of data on volunteering in general and in sports specifically, this chapter builds upon the insights of two in-depth interviews with sports officials from the Gambia. The first interview partner is the Publicity and Marketing Officer of the Gambian Football Federation (GFF). The second interview was conducted with the Chairman of Secondary School Sports, who also initiated Special Olympics in the Gambia and has held many different high-ranking voluntary positions in sports. Both interviewees have a longstanding record of personal voluntary involvement in the Gambia and administer volunteering for their respective sports organizations.

**Table 9.1** The Gambia's volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in the Gambia
Population size	2,038,501
Official languages	English
Volunteer rates (year)	n.a.
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	yes
List of large-scale events hosted in last 10 years	None, last mega event hosted was the African U-17 Championship in 2005
Sports volunteer rates	n.a.
The word for volunteering	Waakirlu/walanteeru
The meaning of the word	Spiritual or moral duty to society
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	Increasing popularity of Super Nawettan

Source: The Gambia Bureau of Statistics (2013); The Point (2014)

### ***9.3.1 Involvement of Volunteers and Scope of Volunteering***

Both interviews provide a deeper look into the sports system of the Gambia and reveal that the system relies on volunteering to a large extent. For instance, Interviewee 2 mentioned:

“All that happens here is the Ministry of Youth and Sports and the National Sports Council that have paid staff and yes some members of the Gambia Football Federation [...]”

Therefore, all other federations and sports organizations like the Secondary School Sports fully depend upon people who volunteer. Volunteers in the Gambia can, generally speaking, be understood as “people who come and help us” (Interviewee 1). Decisive for the understanding of volunteers are two aspects: While the involvement of volunteers differs among the interviewees, both agree upon the basic definition of a volunteer as someone who does not receive a salary or monetary remuneration for the task he or she carries out and is not “fully fledged staff” (Interviewee 1). The differences shed light on the degree of professionalization of the organizations that the interview partners represent.

As stated above, the GFF employs paid staff, that is a Secretary General, a Publicity and Marketing Officer, and so on. However, Interviewee 1 reveals that:

“[T]he number of staff cannot do it all. And, therefore, we need some people to come and volunteer and help us fulfill some of these duties because in order to have a successful logistical arrangement and having a successful conduct of whatever engagement you are on, you need to have all the logistics put in place. And since human resources are always a problem, we need people outside the sphere of the football secretariat to also come – who have experience – to come and help us carrying out this logistic.”

Furthermore, the quote sheds light on the scope and tasks carried out by volunteers for the GFF. Voluntary engagement is mostly required for events of the federation rather than for taking official positions. Events and programs that depend upon volunteers are international home matches of the national team at the Independence Stadium or the so-called FIFA Live Your Goals Girls’ Festival that connects 700 to 1,000 girls with the sport of football on an annual basis. At large events, predominantly the matches of the national team, the tasks conducted by volunteers include the support of departments “all across the spectrum” (e.g., the media, technical, or protocol department; Interviewee 1).

On a regular basis, volunteers are also needed to ensure the logistics of domestic leagues as referees or “match commissioners” (Interviewee 1). Arguably, the largest involvement of volunteers is found in the annual Super Nawettan season. Since this community-based tournament takes place throughout the entire country, the capacities of employed staff cannot fulfill the duties connected to it. Arising from the need for volunteers as well as from the popularity of the event, the Super Nawettan “attracts A LOT of volunteers” (Interviewee 1). For each of the 14 zones, two representatives are appointed to ensure a successful implementation of the event. Those representatives carry out their duties on a voluntary basis. The representatives are

mainly chosen by each community individually and hence are oftentimes “opinion leaders in their zones or regions” (Interviewee 1). According to the involvement, responsibilities and success of a regional representative, some also move to the national Super Nawettan Committee to assist its implementation.

Hence, despite a professional structure of the federation’s management with paid staff, the scope of volunteering in the GFF ranges from one-off volunteers at bigger sports events to positions with a high degree of responsibility. Interviewee 1 concludes that:

“[I]t is a significant number of volunteers [who] are employed, who are engaged by GFF. But that doesn’t naturally mean that we depend entirely on volunteers. To some extent, we only choose few volunteers, depending on the amount of work we have.”

As a nationwide sporting event, the Super Nawettan requires a large number of volunteers. According to GFF’s volunteer data, 49 people supported the conduct of the Super Nawettan on a regular basis in 2017/2018. Of these 49 volunteers, 19 (38.8%) were female. A vast majority of professions was represented in the sample: 14 volunteers are employed police staff, nine own their own business, and four work as security personnel. There were also a teacher, a coach, firemen, and students engaged in voluntary work at the Super Nawettan. While these data are not meant to depict the entirety of sports volunteering in the Gambia, it provides insight into the operations of the most relevant case of sports volunteering in the country.

In contrast to the professional structures of GFF, Interviewee 2 states that “actually everything is voluntary for us” and no paid positions exist for his involvement in the Secondary School Sports and the Special Olympics. It was clearly pointed out that the development of sports in the Gambia relies on a number of “pioneers” (Interviewee 2) in which the interests of the volunteers are decisive for their involvement. Interviewee 2 indicated that he spends approximately six hours per day volunteering in sports. Being a secondary school teacher, his personal involvement includes athletic training for students of his schools and administrative duties as a Chairman of Secondary School Sports Association.

With regard to secondary school sports, most volunteers are teachers who teach youngsters in all kinds of sports. The teachers do not necessarily have to have a professional sports background as PE teachers are sports volunteers in the school context.

### ***9.3.2 Remuneration and Volunteer Motivation***

Mere love for a sport, “pioneering,” and leaving behind a “legacy” are some of the main motivating factors for volunteering in sports in the Gambia. For Interviewee 2, his many years of service in Gambian sports seem to be these motivating factors:

“Actually, everything is voluntary for us, just as the chairman of secondary school sports something is given to me as communication allowances to make calls

and cover other administrative cost but there is nothing like a basic salary or consultancy fee, I get my salary from the school as a teacher, that's all there is."

Interviewee 1 supports that notion and explains that for "[m]ost of the times what volunteers do is because of the passion they have for that particular engagement or sports". However, younger volunteers have more motives such as gaining more experience, an understanding of the operations of the sport system, and job opportunities among others. Contrary to Interviewee 2, who is much older, Interviewee 1 was engaged as a volunteer to have an understanding "of how football and international matches are operated and how the media, the protocol department have to operate and their linkages, the links that they have with one another".

On the possible remuneration for volunteering in the Gambia, sports volunteers in the West African nation share many common features with other forms of remuneration for sports volunteers in other parts of the world which could range from nothing to a stipend or low pay (Nichols 2017). In the case of the Secondary School Sports Association, keeping them alive to perform their assigned duties is one of the most important things. The chairman of the Secondary School Sports Association who is also Interviewee 2 confirmed their financial situation does not allow them to mostly remunerate their volunteers but:

"We only compensate them with refreshment and food, that's all we have and what we can provide because we don't have sponsorship and basically that's what we do and give our time to the athletes".

As the main volunteer coordinator at the GFF, it has now become more evident to Interviewee 1 that sports volunteering in the Gambia "is not easy" as the volunteers are only given "logistic gadgets" (e.g., t-shirts, accreditation cards) and some transport refunds as remuneration and are granted free entrance to the sports venue. Hence, extrinsic rewards for voluntary engagement must be considered fairly insignificant in motivating people to volunteer.

### 9.3.3 Challenges

While the altruistic value of volunteering embedded within the social structure still seems to be the motivating factor for many volunteers, the market-oriented conception of organized sports is changing the perception about volunteers and volunteering in general. Volunteering for a possible fixed position in an organization is perceived as merely marketing one's capacities to officially perform the function. Interviewee 1 confirmed this when he volunteered for the position he now holds: "People were not seeing us as working for the federation. They think most of us were interested in becoming media officers for the football federation or they were not taking us to be so serious with what we were doing."

Another inherent challenge for sports volunteering in the Gambia is the lack of time that is directly associated with the lack of financial motivation for volunteers as they mostly do away with a meager "transport refund" as compensation for their time. The weak economy of the country and subsequently the sports organizations

seemed to be well understood by the volunteers because “as the atmosphere is now, it is not conducive for that kind of remuneration” and generally as the term implies, volunteers “at the end of the day don’t expect to have any monetary gains out of it”.

Notwithstanding the perceived understanding of the inherent challenges of the country and the sport system, Interviewee 2 believes that there are challenges of volunteering that could be addressed but are being neglected:

“[...] the reward, it’s very rare for a volunteer to be recognized in this country. Since my childhood, I have not seen any volunteer who is hailed to a higher level compared to a champion who has won a medal or trophy. A volunteer is a very important pillar having sacrificed time for the victorious athlete.”

Looking at the importance of volunteers to the development of Gambian sports as people who sacrifice their “time with their family” or “other work” opportunities, institutions that recruits volunteers “should recognize and reward them appropriately.” The unfavorable working condition in some instances is another of the problems sports volunteers in the Gambia are faced with as highlighted by Interviewee 2: “They lack the equipment and means, they just call them, they go and give the service and that’s how it works around here.”

#### **9.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society**

As pointed out above, the Gambia does not have a concrete policy dedicated to defining, steering, and regulating volunteering in the country (Graham et al. 2013). In addition, the conducted expert interviews do not provide any points of reference for government involvement in the steering and administration of sports volunteering. Yet, the Gambian constitution promotes sports as a means of integration, health, friendship, and understanding (Constitution of the Republic of the Gambia 1997). As outlined in Sect. 9.1.1, there are numerous community and school initiatives that facilitate sport opportunities and thereby offer volunteering opportunities (The Point 2017; Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education [MoBSE] 2016; Ceesay 2018). Together with the insight provided by the interviews, this leads to the conclusion that volunteering in the Gambia is left to civil society and has experienced changes due to the ongoing commercialization and professionalization in football, while the state does not interfere with it in any way.

#### **9.5 Conclusion**

Sports in the Gambia is built on voluntary engagement to a very large extent. The two conducted interviews that inform the analysis of this chapter point out that the organizational degree of sports is small. There is a lack of professional sports organizations employing personnel in the sports sector. Hence, volunteering plays a

central role in providing sporting activities. Even in football, where professionalization has taken place, volunteering is still required to ensure the successful logistics of large events like the matches of the national team. The notion, however, remains the same: active sporting engagement – even in football as visible in the organization of the Super Nawettan – is impossible without the involvement of volunteers.

It seems as if for the development of all other sports that are less commercialized, key individuals who are highly motivated play the decisive role in voluntarily promoting and establishing sports in the country. Interviewee 2 is a good example in this regard.

The roots for the vast engagement in volunteering are traditionally found in the African culture. Volunteering in the Gambia is historically linked to the social fabric and the culture and has increased in importance with the development of the domestic “Super Nawettan” league. Yet, the interviews depict a change in both voluntary involvement and motivation for it. Especially young people today tend to relate to volunteering more critically and want to gain personal benefit out of it in terms of monetary remuneration or future career perspectives. The lack of recognition of volunteers by employed staff and by the government, as well as missing incentives for volunteering, are further challenges that might endanger the conduct of sporting activity in the country in the future.

Despite the important role of volunteering in the country, the government has so far not considered the policy field and does not administer it in a way that would provide data on the voluntary workforce.

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# Chapter 10

## Germany



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**Abstract** Volunteering has a long tradition in Germany and is an important part of civil society and German culture. Historically, volunteering appeared in the social context as an act of helping others. As such, volunteering was, and still is, understood as an honorable position which is typically undertaken without any form of monetary remuneration or only a small remuneration in the form of a lump-sum or indirect benefits like tax reductions. In sports, volunteering plays an important role. There are different forms of volunteering. One form is volunteering in nonprofit sports clubs in a fixed position on the voluntary board. Such a position is reached through democratic elections of club members. This form of volunteering is called *Ehrenamt* and is the classical form of volunteering. Moreover, many sports clubs rely on voluntary helpers or secondary volunteers, that is, volunteers in non-fixed positions. These volunteers are called *Freiwillige*. Third, volunteering takes place outside of sports clubs, mainly at large sport events. Recent large-scale events in Germany where volunteers offered support were, for example, the Track and Field World Championships 2009 and the FIFA Women's World Cup 2011.

### 10.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

Volunteering and sport volunteering in Germany have a long tradition and play an important role in German society. Historically, volunteering can be traced back to the Prussian city order (*Preußische Städteordnung*) from 1808, which enabled political participation for citizens, including taking on honorary positions without monetary remunerations (Ministerium für Soziales und Integration Baden-Württemberg 2017). Traditionally, volunteering in Germany occurred in the social context as an

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act of helping others, as illustrated, for example, by the 165-year-long volunteering tradition in the nonprofit organization “Caritas” (Caritas 2016). With regard to sports, the most prominent nonprofit organizations in Germany are nonprofit sports clubs, which also have a long tradition dating back to the 19th century (Breuer et al. 2015). In these nonprofit sports clubs, volunteering has been of major importance from the beginning, as voluntary work is one of the five constituent features of sports clubs (Heinemann and Horch 1981). In general, the act of volunteering can be related to the overarching term “civic engagement,” including other forms of active public participation such as political participation, political protest, or voluntary social activities (Heinze and Olk 2001). In the traditional form, volunteering can be translated as *Ehrenamt*: an honorable position which in sports clubs is reached through elections of members, typically undertaken without any form of monetary remuneration or only a small remuneration in the form of a lump-sum (Duden 2017). However, volunteering in Germany has seen a historical change or adaption: in addition to the traditional form of volunteering, more open and less structured forms of volunteering have also appeared (Olk 1987, 1989). These two types of volunteering, that is, (1) traditional volunteering and (2) a more open form of volunteering, can be characterized by the German words (1) *Ehrenamt* as defined above and (2) *freiwillige Tätigkeit* or secondary volunteers, as the informal undertaking of a voluntary activity (Werkmann 2014). The two types of volunteering differ with regard to the access to volunteering: while *Ehrenamtler* are elected or appointed to their position, *Freiwillige* might apply to be part of a voluntary workforce or simply assist when help is needed (Steinbach et al. 2017; Werkmann 2014).

The two types of volunteers can also be observed in the context of sports clubs in Germany. As such, sports clubs rely on volunteers in fixed positions, that is, at the board level or as coaches and instructors. Volunteers are elected through club members to fulfil a position at the board level. Additionally, club members get engaged in non-fixed positions as voluntary helpers. Typical activities for voluntary helpers include driving youth teams to competitions, preparing cakes, or supporting the coaches at sport festivals (Breuer and Feiler 2017a). In Germany, approximately 13% of all sports club members are engaged as a volunteer in a fixed position and 17% in non-fixed positions (Breuer et al. 2017).

In addition to volunteers in sports clubs, people get engaged as volunteers at sport events. In the context of sport events, a third term for volunteers has evolved in German: *Volunteers* (the English term integrated into German vocabulary). Volunteers at sport events typically get engaged in a short-term and nonstructured way. In contrast to fixed positions in sports clubs, more than one volunteer can participate in an activity at sport events, for example, showing event visitors the way to the facilities (Werkmann 2014). These three terms *Ehrenamtler*, *Freiwillige*, and *Volunteers* show a clear distinction of different forms of volunteering in Germany. The literature generally classifies volunteerism into continuous and episodic volunteering (Hustinx and Lammertyn 2004; Wilson 2012). Thereby, the continuous volunteering of *Ehrenamtler* can be separated from episodic volunteering of *Freiwillige* and *Volunteers*.

To get people engaged in voluntary activities, monetary and non-monetary incentives have been introduced. Individuals who participate in voluntary activities in organizations of the civil society (i.e., sports, culture, health, and environment) can receive a financial remuneration of up to 720 EUR per year tax-free (Verein für soziales Leben e.V. 2017). In addition, volunteers who are engaged in a coaching position – for example, as a coach of a sport team – can receive a payment of up to 2,400 EUR per year tax-free. However, these two tax-free allowances cannot be added up for one single activity.

## 10.2 Volunteer Workforce in Germany

The volunteer workforce in Germany is assessed by the “Volunteer Survey (*Freiwilligensurvey*),” a survey of volunteers that has been conducted every five years since 1999, with the fourth and most recent from the year 2014 (Simonson et al. 2017). Overall, the share of people being engaged in voluntary activities has increased over the last 15 years. In 2014, 43.6% of the German population over 14 years stated they participated in voluntary activities. This amounts to a volunteer workforce of 30.9 million people. Women were slightly less active, with a volunteer rate of 41.5% compared to men with 45.7%. However, women have increased their voluntary activities between 1999 and 2014 more than men. The highest volunteer rates occurred in the age groups of 14-29 years old and 30-49 years old. Moreover, people with a higher education were found to be more engaged than people with a lower educational level. Furthermore, the highest share of volunteers were engaged in sports and physical activities (16.3%), followed by schools or kindergartens (9.1%) and culture and music (9.0%). More than half of the volunteers were engaged in clubs or associations, followed by activities in individually organized groups, church or religious groups, other formal institutions, and municipal or other public institutions. The survey revealed that the share of volunteers was higher in rural areas than in urban areas and particularly large cities in Germany. Furthermore, there are still differences between West and East Germany. People living in West Germany were found to be more engaged than the people living in East Germany (44.8% vs. 38.5%). Furthermore, the share of older citizens seemed to increase more rapidly in East Germany due to lower birth rates and higher life expectancy. However, the volunteer rates in the East have increased at a higher rate since 1999 than in the West (Simonson et al. 2017).

Apart from the individual level, volunteering in Germany has been assessed from the organizational point of view by the “Civic Population Survey” (*Zivilgesellschaft in Zahlen [ZiviZ]*; Priemer et al. 2017) and the Sport Development Report (Breuer 2007, 2009, 2011, 2013, 2015, 2017). The ZiviZ surveys consider all organizations that are engaged in civil society, meaning political, social, and leisure organizations outside of the governmental and private sector. In contrast, the Sport Development Report focuses on sports clubs specifically. In all, more than 600,000 nonprofit clubs exist in Germany for various purposes (e.g., sport, culture, health, local his-

tory). This makes clubs the dominant legal form in civil society (in German: *eingetragener Verein* [e.V.]). The majority of organizations (72%) in the civil society relies solely on volunteers and does not employ paid staff (Priemer et al. 2017).

Of the 600,000 nonprofit clubs in Germany, around 90,000 are nonprofit sports clubs (DOSB 2017). These sports clubs rely heavily on volunteers as only one in ten clubs is reported to employ paid staff (Krimmer 2016). The Sport Development Report has found that approximately 1.7 million volunteers were engaged in sports clubs in 2015. However, this number only includes volunteers in fixed positions. Additionally, 23% of sports club members (6.3 million) reported they were engaged in a form of informal volunteering. By adding the number of individuals engaged in non-fixed positions, the total number of volunteers in sports clubs increases to eight million. Taking a closer look at fixed positions in sports clubs, it becomes evident that more men become engaged in sports volunteering in Germany than women. While 1.2 million men took on a fixed position in a sports club in 2015 (i.e., as board member), only 0.5 million women became involved in these kinds of activities (Breuer and Feiler 2017a). However, it has to be noted that there are also more male members in sports clubs in Germany than female members (DOSB 2017). Volunteers in sports clubs spent on average 13.4 hours per month for their voluntary work. That accumulates to 22.9 million hours per month on a national level. These working hours by volunteers amounted to a monthly national added value of 343 million EUR, respectively, 4.1 billion EUR per year (Breuer and Feiler 2017a). As volunteers present a substantial and valuable workforce for sports clubs, it is important to identify strategies to recruit and retain them.

It seems therefore problematic that over the last 10 years, especially sport and leisure clubs have reported increasing difficulties in attracting new volunteers and keeping their existing volunteers engaged (Breuer and Feiler 2017b; Krimmer 2016). In comparison to other organizations of the civil society, sports clubs were found to have larger difficulties in recruiting and retaining volunteers (Breuer and Feiler 2017a; Krimmer 2016). In this regard, 51% of sports clubs perceived the problem of recruiting and retaining volunteers in administrative positions to be a big or even very big problem. The extent of the problem has increased significantly in comparison to the previous wave of the Sport Development Report. Overall, 14.3% of sports clubs were threatened in their existence by the problem of recruiting and retaining voluntary board members (Breuer and Feiler 2017a). It appears that German sports clubs are more strongly affected by this challenge than sports clubs in other European countries, as sports clubs in Germany rated the recruitment problem as more severe than clubs in any other country (Breuer et al. 2017).

To attract new volunteers and to keep existing volunteers engaged, German sports clubs were found to take on different initiatives and incentives and thereby appreciate the work of their volunteers. Overall, sports clubs made more use of any kind of remuneration and incentives than any other form of civil organization (Krimmer 2016). The most common way to approach volunteers was through personal contact: 70.4% of sports clubs reported to use this measure for volunteer recruitment and retention. Moreover, clubs stated they organize social festivities to create a community feeling (62.5%), to recruit with the help of existing volunteers

**Table 10.1** Germany's volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in Germany
Population size	82.5 million <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	German <sup>b</sup>
Volunteer rates (Year)	43.6% (2014) <sup>c</sup>
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	yes (roughly 90,000) <sup>d</sup>
List of large-scale events hosted in last 10 years	EHF Handball Champions League Final Four (annual event), Track and Field World Championships 2009, FIFA Women's World Cup 2011, Ski Alpine World Championship 2011, Biathlon World Championship 2012, Tour de France Grand Départ 2017, Ice Hockey World Championship 2017, Track and Field European Championships 2018 <sup>e</sup>
Sport volunteer rates	16.3% <sup>f</sup>
The word for volunteering	<i>Ehrenamt</i>
The meaning of the word	Honorable position, undertaken without monetary remuneration <sup>g</sup>
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	FIFA World Cup 2006 <sup>h</sup>

Sources: <sup>a</sup>Federal Statistical Office (2017); <sup>b</sup>Verwaltungsverfahrensgesetz (VwVfG), §23, Abs.1.; <sup>c</sup>Simonson et al. (2017); <sup>d</sup>DOSB (2017); <sup>e</sup>Non-exhaustive list; <sup>f</sup>Simonson et al. (2017); <sup>g</sup>Duden (2017); <sup>h</sup>Kellermann (2007)

(54.7%), and to offer extra qualifications (40.6%; Breuer and Feiler 2017a). Furthermore, sports clubs were found to compensate the lack of volunteers through employing more secondary volunteers (i.e., volunteers in non-fixed positions), low-cost employees, and paid staff (Breuer et al. 2012). Table 10.1 provides an overview about the characteristics of the volunteer workforce in Germany.

While the perceived problem of attracting volunteers in sports clubs has increased over the measurement period of the Sport Development Report (Breuer and Feiler 2017b), the actual numbers of formal volunteers have not changed significantly during the last period, that is, since 2013 (Breuer and Feiler 2017a). In contrast, a high level of continuity in sport volunteers has been identified (Krimmer 2016). Only the number of informal (i.e., secondary) volunteers in sports clubs have decreased slightly between 2013 and 2015 (-4.4%; Breuer and Feiler 2017a). However, previous studies have detected a change in the nature of volunteering. The sport-specific evaluation of the "Volunteer Survey" (*Freiwilligen survey*) discovered that the share of volunteers in administrative positions and at the board level has decreased from 38% in 1999 to 34% in 2009, while the number of sports clubs has increased during the same period of time. Furthermore, the volunteer workforce in administrative positions seems to have become older. The share of over-70-year-olds among all volunteers in administrative or leadership positions in sports clubs has almost doubled between 1999 and 2009 (from 5.2% to 11.6%), while the share of the 30-39-year-olds has considerably decreased during the same time frame (from

about 40% to roughly 24% within this age group; Braun 2011). It appears that volunteering in Germany is undergoing a structural change with people being more interested in short-term, project-oriented engagement that fits their biographies (Braun 2017). This challenge needs to be addressed by sports clubs and sports organizations, for example, through specific volunteer management (see also Sect. 10.3). An example for a “good practice” in terms of volunteer management in sports clubs is the *TSG Bergedorf* in Hamburg which is a large sports club with about 10,000 members and a variety of different sport offers. This club has appointed a person who is specifically in charge of recruiting and retaining volunteers. To facilitate an easy start for new, potential volunteers, the club organizes an introductory week, including different activities like seminars and visits to different sporting venues. Moreover, the club encourages volunteers to use qualification offers, for example, in terms of licenses and certificates. As a special motivation for volunteers, the club nominates a “volunteer of the month” to show special appreciation (Feiler et al. 2017). It has to be noted that it might be more difficult for smaller and less professionally run clubs to adapt such measures, but small clubs also need to find a way to address the problem of decreasing volunteers. Giving people the chance to bring in their own ideas might be a good and easy start to address this challenge.

In light of the above-described structural change in volunteering in sports clubs, short-term volunteering is increasingly becoming popular in Germany. One possibility to be engaged in short-term volunteering is taking part as a volunteer at sport events. In contrast to sports club volunteers, sport event volunteers can be characterized as informal volunteers engaged in short-term activities (Werkmann 2014). The number of sport event volunteers fluctuates based on the occurrence of sport events in Germany. Thus, there are no annual numbers available for Germany. However, it seems that volunteering at sport events is very attractive for German citizens. For example, more than 15,000 people applied for around 3,000 volunteer positions at the FIFA Women’s World Cup 2011 in Germany (Werkmann 2014). At the 2017 Ice Hockey World Championships held in Cologne and Paris, more than 1,000 people applied to take part as one of the 600 volunteers (Eishockey News 2016). Moreover, the city of Düsseldorf reported having no problems filling their volunteer positions at the 2017 Tour de France Grand Départ, as 2,640 people registered to volunteer at the two-day event (Stadt Düsseldorf 2017). Thus, it seems there is no problem in activating German citizens to get engaged as volunteers when mega sport events take place in their city or region.

### 10.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

The problem of decreasing numbers of “traditional” sport volunteers has not only been identified by sports clubs but also by the German Olympic Sports Confederation (*Deutscher Olympischer Sportbund* [DOSB]). The DOSB has introduced several initiatives and incentives to get people engaged in sport volunteering. The initiative “Attractive Volunteering in Sport” provides sports clubs with best practice examples

of collaborations between sports organizations and volunteer organizations (DOSB 2015a). Sports clubs are teamed up with volunteer organizations and senior citizens organizations to share knowledge on volunteer recruitment and retention and to get especially senior citizens engaged. This collaboration aims to support clubs in identifying potential future volunteers who are willing to take on volunteer positions at the administrative level. Furthermore, the DOSB aims to increase the appreciation of volunteers in sport. The “Sport Volunteer Card” (*Sportehrenamtskarte*) has been introduced to offer volunteers discounts in museums, zoos, sport events, etc. (DOSB 2015b). Volunteers who show a very high level of engagement can additionally receive the “Sport Identity Card” (*Sportausweis*), which offers multifunctional benefits for the individual volunteers by the national business partners of the DOSB. In addition, volunteers can receive certificates for their voluntary engagement to showcase their social skills and activities which can be an advantage in job applications and interviews.

Another pillar of the recognition of volunteers’ work and the development of their skills is the qualification system of the DOSB (DOSB 2015b). The qualification system consists of four steps: the first step consists of licenses for coaches, youth leaders, and club managers at the basic level. The second, third, and fourth steps offer further licenses that build on the previous steps and provide the opportunity for volunteers to extend and amplify their skills. The licenses support volunteers in their functional, methodological, educational, strategic, personal, and social skills. Furthermore, volunteers get coached in societal issues such as gender equity, diversity management, prevention of sexual harassment and violence, and environmental protection. These qualifications enable volunteers to extend their knowledge and showcase their abilities to others. In addition to licenses offered by the DOSB, volunteers have the opportunity to attend seminars and workshops at the Leadership Academy of the DOSB (*Führungsakademie des DOSB*), where they can extend their competences in the fields of professional expertise, management skills, and leadership and personal skills (Führungsakademie 2017). These seminars are specifically aimed at volunteers and employees engaged in administrative and board positions.

Further initiatives have been introduced aimed especially at youth volunteers in sport. For example, the regional sport confederation in North Rhine-Westphalia (*Landessportbund NRW*) offers a one-year scholarship for young volunteers between the ages of 16 and 26 years. Volunteers can get a monthly financial support of 200 EUR for their voluntary activities in sports clubs (Landessportbund NRW 2017). Furthermore, young adults can spend between six and 18 months focusing purely on their voluntary activities during a voluntary gap year in sport (*Freiwilliges soziales Jahr im Sport*). During this year, young volunteers work for a sports organization (e.g., sports club, federation, sport school, youth accommodation, or physical education kindergarten) full time and receive a monthly financial compensation by the regional sport confederation. This program is supported by the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth (*Bundesministerium für Familie, Senioren, Frauen und Jugend* [BMFSFJ]) and the German Sport Youth (*Deutsche Sportjugend* [dsj]) (dsj 2017b). The dsj additionally offers a qualification program

for young volunteers, the “dsj academy,” which aims to develop the skills and knowledge of young volunteers such as team work, networking, and communication through the support of experts in the field (dsj 2017a).

## 10.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

As already described in Section 10.1, the German government supports financial incentives for volunteering through tax-free allowances. In addition, volunteers engaged in sports clubs are covered under the club’s insurance offered by the regional sports confederations. This includes not only the activity of volunteers at the clubs but also the commute to and from the club. However, volunteers do not only enjoy legal benefits. To be able to work with children and adolescents, volunteers are required to provide a certificate of good conduct to prevent sexual harassment and violence (DOSB 2015b).

While sport policy in Germany is under the responsibility of the Federal Ministry of the Interior, the matter of civic engagement and volunteering, that is, engagement policy, is subject to support by the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth ([BMFSFJ], BMFSFJ 2016). A wide range of initiatives and programs is supported by the BMFSFJ, including civic engagement related to sports. Initiatives on volunteering in general that are directly supported by the federal ministry include mentoring and partnership programs, volunteering in all generations, the internet presence “engaged in Germany,” the annual “week of volunteering,” and the “German volunteering prize.” These initiatives are meant to foster voluntary rates and show appreciation of the volunteers’ engagement. For instance, the German volunteering prize is awarded annually in five categories: creating opportunities, saving lives, connecting generations, overcoming barriers, and strengthening democracy (Deutscher Engagementpreis 2017). The winner of each category is selected by a jury and awarded with 5,000 EUR. In addition, public voting was installed to select a public winner, who is awarded with 10,000 EUR.

Furthermore, the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth supports research into volunteering in Germany, such as the Volunteer Survey (Simonson et al. 2017), and collaborations with the DOSB, such as the project “Attractive Volunteering in Sport” (DOSB 2015a). The guideline “collaboration of paid staff and volunteers” aims to provide practitioners with tips and insights on how to improve the joint work of paid staff and volunteers and thus increase the willingness to get engaged (Schumacher 2015).

## 10.5 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to give an overview of the meaning and societal role of volunteering and particularly sport volunteering in Germany. Generally, volunteering is an important part of German culture, as Germany is also known as the country of



nonprofit (sports) clubs. Within the third sector in Germany, more than 600,000 clubs exist, of which roughly 90,000 are sports clubs. Throughout nonprofit organizations in Germany, voluntary work is essential since only a few organizations have paid employees. This particularly applies to nonprofit sports clubs. These sports clubs form the basis of the German sport system and thereby allow following sport-for-all policies. Without sports clubs, neither elite sports nor grassroots sports would exist. Voluntary work is one of the key elements for the successful operation of sports clubs since clubs could not exist without the enormous workload that volunteers cover in their leisure time. Thus, without volunteering, Germany would be a country without sports clubs and sport events which underline the enormous role of volunteers for German society and culture.

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# Chapter 11

## India



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**Abstract** The following chapter provides ethnographic insights into the topic of sports volunteering in India. The concept of volunteering in India stems from cultural and religious backgrounds, with an emphasis on helping less fortunate segments of society. The realities of the economic and social conditions in the country prevent sports volunteering from existing as a culture in India, nor is it in the current mandate of the government to develop it. Sports volunteering in India is mostly episodic, specifically, volunteering at large-scale events. The role of volunteers in the newly launched sporting leagues is dependent on the policies of the individual firms that run the leagues. In contrast to volunteering at large-scale events and leagues, non-episodic volunteering remains comparatively rare, informal, and unregulated.

### 11.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

India is a vast nation with a population of 1.3 billion people who speak 23 official languages or 30 major languages, each spoken by more than one million native speakers (Census Info India 2011). Forty-one percent of the population is aged between 25 and 54, while another 18% is aged between 15 and 24. Although the country has the third largest GDP (Gross Domestic Product) in the world, ranked by purchasing power parity, an estimate by the World Bank showed that an alarming 21% of the population lives below the international poverty line, that is, 1.90 USD a day (corrected for purchasing power parity; The World Bank 2011). This highlights the immediate challenges of the society, which are difficult to offset even with a steady GDP growth rate of over 7% that India has achieved for several years.

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Understanding the economic context of India sheds light on the social context. The availability of data is low for the sports sector. The budget outlay for sports in India is less than 1% of the national budget spending (Mukherjee et al. 2010). At the outset, it is important to mention that the culture of amateur sports clubs does not exist in a way that is comparable to Europe. For this reason, the government's role in providing facilities and sports infrastructure is very large. Most commonly, amateur sports facilities are attached to schools and universities. The combined atmosphere of low availability of sports facilities and a large population in the employable age group have led to a highly competitive job market. Additionally, economic pressure leads to a condition where organized sports is a luxury to which only a small percentage of the population has access. The seventh "All India Educational Survey" estimated that less than half of Indian schools have sports facilities. A government estimate states that only one in every 15 people below the age of 35 has access to organized games and facilities, while only one in every seventh school or college student has the opportunity to participate in sports and games (Mukherjee et al. 2010). Where the public sector is not successful, many private sector sports enterprises such as gymnasiums in cities are flourishing. The Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry (FICCI) stated that fitness centers and gyms are set to continue expanding at a rate of 18% until 2020 (FICCI-EY Consulting Report 2016).

Hindi, the national language, and Marathi, a major regional language, share the same word for volunteer which is *swayamsevak*. Broken down into its origin words, *swayam* means "of oneself" and *sevak* comes from *seva* which means "to serve." The word in its totality signifies to serve without expectations of personal return or gains. Another major regional language, Bengali, uses the words *shechha shebok* where *shechha* comes from the word *ichecha* meaning "own free will" or service rendered of one's own free will. The cultural connotation of these words is commonly associated with helping the poor, less fortunate, or elderly. In a country with a large population and low median income, cheap labor is available. Often, under normal circumstances, it is easier to hire staff for smaller, routine tasks than run a volunteer program that requires higher interpersonal skills (to motivate and retain volunteers). However, volunteers' outstanding contributions in times of natural disasters like the devastating earthquake in Gujarat in 2001 have been applauded in the past (International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies 2003). India is a secular country with many different religions being followed by its citizens. Sikhism, a religion that started in the 15th century in the Indian subcontinent, is famous for encouraging its followers to engage in charitable volunteering, often through distribution of free food to people in need, be it the poor or homeless or, more recently, people in disaster-struck regions (KhalsaAid 2017). All over the world, at Sikh places of worship, the tradition of serving free food from a community kitchen to all who visit is followed. All the operations are undertaken by volunteers. Other widely followed religions in India, like Hinduism and Buddhism, also, have ancient traditions of almshouses and volunteering. In this societal setting, sports volunteering is uncommon, although not unheard of.

Most of the research on volunteering in sports has been conducted in developed countries. These models and theories are not universal and cannot be blindly applied to different cultures (Fairley et al. 2013). However, since data from India are unavailable, the author has built on existing research and applied an ethnographic approach to this chapter. Previous studies have shown that university students often volunteer to build experience, gain skills, and improve their résumés (Clary et al. 1992; Kim et al. 2010). For instance, in Korea, volunteers most valued excitement and professional development from the six dimensions of motivations of volunteers, that is, prestige, learning, excitement, helping, social, and professional development (Fairley et al. 2013).

Collectivist cultures (e.g., India and Korea) tend to value relationships over tasks, whereas in individualistic cultures the task is more important than the relationship (Fairley et al. 2013). In a relationship-oriented society like India, continuous volunteering would be highly influenced by personal relationships. For instance, a volunteer swim coaching assistant might dedicate few hours a week training competitive swimmers along with his/her own former coach. An ex-professional athlete might spend a few hours a week coaching children at his/her alma mater. These positions are nominally remunerated; however, without the intrinsic motivation of maintaining personal relationships, these posts would be likely occupied by less qualified coaches and volunteers. However, in the author's experience, these examples are not common and hence should not be generalized. This chapter therefore focuses on episodic volunteering.

## **11.2 Volunteer Workforce: Episodic Volunteering in India**

### ***11.2.1 Large-Scale Events***

The III Commonwealth Youth Games (CYG) was held in Pune in 2008. Events were conducted in nine sporting disciplines, and 1,673 athletes and officials attended. After an initial face-to-face interview process, approximately 5,000 volunteers were selected for the event and allocated to one of 10 functional areas (CYG Pune 2008). The volunteers underwent two stages of training and were provided with a volunteer kit, including two sets of uniforms. They were not remunerated monetarily; however, they were provided with free public transport to and from the venue, as well as meals during work hours. Being a young, cosmopolitan city, with 62% of the population under 30 years and high literacy rate of 86% (World Population Review 2014), Pune wanted to have a young volunteer workforce. This volunteer target was easily achieved, since a large part of the volunteer force was young university students looking to gain a new experience or make new friends. At the CYG Pune (2008), all venues for the nine sporting disciplines were within one sports complex, that is, the Shree Shiv Chhatrapati Sports Complex, nicknamed Balewadi (name of the area where the stadium is located) Stadium. Even the athletes' village was

separated from the stadium only by a few meters. This allowed the volunteers to walk freely between venues, watch many sporting events live, meet fellow volunteers from other functional areas, catch glimpses of famous personalities visiting the events, as well as mingle with young foreign and Indian athletes. This contributed to a warm and friendly atmosphere within Balewadi Stadium. For many years after the Games, parts of the volunteer kit like bags and rain jackets were frequently seen on the streets of Pune.

The 2010 Commonwealth Games were held in Delhi two years later. The Organizing Committee (OC) aimed at recruiting 30,000 volunteers to service 4,352 athletes from 71 nations. They were allocated to one of the 14 functional areas (CWG Delhi 2010). Given Delhi is a much larger and a highly heterogeneous city, a targeted system for recruiting a bulk of these volunteers was used. The OC approached and built relationships with many colleges and universities in the city. These students were then encouraged to volunteer for the Games and were allowed a month-long leave of absence for this purpose. Using this method not only gave the access to large, homogenous groups of volunteers, it also provided a first selection process on the basis of a minimum standard of education.

The authors' personal experience in recruiting, training, and managing the 300 volunteers allocated to one of the 14 functional areas, that is, Commonwealth Games Relations (CGA Relations), was that volunteers revealed that their main motivations were to experience the large-scale event, patriotism, to make new friends, and to build professional experience. As can be predicted in a collectivist culture, many volunteers signed up as groups of friends or classmates from the same universities. In general, the attrition rate of volunteers was expected to be quite high at every stage – from recruitment to training and finally operations. However, in the author's experience, whenever special care was taken in building a personal relationship, attrition was much lower. This involved tactics by workforce managers such as phoning volunteers personally to invite them for training sessions, checking back on absentees, and creating social media platforms to keep connected. All volunteers underwent role-specific training and venue-specific training. Each of the 300 CGA Relations volunteers was assigned directly to one of the visiting teams. They were therefore in constant contact with the Team Officials to liaise on their behalf with all other functional areas of the Organizing Committee. When the teams started to arrive, the volunteers in most cases quickly built warm personal relationships with their allocated teams and were invested in their duties. However, in the face of the initial controversies concerning unfinished athlete accommodation and an outbreak of dengue in the city, many volunteers, like the staff, were disillusioned and demotivated by the negative media attention around the event. In the author's experience, only the value of the relationships built with the staff, the team, and fellow volunteers together motivated most volunteers to go beyond their normal call of duty to ensure that their allocated teams' needs were met. This included staying extra hours and taking on added responsibilities to assist their teams. They worked alongside volunteers from the other functional areas to overcome the initial glitches. Many times these volunteers were rewarded by the teams with match tickets or official team merchandise. Their major complaint or cause for dissatisfaction was that the meals were not to their liking.

A survey was designed by academics and Commonwealth Games Federation Board Members to gather information on athlete experiences at the Commonwealth Games 2010 in Delhi. Even though there was no survey item on volunteers, of the athletes who answered the questionnaire ( $n = 428$ ), many included feedback on the volunteers as open-ended comments (MacIntosh and Nicol 2012). Specifically, athletes mentioned the “overwhelming friendliness of the Indian volunteers,” the “ease of approachability,” and their “availability at all times.”

For both of these events, rewards and recognition programs were in place. Daily “Volunteer of the Day” pins or badges were handed out informally by team leaders or staff. Post-Games rewards included a public event and certificates of participation. When possible, more formal internal speeches and thanks were given by staff to their smaller teams. Post-event, an overwhelming majority of volunteers were happy that they had volunteered and claimed it was an “unforgettable, once-in-a-lifetime experience.” The following are some excerpts from personal communications shared on the volunteer platform created for the CGA Relations volunteers at the Commonwealth Games 2010:

Yes, we were the lucky ones who got the opportunity to in a way serve our country! I would put it that way. But since all good things come to an end, so did the good days at the Commonwealth Games 2010. Those precious days will remain in my heart, and I will cherish the memories all my life. (S. Bhardwaj, personal communication, 7 October, 2011)

I've told half the world during the Olympics, what a great time we had volunteering in Delhi and it being handled much better than Rio. (S. Mathur, personal communication, 4 October 2016)

The FIFA U-17 World Cup, 2017, was staged in six cities across India. Although football in India does not enjoy the popularity of numbers or international success in comparison to cricket, it is a highly beloved sport in many pockets of the country. The Local Organizing Committee (LOC) opened online registrations for meeting their volunteer requirements of 1,500 in March 2017, nine months before the event. The program received nearly 30,000 applicants in a short period of time before it was shut down, representing the largest volunteer initiative in the country's history (The Indian Express 2017). Apart from the usual benefits like uniforms, meals, and certificates of participation, this time the volunteers were also rewarded with match tickets for their efforts (FIFA 2017). While this may have eventually lead to some unpleasant problems for the LOC, with three volunteers arrested for selling the tickets on the black market in Kolkata (The Times of India 2017), the move was applauded by others since it was unlikely that all matches would be sold out. The LOC also recruited “e-volunteers,” whose task was to promote the tournament through social media channels. Several newspapers carried the story of a 73-year-old volunteer, one of the 192 in Goa, a city famous for its love of football. Lucas Cardoso and his son were both volunteers at the Lusophony Games held in Goa in 2014. Lucas is a football fan and believed that the FIFA tournament would help the sport develop in the country and that his experience and support would in turn help the tournament to be a success (Sriram 2017).



In the only study that examines volunteer motivation and satisfaction levels at a large-scale event in India, 153 volunteers from the Commonwealth Games Delhi 2010 and 161 volunteers from the ICC Cricket World Cup 2011 were interviewed (Chakraborti and Singh 2014). A 28-item scale for measuring volunteer motivation created by Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998) was utilized for this purpose. Chakraborti and Singh (2014) found that the highest ranked individual reason for volunteering for the Commonwealth Games was “I wanted to help make the event a success” and for the World Cup was “volunteering for this tournament is considered prestigious.” Principal component analysis showed that the items under factor “solidary” were also important. These involved “I wanted to broaden my horizons,” “I wanted to gain practical experience in social work,” “I wanted to work with different people,” and “I wanted to gain practical experience.” Eighty-three percent of the volunteers at the Games were either “very satisfied” or “satisfied,” and that number was 93% for the World Cup, with regard to the overall volunteer experience. However, it is worth noting that the scale used in this study was developed in the West.

### ***11.2.2 Sporting Leagues***

India does not have a long-standing tradition of sports leagues, and cricket is by far the most popular sport in the country. The Board of Control for Cricket in India (BCCI) founded the Indian Premier League (IPL) in 2007 as a special-purpose vehicle. Before the IPL, elite-level cricket in India and in most nations thrived mainly due to international games (Grupta 2009). Since then, a number of professional leagues have been launched – including Indian Super League (football), Pro Kabaddi League, Hockey India League, and Pro Wrestling League. Many of these leagues operate on comparatively small budgets and rely on personal networks for their activities. An obvious solution for reducing the costs of operational manpower is hiring of staff on short-term contracts and volunteers.

Volunteers are most often recruited through event management courses. These (mostly private) colleges look to expose their students to events by providing them with volunteering opportunities. The students are motivated by the possibility of on-the-ground learning and building connections that may help them land jobs on completion of their course. Depending on the budgets and policies, students may or may not be reimbursed for their travel expenses to and from the venue. They are generally provided with simple uniforms and refreshments for their efforts. Except at a very large event like the IPL, they also have the benefit of being able to watch the games live. Volunteers are assigned tasks such as ushering guests, assisting media personnel and TV crews, and assisting in hospitality. Highly sensitive tasks are generally not allocated to volunteers, since they usually undergo minimal training. In the cultural context, it is also unacceptable to assign menial labor tasks such as housekeeping to volunteers, and low labor costs make this unnecessary.

### 11.2.3 Sports for Development

The total funds for the philanthropic sector in India have grown at a rate of over 9% for the last five years, with a sixfold increase in the contributions from private individuals (Bain and Company 2017). People are volunteering more time and money toward the development sector. The Companies Act 2013 also outlined corporate social responsibility as a requirement, under which sports development is included. However, the sector is still nascent, with 70% of all organizations being founded since 2005 (Dasra 2013). This climate is conducive to the rising popularity and impact of sports for development by non-government organizations (NGOs). “Special Olympics Bharat” engages adults and children with intellectual disabilities using sports. They have 85,000 volunteer coaches across the country (Dasra 2013). Organizations like “Go Sisters” and “Magic Bus” recruit youth volunteers to lead the sports activities from within the sensitive communities in which they work. “Go Sisters” trained over 5,000 girls as peer leaders in the time period of 2002-2006 (Dasra 2013), and “Magic Bus” states on its website that it engages 8,000 volunteers. These numbers might signify the rise of philanthropic sports volunteering in India, which combines the ancient philanthropic spirit of helping the needy with a modern approach. Table 11.1 provides an overview about the characteristics of volunteers in India.

**Table 11.1** India’s volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in India
Population size	1.3 billion <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	23
National language	Hindi
Volunteer rates (year)	n.a.
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	yes
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	Commonwealth Youth Games 2008, Commonwealth Games 2010, ICC Cricket World Cup 2011, Lusophony Games 2014, ICC World Twenty20 2016, FIFA U-17 World Cup 2017
Sports volunteer rates	n.a.
The word for volunteering	‘वयसवक (swyamsevak)
The meaning of the word	To serve without expectations of personal return or gains
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	Mega-events

Source: <sup>a</sup>Census Info India (2011)

### 11.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

Sports volunteering in India remains episodic, unless it is associated with philanthropy. For large-scale events, emphasizing this narrative of receiving a once-in-a-lifetime opportunity to be involved in the event, as well as to serve the nation by helping to deliver a successful event, is crucial to generate interest and recruit volunteers. Within this sphere, the excitement of being involved in a large-scale event contributes to elevated initial motivation levels. However, there is the fear of being lost in a huge crowd of volunteers. To reduce attrition once the initial enthusiasm wears off, volunteer management needs to be committed to building personal relationships. This includes gestures like personal contact to individual volunteers, active problem solving in case of issues, assigning an approachable manager or supervisor, as well as recognizing and rewarding volunteers, be it with praise or with small tokens of appreciation. For other events, the intrinsic motivation varies depending on individual tastes and the allocated roles, since in many cases these are students who have been randomly assigned to an event. External motivating factors and an even more active volunteer management may be key in these situations. Basic operational issues like transportation to and from the venue, refreshments, and volunteer kits should be given adequate attention. Provision of access to watch the sports live and tickets to invite friends and family is much appreciated by volunteers. In all situations, whatever the budgetary constraints, the key to effective volunteer management in the collectivist cultural setting of India is to nurture and be sensitive to interpersonal relationships.

### 11.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

The Constitution of India assigns the responsibility of regulating sports to state governments, and the Government of India recognizes that National Sports Federations (NSFs) and the Indian Olympic Association (IOA) are to govern sports and its development (Chelladurai et al. 2013). In practice however, the Indian (central) government provides support to sports in many ways, including the funding of elite sports through the NSFs and IOA, funding infrastructure projects, and providing employment to elite athletes and other concessions on public goods. In recent years, there have been talks of transferring the responsibility of sports to the concurrent list in the Constitution of India, which would give both the central and state governments powers to govern it; however this is not yet the case. This might explain why the existing legislative documents concerning sports, for example, the National Sports Development Code of India (Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports Department of Sports 2011) and the Draft National Sports Development Bill (2013), do not touch upon sports volunteerism at all, but focus more on talent identification and other primary tasks of sports development. The policy documents of some of the leading Indian states in terms of sports development (e.g., Kerala and Haryana)

briefly mention the importance of volunteers, although they do not outline any further details (Haryana Sports and Physical Fitness Policy 2015; Kerala Sports Policy 2015).

## 11.5 Conclusion

Sports volunteering in India is episodic, with large interest generated through the excitement of volunteering at large-scale events. As a result, these episodes of volunteering are restricted to large, metropolitan cities where the large-scale events are held. The role of the private sector is quite large in terms of regulation of the newly started leagues, and the role of volunteers involved in these leagues is dependent on these individual firms and their policies. In contrast to volunteering at large-scale events and leagues, non-episodic volunteering remains comparatively rare, largely informal, and unregulated.

Sports volunteering does not yet exist as a culture in India, nor is it in the current mandate of the government to develop it. Rather, the concept of volunteering stems from cultural and religious backgrounds, with an emphasis on helping less fortunate segments of society. This may be the reason why philanthropic sports volunteering and volunteering for sports for development organizations are on the rise.

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# Chapter 12

## Japan



Takahiro Ikeji, Eiji Ito, Sheranne Fairley, and Shiro Yamaguchi

**Abstract** The concept of volunteering grew widely in Japan after the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake in 1995. Since then, the image of volunteering in Japan has been closely linked to altruism. Increases in volunteering in the country can be seen after each earthquake such as the Great East Japan Earthquake in 2011 and the Kumamoto Earthquake in 2016. Large-scale sport events in Japan, such as the 1985 Summer Universiade in Kobe and the 1998 Nagano Winter Olympic Games, have also drawn temporary attention to volunteering. Volunteering in sport, however, is still a relatively unfamiliar concept. As Japan is hosting three large-scale sport events in the next three years, the 2019 Rugby World Cup, the 2020 Tokyo Olympic and Paralympic Games, and the World Masters Games 2021 Kansai, the spotlight is once again on volunteers. It is hoped the events can be leveraged to create a sustainable volunteer culture in Japan.

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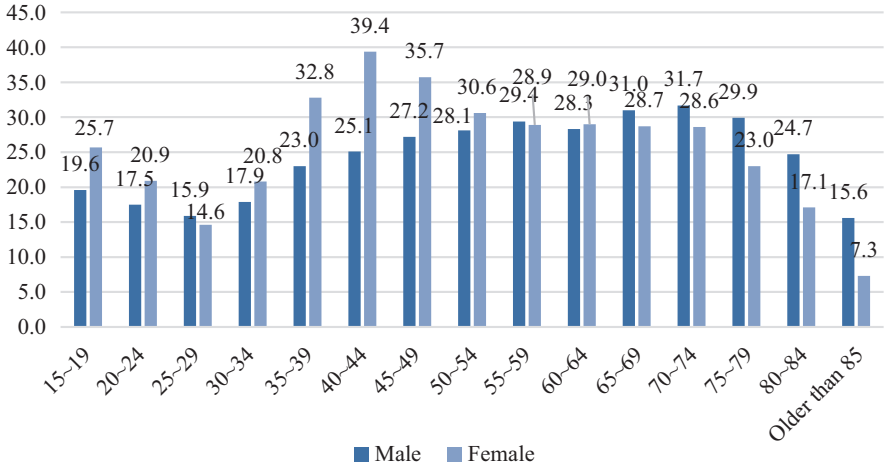
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## 12.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sport Volunteering

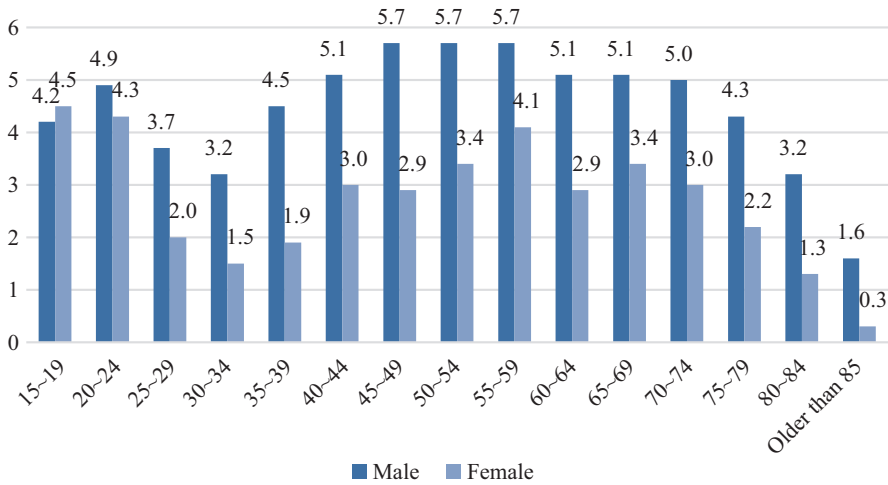
Volunteering in Japan was initiated by volunteer soldiers in the army (Tao and Kawano 2004). To rebel against tyranny, citizens headed for the battlefield, carrying weapons of their own accord. They were nonprofessional soldiers and were inadequately trained. However, they had a passion to protect their society and played a very important role in social development from the Middle Ages to modern times. This outlook has been passed on to recent volunteers. On January 17, 1995, the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake hit the metropolitan area between Kobe and Osaka; more than 6,400 people lost their lives (Cabinet Office Government of Japan n.d.). At the time, many people admired the volunteer rescue operations and restoration assistance offered to the earthquake victims. Until that time, volunteerism had been unknown to the Japanese people, but this catastrophe made people interested in volunteer work. Since then, 1995 was called the “first year of volunteerism in Japan” (Tao and Kawano 2004). Moreover, the terms “volunteer” and “volunteering” have become commonly used in Japanese daily life (Asano and Yamauchi 2001). The Japanese word for “volunteer” is translated phonetically into katakana, Japanese script, as borantia “ボランティア.”

According to the Arakawa Council of Social Welfare (2011), the total number of volunteers increased from 5,051,105 in 1995 to 8,678,796 in 2011. Additionally, a White Paper on volunteering (2014) indicated that 2.2 million people conducted voluntary work relating to the Great East Japan Earthquake in 2011, of which 900,000 individuals performed voluntary work for the first time. Thus, the primary focus of volunteering in Japan has been based around earthquakes, although the increase in such voluntary activities was only temporary and not sustainable. The most recent data on volunteering activities in Japan has been collected by the “Basic Survey on Social Life” (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications 2017). This survey has been conducted every five years since 1976 with the aim of clarifying the actual situation of the citizens’ lives. The most recent survey was conducted in 2016, indicating that the participation rate of volunteering in 2016 is 26.0%, which is a small decrease of 0.3% from 2011. The volunteer rate for women decreased from 27.9% in 2011 to 26.9% in 2016, whereas the volunteer rate for men increased from 24.5% in 2011 to 25.0% in 2016. The volunteer participation rate is highest for 40–44 years old at 32.2% and is lowest for 25 to 29 years old at 15.3% (see Fig. 12.1). For individuals between 35 and 50 years old, women participate much more than men, which might reflect the flexible time schedule of many Japanese women. This is consistent with past studies showing that time is one of the main constraints to volunteer.

Regarding the distribution of volunteer activities, “Activities for Community Development” is the highest at 11.3%, followed by “Activities for Children” at 8.4%. “Activities Related to Sports, Culture, Art, and Academics” ranked 6th at 3.7% (4.7% and 2.7% for men and women, respectively, Fig. 12.2). The participation rates for “For the Safe Life” (to make areas safe from illegal activities), “Activities to Protect Nature and Environment,” and “Activities for Elderly People”



**Fig. 12.1** The participation rates of volunteering for males and females (in percentages; Source: Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications 2017)



**Fig. 12.2** The participation rate of volunteering for “Activities Related to Sport, Culture, Art, and Academics for males and females (in percentages; Source: Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications 2017)



are 5.0%, 3.9%, and 3.8%, respectively. The ranking has not changed from 2011 except for “Activities Related to Natural Disasters.” Because of the Great East Japan Earthquake, the participation rate for “Activities Related to Natural Disasters” was high at 3.8% in 2011 but decreased to 1.5% in 2016. Due to the impact of the Kumamoto Earthquake in 2016, the participation rate for “Activities Related to Natural Disaster” in Kumamoto prefecture was high at 8.4%. The participation rate for such volunteering activities tends to be higher in the year and place where natural disasters actually occurred.

The Tokyo Metropolitan Government also began conducting a survey on volunteering in 2017 (Tokyo Metropolitan Government 2018c). The Tokyo Metropolitan Government aims to establish a volunteering culture by capitalizing on the 2020 Tokyo Olympic Games. Specifically, they aim to raise the volunteer participation rate to 40% by 2020. According to this survey, 24.8% of Tokyo citizens have participated in volunteering activities over the past year, an increase of 1.9% from the previous year. The participation rate over the past year is higher for women (27.2%) than men (22.4%). Participation is highest for males and females who are in their 40s, (26.4% and 44.0%, respectively), perhaps because it is necessary to participate in volunteer activities for their children. Indeed, this survey revealed that the volunteer rate for PTA (Parent-Teacher Association) and other school activities is second highest at 7.9% following volunteering for neighborhood associations at 8.2%. Teenagers also show high participation rates for both men and women at 25.4% and 35.8%, respectively. This could be attributed to schools requiring students to participate in volunteer activities. Table 12.1 provides an overview of the characteristics of the volunteer workforce in Japan.

**Table 12.1** Japan’s volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in Japan
Population size	126.7 million <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	Japanese
Volunteer rates (year)	26.0% (2016: over 15 years old) <sup>b</sup>
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	yes
List of large-scale events hosted in last 10 years	n.a.
Sport volunteer rates	6.7% <sup>c</sup>
The word for volunteering	Borantia (ボランティア)
The meaning of the word	A loanword derived from English (i.e., volunteer)
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	The Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake in 1995 generally and the Summer Universiade Kobe in 1985 specifically for sport volunteering <sup>d</sup>

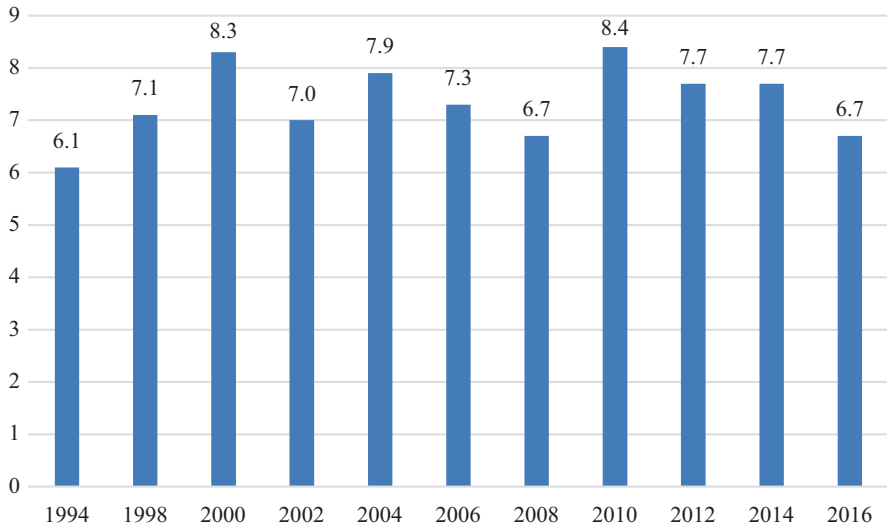
Sources: <sup>a</sup>Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (2017); <sup>b</sup>National Statistics Center Statistics Japan (2017); <sup>c</sup>Sasakawa Sports Foundation (2016); <sup>d</sup>Yamaguchi (2018)

## 12.2 Sport Volunteer Workforce

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology developed the second phase of the Sports Master Plan in 2017, aiming to set the basic policy related to sports (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology 2017). In this plan, the government acknowledged that the volunteer rate for sports activities is low, arguing that collaboration between sport organizations is necessary to expand the pool of sport volunteers. The government noted that sport events such as the 2020 Tokyo Olympic and Paralympic Games might be a perfect opportunity to grow a culture of sport volunteering. Indeed, the Sasakawa Sports Foundation and the Japan Sports Volunteering Network announced their collaboration with the organizing committees of the 2019 Rugby World Cup, the 2020 Tokyo Olympic and Paralympic Games, and the World Masters Games 2021 Kansai, which may contribute to a volunteer legacy (Sasakawa Sports Foundation 2018).

In relation to the history of sport volunteering in Japan, the 1985 Summer Universiade in Kobe was the first sport event in Japan that recruited and organized a significant number of volunteers – with over 42,000 volunteers recruited (Y. Yamaguchi 2004). Further, the 1998 Nagano Winter Olympic Games, which utilized over 32,000 volunteers (Matsuoka 2005), played an important role in growing interest in sport volunteering in Japan (Matsuoka and Ogasawara 2002). Specifically, it was reported that there was a slight increase in volunteering after the event, which was also seen after Japan co-hosted the 2002 FIFA World Cup that utilized 21,000 Japanese volunteers (Matsuoka 2005). In 2012, the Japan Sports Volunteer Network was established to facilitate interactions among sport volunteer organizations, to improve the quality of sport volunteering, and to foster a culture of sport-related volunteering in Japan (Sasakawa Sports Foundation 2014). In order to reach these goals, the organization presents workshops on volunteer knowledge and skills and hosts an annual summit on sport volunteering (Sasakawa Sports Foundation 2014). However, despite these efforts sport volunteering in Japan remains relatively low with only 7.1% of individuals volunteering for at least one sport event in 1998 and 6.7% in 2016 (see Fig. 12.3; Sasakawa Sports Foundation 2016).

Matsuoka and Ogasawara (2002) investigated the motives of volunteers at the Japanese Association for Women in Sport and found that social, learning and experiencing, personal interests, career, self-development, organizational obligation, social obligation, and sport were key motives. Organizational and social obligation and social motives were deemed to be consistent with the collectivist values of Japanese culture. In their study of volunteers at the 2002 FIFA World Cup, Inaba and Yamaguchi (2009) had similar findings indicating the strong link to the collectivist values of Japanese culture by suggesting that social motivation is key to understanding Japanese volunteers. Shiga and Arai (2013) and Tabiki (2005) focused on sport volunteers in the Special Olympics and investigated their motivations. Shiga and Arai (2013) found that volunteer coaches were motivated by having enjoyable experiences and meeting new people through volunteer activities, while Tabiki (2005) found that Special Olympics volunteers were motivated by social, personal



**Fig. 12.3** Change of participation rate in sport volunteering (Source: Sasakawa Sports Foundation 2016)

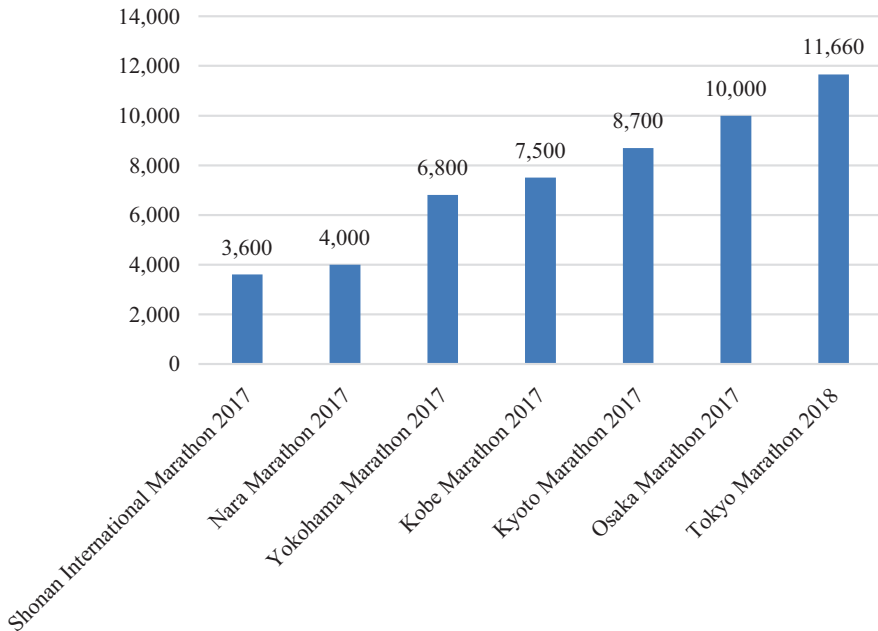
interests, sport, social contribution, incentives, support for athletes, organizational obligation, and learning and experiencing.

Volunteering at running events is common in Japan – with the Tokyo Marathon attracting 11,660 volunteers (Yamaguchi 2018). Matsunaga (2012) found that social, self-development, regional contribution, the sport, and incentives were key to volunteering in the Kyoto Marathon (see Fig. 12.4).

More recently, in a study funded by the Sasakawa Sport Foundation, Yamaguchi et al. (2017) produced a report on the conceptualization of Japanese sport volunteers. The grant and study were founded on the notion that the majority of studies on motives of Japanese volunteers have utilized items and scales developed in the West, which may mean that the specific cultural intricacies of Japanese volunteering have not been fully captured or explained. Therefore, using a qualitative method including focus groups and interviews with students and volunteers at sport events, the results showed that Japanese defined volunteering as a voluntary activity where individuals do not receive a reward. Further, volunteering was conceptualized as altruistic, an opportunity to help people, and sacrificing one's self. Participating in volunteer opportunities was dependent on the availability of one's discretionary time and money (breadth of mind).

### 12.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

A current challenge of volunteer management, especially sport volunteering, in Japan is institutionalization (Yamaguchi 2018). The Tokyo Marathon Foundation has launched an official volunteer organization in 2016, which provides their



**Fig. 12.4** The number of volunteers in city marathons

volunteers with training sessions, volunteer seminars, official volunteer certification, and various volunteering information. The organizing committees of the Rugby World Cup and the Tokyo Olympic and Paralympic Games have launched “Team No-Side” and “Tokyo 2020 Games Volunteer,” respectively, as their volunteer organizations. Not only international but also national and local event organizers need to promote the process of the institutionalization and develop a volunteer management system for sustainable development of volunteer culture in Japan. The next three years will be the key to achieve this important agenda.

The Tokyo Metropolitan Government could learn from the example of the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games for this agenda. Recent work by Fairley and colleagues (Fairley et al. 2014, 2016) revealed the legacy of the 2000 Sydney Olympic volunteers, which included the starting and/or rekindling of a volunteer career, the development of a unique set of skills and abilities, and nostalgia for the atmosphere of the Games with a special emphasis on the ideals of Olympism. To ensure the volunteer legacy from the 2019 Rugby World Cup, the 2020 Tokyo Olympic and Paralympic Games, and the World Masters Games 2021 Kansai, leveraging strategies to encourage continued volunteering, which consider future pathways for volunteering, are necessary.

For successful volunteer management as well as recruitment, understanding differences in types of volunteers (Yamaguchi 2018) and volunteer constraints (Yamaguchi et al. 2018) is necessary. Some people regard volunteering as serious

leisure, which is “substantial and interesting for the participant to find a career there in the acquisition and expression of a combination of its special skills, knowledge, and experience” (Stebbins 1997, p. 17). By contrast, others regard it as casual leisure, which is “immediately, intrinsically rewarding, relatively short-lived pleasurable activity requiring little or no special training to enjoy it” (Stebbins 1997, p.18). Senior, compared to young, volunteers appear to partake in volunteering as serious leisure, and they help to run events as volunteer leaders and play an important role in guiding less-experienced volunteers (Yamaguchi 2018). Another key topic is volunteer constraints (Yamaguchi et al. 2018). Jackson (2000) defined constraints as “factors that are assumed by researchers and/or perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of leisure preferences and/or to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure” (p. 62). A 69-year-old Japanese tourism volunteer who plans to take part in the Tokyo Olympics mentioned: “Although retired people like me can find the time, younger working generations would have trouble being confined for such long hours. ... a few people around me say they want to be Tokyo Games volunteers but can’t because there are too many *constraints*” (italics added; The Japan Times 2018). In fact, Yamaguchi et al. (2018) reported that volunteers aged 10-20 showed a higher level of structural (e.g., lack of time) as well as intrapersonal (e.g., lack of interest) constraints than those over 30. Additionally, female volunteers reported a higher level of structural and intrapersonal constraints than male volunteers. Further, research into Japanese individuals aged between 60 and 74 found that the most common reasons for nonparticipation in volunteer activities are a lack of time to participate and that individuals were unsure where they should go to participate (Lee et al. 2008). Understanding volunteer constraints will lead to better volunteer management as well as recruitment.

## 12.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

Japan is scheduled to host three major international sporting events in the next three years: the 2019 Rugby World Cup, the 2020 Tokyo Olympic and Paralympic Games, and the World Masters Games 2021 Kansai. In this context, volunteering has received extensive attention in Japan in recent times. In fact, over 38,000 people have applied for the 10,000 available volunteer positions at the 2019 Rugby World Cup (The Mainichi 2018). The Olympic organizing committee and the Tokyo Metropolitan Government plan to recruit 110,000 volunteers. While the event itself requires 80,000 volunteers to run the event (Games volunteers), 30,000 volunteers will serve as guides for transportation and other services in the city (city volunteers). The volunteers will be required to work about eight hours a day for at least 10 days, and they will also have to attend several orientation and training sessions (The Tokyo Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games n.d.). Effective and efficient volunteer recruitment and management is key for the success of the 2020 Tokyo Olympic and Paralympic Games.

The volunteer recruitment for the Olympic Games, however, caused some controversy in Japan (cf. NHK World-Japan 2018). When the draft requirements were announced in March, the committee was widely criticized, mostly on social media, and accused of potentially exploiting unpaid workers. As a result, the committee changed some requirements (e.g., compensation for transportation cost under certain circumstances) to mitigate the negative reaction. The negative reaction might be attributed to the commercialism associated with the Olympic Games – which is in contrast to the original image of volunteering activities in Japan that are deeply related to altruism. The commercial aspect of the Olympic Games might be perceived as not being suitable for the spirit of volunteers. Also, it might reflect the lack of familiarity with volunteering for sport events. As mentioned above, only 3.7% of people participated in “Activities Related to Sports, Culture, Art, and Academics” (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications 2017). The number would be much lower if the survey collects data specifically for sport events.

The Tokyo Metropolitan Government has introduced some measures to increase volunteering in Japan based on the survey reported above (Tokyo Metropolitan Government 2018c). For example, the results of the survey revealed that 47.0% of people who had volunteered in the past received information about the opportunity to volunteer from their school or workplace. To encourage more active promotion of volunteering, the Tokyo Metropolitan Government has created an award to recognize organization’s contribution to volunteering activities (Tokyo Metropolitan Government 2018b). The survey also revealed that 57.9% of people were willing to volunteer but were constrained by time. The Tokyo Metropolitan Government therefore designed promotional materials to introduce volunteering activities which people can do for a short period of time (Tokyo Metropolitan Government 2018a). Thus, the government is active in trying to create a culture of volunteering.

## 12.5 Conclusion

This chapter examined the current state of volunteering in Japan. Volunteering has increased over the past 20 years, but it is largely influenced by the occurrence of natural disasters – with volunteering increasing significantly around natural disasters. Volunteering also spikes around Japan’s hosting of large-scale sport events. However, volunteering in general sports activities is limited. This is acknowledged by the government, resulting in the recent creation of strategies to encourage more volunteering in sport. This is necessary as Japan is hosting three major international sport events in the next three years, each of which requires a large number of volunteers. This may prove challenging as volunteering for sport is a relatively new concept and is potentially in contrast to the Japanese cultural belief that volunteering should be altruistic.

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# Chapter 13

## The Netherlands



Jo Lucassen and Marieke Reitsma

**Abstract** The voluntary sports sector is the largest voluntary sector in the Netherlands. Due to the period of pillarization in the 2000s, a sports association boom was established. Volunteers still mainly run sports clubs. However, some elements of voluntary work are changing. Members tend to act more as consumers, and the government tries to incorporate sports organizations in its policy regarding social issues. These changes put pressure on the voluntary sector. However, thousands of people are still active on and around the Dutch sports fields every weekend. They perform different kinds of tasks, varying from administration and management tasks to training, coaching, and arbitrating tasks. Sports associations can remunerate their volunteers by paying them a tax-free volunteer allowance up to 1,500 EUR per year. In addition to the remuneration, many sports clubs have initiatives to retain their volunteers and recruit new ones. The appreciation of volunteers has also become an important issue.

### 13.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

Sports volunteers are defined as people who without obligation and unpaid fulfill a task within a sports organization. This concerns labor that is not part of someone's daily profession. Persons who on a declaration basis receive an expense allowance from an association or receive a tax-free volunteer allowance are also counted as volunteers. The Dutch term for volunteering is *vrijwilligerswerk doen*, that is, "work that is performed not obliged and unpaid for the benefit of others or society" (Ministerie van cultuur recreatie en maatschappelijk werk CRM 1982).

Compared to other countries where facilities in various social areas are mainly produced by the government (state) or companies (market), private, noncommercial organizations in the Netherlands have always played an important role in the

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provision of health care, culture, well-being, and sports. The fact that this third sector plays such a major role has evolved historically as a result of a government policy that allowed different population groups (Protestants, Catholics, workers) to build up these facilities in their own circles, often based on religion. With this solidarity in their own circles, great importance was also attached to voluntary efforts and mutual assistance. After 1960, these pillarized facilities were gradually transformed into general organizations.

Partly as a consequence of this pillarization, many sports associations were founded between 1920 and 1970 (Breuer et al. 2017). Of the existing clubs, the majority (59%) were founded between 1946 and 1989 and 93% of all Dutch sports clubs were founded before 2000. This means there are relatively few “young” clubs. Only 7% were founded after 2000. From a European perspective, the Netherlands have the highest percentage of old clubs. However, other countries with strong association cultures in sports, like Switzerland and Germany, have similar percentages (Breuer et al. 2017).

The strong association culture in Dutch sports is inseparably connected to a strong culture of volunteering. Sports clubs depend on their volunteers and need them to secure their future existence. The most exemplary case of this phenomenon is football, the national number one sport in the Netherlands. Football is the most popular of all sports and also facilitates the most volunteers. Each weekend, millions of people are involved, on the football field as well as off the field. The Dutch football federation *KNVB* has 1.2 million members who actively play football (17 million citizens in the country). Moreover, every weekend 400,000 volunteers are supporting the 3,000 local football clubs (KNVB 2017).

Concurrently, recent decades have been characterized by a trend of individualization in society in general (Schnabel 2004). The assumption is that individuals approach a sports club more like a consumer, which leads to a decreasing interest in volunteering. As a result, sports organizations seem to have more difficulty in retaining their volunteers. However, Van der Roest (2015) concluded that there is no empirical evidence for the emergence of sports consumers in sports clubs. Statistics show that the share of volunteers in the Netherlands has remained stable at 15% of the population over the past two decades (Tiessen-Raaphorst 2015).

In the Netherlands doing voluntary work is considered to be noble. There is a strong belief that volunteers should control sports associations, although this belief has shifted slightly in the past few years. The SIVSCE European research program asked members of European sports clubs in 10 different countries about this belief. The results show that in the Netherlands, 54% of the members agreed with the statement that volunteers should run their club, 22% were undecided, and almost a quarter disagreed (Breuer et al. 2017). Almost nine out of 10 board members in the Netherlands expect their members to perform voluntary tasks. However, some clubs hire paid staff to deal with the increasing workload. These are mainly large sports clubs where paid managers take care of daily business. Despite the fact that public opinion seems to have shifted to a greater acceptance of paid staff, these paid managers are only found in 1% of all Dutch sports clubs (Breuer et al. 2017).

The degree of volunteering in sports is also the reason why sport is a cost-efficient sector. This makes it an attractive sector for the government. It is inexpensive and

can contribute to the realization of goals in several areas through its social value and reach in the population.

### ***13.1.1 How Voluntary Is Volunteering: Guided or Obligatory Voluntary Work?***

In the past decade, there is an increasing focus on voluntary work as a means to allow citizens to participate actively in society. By doing voluntary work, people isolated from society can be guided back to social activities, reintegration, and employment. Volunteering associations are interested in these new ways of volunteering. It offers an opportunity to recruit new volunteers without too much effort. Schools offer a fruitful place for finding young potential volunteers because they often encourage youth to participate in internships. Business companies also offer a place for finding volunteers, as they encourage their employees to volunteer. This is because volunteering contributes to developing new competences. In addition, it stimulates meeting new people and commitment to society.

This new way of volunteering, as a means of stimulating people to participate, has implications for the perception of volunteering itself. The argument can be made that using voluntary work as an including mechanism diminishes the level of voluntariness. When employees are pressed by their employers to do voluntary work, to what extent do they really have a free choice? This tendency is described with the term “guided voluntary work” (Dekker et al. 2007). This occurs when an obligation to participate in voluntary work or requirements for participation are set by others. According to Kuperus et al. (2008), voluntary work can be seen as a spectrum with absolute volunteering on the one hand and guided volunteering on the other hand. In absolute volunteering, a person is taking the initiative by himself to perform voluntary work. In guided volunteering, someone else takes the initiative. The extent to which someone has free choice about the specific tasks or settings can differ.

This discussion also occurs within sports organizations. The dilemma whether or not club members need to volunteer is a hot topic in sports clubs. Some sports clubs let their members decide for themselves and restrict their policy to encouraging. Others strongly expect or even oblige their members to do voluntary tasks. Also, clubs can ask for an additional contribution from members who are not willing to volunteer (Slender 2011).

### ***13.1.2 Remuneration***

Organizations in the Netherlands have the possibility of giving their volunteers a tax-free volunteer allowance. The Dutch tax authority issued special regulations for these allowances (Belastingdienst 2017); for example, remunerated activities executed by volunteers may not correspond with their daily job. In addition, maximum

amounts of remuneration are set. They may not exceed 150 EUR per month and 1,500 EUR per year. Sports associations can use tax-free allowances as a compensation for volunteering. However, only half of all sports clubs know about this and only half of these actually make use of it (Tiessen-Raaphorst 2015).

To retain and reward their volunteers, sports clubs want to be able to pay higher allowances. At the instigation of national sports federations, the maximum level of the volunteer allowances has been raised several times.

## 13.2 Volunteer Workforce in the Netherlands

### 13.2.1 *Volunteering in Sports Clubs*

The average number of volunteers in a Dutch sports club is around 40 people. One among five club members is a permanent volunteer. The most recent polls of the national sports clubs monitor confirm this picture: 34% of the members are active as a volunteer, of which 21% are in a permanent position, and 13% on occasional base (Breuer et al. 2017).

It is not surprising that large clubs, associations for outdoor sports, and associations with their own facilities on average have more volunteers than other associations, because there is more work to be done. However, the relative share of volunteers within these clubs is lower than in the smaller clubs. Volunteers perform various functions in the club, for example, as a board member, trainer, coach, referee, official, competition or tournament leader, administrator, and field manager. Volunteers in fixed positions are mainly occupied with tasks on four different. Almost one-third (30%) is active in administration and management, for example, in a board position. In a European context, this is a low number. In most countries almost half of the total voluntary crew is in administrative or management positions (Breuer et al. 2017). Forty-five percent of Dutch sports volunteers are active in sport and training and sport and competition. This could be a position as a trainer, coach, or referee. The remaining quarter indicates they are occupied with “other” tasks. Some sporting activities (e.g., volleyball, football, and gymnastics) follow the custom that the club makes referees or judges available at matches from their own ranks. In others (e.g., judo), this is done by the relevant national sports federation. About one-third of the associations (39%) have one or more paid employees in addition to volunteers. The average number of paid employees is 2.5 per association. Usually there are one or two paid employees and in some exceptional cases over 50. The sports clubs employ paid employees on average for 28 hours per week (Kalmthout and Van Ginneken 2017).

### 13.2.1.1 Demographic Characteristics of Volunteers in Sports Clubs

NOC\*NSF, the national sports federation, monitors volunteers in sports clubs. One of their goals is to take care of the education and quality of the voluntary staff and to keep up the sports participation in the Netherlands. They report on the characteristics of volunteers in sports clubs, such as gender, age, and remuneration (Oomens and Van der Linden 2015). When we look at the different groups of workers in sports clubs – board members, sports coaches, and referees – it appears that for all categories, men make up two-thirds or more. Women are most present in board positions (31%) compared to being present as technical staff (26%) or arbitrating staff (22%). In terms of age, almost half of the board members of associations are older than 55 years. This resembles the age distribution of referees. In contrast, approximately two-thirds of coaches are younger than 55 years (see Fig. 13.1).

Considering the educational level, the higher educated are overrepresented among the board members (63%), coaches (60%), and referees (50%; see Fig. 13.2). Many of the workers involved in sports clubs have extensive experience. For all categories, the average number of years of experience in the job is 14 years (Oomens and Van der Linden 2015).

### 13.2.1.2 Lack of Volunteers

Although the share of volunteers in the Dutch sports sector has been stable over the last 20 years, a significant part of sports clubs indicate that they feel like they could use more volunteers. This is not completely new. For decades, sports clubs have been struggling with a lack of sufficient or of qualified volunteers (Manders and Kropman 1979). Sports clubs are continuously busy recruiting and training new volunteers. To some extent, this could be inherent to the volunteering culture that

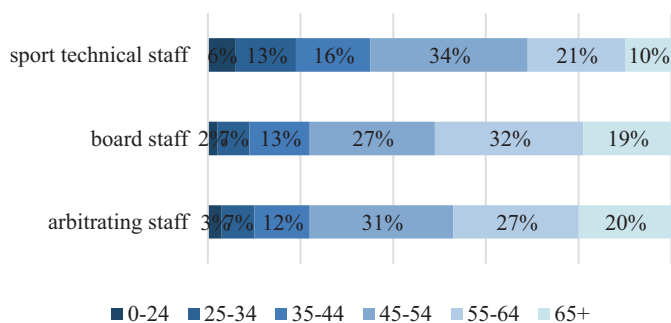


Fig. 13.1 Distribution of age; (Source: Oomens and Van der Linden 2015)

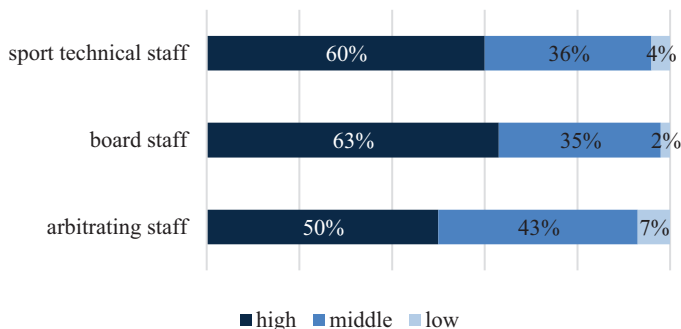


Fig. 13.2 Distribution of educational level (Source: Oomens and Van der Linden 2015)

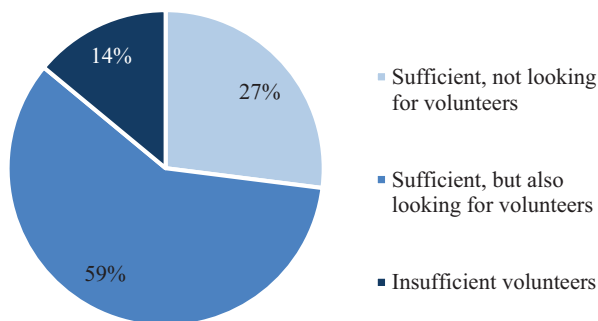


Fig. 13.3 Sufficient numbers of volunteers in sports clubs (Source: Kalmthout and Van Ginneken 2017)

Dutch sports clubs are characterized by, assuming that volunteers occupy volunteering positions for a relatively short time. However, we know that fixed volunteers remain active for their sports club for 10 years on average (Oomens and Van der Linden 2015). Despite this fact, many clubs face the continuous challenge of filling their volunteering positions. Figure 13.3 shows that most sports clubs (86%) have enough volunteers. Mostly smaller clubs report that they have sufficient volunteers and are not looking for new volunteers. Large sports clubs, clubs for team sports, and sports clubs who own facilities tend to need new volunteers and are always looking for new manpower (Kalmthout and Van Ginneken 2017). Over 50% of the respondents consider this a large or semi-large problem. One out of 20 clubs even indicates that a lack of board members is a threat for their future existence.

### 13.2.2 *The Evolution of Sports Volunteering in the Netherlands*

Between 2000 and 2012, the total volume of volunteering in sport has increased significantly. This increased level is reflected in the increase in sports clubs and membership numbers in some branches of sports, including athletics and martial arts, some indoor sports, and golf and some outdoor sports. In other branches of sports, for example, individual indoor sports, team indoor sports, and tennis, there has been a decrease of clubs and members. As presented in Table 13.1, in 2012 more than half a million people actively participated in their sports club as a volunteer. Among these, almost 200,000 were volunteering in a football club. The 560,000 volunteers in sports clubs altogether worked 2.2 million hours.

Differences are also visible between sports clubs in urban areas (*Randstad*) and rural areas. The role a sports club has in a community seems dependent on its location. In rural areas, sports clubs are more important for the sense of community and social commitment. Sports clubs in these areas have fewer difficulties recruiting volunteers (Hoekman et al. 2015).

### 13.2.3 *Volunteering for Sports Events*

Besides volunteers in fixed positions, many people are volunteering in sports clubs by supporting a single event or by fulfilling a single task. This concerns 13% of sports club members (Breuer et al. 2017) who mostly volunteer for sports events. These volunteers are active in a more episodic form, as they are involved in a single event. Episodic volunteering in the Netherlands is not embedded historically as much as volunteering in sports clubs, but it is becoming more popular (see Table 13.2). The flexible characteristics of event volunteering match the changing preferences and requirements of volunteers (Dekker et al. 2007).

The *Nijmeegse Vierdaagse*, one of the biggest annual events in the Netherlands, is a four-day hiking trial around Nijmegen city. Over 40,000 people participate every year. To support the event, the organization works with over 350 volunteers. In 2017, each of these volunteers spent on average 110 hours on voluntary work. They indicated a workload of more or less 47 hours before the event and an additional 63 hours

**Table 13.1** Employment of volunteers in sports clubs (excl. water sports clubs), last week of September 2000 and 2012 (in percentages and absolute numbers)

Year	Share of clubs with volunteers (%)		Volunteers (×1,000)		Voluntary working hours (×1,000)	
	2000	2012	2000	2012	2000	2012
Total sports clubs	86	82	538	560	2,099	2,229

Source: Tiessen-Raaphorst (2015)

**Table 13.2** The Netherlands' volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in the Netherlands
Population size	17 million
Official languages	Dutch
Volunteer rates (year)	49% of the population <sup>a</sup>
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	yes, 28.,000
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	European Championships in Track and Field (2016), Start Giro d'Italia (2016), Start Tour de France (2015), Hockey World Championships (2014)
Sports volunteer rates	15% of the population <sup>b</sup>
The word for volunteering	<i>Vrijwilligerswerk</i>
The meaning of the word	Doing voluntary work. "Work that is performed not obliged and unpaid for the benefit of others or society"
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	Individualization, restructuring of the welfare state, duty of care

Source: <sup>a</sup>Schmeets and Arands (2017); <sup>b</sup>Tiessen-Raaphorst (2015)

during the event. However, they also mentioned that voluntary work enhances their level of energy; 73% of them felt appreciated when working for the *Vierdaagse*, while 62% stated that they made new friends during the event. Noteworthy is the fact that responding volunteers had already been volunteering in the *Vierdaagse* for 10 years on average. There is an equal gender distribution of volunteers (Mulier Instituut 2017).

During the summer of 2016, Amsterdam was the host city of the European Championships in track and field. To make this large sports event happen, 1,750 volunteers were utilized. The organizers of the event hired a management and consulting company to take care of the volunteer management. Their approach was very professional, including a written strategy motivated by former experience. Long before the actual event (December 2015), the intended 1,750 volunteers had already signed up. The organizers even had to create a waiting list. A noteworthy fact is that the company tried to match each volunteer with an appropriate position. They organized introductory meetings where screenings were conducted in order to determine everyone's talents and preferences. Men and women were equally distributed, and a small majority of the voluntary crew was younger than 40 (53% younger than 40, 47% 40+). Most volunteers already had experience in sports events (72%), but only 39% of them were connected to the athletics association (European Athletics Championships 2016).

### 13.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

Management of voluntary staff is an important topic that is gaining popularity. Volunteers attach importance to appreciation and support from their sports clubs (Breuer et al. 2017).



### ***13.3.1 Recruiting, Educating, and Retaining Club Volunteers***

Various sports federations, as well as the national sports federation NOC\*NSF, are targeting the problem of volunteer shortage. They have developed support for issues such as recruiting, educating, managing, and retaining volunteers. This should help sports clubs to be better prepared for the job. The European SIVSCE research project concluded that sports clubs working with a special volunteer coordinator are more successful in recruiting new volunteers. In the Netherlands, 72% of clubs mainly recruit through the networks of current volunteers and members and only 15% have a volunteer manager or coordinator (Elmose-Østerlund et al. 2017).

A related issue is the educational level of volunteers in sports clubs. In the Netherlands, there is the growing awareness that the education of sports volunteers is generally substandard. However, only 44% of the sports clubs offer training programs or qualifications to their volunteers (Breuer et al. 2017).

### ***13.3.2 Volunteer Management in Sports Events***

It seems that volunteer management at sports events is approached in a more professional way than volunteer management in sports clubs. Event organizers may hire professional enterprises to take care of the volunteer management. They apply modern ways of communication and provide clear information. For example, for the European Athletics Championships, a special *Volunteers 2016 app* was developed. The app allowed volunteers to overview their own schedules and the schedules of other volunteers. Instructions, locations, and contact forms were also available in this app. The application was very much appreciated by those involved.

Another way, in which the more professional approach is expressed, is of rewarding and appreciating volunteers. In the run-up to the athletics championships in July 2016, inspiration sessions for volunteers were organized to inform and motivate them. Also, free clothing was handed out. During the event, the organization facilitated a “volunteer’s home.” After the event, all volunteers were celebrated on “medal plaza,” and there was a big party afterward.

The bureau SportYv noticed that many event volunteers participate in several events. They started an online platform “EventMakers” where these volunteers can be visibly listed for event organizers. The platform has already been successfully used for large sports events in the Netherlands, like the World Championships Short Track (speed skating) and the World Triathlon Grand Finale (Eventmakers 2016).

## 13.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

### 13.4.1 *Sports Policy on the National and Local Level*

The Netherlands can be labeled as a unitary state. The national government (seated in the Hague) has the authority to constitute legislation. The national government does not have any legislation specifically concerning sports. However, a national sports policy by the Ministry of Public Health, Welfare and Sports (*Ministerie van VWS*) aims mainly at accessibility of sports for youth, supporting social initiatives in the field of sports and securing safety in the context of sports. In October 2017, a new Dutch administration began preparing a national sports agreement for the government and the sports sector (Ministerie van Volksgezondheid - Welzijn en Sport (VWS) 2018). In this agreement, voluntary sports clubs and volunteers have a central role. Actually there is no direct support or funding from the national government to voluntary sports clubs. However, there are two different ways in which these organized sports clubs encounter governmental support indirectly.

First, the national government is cooperating with national sports federation NOC\*NSF to execute their sports policy. NOC\*NSF is an association of almost all national sports-specific federations such as the football federation or the gymnastics federation. On the one hand, they are working in elite sports, for example, by supporting young talented sportsmen or by supporting the national team at the Olympic Games. On the other hand, they focus on grassroots sports and support sports federations in achieving an attractive sports participation climate. NOC\*NSF also financially supports grassroots sports by distributing the revenues of the national lottery. This involves around 45 million EUR annually (NOC\*NSF 2018). To support voluntary sports clubs NOC\*NSF uses a substantial part of this budget.

Second, local authorities of municipalities often have their own sports policies. Direct subsidies to voluntary sports clubs are not very common. However, they often intervene via indirect subsidies, such as reduced prices for accommodation use and specific event subsidies.

### 13.4.2 *Shift to a More Instrumental Policy Toward Volunteering*

The policies for sports clubs and to encourage voluntarism in general have been developing recently with intertwining effects. Both in sports and in volunteering policy, an increasing focus is put on actively involving citizens in the society (Boss et al. 2011). Volunteering is considered as a way for immigrants to become acquainted with the community, through participation in language courses or projects. It is a way to get people out of isolation and lead them back to the labor market, by social activation and reintegration. The changing governmental volunteering policy is a result of a reconsideration of the role and task of the national government

and the restructuring of the welfare state. The government considers social initiatives and social entrepreneurship as a powerful development and promotes and supports this. The shift from national welfare services to civil-based social services has been labeled by the government as the need for a “doing-democracy” (Plasterk and Van Rijn 2014). In this process, more and more responsibilities from the national government have been redistributed to municipalities. Municipalities have legally enlarged tasks with regard to social welfare, youth and social care, health care, and employment.

The revised Social Support Act 2015 (WMO) was introduced in 2015. Municipalities are now responsible for supporting people who need help at home, for example, chronically ill, disabled people, or people with a mental illness. Through the WMO they can get domestic help, guidance, or day care. Family and voluntary caregivers play an important role. The WMO requires municipalities to actively support family caretakers and care volunteers. Executing the *Social Support Act and Participation Act* has led to municipal budget cuts.

Anyone who can work, but in doing so needs support, is subject to the *Participation Act 2015* (Ministerie van Algemene Zaken 2015), introduced on January 1, 2015. This law was developed to assist people to find labor or paid work. The basic idea is that every citizen should contribute with his/her best abilities to society. The Dutch government promotes the “participatory society”: people should take as much responsibility as possible for their own lives and the environment. The level of self-reliance among citizens is fairly stable: two out of five Dutch are volunteering on average one hour per week (Hetem and Franken 2015). There is some resemblance to the concept of the *Big Society* in the UK and *Bürgerkommunen* in Germany (Van Houwelingen et al. 2014). Municipalities are responsible for implementing this. They will decide which form of support is eligible and what is demanded in return from the supported civilians. Many of them encourage people without paid work to make themselves socially useful by doing volunteer work.

An increasing recourse is to use voluntary organizations. The decentralization requires a new way of involving citizens and involvement of organizations in their neighborhood. This gives voluntary organizations opportunities to cooperate with municipalities and welfare organizations in implementing the decentralized public services. Sports clubs may take on the maintenance of public facilities such as a swimming pool and recruit unemployed people to volunteer for this work. By doing so, they will strengthen their own capacities and improve their public image. Not all voluntary organizations will be equipped to play this role however, because it requires expertise, quality, and continuity to organize and coordinate this voluntary work.

Voluntary action has become a major instrument to achieve policy objectives on the local level. Contributing to the realization of these policy objectives through voluntary action is important, but it also has a financial aspect. In 2011, alongside the decentralization, a budget cut of 140 million EUR was made in the Social Support Act. In short: more voluntary work is expected for less money.

### 13.5 Conclusion

In this chapter we described several aspects of Dutch volunteering in sports. The voluntary sports sector is the largest voluntary sector in the Netherlands, ahead of schools, churches, and home care. Today, volunteers mainly run sports clubs. Over one million people are active volunteers in Dutch sports every year. They perform different kinds of tasks, varying from managerial and administrative tasks to training, coaching, and refereeing. Many sports clubs need more volunteers and undertake initiatives to retain their volunteers and recruit new ones. Volunteering is indirectly supported by national and local governments and by national sports federations. Sports clubs can remunerate their volunteers by paying them a tax-free volunteer allowance up to 1,500 EUR per year.

However, developments in society toward individualization and consumerism combined with the restructuring of the welfare state have implications for the voluntary sports sector. Members of sports clubs tend to act more as consumers, and local governments are inviting sports organizations to assist in delivering social services. These changes are challenging voluntary sports clubs and their culture of volunteering.

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# Chapter 14

## New Zealand



Richard Keith Wright and Koji Kobayashi

**Abstract** The culture of volunteering constitutes an integral part of active lifestyle and national identity of New Zealanders. However, Smith and Cordery (2010, p. 6) delineate “the difference between the European concept of giving (volunteering) and the Māori concept of cultural obligation (sharing).” As such, the concept of volunteering can be most closely translated to the term *mahi aroha* in *te reo* (Māori language). In 2013, it was estimated that over 1.2 million New Zealanders participated in volunteering in a country of 4.4 million population. More recently, Gemba (2015) reports that over half of New Zealand’s sports volunteers also participated in event volunteering at least once a year. This chapter provides an overview of New Zealand’s expanding sports volunteer workforce, acknowledging the impact of the isolated nation’s emergence as an award-winning international sport event destination. It documents the role and relationship of central government in both fostering and funding local volunteer programs, before making a link to the concepts serious leisure and social capital. Finally, it provides a case study of the 2017 World Master Games Pit Crew, a team of 3,216 largely local volunteers who donated more than 75,000 hours of their time, working 19,000 shifts over a two-week period.

### 14.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

“... volunteers have become essential to the delivery of sport and recreation services, adding several hundred dollars of value per capita to the contribution that sport and recreation make to gross domestic product” (Green and Chalip 2004, p.49).

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Volunteering presents itself in many guises, but the overwhelming consensus among those who have tracked the movement and studied the motives of sports and sports event volunteers is that they are an essential and indispensable component of the sector, especially at the local community/nonprofit level (Allen and Shaw 2009; Baum and Lockstone 2007; Cuskelly et al. 2006; Doherty 2009; Eley and Kirk 2002; Green and Chalip 2004; Hustinx et al. 2010; Strigas and Jackson 2003; Taylor et al. 2012; Wicker and Hallmann 2012; Wilson and Musick 1997). The social, economic, and cultural value of volunteering has also been assessed and articulated within many academic explorations over the past two decades (Baum and Lockstone 2007; Burgham and Downward 2005; Eley and Kirk 2002; Green and Chalip 2004; Robinson and Palmer 2010). Wilson and Musick (1997) discussed the existence of two distinct categories of volunteer, based on the type of activities being undertaken. Formal volunteering covered unpaid work situated within a structured organizational setting, established to achieve a predetermined outcome, whereas informal volunteering incorporated all private/personal and unorganized actions/activities, typically involving family and friends.

Volunteering is commonly understood as unpaid work in formal organizations. However, this European-centric interpretation of volunteering is not universal as it has been identified in Māori, Pacific, and other ethnic communities in New Zealand that individuals' contributions to the greater good are more emphasized in the context of a family, extended family, or ethnic group (Smith and Cordery 2010). As the report from the Ministry of Social Development contends, "The concept of formal volunteering that only indicates work done for the benefit of others outside the family and within an organizational context, does not fit comfortably within a Māori or Pacific peoples' framework" (Wilson 2001, as cited in Smith and Cordery 2010, p. 6). Based on the work by the Office for the Community and Voluntary Sector (OCVS 2007), Smith and Cordery (2010) delineate that there is a "difference between the European concept of giving (volunteering) and the Māori concept of cultural obligation (sharing)."

As such, the concept of volunteering can be most closely translated to the term *mahi aroha* in *te reo* (Māori language). As defined by the OCVS (2007, p.1), "*Mahi aroha* is the unpaid activity performed out of sympathy and caring for others in accordance with the principles of *tikanga* [protocol] to maintain *mana* [prestige] and *rangatiratanga* [self-determination], rather than for financial or personal reward." In this context, "volunteering" is predominantly motivated by a sense of duty to *whānau* [extended family] or "*tikanga* Māori – doing the right thing according to their customs and beliefs handed down through generations" (OCVS 2007, p. 1). Given that volunteering is largely considered in relation to free choice as a central feature (Cuskelly et al. 2006), cultural obligation as a form of volunteering in non-European contexts may require extension of the interpretation of what volunteering entails.<sup>1</sup> Smith and Cordery (2010) suggest that there has been a trend in New Zealand for an increase in a flexible form of volunteering, such as event volun-

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<sup>1</sup>Conceptually, there is a debate on whether some extent of obligation or even coercion can be included as part of volunteering (Lockstone-Binney et al. 2010; Merrill 2006).

teering, in addition to a more traditional form of volunteering typically associated with membership at a particular organization.

## 14.2 Volunteer Workforce in New Zealand

The culture of volunteering constitutes an integral part of active lifestyle and national identity of New Zealanders. According to Statistics New Zealand (2016), it is estimated that over 1.2 million of the nation's 4.4 million population participated in volunteering in 2013 (up from 1 million in 2004). It is also estimated that 157 million hours of unpaid work were donated in 2013 (down from 270 million in 2004). Thus, it is fair to say that more people have participated in volunteering, yet generally people have been increasingly pressed to give up time to volunteer due to increased expectations for longer hours of work over recent years (Gemba 2015; Smith and Cordery 2010). Economically, the contributions of the nonprofit sector to the nation's gross domestic product (GDP) have grown from 3.64 billion NZD (2.5% of GDP) in 2004 to 5.96 billion NZD (2.7% of GDP) in 2013. Likewise, the number of nonprofit organizations has increased from 97,000 in 2004 to 114,110 in 2013. Interestingly, among the types of nonprofit organizations, "culture and recreation (including sports)" organizations had the largest category (44% of all), marking a growth from 43,220 in 2004 to 50,380 in 2013, while other categories such as "religion" and "business and professional associations and unions" fell in number over the same period. Within the category, the sport subgroup – including sport clubs and events – accounted for about 36% ( $n = 17,985$ ) in 2013. Therefore, while the number of unpaid work hours declined in general, the recent statistics clearly demonstrate the continued importance of the contributions of sport and recreation volunteers, and this has been further reinforced by the consistent rise in the number of sports-related nonprofit organizations and their economic contributions over the period.

The most recent Active New Zealand Survey estimates that there were 949,000 sport and recreation volunteers in 2013-2014 and suggests an increase of weekly participation by over one percentage point from the survey in 2007-2008 (Sport New Zealand 2015). According to Gemba (2015), 20% of adults in New Zealand have participated in sport or event volunteering in 2014-2015. Out of these sport volunteers, 40% volunteered at least once a week, and 70% had volunteered longer than a year. Gemba (2015) reports that these sport volunteers also participated in event volunteering once a year (52%), twice (31%), three to five times (13%), or more than five times (5%). As such, the frequency and longevity of sport and event volunteering are notable in New Zealand. Finally, the Gemba (2015) report claims that the younger generation (16-24 years old) has more "instrumental" motivations and expectations to gain new skills (over 30% of them) and improve employment prospects (over 20% of them) than the older generations. What is also interesting from the Gemba report is that Māori participants indicated a higher rate (over 40%) than other ethnicities for the reason to volunteer being "my children take part." This



emphasis on family orientation for volunteering can be explained by the concept of *mahi aroha*, underpinned by a sense of cultural obligation, mentioned in the above section. Notably, there is a growing literature on Māori principles, such as *manaakitanga* (ethic of caring), and their impacts on volunteers, sport clubs, and communities (Charlotte et al. 2017; Hippolite and Bruce 2013; Palmer and Masters 2010).

Table 14.1 shows general information about the characteristics of New Zealand with a focus on sports and event volunteering.

As indicated in Table 14.1, 2017 brought three major sport events to New Zealand, providing a wide range of volunteering opportunities across the country. The majority of research and reports suggest that sport and event volunteers in New Zealand are primarily driven by intrinsic motivations in association with the enjoyment, the social opportunities, the contributions to their community, and the greater good rather than particular extrinsic rewards or outcomes (Allen and Shaw 2009; Gemba 2015; Sport and Recreation New Zealand 2006, 2008). In their study of the 2006 New Zealand Masters Games in Dunedin, Allen and Shaw (2009) found that, while the primary motivations of volunteers were the enjoyment and the social aspects of volunteering, they appreciated a growing feeling of connection with the city through event volunteering. As one participant was quoted in the study, “it was nice to be part of something that was going on in Dunedin ... voluntary work really opens the whole place up to you” (Allen and Shaw 2009, p. 87). As such, event

**Table 14.1** New Zealand’s volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in New Zealand
Population size	4.4 million (2013) <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	English/ <i>te reo</i> Māori
Volunteer rates	27% (2013) <sup>a</sup>
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	yes
List of large-scale events hosted in last 10 years	Rugby World Cup (2011), Cricket World Cup (2015), British & Irish Lions Tour (2017), World Masters Games (2017a), Rugby League World Cup (2017)
Sports volunteer rates	20% in 2013 <sup>b</sup>
The word for volunteering	Volunteering/ <i>mahi aroha</i>
The meaning of the word	<i>Mahi aroha</i> – “the unpaid activity performed out of sympathy and caring for others” <sup>c</sup>
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	2011 Rugby World Cup <sup>d</sup>

Sources: <sup>a</sup>Statistics New Zealand (2016); <sup>b</sup>Gemba (2015); <sup>c</sup>Office for the Community and Voluntary Sector (2007)

<sup>d</sup>RWC 2011 Ltd. delivered NZ’s most comprehensive volunteer program, responsible for the recruitment and retention of an unpaid workforce of 5,000 people. The program’s planning documents, recruitment adverts/videos, role descriptions, interview templates, and training manuals are all freely available on the Sport New Zealand website, providing a resource toolkit for all future events. They can be accessed at <http://www.sportnz.org.nz/managing-sport/search-for-a-resource/tools-and-resources/rugby-world-cup-2011-volunteering-resources>

volunteering may foster a sense of belonging through contributions to a wider community or city much more so than sport volunteering, which tends to be driven by passion for a particular sport and family involvement.

### 14.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

Literature focusing on sport and event volunteering in New Zealand agrees that there is a set of different characteristics between sport and event volunteering. To begin with, sport volunteering is considered to be based on sustained involvement with sport organizations including clubs, schools, and communities. Gemba (2015) reports that the most common roles of sport volunteering are coaching, refereeing, and parent helping (e.g., Sport and Recreation New Zealand 2008; Sport New Zealand 2015). Over 30% of sport volunteers in its research engaged in one or more of these top three roles in 2014-2015. It is also evidenced that sport volunteers are often involved in multiple roles (Sport and Recreation New Zealand 2008). Moreover, Gemba (2015) reports that 54% of sport volunteers have participated as players of the respective sports. This is also reflected in the fact that rugby, a male-dominant sport, had more male volunteers (9% of all male sport volunteers versus 5% of all female sport volunteers), while netball, a female-dominant sport, had more female volunteers (16% of all female sports volunteers versus 4% of all male sport volunteers).

In terms of motivation, a unique aspect of volunteering for sport organizations is found in Gemba's (2015) data that parents volunteered because of their children's participation (as indicated by 30% of male and 40% of female volunteers), which may not be a strong case for event volunteering (Sport and Recreation New Zealand 2008). Because of this family-oriented nature of sport volunteering, the report to SPARC (2008) made a specific recommendation to develop a strategy to support parents of players for volunteer retention. Gemba (2015) also notes that the younger generation (16-24 years old) has more "instrumental" motivations and expectations to gain new skills (over 30% of them) and improve employment prospects (over 20% of them) than the older generations, although "fun and enjoyment" were still of their primary importance (over 50% of them). What is also interesting from the report is that Māori participants indicated a higher rate (over 40%) than other ethnicities for a reason to volunteer being "my children take part." This emphasis on family orientation for volunteering can be explained by the concept of *mahi aroha*, underpinned by a sense of cultural obligation, mentioned in the above section. Similarly, the earlier report from SPARC (2006, p.12) also found that "[g]iving up time for others was not seen as 'volunteering' for some Māori sport volunteers." Notably, there is a growing literature on Māori principles, such as *manaakitanga* (ethic of caring), and their impacts on volunteers, sports clubs, and communities (Charlotte et al. 2017; Hippolite and Bruce 2013; Palmer and Masters 2010).

In contrast to sport volunteering, event volunteering can be clearly differentiated on a few grounds. First, event volunteering often involves different roles such as

registering athletes, ushering spectators, selling goods as opposed to coaching, and refereeing, which are major volunteering activities at sports organizations (Allen and Shaw 2009). Second, event volunteering is often considered to be temporary or “episodic” (Lockstone-Binney et al. 2010). In this sense, Gemba’s (2015) finding is intriguing in that Indian and other Asian participants indicated higher rates of their involvement (26% and 19%, respectively) in one-off event volunteering than other ethnic groups (14% on average). Third, given these differences, motivations of event volunteers could be slightly more variable than those of volunteering at sport organizations. In their study of the 2006 New Zealand Masters Games in Dunedin, Allen and Shaw (2009) found that, while the primary motivations of volunteers were the enjoyment and the social aspects of volunteering, they appreciated a growing feeling of connection with the city through event volunteering. As one participant was quoted in the study, “it was nice to be part of something that was going on in Dunedin ... voluntary work really opens the whole place up to you” (Allen and Shaw 2009). As such, event volunteering may foster a sense of belonging through contributions to a wider community or city much more so than sport volunteering, which tends to be driven by passion for a particular sport and family involvement.

## **14.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society**

As volunteers are the main drivers of the nonprofit sector, it is considered important for a government to encourage and support volunteering as an indirect means to intervene into societal issues with respect to health, education, and crimes. In 2002, the New Zealand government formally adopted a policy on volunteering. The policy was set out to acknowledge the importance of contributions made by volunteers and outline the government’s commitments to support volunteers. In line with varied interpretations of volunteering, the policy uses an inclusive definition of volunteering, encompassing “fulfilment of cultural obligations,” as part of its vision (Office for the Community and Voluntary Sector 2007, p.44). This section reviews the ways in which sports and event volunteers are supported by government policy and then examines the intension and outcomes of the policy on volunteering in light of discussions on social capital and serious leisure.

### ***14.4.1 Funding for Infrastructure of Sports and Event Volunteering***

In terms of the relationship between the government and volunteers in New Zealand, it would be impossible to overemphasize the role of the lottery and gaming machines in funding projects and services for community benefits including sport and event volunteering. While targeted funding for high-performance sport has been intensely

debated in the previous literature (Sam 2012; Sam and Jackson 2004), the funding for community sport and volunteers has not been scrutinized at the same level of attention. New Zealand has a relatively unique funding support system of community sport through the lottery and gaming machines under the Gambling Act 2003. For instance, Lotto New Zealand, with assistance from Sport New Zealand, funded over 44 million NZD to sport clubs, events, and services, including the “Thank a Sport Maker” program which recognized and rewarded sport volunteers in 2015/2016 (Lotto New Zealand 2016). In addition, the Department of Internal Affairs (2015) estimates that more than NZD 200 million from gaming trusts has been returned to communities through annual grants, of which more than 40% has been allocated to sport clubs.

In 2010, the Department of Internal Affairs commissioned a systematic review of research on support of volunteering in order to assist the Lottery Grants Board in determining the most effective distribution of grants funding to communities. The review, prepared by Smith and Cordery (2010), identified the need for the government to invest in and develop infrastructure, training, and resources for “managers” of volunteers, in order to enhance recruitment and retention of volunteers. This is echoed by Gemba’s (2015) report which points out that the key to the retention of sport and event volunteers is more training and development opportunities. As Shaw (2009) contends, the experience of event volunteers is greatly affected by learning and training opportunities. However, the challenge here is that volunteer training often requires skilled (and paid) staff and formalized structure of programs to be comprehensive and effective, which risks being viewed as “too commercial” by altruistic volunteers and for social policy of the government.

#### ***14.4.2 Policy on Volunteering for Serious Leisure and Social Capital***

According to Parker (1992), regular volunteering represents a type of “serious leisure,” the characteristics of which include a need to persevere with the activity, the tendency to have a career in it, the acquisition or perception of durable benefits, the existence of a unique culture, and the ability to distinguish between participants and nonparticipants (Stebbins 1982). Stebbins (1996), the founder of the serious leisure perspective, also saw the connection, comparing the skills or knowledge required and the investment (temporal and tangible) made by “career” volunteers with that observed among more “casual” volunteers. Stebbins (2004) added to his initial acknowledgment of unpaid leisure careers, noting how skilled volunteering occupies a prominent place within a multitude of project-based leisure opportunities, including the planning and hosting of major sport events. Within New Zealand, Gemba (2015) reports that volunteers donated their time longer and more frequently when they were older and higher in household incomes. Its finding that younger generations were more driven by “instrumental” motivations (e.g., career progression)

implies that volunteering could be more associated with a form of serious leisure, which is likely to be inspired by self-interest rather than altruism (Stebbins 1996). This notion of self-interest or instrumentality as part of volunteering can be contradictory to the meaning of volunteering associated with the Māori understanding of *mahi aroha*.

While the meanings of volunteering are contested, it is clear that government policies and programs that actively encourage volunteering are often derived from, and driven by, an intention to establish a more inclusive social environment for local communities (Doherty and Misener 2008; Kay and Bradbury 2009). In this sense, the government's intervention through support of volunteers is considered as a policy instrument to generate social capital (Auld 2008; Coalter 2007; Price 2002). The line of studies on social capital and sport volunteering typically follows Putnam's (2001) understanding of social capital as a form of connectedness and the role of sport clubs in contributing to the development of it. Although little has been done within the New Zealand context, sport management research conducted in Australia, Japan, and the USA has illustrated the perceived, and occasionally proven, connections between voluntary community sport participation and the development of both social and human capital, noting how personal bridges and bonds can be established and sustained through civic engagement within nonprofit or charitable sporting networks (Darcy et al. 2014; Okayasu et al. 2010; Price 2002). Thus, future research may benefit from exploring how sport and event volunteering is interpreted and practiced differently among ethnic groups and how the government's policy on volunteering and the concepts of social capital and serious leisure can be informed and revisited by such differences.

## 14.5 WMG 2017: For the Love of Sport

In April 2017, New Zealand hosted the World Masters Games, the world's largest multisport event, attracting over 24,905 athletes, 2,579 supporters, and 1,094 non-playing officials from over 100 different countries (World Masters Games 2017a). Over 9,000 medals (3,124 medal ceremonies) were awarded over the 10-day event period, across 28 different sporting codes and 45 different sporting disciplines in 48 different competition venues, the vast majority of which were located in and around the host city of Auckland (World Masters Games 2017a). The World Masters Games (2017a) Board of Directors, recruited by Auckland Tourism, Events and Economic Development (ATEED) agency, adopted a decentralized delivery model, appointing a chief executive to lead a full-time workforce that progressively grew in size as the event drew closer. The key senior leadership roles were taken by experienced sport event managers, several of whom had worked together on other major sport events including the 2011 Rugby World Cup, 2014 Commonwealth Games, or 2015 Cricket World Cup. The vision was to deliver the best World Master Games ever. The motto was: "For the love of sport."

The delivery of the different sport competitions was outsourced to 28 partners, most of whom were contracted in 2014 and 2015, following an initial period of negotiations. These partners were typically the national or regional sport organization.

To help raise local awareness and generate some pre-event media coverage, the WVC 2017 board also created 21 ambassador roles, awarded to several past Olympians, a former All Black, and three international guests, including Lord Sebastian Coe. Over 3,000 volunteers were recruited, split into 12 teams, each containing multiple roles (shown in Table 14.3). They were known from the outset as the Pit Crew. The size of the teams varied from less than 10 to over 200 (e.g., Athletics New Zealand required 200 technical officials). Every volunteer was interviewed prior to being allocated a role and had to commit to completing a minimum of four shifts during the games. Some shifts, such as participant and pit crew bag filling and athlete accreditation, required the volunteers to be available during the weeks that lead up to the event. Those involved in the opening ceremony were required to attend the rehearsal the evening before. There were also opportunities for volunteers to sign up for additional shifts in the lead-up and during the event itself. Table 14.2 provides a temporal breakdown of the WMG 2017 volunteer recruitment process.

Table 14.3 shows the different Pit Crew teams, including the roles and responsibilities that were placed within each area.

A 65-page “Pit Crew” pocket guide was given out to every volunteer who attended one of the official induction days or one of the team’s compulsory training days. The guide provided valuable information about the event (the vision and mission, sport, venues, sponsors, participant packages, and entertainment schedule), as well as a breakdown of the roles and responsibilities of the Pit Crew (Table 14.3). There was also information about the core attributes of being a Pit Crew member, as well as some clear guidelines of what was and was not allowed (e.g., be committed; act in a professional, respectful, and friendly manner; comply with all regulations; be open to taking on additional tasks; do not consume alcohol or smoke while wearing uniform; do not make offensive comments or gestures, harass, intimidate, or discriminate; do not ask VIPs for photographs or autographs while in uniform). The guide contained advice about dealing with unhappy athletes, disabled athletes, and athletes from other cultures, including those who were unlikely to speak any English. There was information about meals; shift schedules; check-in process, including key contact numbers; and the uniform that all Pit Crew members were expected to wear when working. Finally, the guide provided every member of the volunteer workforce with a 10-point code of conduct.

The efforts and attributes of the Pit Crew were publicly acknowledged on numerous occasions during and immediately after the event. Every volunteer was given a personalized certificate and gift on their final shift, along with the clothing (2 polo shirts and 1 jacket), backpack, baseball cap, water bottle, and two weeks of unlimited free travel on the city’s bus and train network. Two weeks after the event, there was a Pit Crew thank you party for the volunteers, hosted by the mayor of Auckland in the city’s town hall. It was well attended, with many choosing to wear

**Table 14.2** The Pit Crew recruitment process

Date (from)	Process
February 2016	Applications open
July 2016	Face-to-face interviews
October 2016	Role appointments
December 2016	Schedules released
March 2017	Training, uniform, and accreditation collection
April 2017	Games commence

**Table 14.3** The Pit Crew teams' roles and responsibilities

Pit Crew team	Roles include	Responsible for
Accreditation and registration	Team leader, crew	Ensuring all athletes, volunteers, officials, supporters, VIPs, and guests are accredited
Ceremonies	Team leader, crew	Assisting with general operational aspects of both the opening and closing ceremonies
Commercial	VIP crew, sponsor liaison	Servicing the needs of the international masters games association guests, sponsors, and partners
Communication services	Media services team, leader, media services crew, digital services crew	Collecting, writing, and editing content for a variety of official games channels and the media Providing support to accredited media at the WMG 2017 Media Centre
Games crew	Team leader, crew	Ensuring participants have all the information they require to compete and enjoy their time at each of the games venues Providing support to the sports delivery team and venues team
Logistics	Crew	Assisting with the setup of all venues, ensuring signage and equipment are delivered, set up, and ready for competition to begin
Transport – Fleet	Coordinator, driver	The coordination of a fleet of vehicles and drivers, providing a transport service to VIPs and special guests
Transport information	Transport hub crew	Providing assistance at the key hubs and the surrounding area to connect participants to relevant public transport and shuttle bus services
Workforce	Crew	Ensuring all volunteers are uniformed, trained, accredited, well informed, and well-looked after
Sport volunteer	Official Crew	Assisting with the delivery of each sport, including all officials, referees, and umpires, as well as those who marshal, assisting at aid stations, equipment setup, etc.
Technical volunteer	Technical delegate	Delivering the sport (appointed by the relevant international sports federation)
Medical volunteer	First aider	Assisting the professional medical service providers

Source: World Masters Games (2017b)

their distinctive green uniforms one more time. In terms of financial returns, the 2017 World Masters Games is reported to have exceeded all the key performance indicators, generating 34.2 million NZD incremental GDP (World Masters Games 2017a). The social impact was reported as being equally positive, with 91% of the Auckland residents surveyed reporting that the event enhanced their pride in the city and 88% of the 3,216 volunteers surveyed claimed that their involvement had increased their interest in volunteering at future sport events (World Masters Games 2017a). In terms of leaving a legacy, the profits generated by the event are set to be invested back into amateur sport across the Auckland region (World Masters Games 2017a). What remains unclear, however, is how many of the Pit Crew family were already actively involved in sport volunteering or how many have increased their involvement as a direct consequence of the WMG 2017. It would be equally valuable to determine the number of Pit Crew members who signed up to be a member of the sport volunteer team (by far the largest of the 12 teams) having never previously volunteered in the local sport sector, and how many of them have subsequently continued to assist that sport.

## 14.6 Conclusion

Gemba (2015) found that 20% of New Zealand's adult population had participated in some form of sport or event volunteering in 2014-2015, 70% of that number having volunteered for longer than a year. The Sport New Zealand commissioned report also revealed that over 50% of the community sport volunteers also gave their time to help out at events at least once a year (Gemba 2015). This chapter provides an overview of New Zealand's expanding sport volunteer workforce, documenting the role and relationship of central government in both fostering and funding local programs. The link to serious leisure consumption and social capital production is offered, along with an acknowledgment of the difference between the European/Western concept of "giving" and the Māori notion of "sharing" (*mahi aroha*). While the former is heavily influenced and impacted upon by temporal and spatial logistics and socioeconomic outcomes, the latter has a more cultural and historical underpinning, driven by traditions, customs, and a sense of civic duty. Finally, this chapter provides a case study of the Auckland-based volunteer program established to assist the 2017 delivery of the world's largest multisport event, the World Masters Games. Over a two-week period, a team of over 3,000 people gave over 75,000 hours of their time and participated in 19,000 shifts to help New Zealand host over 28,000 participants, officials, and supporters from over 100 different countries. Eighty-eight percent of those surveyed after the sport event claimed that their active involvement had increased their interest in future volunteering, suggesting that the vast majority of volunteers believed that they had personally profited from the social capital produced as a consequence of their involvement.



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# Chapter 15

## Oman



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**Abstract** This chapter discusses sports volunteering in Oman and focuses on volunteering at the 2nd Asian Beach Games Muscat 2010 as a case study. The 2nd Asian Beach Games Muscat 2010 is the largest sports event ever held in Oman and attracted the largest number of volunteers among Oman's sports events with 3,500 volunteers. This discusses how sports volunteering is not very popular in Oman compared with social and religious volunteering. There is no database for sports volunteering in Oman. Omanis have different motives to become involved in volunteering at the 2nd Asian Beach Games Muscat 2010, such as self-development, passion for the games, commitment as a citizen, nationalistic pride, and networking. The lack of management expertise is the main obstacle in organizing volunteers. Despite this, most of the Volunteers who are satisfied with their experience and gain personal benefits demonstrate an increased willingness to volunteer for sport events in the future.

### 15.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

In Arabic, the word volunteerism means *al-tatawwu*, which linguistically is derived from *tawa'a* (Ibn Manzur 2003). Mahmood (2014) points out that the word *tatawwu* consists of several etymological meanings that include acting voluntarily and without any enforcement, avoiding prohibited actions, and conducting extra work that is not obligated. The technical meaning of volunteerism is "to offer one's money or

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time (service) for the benefit of others for the sake of Allah” (Sulaiman 2011, p.5). A person is not called a volunteer unless he/she fulfills three conditions, namely, performing the act freely, doing the action for the benefit of others, and seeking Allah’s (God’s) pleasure.

Many religions and cultures view volunteerism as a great virtue and encourage their followers to practice it. Likewise, Islam encourages Muslims to act with good deeds and to signify the solidarity, unity, and cooperation among society’s members (Mohammed 2014). Thus, volunteering acts have received significant attention from Islamic *Shariah* (law), and there is much evidence for this. Both the Qur’an and Sunnah<sup>1</sup> mention the word of volunteerism in several ways. For example, the Qur’an clearly recalls the word of volunteerism two times in the second chapter. In the Qur’an (chapter 96, verse 158), Allah says: “Whoever volunteers good – God is Appreciative and Cognizant” (Talal 2012). In the same chapter, verse 184, Allah emphasizes the same word of volunteerism by saying “But whoever volunteers’ goodness, it is better for him” (Talal 2012). The Qur’an also mentions several Arabic synonyms of *al-tatawwu* including *alkhayr* (good deeds), *altanafful* (supererogatory performance), *allhsan* (philanthropy), *allthar* (unselfishness or preference), *aleafw* (forgiveness), and *aliinfaq* (spending; Sulaiman 2011). These words are related to the term of volunteerism, and they have comprehensive meanings, which include doing good deeds; forgiving others; participating in voluntary activities; conducting things perfectly, nicely, and beautifully; giving donations; being generous; acting in a humble way; and giving preference over oneself in terms of benefits (Mahmood 2014). In addition, the Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) also focused on voluntary work and advocated his followers toward this great work. A man came to the Prophet (peace be upon him) and said:

“O Messenger of Allah! Who are the most beloved people to Allah and what are the most beloved actions to Allah? The Prophet said: The most beloved people to Allah are those who are most beneficial to other people and the most beloved act to Allah is the joy that you bring to a Muslim or that you remove some difficulty from him or that you pay his debt or drive away his hunger”.

The Arabian Gulf countries share the same culture and belief in Islam, and the association between Islam and culture is virtually inseparable (Collet 2007). They mostly have the same social and volunteer practices because of the cultural and religious similarities (Al-ani 2017). In particular, Oman views voluntary work as a backbone in building, sustaining, and serving the society. The Omani terminology of voluntary work focuses on individuals’ contributions in operating organizations that mainly serve the community without any cost (Al-ani 2017). As a result, limited voluntary activities are practiced in Oman, and vital areas of economic, social, educational, cultural, and health sectors are still not included (Al-ani 2017). Yet, His Majesty Sultan Qaboos (the leader of Oman) has signified the attention of this activity and launched an award for volunteer work in February 2011 that helps to encourage volunteerism activities in different areas in Oman.

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<sup>1</sup> Sunnah refers to the actions and words of the Islam’s prophet as Muslims believe that Mohammed (peace be upon him) is the best model of life to follow.

## 15.2 Volunteer Workforce in Oman

The majority of volunteering work that can be found in Oman revolves around community services. The Ministry of Social Development is the official institute that organizes and coordinates the work of volunteering in Oman. Volunteering in Oman can be classified based on the types of volunteering and period of the involvement in volunteering. Since 2011, the number of volunteer organizations has increased to reach 135 compared to 16 in 1990 (Ministry of Social Development 2018b). According to the Ministry of Social Development (2018b), the five main types of organizations that cover volunteerism work in Oman include social centers, Omani women's associations, professional associations, charitable organizations, and community clubs. There are 26 Al-Wafa voluntary social organizations which mainly focus on helping and caring for disabled and disadvantaged children, elderly, and divorced people (Abed Rabbo 2014). However, since 2003, the names of the organizations have been changed into government centers, and all the volunteers have been employed. About 59 Omani women's associations aim to promote and integrate women's volunteering in different communities and developmental aspects (Ministry of Social Development 2018b). More than 31 professional associations assist employees in educational, medical, agricultural, legal, economic, and other different sectors (Ministry of Social Development 2018c). Almost 30 charitable fund associations with around 3,723 volunteers in Oman help the government in areas of societal welfare and development (Ministry of Social Development 2018a). The country also contains 17 social clubs for foreign communities that aim to strengthen the bonds of friendship and community spirit among its members (Ministry of Social Development 2018a).

Omani voluntary organizations offer short-term and long-term services. Most of the short-term services focus on community development projects that mainly relate to religious occasions, such as the holy month of *Ramadan*, *Eid al-Fitr*, and *Eid al-Adha*. One benefit of volunteering is to fulfill requirements of religious beliefs. Al-ani (2017) states that religion is the first significant motivation that encourages Omanis to volunteer. Sofy and Erfan (2014) point out that the principles of social solidarity in Omani are based on Islamic religious values, norms, and customs. Omani people volunteer to offer quality services, to develop personal and professional skills, to help needy people, and to contribute to the community (Abed Rabbo 2014). In addition, volunteers perceived several personal benefits from volunteering such as the value of acknowledgment, the feeling of belonging, and the loyalty to the community (Table 15.1).

There are also other social and economic benefits of volunteering. These include building the community, increasing social capital, teaching religious values, and conducting educational and health workshops and programs (Abed Rabbo 2014; Sofy and Erfan 2014). The benefits also include increasing the role of local and community charities as a result of the diminishing role of the government and its resources in meeting the economic, social, and cultural needs of citizens. Al-ani (2017) also found in his study that the benefits of volunteering in Oman include

**Table 15.1** Oman's volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in Oman
Population size	4.6 million <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	Arabic
Volunteer rates (year)	n.a.
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	n.a.
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	1 (the 2nd Asian Beach Games Muscat 2010)
Sports volunteer rates	n.a.
The word for volunteering	al-tatawwu
The meaning of the word	To offer one's money or time (service) for the benefit of others for the sake of Allah
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	2nd Asian Beach Games Muscat 2010

Source: <sup>a</sup>National Center for Statistics and Information (2018)

delivering public services; providing health, environment, social, and general administrative services involved in public welfare; and being a source of employment. On the other hand, there are several challenges faced by volunteers in Oman such as being away from family and friends, the lack of funding, the lack of the required experiences and skills, changing the management of the organizations, and the lack of coordination and cooperation among volunteers inside and outside the organizations (Abed Rabbo 2014; Sofy and Erfan 2014). The following section focuses on volunteering in sports events.

### 15.3 Volunteer Management in Sports Focusing on Sports Events

This section focuses on the 2nd Asian Beach Games, which were held in Muscat in 2010, as a case study. This sports event is considered the largest international sports event organized in Oman. The event was organized by the Omani Olympic Committee sponsored by the Omani Ministry of Sports Affairs and other governmental organizations. The Omani government allocated around 70 million OMR (190 million USD) for this event (Sablak-Oman 2010).

The Muscat Asian Beach Games were held from December 8 to 16, 2010. The event consisted of 52 sub-events, including the opening ceremony on December 8 and the closing ceremony on December 16, 2010. There were 14 different types of sports at the Games including beach soccer, beach volleyball, beach handball, water polo, and Jet Ski, among others; 1,146 athletes participated in this event from 43 countries. The number of volunteers in this event was 3,500, which was considered the largest number of volunteers in a sports event in Oman (Olympic Council of Asia 2010a).

According to officials at the Ministry of Sports Affairs, one of the challenges of the organizing committee of the Muscat Asian Beach Games was that there was no database for volunteers in sports events in Oman. Hence, the organizing committee had to create a committee of volunteers called Muscat 2010 Volunteers' Program and had to start from scratch to recruit volunteers and develop a database of sports volunteers.

The Muscat 2010 volunteer committee started to recruit volunteers and encourage Omani youth to participate in volunteering in such an event one year before the start of the event. For example, the committee participated in different career fairs in Oman to provide information about the volunteering opportunities and welcomed the expression of volunteering interests at the Muscat Asian Beach Games. The committee focused on recruiting volunteers who were 18 years and older and came from different backgrounds to utilize their current knowledge, skills, and experiences, as well as providing them with additional training, knowledge, skills, and experiences to contribute to the success of the Muscat Asian Beach Games. The logo of the Muscat 2010 Volunteering Program was created as sublogo of the official Asian Beach games logo. The logo of the Volunteering Program represented people holding hands, participating, and cooperating. The color used was red to represent the energy, excitement, and passion. The Muscat 2010 Volunteering Program also opened two recruiting centers, created a website and Facebook page, and provided a hotline telephone number in order to recruit and communicate with the volunteers (The Chinese Olympic Committee 2010). The volunteering opportunities were in different areas such as media services, venues, broadcasting, sports, games services, marketing, human resources, ceremonies, protocol, IT, accreditation, and medical services (Olympic Council of Asia 2010b).

We conducted interviews with individuals involved in the volunteering program at the Muscat Asian Beach Games. We contacted 14 of the volunteers and officials who were involved in the Muscat Asian Beach Games, but we received only six positive replies (four volunteers and two officials). A telephone interview was conducted to understand the motivations to volunteer, their experience, benefits gained from volunteering, and obstacles faced when volunteering at the Muscat Asian Beach Games in 2010. Interviews ranged between 30 and 45 minutes. All interviews were transcribed and analyzed following content analysis method. Content analysis is used to analyze qualitative data and commonly used to extract themes from interviews (McNabb 2013). Pseudonyms have been used to protect the identity of the interviewees.

### ***15.3.1 Motives for Sports Volunteering***

One of the findings of these interviews is that some of the main motives to sports volunteering in Oman are similar to what has been discussed in the literature in other countries. We found that the motivations to volunteer in sports events might be different from one person to the other. For instance, Khalid was 20 years old when he volunteered in this event. His main roles at the event were to help referees at



different games as well as transfer the results of the games to the committee responsible for announcing the results on the official website of the Asian Beach Games. Khalid stated his main motivations to participate in the event:

“I want to do something to my community and my country. I considered this event as a chance for me to pay back my country. It is a very nice feeling to do something for your home and loved country without looking for any payment. It is a very nice feeling when you do something not for yourself only but also for others, your country and society. When I heard the call for the need of volunteers in this event, I went fast and register my name. I wanted to make a difference in my country and to contribute to the success of this event. This event considered as one of the largest events in Oman and this is the chance for me to represent Oman in a suitable way to gain international recognition and prestige”.

Ahmed was another volunteer who heard about volunteering opportunities at this event while he was studying at a Tourism College in 2010. He said that most of the students at his college participated as volunteers. His main roles at the event were issuing visas and finalizing customs at the Muscat International Airport for the delegates and participants from all the Asian countries. His duties also included welcoming official delegates and VIPs coming for this event. When we asked Ahmed about his motivation in volunteering in this event, he said:

“This event is considered one of the largest sports event in Oman, it has a largely positive reputation and I wanted to be part of it. I wanted to try a new experience, which might change my life and I wanted to be part of the success of this event”.

Salim lived next to the sports city where the beach games were held. He knew about the volunteering opportunities from his family members. He was one of the members of the Games Committee. He was responsible for guiding the water polo teams to their locations and providing them with everything they needed. Salim’s main motivations to participate were: “I wanted to try a new experience and be a volunteer for the first time in my life. I wanted to increase the positive image of my city and do something to my society.”

Amit was another volunteer. He is originally from India but lives in Oman. He heard about volunteering opportunities at the Muscat Asian Beach Games from his school in Oman. Amit’s main role in the event was helping in issuing the anti-doping testing for the athletes. His main motivation to participate as a volunteer in this event was his love of sports. He stated, “I chose it as I was interested in sports and was involved in athletics during my schooling.”

Based on the responses of the volunteers, it can be seen that there are myriad motives to participate in sports volunteering in Oman. Some of these motives have been discussed in the sports volunteering literature, which include to do something to my country and community, commitment as a citizen, passion for the event or sports, be part of the success of the event, do something new, and getting new experience; (Hallmann and Zehrer 2016; Hallmann and Harms 2012; Giannoulakis et al. 2007). The effect of Islamic beliefs in driving Omanis to participate in sports event volunteerism is also reflected in the interviewees’ responses. For instance, Khalid referred his experience to creating difference and making something meaningful in his life.

### ***15.3.2 Satisfaction with Sports Volunteering***

When we asked the volunteers about their satisfaction levels from sports volunteering in Muscat Asian Beach Games, most of them were satisfied and wanted to participate again in such events in the future. For example, Khalid said, “I’m happy about this experience and I wish that we have more of such event in Oman. I will not forget this experience. I will not forget the memorable experiences such as hearing and singing ‘We are the Champions’ song, the music and the cheering in the games.”

Salim was also happy with this memorable experience and said, “Although it has been almost more than eight years since this event, there are several memorable experiences that I would not forget. I still have a water polo ball, which I received as a gift from one of the international referees. I still keep the volunteer T-shirt which still reminds me of my participation and involvement in this event.”

According to Salim, this was the first occasion of sports volunteering for him, and his willingness to volunteer in sports events has increased after this experience. One of the moments that Salim would not forget was the recognition and appreciation he and all the volunteers received for their roles in making this event successful. This recognition and appreciation of volunteers’ efforts was expressed by the President of the Asian Beach Games during the closing ceremony.

Participants positively showed their high satisfaction with sports volunteering experiences. It is apparent that volunteering at this event created unforgettable and lifelong memorable experiences for the volunteers, which has increased their love for sports volunteering.

### ***15.3.3 Perceived Benefits of Sports Volunteers***

According to the officials, the organizing committee offered the volunteers different benefits and facilities before, during, and after the event. For example, before the event, the volunteers were provided with training and workshops to enhance their skills and knowledge. Benefits provided during the event included three meals every day, phone credits, accommodation, transportation, and rental cars. The organizing committee provided a “thank you” event for all of the volunteers and distributed rewards and certificates of appreciation to the volunteers on January 2, 2011, at a hotel in Muscat. The following paragraphs will discuss the personal benefits gained by each volunteer.

Khalid stated that he gained many personal benefits from participating as a volunteer in this event. He said, “This event helped me to pay back something to my home country, it helped me to recognize my value as an Omani citizen in this country. My home country has spent for me too much and it is the time to get the results. I felt after this experience that I helped to show a good image about Oman. It helped

me to be proud of myself as I was one of the soldiers who contributed to the success of the largest sports event in Oman.”

Khalid considered that he also learned many things from this experience: “This experience helped me to know how to organize and manage such a big event, how many stakeholders are involved in such an event, and what is happening behind the scenes.” He added, “this event helped me to recognize the importance of such events and other competitions and championships that are organized by the Omani government. It helped me to know better the roles of referees in different sports and how to calculate the points and scores. This event helped me also to meet many well-known people and celebrities in the world.”

Concerning the personal benefits gained by Ahmed, he said, “Volunteering in such an event helped to improve my communication and customer service skills. It also provided me the skills to work under pressure and showed me the importance of teamwork during such events. It helped to get to know some of the culture and customs of some Asian countries. It helped to expand my networks and my relationships. It also helped me to practice my English language and increase my self-confidence. I also learned the procedures followed in the airport and what is required to facilitate the accessibility of sports delegates who were participating in such events.”

With regard to Salim, he also learned many things: “I learned a new game (water polo) and its rules and regulations. I learned how to coordinate with the volunteers and organizing committees.” He added, “this volunteering opportunity has expanded my networking and relationships.”

Amit gained many benefits from volunteering at this event. For example, he stated, “Volunteering at Muscat Beach Games made me see how sports brings different nations together on the same platform, it’s a wonderful diplomatic relation which can only be felt. Things were really well organized on the ground and it was a wonderful experience to be there and to witness such once in a lifetime experience when I was just 16 years old was great.”

We found that the participants had gained several personal benefits from volunteering at the 2nd Asian Beach Games Muscat 2010, which were perceived and expressed differently from each participant based on their roles at the event, past experience of volunteering, level of engagement, involvement, and participation in the event. The benefits included the feeling of achievement and doing something valuable and meaningful, enhancing knowledge about the event, and job-related benefits (e.g., networking, communication skills, and self-confidence; Giannoulakis et al. 2007; Fairley et al. 2007, 2014).

### ***15.3.4 Obstacles from Volunteering in Sports Events***

Some of the volunteers mentioned obstacles and problems they faced while volunteering in this event that included:

- The volunteering committee had a lack of expertise to manage this huge number of volunteers. This was because it was their first time to organize and manage such an event. For example, some volunteers (Amit and Khalid) stated that the registration was not easy for everyone. Some volunteers had to register several times, and some had to wait a long time to be contacted and called. Amit mentioned: “I had to go to the volunteer office and wait there for at least three to four hours enquiring about how to go about registering and other things. It was complete confusion. Not really a good start for someone who is looking for volunteers.” Amit added, “The day I had to collect my uniform and other accessories was very horrible, it took me a complete day.”
- Some volunteers felt that there was injustice in terms of how some volunteers received more rewards, benefits, and facilities than others. For example, some volunteers were not provided transportation and accommodation facilities, while others were provided with these benefits. Some volunteers were provided with certificates and money at the end of the event, some were given only certificates, and some did not receive anything.
- Some of the volunteers felt that they were not allocated to positions based on their education, experience, and skills. Volunteers were not really used professionally and wisely. Some areas in the sports city and sub-events were allocated a high number of volunteers, while other areas had an insufficient number.
- There were no fair working hours; some volunteers worked long hours and others worked very short hours. For example, some worked from 6 am until 11 pm and some from 11 am to 9 pm, while others had nothing to do and were free to come at anytime.
- There were not enough and no good facilities created for volunteers such as eating areas, rest areas, and prayer areas.

## 15.4 Conclusion

This chapter discussed sport event volunteering in Oman, focusing on the 2nd Asian Beach Games that was held in Muscat in 2010. The chapter highlights:

- Sports volunteering in Oman is not very popular. Volunteering for sports is secondary to volunteering for social and religious projects. One of the reasons is that Omanis perceive volunteering in social and religious events or activities as part of worship, and it is one way to get more good deeds and rewards from the Almighty Allah (God).
- Volunteers are often recruited through organizations such as sports clubs, universities, and colleges, and also through adverts in newspapers and on websites. Recruitment of volunteers is often reliant on a call for help through schools, government units, and soldiers. Incentives to encourage participation are neces-

sary. Some tasks are considered more suitable to be completed by paid staff (part-time and casual) in order to ensure they are professionally completed.

- People in Oman expect to receive incentives, certificates, and/or rewards or gifts from volunteering, especially for events that are organized and sponsored by the government.

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# Chapter 16

## Paraguay



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**Abstract** This chapter aims to describe sports volunteering in Paraguay and the reasons why it is a rather small phenomenon in contrast to other countries described in this book. To understand the scope of sports volunteering in Paraguay, it is important to understand the overarching concept of volunteering for its inhabitants. In a society where people are striving to find a secure job and a stable income, to dedicate much time to volunteer in sports can be challenging. To society, volunteering is understood as the time one dedicates for a cause, event, or institution without receiving financial remuneration. The willingness to help and volunteer is a major pillar in the Paraguayan society, as reflected by large events – mainly religious events – and fundraisers for nonprofit organizations. As for volunteering in sports, the demand for volunteers is mainly for sports events and, if needed, mostly not in large numbers. Information on sports volunteering is limited, but nonetheless this chapter provides a better understanding of the volunteering landscape. The lack of literature and information on volunteering in sports is a hindrance to obtain a deeper insight into the voluntary engagement in sports clubs all over the country – therefore interviews were conducted and an ethnographic perspective is taken.

### 16.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

Volunteering has become a major pillar in the Paraguayan society. Paraguay is a developing country that was a dictatorship for 35 years before it returned to a democratic government in 1989. Since then, volunteering has experienced a rapid growth, largely due to the more active involvement of society and because the democracy was slow to respond to the needs of a developing country and its citizens. This is where volunteering organizations stepped in to try to fill an increasing gap. Despite

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experiencing a faster macroeconomic growth, distribution of economic benefits remained inequitable (The World Bank 2017).

In 2014, I joined a nonprofit organization in Paraguay. The mission of this organization is to reach out to communities in need through diverse programs to change the lives and realities of its members. These programs are run at community centers by local Christian churches. A characteristic of the organization is the training and mobilization of volunteers to serve and meet the needs of the communities through diverse programs such as soup kitchens, school reinforcement classes, and sports. The heart of the organization consists of more than 4,000 volunteers who dedicate part of their free time to engage in the different programs. I was given the responsibility to initiate the program that uses sports as a platform to transmit values and principles to children and youth in the communities reached by the organization. Within three years into the program, 72 soccer schools were initiated with around 2,600 children participating. Through weekly training sessions, children were able to play on a soccer team and receive a warm meal after every session. Voluntary coaches and assistants not only helped the children on the team to improve their soccer skills but also focused on transmitting values and principles. Most of these children come from broken homes, desiring to belong to a community. Without the volunteers, it would not be possible to reach as many children because of the few available resources. Sport is a powerful tool to have an impact on the life of people by shaping the character and allowing the marginalized to be reintegrated into society.

The question might arise of how this experience is relevant to better understand the volunteering culture in Paraguay. The work done in this organization represents the general understanding of the role of volunteering in Paraguayan society. The understanding of volunteering refers to people giving their free time to help those in need without receiving any financial gain. In this chapter I will explain more about the understanding of volunteering and its role in the Paraguayan culture and how this affects volunteering in sports.

In many countries, for example, in Germany, volunteering in sports is very common and nurtured by the society. This understanding of volunteering differs in Paraguay. Therefore the definition of the term in the two official languages spoken by the majority of Paraguayans will be assessed.

Paraguay has two official languages, Guarani and Spanish. Guarani is a language spoken by the Guaranies, the natives who have lived in the region from before the colonization by Spain. 87% of the Paraguayan population still speaks this language, according to a study by Bartomeu Meliá (E'a 2011). In Guarani volunteering is defined by the term *pytyvõhára*, which means “helper” or “the one that helps.”

In Spanish the term for volunteering is *voluntariado*. The Real Academia Española (Real Spanish Academy) defines a volunteer as a person who, among several forced by turn or designation to perform some work or service, tends to do so of their own free will (Real Academia Española n.d.). Also the term *voluntariado social* (social volunteering) is often used and can be understood as “an organization of people with concrete existence, whether public or private, non-profit, legal, and who are direct or indirect participants of programs or projects that pursue altruistic



purposes” (Senatics n.d.). Social volunteering seeks to execute coordinated projects that are integrated to the needs and perspectives of the nation.

### ***16.1.1 Understanding of Volunteering in Sports Organizations***

For a better understanding of the volunteering landscape in sports organizations in Paraguay, interviews were conducted with the Paraguayan Soccer Association (APF) and the Olympic Committee of Paraguay (COP). The interviewees provided a deeper insight to the cultural understanding of volunteering and the reason why volunteering in sports is not as common as in other countries described in this book. Thus volunteering is analyzed based on the cultural understanding and its consequences.

Based on the provided information, volunteering is considered to be “an occasional task performed by an individual for a short time with the purpose of helping out. It is the engagement of a person for a short period of time for exceptional tasks.” As a head of one of the leading sports organizations in Paraguay, one of the interviewees supports the definition of volunteering as being time that one dedicates for a cause, event, or institution without receiving financial remuneration for it. It is the selfless act of donating one’s own time to contribute to the development of society. Moreover, social volunteering is vital to cover important necessities where the government fails to address the needs of the population. In the context of sports, volunteering can be understood as an occasional task for special events with the purpose of reinforcing the coverage of certain areas, depending on the magnitude.

Volunteering largely relies on the young population in Paraguay, and the need to find stability drives young people to rather focus on finding a job that guarantees a safe income. As a result, volunteering might be competing with the aim of finding a secure workplace. One of the interviewees mentioned that young people do not enjoy volunteering activities because of their search for a stable workplace and job security. The commitment to volunteer largely depends on the attractiveness of the event, as was seen during the visit of the Catholic Pope in 2015. The voluntary engagement is also said to increase when there are larger events such as exhibitions or nationwide events.

Volunteering is considered a major pillar of the society in Paraguay. It may help to overcome certain financial needs whenever a small payment is offered. On the other hand, for some volunteers their engagement at sports events is not only to serve, but it is also seen as an opportunity to showcase in the hope of finding a job opportunity in the sports industry, as the interviewees outlined.

Another important distinction of the voluntary engagement of the Paraguayan society, according to the interviewees, is that most volunteers engage in single events and not necessarily over a longer period of time. Both sports organizations agreed that volunteers are mainly recruited to help at events where they are offered a small reimbursement to cover meals and personal travel expenses to the location where the volunteer is needed. In many cases, the volunteers also receive sponsoring

clothing such as t-shirts and caps. Volunteers expect a minimum contribution since the financial situation of most volunteers is limited.

For large events organized by the main sports organizations, different mechanisms are used to recruit volunteers. They are invited through social media, the collaboration of volunteers by lower soccer leagues, and through alliances with universities. These alliances are a win-win situation, as students need to acquire practical experience for their degrees and the sports organization is in need of volunteers. These mechanisms have been shown to be effective since sports organizations have not had major inconveniences in recruiting the required number of volunteers. Volunteers are rotated to allow for all to participate. Volunteers are mostly recruited to help at episodic sports events such as soccer matches and other competitions. Continuous volunteering opportunities are rather scarce at these sports organizations.

## 16.2 Volunteer Workforce in Paraguay

Volunteering has “kicked off” since the end of the dictatorship in 1989. Democracy has allowed a change to the mindset of the society. One of the main reasons why the focus of volunteering is mainly on social engagement is to provide help in cases of extreme necessity, as when certain regions of the country suffer adverse climate conditions that are frequent in the summer. Families with scarce resources are left helpless due to great rainfalls and heavy storms.

The biggest need for volunteering in Paraguay is to help people who most need it. The vulnerability of communities is highest when natural disasters strike or basic needs are not met. Heavy storms that periodically affect the integrity of houses, floods that drive entire neighborhoods to leave their homes, and other natural disasters that affect the lives of many people require immediate assistance. The slow and limited response of the government drives volunteering organizations to step in and help overcome the situation. The lack of literature on volunteering in Paraguay means it is difficult to estimate the total number of people who engage in volunteering activities, whether it be for social volunteering or sports organizations.

The socioeconomic reality of the Paraguayan population is believed to have an important impact on volunteering. According to the latest official census, 28% of the population lives in a situation of poverty with an average income of less than 109 USD a month, and 5.73% live in extreme poverty with an average income of 41 USD a month. 3.3% of the population engages in voluntary work for the community for an average of 4.3 hours per week (males, 3.7%-4.2 hours per week; females, 2.9%-4.4 hours per week); DGEEC 2016b). Very few statistics are available on the number of volunteers who are civically engaged, and it is difficult to determine an approximate number. In July 2015, an event changed the extent of volunteering when the Pope of the Catholic Church visited Paraguay. With a large part of the population practicing the Catholic religion and the last visit of a Pope dating back to 1989, this event created great expectations. The organizing committee called for volunteers two months prior to the official visit, and 81,000 volunteers signed up to

**Table 16.1** Paraguay's volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in Paraguay
Population size	6.7 million <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	Spanish, Guaraní
Volunteer rates (year)	223,601 <sup>b</sup> (3.3%)
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	yes
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	ATP Challenger Asunción 2008/2009/2010, Asunción Int'l Marathon MIA 2010–2017, South American Basketball U15 Championship 2011, Dakar Series 2014–2015, Conmebol U15 Championship 2015, Itaipu Ironman 70–3 2016, Dakar Rally 2017, South Am. Championships in Athletics 2017, Women's Libertadores Cup 2017
Sports volunteer rates	n.a.
The word for volunteering	Guaraní: <i>pytyvõhára</i> Spanish: <i>voluntariado</i>
The meaning of the word	Guaraní: “helper” or “the one that helps”
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	Visit of the Catholic Pope in 2015

Sources: <sup>a</sup>DGEEC (2016a); <sup>b</sup>DGEEC (2016b)

help at the event (ABC Color 2015). This is a demonstration that the Paraguayan population is willing to engage in volunteering. This behavior is also evidenced at annual fundraising events of large nonprofit organizations. Thousands of volunteers invade the streets, collecting donations supporting the cause of these organizations by donating their time.

Other events such as official matches of the national soccer team require volunteers, but no official statistics show that the power of volunteering has been undermined. At the time of writing, the South American Games 2022 have been awarded to Paraguay, organized by the COP. More than 2,500 volunteers will be required to serve at the sports event with more than 4,500 participating athletes from 14 different nations. To host this event, the COP has received the support of and is working together with the city of Asunción and the Secretary of Youth. Table 16.1 provides an overview about some characteristics of volunteering in Paraguay.

### 16.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

In Paraguay, volunteering is mostly related to projects executed by social volunteering organizations with the main purpose to change specific aspects of society. Many of the volunteering organizations are established to address a specific needs identified in a society. Other nonprofit organizations have specialized in preparing

volunteers who then engage in different projects to contribute to the development of society.

To increase the power of the volunteering organizations, a network was built named *Red de Voluntarios (RED; Red de Voluntarios 2011)*. RED defines volunteering as a form of active participation in the changes of society and in the exercise of co-responsibility (WWF Paraguay 2011). This network was formed out of the interest to encourage the participation of citizen to improve life quality in communities. RED engages in fomenting the voluntary engagement and trains new volunteers to be more effective and successful in different projects. The objective of this group is to connect projects, institutions, and organizations that aim to further develop the country through volunteering. Also, religious organizations are very engaged in volunteering. Through communal projects, aid in situations of emergencies and other forms of volunteering, religious organizations seek to help people in need.

## **16.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society**

In recent years, thirty volunteering organizations have urged the government to join forces and acknowledge the impact that volunteering has on society. The result of the conjoint effort has been a first draft of a law for volunteering and the founding of “Arovia,” an organization to promote volunteering. “Arovia” is a volunteering program promoted by the Paraguayan government. “Arovia Paraguay” means “I believe in Paraguay,” translated from Guaraní (Arovia Paraguay 2016). This first volunteering experience was created to permanently install volunteering professionals in vulnerable territories with the aim to mobilize and involve citizens in the process of a sociocultural transformation in the community.

With a multidimensional view of poverty and an approach of development, volunteers are being formed to become leaders capable of improving the development of the country and its citizens. Favoring the construction of a citizenship with a greater commitment to the sociocultural, economic, and environmental development of the community, the mission of this organization is to promote the civic participation of the Paraguayan population. The objective is to train and form volunteers in public service, based on the needs of the public and private sector.

### **16.4.1 Bill of Law for Volunteering**

Another step toward recognizing the importance of the voluntary activity in Paraguay is the creation of a law of volunteering. As a result of the insistence of many nonprofit organizations, a law has been designed to regulate the activity of volunteers. At the time of writing this chapter, a bill of law has been presented to the national congress of Paraguay and has been approved by the chamber of deputies.

This normative body is expected to recognize, define, regulate, encourage, and facilitate the voluntary participation of natural and legal citizens in nonprofit organizations and private organizations or public institutions, whether of national, foreign, or mixed origin. The goal of creating a law of volunteering is to recognize voluntary engagement as a social tool to increase citizen awareness for national development, contributing to form social capital to achieve effective solidarity and a more equitable society.

This volunteering program has been integrated with the vision of the National Development Plan “Paraguay 2030” through the National Program of Volunteering and Civic Service. Integrating this program into the national development program evidences the crucial importance of volunteering to the contribution to the well-being and development of the society.

An interinstitutional framework agreement has been signed by the National Secretary for Youth, the Secretariat of Social Action, the Technical Secretariat for Planning, the National Secretariat for Culture, the Ministry of Education and Culture, the National Secretariat for Housing and Habitat (SENAVITAT), and the National Emergency Secretariat (SEN) with the intention for volunteering to become part of the culture of society. Including the SENAVITAT and the SEN into this agreement is a reflection of the main focus of the volunteering engagement. The aim of the agreement is to fight poverty and inequality by articulating and coordinating the forces of volunteering and social and cultural civic service in Paraguay’s youth.

Therefore, volunteering is seen as a strategic component for the economic and social development of a society. The principles of the United Nations with regard to promoting volunteering have served as guidelines for the development of the law. Based on these guidelines, the need to generate public policies to foster voluntary engagement has been recognized, with the incentive of guaranteeing spaces and being able to position volunteering as a prestigious element within society and linking it to scholarship access and first employment (Arovia Paraguay).

In case of a promulgation by the Executive, this law will regulate the rights and obligations of volunteers and the organizations of volunteers. To guarantee the fulfillment of the agreement, a National Volunteering Commission has been established that is responsible for the operationalization of the provisions of the law. Through the law of volunteering, the state plays a fundamental role in promoting the volunteering activities. Regulating these activities will allow for an expansion of voluntary engagement in society and foster its development.

#### **16.4.1.1 Incentives**

Currently, based on the information provided by the interviewees, there are no incentives by the government that promote volunteering for nonprofit organizations. The bill of law of volunteering includes incentivizing policies that encourage volunteering in diverse sectors. Volunteers applying for positions in the public sector requiring meritocracy and an aptitude contest will be given preference according to

the volunteering experience, especially when applying for scholarships offered by the government. Moreover, the hours of volunteering service will be counted as work experience.

#### **16.4.1.2 Promotion of Volunteering by the State**

A second aim is to promote the activity of volunteers by integrating and including volunteering into the national development plan in all related areas. Strategic alliances with volunteering organizations will be promoted to achieve objectives of the national development plan. Additionally, the current legislative system will be reformed and state volunteering programs established to encourage volunteering with a top-down approach.

#### **16.4.1.3 Financing of Volunteering**

An important mechanism of promotion is financial support for volunteering. Through the new law, volunteering organizations will be partially subsidized through financial aid, though the specific means of subsidy have not been assessed yet.

#### **16.4.1.4 Recognition of Volunteering**

Another way of leveraging the recognition of volunteering in the society is the creation of a “National Day of Volunteering.” It is a sign to recognize the importance of the volunteering work. The aim of defining a National Day of Volunteering is to promote the philosophy, values, and principles of the voluntary service and serve as motivation for the citizenship.

The creation of an organization that trains and prepares volunteers and the bill of law of volunteering are initiatives that show a growing interest in using volunteering to foment an altruistic attitude by contributing to society.

### ***16.4.2 Impact on Sports Organizations***

Promulgating a law of volunteering will also have an important impact on sports organizations. The incentives and promotion of volunteering through this law will also encourage sports organizations to recruit more volunteers to enhance the experiences for events. As seen in Table 16.1, not many large sports events have been hosted in Paraguay, and therefore the number of volunteers needed has been rather low. Sports organizations are growing in scope, investing in infrastructure in order to organize more events, and the need for volunteers will continue to increase in the

future. The successful bid for the South American Games (ODESUR) in 2022 puts the country on the map of sports, especially in South America. As a consequence, volunteers will play a crucial role to successfully stage more mega sporting events in the future.

## 16.5 Conclusion

The cultural understanding of volunteering in Paraguay is directly linked to the selfless act of helping those in need, mostly through a volunteering organization. This understanding has an effect on how volunteering is perceived for sports organizations. Volunteering in sports in Paraguay is not very common. Volunteers are mostly engaged in helping communities with various needs, and currently only a few large sporting organizations and sporting events require large numbers of volunteers.

Sporting events such as soccer matches and other sports events at the national level attract relatively small crowds, thus requiring fewer volunteers to cover the activities. With both the Paraguayan Olympic Committee and the Paraguayan Soccer Association hosting more international tournaments, the need for volunteers will increase, thus requiring an expanded network and provision of more training and incentives for the volunteers to engage.

A law of volunteering may leverage volunteering activities in Paraguay, both for social volunteering and sports volunteering. Greater incentives, more recognition, and increased awareness can foster the decision to volunteer and thus increase the volunteering network. The regulation of the volunteering activity in Paraguay is a big step toward recognizing the importance of voluntary engagement in a society where the government fails to meet the needs of its people.

The information of this chapter is not without its limitations. The lack of available information limits the in-depth description of the voluntary engagement in sports. A wide array of sports clubs from different sports require much engagement that is not rewarded with any remuneration.

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# Chapter 17

## Russia



Marina Sukharkova

**Abstract** Today in Russia a number of initiatives to involve citizens in the volunteer activities of NGOs at the federal level exist. One of the most striking examples is sports volunteering – the Olympic volunteer movement and the Sochi 2014 Volunteer Training Centers. Nine years before the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Games, Volunteer Training Centers were installed as nonprofit organizations. Their structure was transformed into the Association of Volunteer Centers of Russia. In recent years, Russia has hosted several major international events that have all involved volunteers. To improve programs for working with volunteers and to increase the number of volunteers and the quality of their work, it is necessary to have information about the motivation and expectations of volunteers, the result of their work, and how they use their volunteer experience. The program initiated to train and educate the volunteers for the 2014 Sochi Olympic Games has turned out to be very useful. The program has measures to support and motivate volunteers of the Olympic and Paralympic Games.

### 17.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

That the main characteristics of volunteerism include the following: the active form of charity; altruistic orientation, lack of material benefit; and all actions are noncoercive and based on humanistic values. The main focus of the activities should be social groups that require social support. The results of the analysis of more than 80

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definitions of the concept of volunteering have shown that the key accents are put either on the characteristics of the subject-object of this activity, its content, forms, and methods or goals and results (Pevnaya 2013).

Volunteerism (*dobrovolchestvo – добровольчество*) is described as a kind of philanthropic practice, selfless individual, or collective activity for the benefit of other people or society (Yakobson 2010). At the present time, volunteering is institutionalized, which is manifested in its organizational structure and the availability of goals, functions, and values.

The organizational structure of volunteering is determined by the fact that volunteering can be formal and informal (Pevnaya 2016). People can volunteer both individually and as a part of groups or organizations. The goal of volunteerism is altruistic assistance to the needy and participation in socially significant events. Kudrinskaya (2006) defines the following functions of volunteer activity as participation in the formation and development of civil society, representation of societal values, civil socialization of individuals, the integration of society through citizens' associations and the creation of social capital, cooperation of efforts to protect the rights and interests of individuals, self-management and collective solution of community problems on the basis of social innovations, support for unprotected groups and their social adaptation, and free self-expression and social creativity of people. Also, volunteering increases the level of trust in the society (Tatarko 2014) and contributes to the formation of social responsibility, solidarity, and mutual assistance (Gerasimova and Kuzmenko 2013).

So, in the absence of a single generally accepted definition of the concept of volunteering, the main concepts of this type of activity can be singled out as the implementation of volunteerism as a form of voluntary social interaction aimed at helping others with a humanistic orientation, on a nonreimbursable basis.

Thus, in the broadest sense of the word, volunteering implies any gratuitous help or work in favor of other people who are not close relatives of the volunteer himself. Such assistance can be both on an individual level and through specialized associations, organizations, and funds.

## 17.2 Volunteer Workforce in Russia

As research shows, the most common type of volunteer support is to work independently for the benefit of other people on an individual basis. In the following chapter, this type of assistance is referred to as informal volunteering. According to the monitoring of the state of civil society conducted by the Centre for Studies of Civil Society and the Nonprofit Sector National Research University Higher School of Economics (HSE; [Volunteering and participation of Russians in the activities of NGOs and civil initiatives](#)) in the past year, 35% of Russians took part in an activity for the benefit of others through an organization or group. In the study, this form of activity was designated as formal volunteering (Mersiyanova 2017). Table 17.1 provides an overview about some of the characteristics of volunteering and sport in Russia.

**Table 17.1** Russia's volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in Russia
Population size	1,463,880,432
Official languages	Russian
Volunteer rates (year)	n.a.
Existence of voluntary sport clubs	yes
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	XIV World Championship in Athletics 2013, XXVII World Summer Universiade 2013, 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games, World Championship in Water Sports 2015
Sports volunteer rates	n.a.
The word for volunteering	<i>dobrovolchestvo – добровольчество</i>
The meaning of the word	Philanthropic practice, selfless individual, or collective activity for the benefit of other people or society
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	2014 Sochi Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games

## 17.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

This chapter looks in particular at volunteer management during the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Games.

### 17.3.1 *Volunteer Training Centers in Sochi*

In 2011, the first announcement to identify several Volunteer Training Centers for the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Games among higher and secondary education institutions was made. As a result of the competition, 25 higher educational institutions and one secondary specialized educational institution were chosen, on the basis of which volunteer centers were opened. Preference in the competition was given to those educational institutions in which student volunteer centers already existed. Twenty-six Volunteer Training Centers were opened, which were mainly located in the European part of Russia (seven centers in Moscow, five centers in Krasnodar, as well as centers in Ufa, Vladivostok, Volgograd, Pyatigorsk, Kazan, Novorossiysk, Omsk, Arkhangelsk, Sochi, St. Petersburg, Tver, Tomsk, Khanty-Mansiysk, and Novocherkassk). This placement strategy did not cover all regions of the country and created certain problems for the training of volunteers, as there were actually more regions that wanted to participate in the volunteer training. However, this was the first attempt to create a federal network of volunteer centers.

It should be noted that new divisions in the structures of educational institutions were formed specifically for staffing the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games. According to the official website of the Organizing Committee of the Olympic Games, about 200,000 applications were received from potential volunteers. The total number of volunteers required for hosting the event was estimated at 25,000 people, and in addition, 3,000 people were needed for training as urban volunteers (IOC 2018). Each Volunteer Training Center had its own specialization. In total, 18 specialized areas were allocated within the framework. Among these were interaction with the arrivals and departures of members of the Olympic family, ceremonies, sport, doping control, protocol, medical service, technologies, media, transport, accreditation, service events at the Olympics, service events at the Paralympic Games, interpretation services, catering services, accommodation, and management of the Olympic Village.

As a result of involving volunteers in the organization and hosting of the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Games, a new network of nonprofit volunteer organizations was formed in Russia that, after the end of the Games, continues to function and represents new organizations working with volunteers. Eight years later, since the beginning of the Volunteer Training Centers, the activities of these NGOs have changed. In 2014, following the Games, their structure was transformed into the "Association of Volunteer Centers of Russia." Their number has grown. At the moment, the Association includes 64 profile centers in 34 regions of Russia. Among the tasks that the volunteer centers of the Association are involved in are assistance in organizing and holding major events, assistance in healthcare institutions, education, culture, development of social volunteering, and patriotic education. Thus, there have been quantitative and qualitative changes in the work of volunteer centers. 65,000 volunteers are involved in the work of the member organizations of the Association (25,000 of them are Olympic volunteers and 4,000 Olympic and Paralympic torch relay volunteers), which is involved in various areas of volunteerism. This is how the experience and competence of the Volunteer Training Centers has spread to other volunteer centers so that they also successfully work on training and involving volunteers.

As a result, the volunteer training program for participating in the organization of the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games has become a powerful impetus for the development of volunteerism in Russia. For the first time in Russia, a comprehensive program for working with volunteers was implemented, including the involvement and selection of volunteers, their subsequent training and preparation, the organization of volunteers, and the creation of incentive systems for volunteers. The Sochi 2014 Volunteer Work Program is a federal program. Using the experience of this program, a program is being implemented to select and train volunteers of the 2018 FIFA World Cup. Within the framework of this program, it is planned to involve and train 15,000 volunteers; now their training is already deployed at the Volunteer Training Center (FIFA 1994).

### ***17.3.2 Sochi 2014 Volunteer Training Program***

To prepare the volunteers for the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Games, a three-year program was developed. It started in 2011 and was conducted in three stages. The first stage was the involvement of volunteers (2011-2012). The second stage was the selection of volunteers (2012). The third stage was preparation of volunteers and their participation in test trials (2012-2013). The work program was especially designed for the Olympic Games and was aimed not only at attracting the necessary number of people and training volunteers for the Games but also building infrastructure for involving citizens in volunteer activities at the municipal and federal level (President of Russia 2014). During the program at the federal level, efforts were made to promote the values of volunteerism: develop a network of volunteer centers, improve the legal system of volunteerism, and develop innovative methods of organizing work and managing volunteers. The significance of this program for Russia goes beyond the framework of the 2014 Olympic Games; its successful implementation has become a platform for building and developing a voluntary movement in Russia.

Direct training of volunteers included theoretical and practical training using online courses, including, for instance, tests for foreign language proficiency as well as on-site seminars and trainings. The first stage (theoretical preparation) took place during the time allocated for training. Volunteers received materials to study and were subsequently tested. Access to tests was opened only after the successful completion of the previous task. The second stage was short term (for many it lasted only three days) and was practical. Some of the volunteers were given the opportunity to visit Olympic venues and observe the conditions in which volunteers subsequently worked during the Games. This process is recognized by some researchers as potentially a “scare off” for some volunteers to take part in the Olympic Games (Chen and Dai 2006).

Involvement and training of volunteers was organized by the Sochi 2014 Volunteer Training Centers. The selection of volunteers was carried out by coaches with experience in large sporting events. Selection criteria included efficiency, stress resistance, and the ability to resolve conflicts, as well as previous experience of volunteer work and knowledge of English. Training of volunteers was conducted in close connection with educational institutions, nonprofit organizations, and national and international sports federations. The training program for Sochi 2014 volunteers included various training areas: psychological training to work at Olympic venues, courses on the history and basic principles of the Olympic Movement, foreign language courses, courses for the organization of competitions in different sports, courses on interaction with people with disabilities, and courses on life support in the face of the threat of a terrorist act.

In summary, modern volunteering in Russia is an activity in various spheres of society (social, cultural, and educational) and at different levels (local, city, regional, federal, and international); volunteering is observed as formal practices (through participation in the work of volunteer NGOs) and informal practices (individually); at the state level, volunteerism is supported including attempts to popularize the work of volunteers in NGOs to encourage the institutionalization of volunteerism.

### ***17.3.3 Volunteer Practices at the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Games***

Volunteer researchers (Moreno et al. 1999) note that Olympic volunteerism includes the necessary concepts: “voluntary commitment” (decisions must be made by volunteers individually), altruism (intangible reward for work), and social contribution. These concepts describe volunteering, in general, and characterize Olympic volunteers, rather than hired game personnel.

A mega event’s organization requires human resources. Involving volunteers to prepare mega-events is a way to reduce the costs of organizing an event and, at the same time, the ability to solve social problems, for example, students can gain work experience and the unemployed can learn new skills. To organize the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Games 25,000 volunteers were utilized (The Olympic Studies Centre 2016). The institutionalization of Olympic volunteerism has now come to an end with the formation of an independent institution.

### ***17.3.4 Motivation of Volunteers***

Involvement of people in the practice of Olympic volunteerism was carried out in three ways: through educational institutions, NGOs, and advertising in the media. The largest group of potential volunteers was students, who then became the foundation of the Olympic volunteer movement. We came across different explanations for the motives and goals of inclusion in the practice of Olympic volunteering: a purposeful search for the opportunity to participate in the games (“Back in 2008, I’m beginning to think about how to get to Sochi, work there, make my contribution” female volunteer, 31 years); “romanticization” of games (“Games in our country, this is an event of great importance, this will be talked about for a long time, then it will be possible to tell your children” male volunteer, 43 years); problems in the field of employment and/or leisure (“There is little work in my city, there is no work experience without experience” *male volunteer*, 22 years; “All life passes between home and work, every day the same, I wanted to escape from everyday life” male volunteer, 46 years); and an example of others (“I’ve met with volunteers at the university, I also wanted to apply myself” female volunteer, 20 years).

The motive for becoming an Olympic volunteer is connected with the awareness of the need to change everyday life: “I saw the announcement on social networks, at that time I could not write a letter of resignation for six months. Understanding that the games will take about a month, so I will have time to think. I realized that this is an opportunity to change my life” (male volunteer, 38 years).

The search for the possibility of volunteer practices could be explained by the desire to change the nature of given occupation and the social circle. A separate issue was the attitude of students and employed people to the Games. So, for the students, the trip was connected with the possibility of vacations, but there were no

vacations for employed volunteers. Everyone must solve the issue of absence. Thus, we can highlight three main ways of involving volunteering at the Games: purposeful participation in the Games, following the example of others, or involvement in a previous experience of volunteering, and viewing the Games as a starting point for changes in their lives.

#### **17.3.4.1 Modes of Preparation and Involvement in the World Olympic Movement**

The status of a volunteer changes some aspects of their daily lives because of online and offline training for two years and inclusion in the Olympic culture through the environment, social networks and forums, and participation at the Volunteer Training Center. Even before the actual accreditation as a volunteer, a person is actively involved in a new sphere of interaction, preparation, and expectations of the Games. Everyday life is complemented by new activities, new people, and the expectation of the event as a result of many years of preparation: “I spent seven years to prepare for the games. These were bright and interesting years. Constant new tasks, new friends” (female volunteer, 23 years).

In addition to active online training of volunteers and the creation of sites for their communication in social networks, outreach schools were also organized. The subjects of the training courses contributed to the inclusion of volunteers in the Olympic theme. Since previous work or volunteer work experience was not required for Olympic volunteers, the training program helped the volunteers adapt to the new situation and interact with a large number of people.

Despite the fact that volunteers are not the main participants in the Games, waiting for departure fills the preparation period: “I had a calendar, in which I crossed out every day until the Games were opened” (female volunteer, 24 years). Much attention is paid to the symbolic indicators of involvement in the Olympic volunteer movement, such as collecting information about the event, icons, magnets, and toys and the issuing of uniforms of volunteer. At the same time, it is important for a volunteer to collect not only Olympic symbols but also symbols of his native region to exchange these symbols at the event: “It is important for the volunteer to collect as many icons from the games and different regions of the country where they are held as possible. It’s not just us, it’s always like that. All icons are attached to the uniform. And the form itself is a family value. When someone comes to visit me, I always show it” (female volunteer, 33 years).

#### **17.3.4.2 Work of Olympic Volunteers**

Volunteers at the Games received accreditation, which gave them access to direct and additional services, and indicated the recognition of their status. Full provision of volunteers was a precedent created by the Organizing Committee of the Games in Sochi; in similar activities volunteers themselves were forced to provide

themselves with the necessary work. “If accommodation was not provided, I would not have pulled this trip. Tickets to Sochi, I was still able to buy, but accommodation, it would be unrealistic” (female volunteer, 19 years).

### **17.3.4.3 Volunteers about their Role at the Games in Sochi**

According to the results of the study, it was determined that volunteers understand that they are free labor but also determine for themselves the following roles:

- **Operational core:** Volunteers have no special skills or education, so they perform low-skilled jobs, in fact, being part of the workforce.
- **“Cogs of the big mechanism”** (organizational support): Volunteers are one of the groups that contribute to the event. They work in conjunction with other actors in the system.
- **Facilitators:** The link between the Organizing Committee and athletes and spectators. The volunteers noted that they provided a link between those who worked on the core of the game structure and other participants of the event.
- **Atmosphere creators:** People who create an atmosphere at the Games. Representatives of all functions should help create the appropriate mood for visitors to events.
- **Spiritualist:** Confirmation of the spirituality of the world and the country.

These roles are not mutually exclusive, but complement each other. All participants of the study noted that volunteers were important participants in the Olympic Games and noted their fundamental difference. An altruistic basis without any monetary reward is what, according to the respondents, makes volunteers unique. The process of preparation for participation in the Olympic and Paralympic Games lasted for up to seven years for volunteers. Volunteers had clear expectations of participating in the Games. The long process of preparation and short duration of the event as a goal led to the fact that volunteers singled out the Games as a separate stage of life or a boundary for a new stage. In the stories of volunteers, the Games were presented as something that went beyond the ordinary. They were perceived by volunteers not only as a sporting event but also as a social and cultural event, unique in terms of the scope of participants and spheres affected by it.

The Volunteer Movement unites people of different ages, social status, citizens of different countries, and representatives of different professions. The idea of organizing a sporting event for the development of their country unites volunteers. After participating in the Games, the community of volunteers did not break up and joined in organizing other major events, for example, the 2018 FIFA World Cup.

In the nine years since its inception, the activities of the Sochi 2014 Volunteer Training Centers have changed. Their structure was transformed into the Association of Volunteer Centers. So, there have been changes in the work of volunteer centers.



## **17.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society**

### ***17.4.1 Federal Volunteer Development Programs***

One of the key factors affecting the development of modern volunteerism in Russia, including the development of its selected areas, is the state support of volunteerism at the federal level. At the federal level, several initiatives are being implemented to involve citizens in the volunteer activities provided by NGOs. Noteworthy among these are programs for the preparation and training of volunteers for participation in major international projects (e.g., Universiade, Olympic and Paralympic Games, Football World Cup) and at interregional and regional volunteer centers as well as volunteer centers in educational institutions.

The 2013 Universiade held in the Republic of Tatarstan was the first experience of building a volunteer infrastructure in Russia. In a sense, it was an experiment at the republican level to prepare for the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Games. The 2014 Olympic Games were the most large-scale example of building a volunteer infrastructure in Russia. For seven years of preparing for the Games, a program for working with volunteers of Sochi 2014 was created and developed. The infrastructure of the Olympic volunteer movement consists of systems supporting the functioning of the institute. The main infrastructure of Olympic volunteerism in Russia has been the Volunteer Training Centers, on the basis of which the selection and training of volunteers took place.

### ***17.4.2 Intersectoral Interaction as a Resource for the Development of Volunteerism***

Volunteerism today is formed not only under the influence of state support but also in the process of a wide range of interactions of volunteer organizations with other social relations. Factors for the development of volunteerism can be considered through the prism of the theory of intersectoral interaction. Intersectoral interaction is a process of constructive interaction between three sectors: state structures, commercial enterprises, and nonprofit organizations operating in the public arena of the country (oblast, city, or other territory). The participation of each actor in such interactions can be considered as a resource for development. Interaction of volunteering with institutional actors of other sectors – public and educational institutions, commercial, and nonprofit organizations – contributes to its development, bringing social effects to other participants of the intersectoral partnership. Below we will consider the role in the development of volunteerism and motivation for participation in the intersectoral interaction of each of the actors – the institutional partners of volunteering.

### 17.4.2.1 Governmental Organizations

The government is the key player/actor of institutional regulation of volunteering (Kuzminchuk 2016). In addition, the social policy of the country, providing support, interaction, and stability, has a huge impact on volunteerism (Yudina and Grigorashenko-Alieva 2012). With the support of volunteerism, the state achieves positive results on several points. First, it involves broad masses of the population in solving social problems and obtaining new ways of solving problems; second, it aids formation of programs for working with young people; third, it contributes to the development of civil practices and the entire civil society in the country through building channels of communication between the local community and the authorities.

Interaction between the state and volunteers in the sphere of rendering social services can develop according to several scenarios. French researchers, for example, identified four models: a classic volunteer movement (the society organizes volunteer activities on its own, and the state and the final recipients of services are not practically involved in their design or provision), direct state support of volunteers (i.e., the state provides them with direct support in the form of grants, transfer of equipment, premises, and so on), self-organization of service recipients (consumers of public services help themselves, and the contribution of society and the state is minimal or nonexistent), and joint production (active participation in the design and/or provision of services to consumers and their close associates, volunteers, and professionals from the state; Löffler et al. 2008).

In Russia, volunteer activity is carried out with direct state support, and the state makes significant efforts to develop volunteerism at various levels (where attempts are made to build a single regulatory field for regulating volunteer activities, e.g., the federal law on volunteerism, an organizational resource center for the development, and support of a volunteer Association of Volunteer Centers).

### 17.4.2.2 Educational Institutions

Any person can become a volunteer, regardless of his/her previous experience and available skills and abilities. The process of training potential volunteers and/or training qualified volunteers and their preliminary adaptation to the conditions for further volunteer work can be seen as an investment in the sustainable functioning of nonprofit organizations. Manetti et al. (2015) analyzed the rationality of the training process for volunteers. The training of volunteers can be seen as an investment in volunteer organizations and an investment in the benefits of users of their services, for the benefit of volunteers and society as a whole. The data obtained by the researchers showed that the training courses lead to a positive impact on the acquisition of new skills by volunteers, the formation of social relations between volunteers, and an increase in personal satisfaction in the work of volunteers.

There may be positive effects within educational institutions if students studying in basic educational programs are involved in volunteer activities. According to some Russian studies, volunteer work encourages the practical application of theo-

retical knowledge gained in the course of studies and develops the ability to listen and hear, watch and see, direct and obey, make decisions, and bear responsibility for these (Kuzmenko and Barkunova 2012). Educational institutions benefit if they become bases for the organization of volunteer centers. Volunteer centers at educational institutions get the opportunity to attract students to projects, and students, therefore, have the opportunity to be included in their professional activities during training, through participation in volunteer projects.

### 17.4.2.3 Commercial Organizations

In the process of training volunteers, as well as in the organization of certain areas of voluntary work, commercial organizations often take part. Bringing benefits to volunteers and the volunteer movement as a whole, commercial organizations have their own motives for participating in the intersectoral partnership. For example, in sponsoring the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games, companies that provided assistance to volunteers received an additional opportunity to advertise their goods and services in the form of providing their products to volunteers for their subsequent distribution to visitors of competitions or by placing their trademarks directly on Olympic facilities and souvenirs, also distributed by volunteers. A special benefit for commercial organizations is the system of services that provide the work of volunteers, so participating in the provision of volunteers makes it possible to become an official sponsor of major sporting events and thus receive a special status that is conducive to the formation of a positive reputation of the company. Thus, the sports, including especially Olympic volunteerism, is an opportunity for intersectoral interaction and can lead to the development of partnership relations between representatives of different organizations belonging to different sectors of the economy, which can provide development opportunities for each actor separately.

## 17.5 Conclusion

Olympic volunteers must follow the rules of mega-events, which may affect their work as volunteers. The social practices of Olympic volunteers are motivated by their goals. Volunteer settings seem to be the main factor in differentiating the roles of volunteers in the structure of event. In modern conditions, volunteerism in Russia is institutionalized, which contributes to the creation of a network structure at the formal and informal levels (Pevnaya 2013). Olympic volunteers now have behavioral patterns, social statuses, ideology, and a system of incentives and sanctions, and they can have their own ideology, values, and symbols. The Volunteer Movement can become a kind of model both for the development of volunteerism in Russia and the creation of sports volunteers and for the organizers of mega-events. Within five years, Russia will host a number of major sporting events, and trained

volunteers will contribute at the highest level. Volunteer participation in large-scale events is an important research topic in Russia. Of significance is the study of volunteers in the post-Olympic years to reveal their memories of the Games and the evaluation of their experience of volunteer work.

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## Chapter 18

# Slovakia



Alexandra Závadská

**Abstract** Slovakia is a small country in the heart of Europe, and its complex history and ruling governments over the past decades have affected the third sector immensely. Slovakia's voluntary organizations are financially dependent on third parties and receive financial support from the present government through grants offered by the Slovak Ministry of Education, Science, Research, and Sport and the Ministry of Labor, Social Affairs, and Family, as there is no financial support system that targets volunteering organizations and centers specifically (Country 2012). Once the Law of Volunteering was officially passed in 2011, the infrastructure for nonformal networks of volunteer centers was improved. However, the society's lack of clarity of what volunteering means is best portrayed in the following statement of a young man helping at one of the youth centers in Bratislava. He said, "I am not a volunteer! I just simply do it... [Referring to volunteering]," which resonated in the volunteering community and was hence used as a basis for publishing a volunteering brochure for youth. Moreover, the *Country Report Slovakia's* (2012) authors stated that there is a general lack of information about volunteering, as well as about its importance, and many people do not refer to themselves as being volunteers. This is perhaps because sports volunteering organizations do not operate like typical voluntary organizations such as the Slovak Red Cross. Nevertheless, it takes some time and explanation for people to realize that they are indeed volunteers. The lack of information, drive, enthusiasm, capacity, and sometimes the necessary negotiating skills makes volunteering in the nonprofit sector difficult. This general trend can be seen in every type of volunteering organization. Therefore, clearer communication, efficient promotion of volunteering possibilities, as well as some financial governmental support is needed to strengthen Slovakia's decreasing volunteering sector.

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## 18.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

Slovakia is a small country in the heart of Europe, bordered by five other European countries: Austria, the Czech Republic, Poland, Ukraine, and Hungary. Its complex history and diverse ruling governments have affected the country at every front, including the third sector. Slovakia's voluntary organizations are financially dependent on third parties and claim financial support from the present government through grants offered by the ministries, as there is no financial support system targeting volunteering organizations and centers specifically. Such a challenging situation affects the volunteer rates in the sports sector, which are mostly affected by the data collection practices. Slovakia will host the 2019 International Ice Hockey Federation (IIHF) World Championship in May 2019. This will be the second time a large-scale event will take place in the country, with the hope of collecting more data to better understand the volunteering trends. This chapter aims to explain and elaborate on (sports) volunteering practices in Slovakia within the constraints of the limited research available in the sports sector.

Before describing the history of volunteering and defining the term “volunteering” as well as elaborating on different perceptions of volunteering, it is important to mention that the term “sports volunteering” is barely used in the Slovak language. This is likely due to the low number of volunteers, regardless of which sector is referred to. In addition, “Slovakia does not currently have a health monitoring and surveillance system that includes population-based measurements of physical activity among adults. Neither does the country have national recommendations on physical activity” (European Union 2015, p.2). If these systems and recommendations were in place, maybe there would be a larger attraction for sports volunteering in Slovakia, as people would be willing to volunteer for causes that can improve one's health.

### 18.1.1 *History of Volunteering*

Slovakia's history plays an important role in all economic sectors, which is why the history of volunteering needs to be described to fully understand the meaning of volunteering. The term “sports volunteering” has not found its way into Slovakia's dictionary, as much as comparative sports research would wish it. This is because the term “volunteering” has only had an official definition for 17 years. However, voluntary organizations are a known phenomenon in Slovakia, as they have their origins in the Middle Ages when aid and philanthropy were booming. Voluntary organizations saw a significant increase from 1918 to the late 1930s as they were seen “as an important pillar of support for pre-war Czechoslovakia” (European Union n.d.-a). However, between 1939 and 1945, the third sector declined due to Slovakia becoming a client state of Nazi Germany. Furthermore, the post-1948 communist rule had a great impact on the society because “voluntary” became

“mandatory” and so shed a negative light on volunteering. In fact, the unwillingness to participate in common projects was seen as resistance to the communist regime, and that was unacceptable.

Thankfully, this changed in 1989 after the collapse of communist regime in the then Czechoslovakia, and this allowed for a huge growth in the third sector (European Union [n.d.-a](#)). By the time Czechoslovakia split in 1993 into Slovakia and the Czech Republic, Slovakia recorded 6,000 nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), which then doubled in the next three years, and by 2002 over 26,000 NGOs were registered (Nikodemová [2009](#)). The year 2011 brought a crucial change for the volunteering infrastructure as the Platform of Volunteer Centers and Organizations was established in August. Following this platform formation, the Law of Volunteering was passed on December 1, 2011. However, it was evident that this law would unfortunately not give monetary support to these organizations and centers (European Union [n.d.-a](#)). The year 2011 was a successful year, as the World Ice Hockey Championships came to Bratislava and Košice attracting many volunteers.

### ***18.1.2 Definition of (Sports) Volunteering***

Volunteering has been defined and identified among Slovaks for a few centuries, and the research agrees with the following definition of a volunteer: “A volunteer is a person who from his/her own free decision without a requirement to be paid, performs a voluntary activity based on his/her knowledge, abilities, and skills for another person with her/his agreement or for the public good” (Country Report Slovakia [2012](#), p.1). This definition has been in place since the Law on Volunteering was passed on December 1, 2011. Slovakia has not developed a definition of volunteering since 1993 when it became independent from the Czech Republic and the third sector was split. *Dobrovoľníctvo* in literal translation means volunteering, as in doing something because of one’s free will. For almost 20 years, the society did not really know what could be identified as volunteering – people helped out in various organizations without financial compensation whenever they had time. Many saw this as an act of philanthropy, and volunteering was often interchanged with philanthropy, which led to much confusion. Králiková ([2006](#)) explained that volunteering and philanthropy should not be used interchangeably because philanthropy means being charitable and humane, trying to reduce poverty, and helping socially worse-off individuals because one feels that humans should do so. Justifiably, the lack of understanding and misinterpreting the meaning of philanthropy made many people unwilling to call themselves a “volunteer.” Also, the official definition of volunteering is fairly new; thus, it will take some time for the term to be correctly understood and used by the Slovak population. This is supported by the *Country Report Slovakia’s* ([2012](#)) authors, who state that there is a general lack of information about volunteering as well as recognizing its importance, and many people do not refer to themselves as being volunteers. It can take some time and clear explanations for people to realize that they are indeed volunteers. Lack of information, will,



enthusiasm, capacity, and sometimes the necessary negotiating skills make volunteering in the nonprofit sector difficult. This general trend can be seen in every type of volunteering organization.

Sports volunteering as such is not used in research about Slovakia. Strečanský (2015, p.71) states that “data on volunteering in Slovakia is limited and incomplete,” and, therefore, any data needs to be interpreted with caution. Gavurova et al. (2017, p.1004) find that there is “a lack of comprehensible, in-depth qualitative and quantitative research studies about volunteering,” and so the challenge to find research resources remains. The lack of data is due to other issues being more important to research than volunteering, for example, Slovakia’s economy. Volunteering data is usually broken down in sectors, and that is where one can find some numbers referring to sports. However, the numbers are very low: only 7.4% of all volunteering is dedicated to sports (Nikodemová 2009). Section 18.2 will present volunteering data in more detail.

### *18.1.3 Different Perceptions of Volunteering*

There are different perceptions of volunteering mainly based on individuals’ age and the degree of formalisation of the activity. Given the historical context described above, different perceptions of older people toward volunteering can be expected.

“Juventa,” the Slovak Youth Institute, published a short book addressing a reoccurring problem in the younger generation of volunteers, namely, the disagreement of being labeled as a volunteer. A prime example is the following statement: “Ja nie som dobrovoľník! Ja to robím iba tak...” This translates to “I am not a volunteer! I just simply do it... [Referring to volunteering]” (Králiková 2006, p.3). Such a direct statement of a young man helping at one of the youth centers in Bratislava resonated in the volunteering community. The indication of young people denying their engagement in volunteering services reflects Strečanský’s (2015, p.105) conclusion that “the tendency of younger civil society groups is to organize themselves informally and ad hoc and reject the traditional institutionalism of NGOs.” It is evident that young people do not wish to be labeled as volunteers because they do not see their work as volunteering but rather as something they simply wish to do. Where to draw the line between volunteering and simply helping out “just because” is not clear and is frankly impossible. For the older citizens, volunteering is often connected to something that they had to do when they were younger. One interviewee agrees:

I think volunteering is seen as something negative because the socialist brigades implemented it in the past: everybody was obliged to attend these brigades... The middle-aged generation remembers brigades where they spent eight hours doing nothing. It seems that brigades and volunteering have become synonyms for some people. I think this is the reason why more young people volunteer in Slovakia, because the older generations were forced to work, supposedly voluntary (Mračková and Vlašicová 2007, p.10).

This statement was true five years later, when Gregorová et al.'s (2012) findings showed that 83.3% of the age group 20-29 years old frequently volunteers and only 16.6% of the age group 70 years old and above engaged in volunteering activities.

Formal volunteering is volunteering for an organization, whereas informal volunteering is assisting with tasks outside of the family or household (Strečanský 2015). Only 27.5% of Slovak population engaged in formal volunteering in 2010, and 47.1% engaged in informal volunteering (Gregorová et al. 2012). However, the inconsistency of the data appears when results of the European Social Survey (2006) indicated that 75% of the Slovak population engaged in informal volunteering (as cited in Gregorová et al. 2012). In either data findings, it is apparent that more people engage in informal volunteering than formal. This can be due to Slovakia's population preferring the community type of volunteering rather than the managerial type of volunteering, in which the volunteering activities are extremely formal (Gregorová et al. 2012).

Noteworthy is that Slovak people support the nonprofit sector by donating money rather than being directly involved in voluntary activities (Nikodemová 2009). According to Salamon and Sokolowski (2001, p.18), Slovakia follows an unusual mixture of volunteering model, as there is "relatively high government social welfare spending and restricted avenues of non-profit development," which is the result of the former communist regime. Additionally, the perception of volunteering has not changed between 1998 and 2003, as 55% and 74%, respectively, shared the same opinion: "Volunteers are perceived as people who have earned the society's appreciation and are doing a good thing. On the other hand, people also believe that volunteers would not be needed had the state fulfilled its obligations in the first place" (Gregorová et al. 2009, p.47).

#### ***18.1.4 Volunteer Remuneration***

In terms of volunteer remuneration, only international volunteers who are recruited from different countries receive financial support, usually from the Erasmus+ program. A recent example of volunteer remuneration is from the Ecumenical Council of Churches in Slovakia's vacancy for 16 international volunteers. According to the Voluntary Service in Slovakia/Bratislava (Ecumenical council of Churches in Slovakia n.d.) for the volunteers from Italy, for 11 months of volunteering in Bratislava, one receives daily allowances of four or five EUR, monthly diet money (150 EUR), rent covered in a shared flat, and coverage of travel costs to a maximum of 275 EUR. If the Erasmus+ budget is higher, then more remuneration can follow. Similarly, the Erasmus + program offers financial compensation for volunteering in the form of 150 EUR/month meal allowance, 95 EUR personal allowance, and a refund up to 170 EUR for vaccinations against hepatitis A and hepatitis B (European Union n.d.-b). This type of remuneration is only available for international volunteers as they need to work in a safe environment. Local volunteers are not compensated in any way. At most, local volunteers will receive a free meal during their shift

**Table 18.1** Slovakia's volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in Slovakia
Population size	5.4 million <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	Slovak
Volunteer rates (year)	n.a.
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	no
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	2011 World Ice Hockey Championships
Sports volunteer rates	n.a.
The word for volunteering	Dobrovoľníctvo
The meaning of the word	Offering own skills, knowledge, and experience without financial compensation
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	2011 World Ice Hockey Championships, Law of Volunteering (2011)

Source: <sup>a</sup>Worldometers (2018)

(applicable for short-term volunteering) or a merchandizing article from a nonprofit organization (applicable for long-term volunteering). Generally, this is understood as the standard volunteering situation in Slovakia, and it only changes when a large-scale event takes place. Volunteering during large-scale event will be discussed in more detail in Sect. 18.3.

To compare Slovakia with other countries in this book, Table 18.1 summarizes key country information.

## 18.2 Volunteer Workforce in Slovakia

This section will chronologically present available volunteer data (also from the year of Slovakia hosting a large-scale event) and will contrast continuous and episodic volunteers. Salamon and Sokolowski (2001) present a composition of volunteering in Slovakia from 1995: culture 37.8%, social services 21.8%, environment 14.2%, foundation 7.1%, professional 6.1%, civic/advocacy 5.8%, health 1.9%, n.e.c. 1.8%, education 1.4%, development 1.1%, and international 1.0%. Salamon and Sokolowski (2001) compared 24 countries, and Slovakia was at the very bottom when comparing volunteering contribution to nonprofit income. Data from this study also showed that Slovakia's size of the nonprofit sector has an influence on volunteering: smaller than average nonprofit results in smaller amount of volunteering. In comparing whether a country has an expressive (culture, sports, recreation, environmental protection, political expression, advocacy, labor unions, and professional and business associations) or a service role of volunteering (education, health, social services, development, and housing), Slovakia showed to have a more expressive role (64%) than a service role (25%) of volunteering; the other 11% were activities that did not fall into either category.

The *National Report – Slovakia (European Union n.d.-a)* collected data between 1988 and 2007, and the results are as follows:

- 1988: 46% of total population (2,474,500 volunteers)
- 2003: 39% of total population (2,098,000 volunteers)
- 2004: 13% of total population (699,000 volunteers)
- 2007: 0.47% of total population (25,133 volunteers)

Nikodemová (2009) presented some figures from the Slovak Official Statistical Office with data from 2005:

- More women volunteer than men: 52% female, 41% male, and 7% unspecified.
- Younger people volunteer more: 70% below 30 years old and 30% above 30 years old.
- Long-term volunteering is preferred: 73% long-term volunteers, 23% short-term volunteers, and 4% unspecified.

The trend between 1998 and 2007 showed a substantial decrease, which is a result of lack of commitment and investment by the national government in financing or otherwise supporting the third sector (European Union n.d.-a). On the other hand, Slovakia saw a record number of volunteers during the Days of Volunteering in September 2011 when 6,651 volunteers helped at various organizations throughout the country (Vilikovská 2011).

Data on sports volunteering showed sports volunteering to be toward the bottom of the table based on volunteer involvement by sector. The order in 2009 was as follows: education and training 39.3%; social care and service 32.3%; leisure time activities 29.6%; art and culture 18.9%; advocacy of civil rights 17.2%; environment 13.3%; charity 11.7%; health care and services 9.5%; regional development and housing 9.0%; foundations and funds 9.0%; sports 7.4%; research, analysis, and expertise 7.3%; exchange of volunteers 6.4%; recreation 5.6%; and other sectors of activity 6.9% (Nikodemová 2009). A poll conducted in 2011 found that “27.5% of Slovaks work for a specific organization as a volunteer and more than half of all people aged over 15 help informally” (Vilikovská 2011, p.1).

By 2015, the following facts have been collected about volunteering in Slovakia (Brozmanová-Gregorová 2009, 2012 in Strečanský 2015):

- Most frequent volunteering is in sports clubs, church and religious organizations, community development, and education.
- The highest participation is in NGOs, municipalities, and religious organizations.
- Volunteering is connected with membership in NGOs and giving, that is, volunteers are members.
- Education plays a role in volunteering: the higher the educational level, the higher the volunteering engagement.
- Most frequent types of activities include organizing campaigns, events, sporting activities, and free time activities for youth, elderly, and others.

In terms of volunteer organizations, the Bratislava region has by far the highest amount of NGOs (European Union [n.d.-a](#)). Children and youth volunteer organizations are the biggest volunteer organizations in Slovakia and include ‘Slovak Scouting’, ‘DOMKA’, or ‘ERko’, with long traditions of education on volunteering. These are supported by former recipients of the services, that is, former volunteers bring up the next volunteer generation. Many of these organizations have a Christian background (e.g., ERko). The two largest volunteering organizations with a long tradition are the Slovak Red Cross and the Union of Seniors. Sports volunteering organizations (i.e., sports clubs, unions, and centers) in Slovakia also have a long tradition; however, they do not operate as the typical volunteer organizations mentioned above (Country Report Slovakia [2012](#)). The latest research on volunteering from 2014 showed inadequate public participation in volunteering activities due to lack of recognition, free time, and finances, with financing being the most problematic issue (Gavurova et al. [2017](#)).

Lastly, both episodic and continuous volunteers exist in Slovakia. Long-term volunteering practices are carried out by 64% of formal volunteers, but research shows that Slovak volunteers prefer episodic and short-term type of volunteering (Gregorová et al. [2012](#)).

### 18.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

Sports and event volunteer data in Slovakia are limited due to the low number of large-scale events taking place and the lack of interest in the third sector research. However, the 2011 IIHF World Championship attracted a large amount of volunteers, and the data from this event were broken down in detail. According to the IIHF ([2010](#)), there were a large number of volunteer applications in 2011 (1,294 males, 717 females) not only from Slovakia but also from the Czech Republic, Germany, Hungary, Russia, Romania, Georgia, Canada, the USA, Turkey, and Mexico. The largest interest came not only from the group of 20 to 30-year-olds but also from people living abroad who were willing to return to Slovakia for the event. The challenge of picking volunteers resulted from the false motivation of many applicants – to simply watch the championships. All applicants stated that they wanted to contribute to the success of the event, but out of the 700 anticipated volunteers, only 550 were chosen: 363 volunteers were based in Bratislava (including 10 international volunteers), and 187 were based in Košice (including two international volunteers). Approximately two-thirds were males, one-third were females, the average age was 25 years, and they were mostly students. As described in Sect. [18.1.3](#), the trend of the younger generation being involved in volunteering activities is higher than the older generation. It is important to note that the students from the Bratislava Economic University Faculty of Commerce helped immensely and made the event successful (IIHF [2010](#), [2011](#)). This detailed breakdown of volunteers is the best-recorded volunteer data available from a sporting event to date. Slovakia is in need of such data to understand and improve sports event-specific volunteering, as individual motivation and perception of volunteering might differ from nonsports volunteers.

## 18.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

The support of the state in Slovakia is twofold: direct grants from Slovak ministries and the European Union or indirect state support for NGOs by assigning 2% of paid taxes to a chosen nonprofit organization. Slovakia's voluntary organizations claim financial support from the present government through grants offered by the Slovak Ministry of Education, Science, Research, and Sport and the Ministry of Labor, Social Affairs, and Family, as there is no financial support system targeting volunteering organizations and centers specifically. The application for grants from the ministries and/or European Union funds is difficult to claim because there are 23,000 active civic associations in Slovakia and the competition is high. Understandably, Slovak citizens give 2% of paid taxes to NGOs that deal with cancer research, foster care, education, and other such organizations that are considered to be more humane. Thus, (youth) volunteering is the least supported area. When comparing Slovakia with Western European countries, the key difference is that volunteer centers do not receive regular financial support from the government. What is surprising is that the organizations and centers have not advocated for better conditions earlier. It could be that Slovak volunteer centers have become skeptical of cooperating with the government based on the political situation as well as the lack of governmental strategy toward the nonprofit sector (Country Report Slovakia 2012). Brozmanová-Gregorová and Mráčková (2008) list a few challenges for volunteering and propose to improve the volunteering situation by increasing public awareness and infrastructure of volunteering, professionalizing voluntary organizations, integrating children and seniors, improving the level of volunteering research, and setting up a more robust legal framework. Slovakia will have the opportunity to improve the volunteering situation even more when the 2019 IIHF World Championship returns to Bratislava and Košice in May 2019, which will provide a platform to collect more up-to-date volunteering data. However, to host another successful mega event, the Ondrej Nepela Ice Hockey Arena in Bratislava needs to be renovated, and the question remains the same, who will cover the costs? The responsible ministry, the Ministry of Education, Science, Research, and Sport, of the Slovak Republic, states that there is no budget for 2018 or 2019 to support such renovations because it is not in line with the legal framework of sports (TSAR 2017). The management of leisure and recreation facilities will cover 600,000 EUR, but the rest will need to be discussed by the city of Bratislava and the Slovak Ice Hockey Federation as the ice hockey arena will be rented from the city (TSAR 2018).

## 18.5 Conclusion

This chapter has explained and elaborated on the (sports) volunteering situation in Slovakia in as much depth as possible given the lack of recent data. One has to be cautious when interpreting the presented data as it stems from different sources and

was collected at different time points. The Social Policy Analysis Center Foundation, the CARDO civic association, and the Center for Civil Society Studies at the Johns Hopkins University are the three entities that have done the most research on volunteering in Slovakia, but research is still limited. Slovakia's history and changes in political regimes throughout the decades are key factors in understanding the voluntary organizations' development as well as their future, given the current political situation. The biggest challenge for volunteering in Slovakia is the absence of targeted and reliable financial support (Nikodemová 2009) and the "lack of legal framework for volunteering, which should be designed with the aim to support voluntary organizations, not to regulate them" (Gavurova et al. 2017, p.1004). The Law of Volunteering helped to strengthen the volunteering infrastructure, but more support is needed. Additionally, more up-to-date data needs to be collected to fully understand volunteering practices in Slovakia, and the research should also focus on sporting events. Slovakia is behind on sports volunteering data compared to other European countries (Salamon and Sokolowski 2001). In conclusion, the World Ice Hockey Championships have found their way back to Bratislava in May 2019, and, so, Slovakia has an opportunity to host yet another successful event.

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# Chapter 19

## South Africa



David Maralack and Donovan Jurgens

**Abstract** South Africa has a history of organized sports and has played host to large sports events, which have depended on high numbers of volunteers. Annual events, such as Comrades Marathon ( $\pm 20,000$  entrants), Cape Town Cycle Tour (30,000 participants), Two Oceans Marathon (34,000 participants), and once-off major events such as the All-Africa Games in 1999 and the 2010 FIFA World Cup, depended on volunteers for their successful presentation. In the latter mega event, a volunteer program was developed, which was a critical success factor. The program introduced a template for volunteer management in South Africa, focusing on establishing a well-structured, well-resourced national program intended to be used by sports federations and national bodies and at other events. This chapter situates volunteerism in South Africa in “Ubuntu,” its broader cultural and philosophical context, as well as in contemporary sports policy imperatives and challenges linked to the centrality but decreasing numbers of volunteers in sports events. Drawing on this context, it discusses the volunteer program established through the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the subsequent volunteer policy and implementation plan. It then assesses ways in which major events such as the Cape Town Cycle Tour and Two Oceans Marathon leveraged this approach to volunteerism in sports events. In the sports arena, volunteers have been and remain a core component of sports delivery in South Africa. However, a closer analysis will show that the pool of volunteers is dwindling, insufficient younger people are volunteering, and health, safety, and security policies are becoming increasingly onerous on sports organizations.

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## 19.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

The culture of volunteerism in sports builds from an ingrained propensity in South African society to develop and nurture community bonds and to inspire communal social behavior, or what is known as “Ubuntu,” an innate duty to support each individual in communities. In both the apartheid and post-1994 democratic period, volunteerism contributed directly to the continued existence and success of sports. The majority of sports organizations, including national federations, depend on volunteers who are members of executives or board of directors and perform various administrative and logistic functions.

Historically, sport was a crucial facet of the anti-apartheid struggle and probably was the most effective arena of independent and community-based activism (Maralack 2011, 2014). Sports organizations in all communities provided a crucial platform for democracy and prosocial behavior in an otherwise draconian anti-democratic apartheid system. Crucially, “non-racial sports were intrinsically linked to communities and their schools and depended heavily on volunteerism for its enduring success” (The Non-racial Sports History Project 2017).

In South Africa, this form of social behavior and commitment to community and a greater good is a given expression by the popularization of the concept of “Ubuntu.” “Ubuntu” is a “Nguni” word (in Xhosa, Zulu, or Ndebele) and translates to human kindness and a broad communitarian concept (see Table 19.1). Since 1994, Nelson Mandela, Desmond Tutu, and other key figures in South African society propagated the concept of “Ubuntu.” Archbishop Tutu (1999) points out that the meaning of Ubuntu is that “a person is a person through other people... I am human because I belong... I participate, I share.” The concept highlights the interconnectedness of the human society, with the implication that people should treat others as part of the extended human family (Eliastam 2015). “Ubuntu” has been extrapolated to embody the values to serve every day, for example, through the now popular Mandela Day activities, when all South Africans are encouraged to be of service for their community at least on one day of the year – on Mandela Day, July 18 of each year.

Sport is often used as a platform for “Ubuntu” and “nation building” in South Africa (LOC 2007; Republic of South Africa 2011; FIFA 2010), and volunteers are central to its delivery. The cases described below show paradoxically that the pool of volunteers is decreasing because of health, safety, and security concerns, as legislation such as the Safety at Sports and Recreation Act in South Africa places additional demands on event owners for volunteer procurement, retention, and training. These critical issues are both policy imperatives and challenges that shape volunteerism in South Africa today.

**Table 19.1** South Africa's volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in South Africa
Population size	56 million <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	Eleven official languages (b): Afrikaans, English, Ndebele, northern Sotho, Sotho, SiSwati, Tsonga, Tswana, Venda, Xhosa, and Zulu
Volunteer rates (year)	n.a.
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	n.a.
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	2017 Hockey World League Semi-finals, 2014 African Nations Championship, 2013 Africa Cup of Nations, 2010 FIFA World Cup, 2010 BMX World Championships, UCI MTB World Cup, 2009 ICC Champions Trophy, 2009 FIFA Confederations Cup, 2009 Indian Premier League, 2007 World Twenty20 Championships, A1 Grand Prix (since 2006), FINA Swimming World Cup (since 2003), Red Bull Big Wave Africa (1999-2008), Six-star rated surfing events (annual), 2006 Paralympic Swimming World Champs, 2005-2008 Women's World Cup of Golf, 2003 President's Cup, 2003 Cricket World Cup
Sports volunteer rates	n.a.
The word for volunteering	<i>Ubuntu</i>
The meaning of the word	Human kindness and the broader communitarian concept that "a person is a person through other persons"
Events/ occurrences that have influenced volunteering	FIFA World Cup 2010

Source: <sup>a</sup>Republic of South Africa (1996)

## 19.2 Volunteer Workforce in South Africa

Although the South African sports industry depends on volunteers to deliver services and events to sport consumers (Goslin 2006) and individuals continue to volunteer, the volunteering environment is characterized by a recent dwindling (Dhurup and Surujlal 2008) and aging pool of volunteers. The current volunteer profile is different to that of a decade ago. Dhurup and Surujlal (2008) investigated volunteers at the 2006 Federation of African Student Universities (FASU) Games in Tshwane (Pretoria) and found that sports volunteerism in South Africa is male dominated, with 56% male and 43% female, while 74% were in the 18-25-year age group. This is significantly younger than the global norm of 35 years and old (Dhurup and Surujlal 2008). Employment status reflected that 16% were employed, while 83% were unemployed. The fact that a large number of unemployed persons volunteered, knowing that they would not get any monetary reward, suggests that volunteers at

that time were motivated by nonmonetary stimuli. The authors concluded that sports event volunteers generally have an attachment to the sports event activity and therefore are motivated for purposive reasons linked to personal orientation.

## 19.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

### 19.3.1 *Sports Volunteerism: Policy Imperatives and Challenges*

While volunteerism in South Africa is critical to the success of large-scale events, reliance on volunteers was, until the 2010 FIFA World Cup and its policy developments, poorly examined. Burnett (2006) in her analysis of the 1999 All-Africa Games showed that the lack of an integrated volunteer database led to disastrous results at key strategic events such as these Games and other events. To address these problems, the 2010 FIFA World Cup Local Organizing Committee Volunteer Policy was initiated in October 2007 (see the discussion in the next section), and after the World Cup, Sport and Recreation South Africa established a national policy, introducing the National Sports Volunteer Corps in 2012, emphasizing volunteer recruitment, development, and retention.

The National Sports and Recreation Plan (NSRP) identifies a number of strategic objectives, one of which focuses on the importance of sport volunteers (Republic of South Africa 2012): “Strategic objective 19: To empower volunteers to adequately support the South African sports system.”

The NSRP acknowledges that sports depend heavily on the commitment of thousands of volunteers and that volunteering offers individuals an opportunity to become involved in sporting events, which may act as a starting point for ongoing community involvement and may have economic and social benefits for the nation.

Establishing the National Sports Volunteer Corps, Sports Minister Mbalula invited former players, athletes, and coaches to be part of the training of volunteers, in roles such as coaches, talent identifiers, technical officials, sports administrators, and facility managers, sharing their experience in forums key to sports in South Africa. In addition, South African citizens who worked in sports, fitness sector, academics, and researches were invited to volunteer time and provided support to sports clubs and sports at schools. The policy expected that National Sports Federations support the program by training the respective sport legends, former players, and athletes and engage them meaningfully in their programs.

Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA) coordinates the Volunteer Corps in a number of ways. It coordinates young people to volunteer at national and international events, conducts preappointment screening and vetting of applicants, and develops and maintains accredited volunteer training programs. The National Office is key in implementing the rollout of registration, capacity building programs, and coaching clinics, and Regional Governments of Sport and Recreation (nine provinces; see Maralack 2013) support SRSA. While the campaign is coordinated by the government and the volunteer database is consolidated at the national level, national

and regional sports federations (civil society) are intended to take ownership of this process and use the database to assist with their programs and activities. Lastly, the deployment of the Volunteer Corp is intended to be driven in consultation with National Sports Federations. The development of this policy and the institutional infrastructure to roll it out is built on the experiences experimented within the 2010 FIFA World Cup and major annual events such as the Cape Town Cycle Tour and Two Oceans Marathon. These case studies are analyzed in the remainder of this chapter.

### ***19.3.2 South African Experiences with Supporting Volunteerism in Sports***

#### **19.3.2.1 2010 FIFA World Cup**

The 2010 FIFA World Cup volunteer program was guided by the 2010 FIFA World Cup Local Organizing Committee Volunteer Policy (LOC 2007), setting standards for the national volunteer programs, the Confederations Cup (2009), and the host city volunteer programs for 2010. Host cities agreed to adhere to the national standards contained in the policy, abide with the parameters in the implementation of the program, and acknowledge the respective responsibilities of the participating stakeholders.

Although the policy and 2010 FIFA World Cup volunteer program implementation plans were integrated, two distinct volunteer categories were created. First, the LOC volunteers provided services to the FIFA/LOC special events and tournaments focusing on the FIFA family, official venues of the tournament, qualifying teams, sponsors, FIFA, the LOC headquarters, protocols, and other designated official areas. Second, the host city volunteers, distributed across the nine host cities, focused on assisting spectators, visitors, and tourists. Their responsibilities included welcoming and guiding the spectators and visitors on city-specific information, event information, entertainment, fan parks, emergency services information, transport, accommodation, tourism, historical sites, and other key areas.

These two categories of volunteers shared a generic recruitment, training, and deployment systems but were branded, managed, and funded separately. The LOC volunteers were funded by the national LOC, and the host city volunteer programs by host cities such as Cape Town and Pretoria (Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Report 2011).

Numerous institutions contributed to the success of the volunteer program, and there was generally a good relationship among various stakeholders<sup>1</sup>, even though they were not accustomed to working together. Stakeholders included the various

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<sup>1</sup>D. Jurgens, a contributing author, utilized personal documentation, meeting notes, informal engagement with the Cape Town host city volunteers, and debrief reports in this chapter. He was integrally involved in the host city volunteer program.

host city governments, the National Youth Development Agency, and various tiers of national government departments such as safety, security, national police services, metro police, traffic services, and tertiary institutions (universities and colleges), as well as various FIFA subcommittees.

### Recruitment and Selection

A disconnect emerged between international best practice and the South African volunteer context. The LOC coordinated the volunteer recruitment process, but applications were done via the FIFA website. Many people in South Africa did not have access to Internet facilities, which resulted in their exclusion. To ameliorate exclusion, various LOC offices and host cities created “help desks” for members of the public to complete the application process. The LOC also engaged the National Youth Development Agency (NYDA) to create additional access through libraries and mobile units.

The online registration process was followed by a preselection process, a security screening, a robust interview, and a final selection process (all applicants had to be 18 years or older by March 1, 2009). Managers of this process emphasized that it was important for the interview process to be robust so that the process could withstand scrutiny and appeals. Events leading up to the World Cup, namely, the Confederation Cup in June 2009 and the FIFA Final Draw in December 2009, were used by the organizing committee to test the volunteer systems. The volunteers who contributed successfully at those events were considered for the 2010 FIFA World Cup. International volunteers were interviewed by South African Embassy staff in their respective countries. The South Africa 2010 World Cup Volunteer Debrief (2010), summarized in Table 19.2, shows that 67,999 volunteer applications were received from 170 countries and 15,000 volunteers were selected to perform functions in 16 functional areas.

The Cape Town LOC is an example of the nine host cities. There were 1,485 volunteers involved in hosting the 2010 World Cup in Cape Town and 244 volunteers for the final draw.

**Table 19.2** Volunteers at the national level

Functional areas	16
Applicants/countries	67,999/170
Number of volunteers selected	15,000
International volunteers selected/countries	914/32
Dropout rate (2 volunteers died during the WC 2010)	12%
Oldest volunteer	78 years
Minimum age	18 years
Budget for the volunteer program	167 million ZAR (approximately 11 million EUR as of April 2018)

Source: FIFA (2010)

## Training and Induction

Training for both LOC and host city volunteers in Cape Town was conducted simultaneously using the same content, although event-specific training varied depending where the volunteer was deployed. An interactive web-based training program was created for international volunteers. Generic training content included the following:

- Background to FIFA
- Brief historical overview of South Africa
- Overview of the 2010 FIFA World Cup South Africa and the Local Organizing Committee
- Overview of each host city
- Operational areas such as transportation, accreditation, safety, and security
- Volunteer duties: what is expected of volunteers and what volunteers are *not* expected to do

## Stipends

It was accepted that volunteers would not receive any remuneration for their services but that a stipend of 100 ZAR (approx. 6.7 EUR) would be provided per day. As volunteers were recruited from various demographic and economic backgrounds, their responses to the stipends varied.<sup>1</sup> For some volunteers, especially those from upper- and middle-class families, the stipend was inconsequential. However, for volunteers from poor socioeconomic circumstances, “the stipend was like a salary.”

It was very important for the success of the volunteer program that stipends and working conditions of volunteers were the same in all host cities. As many volunteers came from poor backgrounds, many did not have a bank account. The organizing committee developed a special mechanism with a South African bank to enable volunteers to receive their funds without having a bank account.

## Retention and Recognition

Inevitably, the variety of functions and tasks resulted in some volunteer positions being considered “glamorous.” For example, in some positions, volunteers were allocated to the matches, interacted with players and VIPs, and performed hospitality functions. In some volunteer positions, opportunities existed to develop skills in media, IT, and broadcasting. On the other hand, the overwhelming majority of volunteer positions involved hard and tedious work over long periods and sometimes in adverse weather conditions. This created the potential for resentment among volunteers.

Innovative solutions were implemented to maintain high morale among the volunteers. Measures included improving conditions at the Volunteer Centers, facilitating relaxation, visits by dignitaries such as the mayor, thanking volunteers personally for their services, visits to the official fan parks, live entertainment, and sports activities. These interventions were made halfway through hosting the World Cup. An added intervention by host cities was the volunteer recognition function after the event. For example, Cape Town host city volunteers did not operate within the Cape Town Stadium, and therefore the volunteer recognition function was held at the Cape Town Stadium. These volunteers got to see and experience the stadium for the first time at this event. This was highly appreciated by the volunteers.

Not all elements of the volunteer experience were so well managed. In Cape Town, transport and accommodation presented specific challenges for poorer people who were on duty from early morning until late at night after matches. This challenge was addressed in differing ways by the two separate programs. The FIFA LOC volunteers had accommodation at the University of Cape Town. While the host city did not provide any accommodation, volunteers were transported home regardless of the time. Protests by volunteers emerged on the first day of operation due to the way the transport system was managed. Some problems experienced were as follows: (i) volunteers finished their shifts early but had to wait a long time for arranged transport and (ii) arranged transport went to many different areas, so it took a long time for volunteers to get to their homes.

Although transport and accommodation challenges were resolved, and the process worked effectively for the remainder of the period, the primary challenge remained the different resources for and the lack in integrating the respective volunteer systems.

In the post-event evaluation, the volunteer program was deemed a success by the LOC, in particular, the planning, training program, responsiveness to management challenges, and the excitement and enthusiasm of volunteers. The host city program evaluation in Cape Town highlighted good leadership, experienced staff, timely operational planning, feedback systems, well-defined recruitment processes, and good communication. The optimization of the volunteer program was limited by challenges such as lack of functional area training, data capturing of volunteer schedules and availability, and understanding the value of volunteers and their capabilities.

A few large South African events have tried to build on the 2010 FIFA World Cup volunteer program and its components. Here the focus lies on the Cape Town Cycle Tour and the Two Oceans Marathon, respectively.

### **19.3.2.2 Cape Town Cycle Tour**

The Cape Town Cycle Tour (CTCT; Cape Town Cycle Tour 2018) started with a 3,000 signature petition to the Department of Transport in 1977 that made an argument for the popularity of cycling and its need for safe cycling routes. In response to intransigence from the authorities, hundreds of cyclists, including the mayor,



participated in a demonstration in 1977, “The Big Ride In.” Even though this demonstration had limited success in creating an integrated cycling system, the cycling event grew under the auspices of volunteer organizations, the Cycle Tour Trust, and the cycling federation, to become a major annual mass participation event accommodating in excess of 35,000 participants.

The backbone of the race are volunteers drawn from 30 Rotary clubs, churches, schools, and community groups, predominantly from informal settlements. Volunteers work in the following areas: course marshals and feeding stations (1,116 volunteers), start and finish (504), and Disaster Management Services (120).

The event organizers acknowledge that these individuals are not “true” volunteers in the narrowest sense. Individual volunteers do not receive payment, but the event pays partner organizations for the services, which charge the event per task and recruit the individual volunteers. Partner organizations use these payments for social projects in communities. In sum, the work that volunteers complete is paid for, which varies with the traditional concept of a volunteer.

Even though the event is professionally run, it still relies heavily on volunteers. Challenges identified by the race organizers are an aging volunteer population, declining interest in a volunteer culture, and mounting health and safety regulations (Safety at Sports and Recreation Act (SASREA) promulgates legal obligations to manage risk at mass participation events; Republic of South Africa 2010). The promulgation of the SASREA (2010) has resulted in more stringent screening, training requirements, risk mitigation, and liability protection for volunteers. Hence, the dependence on volunteers requires stricter risk analysis and mitigation measures, which may have unintended consequences of constraining the “true concept of volunteerism” (Republic of South Africa 2010).

This is one approach for using volunteers at a large-scale event. The Two Oceans Marathon offers an alternative approach discussed next.

### 19.3.2.3 The Two Oceans Marathon

The Two Oceans Marathon (TOM) in Cape Town is referred to as “the world’s most beautiful ultra-distance race” (Two Oceans Marathon 2018). Its route takes runners around the Cape Peninsula, a spectacular mountain range, as well as along both the Indian and Atlantic Oceans, hence the event’s name “Two Oceans.”

The race is an annual event and comprises a 56 km ultramarathon, 21 km half marathon, mountain trails (12 and 22 km), community fun runs, and an international friendship run. The 56 km race was founded in 1970 by 26 runners who used it as training for the world-famous Comrades Marathon a 90 km ultra-endurance race between Durban and Pietermaritzburg, which takes place in June every year. Only 15 of the 26 runners completed the course, but the race grew dramatically as a mass participation event over the ensuing 50 years. In 2018, over 34,000 runners participated in the various races, and more than 50,000 people visited the runners’ Lifestyle Expo.

This event started out organized fully by volunteers and one running club. As the race expanded over its 50-year existence and new demands were placed on the organization, volunteerism also changed its character. The race is governed by 12 volunteer board members and involves race marshals (420) and refreshment station assistants (1,800). In addition, charities and social organizations benefitting from the race provide race assistants to the organizer for a fee. TOM has been forced to change its volunteer strategy for key services at the Expo, information booths, and baggage drops since 2016. The 450 positions at Expo – 65 in the information booths and the 80 at baggage drops – which were previously volunteer positions, have become paid positions, funded either by TOM or sponsors. This was necessary due to challenges experienced with volunteers, such as them being unemployed, arriving late, or requiring transportation. As these are high-impact positions, the organizers and sponsors see this as a strategic necessity.

The gradual reduction of a structured volunteer program, dependence on beneficiary organizations and sponsors, and more onerous legislative and legal requirements have had negative impacts. In particular, these changes have placed more demands on volunteer performance management and paradoxically reduced the positive elements of volunteerism in the event.

An effective volunteer program for TOM will require longer-range planning, more intensive and accredited training, consistent retention strategies, rigorous database management, effective risk mitigation, and brand management strategies. As a consequence, volunteers are no longer a free labor source for the event but come with additional risks and therefore costs.

Despite these challenges, TOM highlights the positive elements of volunteerism, its motivation, the ways in which it builds community, development of cultural and social capital, and the spirit of Ubuntu.

## 19.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

Research on volunteerism in South African sports has received scant attention. Many event satisfaction surveys have been commissioned by event organizers, but little verifiable evidence and analysis of volunteers in sport federations exist. The most prominent analysis of volunteerism and volunteer management in the context of South African sports events was completed for the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

All the cases presented here highlight the strong intrinsic and extrinsic motivations for volunteer involvement, development of social capital, and reciprocity between community-based beneficiary organizations and sports events. In its analysis, the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Report (2011) contends that the training of volunteers stands out as one of the main successes of this program. After the 2010 FIFA World Cup, South Africa had a database in excess of 14,000 trained volunteers with experience. With minor modification, this legacy was intended to be the basis for developing a coherent sports volunteer training program in South Africa, for the benefit of sports federations and annual major events.

However, there is little evidence that either government or nongovernment institutions proactively exploited this legacy. Human and van Graan (2013), in analyzing the experiences of five 2010 FIFA World Cup volunteers from Pretoria, concluded that volunteers did not make use of their training as volunteers during the event as it did not adequately prepare them for real-life situations and was an opportunity lost. The case studies of the CTCT and TOM in Cape Town provide evidence that major sports event organizers have not accessed and used volunteers from this database. Also, the government-initiated Volunteer Corps, building on the legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup volunteer program, collapsed soon after its inception.

Lacking integration between state and civil society organizations weakened a uniform approach to volunteerism among events and sports organizations. Therefore, current recruitment, training, and management of volunteers are inadequate. For example, basic data on volunteer characteristics, such as gender, age, education levels, and expertise, were not adequately captured, analyzed, and incorporated into volunteer management and decision-making practices on a consistent basis.

An additional challenge for organizations is utilizing volunteers while adhering to state legislative and policy requirements. The Disaster Management Act (Republic of South Africa 2002), Safety at Sport and Recreation Events Act (Republic of South Africa 2010), and an increasing number of health, safety, and security regulations promulgated by local governments have an impact on risk management, potential liability, and financial viability.

Balancing the virtues and passion inherent in volunteerism with the need for risk and brand management is an increasing concern for events and sports organizations in South Africa. These challenges intensify the need for a well-synchronized volunteer policy and implementation and performance management system at national and city levels.

## 19.5 Conclusion

The concept and practice of volunteerism in South Africa vary across events and in relation to international norms. Reflective of the values of Ubuntu, prosocial behavior highlights the positive intrinsic and extrinsic values inherent in volunteerism in South African society. However, the case studies highlight the increasingly regulated nature of sport organizations and events and the related difficulties of building an event around volunteers. Increasing bureaucracy and risk management makes volunteer programs increasingly challenging. Consequently, the role of volunteers as part of the events has decreased. The definition of volunteers as being people working for nothing (Freeman 1997) is also complicated by payments for services that are made to beneficiary community organizations and increasing pressure placed on organizations by unemployed volunteers for a measure of remuneration. Increasing socioeconomic inequality will likely intensify this demand on events and sports organizations. If paid human resources were used instead of volunteers, the costs for events would become unaffordable, and the character, inclusion, and

vibrancy of events would suffer. Volunteers remain an essential part of sports events in South Africa that demand critical attention and policy innovation.

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## Chapter 20

# South Korea



Geumchan Hwang and Kyu-soo Chung

**Abstract** South Korea has a long history of volunteering, one that is based on the traditional spirit of mutual goodness among Korean neighborhoods. It was early in the 1900s that Korea was introduced to the concept and activities of Western volunteering through the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA). In the 1960s, volunteering was widely promoted by the Red Cross. In 1988, the sports volunteer spirit picked up great momentum across the country, thanks to the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games. In 2006, the Korean government passed the Framework Act on Volunteer Service Activities (FAVSA). Therein, volunteering is defined as “an activity performed by an individual or organization for the benefit of community, country, and human society for nothing in return” (Volunteering Korea, 2018). Sports organizations, however, differ in how they perceive the concept of volunteering. Rather than focusing on public interest, sports organizations perceive volunteer efforts as a marketing vehicle that benefits the organization. The number of volunteers in South Korea has continually increased; as of April 2018, Korea had 12,478,314 people registered as volunteers (male, 5,367,855; female, 7,110,459; Ministry of the Interior and Safety, 2018). The sports volunteering system in South Korea has developed in recent decades along two main streams: (1) hosting large-scale sport events and (2) sports for all. However, the current policy of sports volunteering has several limitations. It is necessary to develop a long-term plan to improve the impact of sports volunteering in Korean society.

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## 20.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

### 20.1.1 Conceptualization

South Korea is a country located in North East Asia with a population of 51 million (World Bank Group 2017). Ancient Korea was an agricultural society in which neighbors provided free labor for harvesting crops, manifestations known as “두레” (dure) or “뽕앗이” (pumasi; Kim 2005). In 1903, the YMCA was founded in Korea, and the concept of Western volunteering was introduced along with Christianity. In the 1960s, the Red Cross movement widely promoted the concept of volunteering (Kim 2005).

Hosting mega- and large-scale sporting events, such as the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games, co-hosting the 2002 Korea-Japan FIFA World Cup, the 2018 PyeongChang Winter Olympic Games, the Asian Games, FIFA and Formula One racing, facilitated social awareness of South Koreans. The 1988 Seoul Olympic Games were a starting point to recognize and spread volunteering in sports (Cho and Kwon 2011). The 2002 Korea-Japan FIFA World Cup was made possible by the volunteer efforts of 16,196 Koreans in 24 areas, including security, transportation, ticket management, communication, and facility management (Ahn 2011). In the 2018 PyeongChang Winter Olympic Games, 14,531 volunteers whose ages were from 18 to 85 supported 150 competition sessions in 14 venues (International Olympic Committee 2018). In recent decades, sports volunteering has been recognized as an important part of hosting successful mega sporting events in South Korea.

In 2006, a Korean National Committee on Volunteer Promotion was established based on the legislative article of promoting volunteer services, which aimed to encourage public participation in volunteering (International Center for Not-for-Profit Law 2010). Also in 2006, the Korea Ministry of Government Legislation passed the Framework Act on Volunteer Service Activities (FAVSA), setting forth specific principles and definitions of volunteering (Volunteering Korea 2018):

- Volunteering shall be performed in a way to promote the public’s participation capacity.
- It shall be guaranteed that volunteering is performed under the principles of absence of financial remuneration, spontaneity, public interest, nonprofit, non-partisanship, and nonreligious preference.
- Everyone shall be allowed to participate in volunteering regardless of his or her social background such as age, gender, disability, regions, and academic records.
- Volunteering promotion policy shall be applied based on the founding spirit of government and private sector cooperation.
- Volunteering refers to an activity performed by an individual or organization for the benefit of the community, country, and human society for nothing in return.
- “A volunteer” is defined as someone who performs volunteering.
- “A volunteer organization” refers to a nonprofit incorporation or organization built to support or perform volunteering.

### **20.1.2 Perceptions of Volunteering Within the Country**

The Korea National Council on Social Welfare has also offered a definition of volunteering (자원봉사 (Ja Won Bong Sa)): “The voluntary participation in public and private organizations that are engaged in the prevention and settlement of social problems or public service, providing necessary services for strangers based on the principle of democracy and respect for human dignity without receiving any compensation and promoting the common good of society and achieving self-realization through the realization of the euthanasia” (Kim and Jang 1999, p. 852).

According to these definitions, volunteering should be done for the benefit of the community (i.e., in the public interest) with spontaneous participation and no financial remuneration. In South Korea, however, the meaning of volunteering is sometimes perceived and implemented in different ways. First of all, volunteering in sports tends to be perceived as a marketing vehicle for the benefit of sports organizations rather than for society. Specifically, a number of professional sports organizations in South Korea (e.g., Korea Baseball Organization, Korean Basketball League, Korea Football Association) and their league teams take advantage of volunteering in the form of corporate social responsibility initiatives to enhance their images and reputation (Park and Chang 2010).

Another point that might now be perceived differently from FAVSA’s original meaning is spontaneous volunteering. In Korea, high school students may benefit from volunteering because the national educational system allows universities to include applicants’ volunteering experience in the admission process (Park and Son 2003). This type of volunteering has been criticized (Park and Son 2003; Moon 2001) because it is inconsistent with the original meaning of volunteering. In sports, volunteering may be a punishment for participants who are involved in unethical or illegal behavior on or off the field. For example, the Korea Baseball Organization enforces this type of volunteering with its players, coaches, and umpires who violate league regulations (KBO KBO league regulations 2017).

Despite FAVSA’s emphasis on the absence of financial remuneration, a number of studies have noted that financial rewards are important to volunteers’ continued participation (Jeong et al. 2009; Kim 2014). According to Kim (2014), many people participate in volunteer activities for the purpose of rewards (e.g., money, certificate) as well as enhancing psychological benefits (e.g., achievement) and social benefits (e.g., sense of belonging). Therefore, remuneration is regarded as an important motivation to facilitate volunteering activities, which is a different perception to the original meaning of volunteering.

### **20.1.3 Remuneration**

Regarding remuneration of volunteer service activities, FAVSA established that “the nation and local governments may reward volunteers, volunteer service organizations, volunteer service centers, etc. for its remarkable contributions to a nation

and society according to a presidential decree” (Volunteering Korea 2018). A volunteer has been recognized as a person who participates in volunteer services without remuneration, but recently a person who receives minimum rewards (e.g., transportation expenses, food expenses) in return of volunteering is also regarded as a volunteer (Getz 2005; Kim 2014). Indeed, Fairley, Lee, Green, and Kim (2013) found that individuals volunteering for the Korean Formula One Grand Prix received financial remuneration. Recent studies that were conducted in Korea (Jeong et al. 2009; Kim 2014) have demonstrated that compensation for volunteers positively influences behavioral intentions, such as the intention to volunteer again.

Compensation for volunteers includes financial incentives (e.g., cash payment) and nonfinancial incentives (e.g., event invitation; Kim 2014). According to a recent report of Volunteer Korea Culture (2016), 53.2% of volunteers had no incentive experience, and only 3.9% received material incentives for their volunteer services. Regarding the type of incentive, 67.8% of volunteers were in favor of incentives such as vouchers, discount coupons, or parking tickets. The report also indicated that Koreans who have volunteer experience are also in favor of social compensation for volunteers, such as university admission (67.3%) or employment advantage (60.3%). Even though there is a social consensus on providing minimum rewards for volunteers (e.g., meals, transportation expenses, etc.), cash compensation for volunteers remains controversial. According to the report, only 42.8% of Koreans who had volunteer experience were in favor of separate cash payments in addition to reimbursing expenses related to volunteering. The report suggested that a fixed payroll of more than 20,000 won (approximately 18 USD) should be offered in addition to covering expenses, such as meals or transportation, in order to prohibit abusing the term “volunteer service.”

## 20.2 Volunteer Workforce in South Korea

### 20.2.1 Statistics

Table 20.1 provides an overview about some volunteer key characteristics of South Korea.

Table 20.2 presents the total number of volunteers registered in South Korea as of April 2018. These statistical data have been collected since 2010 from 1,365 volunteer service systems (Ministry of the Interior and Safety 2018a). As seen in Table 20.2, the number of registered volunteers in South Korea has continually risen, aside from 2016, and in 2018 reached 12,478,314 (male, 5,367,855, and female, 7,110,459). Among those volunteers, 20.1% are students participating in a variety of volunteer activities such as cultural and environmental events (Ministry of the Interior and Safety 2018a, b).

The number of adults who have participated in volunteer activities at least once a year has continually increased. The rate increased steeply from 2011 (2.8%) to 2017 (6.8%) compared to the change of adult population in the same period (see Fig. 20.1).



**Table 20.1** South Korea’s volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in South Korea
Population size	51 million (2017) <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	Korean
Volunteer rates (year)	23.6% (2017) <sup>b</sup>
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	Yes (e.g., YMCA, sports for all clubs)
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	2018 PyeongChang Winter Olympics 2014 Incheon Asian Games
Sports volunteer rates	2.6% (2015) ( <i>N</i> = 9000) <sup>c</sup>
The word for volunteering	자원봉사 (Ja Won Bong Sa)
The meaning of the word	An activity performed by an individual or organization for the benefit of the community, country, and human society for nothing in return
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	1988 Seoul Summer Olympics 2002 FIFA World Cup

Sources: <sup>a</sup>World Population Review (2018), <sup>b</sup>Ministry of the Interior and Safety (2018a), <sup>c</sup>Korea Institute of Sport Science (2016)

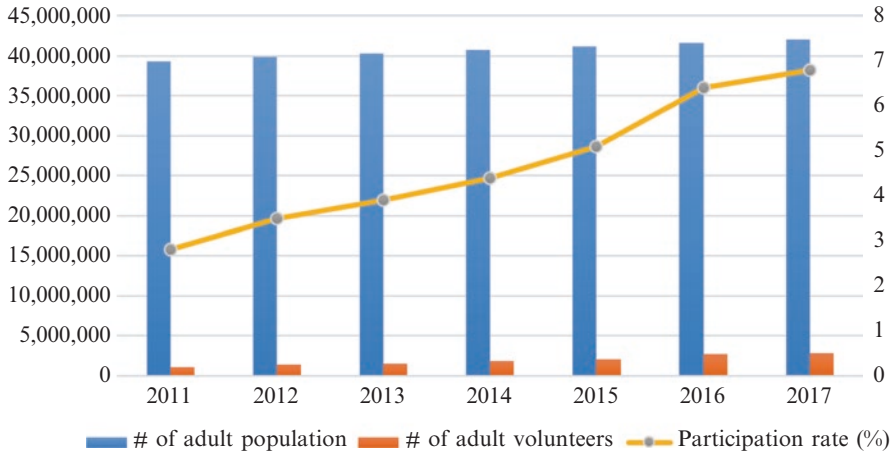
**Table 20.2** A total number of volunteers registered and increase/decrease rate (2018: 4.30)

Year	Number of volunteers <sup>a</sup>	Rate of change
2018(4.30)	12,478,314	▲461,886 (▲3.8%)
2017	12,016,428	▲992,107 (▲9.0%)
2016	11,024,321	▼359,405 (▼3.2%)
2015	11,383,726	▲1,088,582 (▲10.6%)
2014	10,295,144	▲761,903 (▲8.0%)
2013	9,533,241	▲1,137,065 (▲16.0%)
2012	8,216,176	▲1,131,014 (▲16.0%)
2011	7,085,162	▲774,828 (▲12.3%)
2010	6,310,334	▲966,802 (▲22.0%)

Source: Ministry of the Interior and Safety (2018a)

<sup>a</sup>Numbers of volunteers: volunteers who registered in 1365 volunteer service portals

In the South Korean sports context, a number of studies have been conducted to identify the status of sports volunteer services and activation plans (Jeong and Lee 2009; Lee et al. 2010; So 1999; Park 2015). Using a survey of 467 volunteers and 88 administrators, Lee et al. (2010) examined the development of the sports volunteer service system. Just over one-third (36.7%) of survey respondents participated in volunteer activities more than four times a year, and the most frequent type of volunteer service during a sporting event was guidance volunteering (13.7%). Regarding participation motivation, “to help others” was the highest (17.4%), followed by “accidental chance” (15.9%). The number of volunteers who were satisfied with their experience was less than one-third (31.6%), while 50.4% were neutral, and 18% were dissatisfied. Among volunteers who were not satisfied, the most prominent cause was hard physical activity (18.8%) followed by unfriendly attitude



**Fig. 20.1** Volunteer participation (adults over 20; Source: Ministry of the Interior and Safety 2018b, Note. Numbers of volunteers: volunteers who registered in 1,365 volunteer service portals)

**Table 20.3** Volunteering participation in sports (2015)

		Total (n = 9,000)	Yes (%)	No (%)
Volunteering experience in sports			2.6	97.4
Gender	Male	4,487	3.3	96.7
	Female	4,513	1.9	98.1
Age	10s	1,220	4.3	95.7
	20s	1,278	2.6	97.4
	30s	1,377	1.7	98.3
	40s	1,489	2.5	97.5
	50s	1,444	3.0	97.0
	60s	1,115	2.2	97.8
	Over 70s	1,077	1.7	98.3

Source: A study on actual participation in sports for all done by the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (Korea Institute of Sport Science 2016)

(18.3%). Nonetheless, 73.3% of the volunteers asserted that they were willing to volunteer continuously; 26.7% were not.

In 2015, the Korean Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism conducted a study among 9,000 Koreans on actual volunteer participation in recreational sports and leisure activities. As shown in Table 20.3, only 2.6% of 9,000 respondents had sports volunteering experience between 2013 and 2014. There were more males (3.3%) than females (1.9%); teenagers predominated (4.3%), followed by respondents in their 50s (3.0%) and 20s (2.6%; Korea Institute of Sport Science 2016).

Table 20.4 shows the type of volunteering participation by field of sports. Among 231 respondents who had volunteering experience in sports between 2013 and 2014,

**Table 20.4** Volunteering participation in sports by field (2015)

Total (n = 231)	Yes (%)	No (%)
Sports facility management	19.9	80.1
Domestic/international sporting event	8.9	91.1
Sports for all event	45.4	54.6
Sports volunteering for underprivileged people	41.4	58.6
Volunteering for sports club operation	9.7	90.3
Guidance for physical activities	11.5	88.5

Source: A study on actual participation in sports for all done by the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (Korea Institute of Sport Science 2016)

**Table 20.5** Future volunteering intention in the field of sports (2015)

Total (n = 9,000)	Yes (%)	No (%)
Sports facility management	4.1	95.9
Domestic/international sporting event	5.2	94.8
Sports for all event	9.0	91.0
Sports volunteering for underprivileged people	14.1	85.9
Volunteering for sports club operation	4.7	95.3
Guidance for physical activities	7.0	93.0

<sup>a</sup>Source: A study on actual participation in sports for all done by the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (Korea Institute of Sport Science 2016)

the highest rate of volunteering was for all events (45.4%), followed by sports volunteering for underprivileged people (41.4%), sports facility management (19.9%), guidance for physical activities (11.5%), volunteering for sports club operation (9.7%), and domestic/international sporting events (8.9%; Korea Institute of Sport Science 2016).

Table 20.5 indicates the intentions to volunteer for the specific field of sports. Among a total of 9,000 respondents, sports volunteering for underprivileged people was the highest (14.1%), followed by sports for all events (9.0%), guidance for physical activities (5.2%), domestic/international sporting events (5.2%), volunteering for sports club operation (4.7%), and sports facility management (4.1%; Korea Institute of Sport Science 2016).

### 20.2.2 Changes Over Time

Since the 1990s, when the government intervened, South Korea has seen a paradigm shift in its concept and scope of volunteering activities (Lee et al. 2016). The traditional concept of volunteering was to provide an organization with a simple labor force in the 1990s. Since the early 2000s, the concept has been extended to include donating volunteers' specific knowledge and talent to an organization (Lee et al. 2016).

Sports volunteering in South Korea has developed based on participation in recreational sports and leisure activities (i.e., sports for all). The Korean term “생활체육” (Saeng Hwal Che Yook) or “sports for all” means physical education to promote community welfare, physical and emotional development, and sociality through sports participation (Korea Council of Sport for All 2014). In a similar vein, volunteering in recreational sports and leisure activities is to support sports programs or events for those who cannot afford to conduct physical activities, such as children, older people, and disabled people. According to a survey by the Korea Council of Sport for All (2014), total sports for all participants in 2013 were 19.7 million, an increase of one million from 2012. Recognizing the popularity of sports and leisure participation, the Korean government has put a great deal of effort into developing a sports for all volunteer activation plan.

### 20.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

In the context of sports in Korea, the volunteer management system has developed based on hosting mega- and large-scale sporting events. Hosting large-scale sporting events began in the 1980s (Park et al. 2008). In 1986, Korea hosted the Seoul Asian Games and in 1988 Seoul Olympic Games. These events led to the national recruitment of volunteers. The Seoul Olympic Organizing Committee recruited 27,221 volunteers as operational staff to save on operating costs (National Archives of Korea 1999). At the 2002 Korea-Japan FIFA World Cup, 16,196 volunteers supported the event operation in 24 areas, including interpretation support, guidance, and medical support (Ahn 2011). At the 2002 Busan Asian Games, a total of 17,096 volunteers lent their support for interpretation, operations, administration, and medical service (Ahn 2011). In 2011, 780 volunteers supported the Korean Formula One Grand Prix in the areas of ticketing, guidance, interpretation, and parking services (Formula One International Car Racing Organizing Committee 2011). Recently, the 2018 PyeongChang Winter Olympic Games had 14,531 volunteers, thereby supporting 150 competition sessions in 14 venues (International Olympic Committee 2018; Table 20.6).

**Table 20.6** Volunteers at large-scale sporting events in South Korea (1986-2018)

Year	Sporting event	# of volunteers
1986	Seoul Asian Games (National Archives of Korea 1999)	19,000
1988	Seoul Summer Olympic Games (National Archives of Korea 1999)	27,221
1997	Muju and Chonju Winter Universiade (National Archives of Korea 1999)	2,310
2002	FIFA World Cup (Ahn 2011)	16,196
2002	Busan Asian Games (Ahn 2011)	17,096
2003	Daegu Summer Universiade (Ahn 2011)	12,963
2014	Incheon Asian Games (Incheon Asian Games Organizing Committee 2014)	13,500
2018	PyeongChang Winter Olympic Games (International Olympic Committee 2018)	14,531

Source: Ahn (2011), Incheon Asian Games Organizing Committee (2014), National Archives of Korea (1999), International Olympic Committee (2018)

## 20.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

In 1991, South Korea began implementing a local government system, thus moving away from its former centralized governing body. Each local government has strived to improve social welfare for their local residents and to meet more diverse and specific needs of their residents (Kim and Jang 1999; Ko 2003). Since then, securing volunteers has played a pivotal role in satisfying local resident needs for welfare as an alternative to local governments that are struggling with a lack of resources and financial hardship (Kim 1999). In fact, Kim (1999) found that volunteering services enhanced volunteers' sense of ownership of and solidarity with the community and helped local residents cooperate to solve community problems.

The Korean government has strengthened social bonds of local communities and promoted the nation's prestige by hosting large-scale and mega sporting events, thereby providing numerous volunteer opportunities (Lee et al. 2010). The Korean government has also operated the sports program "support for the underprivileged living" since 2006. This program provides children and elderly people, who are in the low-income class, with an opportunity to enjoy their sports life by offering sports equipment and programs (Korea Institute of Sport Science 2015). In this program, sports instructors are assigned to a local community to promote sports participation, leisure, and physical activities. The number of instructors for elderly people increased from 491 in 2010 to 824 in 2013, according to the 2013 Sport White Paper (Korea Institute of Sport Science 2015). As suggested throughout this chapter, volunteering in sports plays an important role in improving the quality of citizens' daily life, as well as in developing diverse aspects of a local community. Nonetheless, the current policy of sports volunteering in Korea is limited in its capacity to meet those goals. This policy necessitates the development of a long-term plan to improve and deepen the relationship between sports volunteering and our society. The authors of this chapter are suggesting a new sports volunteering system to activate greater sports volunteering participation in Korea (e.g., Jeong and Lee 2009; Lee et al. 2010). First, the government should institutionalize a more consistent and appropriate reward and recognition system for sports volunteers. Second, the government should organize a more centralized solidarity system of volunteering among school, amateur, and professional sports, as well as sports for all. All of these volunteer systems are currently run independently. Third, the government should consider a systematic education system for sports volunteers to help develop a long-term volunteering plan. Lastly, the government needs to develop a program that connects sports volunteers with other volunteers.

## 20.5 Conclusion

The volunteer system in Korea has developed along two main branches, hosting large-scale and mega sporting events and taking part in recreational sports and leisure. Sports volunteering has been a great driving force to improve national image

and reputation since the 1980s. However, the sports volunteering system in Korea has revealed limitations in its reward and recognition system, as well as the education system. Therefore, a new paradigm of sports volunteering system is required to facilitate participation in sports volunteering in Korea.

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# Chapter 21

## Spain



Ramón Llopis-Goig and María P. García-Alcober

**Abstract** The volunteering boom that occurred in Spanish society in the 1990s was strongly associated with activities related to solidarity and altruism and did not contribute to increasing the social visibility of sports volunteering, even though the first sports clubs and associations were created in Spain at the end of the 19th century. This situation has changed in the past 15 years due to the growth in the number of initiatives that look at sports for social purposes, as well as the proliferation of large popular sports events and competitions whose organization requires the mass participation of sports volunteers. Coinciding with this evolution, the recently passed Volunteer Law 45/2015 proposes a broader vision of volunteering – that no longer views altruism as its main motivation – and explicitly refers to the sports volunteering phenomenon at the same time that it points out its benefits for society in terms of citizen cohesion, the community dimension of sports practice, social inclusion, and associative life.

### 21.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

In Spain, the first sports clubs and associations began their activity at the end of the 19th century as a result of the commercial expansion of the British Empire. However, sports volunteering was not perceived as a new phenomenon until the 1990s. This decade witnessed a blossoming of cooperative activities and an increase in the social visibility of the volunteer, both clearly related to the greater dynamism of the civil society, the rise of the third sector, and the emergence of a large number of nonprofit organizations in Spain. This situation was interpreted at the time as just

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another indicator of the rapid transformation of the Spanish society after the death of General Franco in 1975 and the later restoration of democracy. Spain would again move toward modernity and shake off the authoritarian and paternalistic models of integration and connections, gradually adopting much more active and participatory guidelines for solving problems and providing services (Ruiz-Olabuénaga 2000; Ariño et al. 2001).

Although the collaborative boom and the rise in volunteering in the 1990s affected a variety of areas – including sports – the visibility of sports volunteering did not increase, unlike other areas that were much more linked to the discourse of solidarity and acquired a strong role in Spanish society at the time. Some of the most important areas were the healthcare field, social services, development cooperation, human rights, and the environment. Therefore, the Spanish term for volunteering – *voluntariado* – was strongly associated with these social action fields, and the type of volunteering carried out in sports entities did not completely fit this profile. These social areas were more associated with other types of motivations, even though sports volunteering has a strong tradition dating back to the origin and development of the first sports clubs in Spain (Pujadas and Santacana 2003) and has always been an essential component of the Spanish sports sector (Llopis-Goig and Vilanova 2015).

Proof of the growing importance of sports volunteering is the fact that Law 6/1996 on Volunteering – the first volunteering law passed in Spain – referred to sports as one of more than 14 possible areas that could be considered of general interest (article 4), whereas the new Law 45/2015 on Volunteering contains various explicit references to sports volunteering<sup>1</sup> and points out the benefits it can bring to society. Specifically, Article 6 of this law mentions that sports volunteering contributes to citizen cohesion, fosters the community dimension of sports practice, and favors social inclusion and greater commitment to the cooperative life of those who play sports. The same article also points to the importance of this type of volunteering in developing the practice of sports in people with handicaps. Previously, the figure of the sports volunteer had been contemplated explicitly in Law 19/2007 against violence, racism, xenophobia, and intolerance in sports. It proposed, among other things, that sports federations and professional leagues should foster and train groups of sports volunteers to provide information to spectators and contribute to the prevention of incidents in stadiums. In recent decades, regional governments have developed various public actions designed to encourage volunteering beyond the field of social services, extending it to fields such as sports. A good example of this would be Decree 55/2004 on sports volunteering in Andalusia.

All of this shows, on the one hand, the development and specialization of volunteering in Spanish society and, on the other, the clear presence of sports volunteering, especially due to two key processes. First, there has been a progressive development of the social dimension of sports, based on the increase in the number of sports-based initiatives and actions for the prevention of social problems (e.g.,

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<sup>1</sup>Along with other types of volunteering, including social, international, environmental, cultural, educational, healthcare, free and leisure time, community, and civil protection.

drug dependence, school failure) or the integration and development of socially vulnerable groups (e.g., women, young people, immigrants). This process has involved the gradual introduction of sports into the field of social policies, bringing them closer to the areas where volunteering has traditionally developed. Second, in recent decades, there has been an increase in the number of volunteers in many Spanish cities following the celebration of important sports events. The 1992 Barcelona Olympic Games marked a turning point in this regard. The appearance of citizen volunteers, understood as the individual commitment of citizens, was consolidated before the nomination of the city as the Olympic site, when it already had more than 100,000 volunteers signed up, ultimately receiving the collaboration of 34,548 volunteers (Moreno 2011). More recently, and after the celebration of the 32nd edition of the America's Cup in Valencia, the government organization that manages municipal sports – the Municipal Sport Foundation of Valencia – created an Office of Sport Volunteers that coordinates and manages this type of volunteering in the city. This initiative is designed to permanently establish channels to encourage, promote, foster, and coordinate volunteers in order to develop their activity in the area of sports in the city of Valencia (Brotons and Ródenas 2018).

## 21.2 Volunteer Workforce in Spain

A European study carried out a few years ago showed the unstructured and unsystematic nature of studies on volunteering in most European countries (GHK 2010a). The specific report on Spain, moreover, pointed out the lack of official statistics and updated data, as well as the methodological diversity and contradictory nature of the results offered by the available studies (GHK 2010b).

A Special Eurobarometer carried out in 2006 (European Commission 2007) showed that 34% of the adult European population performed volunteer tasks, whereas in Spain the percentage was only 18%, situating it in the group of countries with less voluntary participation. A study directed by García-Delgado a few years later (2009) estimated that the Spanish population engaging in volunteer actions reached 4,170,043 people, which meant that 9.5% of the Spanish population performed volunteer activities in general. Later, a 2011 survey taken by the Center for Sociological Research for the European Year of the Volunteer (CIS 2011) indicated that 30.4% of the adult Spanish population had volunteered at some time and 16.7% in the previous 12 months (Llopis-Goig and García-Alcober 2013), which would be approximately 6,487,321 people.

The disparity is even greater if the estimates – as often occurs – refer only to the Third Sector of Social Action.<sup>2</sup> Thus, according to the study by the Social Action

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<sup>2</sup>In general, using the operative definition of Johns Hopkins University (Salamon and Anheier 1997), which excludes the calculation of churches, trade unions and political parties, business and professional associations, professional sports associations, local neighborhood communities, business and philanthropic foundations, and healthcare entities.

NGO Platform (2015), in 2013 this sector had approximately 1,272,338 volunteers, a figure that represents an increase of almost 4000 people compared to 2008 (EDIS 2012). Therefore, there is a clear disparity in the numbers on volunteering as a result of the lack of homogeneity in both the definition and the way this term is commonly used.

### 21.2.1 Sports Volunteering Rates

The most recent survey providing an estimate of the number of people who participate in sports volunteering in Spain was carried out in 2015 (MECD 2015). According to this survey, 7% of the Spanish population over the age of 15 engaged in sports volunteering (see Table 21.1), a total of approximately 2,756,727 people.

Sports volunteering is, therefore, an activity with a low presence in Spanish society. Its dimensions have declined slightly in recent years, as pointed out by the results of the Eurobarometers of 2010 and 2014 (European Commission 2010,

**Table 21.1** Spain's volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in Spain
Population size	46.5 million <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	Spanish (and five languages in their respective regions)
Volunteer rates	16.7% <sup>b,d</sup>
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	yes
List of large-scale events hosted in the past 10 years	World Indoor Athletics Championship (2008), America's Cup (2010), World Water Polo Championship (2013), FIFA Women's World Indoor Soccer Championship (2013), World Men's World Handball Championship (2013), World Swimming Championship (2013), World Basketball Cup (2014), World Overland Cycling Championship (2014), World Olympic Sailing Championship (2014), World Water-Skiing Championship (2017)
Sports volunteer rates	7.0% <sup>c,e</sup>
The word for volunteering	<i>Voluntariado</i>
The meaning of the word	Set of activities of general interest that people perform, whenever they are done freely and out of solidarity, without economic or material compensation, through nonprofit public and private organizations, and according to specific programs or projects
Events that have influenced volunteering	Barcelona 1992 Olympic Games and the emergence of the possibilities of sports as a social tool

Sources: <sup>a</sup>INE (2018); <sup>b</sup>CIS (2011); <sup>c</sup>MECD (2015)

<sup>d</sup>Population aged 18 and above

<sup>e</sup>Population aged 15 and above

**Table 21.2** Evolution of sports volunteering in Spain

Sports volunteering	2010	2011	2014	2015
Do sports volunteering (%)	5	4	4	7
Do not do sports volunteering (%)	95	96	96	93
Total (%)	100	100	100	100

Source: Elaborated by the author based on the European Commission (2010), CIS (2011), European Commission (2014), and MECD (2015). The coverage of the surveys of 2010, 2014, and 2015 is of the population aged 15 and above, whereas in 2011, it is the population aged 18 and above

**Table 21.3** Frequency of sports volunteering

Frequency of volunteering	2010	2014
Only occasionally, at specific events (%)	56	44
From 1-5 hours/month (%)	19	22
From 6-20 hours/month (%)	13	23
From 21-40 hours/month (%)	6	8
More than 40 hours/month (%)	4	3
NS/NC (%)	2	n.a.
Total (%)	100	100

Source: García-Ferrando and Llopis-Goig (2017)

2014). According to this source, Spain registered rates of 5% and 4%, respectively. A survey by the Sociological Research Center in 2011 also placed this rate at 4% (CIS 2011; see Table 21.2).

With regard to the frequency of volunteering, on the one hand, Table 21.3 shows that in 2010 and 2014, the majority of people who engaged in sports volunteering in Spain did so sporadically, although their numbers declined from 56% in 2010 to 44% in 2014. On the other hand, the available data indicate an increase in people who engage in sports volunteering up to forty hours per month. As Table 21.3 shows, there has been an increase in the volunteers who dedicate from one to five hours per month, from 19% to 22%, and those who dedicate from 6 to 20 hours, from 13% to 23%, and to a lesser degree, those who dedicate from 21 to 40 hours per month. However, the proportion of people who dedicate more than 40 hours per month to sports volunteering declined by one point.

According to one of the aforementioned surveys (CIS 2011), some of the reasons or motives for engaging in sports volunteering are, first, the intention to help others (52.3%), followed by feeling necessary and useful (42%). In addition, 23.9% state that they do it to acquire life experience and 21.6% to try to improve society. Next, there are other motives, such as meeting people and interacting with others (15.9%), moral convictions (14.8%), religious convictions (6.8%), and trying to fill their free time (4.5%). Only 2.3% stated that they want to acquire work experience, and 1.1% wanted to travel or see the world. Acquiring life experience is a much more frequent motive in sports volunteering than in other sectors. Nevertheless, helping others and moral convictions are reasons that appear much less among sports volunteers. The other reasons, however, have similar importance for sports volunteers and volunteers in other areas (Llopis-Goig and García-Alcober 2013).

### 21.2.2 Sociodemographic Profile of Sports Volunteers

Men are much more likely than women to participate in sports volunteering in Spain (see Table 21.4), as 9.5% of men volunteer compared to 5.3% of women (García-Ferrando and Llopis-Goig 2017). As far as age is concerned, sports volunteering shows a negative linear relationship with age: as people age, their rate of sports volunteering declines, to the extent that the percentage of young people from 15 to 24 years old who volunteer is almost six times that of people over 55 (14.3% and 2.5%, respectively).

With regard to their personal situation, single people living in their parents' homes are more likely to participate in sports volunteering tasks, at 12%, followed by 9.1% who are married or living together with children under the age of 18. This circumstance is related to the fact that parents often collaborate as volunteers in the sports clubs that their children attend; in this way, they feel that they are contributing to their progress. The other personal situations show below-average volunteering rates, with the lowest corresponding to married people whose children have already left home (2.4%).

**Table 21.4** Characteristics of sports volunteers

Sociodemographic characteristics		Sports volunteering (%)
Sex	Men	9.5
	Women	5.3
Age	15 hours per month 24 years	14.3
	25 hours per month 34 years	10.1
	35 hours per month 44 years	8.7
	45 hours per month 54 years	8.6
	55 years and older	2.5
Personal status	Single living in parents' home	12.0
	Independent single person	6.2
	Married with no children	6.2
	Married with children under 18 years old	9.1
	Married with children over 18 years old	5.5
	Living alone (older children)	2.4
Education	Primary education or less	2.8
	Secondary education (first stage)	7.1
	Secondary education (second stage)	9.0
	Vocational training	8.3
	University	9.5
Employment situation	Works	9.8
	Unemployed	7.0
	Retired	1.6
	Student	14.3
	Housework	1.7
Total		7.0

Source: García-Ferrando and Llopis-Goig (2017)

Regarding the level of education, it can be stated that a higher educational level is related to a higher rate of sports volunteering, although this relationship ends when reaching university level. Thus, people who have studied vocational training (8.3%) and people with university studies (9.5%) have the highest rates of sports volunteering. The lowest rate is found among people with primary studies or no studies (2.8%).

Finally, with regard to their employment situation, people who are studying present the highest rates of sports volunteering, at 14.3%. The percentage among people who work is also high, reaching 9.8%. By contrast, retired people and those who dedicate themselves to housework have the lowest percentages, 1.6% and 1.7%, respectively.

### ***21.2.3 Tasks and Satisfaction of Sports Volunteers***

The most common task of sports volunteers – mentioned by 47% of the people who say they have done this type of volunteering – involves organizing or contributing to the celebration of a certain sports event (European Commission 2014). This result is completely compatible with the fact that in the same survey, 44% of the sports volunteers only volunteered sporadically. Second, but at a much lower rate, 30% mention participating as a coach. In third place, 16% mention being a referee, and fewer than 10% do other tasks, such as belonging to the board of directors (9%), supporting daily activities (6%), or performing administrative tasks (3%). In addition, 9% contribute by providing their own vehicle as a means of transportation to take the teams to sports competitions, and 3% contribute voluntarily to maintaining the sports installations (García-Ferrando and Llopis-Goig 2017). Complementary to these data, the results from a recent survey carried out with sports club volunteers from ten European countries (SIVSCE 2017) show that 37% of Spanish sports volunteers act as coaches/instructors, 10% are referees/officials, 39% are board members, and 43% are sporadically involved in the organization of club activities, events, and tournaments, or they contribute to them in some way (Van der Roest et al. 2017; Llopis-Goig and Sola 2017). These results do not differ from those found by the Spanish study, and they are also a clear example of the important contribution made by volunteers to the Spanish sports system, although their quantitative importance is much lower than in other European countries.

The analysis of the SIVSCE (2017) project sports volunteer survey makes it possible to extract information from other indicators that are also of interest in examining the opinions and attitudes of sports volunteers in Spain. As Table 21.5 shows, eight out of ten sports volunteers consider that the tasks they do are interesting and challenging, they are informed about major club affairs, and other club members support their work as a volunteer. However, the number of volunteers who respond negatively to these questions is not small and must be taken into account: 5.9%, 8.3%, and 5.6%, respectively.

**Table 21.5** Sports volunteers' opinions and attitudes toward the clubs, tasks, and conditions

	Strongly disagree (%)	Partially disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Partially agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Total (%)
The tasks are interesting and challenging	4.4	1.5	7.7	38.0	48.4	100
I am informed about major club affairs	6.0	2.3	11.7	35.3	44.7	100
Other club members support my work as a volunteer	4.5	1.2	14.0	37.9	42.4	100
My work as a volunteer is appreciated	5.3	1.5	15.5	40.0	37.7	100
My problems and concerns as a volunteer are taken seriously	4.2	3.4	15.5	42.8	34.1	100
I can carry out my work autonomously	5.4	5.4	16.7	35.0	37.5	100
I get constructive feedback from the club management	5.7	5.3	17.8	37.1	34.1	100
The club honors me for my voluntary work	6.9	1.9	24.4	31.3	35.5	100
I get fringe benefits (e.g., reduced membership fee)	42.0	15.2	18.8	14.0	10.0	100
I get some payment for my voluntary work	50.8	12.7	13.1	10.7	12.7	100

Source: Elaborated by the authors, based on SIVSCE (2017)

A somewhat lower percentage of those surveyed state that their work as volunteers is appreciated (77.7%), their problems and concerns as volunteers are taken seriously (76.9%), they can carry out their work autonomously (72.5%), and they get constructive feedback from the club management (71.2%). The negative considerations in these cases range from 6% to 11%. Moreover, two-thirds of the Spanish sports volunteers stated that their clubs honor them for their voluntary work (66.8%), but this statement has a higher proportion of neutral answers (24.4%). Finally, 24% of Spanish sports volunteers said they get fringe benefits, such as a lower membership fee, and 23.4% get some payment for their volunteer work. In fact, these two statements show the highest percentages of disagreement: 57.2% and 63.5%.

These data show that, in general, Spanish volunteers have a high level of satisfaction with the situation, conditions, and sports clubs where they volunteer, although there are some percentages of dissatisfaction with some of the items included in the battery. In addition, according to a more generic indicator from the same study (Van der Roest et al. 2017; Llopis-Goig and Sola 2017), 79% of Spanish volunteers are satisfied with the conditions for volunteers in the club (compared to 71% of Europeans), and 12% are dissatisfied or very dissatisfied (compared to 10% of Europeans).

### 21.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

According to the data from a survey of sports clubs carried out in 10 European countries within the framework of a research project financed by the European Commission, mentioned above (SIVSCE 2017), Spanish sports clubs are among those that have evolved the most in their numbers of volunteers (Breuer et al. 2017). In fact, 29% indicate that the number of volunteers has increased in the past five years, compared to 20% registered for all European countries. Managers and people in charge of Spanish sports clubs support the idea that the clubs should be run exclusively by volunteers (59%), and they consider that volunteers carry out their tasks with dedication and energy (72%). They also stated that there is a low volunteer turnover rate in their clubs (65%) and that no special qualifications should be required to perform these types of tasks (90%). It is not surprising, therefore, that whereas the recruitment of volunteers is the main issue that German, Danish, Norwegian, and Dutch clubs say they have to deal with, in Spain it is the fifth, given that only 21% of Spanish sports clubs consider it a serious matter (Llopis-Goig and Sola 2017).

Regarding the challenge that is always involved in the task of recruiting and retaining volunteers in their organizations, Spanish sports clubs develop several strategies. The most common is to encourage them through speeches and conversations (verbal motivation), which is mentioned by 46% of Spanish clubs. In addition, 36% and 28% transmit expectations of voluntary participation to their members and the athletes' parents, respectively. Moreover, 32% of the clubs organize parties and volunteer gatherings to strengthen their group's identity, and 25% turn to networks of volunteers and current members to recruit new volunteers. Material incentives, however, are less common: only 22% provide their volunteers with some type of reward, and 13% pay for their training and qualifications. Finally, slightly more than a fifth of Spanish clubs (21%, compared to 13% for all European countries) state that they do not do anything special to recruit and retain volunteers (Llopis-Goig and Sola 2017).

### 21.4 Volunteering, State and Civil Society

As mentioned above, Law 45/2015 on Volunteering was recently passed in Spain as an instrument to strengthen the objectives of citizens' voluntary action and as an element of social transformation in the search for the greatest societal well-being and cohesion, as the law itself states in its preamble. This law defines volunteering as a set of activities of general interest performed by people freely and voluntarily, out of solidarity, without economic or material reward – but including repayment for expenses incurred while volunteering – through nonprofit public or private organizations, and according to specific programs or projects.



Law 45/2015 on Volunteering also represents progress compared to the previous law in setting the limits of volunteer activity. It establishes that the development of volunteer work cannot justify or support the extinction of work contracts in the public or private sector. In addition, the law includes a series of rights and duties for volunteers. On the one hand, some of the rights include being insured against risk of accidents and illness stemming from the exercise of the voluntary activity, receiving payment for expenses incurred while volunteering, doing the activity in the necessary safety conditions, receiving information about how to perform the activity, and participating actively in the organization, with their freedom, dignity, and beliefs being respected. On the other hand, it establishes that the volunteers are obligated to fulfill the commitments made, maintain confidentiality about the information received, reject any economic or material payment, respect the rights of the people receiving the voluntary action, act with solidarity, participate in the proposed tasks, and comply with the existing safety measures.

Furthermore, the law refers to the instruments institutions can use to promote and facilitate – following the current legislation – the adoption of measures to reduce or adapt the working day, so that contracted workers or public employees can do volunteer work. It also establishes the possibility of having an objective system that recognizes the competencies the volunteer can develop during the volunteer activity for purposes of personal promotion. In fact, it indicates that the entities where the volunteering takes place are obligated to give volunteers a certificate indicating the duration and activities carried out in the programs in which they participated.

## 21.5 Conclusion

Although the figure of the sports volunteer has been present since the origin of Spanish sports, this activity was not associated with the increase in volunteering that occurred as a result of the collaborative boom in the 1990s. The reason is that at that time, the concept of volunteering was strongly associated with the social realm and the discourse of solidarity that had acquired a key place in Spanish public opinion. The figure of the sports volunteer has become much more socially visible in recent years. Contributing to this, first, is the increase in the number of people who participate as sports volunteers in cities that have held large sports events in recent years. Second, it is important to mention the growth in the number of sports-based actions and initiatives designed to resolve social problems or favor the integration of collectives at risk of social exclusion, bringing sports volunteering closer to the field where volunteering has traditionally developed. Along with all of this, Law 45/2015 on Volunteering gives recognition to this type of volunteering. This most recent law not only involves an updating of the regulation of volunteer activities, but it also establishes various possibilities in terms of promoting and fostering volunteering in Spanish society. Some of these include measures such as reducing or adapting the working day in order to volunteer and recognizing the skills the volunteer develops

in his/her activity through an objective system and reflected on a certificate of accreditation.

Sports volunteering is performed by 7% of people 15 years and older in Spain. The people most likely to be sports volunteers are men, aged under 35 years old, single, with a high school education or higher, who are working or studying. In addition, four out of ten sports volunteers only do so occasionally, that is, they volunteer for a specific large sports event; and 34% dedicate more than six hours per month. It is not surprising, therefore, that the task most commonly performed by sports volunteers consists of contributing to a sports event, followed by fulfilling the role of coach, referee, and member of the board of directors.

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# Chapter 22

## Sri Lanka



Preben Stai, Nico Schulenkorf, Jane Godfrey, and Sean Phelps

**Abstract** While it is recognized that volunteers can have a significant impact on the operations of sports organizations, previous research has not focused on the motivations and experiences of overseas volunteers in sport-for-development (SFD) settings. In addressing this issue, this chapter reflects on an empirical study around motivations and experiences of international SFD volunteers in postwar Sri Lanka. Based on focus group and interview data from international volunteers of the Asian German Sports Exchange Programme (AGSEP), the chapter outlines and discusses key thematic findings around aspects of (1) safety, (2) social contacts and networks, (3) personal development, (4) professional development, and (5) travel and cross-cultural experiences. Overall, motivations and experiences of international volunteers were largely aligned; however, perhaps surprisingly, neither sports nor Sri Lanka's postwar context was mentioned as a motivating factor by the international volunteers. The chapter highlights the volunteer management implications for AGSEP and other similar SFD-focused organizations.

### 22.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

Around the world, a significant number of people and communities are facing ongoing social and economic development challenges, including social exclusion, poverty, hunger, and war. In response, many different government agencies, nongovernmental organizations, and the private sector provide support to people in

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disadvantaged settings (Kim et al. 2010). Sport can be a strategic vehicle for promoting social, cultural, economic, and health development (Beutler 2008; Kidd 2008), and its influence on people and communities has received increased recognition among academics and policy makers in recent years (Black 2010; Kidd 2008; Schulenkorf 2017). An example of this is sport for development (SFD), defined here as “the intentional use of sport, physical activity and play to attain specific development objectives in low- and middle-income countries and disadvantaged communities in high income settings” (Richards et al. 2013, p.1).

SFD is increasingly being recognized for its potential to generate positive impacts (Beutler 2008; Kidd 2008; Schulenkorf et al. 2016). However, SFD organizations are often dependent on financial support and significant volunteer participation to deliver programs (Kidd 2008). While previous studies have been conducted on the motivations and experiences of international volunteers, little research has focused specifically on international SFD volunteers. In addressing this issue, this chapter explores the motivations and experiences of SFD volunteers using an empirical case study of students volunteering at the Asian German Sports Exchange Programme (AGSEP) in Sri Lanka in 2011.

Sri Lanka is home to several ethnic and religious groups, including Sinhalese, Tamils, Muslims, Burghers, Malays, Parsis, and the indigenous inhabitants called the Veddas. Despite claims that these groups – in particular, the Sinhalese and the Tamil communities – are “natural enemies,” there was little trouble between them during Sri Lanka’s colonial era, nor in the first few years following Sri Lankan independence in 1948 (Nesiah 2006). However, in recent history, Sinhalese-Tamil relations have been fraught with severe difficulties. In 1976, as a response to perceived discrimination against the Tamil population, the separatist underground movement “Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam,” also referred to as the “Tamil Tigers,” unilaterally claimed an independent Tamil state in the north and east of Sri Lanka. This claim resulted in a 26-year-long civil war between the Sinhalese-dominated government of Sri Lanka and the Tamil Tigers.

Sri Lanka’s civil war ended when the Tamil Tigers were militarily defeated in 2009 and peace was officially declared. However, the relationships across ethnic communities have remained tense, and reconciliation efforts continue to be in high demand (Ethirajan 2018; Schulenkorf 2010a). Against this background, AGSEP combines travel and sociocultural experiences with sports projects to encourage intercultural participation and understanding in the ethnically divided country. Initially set up as a sports tourism program, AGSEP’s focus for the past 15 years has shifted toward working as a quasi-development organization with a clear focus on social development and integrating sportspeople of Sri Lanka’s different ethnic groups in sports camps, sports events, and workshops (Schulenkorf 2010b).

For many years, AGSEP has been supported through overseas aid money and international volunteers. In particular, student interns from different European countries contribute to the sporting activities on a regular basis. These interns generally spend several months in Sri Lanka and aim to make significant contributions to development projects (Schulenkorf 2008). While AGSEP has been supported by interns since its early days, the organization had never analyzed its volunteer

workforce in any specific detail. This lack of knowledge provided the impetus for the study presented in this chapter. Throughout this chapter, reference to the term volunteering is made in the context of Sri Lanka’s two official languages, Sinhala “ස්වේච්ඡා සේවය” and Tamil “தன்னார்வ”. As such, volunteering translates to “working or acting of one’s free will without being paid.”

## 22.2 Volunteering in Sri Lanka

The volunteer workforce in Sri Lanka can be divided into two groups. Residents present one group: They provide services for others. For instance, the Red Cross Sri Lanka was inaugurated in 1936 and assists people in need. The Red Cross has more than 6,500 active volunteers and engages in volunteer work on a regular and ongoing basis (Sri Lanka Red Cross Society 2018). Importantly, different natural disasters have created significant volunteer support from the general public, as well as the second group that adds to the overall workforce: international volunteers. These are foreigners who have been contracted by external agencies to service the population and residents in various capacities, including SFD projects. Some of these are professionals including doctors or psychologists, who, for example, spent time in Sri Lanka after the 2004 tsunami, while others are students on a university internship or placement that is often linked to “voluntourism” experiences (Mittelberg and Palgi 2011). Table 22.1 provides an overview.

**Table 22.1** Sri Lanka’s volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in Sri Lanka
Population size	21 million
Official languages	Sinhala and Tamil
Volunteer rates (year)	n.a.
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	yes
List of large-scale events hosted in last 10 years	2011 cricket world cup (co-host)
Sports volunteer rates	n.a.
The word for volunteering	<i>Sinhala:</i> ස්වේච්ඡා සේවය <i>Tamil:</i> தன்னார்வ
The meaning of the word	Working or acting of one’s own free will without being paid
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	Natural disasters (incl. 2004 tsunami) have created a wave of active support from the general public. Here, aid programs and SFD initiatives build on local and international volunteers

### ***22.2.1 Case Study Overview***

Looking at AGSEP's international volunteer group, a case study was designed to identify the motivations and experiences from a variety of volunteer participants. A combination of semi-structured interviews and focus groups was used. Purposive sampling was adopted to enable the researchers to learn more from interviewing targeted people (Patton 2002). In total, 12 SFD volunteers aged between 20 and 30 years old took part in semi-structured interviews; this included eight females and four males. Interview participants were all current students at European universities. For half of the volunteers, their time at AGSEP was part of an internship program that related directly to their sport study internship, while for the other half, it was part of a "voluntourism" experience during the semester break. Volunteers were interviewed at the beginning and end of their stay in Sri Lanka. In addition to these interviews, two focus groups were conducted that provided the researchers with an opportunity to obtain varying perspectives, as well as open and lively discussions on the volunteers' motivations and experiences (Barbour and Schostak 2005; Morgan 1997). Interviews and focus groups were all conducted in English. They were audio-recorded, transcribed, and then analyzed thematically.

### ***22.2.2 Findings and Discussion***

The study presented in this chapter investigated the motivations and experiences of international SFD volunteers in postwar Sri Lanka. Key themes identified include (1) safety, (2) social contacts and networks, (3) personal development, (4) professional development, and (5) travel and cross-cultural experiences. Each of these themes is now examined in more detail.

#### ***22.2.2.1 Safety***

Perceived safety and security were important for many of the interns, and there was a suggestion that feeling safe was a precondition for SFD volunteer motivation, particularly if volunteering in a postwar environment. AGSEP volunteers perceived an organization from a developed Western country such as Germany to be safer than a local Sri Lankan organization. For example, one volunteer intern stated that "It's important [to choose a German-based organization] because...you know that when you arrive someone will be there to pick you up and you will have accommodation and you get to work on some [sic] project." Another volunteer said that a German organization feels "safer.... you don't know what a Sri Lankan company could be like." Volunteers believed that because AGSEP was a German organization, it would have "a good setup, managerial structure and procedural systems" in place. The volunteers therefore chose AGSEP because it was perceived to provide a safe and

secure volunteer/work environment. Godfrey (2016) noted similar themes among volunteer tourists in Peru who enjoyed the perceived safety of an external Western management organization.

These findings do not suggest that Western organizations are “better” than equivalent Sri Lankan organizations. Instead, they suggest that familiarity and recognition of similar cultural norms within the organization create a feeling of perceived trust and safety for international volunteers. While safety is often associated with mass tourists or packaged tours, safety concerns have also been shown to be important to alternative tourists, including mountaineering tourists (Pomfret 2011), adventure tourists (Kane and Zink 2004), backpackers (Adam 2015), and volunteer tourists (Godfrey 2016). SFD volunteers seem to be no different here.

### 22.2.2.2 Social Contacts and Networks

Socializing and making friends with other volunteers and locals were important motivators for those volunteering at AGSEP. In the focus group discussions, volunteers expected to benefit from making “new contacts and making friends” as a result of volunteering abroad. One volunteer commented on the international makeup of the volunteers: “It is very interesting that there are not people just from Germany, for example [but from] Italy and Norway. This aspect motivated me to become involved.” In other words, the female volunteer viewed her time in Sri Lanka as an opportunity to meet new people from other countries. Other volunteers confirmed socializing with fellow interns as one of the main themes from their volunteering experience. For example, one volunteer said at the end of their stay that “It was interesting to work with a lot of different people... you got to experience a lot of different characters... I have made so many new contacts.”

At the same time, it was important for the international volunteers to have a social network to provide support and engagement in Sri Lanka. Many AGSEP volunteers suggested that they had socialized not only with other volunteers but also with people from the local community. For example, one volunteer said “I like that we are working together with the other students. There were so many students but also, it was great to work with Sri Lankan people.” This was supported by the comments of another volunteer, who said that “the local people [are] one of the highlights. They are now my friends here in Sri Lanka.” These findings reflect Sherer’s (2004) work that highlighted social surroundings as a key factor for volunteers and Mittelberg and Palgi’s (2011) study of kibbutz volunteers where continued friendships with other volunteers were emphasized. Similar findings have also been reported among backpackers (Godfrey 2011; Wilson and Richards 2008).

AGSEP’s volunteers and SFD volunteers more widely must not take this social engagement for granted, particularly if operating in a cross-country context. For example, Godfrey (2016) describes the volunteer tourism enclave that exists at some volunteer tourism sites whereby the volunteer tourists interact almost exclusively with each other and have little interaction with local people. Similarly, Bochner et al. (1977) research with international students found that friendships



with students from the same home country were more important to students than their friendships with students from the host country or another third country. In the case of AGSEP, a close involvement with local community groups and a sustained decade-long engagement in Sri Lanka's sport sector seems to have secured a "safe space" (Spaaij and Schulenkorf 2014) where international volunteers and locals can mix.

### 22.2.2.3 Personal Development

Travel is believed to allow young people to learn independence and to rely on themselves to solve their own problems far from home (Cohen 2004). This kind of personal development was one of the most frequently mentioned motivational factors for AGSEP volunteers. Volunteers wanted to become "stronger" through their volunteer experiences. For example, one volunteer said that she was motivated because she wanted to "have the experience abroad and the language as well. I can learn how to live in a development country [sic], and do some work there. That'll make me stronger as a person." Another volunteer added that it was her "first time in Asia. It's my first travel on my own, so I am motivated to grow as a person." These findings reflect similar findings reported in the volunteer tourism literature, for example, one of Wickens' (2011, p. 50) respondents in Nepal stated that "being a long way from home and friends while experiencing a different culture has definitely taught me more about myself."

Some volunteers were motivated by the expectation that their experiences in Sri Lanka would change their viewpoint and teach them to become more empathic toward other cultures and lifestyles. In their exit interviews, they suggested that unfamiliar challenges had raised their awareness of other people and lifestyles, which in turn helped them to better appreciate their own lives:

"I think that I really made a step forward as a human being... you have to open up to connect somehow to the local people [during the volunteer experience] and once I was able to push myself and do that, it was such a good experience. That led to new things I have seen all over, like culture and religious stuff ... It was like living in a different world and that really opened my eyes".

Another volunteer described how the volunteer participation impacted on her personally: "I think I became a bit more reflective... take time, not being too serious, being more engaged." She added that she learned about the local culture and "realized that you can be very happy anywhere in the world, with different priorities and without a lot of material things." This reflects comments from other volunteer tourists reported in the literature; for example, a volunteer who traveled to Costa Rica who said that "I think that trips like this one really help to put life in perspective. My 'problems' just didn't really seem like problems anymore" (Cross Cultural Solutions, 2008, as cited in Mostafanezhad 2014, p. 114).

This focus on personal development reflects both the backpacking and volunteer tourism literatures, which are closely associated with personal development and

growth (Benson and Seibert 2009; Godfrey 2011; Mostafanezhad 2014; Noy 2004; Schott 2011). According to Loker-Murphy (1997), “the use of travel as an educational finishing school is as old as the history and use of the word tourist itself.” By traveling to a foreign country for a (relatively) extended period of time, volunteer tourists and SFD volunteers enter a liminal space (Fairley, Kellett, and Green, 2007; Mustonen 2005; Turner 1987) where they are able to explore various aspects of themselves, including identity. This concept of tourism as a liminal space is connected with the idea of travel as a rite of passage (Elsrud 2001; Godfrey 2011).

#### 22.2.2.4 Professional Development

Kim et al. (2010, p.360) suggest that “people may utilize their volunteer experience to gain and/or improve their professional skills, experiences, and credentials.” At AGSEP, many volunteers were indeed motivated by the fact that their volunteer participation would improve their résumé and, by extension, increase their chances of accessing better and more interesting work in the future. At the completion of their volunteer experience in Sri Lanka, several volunteers explained that they were now in a better position to decide on further study and work options due to the creation of professional networks and the development of management skills during their time at AGSEP. This finding reflects the volunteer tourism literature more generally; for example, Godfrey (2016, p. 168) quotes one volunteer tourist in Peru who stated that “if you go volunteering in a third-world country then that’s going to look good on any application. If you’ve taken time out to go help others, who doesn’t want that in their workplace?!” Previous research has highlighted the cultural capital that both volunteer tourists and backpackers can gain from their experiences overseas that can then be turned into economic capital through being able to access better jobs (Godfrey 2011; Gogia 2006; Koleth 2014; Godfrey 2016; Simpson 2005).

Project management skills were particularly emphasized by the AGSEP volunteers. During their participation, volunteers were largely responsible for their own projects which they had to organize and coordinate. One stated: “The best part in the work I think are the projects... You are in charge of a project, see the project develop and at the end, you have a final product.” Volunteers learned how to work with other volunteers and local people, about the business culture of the organization, how to manage people, and how to connect with people from varying socioeconomic backgrounds. AGSEP volunteers developed socio-managerial and project management skills in response to both positive experiences but also challenging situations they encountered during their time in Sri Lanka: “I learned how to start a project from the beginning, how to develop a project, and manage it from the idea to the end... It was a challenge, but a good one.” One volunteer suggested that the project management experience he had gained as an AGSEP volunteer would help him get a job when he returned home: “I have gotten all these project experiences now and at the end there is something I can show to as a finished piece. That will surely help me to make a convincing argument when I look for a well-paid student-job back home.”

Moreover, AGSEP volunteers stated that the “specialness” of the program in Sri Lanka would stand out on their CV. For instance, a volunteer from Germany said he used his placement “for my CV because I think there are not that many students travelling to developing countries.” His experiences of volunteering in Sri Lanka were therefore a way of differentiating himself from others in the job market. In fact, many volunteers stressed that they were doing “something different” by volunteering overseas, for example, one said that “concerning my CV I think it’s [volunteering at AGSEP] an eye catcher.” One volunteer believed that it is “easier to find a job if you have an internship from the third world [sic] than... somewhere in Europe.” One German volunteer was motivated to explore unknown territory as it was perceived to be more interesting or exotic than working at home: “Sri Lanka sounds much more interesting than an internship in Munich.” These reflect a statement by a Polish volunteer tourist whom Vradi (2013, p. 82–83) met in Guatemala. This volunteer tourist had “invested all her savings in pursuing a geography degree in Britain and then some to volunteer in Guatemala for extracurricular credit.” She believed that “at a job interview, it matters more [to the interviewers] if you have volunteered... than if you have been serving tables at a restaurant at home.”

However, not all volunteers thought their involvement would be beneficial for their studies or future careers. Some thought they would have been better off volunteering somewhere else, for example, in a company that would be more recognizable to future employers. One volunteer mentioned the uncertainty of what he will get from the experience in Sri Lanka and how it will be relevant for his studies given the small-scale nature of AGSEP’s operations. However, not all volunteers necessarily viewed this as a negative factor; instead most highlighted how non-study-related experiences could still benefit their professional development. For example, one volunteer stated that “I probably won’t learn any special management skills that I would have not learned in a normal office in Germany...but I definitely learn[ed] how to organize myself here, and do things on my own, in a new country and culture.”

#### **22.2.2.5 Travel and Cross-Cultural Experiences**

The combination of travel and cultural experiences was a strong motivating factor for AGSEP volunteers and the vast majority of volunteers mentioned traveling as a key motivation. One volunteer signed up because he was “motivated to see another country,” while another stated: “I want to do some travelling while I am here. I want to go to Kandy to see the elephants.” One intern referred to his experience in assisting in the selection of new volunteers to emphasize the combined benefits of volunteering and traveling:

“When I get new applications from potential volunteers, every second one asks already before they even get here: “Is the any time to travel?” So they want to know if there is a possibility to see some of the nice places on the weekend and how to best combine volunteering with travelling”.

Another intern agreed, stating that “there is no doubt the travel was one of the best experiences in Sri Lanka.” In addition to volunteer tourism, previous studies have also highlighted that the role of “tourist” is not mutually exclusive from other roles including researcher (Kervran 2015), soldier (White 1987), or English teacher (Doering 2008). The Lonely Planet (Richards et al. 2013, p. 1) suggests that “it is widely acknowledged that cultural exchange is one of the great benefits of international volunteering.”

As part of their travel, cultural aspects and the opportunity to meet local people were mentioned by nearly all the volunteers as a key motivating factor. For example, one volunteer was motivated by the opportunity to “work with locals, and get to know a lot of locals, and do some travelling, and see more of the whole island so I get the whole picture of the island.” Volunteers suggested that as volunteers they would have more opportunities to interact with local people compared to if they had come to Sri Lanka as tourists:

“Sri Lanka sounded very interesting. It is totally different from all I have ever seen so far in Europe.... I am motivated to meet a lot of people in Sri Lanka, not as a tourist, but... around the work I do”.

One volunteer explained, “it’s interesting to see how people live in this country... It’s another kind to see it here in live.” Another volunteer described being invited to stay with a Sri Lankan family for a week during her time at AGSEP:

“It was quite exciting for me to experience how the people are living here, how they are working here. I lived in their house and I saw the life of typical Sri Lankan people”.

Volunteering at AGSEP therefore provided the volunteers an opportunity to learn and develop their knowledge about another culture. This reflects previous studies that found volunteer tourists reported increased appreciation and knowledge of other cultures as a result of volunteering (Lough et al. 2009; Mostafanezhad 2014). Similarly, the backpacker literature cites meeting new people, both locals and fellow backpackers, as one of backpackers’ main motivating factors (Jenkins 2003; Godfrey 2011).

Finally, all volunteers expected to experience cultural differences between their home country and Sri Lanka. Some volunteers acknowledged that cultural and linguistic differences could pose potential challenges for their involvement; however, they viewed these as challenges to be overcome rather than barriers that would prevent them taking part. For example, one German volunteer explained that “It’s a totally new experience. In Germany everything is working as fast as possible. Here you have to wait to get something done. You have to be very patient.” Another volunteer emphasized the importance of being tolerant of behaviors that may be acceptable in Sri Lanka, but that are considered inappropriate or rude in the volunteer’s home country. She gave the example of “If you make an appointment with somebody and you have to wait there one and a half hours, only to get a call the she is not coming today but maybe tomorrow, then that is one challenge you just have to accept.”

## 22.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

Volunteering is mostly related to projects, initiated by social volunteering organizations. A focus is set on the development of society. Organizations such as AGSEP contribute to volunteer management in sports as they focus on sports projects to encourage intercultural participation and understanding in the ethnically divided country. Similarly, the Generation for Peace (2017) initiative looks at providing opportunities for using sport as a platform for targeted social and sport-related development, particularly for disadvantaged children. Several other NGOs and aid organizations have been supported by volunteers in their peace and reconciliation efforts, particularly during the civil war times but also since the end of the civil war in 2009. In the future, it will be interesting to analyze the development of volunteer engagement postwar, plus the potential shift in focus and support in the postwar period.

## 22.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

Volunteering is promoted at all governmental levels in Sri Lanka. For instance, town councils or provincial councils support social development initiatives, and charitable organizations build on the expertise of local and international volunteers. At the highest level, UN volunteers assist the local population in various projects relating to sustainability, citizen inclusion, or education (UN Volunteers 2018). This also applies to sports projects that are initiated at the municipal level and supported by the local authorities. In the SFD space, private organizations and NGOs dominate the scene, with AGSEP being one of the oldest programs in the country to foster intercommunity engagement.

## 22.5 Conclusion

The Sri Lankan case study featured in this chapter provides initial insights into the motivations and experiences of international SFD volunteers. Overall, findings from this study show that international SFD volunteers' motivations and experiences largely fall within five main themes of (1) safety, (2) social contacts and networks, (3) personal development, (4) professional development, and (5) travel and cross-cultural experiences. Safety was critical when the volunteers were choosing for which organization to volunteer. The most important aspects necessary for volunteers to be satisfied with their engagement at the project were the social aspects and those focusing on the development of the self, including personal development, professional development, and cultural development (including meeting different people and experiencing a new culture). By coming to a new country and

experiencing life and work in a different setting, volunteers raised their awareness of other cultures. It can be argued that this awareness positively influences volunteers in the short term and may in fact continue to influence them in the long term, since “there are individual benefits to be derived from doing volunteer work that reach far beyond the volunteer act itself and may linger long after the volunteer role is relinquished” (Wilson and Musick 1999, p.167).

Interestingly, sport “*per se*” was not highlighted as a key motivator for the SFD volunteers. From other discussions (i.e., outside of the formal data collection process), it was clear that the AGSEP volunteers had some interest in sports, and it can therefore be inferred that sport was an implicit motivation. Nonetheless, sport was not described as a specific appeal or a particular highlight for the volunteers. Instead, they sought cultural experiences and, in contrast to findings in previous studies of volunteer tourism (e.g., Godfrey 2016), established a relatively close engagement with the local community. Similarly, and perhaps more surprisingly, the “postwar context” of Sri Lanka as a host country was hardly featured in any discussions. While aspects of altruism and goodwill motivated several volunteers – and experiences in a developing country featured as key aspects for personal and professional development – the context of Sri Lanka as a country that had recently overcome civil war did not seem to influence the volunteers in their choice of location. Instead, the conversation was dominated by a focus on SFD providing cultural experiences with “the unknown” as well as exotic travel opportunities.

The findings outlined in this chapter can be used to support AGSEP and other SFD organizations to offer more informed and more authentic experiences to incoming SFD volunteers. For example, the volunteers’ focus on safety suggests organizations offering SFD programs may benefit from highlighting the safety aspects of their program and – if the organization is based in a Western/developed country or is under international management – including the organization’s national background in volunteer advertisements and promotion to further reassure potential volunteers of their safety overseas. To encourage volunteers’ cross-cultural interactions with local people, volunteer providers should create meaningful opportunities for volunteers to socialize with both other volunteers and local people. This will also help create a sense of community between the volunteers and, importantly, the local community (Costa et al. 2006). Reflecting the premise of SFD, sports thus may be used to create connections and build bridges between people. Interestingly, however, the volunteers’ lack of emphasis on Sri Lanka’s postwar status suggests that in promoting their internships, AGSEP should focus less on postwar peace building than on wider cultural engagement and travel opportunities for volunteers.

Overall, the findings presented in this chapter extend our knowledge of the motivations and experiences of SFD volunteers in an international setting, and they highlight specific volunteer management implications for AGSEP and other similar SFD-focused organizations. In Sri Lanka, the term “volunteering” translates to “working or acting of one’s free will without being paid” – a very similar meaning to standard definitions from the Western world and indeed one of the key motivating factors for AGSEP’s volunteers for becoming engaged. Building on this study, future research could compare and contrast the expectations and experiences of

SFD volunteers across volunteer programs around the world. A more structured approach could also contribute to determining best practice factors for wider SFD volunteer management. At the same time, the similarities and potential differences between SFD volunteers, volunteer tourists, and backpackers could be analyzed. While all three groups seem to share obvious motivations including a desire to travel and meet new people, a more nuanced understanding of wants and needs would contribute to maximizing their experiences in regard to both their personal and professional developments.

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## Chapter 23

# Switzerland



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**Abstract** The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of the meaning and understanding of sports volunteering as well as the voluntary workforce in Switzerland. The term volunteering (“Freiwilligkeit”) is used in Switzerland not only for voluntary, unpaid work but also for donating money or goods. Since the beginning of the nineteenth century, volunteering has played an important role in Swiss society and particularly in the Swiss sports system. Current surveys show that nearly one out of five persons of the adult population volunteers regularly in sports clubs, and nearly half of all members do volunteer work in their club. About 10 years ago, there was a reduction of volunteering in sports clubs. However, current figures show that the number of volunteers has increased again, although there is neither a national policy nor a specific program in Switzerland to promote volunteering in general or in sports.

Volunteers in Switzerland pursue altruistic as well as self-oriented motives. Current studies show that several factors are relevant for the satisfaction of volunteers in sports clubs, for example, interesting tasks, material incentives, appreciation and recognition, and support. For volunteers at sports events, the following motives play an important role community involvement, interpersonal contacts, career orientation, personal growth, and extrinsic rewards.

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## 23.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

Volunteering is a crucial element within the Swiss sports system. In Switzerland, sports clubs have existed since the beginning of the 1900s, and nowadays over 19,000 clubs include about 25% of the population. Public authorities in Switzerland usually do not initiate – apart from sports and physical activities at school – their own sports programs. Instead, sports clubs play a major role particularly in competitive, youth, and team sports and are based mainly on the voluntary engagement of their members (Stamm et al. 2015). Although some clubs also have paid staff, voluntary work is still the most important resource that allows sports clubs to offer interesting programs to their members. Sports events arranged by sports clubs, federations, or other event organizers benefit from the engagement of event volunteers. Smaller club events are usually organized completely by and with volunteers, whereas bigger events typically have a committee of paid staff that prepares the event, as well as a team of episodic volunteers during the event.

The term volunteering (“Freiwilligkeit”) is used in a broad sense in Switzerland (e.g., Ammann 2008). Besides voluntary work (where time is contributed), there are other forms of volunteering: donating money or goods that are relevant for a club, as well as donating the prestige of a certain person who can be useful for the common interest of an organization.<sup>1</sup> According to research on volunteering (e.g., Wilson 2000), these voluntary activities are unpaid or paid with a symbolic amount. There are only a few exceptions of volunteers receiving remuneration in larger sports organizations. Volunteers who earn less than 2,000 CHF per year do most of the work in clubs.<sup>2</sup>

Voluntary activities are carried out for the benefit of people other than the family and have a formal character (organized or agreed). Volunteering outside of organizations usually has an informal character, whereas volunteering in (sports) organizations is considered as formal activity (Freitag et al. 2016; Lamprecht et al. 2012). In sports clubs we can further distinguish between episodic or sporadic volunteering (e.g., helping during a club event) and continuous volunteering in a position defined by the club (e.g., as a coach or as a board member). Particularly, the engagement in a board position is usually characterized by the alternative term “honorary post” (“Ehrenamt”).

Volunteers in Switzerland engage for a variety of reasons (Freitag et al. 2016; Stadelmann-Steffen et al. 2010). Overall, people do voluntary work for altruistic as well as self-oriented reasons. On the one hand, volunteers are attracted by the idea of achieving common goals together with others and want to help other people. On the other hand, they intend to develop their own experience, knowledge, and

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<sup>1</sup> The public reputation and the network of a person (e.g., a politician) can help the club to fulfill successfully the club goals.

<sup>2</sup> The definition used in the sports clubs survey (and in other surveys on volunteers) is that people who get less than 2,000 CHF are characterized as volunteers, since this payment is rather a symbolic compensation for their time spent as volunteers and for travel expenses to training and meetings.

networks. Therefore, voluntary work is motivated by public spirit as well as potential personal benefits.

The principle and social value of solidarity and giving “benefit to the public” (“Gemeinnützigkeit”) have played an important role in the development of Swiss society since the beginning of the 1900s (e.g., Farago 2007). Thus, volunteering is an important promoter of social cohesion in Swiss society (Freitag 2014). 1810, the Swiss Society for Public Benefit (*Schweizerische Gemeinnützige Gesellschaft*) was founded. Today, this institution supports the idea of volunteering in civil society.

From the early 20th century, (sports) clubs have been voluntary organizations with democratic structures that exist because members share joint interests. It is a necessary requirement in Swiss law that clubs are organized voluntarily by members sharing a common goal and must not be oriented toward making an economic profit. Although volunteering still plays an important role in Swiss society and the rate of volunteers in sports and other fields of society is relatively high, current data show a slight reduction in volunteer engagement (Freitag et al. 2016).

## 23.2 Volunteer Workforce in Switzerland

According to 2016 figures of the Swiss Statistical Office, 32% of the Swiss population aged 15 and older do voluntary work outside of organizations. Twenty percent of all adults in Switzerland engage in formal activities within organizations. Taking into account that a large proportion of the population engages outside as well as within organizations, 42% of the population do voluntary work (BFS 2018a). Whereas women’s engagement is somewhat higher outside of organizations (44% vs. 41%), men are more often engaged in formal voluntary work (22% vs. 17%). The main information about volunteering in Switzerland is collected in Table 23.1.

**Table 23.1** Switzerland’s volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in Switzerland
Population size	8,482,200 <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	German, French, Italian, Rhaeto-Romanic
Volunteer rates (2016)	42% <sup>b</sup>
Existence of voluntary sport clubs	yes
List of large-scale events hosted in last 10 years	UEFA European Championship 2008, FIS Alpine Skiing World Championships 2017
Sport volunteer rates	12% <sup>b</sup>
The word for volunteering	<i>Freiwilligkeit, Ehrenamt</i>
The meaning of the word	Broad sense: unpaid voluntary work, donation of money or prestige
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	Principle of subsidiarity

Sources: <sup>a</sup>BFS (2018b), <sup>b</sup>BFS (2018a)

The highest amount of voluntary work is provided in sports clubs. As mentioned above, a quarter of the Swiss population holds a membership in one of the 19,000 sports clubs. Yet, this proportion can be as high as 62% of children aged between 6 and 14 years who are members of a sports club. Swiss sports clubs rely primarily on the voluntary and nonpaid work of their members. The Swiss Statistical Office estimates that 6% of all persons aged 15 years and older conduct formal voluntary work in sports clubs in Switzerland. The survey “Sport Switzerland 2014” and the national survey of sports clubs of 2016 report a similar figure of somewhat over 5%. This amounts to approximately 335,000 volunteers, who deliver an average of 11 hours of unpaid work per month for their clubs (see Table 23.2).

Apart from formal volunteers in “honorary positions”, clubs also count on a large number of sporadic volunteers. Although these persons do not hold a formal position, they are club members and perform voluntary work by, for example, helping with the organization of (sports) events, driving and coaching kids and athletes, revising the club’s accounts, or redecorating the clubhouse. About one-tenth of the Swiss population (615,000 persons) volunteer in this fashion for Swiss sports clubs. An additional 3% of the population volunteers during sports events without being members of the organizing club. Consequently, the 19,000 sports clubs and 230,000 sports events per year rely on approximately 1.14 million persons who are perform about 84 million hours of unpaid work for Swiss sports (Table 23.2).

**Table 23.2** Extent of voluntary work in Swiss sports

	In % of the total population (>15 years)	In % of all active club members	Number of persons	Average number of hours per month	Total number of hours in Switzerland
Club members doing voluntary work in a formal position (honorary volunteers)	5	17	335,000	10.9	44 million
Club members doing voluntary work without holding a formal position (sporadic volunteers)	10	30	615,000	4.4	32 million
Persons not being a member of a sports club helping with sports events	3	–	190,000	3.7	8 million
Volunteering total	18	47	1,140,000	6.1	84 million

Sources: Volunteering Monitor Switzerland 2016 (Freitag et al. 2016); National club studies (Lamprecht et al. 2014, 2017)

### 23.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

The workload of the 335,000 volunteers who hold a formal position in a sports club translates into about 22,800 full-time jobs worth about two billion CHF (see Table 23.3). In addition, there are over 15,000 persons who are (partially) paid for their work efforts in the clubs. In other words, about 4% of all positions are remunerated, and the remaining 96% are honorary positions. On average, remunerated staff members work more than honorary workers (on average 46 hours compared to 11 hours per month). Therefore, 16% of all work done in the clubs is remunerated, and 84% of all work is done on a voluntary and unpaid basis.

Table 23.3 suggests that paid work has increased between 1996 and 2010 at the expense of voluntary work. During this period, the number of volunteers has decreased, and the share of paid work has increased. This development has been interpreted as a trend toward “professionalization” in sports clubs, and it was assumed in 2010 that this trend will continue in the future. This was not the case, however. Until 2016, the number of unpaid volunteers has increased again, and the number of paid and remunerated persons has decreased slightly. Even though the share of paid work is higher in 2016 than it was in 1996, it has not increased between 2010 and 2016 but decreased somewhat. In 1996, the share of remunerated and paid workers in all club staff amounted to 3%; it increased to 6% in 2010 and decreased again to 4% in 2016. A similar development can be seen with respect to the total amount of paid work: In 1996, the share of paid and remunerated work in the total workload amounted to 10%; it doubled to 20% until 2010 and decreased again to 16% until 2016.

An explanation for the increase of unpaid voluntary work between 2010 and 2016 can be found by looking at the different positions that need to be filled in the clubs (see Table 23.4). An average Swiss sports club has 18 voluntary positions that require an average of 11 hours of work per month. As can be seen from Table 23.4, however, presidents and coaches put in the most hours.

**Table 23.3** Voluntary and paid work in Swiss sports clubs

	Voluntary/unpaid <sup>a</sup>			Remunerated/paid <sup>b</sup>		
	2016	2010	1996	2016	2010	1996
Number of positions	335,000	285,000	350,000	15,500	17,500	10,000
	96%	94%	97%	4%	6%	3%
Average work load per person and month	11	12	11	46	48	45
Total work load in full-time equivalents (estimate)	22,800	21,000	24,000	4,400	5,300	2,800
	84%	80%	90%	16%	20%	10%
Total value in million Swiss francs (estimate) <sup>c</sup>	1,950	1,720	1,780	380	430	210

Notes: <sup>a</sup>Volunteers who do not receive any remuneration or a remuneration not exceeding 2,000 CHF per year. <sup>b</sup>Persons receiving a remuneration of more than 2,000 CHF per year. <sup>c</sup>The estimate is based on an annual working time of 1,900 hours and an hourly wage of 45 (2016), 43 (2010), and 39 (1996) CHF, respectively.

Sources: National club studies (Freitag et al. 2016; Lamprecht et al. 2012, 2017)

**Table 23.4** Voluntary positions in Swiss sports clubs

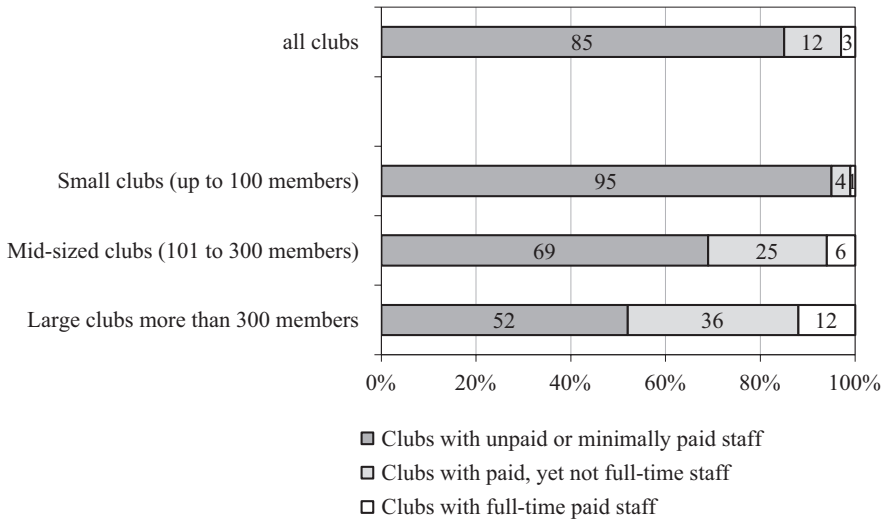
	Share of positions in percent	Number of volunteers per club <sup>a</sup>	Share of women in percent	Average number of work hours per month <sup>a</sup>
President	6.8	1.2	18	15.9
Vice-president	4.5	0.8	21	8.3
Secretary/actuary	5.5	1.0	48	6.7
Chief financial officer/treasurer	6.2	1.1	35	9.2
Other members of the board	12.7	2.3	28	9.2
Head of a department/section	4.8	0.9	26	9.7
Youth and sports coach	3.7	0.7	30	7.8
Youth coaches	24.1	4.3	33	17.8
Coaches for adults	15.0	2.7	30	16.1
Referees	10.5	1.9	28	9.2
Other positions	6.2	1.1	26	10.0
Total	100.0	17.8	30	10.9

Note: <sup>a</sup>Arithmetic mean

Source: National club study 2016 (Lamprecht et al. 2017)

Between 2010 and 2016, the average number of volunteers per club has increased from 14 to 18. As the clubs did not grow during this period, we can assume that a higher number of persons have filled positions. The finding that the need for volunteers has increased slightly in all positions supports this assumption. Currently, job-sharing appears to be a viable possibility even for presidents: In 2010, there was one president per club, but this figure has increased to 1.2 in 2016, suggesting some degree of job-sharing in this position. The increase in the number of youth coaches has been particularly strong: In 2016, there was more than one additional coach per club compared to 2010. In addition, the number of coaches for adults (+0.8) and referees (+0.4) is markedly higher in 2016 than it was in 2010. Yet, the number of work hours has not changed greatly between 2010 and 2016: In 2010, volunteers put in an average of 11.6 hours per month; in 2016, this figure amounted to 10.9 hours. For youth and adult coaches, the work time has even increased by one and four hours, respectively. This suggests that job-sharing does not lead to a split-up of training sessions. Rather, training groups are diminished, or more than one coach holds training sessions jointly.

Even though the number of remunerated and paid workers in clubs has decreased in the course of the past six years, the proportion of clubs that employ paid staff has not changed significantly. As in 2010, only 3% of all clubs had fully paid staff members in 2016, and a further 12% (11% in 2010) had staff members with a part-time position or some other kind of substantial compensation (i.e., more than 2,000 CHF per year). Figure 23.1 shows that paid staff are still very rare in small clubs. Paid



**Fig. 23.1** Structure of paid and unpaid work in sports clubs (in percent; Source: National club study 2016 Lamprecht et al. 2017)

positions are mainly found in mid-sized and large clubs where it is possible to examine some trend toward professionalization: Between 2010 and 2016, the proportion of paid workers in part-time positions has increased by 3% in mid-sized and by 8% in large clubs.

It is not the proportion of clubs with paid workers but the number of paid workers per club that has decreased over the past six years. Most paid staff members are active as coaches and do not have a permanent position. Only 11% of all paid employees have a full-time position, a further 28% have a part-time job, and the rest receive some compensation for their efforts. Based on these figures, we can assume that most remunerated staff also do a great deal of voluntary work. Although many of these people receive an annual compensation of more than 2,000 CHF, the true value of their (partly voluntary) work for the clubs is probably much higher.

More information on volunteers and their motives is available in the Sport Switzerland 2014 survey (Lamprecht et al. 2014) and the Volunteering Monitor 2016 survey (Freitag et al. 2016). Among volunteers in formal positions, Swiss men aged between 30 and 59 years are overrepresented, whereas sporadic support work is mostly done by young adults aged between 15 and 29 years. In addition, volunteers in formal positions are very often fathers of families with a medium to high level of education and income from a paid job. Sporadic volunteers, on the other hand, are often still in training.

Formal as well as informal volunteers are highly satisfied with their work: 91% claim to be very content, 7% are somewhat content, and only 2% are not content with their voluntary activity for the sports club. Nine out of ten formal volunteers would accept their position if they were to choose again.

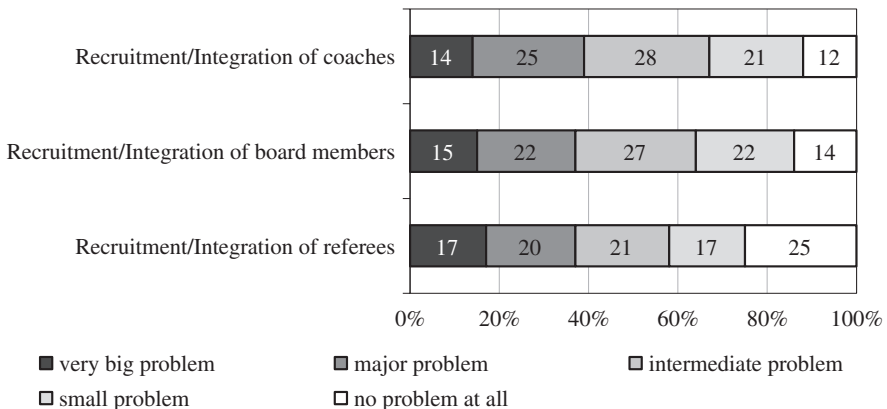


The figure discussed above underlines the continuing importance of voluntary work for sports clubs. Clubs are well aware of this important resource. In the 2016 national club survey, 76% of all clubs fully agreed with the statement “our club thrives on the voluntary involvement of its members” (Lamprecht et al. 2017).

However, voluntary work is not only the main basis of organized club sports but also one of its particularly vulnerable spots. Persons doing unpaid voluntary work are – as discussed above – highly motivated and content. Yet, at the same time, it is becoming more difficult to find motivated and qualified successors for quitting volunteers. As a result, finding and integrating volunteers are one of the most biggest challenges clubs are facing. About two-fifths of all clubs claim to have a hard time finding board members, coaches, or referees (see Fig. 23.2). In addition, many clubs depend on a small number of heavily burdened persons who cannot be replaced easily, and a third of all clubs lament an increasing “consumer attitude” among members. The problems in connection with voluntary work are particularly pressing in large clubs, in clubs that have a large proportion of children and adolescents, and in clubs from urban areas. Yet, these clubs have implemented a number of measures aiming at recruiting, integrating, leading, and managing volunteers in the course of the past few years.

Finally, it is important to note that despite the clubs’ worries with volunteers, it is by no means the case that no one would want to do voluntary work anymore. In fact, a third of all active members who do not yet hold a formal position could conceive filling such a position. Yet about half of these members have never been asked to become volunteers. Those who have been asked but refrained from becoming a formal volunteer did so mainly because of time constraints.

It is noteworthy, however, that even motivated members need to be convinced to volunteer or to stand for a formal position. If current volunteers are asked what finally made them agree to take a position in the club, about half mention that persons in the club had approached them. In addition, the incentive to become a volunteer can also come from friends and acquaintances, or one simply grows slowly into



**Fig. 23.2** Worries of Swiss sports clubs – proportion of clubs with respective problems (in percent; Source: National club study 2016 Lamprecht et al. 2017)

a formal role, starting from sporadic support work. Only a quarter of all respondents claim that their voluntary involvement started from a personal wish to become active.

## 23.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

Sports clubs in Switzerland have always been regarded as a partial substitute for public initiatives (Stamm et al. 2015). When sports and the first sports clubs emerged, there was no central, institutional body that could play a role in shaping sports. In fact, in the absence of strong public authorities, early clubs – not only in sports but also in areas such as science, education, and politics – often took over official functions. Sports clubs and other clubs are thus, to some extent, a private and officially encouraged alternative to public interventions, and they have become an important feature of Swiss civil society. Consequently, the public civil society sector is relatively small compared to other countries (e.g., the Northern countries; see Helmig et al. 2017), whereas voluntary organizations, like sports clubs, play an important role. Here, volunteering is not only relevant for sports clubs and members but also for civil society, since integration in a club can lead to integration in the broader community and play an important role for social trust. Volunteering in sports clubs gives people the opportunity to engage in society and public welfare. For example, sports clubs are the most important supporters of youth sports in Switzerland. This is the result of the traditional idea of subsidiarity and autonomy. Within this principle, tasks, actions, and solutions to problems in Swiss society are undertaken, as far as possible, independently and autonomously. The implications are that public institutions only intervene if there is significant market failure. In addition, action by public institutions usually occur at the most local level possible, for example, at the level of the municipality rather than the canton.

In the federal constitution of Switzerland, Article 68 lays down the promotion and development of sports. The “federal law for promotion of sports and exercise”, established in 2012, provides a legal framework to support private initiatives in sports, especially those of sports federations and clubs. The agency responsible for the development of national sports policy is the Federal Office of Sport (FOSPO). This is done in partnership with Swiss sports federations, particularly the national umbrella organization Swiss Olympic (Nagel and Adler Zwahlen 2016).

However, the national government has no direct legal obligations to sport clubs and vice versa, apart from the national “Youth and Sports program (J+S)”, in which the FOSPO distributes over 80 million CHF per year to clubs engaged in the promotion of youth sports. This program is predominantly realized through volunteers in sports clubs. There are currently over 120,000 licensed J + S coaches who usually work as volunteers in sports clubs in Switzerland. In 2010, approximately 700,000 children and young adults took part in one or more courses in 75 different kinds of sports offered by J + S. This corresponds to about two-thirds of the Swiss population aged between 10 and 20 years. Public funding promotes courses, events, and

camps for children and adolescents, as well as for the trainers responsible for youth sports groups (Nagel and Adler Zwahlen 2016; Stamm et al. 2015).

Apart from “Youth and Sports”, there is neither a national policy nor a specific program in Switzerland to promote volunteering in general or in sports. Nevertheless, volunteering is on the political agendas in sports. Sports politicians and board members of national federations communicate regularly about the importance of volunteering for sports clubs and sports promotion. Although there is no specific volunteering policy, several initiatives that have the objective to recruit and retain volunteers in sports have been created. There is the online platform “Swiss (Olympic) Volunteers”, which helps organizers to recruit enough volunteers for their sports events and gives interested people the opportunity to get in contact with the event organization. “SwissTopSports” – the network of the biggest international sports events in Switzerland – in partnership with Swiss Olympic manage this tool for an effective volunteer management in the context of sports. Furthermore, Swiss Olympic has introduced the “Volunteer of the Year Award”, which bestows awards on volunteers in sports for their outstanding engagement. There are several additional programs at the regional and municipal level which promote voluntary work.

## **23.5 Typologies of Volunteers in Sports**

Motives of volunteer engagement are fundamentally important; however, continuous changes in these motives can be observed. The consequences of these changes cause divergent expectations and affect the goals individuals relate to their voluntary engagement. Changes in motives and expectations of voluntary engagement have become harder to comprehend and are a greater challenge for sports providers to handle adequately. In this context, more precise orientation toward volunteer motives and expectations is increasingly important in volunteer management. Two studies, conducted in Switzerland, present information on segmentation of long-term volunteers in sports clubs and volunteering for sport events.

### ***23.5.1 Study 1: Expectation-Based Profiles of Volunteers in Swiss Sports Clubs***

The aim of this study was to analyze “how volunteer expectations of the underlying work conditions in their sports clubs could be categorized and to what extent volunteers in sports clubs differ in their expectations”. Volunteer expectations were analyzed in a sample of 441 volunteers who hold a formal voluntary position in 45 selected Swiss sports clubs (e.g., as coach, referee, board member; for more detail see Schlesinger et al. 2014).

The analysis of volunteer expectations was related to the construct of job satisfaction. Volunteer job satisfaction can be understood as the result of the cognitive

and emotional evaluation of the relationship between volunteers' expectations of the working conditions (desired state) and the actual situation (e.g., Chelladurai 2006). A pool of 27 items represents different facets of the working conditions in sports clubs based on the concept of volunteer job satisfaction (e.g., Finkelstein 2008; Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2001; Silverberg et al. 2001). Volunteers stated their expectations by scoring the relevance of different items of the work environment on a five-point scale ranging from "1 = unimportant to 5 = very important". The identified seven dimensions were subsequently characterized by explorative factor analyses: (1) "Task design", (2) "Communication", (3) "Material incentives", (4) "Appreciation and recognition", (5) "Participation", (6) "Support", and (7) "Social networks". Findings of reliability analyses of the dimensions with Cronbach's  $\alpha$  (for the dimensions) and of the selectivity coefficients (for the single items) were acceptable (for more detail see Egli et al. 2014).

All dimensions were included in a cluster analysis to identify expectation profiles of volunteers that can be distinguished from each other. The creation of clusters was done according to Spiel (1998), with an intra-individual standardization procedure conducted to take into account intra-individual relations between the expectation of volunteers. Based on the available statistical decision criteria, a four-cluster solution was selected (Fig. 23.3). In the following, the four clusters are named and described based on their positive characteristics and on the expectation dimensions (Egli et al. 2014).

*Cluster 1: Recognition seekers (n = 126, 34.2%):* Volunteers in this cluster had above-average expectations regarding the factor *Appreciation and recognition*. That is, they expected to be appreciated for what they do and for their services to be honored through symbolic recognition (certificates, awards). In contrast, the

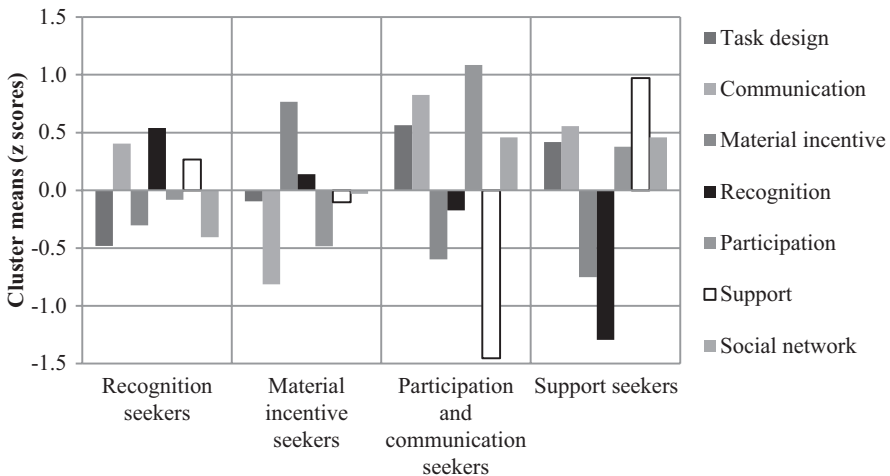


Fig. 23.3 Z-standardized cluster with expectations in the four types of sports club volunteers

factors *Material incentives*, *Participation*, and *Task design* tended to have below-average significance.

*Cluster 2: Material incentive seekers (n = 137, 37.2%)*: Volunteers in the largest cluster were characterized by above-average expectations regarding the dimension of *Material incentives*, which stood out particularly strong compared to the other expectations in this cluster. These materially oriented volunteers expected to be recompensed in the form of financial rewards and benefits (e.g., reduced membership fees). In contrast, the factors *Communication* and *Participation* were comparatively low.

*Cluster 3: Participation and communication seekers (n = 46, 12.5%)*: Volunteers in this cluster typically had above-average expectations regarding the factors *Communication* and *Participation*. They expected to have tasks assigned corresponding to their abilities and to gain opportunities to contribute their own competences. In addition, they wanted to be informed about important decisions in their club and expected a constructive exchange of knowledge and experience. Moreover, they considered challenging and varied tasks to be important but showed less interest in the factors *Material incentives* and *Appreciation and recognition*.

*Cluster 4: Support seekers (n = 59, 16.0%)*: The main expectations in this cluster were oriented toward support. People in this cluster expected to have their voluntary work supported so that they could coordinate their careers with their volunteering, to have close contacts to the club management, and to receive support with further training. In addition, the factors *Task design* and *Social network* were important for support seekers, whereas the factors *Appreciation and recognition* and *Material incentives* tended to be unimportant.

Such a typology of volunteer expectations related to the underlying work conditions enables the volunteer management of sports clubs to more carefully address several profiles of volunteers with divergent expectations. Job descriptions can be more appropriately adapted to the needs and motives of the target group, and the tasks and positions can be more carefully designed related to demand, thereby promoting the targeted consequences (higher job satisfaction and higher commitment) while avoiding negative effects (emotional exhaustion).

### **23.5.2 Study 2: Motivational Profiles of Sporting Event Volunteers**

Aside from long-term volunteering for sports organizations, episodic volunteering has become particularly popular in recent years. The following study investigated the question, “to what extent do volunteers at sporting events differ in the motives of their engagement, and how can volunteers be adequately classified?”. In this study, all registered volunteers from the 2014 European Athletics Championships in Zurich were interviewed ( $N = 2,024$ ). Data were collected using an online questionnaire three months before the sporting event started (total sample,  $n = 1,169$ ).

Different concepts are available to analyze volunteer motivation such as the “Motivation to Volunteer Scale” developed by Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) and the “Volunteer Functions Inventory” developed by Clary et al. (1998). Reflecting on these fundamental approaches, several scales have been adapted and specified to analyze motives of sporting event volunteers: The “Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale” (SEVMS), developed by Farrell et al. (1998); the “Olympic Volunteer Motivation Scale” (OVMS), developed by Giannoulakis et al. (2007); or the “Volunteer Motivation Scale for International Sporting Events” (VMS-ISE), developed and validated by Bang and Chelladurai (2009) and Bang and Ross (2009).

In this study, the VMS-ISE was used as the most suitable fit to the characteristics of the European Athletics Championships. The VMS-ISE distinguishes between seven motivational dimensions (Bang and Ross 2009): (1) “Expression of values”, (2) “Community involvement”, (3) “Interpersonal contacts”, (4) “Career orientation”, (5) “Personal growth”, (6) “Extrinsic rewards”, and (7) “Love of sport”. The validity of the VMS-ISE was analyzed by confirmatory factor analysis, and the data were clustered to identify distinct motivation-based volunteer profiles (see in more detail Schlesinger and Gubler 2016). In the following, the four profiles are named and characterized based on their positive levels on single motive dimensions (see in more detail Schlesinger and Gubler 2016).

*Cluster 1 – The “Community Supporters”* accounted for 355 (30.4%) respondents:

Volunteers in this largest cluster typically had above-average motivation on the factors *Community involvement* and *Expression of values*. They donated their time to support the event in order to be part of the local community, and out of concern for others, and to contribute to the success of the event, and society. In contrast, the factors *Career orientation* and *Personal growth* functioned less frequently as drivers of their motivation.

*Cluster 2 – The “Material Incentive Seekers”* accounted for 279 (23.9%) respondents:

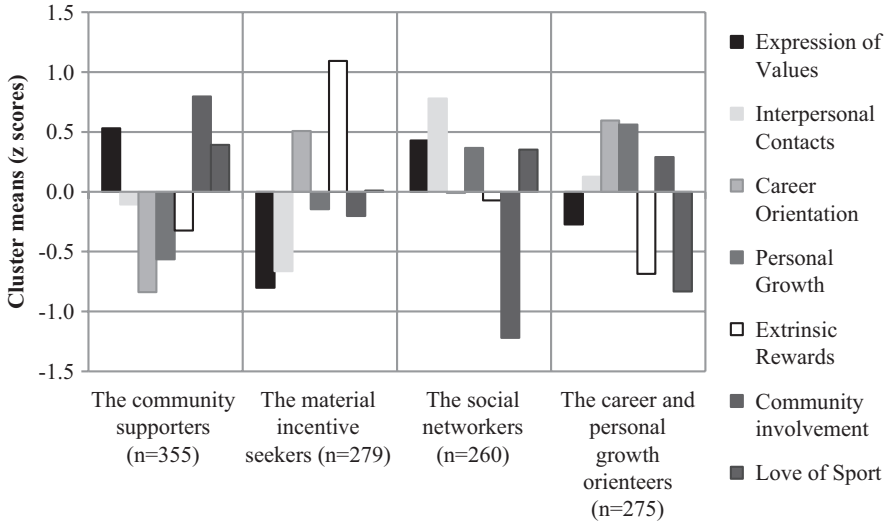
Volunteers in this cluster were characterized by above-average motivation on the factor *Extrinsic rewards*. These materially oriented volunteers expected to be recompensed in the form of getting free uniforms, food, accommodation, and admission. The factor *Career orientation* was also important, whereas the factors *Expression of values* and *Social contacts* tended to have below-average significance.

*Cluster 3 – The “Social Networkers”* accounted for 260 (22.2%) respondents:

This cluster was particularly motivated by developing interpersonal contacts. Through their voluntary activity, these individuals wanted to meet and interact with people, form friendships, and build up social networks. One common aspect of this cluster was that they were weakly motivated by the factor *Community involvement*. The motive of helping the event as part of the local community was obviously overlaid by helping in order to establish new social contacts.

*Cluster 4 – The “Career and Personal Growth Orienteers”* accounted for 275

(23.5%) respondents: The main motives of this cluster were *Career orientation* and *Personal growth*. People engaged voluntarily in order to gain both, valuable career contacts and new perspectives or experiences that they considered were



**Fig. 23.4** Z-standardized cluster means of motivation in the four clusters of sports event volunteers

important and necessary in other life areas. However, they were less motivated by the factors *Love of sport* and *Extrinsic rewards* (see Fig. 23.4).

These results could have significant implications for the management of event volunteers: Firstly, individuals show a stronger motivation to start volunteering in relation to recruitment messages when the messages affect specific motivational features that are relevant to them as a volunteer. A clear understanding of different motivational profiles can help to develop more targeted recruitment messages and campaigns.

Furthermore, event organizers who are familiar with divergent motivational profiles of their volunteers can gain valuable references to create distinctive working conditions and tasks during the event, which better correspond with the expectations of their volunteers. Recruiting enough volunteers requires the targeting of various profiles and the adjustment of what is on offer. If there are volunteers who are primarily motivated by the desire for extrinsic rewards (Cluster 2), the design of (attractive) material incentives (e.g., gifts, uniforms, tickets) should play a crucial role in meeting their motives and ensuring volunteer satisfaction.

### 23.6 Conclusion

Volunteering has traditionally played an important role in the Swiss sports system, particularly in sports clubs. Despite a certain process of professionalization and some problems with recruiting and retaining enough qualified volunteers,

volunteering is still crucial for nearly all clubs. About half of all members do volunteer work in their club, although there is neither a national policy nor a specific program in Switzerland to promote volunteering in general or in sports. Voluntary work is not only relevant for sports clubs but also for civil society, since volunteering in sports clubs gives people the opportunity to engage for public welfare (e.g., in youth sports).

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# Chapter 24

## United Kingdom



**Fiona Reid and Lindsay Findlay-King**

**Abstract** Within the United Kingdom (UK), sports volunteering is understood broadly as willingly giving up one’s free time to assist others in sport for no payment. It involves a very wide range of activities, contexts, and roles which are outlined in the chapter. It is widely accepted that volunteers are the “lifeblood” of sport, and approximately 15% of people in England (6.7 million) volunteered in sport at least once during 2016. The main context for sports volunteering is the sports club or community sports association (75% of sports volunteers). Sports event volunteering is becoming more visible but remains just a fraction of the overall volunteering activity in sport (1.3%). Overall volunteers are the main decision-makers in sport in the UK, although a professionalization agenda has increased the number of paid staff in larger, national organizations.

### 24.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sports Volunteering

Sport in the United Kingdom (UK) has depended on volunteers since its inception<sup>1</sup>. Volunteers are repeatedly referred to as the “lifeblood of sport” (for example, Sport England 2003, p.2), facilitating almost all sport activities. There is no legally binding definition of volunteering in the UK; the compact (agreement between government and the voluntary and community sector) defines volunteering as “an activity that involves spending time, unpaid, doing something that aims to benefit the

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<sup>1</sup>A comprehensive review of sport volunteering in the UK has recently been provided in Nichols (2017) which is a source of much of the information in this chapter.

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environment or individuals or groups other than (or addition to) close relatives” (European Commission 2010a, p.54).

While this chapter describes the UK, the organization of sport and sport policy is devolved to the home nations of Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland, and England. The devolved administrations also have responsibility for volunteering, but each national agency defines volunteering slightly differently (European Commission 2010b, p.3-4):

“the giving of time and energy for the benefit of individuals, groups, communities, or the environment. It is undertaken by choice and is the largest single means by which individuals engage actively with their communities. It is intrinsically linked to civic engagement, social justice, lifelong learning, and community regeneration” (Scotland);

“an important expression of citizenship and is an essential component of democracy. It is the commitment of time and energy for the benefit of society and the community and can take many forms. It is undertaken freely and by choice, without concern for financial gain” (Wales);

“the commitment of time and energy, for the benefit of society and the community, the environment or individuals outside (or in addition to) one’s immediate family. It is undertaken freely and by choice, without concern for financial gain” (Northern Ireland).

In the UK an estimated 27.6 million people volunteered informally at least once in 12 months, and 14.5 million people volunteered regularly in 2016/2017 (NCVO 2018). However, such estimations are extrapolated from data on volunteering in England only, and there is a wide spectrum of volunteering participation rates across the UK: from a high of 41% in England to a low of 27% in Scotland (volunteering formally once in a year; Volunteer Scotland 2017).

National surveys evidence that sports volunteering is a popular form of volunteering in the UK. In England, the Community Life Survey (Cabinet Office 2017) showed that the largest volunteering context was sport and exercise, with 57% of those who volunteered formally in the last 12 months doing so in this context. In contrast in Wales 17.2% and 16% in Scotland of volunteering was in sport and exercise, and other volunteering contexts were more popular (3rd ranked in Wales and 4th ranked in Scotland; Welsh Council for Voluntary Action (WCVA) 2016; Volunteer Scotland 2017). Certainly, sport is an important context for volunteering, but the data for England may be an overestimate of this, due to measurement methods. There are inconsistencies within the definition of the sport and exercise context in the national surveys of volunteering participation. The scorecards used as prompts in the survey methodologies vary from Scotland, “sport/exercise (coaching or organizing)”; England, “sport/exercise (taking part, coaching, or going to watch)”; and Wales, “sport/exercise (coaching, etc.)” (Northern Ireland does not use a scorecard). As Volunteer Scotland (2017) observed in a UK volunteering review if “taking part” and “going to watch” (activities which are not volunteering) are included as prompts, then the volunteering participation data for England may be exaggerated.

In sport, the term “volunteer” has only relatively recently been used as almost everyone involved in sport, sport delivery, and sports organization was a volunteer.

Another confounding factor in the national survey data is that many sports volunteers do not see themselves as volunteers and therefore do not respond to the survey questions about volunteering positively. The very fabric of sport relies on individuals facilitating sports activities for no pay and for the benefit of others – that is something almost everyone in sport does and therefore is not a special “volunteering” activity. Perceptions of volunteering (and motivations) might be influenced by an individual’s cultural reality and circumstances, hence the observed difference between older people with more altruistic motives for sports volunteering (for example, giving something back) and younger people with more instrumental motives for sports volunteering (for example, to gain experience for their curriculum vitae; Adams and Deane 2009; Nichols and Ralston 2016). In fact, they suggest that even using the term volunteering for sporting facilitation may not be helpful as it is so different from mainstream “charitable” activities and as such has a much lower priority for support.

## 24.2 Volunteer Workforce in the UK

Volunteering in sport is the most popular context in the leisure, culture, arts, and heritage sector in England. The Taking Part survey 2016/2017 (UK Government 2017) showed that 32.9% of respondents had volunteered in the leisure sector, and within this 20% had volunteered in sport (compared to single figures in the other leisure sectors). Sport-specific surveys show that in England, 15% of adults volunteered in sport and physical activity at least twice in the last year, and this represents 6.7 million people in England (Sport England 2017, see Table 24.1). In contrast 10% of adults in Wales volunteered in sport (although this focused on sport club and

**Table 24.1** UK’s volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in the UK
Population size	65.6 million (2017) <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	English
Volunteer rates (year)	63% (2016 volunteered once in last 12 months in England) <sup>b</sup>
Existence of voluntary sports clubs	yes
List of large-scale events hosted in last 10 years	Olympic Games 2012, Commonwealth Games 2014
Sports volunteer rates	15% (2015 volunteered in sport once in past year in England) <sup>c</sup>
The word for volunteering	Volunteering
The meaning of the word	To willingly give unpaid help
Events/occurrences that have influenced volunteering	2012 Olympics – profile of volunteering

Sources: <sup>a</sup>Office for National Statistics (2017); <sup>b</sup>UK Government (2017); <sup>c</sup>Sport England (2017)

school settings only, whereas England's data includes event marshalling and stewarding; Sport Wales 2017).

Participation levels in occasional sports volunteering are higher than in regular sports volunteering. This is similar to volunteering more generally; while nearly two-thirds of adults in England (63%) reported volunteering in the past 12 months (52% informal and 37% formal), only around a fifth (22%) of adults had taken part in formal volunteering once in a month and 27% informally once a month (Cabinet Office 2017). Most of the measures available for sports volunteering in the UK in recent years focus on once or twice yearly volunteering. While participation in informal general volunteering is higher than formal, in contrast most sports volunteering is formal through clubs, groups, or organizations (74.4% within clubs and associations, 13.6% in youth organizations, 5% in schools, 3% governing body structures, 1.3% major events), and only 9.4% of sports volunteering was informal, helping outside an organization (Taylor et al. 2003). Across the UK the highest concentration of sports volunteering is within sports clubs (there are an estimated 72,117 sports clubs in England affiliated to National Governing Bodies of Sport (NGBs); Shibli and Barrett 2018). In contrast, only a small proportion of sports volunteers are event volunteers – for example, in 2002 just 1.3% of sports volunteers were at sports events (and 40% of those were for the 2002 Commonwealth Games; Taylor et al. 2003). However, major events do involve large numbers of volunteering at the same time, for example official estimates suggest that there were 70,000 volunteers for the 2012 London Olympic and Paralympic Games (LOCOG 2012) and 12,500 at the 2014 Glasgow Commonwealth Games (Commonwealth Games Federation 2015).

In the last 15 years, there have significant sports events in the UK: the 2012 London Olympic and Paralympic Games, the 2002 Manchester Commonwealth Games, and the 2014 Glasgow Commonwealth Games. These events led to increased sports volunteering in the planning and delivery years, although some of these volunteers were already volunteering elsewhere in sport or other contexts. While Londong Olympic Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games (LOCOG, 2013) claimed that 40% of applicants were new to volunteering, research into the Games Makers, volunteers in London 2012, found that only 20% of respondents were volunteering for the first time (Dickson et al. 2014). Nichols and Taylor (2015) explored contradictions in the data on Olympic volunteer legacy and noted an increase in formal volunteering in the 2012 hosting year and clubs reported an increase in numbers of volunteers (particularly in Olympic and Paralympic sports). However, they also observed that 73% of clubs reported that no volunteers joined them in the two months immediately after the Olympic and Paralympic Games.

Another challenge to the concept of volunteering in the UK is the requirement to undertake unpaid work. This is contrary to the principles within the definition of volunteering relating to “freely undertaken” and “by choice” and has been termed “voluntold” (Kelemen et al. 2017, p.1239). It can be where an employer requires a candidate to undertake unpaid experience before being given paid work or the requirement can be as part of gaining an award or qualification in sport. This is

often (although not solely) focused on those working toward coaching qualifications (it is a compulsory part of the United Kingdom Coaching Certificate (UKCC) framework to gain mentored coaching experience) or leadership awards (such as Duke of Edinburgh's Award). Another large number of young people volunteer in sport as part of their further or higher education where volunteering placements can be required in order to graduate, and it is debatable whether this is really volunteering (Holdsworth and Brewis 2014).

People who volunteer in sport in the UK are more likely to be male, have higher levels of education, come from a higher socioeconomic group, be younger (with the exception of the age group 25-34), have no long-term disability, and be "white British" (as opposed to being black, Asian and minority ethnic (BAME) (Sport England 2016a). The number of children in the household also has a strong effect on the likelihood of sports volunteering (with the exception of children 0-5 years). Females; those aged 55+; those in lower socioeconomic groups; black, Asian, and minority ethnic (BAME) people; and people with a disability are underrepresented in sports volunteering. The nature of sports and general volunteers is similar, with the exception that in general volunteering, women are more likely to volunteer than men and sports volunteering is more frequently done by younger adults and teenagers. However, the variation in levels of volunteering relating to ethnicity, disability, and socioeconomic status is more extreme in sports volunteering (Cabinet Office 2017).

Levels of volunteering in sport in the UK have remained relatively stable over time, although there has been a trend toward more short-term episodic volunteering, diversification of the types of sports organizations volunteered for, and changes in the type of people volunteering. Recently levels of volunteering in general decreased between 2013-14 and 2016-17, with the proportion of adults who had engaged in any volunteering in the last 12 months falling from 70% to 63% and the proportion who had engaged once a month falling from 44% to 39% in this period (Cabinet Office 2017). Yet in sport, this is not the case, as the 2015-16 Active People Survey (Sport England 2016a) reports that 15% English adults volunteered in sport; this shows an increase as in the last four years, the level had dropped to 12%, down from 14% in 2011-12 to 13.6% in 2010-11. Nonetheless while sports volunteering rates remain stable, within this there is some evidence of a trend toward more episodic volunteering. For example, Women in Sport (2017) and Sport England (2016b) encourage providers to offer flexible opportunities to volunteer; the successful Park Run recruits volunteers each week, rather than expecting regular commitment, and agencies recruiting for sports events offer "micro" opportunities to volunteer. Anecdotally we can observe the effects of increases in episodic volunteering, as clubs have reported finding it more difficult to recruit regular volunteers and 20% of volunteers in such clubs contribute about 80% of the work (Nichols 2005). Identifying this type of noncontinuous volunteering is more difficult when we look at the survey data, as there is no standout trend toward this. However, the levels of occasional volunteering remain higher than levels of regular volunteering. In England there have been slight increases in some years in the percentage of the population volunteering at least once in the previous 12 months but a more static rate of regular volunteering, defined as at least once a month for the last 12 months

(Cabinet Office 2017). In recent decades, sports organizations have been required to professionalize themselves and also professionalize their volunteer “workforce” using increasingly work-like methods and having work-like requirements of the volunteers. There is sometimes confusion when the term professionalization is used interchangeably between employing paid staff and working in a more professional way (whether paid or unpaid). This has changed the environment for volunteers, including involvement of paid volunteer managers and operations managers to “manage” the volunteers and take on the more responsible tasks (while a voluntary board maintains overall control). This has also impacted on sports club and NGB Boards where volunteers are to be recruited based on their skills and abilities rather than their sporting knowledge or interest.

## 24.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

### 24.3.1 *Sports Volunteering Contexts*

Sport England (2003) reported that up until then volunteer effort in sport had gone mostly unrecognized, but by 2016 the Volunteering Strategy stated that most sport would not take place without the input of volunteers (Sport England 2016b). Five volunteering contexts are identified:

- Sports clubs
- NGB national and regional roles
- Education – schools and universities
- Other organizations – disability, youth organizations
- Major events

Sports clubs are the most important context for volunteering (75% of sport volunteers in England; Nichols and James 2018). However, the number of sports clubs appears to have declined since 2002. A comparison of surveys conducted in England in 2002, 2009, and 2015 shows up to a 40% fall in numbers of sports clubs in England between 2002 and 2015, but because of changes in measurement, it is difficult to be conclusive on this (Taylor et al. 2003; Taylor et al. 2009; Ecorys 2015 cited in Nichols 2017; Nichols 2017). In 2017, there appears to have been a slight increase in the number of sports clubs in England (Shibli and Barrett 2018). As mentioned earlier, more flexible sports volunteering is evident in the UK. Organizations such as Park Run and also the brokers of sports event or project volunteering, for example, Glasgow Sport Volunteer Bureau or Manchester Event Volunteers (Nichols 2017), offer micro, one-off, or regular volunteering opportunities. Sports clubs have identified issues with recruiting more volunteers and are encouraged to search for volunteers from outside the club as well as looking within (Nichols et al. 2013; Sport England 2011).

NGBs of sport are normally managed by volunteer boards. In the past these were groups of nominated volunteers from member clubs or regional associations who

volunteered at these higher levels in the sport structure. The hierarchical volunteer structure meant volunteers progressed from club to regional to national board members, within one sport and finally crossed to generic sport bodies after a time at the top of their own sport. This has been changing, and more recently board members are recruited according to their expertise and against criteria. The work of NGBs is carried out by volunteers at all levels and in all different roles, but NGBs are increasingly supported by professional (paid) staff who are employed using income from state and lottery funding, membership payments, or commercial activities. Management of the volunteers by paid staff or using employment management practices has resulted in some tensions for sports volunteers (Nichols and Ralston 2016).

In schools, sports volunteering undertaken by pupils as part of wider leadership programs and volunteering by adults to facilitate extra activities (Nichols et al. 2016). Universities provide a different type of sports club – where members are exclusively students and the university subsidizes their activities. However, the voluntary, nonprofit nature of sports clubs in universities is very similar to UK sports clubs in general.

The nature of the volunteering program at major events has altered radically over the past 20 years. For the 2000 Olympics, the volunteers were essential to the running of the event – and success was the delivery of a quality event through volunteers. Since then the role of the volunteers has progressively changed; thus at the 2014 Glasgow Commonwealth Games, the volunteers were essential providers of the event, but benefits to the volunteers and a “legacy” of future volunteering were also policy aims. Birmingham’s bid document for 2022 Commonwealth Games highlighted the opportunities for training and qualifications that would be open to 12,500 volunteers.

While previous studies have suggested that volunteering at a mega event can result in a strong intention to volunteer at other events or in other contexts (Fairley, Gardiner, and Filo, 2016), there is no clear evidence that recent UK mega events have had any effect on subsequent volunteering levels (Koutrou et al. 2016; Lockstone-Binney et al. 2016; Woodall et al. 2016; Rogerson et al. 2018). The legacy impact of such events in the UK on volunteering has been limited according to whether further support and opportunities were planned. For example, in Manchester while a volunteering legacy was not initially planned, the Post-Games Volunteer Project capitalized on favorable media coverage of volunteers and bid for funding to build a continued volunteer program, the Manchester Event Volunteers (Nichols and Ralston 2012). In contrast, LOCOG did not have the remit, time, or capacity for volunteer legacy planning (Girginov 2016). However, despite there being no national strategy to convert the Olympic and Paralympic volunteers to future volunteering (Nichols and Ralston 2015), there were some new volunteer programs created. *Join In* was the official volunteering legacy program, while the *Inspire* program, *Team London*, and *Spirit of 2012* also benefited from brokering volunteering opportunities after the Olympic and Paralympic Games. Although there was criticism that the legacy program came too late after the event, that it was London-centric and that many programs were short term, the event brought positive publicity for volunteering, and anecdotally it has been suggested that there might be a demon-



stration effect; however there is no evidence of this (Weed et al. 2015). While there were issues around a delay in the use of the volunteer database post-event to offer the volunteers other opportunities, Nichols (2017) has questioned whether new volunteers mostly motivated by a “once in a lifetime” opportunity would have continued on a long-term basis even with support. Research into volunteering legacy at the 2014 Glasgow Commonwealth Games found volunteers surveyed immediately after the event intended to continue to volunteer. But when this was followed up three years later, there had been no long-term changes in volunteering behavior, although there was a slight increase in the perceived social connectedness of volunteers (Woodall et al. 2016; Rogerson et al. 2018).

### ***24.3.2 Remuneration for Volunteers in Sport***

Concepts relating to remuneration and payment of volunteers present a constant challenge to sport volunteers and organizations relating to sport. Definitions of volunteering highlighted earlier rely on differing concepts of “unpaid,” “not for financial gain,” and for the benefit of others. Cnaan et al. (1996) considered remuneration to be one of the four key dimensions of a definition of volunteering. They placed level of financial reward on a continuum from none at all, none expected, and expenses reimbursed to low pay/stipend. Overall, they viewed the value of volunteering as a cost-benefit analysis where the higher the net cost to the individual, the more “pure” the volunteer, whereas the lower net cost or greater net gain to the individual was seen as less valuable to the society.

The key decision-makers in sport in the UK are volunteers. At the highest level, UK Sport is guided by a Board of Directors who are appointed by the Secretary of State for Culture, Media and Sport for a period of three years but are not employees of either the UK Government or UK Sport. These individuals are selected due to their expertise either in sport or in an aspect of business and are volunteers. They are given a daily allowance (218 GBP; UK Sport 2013) to attend events for UK Sport such as board meetings, panel meeting, or other activities up to a maximum of 24 days per year. Similarly, the agencies for sport in each of the home countries are managed by a board of volunteer directors who also receive a daily fee for each day spent on board business (165 GBP; Scottish Government 2017). These payments are more than “none at all” but mostly equate to low pay, given the business and sports experience and level of seniority the individuals on the board require to have.

Most NGBs of sport are managed by a volunteer board. However, this is not universal, for example, the Board of Scottish Gymnastics have approved an annual payment of 7,000 GBP to their chair for 2016-2019 but no payments for other board members (Scottish Gymnastics 2016). This is a reflection of the amount of time needed to be spent on the activities by the chair and is part of a wider shift to recognition of time and expertise of the leaders in sport (although normally not commensurate with the payment those individuals would receive as part of their formal employment).

This trend in NGBs is reflected at a local level with even quite small voluntary clubs offering either an “honorarium” of a few hundred pounds or a limited hours contract to key voluntary roles, for example, membership secretary, or treasurer. Again, this payment is rarely a reflection of the actual value of their work, more an appreciation of time and expertise. There is not a great deal of research on the interaction of volunteers either in the NGB or club setting examining the impact of these “honoraria” or partly paid roles. As well as some remuneration for volunteers and for tasks undertaken by volunteers, there is a sector of sports event volunteering and sport volunteer tourism where volunteers *pay* for the privilege of volunteering. Here the concept of the experience economy (Pine and Gilmore 1999) can partly explain that where volunteering is a leisure activity undertaken for fun and enjoyment, there may be particular volunteering activities that are worth paying for – either because the experience will be so unique or because the benefits to the volunteer are so great. For example, at the 2014 Ryder Cup held in Scotland, volunteers were asked to pay 75 GBP for the experience. This was explained to volunteers as to pay for their uniform and those who paid the fee and received the other benefits – access to watch the golf for free when not on shift (tickets were expensive and also not available) and meal vouchers (Reid 2015).

#### 24.4 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

In the UK, there is a strong tradition of voluntary sector independence from the state. For example, in Scotland 34% of sports clubs were established before 1950 (19% before 1900; Allison 2001), and in England 72% of clubs were founded before 2000 (Nichols and James 2018). Government policies change, but the structure of sports clubs and NGBs was established in the 19th century in the UK and mostly remains in place today.

Recently the state has been very keen to promote volunteering and voluntary activity. A major policy initiative, the “Big Society,” was launched in England in 2010 encouraging citizens to work together to improve their local communities, but for many this was seen as an obscuring of the impact of cuts in public expenditure. Voluntary organizations are taking on sports management and facilities across the UK as the “austerity” agenda means that the state is spending less money. There has also been a change in policy from considering volunteering as a means to an end – providing sport coaching for children, for example, to considering the wider benefits to the individual volunteer. Thus, *Join In* (2016) valued the contribution of each volunteer to well-being (of themselves and those they helped to take part in sport) as 16,032 GBP. In addition, the economic value of volunteering to wider society remains unknown.

However, while encouraging volunteering, the state has also increased the regulatory framework around sports volunteering, and this has been identified as a barrier to volunteers and to sports clubs (Taylor et al. 2008). Research has shown that the types of people typically involved in volunteering are better off, better educated, and

in employment (Sport England 2015). While this is not shown to be a causal link, there are implications drawn from this data. The UK Government and devolved governments have included the use of volunteering to improve the life chances of individuals.

## 24.5 Conclusion

Volunteers are critical to the infrastructure of sport in the UK. They engage in every role across the provision of sport, from the very highest level of decision-making to carrying out essential tasks. Their importance in the UK is a consequence of the historical development of sport within the voluntary sector and the social construction of the idea of volunteering as predominantly altruistic and an expression of civic responsibility. Sports volunteering is most important in sports clubs although there are increasing levels of interest in occasional volunteering and in event volunteering.

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# Chapter 25

## United States



Jeffrey R. Farr and B. Christine Green

**Abstract** Volunteering is a value long entrenched in American life. The very structure of the United States government lends itself to citizens' self-organization, while the altruistic desire to serve others directs volunteer activity. As a result, one in four Americans volunteer. Americans of all ages volunteer in the sport and recreation sector, with young people and older adults leading the way. Yet, altruism as the core component of volunteer efforts no longer stands alone. Instead, Americans volunteer for a plethora of reasons, some of which blur the traditional expectations that volunteering is both voluntary and uncompensated. The emphasis on commercialization throughout the United States sport system is changing the traditional perceptions of volunteering and impacting on the types of volunteer experiences provided.

### 25.1 Meaning and Understanding of Sport Volunteering

Volunteerism has a long and storied history in the United States, with some of the earliest instances including the establishment of volunteer fire brigades in large cities prior to the signing of the Declaration of Independence in 1776 (Benjamin Franklin Historical Society 2014). The federalist system of government in the United States with the tension between political equality and individual voice established in the United States Constitution created an environment ripe for the growth of volunteerism (Volunteerism U.S. 2018). Thus, American individualism combined with distrust of government power created a context in which like-minded citizens banded together to provide the services they valued. Americans have always

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held giving and service in the highest regard, leading Alexis de Tocqueville (1835) to write over a century and a half ago that this ethic of service “prompts [Americans] to assist one another and inclines them willingly to sacrifice a portion of their time and property to the welfare of the state” (De Toqueville 1835, p.647). Many well-known volunteer organizations trace their roots back to American soil, including the United Way, Peace Corps, and Habitat for Humanity. According to a 2016 report on volunteering in America, over 62 million Americans gave close to eight billion volunteer hours in 2015 (Corporation for National & Community Service n.d.). In fact, volunteerism is embraced as a core American value and is seen to be an integral component of a vibrant democracy (Spencer 2014).

### ***25.1.1 Definition***

Although there are numerous definitions of volunteering and volunteers embraced by organizations in the United States, most share three components (cf., Carson 1999). First, there is an emphasis on action: volunteers do something and take on a task or project. Second, there is a component of service to others (e.g., individuals, groups, or organizations). Third, and perhaps most importantly, there is an expectation that the task is completed willingly, without being forced or required to complete the task and without being paid to complete the task. At least conceptually, Americans ultimately see volunteering as an altruistic activity.

### ***25.1.2 Changing Perceptions***

In recent years, a shift away from altruism as the driving factor to volunteer has taken place in some contexts. Interestingly, these challenges to the voluntary nature of volunteering are linked to education – specifically, secondary and higher education. Twenty-nine states either required or allowed school districts to adopt a service requirement for high school graduation (Education Commission of the States 2018). Required volunteer hours ranged from 55 to 150 over the course of a student’s high school years. The requirements are intended to instill an appreciation for giving back and getting involved while also providing an opportunity to explore careers and gain experience (St. George 2015). Even without service requirements, high school students feel compelled to volunteer to look good on university admission applications, further diluting the altruistic core of their volunteer efforts.

American universities have embraced volunteering in two ways, one explicitly and the other inadvertently. Service learning is an increasingly common experience in university courses and is highly valued by students throughout the United States (Breuning et al. 2010). Courses that include service learning components provide students with experiences applying classroom knowledge to community groups and organizations via instructor-led (or at least overseen) projects. Thus,

these opportunities fit the volunteer definition as students *do* something, *for* someone else, *without* monetary compensation. In fact, students often pay for this experience via tuition dollars and receive university credit for their actions, thus challenging traditional perceptions of volunteering.

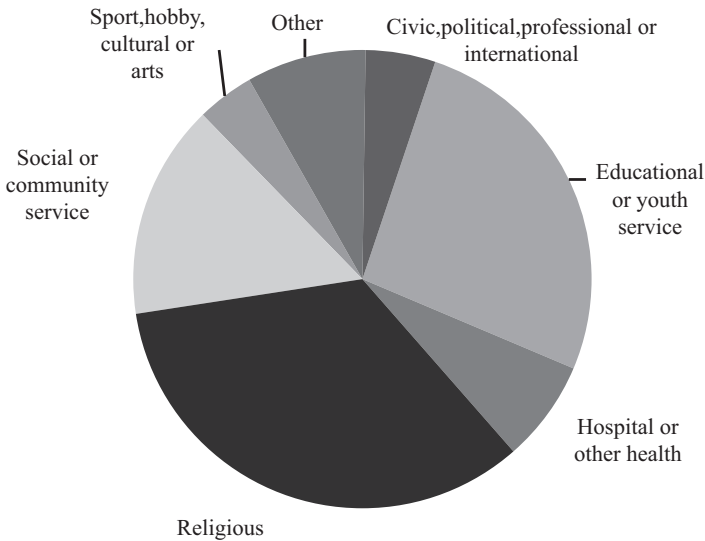
The second form of volunteering linked to higher education is the internship. The concept of the internship is similar to that of trade apprenticeships, where one is taught the inner workings of a trade or organization by an expert currently working in the field. Depending on the organization itself and the responsibilities included in the job, interns can be paid or unpaid, and sport internships are most often reserved for persons who are looking to enter the business of sport without previous experience in the field. Many of these prospective interns are expectant or recent college graduates that are entering the job market, but internships also can attract people who are changing careers or young people looking to experience working for the first time. Most sport management degrees require an internship for completion, as per accreditation standards (COSMA 2015; National Recreation and Park Association 2018). While these internships are sometimes remunerated, pay is generally well below the expected worth of the work completed. Often there is no compensation beyond the benefit of the experience itself. And yet even professional sport organizations rely on interns to complete critical tasks. In fact, there is some concern that volunteer internships have cannibalized entry-level job opportunities across the American sport industry. The federal government's Department of Labor has responded, helping to clarify the distinction between unpaid interns (i.e., volunteers) and employees with a test based on seven rules (Basten 2018). Two of the seven rules are pertinent to distinguishing employees from unpaid interns: (1) "Any promise of compensation, express or implied, suggests the intern is an employee – and vice versa," and (2) "The intern's work complements, not displaces, the work of paid employees while still educating them." Still, the question remains. Are interns volunteers?

These two examples, while at the extreme end of the spectrum, highlight changes in the way that Americans define and approach volunteering. Altruism remains a prominent component of volunteering in the United States, but it is rarely the only defining aspect of volunteering. This is particularly true of sport and event volunteers who see volunteering as a leisure choice rather than a duty (Lockstone-Binney et al. 2010).

## 25.2 Volunteer Workforce in the United States

Nearly one in four Americans over the age of sixteen volunteers, with more than 62 million volunteers providing nearly eight billion hours of service in 2015 (Corporation for National & Community Service n.d.). As a result, volunteers contributed 184 billion USD to the US economy that same year. These data were collected to provide a comprehensive picture of volunteering and civic life in the United States in 2015. Figure 25.1 shows the types of organizations for which



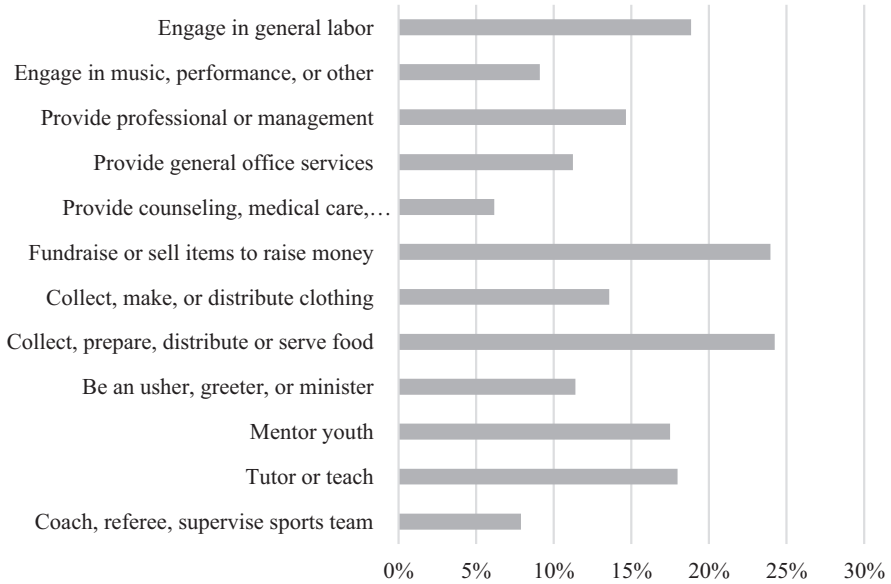


**Fig. 25.1** Primary organization types for volunteering in the United States (Source: Corporation for National & Community Service n.d.)

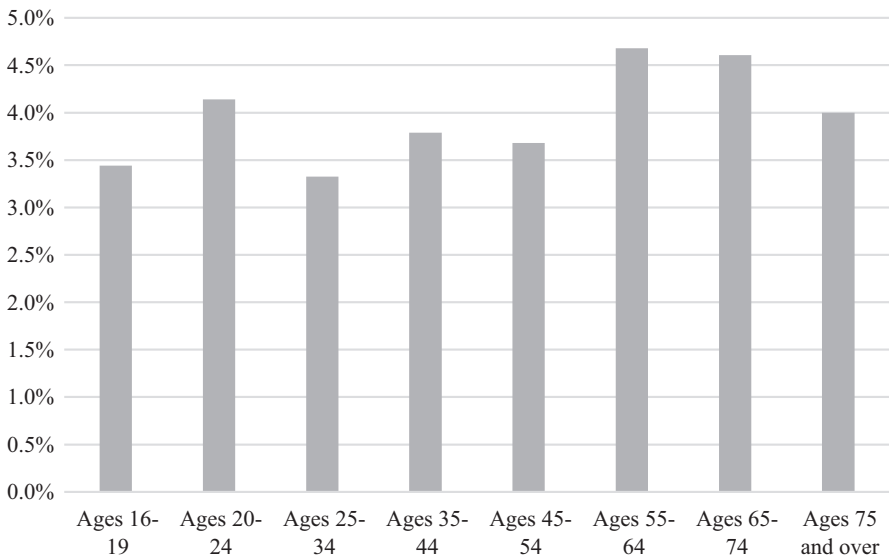
Americans volunteer. A third of all volunteering is associated with religious organizations, followed by 26% of volunteers in the educational or youth services sector. The sport, hobby, cultural, or arts sectors command just 3.9% of volunteers. Sport in the United States is fragmented and occurs across a variety of sectors with much of it happening in the education and youth service sectors. Sport also occurs as part of the health, religious, and social service sectors. Consequently, it is quite probable that the national estimate of volunteers in sport is underestimated.

The types of tasks undertaken by volunteers also suggest the wide-ranging distribution of sport and event volunteers (see Fig. 25.2). Nearly every type of task listed here could potentially be provided by volunteers in the sport and event industries. Clearly, coaching, refereeing, and supervising a sport team are functions of sport volunteers. Mentoring youth, fundraising, and general labor are the core to youth sport settings. Professional or managerial functions are often usefully fulfilled by volunteers in sport and event settings. Music, performance, ushering, and even food and clothing (e.g., uniforms) distribution also are common functions for sport events, thus could be effectively filled by volunteers.

No comprehensive database exists to describe volunteering in the sport and event industry in the United States, but a breakdown of volunteers identifying their primary volunteer organization as sport, hobby, cultural, or arts organizations provides some insight into the age distribution of volunteers. As Fig. 25.3 shows, the age groups with the highest numbers of volunteers in sport are those with more leisure time and perhaps fewer family responsibilities – those in their early 20s and those over the age of 55. Beyond the sport sector, Generation X had the highest rate of



**Fig. 25.2** Primary tasks of volunteers (Source: Corporation for National & Community Service n.d.)



**Fig. 25.3** Age of sport, culture, and arts volunteers in the United States (Source: Corporation for National & Community Service n.d.)

volunteering (29%) with those 75 and older reporting the highest median hours volunteering at over 100 (Corporation for National & Community Service [n.d.](#)).

The American sport system has been described as complex, chaotic, and competitive (Green and Greenberg 2016). Its components cross sectoral boundaries, reaching into the public sector through recreation and school sport, the nonprofit sector through youth service organizations and a wide array of club settings, and the for-profit sector through professional sport and commercial enterprises and events. Unsurprisingly, the range of volunteer opportunities and experiences in the sport and event sector is also large and diverse. As one would expect, most nonprofit organizations could not function without volunteers. Yet the reliance on volunteers has also infiltrated for-profit sport and event organizations. In short, every organization is seeking volunteers to run their organizations more efficiently and, in some cases, more effectively. No longer are sport volunteers the sole province of the third (i.e., nonprofit) sector. Five volunteer settings highlight the changes in sport and event volunteering in the United States: (1) coaching, (2) professional sport events, (3) road racing, (4) charity sport events, and (5) sport for development programs. Table 25.1 presents an overview about some of the volunteer characteristics.

Although much of the American sport system is highly dependent on volunteers, the sport system itself lacks cohesiveness (Bowers et al. 2011). The components of the United States sport system are many and varied, lacking any type of government involvement at the national level. As a consequence, it is nearly impossible to accurately estimate the number of sport volunteers or to understand volunteers' involvement in sport. Nor is it possible to document changes in the number, type, and involvement of sport volunteers over time. Yet there is a plethora of anecdotal evidence that traditional, ongoing volunteering in sport is being replaced by short-term episodic volunteering. This is partly a function of lifestyle changes that place increasing time demands on families (Hunnicuttt 2013) and partly a function of the commercialization and professionalization of youth and community sport settings (Gregory 2017). Three contexts illustrate the changes occurring in sport volunteer settings in the United States. Each is discussed below.

### **25.2.1 Coaching**

Coaching used to be fairly clear-cut. Youth sport coaches were volunteers; school sport coaches (including university coaches) were paid. Tennis and golf clubs hired professional coaches for lessons. This is no longer the case. As youth sport moved from free or low-cost public recreation settings to pay-to-play club settings, parents began to demand higher-quality instruction for their investment. Coaches learned that they could make a living coaching youth sport by building their club into a business, albeit often a nonprofit business. The consequence of this shift was to create increased competitiveness among clubs – not just on the field or court but also competition for participants to pay the bills. Although most youth sport is still coached by parents of players on a voluntary basis, the top clubs have begun to pay coaches

**Table 25.1** The United States’ volunteer characteristics

Characteristic	Status quo in the United States
Population size (15-86 year)	254,820,515 <sup>a</sup>
Official languages	English
Volunteer rates (at least 1 activity a year)	62.6 million <sup>b</sup>
Existence of voluntary sport clubs	yes, but no data are available
List of large-scale events hosted in the last 10 years	Ryder Cup 2008, 2012, 2016; President’s Cup 2009, 2013, 2017; Super Bowl American Football (annual event), Rugby World Cup Sevens 2018; CONCACAF Gold Cup Soccer 2007, 2009, 2011, 2013, 2015, 2017; America’s Cup Sailing 2013; Ski Alpine World Championships 2015; Pan Pacific Swimming Championships 2010; FIVB NORCECA Men’s Champions Cup 2015; Formula 1 US Grand Prix (annual event); US Open Tennis Championships (annual event); NCAA Basketball Final Four (annual event); World Series of Baseball (annual event); Stanley Cup Hockey Championship (annual event); NBA Championship (annual event); FEI World Equestrian Games 2018; Invictus Games 2016; Copa America Centenario 2016; World Rowing Championships 2017; Boston Marathon (annual event); New York Marathon (annual event); X Games (annual event); IWF World Weightlifting Championships 2015; Little League World Series (annual event)
Sport volunteer rates	n.a.
The word for volunteering	Volunteering
The meaning of the word	Donating one’s time and energy without receiving financial or material gain
Events/ occurrences that have influenced volunteering	Continuing commercialization of community sport

Source: <sup>a</sup>United States Census Bureau (2018); <sup>b</sup>Corporation for National & Community Service (n.d.) 25.3 Volunteer Management in Sports

in order to attract and retain successful coaches and to attract the top athletes to their clubs. The effect of this change has been to stigmatize volunteer-coached programs as inferior. It has also made it difficult to find parents to volunteer to coach in these programs. Thus, there is a shortage of coaches for young athletes. In some cases, programs provide discounted registration rates to parents for volunteering to coach, thus eroding the altruistic ethos of volunteering that Americans like to espouse.

The other end of the sport spectrum is also blurring the lines between volunteer and professional coaching. The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) regulates most university sport, including setting limits on the number of coaches

for each sport team. Universities responded by recruiting volunteer coaches to obtain a competitive advantage. The NCAA sets strict limits on what these coaches can and cannot do, much like they do for paid employees (NCAA n.d.). Volunteer coaches cannot receive any compensation from the athletics department or any entity funded by the department. Meals, travel, game tickets, and attire can be provided. Permissible coaching functions are also limited by the NCAA; most notably, volunteer coaches are not permitted to engage with athletes off campus, including coaching or volunteering at high schools.

## **25.2.2 Professional Sport Events**

### **25.2.2.1 Professional Sport League Competitions**

Professional sport teams in the United States generate significant revenue. One would not expect these organizations to depend on volunteers for their game day operations. And yet, they often have significant volunteer programs, with highly committed and experienced volunteers. Volunteers take on roles as ushers, parking attendants, security, and a myriad of others on game day. This clearly enhances the bottom line of these sport teams, but what's in it for the volunteers? It comes down to fanship and the experience of being a part of something they care about (Pedulla 2018). Many professional teams also provide community groups with the chance to raise funds by operating the concession stands at their venue. This provides a secondary volunteer opportunity. The community groups recruit volunteers from their own organizations to provide the volunteer labor needed to operate the concessions. In this way, all the funds earned by the community group stay with the group.

### **25.2.2.2 Road Races**

The number of road racing events in the United States has exploded in the last few decades. In 2016, there were over 30,000 distance races held in the United States (Statista 2016) with over 18 million participants (Running U.S.A. 2018). The largest race held annually is the New York City Marathon, which boasts over 50,000 participants each fall (New York Road Runners 2018). In order to produce such a large-scale event, over 12,000 volunteers are enlisted to assist in the safety and enjoyment of the participants. Among the services provided, these volunteers help medical personnel with injured runners, direct spectator traffic, and pass out fluids along the course (New York Road Runners 2018).

Nearly every community of any size hosts races multiple times over the year. The city of Austin, Texas, hosted at least one running event on every weekend day over the past year. Add to that cycling events, triathlons, and other course-based events, and it adds up to a huge need for volunteers. Like professional sport teams and concessions, many of these road races donate to community organizations to operate a

water station along the course. These organizations, in turn, recruit volunteers to staff those stations. Again, we see a tension between compensation and volunteering.

### **25.2.2.3 Charity Events and Corporate Social Responsibility**

Charities increasingly depend on sport events, including road races/walks, for their own fundraising efforts and to increase awareness and build community support for their cause. Volunteers for these events are many and varied. Some are attracted by the cause, some by the sport, and others by the festival that surrounds these events. Even so, sport events put on by charities for fundraising purposes share the need for volunteers with other road races but cannot contribute funds to these volunteers. Instead, they work with businesses and other organizations to donate their time and labor. Much like the road race context, these organizations are then responsible for recruiting volunteers for the event.

Volunteer organizations in the United States often partner with professional sport leagues to promote their altruism. For example, each October sees color changes – not only in the leaves on trees but in the colors of American football uniforms, with bright pink being added as accent pieces to uniforms and field logos as a way to promote breast cancer awareness (this changed in 2017 with a shift toward all cancer awareness known as “Crucial Catch”). This began when the National Football League began its partnership with the Susan G. Komen Foundation in the early 2000s. Professional leagues, teams, and players also contribute to their communities through volunteer efforts to help with wide-ranging issues such as literacy, healthy play, and support of injured members of military and law enforcement. Additionally, in the wake of natural disasters like hurricanes and wildfires, foundations like the Red Cross and Salvation Army use professional and amateur sport as a means to collect relief funds for those in need.

### **25.2.3 Sport for Development Programs**

The emergence of sport-for-development programs has also impacted the ways in which we recruit and train volunteers for sport. Unlike traditional sport programs, sport-for-development programs use sport for other purposes: to enhance literacy, to integrate immigrant populations into the community, and to enhance the well-being of individuals and their community. The development purpose of these organizations is wide-ranging. What makes them different is their use of sport as a tool for development rather than as an end in itself. These types of programs with examples such as Street Soccer USA, The First Tee golf program, and Beyond Sport use sport to improve the lives of individuals and their communities. Unlike traditional sport programs and organizations, these programs are able to embrace the altruistic elements of volunteers while also providing opportunities to be active in valued sport

activities. In this way, these types of organizations seem to have a recruitment advantage as they automatically appeal to multiple motives for volunteering.

#### **25.2.4 Summary**

Each of these volunteer contexts and the changes they bring about rely on a broader change in Americans' perceptions of volunteering. No longer is volunteering seen strictly as an altruistic duty. It has become a broader element of our identity and an important aspect of our leisure. Volunteers are in high demand throughout the sport and event industries. Organizations recognize this and work to deliver a quality experience for volunteers: one that is enjoyable and can compete with other leisure activities for one's time and one that supports the identities that are important to the individual. In any case, volunteering in the United States is about feeling good about yourself and your choices.

### **25.3 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society**

Volunteerism in the United States was a necessary outgrowth of the country's pioneer history. As communities were founded and grew, there was more to be done than could be paid for, so successful communities required at least a modicum of volunteer labor. Nevertheless, volunteering takes place in the context of an avowedly capitalist economy that links status and value to what the market will pay. This has rendered an ongoing challenge (cf., Swenson 2002). Professionalization of event management and sport services becomes a hallmark of the value of sports, while dependence on volunteers is ideologically equivalent to lesser value.

This has three effects. The first is that volunteer-dependent sport services are popularly deemed to be of lower quality than sport services provided by professional coaches and/or run by professional administrators. As a result, fee-for-service sport programs are crowding out programs that are coached and/or administered by volunteers (Bowers et al. 2011). This has been associated with declines in youth sport participation and has spawned a national movement (dubbed "Project Play") to stem the tide (Aspen Institute 2018).

The second effect is readily apparent. When volunteers work alongside paid staff, they have lower status (cf., Rimes et al. 2017). The American penchant for equating pay with status mandates that difference.

The third effect is that volunteer labor in moneymaking sport endeavors creates value for club and event owners, although the precise nature of that impact is poorly understood (Baum and Lockstone 2007). Arguably, this is a transfer of value from the unrecompensed volunteer to the owner. Indeed, this is one reason that United States Department of Labor regulations (described previously in this chapter) are designed to prohibit volunteering when an event or sport organization is

profit-making. Yet despite those regulations, sport programs and events often rely heavily on volunteers, as the regulations are not rigorously enforced.

## 25.4 Conclusion

Beyond the regulations limiting volunteering with profit-making enterprises, the American government has so far taken little interest in volunteering, whether in sport or beyond. Rather, the matter has been left to the free market – an approach which is grounded in fundamental American values. That context enables an ongoing tension between volunteering and perceptions of value and status. Given the trend toward greater professionalization of sport services, and the concerns about the effect of that trend on sports, there will be continuing public discourse over the roles and future of volunteers in sports but little federal action.

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# Chapter 26

## Conclusion



Kirstin Hallmann, Sheranne Fairley, and Elisa Herold

**Abstract** The conclusion will highlight and compare the different perspectives on sport volunteering around the globe. Main differences will be discussed with regard to (a) meaning and understanding of volunteering; (b) volunteering and sport volunteering; and (c) volunteering, state, and civil society. The objective is to summarize the different viewpoints and reflect on the diversity of approaches.

### 26.1 Meaning and Understanding of Volunteering Around the Globe

The conceptualizations and meaning of volunteering differ by country. It is not surprising that for many countries portrayed in this book, the words commonly used to represent volunteering derive from its Romanic or Germanic form of voluntary (Latin: *voluntarius*) or freewill (*freiwillig/vrijwillig*). However, despite the origins and dictionary definition of the word that includes freewill or voluntary, it is clear that this is not consistent among all countries. Further, not all countries have a word that literally translates to volunteer. Indeed, Japan, for example, uses a phonetic translation of the word in katakana script as *borantia*. Table 26.1 includes the definition of volunteering used in each country as written by the chapter authors. However, while presenting this information in a tabular form assists comparison, it is worth

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**Table 26.1** Summary of the understanding of volunteering around the globe

Country	The word for volunteering	The meaning of the word
Australia	<i>Volunteering</i>	Time willingly given for the common good and without financial gain
Belgium (Flanders)	<i>Vrijwilligerswerk</i>	People who dedicate oneself to a nonprofit organization, without remuneration (although to a certain extent reimbursement of expenses is allowed), and when they perform this activity voluntarily
Botswana	<i>Boithaopo</i>	The act of helping others without expecting payment
Brazil	<i>Voluntariado</i>	Active participation of the individual in society, which arises from the will to contribute to social change and to his/her own development, not demanding a compensation for his/her work
Canada	<i>Volunteering; le bénévolat</i>	Participation in any activity, without monetary compensation, for a group or organization, such as sport or community associations, religious organizations, or schools
China	<i>Zhi yuan zhe</i> (志愿者)	Individuals who provide social services without receiving any extrinsic rewards
Finland	<i>Vapaaehtoinen</i>	Volunteer (to do something with free will without preconditions)
The Gambia	<i>Waakirilu/walanteeru</i>	Spiritual or moral duty to society
Germany	<i>Ehrenamt</i>	Honorable position, undertaken without monetary remuneration
India	सवयसवक ( <i>swyamsevak</i> )	To serve without expectations of personal return or gains
Japan	<i>Borantia</i> (ボランティア)	A loanword derived from English (i.e., volunteer)
The Netherlands	<i>Vrijwilligerswerk</i>	Doing voluntary work. “Work that is performed not obliged and unpaid for the benefit of others or society”
New Zealand	<i>Volunteering/mahi aroha</i>	<i>Mahi aroha</i> – “the unpaid activity performed out of sympathy and caring for others”
Oman	<i>Al-tatawwu</i>	To offer one’s money or time (service) for the benefit of others for the sake of Allah
Paraguay	Guarani: <i>pytyvõhára</i> Spanish: <i>voluntariado</i>	Guarani: “helper” or “the one that helps”
Russia	<i>Dobrovolchestvo – dobrovol'chestvo</i>	Philanthropic practice, selfless individual or collective activity for the benefit of other people or societies
Slovakia	<i>Dobrovoľníctvo</i>	Offering own skills, knowledge, and experience without financial compensation
South Africa	<i>Ubuntu</i>	Human kindness and the broader communitarian concept that “a person is a person through other persons”
South Korea	자원봉사 (Ja Won Bong Sa)	An activity performed by an individual or organization for the benefit of community, country, and human society for nothing in return

(continued)

**Table 26.1** (continued)

Country	The word for volunteering	The meaning of the word
Spain	<i>Voluntariado</i>	Set of activities of general interest that people perform, whenever they are done freely and out of solidarity, without economic or material compensation, through nonprofit public and private organizations, and according to specific programs or projects
Sri Lanka	<i>Sinhala: ස්වේච්ඡා සේවය</i> <i>Tamil: துன்னார்வு</i>	Working or acting of one's own free will without being paid
Switzerland	<i>Freiwilligkeit, ehrenamt</i>	Broad sense: unpaid voluntary work, donation of money, or prestige
UK	<i>Volunteering</i>	To willingly give unpaid help
USA	<i>Volunteering</i>	Donating one's time and energy without receiving financial or material gain

*Note:* The respective country chapters served as sources for these numbers

noting that this also brings limitations as the definitions do not necessarily capture the holistic meaning, but just one part of it. This can be also related to the task all authors received which was to explore the meaning of volunteering in their countries. Despite common etymologic origins, the meaning of the term differs considerably around the globe, although two patterns emerge.

While in some countries the act of volunteering is deeply embedded in the culture and assists the delivery of various societal programs – including sports – in others volunteering is less systemic. For some countries, volunteering, or the act of helping others, is linked to religions that are common within the country (e.g., China, the Gambia, India, Oman, and Paraguay). For example, volunteering in Paraguay is often linked to religious events, while in China volunteering is consistent with the philosophical underpinnings of Confucianism and Taoism. Within the indigenous culture of New Zealand, Māori, volunteering is considered as part of a cultural obligation related to sharing.

In other countries, volunteering is strongly linked to the “civil society” and the third sector which emerged related to sports with the rise of nonprofit sport clubs in the second half of the 19th century and early 20th century (Nagel et al. 2015). The United Nations (2018) define the “civil society” as the third sector of society, besides the government and business including civil society organization and non-governmental organizations (United Nations 2018). The World Alliance for Civil Participation (2012) provides more details on the understanding of civil society: The civil society is created by individual and collective actions and organizations to strengthen and develop shared interests. This understanding explicitly includes individuals and less formalized groups (World Alliance for Civil Participation 2012). The countries which link volunteering to the civil society include Belgium (Flanders), Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and the UK. In Switzerland, volunteers are driven by altruistic and self-oriented motives. Thereby,

the principle and social value of solidarity as well as giving in a sense of “benefit to the public” (*Gemeinnützigkeit*) are dominant. In Flanders, Belgium, volunteering is integrated as a federal policy domain.

However, shifts of how volunteering is understood and perceived have been also observed. For example, in China the meaning of volunteering has been influenced by the West that instead of a top-down approach, more bottom-up opportunities have been created. In Brazil, volunteering has been historically linked to religious initiatives, but volunteering has evolved to an instrument used for social change. In the USA, a shift from altruism as main motivator to extrinsic motivators due to educational institutions introducing a service requirement as part of high school education has also been observed. Table 26.1 provides an overview about the meaning of volunteering in the different countries.

Events and occurrences within countries shape societal attitudes toward and participation in volunteering. For example, national disasters often result in a spike of volunteering in a country (e.g., earthquakes in Japan and China). Large-scale events may also lead to an increased focus on volunteering as they require a large number of people to act as volunteers. This increased media attention may also create a general awareness of volunteering. Mega-events, such as the Olympic Games, that require in excess of 50,000 volunteers have a significant influence. For some countries this is also seen from national- or continental-level tournaments. This is evident in events of various genres including political events or sport events. For example, the visit of the Pope to Paraguay in 2015 increased attention of volunteering. Political events, as well as political actions and policy implementation, also influence volunteering in different countries. In Flanders (Belgium), the federal law agreement of 2017 about paid volunteering work has also influenced volunteering. These events present spikes in volunteering. Regardless of the prevalence of volunteering in the country beforehand, the events require the recruitment of a large number of volunteers.

## 26.2 Volunteering and Sport Volunteering

The use of volunteers in sports is largely dependent on both the prevalence of volunteering to the country in general and the structure of the sport system in each country. While some countries have high rates of volunteering (e.g., Canada (44%), Germany (43.6%), Switzerland (42%)), other countries such as Paraguay have a comparatively low volunteer rate (3.3%). However, it is important to treat these figures cautiously when doing comparisons as how data are collected differs based on each country. There is no universal measurement or a universal definition of a volunteer and therefore nothing to suggest that the volunteer rates are comparable. Moreover, data on the number of volunteers in general or the number of volunteers engaged in sports are not available for many countries. Some countries do not assess how many people volunteer, nor do they have nationwide surveys covering this topic.

Therefore, it is also potentially problematic when trying to compare volunteer rates in sport. Very few authors were able to find reliable information relating to volunteering in sports in their respective country. The sport volunteer rates range from 2.6% to 20% of all members of the population. Nonprofit sport clubs are an important pillar of the sport systems of some countries, for example, Flanders (Belgium), Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, or Switzerland. In Switzerland, half of the members of nonprofit sport clubs serve also their club as volunteer. Thereby, the volunteers contribute to the sport community and deliver many hours to their club. If an average hourly fee for employees based on the national accounts of Finland was attributed to volunteering, the value would correspond to approximately 1.16 billion EUR (Lith 2013). There are several official functions which are carried out by volunteers such as being part of the board and committee, coach, course maintenance, and retail (if existing) in these sport clubs. Table 26.2 provides an overview of these statistics. Where the chapter authors had written “n.a.” for both the general volunteer rate and the volunteer rate in sports, the country has been removed from the table. Given the limitations noted above, any comparison should

**Table 26.2** Summary of volunteer rates (only countries with available data are displayed)

Country	Volunteer rates	Volunteer rates in sports
Australia	n.a.	1/3 of the population volunteer in sport
Belgium (Flanders)	29.6%	8.3%
Botswana	n.a.	approx. 3,000 registered volunteers
Brazil	13% (2014), 18% (2015), 20% (2016)	17% of the volunteers develop sport activities <sup>3</sup>
Canada	44% (2013)	n.a.
China	2.56% registered volunteers in 2016 and 9.75% registered and unregistered volunteers in 2016 (the last number is estimated)	n.a.
Finland	25%	11%
Germany	43.6% (2014)	16.3%
Japan	26.0% (2016: Over 15 years old)	6.7%
The Netherlands	49%	15%
New Zealand	27% (2013)	20% (2013)
Paraguay	3.3%	n.a.
South Korea	23.6% (2017)	2.6% (2015)
Spain	16.7%	7%
Switzerland	42%	12%
UK	63% (2016)	15% (2015 volunteered in sports once in the past year in England)
USA	24.3 (at least one activity per year)	n.a.

*Note:* The respective country chapters served as sources for these numbers

be treated with caution. However, the numbers presented in Table 26.2 serve in the respective countries as arguments for policy decisions.

Besides volunteering for nonprofit sport clubs or in sport organizations, sport volunteering takes places in schools (e.g., in the USA) and for events. Event volunteering is likely neglected within the sport volunteer rates for some countries in Table 26.2 since the nationwide surveys do not always include events.

However, the authors of the country chapters outlined clearly that event volunteering is pivotal within their countries. Although for most countries concrete information is not available, some data exist. For example, in Flanders (Belgium), event volunteering is 44% and other sport volunteering 56% (Theeboom et al. 2015). A study conducted in Brazil outlined that half of the volunteers focused on event volunteering and the other half on other sport volunteering (IBOPE 2011). While other sport volunteers are typically residents, event volunteers are often residents and volunteer tourists. The Sydney Olympic Games are considered as starting point for many individuals on becoming “Olympic volunteer”; thus individuals traveled to volunteer at further Olympic Games after the games were held in Australia (Fairley et al. 2007). In contrast, in developing countries such as Sri Lanka, volunteers working in sports are on the one hand residents and on the other hand volunteer tourists being contracted by some agency to service the population.

Hosting a mega sport event creates opportunities for volunteering. For instance, the FIFA World Cup 2010 in South Africa and the 2014 Olympic Games in Russia are prime examples how the events were used to foster volunteering in the country. Prior to the events, volunteer centers and online platforms were created, and they shaped the environment for volunteering in these countries.

### 26.3 Volunteering, State, and Civil Society

How volunteering is embedded in a country depends on the culture, the meaning attributed to it, and the sport system. The sport systems differ across countries (for an overview, see Hallmann and Petry 2013). Consequently, also how the state interacts with the sport system, sport events, and the society differs. Nonetheless, most governments have created policies that foster volunteering.

For example, in Botswana single programs such as the *Tirelo Setshaba Program* or *Botswana National Service Program (BNSP)* have been implemented. However, the impact of these programs (here in particular the BNSP) is questioned since initial media reaction has been mostly negative and early statistics indicate that attracting and retaining volunteers has not met the expected targets. In Paraguay, *Arovia*, a volunteering program, is promoted by the Paraguayan government, and the government considers launching a law on volunteering. In New Zealand, the government implemented a policy on volunteering. Chapter 14 outlines that government policies and programs to encourage volunteering intend to create a more inclusive social environment (Doherty and Misener 2008). Thus, these interventions with the aims of supporting volunteers are considered as policy instrument to generate social

capital (Coalter 2007). Funding is also important for nonprofit sport organizations. In Flanders (Belgium), the government supports organizations that support (sport) volunteering.

These state interventions are important for the nonprofit sector. However, event volunteering is not included here. Moreover, political actions and policies have also influenced volunteering. For instance, in Brazil, a Citizenship Action Against Hunger; in Flanders (Belgium) the federal law agreement about volunteering (2005) and the federal law agreement of 2017 about paid volunteering work; in the Netherlands the restructuring of the welfare state; and in Switzerland, the principle of subsidiarity have heavily influenced volunteering. This is unknown in Botswana where a national database of registered sport volunteers exists and sport organizations and event organizers alike can tap into this database to request volunteers. Thus, it is steered by the National Sports Council.

## 26.4 Outlook

This book has presented different perspectives and understandings on volunteering in 24 countries. As anticipated, the meaning of volunteering differs and the volunteering culture also differs. In some countries, volunteering is embedded in society since centuries; in other countries the concept of volunteering is still relatively new. This leads to different perceptions and understandings of volunteering. Therefore, no “one research fits it all” approach is recommended. To capture and really understand all notions of volunteering, it should be considered as culture-specific. The 24 book chapters clearly demonstrate this. Therefore, detailed investigations are needed, preferably of qualitative nature. Since volunteering is pivotal in most countries we explored, it is important to enhance the knowledge on volunteering and its understanding around the globe. This book can only be considered as a starting point.

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