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THE VOLUNTEERS’ PERSPECTIVE

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Introduction

The success of a competition, whether it is a global event capable of changing a city’s geo-tourism (e.g. Olympic Games in Barcelona) or geo-political position (e.g. Olympic Games in Beijing), or a one-day sports meeting with a merely local outreach, depends upon the performance of its volunteers. For example, between 14 June and 16 October 2011, a record 23,965 applications were made to fill 5,500 positions on offer, to ‘join the action’ and sign up to the UEFA EURO 2012 volunteer programme. On the other hand, grassroots events locally based would not happen without volunteers. Consequently, major sport events would not happen without the hard work of volunteers. Whatever the format or nature of an event (cultural, musical, sporting etc.), the organisers should set up a volunteer programme to manage its volunteer human resources.

Because of the importance of volunteers, this chapter provides an overview of the motives for volunteering, profiles and origins of volunteers and the volunteer management process (recruitment, training, supervising, evaluating/performance, retention . . .). It critically discusses the research associated with event volunteers and touches on the human resource management systems specific to events.

A stakeholder’s perspective of managing volunteers in a sport event

The stakeholders involved in the volunteer programme

The organisation of a sports event requires the collaboration of a large number of stakeholders (Parent 2008, Barget and Ferrand 2012, Parent and Smith-Swan 2013). Each event has a rights owner and sometimes a delegated organiser. The organisers of major sports events usually set up an organising committee, one of whose main tasks is to manage the human resources required, including the volunteers. Organising committees are always in close contact with the relevant sporting bodies and, for some events, the organising committee will include members of these bodies. Figure 4.1 presents the different categories of stakeholders in relation to the organising committee.
Event right owners have a significant influence on how human resources, including volunteer human resources, are managed. This influence is mostly exercised through the event specification. Although the level of detail will vary from one event to another, such specifications generally cover aspects such as human resources requirements (status numbers, skills, expertise etc.), and the characteristics, goals and position of stakeholders, including the organising committee. Considering the social responsibility and sustainability, UEFA stresses the importance of the proactive involvement of all relevant stakeholders (including workforce, volunteers, sponsors, spectators, governments, NGO, media and special interest groups) as the most crucial component of a sustainable UEFA EURO 2020 (UEFA 2013a).

Public authorities, such as the state, regional and local councils, city and town councils etc., whose involvement is vital, are more sensitive to the legacy of the event and the social impact. Future community events of any kind will significantly benefit from the involvement of volunteers who have previous experience with hosting and staging an event, and who may be willing to get involved to a greater extent (Downward and Ralston 2006). Retaining the event volunteers from year to year has the added benefit of keeping the skills and knowledge that volunteers obtain through their event experience (Costa et al. 2006, Fairley et al. 2007, Doherty 2009, Skille and Hanstad 2013).

Northern European countries have a long tradition in volunteerism, and governments have generally sought to create policies on volunteering (Hustinx et al. 2010). Recognising the economic and social value of volunteerism, the European parliament (2013) encourages the governments to work in partnership with volunteering organisations that develop the volunteer sector.

In line with their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) policy, sponsors are getting involved in volunteer programmes. McDonald’s, a sponsor of the London 2012 Olympic Games, set up the McDonald’s Olympic Champion Crew programme to select and reward its ‘best-of-the-best’ staff. McDonald’s is also the presenting partner for the games maker volunteer programme. The company provided resources, including company expertise, materials and facilities, to help Local Organising Committee of the Games (LOCOG) attract, select and train the 70,000 volunteers it needs. Thus, internal marketing provided the foundations for implementing marketing actions in the market and network sub-sectors.
Thus, the organising committee must take into account the expectations of a number of stakeholders who wish to develop volunteerism as a vehicle for personal development, integration and social progress.

**Which categories of stakeholders are to be considered?**

This is a central issue of stakeholder theory. Freeman (1984) focuses his argument on the company’s real strategic issues and suggests that a distinction has to be drawn between important and unimportant stakeholders, without offering ranking criteria with which to identify these two groups. Clarkson (1995) proposes refining this ranking still further by distinguishing primary stakeholders (whose participation is required for the survival of the company) and secondary stakeholders (whose relationship is not considered as vital for the company).

Thus, it is possible to define the importance of each stakeholder with regard to the volunteer programme. In the case of the London 2012 Olympic Games, the involvement of primary stakeholders, such as the International Olympic Committee (IOC), LOCOG, international sports federations, the British government and the local authorities, was essential to the success of the event’s volunteer programme. Secondary stakeholders, such as the general public, associations, universities etc., can influence or be influenced by event stakeholders but they are not necessarily essential to its survival. Primary stakeholders will have varying degrees of involvement in the societal objectives of an event, just as they will have different amounts of interest in its volunteer programme. Unlike the primary stakeholders, secondary stakeholders only play an intermediary, or even accessory role in the system.

Mitchell *et al.* (1997) go further by suggesting a classification based on three attributes: power, legitimacy and urgency. On this basis, they identify qualitative classes of stakeholders depending on whether they have one, two or all three of the model’s attributes. As a result, they distinguish stakeholders who are dormant, discretionary, demanding, dominant, dependant, dangerous and definitive. The definitive stakeholders are those who have all three attributes.

In a sports event context, power can be financial (e.g. the amount of money from the television rights compared with the budget for the event), political (e.g. legislative power) and/or organisational (e.g. expertise related to the organisation of the event). Legitimacy is linked to whether the organisation’s existence and actions are seen as desirable and appropriate with respect to the history, morals, habits and beliefs of the host community. Urgency is measures of the importance of a stakeholder’s involvement, taking into account the organisational phase, the time available and the criticalness of the situation (e.g. the organisation depends on the commitment of a sponsor). Chanavat and Ferrand (2010) applied this framework to perform an analysis of the 2006 Torino Olympic Winter Games. This research claims that managers need to give more priority to ‘definitive’ stakeholders, who have all three stated attributes. The model remains dynamic, with changes of positioning able to occur at any time. Despite its interest, this categorisation is complex and difficult to operationalise.

More recently, Sobczak and Girard (2006) designed a classification model based on the degree of stakeholders’ commitment with regard to the company (organisational commitment) and with regard to society (societal commitment). ‘Allied’ stakeholders are strongly committed in the organisation, but little engaged at a societal level. ‘Involved’ stakeholders are heavily concerned at both organisational and societal levels. ‘Passive’ stakeholders are not involved at an organisational or societal level. Finally, ‘activists’ stakeholders are strongly committed at a societal level and little or no involvement at an organisational level.
Such a categorisation can be used to show the different stakeholders during the London 2012 Olympic Games. According to the Olympic Charter (IOC 2013: p. 71)

the organisation of the Olympic Games is entrusted by the IOC to the NOC of the country of the host city as well as to the host city itself. The NOC shall be responsible for the establishment, for that purpose, of an Organising Committee (‘OCOG’), which, from the time it is constituted, reports directly to the IOC Executive Board.

Consequently IOC, LOCOG and the host city are highly committed to the organisation. Furthermore the support from the TOP partners is crucial to the staging of the Games. In addition to the financial support generated by sponsorship, each Olympic partner’s products, technology and expertise are vital to the success of the Games. In contrast National Federations were not committed to the organisation of the OG.

Social commitment refers to the fact that a mega event such as the Olympic Games can contribute significantly to the health, the well-being and the social cohesion of the community. The City of London and the local authorities were especially involved in social programmes. Among many achievements, the Spirit of 2012 Trust was established with a Big Lottery Fund endowment of £40 million that helped to deliver a lasting social and community legacy from the London 2012 Games. The Get Set, the official London 2012 education programme, was designed for schools and colleges across the UK. These programmes concerned thousands of organisations and millions of people. Based on their CSR policy, some TOP sponsors such as General Electric (GE) were involved in Olympic community and education programmes. GE donated £4.7 million of medical equipment as a legacy gift to the Homerton University Hospital, the hospital for the London 2012 Olympic Games, for a new maternal and newborn centre. GE has also launched a new campaign, in conjunction with the London 2012 ‘Get Set’ initiative, to improve break times in schools. In contrast, sport organisations that were not involved in these social programmes were not socially committed. Figure 4.2 presents the different stakeholder categorisation during the London 2012 Olympic Games.

The Olympic Games volunteer programme was defined mainly by the LOCOG, IOC and the local authorities (Figure 4.2). The IOC and LOCOG are therefore allied; the sponsors such as McDonald’s are involved in the issue of volunteers, as well as in CSR.

Figure 4.2 LOCOG topology of stakeholders based on the framework of Sobczak and Girard (2006)
Objectives and characteristics of a volunteer programme

When setting up a major sports event, organising committees rely upon a wide range of people with very different statuses, who are usually managed by a human resources department. Indeed, the success of an event depends on the organiser’s ability to mould into a team a group of people with different origins, skills and profiles, and then to manage them effectively. As we have just stated, this requires situating the volunteers within the event stakeholders’ network. First, we describe a typology of human resources based on their status within the organisation; second, we focus on the profiles, origins and motivations of volunteers.

The categories of human resources within an organising committee

The human resources involved in organising a sports event should have complementary rather than similar profiles and statuses. This complementarity requires achieving a ‘balance’, or ‘chemistry’ between individuals with very different statuses. Nevertheless, whatever the specific characteristics of an event, its organisation will involve five main categories of human resources (Parent and Smith-Swan 2013):

- Employees: paid staff directly employed and paid by the organising committee.
- Consultants: short- or long-term paid workforce members.
- Secondee: short- or long-term workforce members made available for all or part of an event but who retain their usual employment status and their employer remains responsible for their salaries, social security contributions and insurance and for promotion; sometimes, these individuals are called ‘sponsor-paid volunteers’.
- Volunteers: short- or long-term people who contribute to the organisation and running of the event without receiving any payment, financial or otherwise, for their services.

We will include an additional category:

- Indirect volunteers: They do it as volunteers, but the organiser pays the sport-club or other organisation for the work their members do.

The largest percentage of workforce members in major sports events is usually formed by the volunteers (e.g. 85 percent of the UEFA EURO 2012 staff were volunteers). In the 2013 Oslo Marathon, the volunteer workforce consisted of 60 percent indirect volunteers. It is one of the unique aspects of a major event human resource management (HRM) system. Parent and Smith-Swan (2012) stressed the fact that organising committee must develop collaborative relationships with the host community and its stakeholders in order to recruit volunteers. In smaller events, volunteers are typically recruited by word-of-mouth and networking (Shone and Parry 2004).

Volunteers and volunteering activities

The word volunteer is derived from the Latin word ‘voluntas’, which means will. According to the European Community (2012: 7)
a volunteer is a person who carries out activities benefiting society, by free will. These activities are undertaken for a non-profit cause, benefiting the personal development of the volunteer, who commits their time and energy for the general good without financial reward.
According to the Voluntary Work Study and Information Centre (Halba and Le Net 1997), an action can only be considered voluntary work if the five following conditions are met. Volunteers must make a commitment (notion of commitment) of their own free will (notion of freedom), without expecting any return (notion of a non-profit action), in an organised action (notion of belonging to a group or a structure) to serve the community (notion of common interest).

Handy et al. (2000) commented upon existing differences in financial compensation ranging from zero to different flexible variations, as expenses reimbursed, or low pay to an organisation, which we have explained concerning the indirect volunteers. A volunteering activity is undertaken by volunteers for a non-profit cause and does not replace paid staff. This perspective of seeing volunteers as complements, rather than as substitutes, for paid staff seems to prevail. It can be done within the framework of a volunteer provider (non-profit organisation) or through a volunteer’s own initiative.

Even within a single sport event, there are different types of volunteering as we have exemplified. The organising committee of one event can consist of formal elected or appointed volunteers. Informal volunteers are those who have signed up to be volunteers for the event through, for example, an Internet platform. This last group of event volunteers reported by Skirstad (2012a) had to sign a contract for the event (World Championship in Nordic Skiing 2011), so are they then formal volunteers? These volunteers had to work at least 8 out of the 10 days the event lasted. They received a uniform consisting of jacket, pants, hat, two sweaters and gloves. In addition, they received two tickets to the competitions to give to friends during the championship. If they signed up for the test event the year before, they received a jacket, which they had to return if they did not come back the year after for the World Championship (WCS). For the organiser, the volunteers are not completely free since they have to feed them, provide them with uniforms and sometimes also house them (Solberg, 2003).

Profiles and origins of sports event volunteers

Studies have shown that sports events draw their volunteers from a wide range of socio-demographic groups (de Moragas et al. 2000, Han 2007). Table 4.1 illustrates this diversity by presenting the volunteers’ profiles for the UEFA EURO 2012 organised in Ukraine and Poland.

Several studies have shown a female majority among volunteers at major and smaller sporting events (Farrell et al. 1998, Strigas and Jackson 2003, MacLean and Hamm 2007, Pauline and Pauline 2009, Bang et al. 2009, Doherty, 2009).

Volunteers’ motivations

Numerous studies have analysed volunteers’ motivations. Mega-event organisers also conduct studies during the conception phase prior to designing the volunteer programme. Interviews with a range of volunteers involved in the organisation of numerous sports events have allowed us to identify four main types of benefits. These benefits are listed in Table 4.2.

Volunteers’ motivations can vary enormously and may depend on age, sex, social class, lifecycle and volunteer stage. The culture of each country can also have an impact. Generally, voluntary work gives volunteers the satisfaction of doing something for the general good, an objective and a place in society or for this specific group as e.g. aboriginal peoples (Hoeber 2010).
Table 4.1 Volunteers’ profiles for the UEFA EURO 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Almost 90% of the 2,800 volunteers who assisted UEFA EURO 2012 in Polish host cities came from Poland, while over 63 nations were represented in all, with many from Germany, some from Spain and Italy, and a few from as far away as Venezuela, Brazil, Japan and South Korea. 52.2% of EURO 2012 volunteers were women, and the average age was 24.2. The distribution by gender in the four host cities was: Gdansk (53% female, 47% male), Poznan (51% female, 49% male), Warsaw (52% female, 48% male), Wroclaw (53% female, 47% male).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>Almost 90% of the 2,800 volunteers who assisted UEFA EURO 2012 come from Ukraine, while over 120 nations were represented in all, with many from Russia, some from Belarus and the USA, and a few from as far away as China, India, Angola and Nigeria. 64.5% of EURO volunteers were women, and the average age was 23.1. The distribution by gender in the four host cities was: Donetsk (69% female, 31% male), Kharkiv (64% female, 36% male), Kyiv (62% female, 38% male), Lviv (63% female, 37% male). In Kharkiv the majority of volunteers (65%) were students, representing around 46 universities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UEFA, 2013b

Table 4.2 Benefits sought by volunteers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experiential benefits</th>
<th>Social benefits</th>
<th>Functional benefits</th>
<th>Psychological benefits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Be part of an historic event (specifically for the Olympic Games)</td>
<td>- Contribute to the success of a global sports event</td>
<td>- Contribute to the staging of an international sports event</td>
<td>- Sport commitment (love of sport)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Enjoy some unforgettable moments</td>
<td>- Meet famous people (e.g. athletes, trainers etc.)</td>
<td>- Develop knowledge</td>
<td>- Organisational commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Be at the heart of a planet wide event</td>
<td>- Meet people from all over the world</td>
<td>- Professional networking</td>
<td>- Social commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Have a unique experience</td>
<td>- Exchange and share experiences with other young people</td>
<td>- Be part of a large-scale collective project</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Not miss an important event</td>
<td>- Help others</td>
<td>- Find a job</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Be part of one of the largest sports event in the world</td>
<td>- Learn to communicate with others and respect their ideas</td>
<td>- Have on their CV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- See behind the scenes of an international event</td>
<td>- Welcome foreigners</td>
<td>- Acquire practical skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Have fun and meet other volunteers</td>
<td>- Receive branded sports equipment (e.g. official uniforms)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Follow a free training programme</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Watch the ceremonies (e.g. opening and closing of the Olympic Games)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Take part in ‘in-house’ competitions (e.g. win holidays, training abroad etc.)</td>
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(Adapted from Ferrand and Chanavat, 2006 and added psychological benefits)
Volunteer programmes

In the case of a sports event, the volunteer management programme encompasses the programming of all the volunteer HRM actions (i.e. before, during and after the event). Of course, its main objective is to have the right people in the right place at the right time, and to do this at a much lower cost than if the required number of people had to be paid. However, saving money is not the only managerial objective. For many participants, the volunteers personify the event and volunteers play an essential role in promoting the event during the competition phase (Chappellet 2000). On an operational level, the volunteer programme could be split into four phases: 1) conception: (volunteer programme strategy, design and planning), 2) preparation (recruit, involve and assign volunteers), 3) operation (integrate, train and manage volunteers during the event), 4) closing down and legacy (closure, assessment, knowledge transfer and legacy).

Volunteer programmes could be categorised according to their main goal: 1) the operational implementation of the event, which involves executing the tasks covered by the volunteers’ posts within the organising committee relating to organisational performance and 2) the social performance, which involves valorising the skills acquired by the volunteers and facilitating their integration into the social fabric for the long-term development of the community. The volunteers’ jobs are different in terms of prestige, meaningfulness and competence. At the test-event before the World Championship in Nordic Skiing in Oslo in 2010, two categories of jobs were detected: sport specific and support jobs. It was a tendency that the men had the sport jobs, and the women the support jobs (Skirstad and Hanstad 2013). Volunteer programmes could be short-term (event time) or long-term orientated (legacy for the community). Based on the combination of these two dimensions, four categories of volunteer programmes could be identified (Figure 4.3).

**Category 1.** Programmes are prioritising the organisational performance in a short-term perspective. The main aim is to select people with the right skills for the right place. It characterises programmes whose objective is to allow all the volunteers to effectively fulfil their functions within the organisation and to carry out associated tasks (e.g. IAAF World Youth Athletics Championships Donetsk 2013 volunteer programme).

![Categorisation of event volunteer programmes](image)
The volunteers’ perspective

Category 2. Programmes are prioritising the organisational performance in a long-term perspective. It corresponds to programmes adapted to the volunteers’ expectations from a long-term skills development perspective. Thus, a volunteer’s involvement in the event is a stage in his/her personal fulfilment (this may be motivated by career objectives) in a given environment (e.g. UEFA EURO 2012 volunteer programme).

Category 3. Programmes are prioritising the social performance in a short-term perspective. It refers to programmes that focus on the development of the collective skills needed to work in a team within the framework of the event (e.g. Homeless World Cup 2012 volunteer programme).

Category 4. Programmes are prioritising the social performance in a long-term perspective. It relates to the development of collective skills from the point of view of valorising the expertise acquired and thereby facilitating the professional and/or social integration of the volunteer and the community development (e.g. London 2012 Olympic Games ‘Games makers’ programme).

In practice, volunteer programs generally combine several directions as regards to organizational and social performance. We highlight the fact that three categories of stakeholders (event right holders, organising committees, government and local authorities) have an influence on the event volunteer programme and they shape its objectives and characteristics.

A synthesis of the latest research on sport events
to volunteer management

Previously, special issues on sport volunteerism have been published in the European Journal for Sport Management (1999), Sport Management Review (2006), the International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics (2012) and most recently the European Sport Management Quarterly in 2013. This latest special issue focuses on new perspectives within volunteering. Autoethnography is used to uncover the nuances of the experience of being a volunteer at the 2010 Winter Olympic Games in Vancouver (Kodama et al. 2013). These findings supplement the quantitative research on event volunteers, and point to gaps in the management of the recruitment process and activities for the volunteers when they are not working. We need to develop the ways we research the volunteer experience in the future (Warner et al. 2011).

One problem with the research on volunteers and event volunteers is that the researcher does not define the concept and its interpretation. The discussion often treats volunteering as a unidimensional category lacking complexity; therefore, the concept needs further scrutiny. Another problem is the lack of a theoretical-based use of motivation; therefore, there exists little consensus about which theoretical perspective to use in the study of volunteers. This chapter has examined which types of volunteers exist in sport events; now we want to look at the theories, which have been used. Event volunteerism is a typical ad hoc form of participation, where it is the event, which is the central point. ‘Episodic’ volunteerism (MacDuff 2004) or ‘revolving-door’, ‘plug-in’ and ‘drop-by’ voluntarism (Putnam 1995, Dekker and Halman 2003) or reflexive voluntarism in contrast to traditional voluntarism (Hustinx and Lammertyn 2003) describe this activity. The type of volunteers we have in events influence the way the managers have to behave in order to treat them adequately.

Until now, the main interests have been to find out who the volunteers are, and why they volunteer. Few studies have researched the heterogeneity of volunteers (exceptions being gender differences – Downward et al. 2005, Skirstad and Hanstad 2013 – Cultural differences – Hoeber 2010). While there is little consensus about how to define motivation, there exists a consensus that motivation is a process (e.g. Maehr and Braskamp 1986), and the motivational processes can
be defined by the psychological constructs that energise, direct and regulate achievement behaviour (Roberts 2001). The individual behaviour is the focus (e.g. Williams et al. 1995, Farrell et al. 1998, Strigas and Jackson 2003, Green and Chalip 2004, Downward et al. 2005, Costa et al. 2006, Fairley et al. 2007, Maclean and Hamm 2007, Allen and Shaw 2009, Bang and Ross 2009, Nichols and Ojala 2009, Pauline and Pauline 2009, Shaw 2009, Treuren 2009, Chanavat and Ferrand 2010, Surujlal 2010, Love et al. 2011, Wollebæk et al. 2014). On the micro-level, there are motives, sociodemographic characteristics and personality traits. However, perhaps motivation cannot only be understood on purely personal (individual) terms as the psychologists do. We also need to see the effects at the meso-level, the organisational level (Studer and von Schnurbein 2012, Wicker and Hallmann 2013) and the macro-level, the societal level with values, policies and social capital affecting volunteering (Haski-Leventhal et al. 2009, Hustinx and Meijs 2011, Kristiansen et al. 2014).

Volunteerism changes through the different stages in the organisational socialization (Haski-Leventhal and Bargal 2008) and over time (Hustinx and Lammertyn 2003). Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) introduced a new analytical framework of ‘styles of volunteering’ (SOV) in traditional and reflexive or modern styles. Research also shows that volunteers combine different motives in a mix that suits the individual volunteer (Shaw 2009). The study of the World Cup in Nordic Skiing (Skirstad and Hanstad 2013) reported younger female volunteers were involved in event volunteering from a reflexive style of volunteering, and their motives were more focused upon their own benefits of having participated on their résumé and getting an increased network than the traditional values of helping others. Their research confirmed the findings of Downward et al. (2005).

Another research theme is the recruitment and retention/intentions for volunteering in the future (Hanlon and Jago 2004, Costa et al. 2006, Bang et al. 2009, Doherty 2009, Pauline 2011, Neufeind et al. 2013). Bang et al. (2009) examined the relationship between motivations and commitment as predictors of volunteers’ intentions to continue to volunteer in the future. Costa et al. (2006) measured the effect on training and community commitment in the Sunbelt IndyCarnival, and they suggested the training enhanced both volunteer commitment and satisfaction. Doherty (2009) reviewed the 2001 Canadian Summer Games where she analysed (in a post–event survey) volunteers’ experiences at the event, and whether or not these experiences influenced intentions to volunteer in the future. Hanlon and Jago (2004) analysed data obtained from semi-structured interviews with managers at the Australian Open Tennis Championships (AOTC) and the Australian Formula One Grand Prix (AFOGP). The analysis showed the need for tailored retention strategies for full-time personnel in the first couple of months after an event, and for seasonal personnel in between events. Neufeind et al. (2013) examined how job characteristics and appreciation influence volunteers’ satisfaction and intent to continue volunteering after the European Football Championship in 2008. Pauline’s (2011) findings from a professional golf tournament revealed that positive interactions with volunteers, event staff and developing one’s skills while doing their work were all important factors in considering intent to remain.

We have transferred three broad frameworks for explaining the complexity on volunteering to sport events, and that has widened our understanding of volunteering. The different models have been of help in locating issues previously not enough explored and likely to discover new approaches and insights. The three frameworks are the following:

1. a hybrid conceptual framework of volunteering (Hustinx, et al. 2010);
2. the volunteer process model with the ‘life-cycle of volunteers’ (Omoto and Snyder 2002); and
3. the volunteer stages and transitions model (Haski-Leventhal and Bargal 2008).
The hybrid conceptual framework of volunteering (Hustinx et al. 2010), takes complexity into consideration as well as contradictions. The first model interprets three challenges or layers of complexity in the framework: the problem of the definition of volunteerism, the problem of multidisciplinary and the problem of theory as multidimensional. DiMaggio (1995) argues that the best theories are hybrids and combine different approaches. The core issue of new theory is many times to see the world with new eyes. The second model analyses the life-cycle phases (i.e. antecedents, experiences and consequences) the volunteer goes through as well as three levels of analysis (i.e. individual, organisation and social system). This can give a better understanding of the processes of role definitions (preventing conflicts) and in that way improve the coordination of volunteers. The third model analyses the transitions (i.e. nominee, newcomer, emotional involvement, established volunteering and retiring) the volunteers go through and the processes. They focus on the changes (the process) the volunteers undergo when they enter an organisation. The question is how well do such theoretical frameworks ‘travel’ beyond the sphere of the social voluntary organisations to sport organisations? The different theoretical frameworks can be of value in order to see what is needed to add as components to the existing knowledge (e.g. the life cycle of volunteering and how volunteering changes the volunteers). It helps to illumine what was missing in the process the volunteers went through. Even if researchers from these different fields combine in an interdisciplinary manner and challenge each other, we are sure the insight and reflections will improve. We argue as Doherty (2013: 1) does that, ‘it is time to engage in interdisciplinary research in sport management as no one has all the answers’. Amis and Silk (2005: 362) also stressed that sport management researchers ‘need to be open to competing discourses and viewpoints’, and Skinner and Edwards (2005) stated that they found potentially greater benefit from interdisciplinary cooperation. The merits of interdisciplinary research are new ways of conceptualizing phenomena, and seeing problems from new angles.

Based on these frameworks, we have designed a voluntary cube (see Figure 4.4) that can be used as a framework in researching volunteers in the future. Through such an exercise, one can detect the ‘blind spots’ and where research is needed. In the future, it seems obvious to take into consideration the 45 different cells of the volunteer cube (Figure 4.4) to see if all the different cells have been researched as life cycles of the volunteers (i.e. antecedent, experience and

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Figure 4.4 Frameworks to use when researching volunteers – volunteer cube (Skirstad 2012b, Skirstad 2013)
consequence), process perspective (i.e. nominee, newcomer, emotional involvement, established volunteering, retiring) and the different levels (i.e. individual, organisational, societal). We think there is a need for interdisciplinary theory building.

The practitioner’s perspective on sports event volunteer management

Structured volunteer programmes relate mainly to major sporting events. One-off or recurring smaller events are based on empirical individual and organisational learning. Generally they are not formalised. There are a number of government initiatives and programmes aimed at volunteering in general such as the Step into Sport (SIS) programme in the United Kingdom which targets young people aged 11 to 19 who are within the school system. The programme provides coordinated opportunities for young people to engage in leadership and volunteering roles both within their schools and the local community. This leads us in this chapter to present the structure of volunteer programs related to one-off or recurring major sporting events. We conclude this section emphasising the differences with grassroots programs.

The management of volunteer programs for major sports events now focuses on organisational and social performance considering the legacy. This is due to the mission of holding international sports rights organisations (IOC, FIFA) and some other sponsors, and the involvement of the various actors involved in the territory hosting the event (local authorities, associations, universities).

The volunteer programme and managerial processes

Generally, the process of managing a sports event can be divided into four phases (see Figure 4.5). This process conforms to the definition of a project proposed by Maders and Clet (2002) in their study of project management, that is to say, an objective to be attained by one or more people working within a precise context, a fixed time-scale and with limited means, and applying appropriate processes and tools. The project management tools and methods that can be used to help achieve a fixed objective are outlined. However, the ‘knowledge transfer’ will allow to perpetuate

![Figure 4.5 The four phases of an event volunteer programme](image-url)
and capitalise on the skills and expertise built up during the four organising phases. It fosters the experience gained so it can be applied to organising other events and, more importantly, it ensures this experience contributes to the development of the stakeholders involved. The volunteer programme is related to each phase of the event’s management and contributes to its success and to the organising committee’s mission.

**Event programme phases**

*Phase 1: Conceiving the strategy and designing the volunteer programme*

During the organisation of a sports event, the rights owner (or delegated organiser) is at the centre of a network of stakeholders, who themselves have rights, power, legitimacy and obligations. The dynamic of this system must be controlled (governance) in order to define a strategy for the management of ‘its’ volunteer human resources. Thus, the general volunteer management strategies adopted for events such as the FIFA Football World Cup 2014 and the Olympic Games 2012 differ.

The different forms of governance will influence the strategy and implementation of a volunteer programme. Above all, there is political governance, which covers the obligations and recommendations of the rights owner. For example, the IOC, FIFA and IAAF draw up volunteer programme specifications. However, they can only, at best, provide recommendations for the long-term extension of that programme as part of a social development project.

The strategic management of a volunteer programme involves defining objectives, setting up the policies and plans required to meet these objectives and allocating the resources needed to implement these policies. The organising committee has to define a global strategy for a volunteer programme that takes into account the expectations of the primary stakeholders. This is followed by an analysis of the programme as a collaborative project.

**MATCH THE STRATEGIES AND GOALS OF THE STAKEHOLDERS INVOLVED IN THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAMME**

This involves the cooperation between and accommodation of the organising committee and its stakeholders. Here, the main difficulties result from the diversity of the parties and their objectives, which may be difficult to reconcile. This is especially the case when implementing a system of governance that combines operational objectives relating to the organisation of the event and societal objectives aimed at ensuring social development before, during and after the event.

From this perspective, it is necessary to get to a shared vision of CSR, as well as a consensus on the objectives (functional and social), the strategy to adopt and the resources to commit. These objectives can be attained via different modes of governance, including a cooperative mode (Aoki 1984) in which the stakeholders are encouraged to cooperate rather than suffer the consequences of a conflict. This mode of governance is particularly suited to sports events, as the stakeholders must work together to achieve an operational balance. The system functions by creating ‘stakeholder value’. Such approaches are based on the principle that the success of an organisation must be measured according to the satisfaction of the parties involved. The management of the players in the system is perceived as both a means and an end. Societal responsibility is a collective issue; hence, society is best served when the system adopts a sustainable development approach.

We have highlighted the fact that some stakeholders, such as sponsors, local authorities and sporting bodies, have a greater interest in promoting social development than others. It relates to the legacy of an event, which can take several years to prepare, last only a few days, but have
effects that continue to be felt for more than a generation (e.g. Olympic Games). Sponsors have also understood the importance of the development of societal issues (e.g. McDonald’s in relation with the London 2012 Olympic Games). Other organisations may adopt a strictly functional and short-term vision, considering the volunteer solely as an event-related resource.

THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAMME AS A COLLABORATIVE PROJECT

A volunteer programme is capable of creating value and of providing a link between the event’s stakeholders. It can be considered an element of relationship marketing, which, according to Parvatiyar and Sheth (2001) is a continuous process involving a commitment to cooperative and collaborative activities and programmes involving partners and users, with the aim of creating or increasing the economic (and/or social) value of the whole at a lower cost.

According to this framework an event volunteer programme could be conceived and implemented with the four following phases:

• engaging and achieving stakeholder agreement on the programme’s objectives;
• designing the volunteer programme;
• governing and implementing the programme; and
• improving the programme and launching new actions based on the valuable relationship with the event stakeholders.

Phase 2: Planning, recruiting and assigning volunteers

Once the global strategy and volunteer programme design has been defined, it must be translated into concrete actions on the field. The operational management process is divided into three steps: planning, recruiting and assigning volunteers. The steps design and implementation is based on the principles of human resources management and the requirements of a quality system.

PLANNING THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAMME

This phase is crucial because it is here that the tasks required to fulfil the programme are identified, coordinated and scheduled. The management of the project must be designed and programmed according to its objectives, technical content, time limits and available resources.

A volunteer programme must be carefully planned and organised in order to define the timing and location of all the phases and stages needed to complete it successfully. The volunteer programme planning phase uses the planning budget as a basis for defining the phases to be carried out, the resources required (i.e. human, financial and material) and the procedures and tools that will be used before, during and after the event. Each phase must then be divided into stages, the person responsible for each stage must be nominated and, in certain cases, performance indicators and evaluation criteria will need to be chosen. This planning work enables the details of each phase to be defined (e.g. precise duration, coordination to be set up, potential overlaps etc.).

DEFINING THE NUMBER AND TYPES OF VOLUNTEER REQUIRED

Once the tasks included in the volunteer programme have been defined, planned and organised, a detailed analysis of the personnel needed to carry out the programme must be made in order to determine the number and types of volunteers required. Depending on the format of the event, this analysis can be carried out for each functional unit (e.g. marketing, accreditation,
security etc.) or for each venue (for multi-site competitions, such as the Universiades). The event’s rights owner may provide the organisers with a more or less detailed specification for volunteer requirements. This is both a help and a constraint that has to be considered in relation to previous experience. The procedure involves identifying global human resources needs (i.e. salaried staff and volunteers).

Defining the number and types of volunteers required is a fundamental phase that affects many of the actions included in the programme (e.g. the number of uniforms to order etc.). The first step is to prepare a list of operational posts to fill, which can be used as the basis for an organisational chart. Then, a detailed job description should be drawn up for each post, listing the tasks to be carried out, together with the skills, qualifications and qualities required. This preparatory work will facilitate the recruitment and assignment of applicants.

The number of volunteers required is often overestimated, as organisers see volunteers as a cheap resource and therefore give themselves a large margin of error to allow for unforeseen circumstances and for volunteers who withdraw from the programme. Organisers must plan for a 15 to 30 percent dropout rate, the 5 percent of applicants who turn down the post offered and the volunteers needed to form a team of reserves. At the same time, they must be careful not to take on too many volunteers because they do not like to stay idle. This can only be avoided by making projections into the running phase of the event. The main objective is to analyse the overall requirement for volunteers, based on tasks and posts that really exist and that are essential for organising the event.

RECRUITMENT AND ASSIGNMENT OF VOLUNTEERS

Within eight days of the recruitment process opening, the 2014 FIFA World Cup Brazil Organising Committee announced that it had already reached its target number of 90,000 applications for the Volunteer Programme, which includes the FIFA Confederations Cup Brazil 2013, the 2014 FIFA World Cup Brazil and the draws for the two events. In order to avoid causing frustration, the recruitment and assignment phase must follow a well-defined process that usually begins with the launch of a targeted recruitment campaign and ends with a definitive assignment that, depending on the event, may result in the signature of an agreement.

The success of this ‘recruitment and assignment’ stage of the volunteer programme is directly dependent on the needs analysis stage. ‘Recruit early to recruit less’ is a good general maxim to follow. Reliable and well-trained selectors, who will select applicants on the basis of the job summaries drawn up during the previous phase, should carry out one-on-one interviews. These summaries should ensure there is a good match between the profile of the applicant and the post to be filled.

The goal is to ensure a reciprocal commitment between the volunteer and the organisers. The organisers must ensure the profiles of the applicants match the posts to be filled. It is also essential to evaluate each applicant’s motivations and expertise. This is a skilled task requiring dedicated and well-trained selectors (often volunteers): Only ‘quality’ selectors are capable of choosing the ‘right’ volunteers.

Phase 3: Volunteers integration, training and operational management during the event

Volunteers are successful applicants who accept to commit their time and energy to helping organise an event. To ensure volunteers are operational on ‘D-day’, organisers must integrate them into the organising committee and train them. As well as technical training, it is vital to
carry out team-building and team-integration actions to make sure the volunteers understand and feel an integral part of the organisation.

Particular attention must be paid to this phase, as, just as it is necessary to take on good people, it is also essential to ensure their continued commitment. To do this, volunteers must be made to feel welcome, they must be trained and they must be given a sense of responsibility. In this respect, information sessions combined with fun team-building activities can be used to facilitate group cohesion and communication. This will enable managers to successfully complete their collective tasks before the competition starts. Just before the event, many organisers have a kick-off for the volunteers. Senior volunteer programme managers, departmental managers and the general manager and president of the organising committee should become involved in these operations in order to ‘set the tone’.

The prime objective is to welcome new volunteers to the organisation, to involve and integrate them into the project and to generate a feeling of belonging. It is important for volunteers to feel useful to the organisation and not used by it. In addition, the training actions should be designed to motivate volunteers and make them operational by giving them the best possible preparation for carrying out their tasks.

Once volunteers have been recruited, integrated and trained, they must be provided with the conditions necessary for carrying out their tasks within the event’s organisation. The volunteer human resources team gives the volunteers’ work schedules and contact details to team leaders in advance. This is another step in ensuring the operational success of the volunteers’ actions during the event. Being in direct and daily contact with the volunteers under their control, team leaders (or team managers) have a fundamental role to play in the smooth running of operations.

Team leaders must possess certain managerial skills (e.g. capable of implementing the steering tools needed to meet objectives, capable of writing reports following debriefings etc.) and they must also have excellent motivational skills. If teams are to meet their objectives, team leaders must instil a sense of responsibility among their team members and unite them around a common goal.

Phase 4: Celebration, assessment, knowledge transfer and legacy

This phase is an integral part of the volunteer programme. However, as it takes place when the cameras are no longer focused on the event and the media and spectators have gone home, it is often overlooked. It has four objectives. The first is to ‘celebrate’ the volunteers. The second is to evaluate and produce an overall review of the volunteer programme (processes, tools, players etc.). The third is to capitalise on the knowledge acquired to manage the transfer to other organisations. Finally, it is to activate the networks that have been built up in order to reinvest them in other initiatives to ensure a legacy for the host region.

**Volunteer Celebration**

Volunteer celebration recognises the value of their involvement for the organising committee and the community. Volunteers are the champions of the community. It is essential to acknowledge the involvement of volunteers as an integral part of the event’s success. The volunteer party is a ‘celebration’ that aims at recognising the enormous value that volunteers add to the sport event and the community. Volunteering is a reciprocal relationship – the organising committee, the community and individuals benefit from the efforts of volunteers, whilst volunteers...
The volunteers’ perspective

themselves experience the satisfaction of giving, enjoy increased community involvement, learn new skills, build confidence and gain experience.

VOLUNTEER PROGRAMME QUALITY ASSESSMENT

This process should be conducted from different perspectives. From the management perspective, the first stage is to carry out a review of the volunteer programme. Each area manager is asked to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the processes in which they were involved.

The quality perceived by volunteers can be evaluated using interviews. Then, a questionnaire based on questions derived from interviews with the different categories of people involved could be designed considering various dimensions such as operations and responsibility, services offered and commitment, components of the event’s image, knowledge of the event and suggestions, as well as socio-demographic data related to the event.

In addition to the points noted by the organisers during the operational phases, a global evaluation of the event should be made by interviewing all the parties involved in the programme: volunteers, unit managers, volunteer managers, selectors, trainers etc. A survey of the general public will also produce interesting data.

KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT AND TRANSFER

Knowledge management is a crucial issue. Indeed, competencies form another strategic resource that can be difficult to capitalise on due to the loss of individual skills (e.g. staff turnover and retirement of experts), the loss of collective skills (e.g. breaking up of project teams and reorganisations), forgotten knowledge (e.g. previous experience, rejected solutions and failures) and undiscovered skills (e.g. insufficient knowledge of skills profiles, poor sharing of skills and ignorance of new solutions). In event management, people who do not necessarily belong to the same unit and who may be widely separated geographically share knowledge and skills. In order to create value from its intellectual capital a knowledge management system must be set up.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND LEGACY

The volunteer programme creates strong bonds between persons. During the event, these volunteers and the stakeholders involved in the programme enjoy unforgettable moments, share common values, and experience intense emotions. The UEFA EURO 2008 experience highlights this issue:

A strong volunteer programme will also support the long-term benefits of the event. Lessons learned, results, modules, databases, computer programmes and much more besides will be re-useable for future major events in both countries. [. . .] The volunteer concept shows that we are treating our volunteers as “hosts” and therefore as our partners. Euro 2008 SA is thus setting an important example by linking up sport and the general public. The volunteer should be clearly visible and noticeable.

(UEFA 2008: 4)

As we have highlighted on several occasions, volunteer programmes should be implemented as a collective project that unites the event’s stakeholders. By undertaking new projects, it is possible
to ensure the continued existence of these networks. Doherty (2009) stresses the fact that volunteers’ experiences may translate into further community volunteering, either at another event or on a more regular basis with one or more community organisations.

The collaborative strategy between the OC and its stakeholders should be an ongoing process of engaging in collaborative activities and programmes to create or enhance mutual managerial and social value at a reduced cost. Its implementation is in line with the model presented by Ferrand and McCarthy (2008) which encompasses the four following steps: 1) building relationships with the partners in conceiving the volunteer programme as a collaborative project where the parties involved are engaging resources; 2) governing and managing the programme involving the partners in the decision-making process; 3) assessing both the organisational and social performance considering the partners expectations; and 4) improving the volunteer programme and launching new initiatives based on the valuable relationship between the stakeholders.

Figure 4.6 provides a schematic view of a volunteer programme management system, showing the elements that must be taken into account and the relationships between them. The stages of a volunteer programme can be divided into two groups according to their ultimate objective: ‘recruitment and commitment’ and ‘loyalty and operational involvement’. To be successful, such programmes must apply three key principles: communicate, motivate and reward. In addition, applying a quality management approach to a volunteer programme facilitates the design and implementation of the processes required to provide the level of service demanded by the organising committee (at the best possible cost) and to satisfy the expectations of the essential stakeholders, at the centre of which are the volunteers.

Figure 4.6 The management system’s programme for event volunteers (adapted from Ferrand and Chanavat 2006)
The volunteers’ perspective

A discussion and thoughts as to the role of the stakeholders related to moral and social concerns

Donaldson and Dunfee’s (1999) theory of integrative social contracts provides a possible foundation for stakeholder analysis. According to this theory, company managers have an ethical obligation that leads them to contribute to the well-being of society. They must satisfy their stakeholders’ interests without violating the principles of distributive justice. There is a moral contract between society and a company, and this is recognised in so far as it serves the company’s interests. This social contract matches with the missions of the sport governing bodies. These organisations are socially focussed and it is improper to use the concept of CSR.

Sports events’ volunteer programs are part of the normative approach. Indeed, considering only organisational performance and instrumental stakeholder approach, the organising committee is not obliged by any rules to have volunteers, except when the event rights holder imposes a voluntary program.

Since the 1980s, more and more sport events stakeholders regard the organising and hosting of sports events as a way of ensuring their sustainable development in that the organisation of events brings economic benefits as well as social benefits with an environmental concern (e.g. O’Brien and Gardiner 2006, Ziakas and Costa 2011). The social performance is the effective implementation of the social mission of an organisation in accordance with its social values. The term thus refers to the implementation of CSR related to a sport event organisation. The volunteer programme is part of this type of activity.

Volunteers are often referred to as the ‘face of the event’, and organisers rely on a positive image that reflects well on the event and the organisers. That impact can also be realised in the larger community, as citizens become involved to support the event and make their community a better place. According to Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991: 270) a legacy of community volunteerism is a worthwhile mandate of any organising committee because volunteers ‘strengthen the demographic fabric of society’. This capacity reflects the ability of community members to ‘voluntarily organise, manage, utilise, and enhance those resources available to them in addressing local needs’ (Brennan, 2005: 20).

Sport events are the perfect occasion to involve a large number of individuals as volunteers. They create a sub-community of individuals connected through a collective mission to stage a successful community event. This cohesion should be cultivated so it can contribute to the development of the host city or region, improving the social, cultural and psychological circumstances in communities. This is even more important in the case of one-time events that end with the dissolution of the project organisation, resulting in the loss of an important social link for members of the organising team who do not belong to a permanent organisation (e.g. cultural association, sports club etc.). Thus, volunteers’ experiences with an event may be expected to shape future voluntary action in football and in community development programmes.

The London 2012 Inspire programme incarnated this vision and the deep commitment to ensuring that the Games generate a lasting legacy. The programme’s goal was to inspire the whole of the UK to be part of London 2012 and to ensure the Games had as wide a reach as possible. It aimed to inspire change across the UK by focusing on six key themes: sport, culture, education, sustainability, volunteering and business opportunities and skills. Inspire was a collaborative programme that brought together LOCOG and the Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) and project organisers. It exemplifies the stages of relationship development outlined in Sheth and Parvatiyar’s (2000) model and presented in the previous section.
Volunteers are essential for community sport events organised by local sports clubs, leisure centres, youth groups and community organisations. In such initiatives, each volunteer has their own support network of mentors and volunteer coordinators who maintain regular contact. Volunteering providers are important. They are non-profit organisations and groups that are independent and self-governing as well as other non-profit entities, such as public authorities. They are active in the public arena and their activity must be aimed, at least in part, at contributing to the public good.

There is a link between mega sports events and community events. Indeed, community volunteering can be part of the social heritage of these events, and it can feed in the country with a strong culture related to volunteering as is the case in the northern European countries. The benefits to the local community most commonly cited by these volunteers are similar to those claimed to represent the value of sport to society as a whole. The most important benefit reported was that without volunteers there would not be so many opportunities for people to participate in sport.

Conclusion and suggestions for future research directions

Volunteers are one of the many heterogeneous stakeholders in a sport event. They are usually the largest group. The definition of being a volunteer is often diffuse. The research is complicated by this lack of precise definition and theoretical foundations. This chapter identifies three main types of volunteers involved: the regular volunteer, the secondee (sponsor-paid volunteers) and the indirect volunteer. Within this first group, we also have formal and informal volunteers.

Many of the other stakeholders are involved in the volunteer program. The volunteers’ benefit of proactive involvement and previous motivations depend on age, sex, social class, life cycle of the volunteer and the stage in the person’s volunteer career. The jobs of the volunteers are divided into sport-specific jobs and support jobs and if the event has a short-term or long-term involvement.

Further investigations should not only be on the micro-level (individual), but also on the meso- (organisational) and macro-levels (the society). The research will also benefit from interdisciplinary approaches. The introduction of the volunteer cube can help us find the black holes we should examine more closely to increase our knowledge.

The four phases of managing a sports event volunteer programme are described. The first phase is conceiving the strategy and designing the volunteer programme, and ensuring that the stakeholder’s goals and strategies are matched. It is essential that the volunteer programme be a collaborative project. In the second phase the planning, recruitment and assigning of the volunteers occurs. It is important to calculate a 15 to 30 percent drop-out rate. The third phase consists of the integration, training and scheduling of the volunteers. The last phase is celebration, assessment (evaluation), knowledge transfer and legacy.

In order to cover the gaps in our current knowledge, six suggestions for further research are recommended:

1. Use interdisciplinary research on volunteers in events so that the reflections and insights are improved and the problems are seen from different angles across disciplines.
2. Research volunteers’ perceptions of the events/Games, because these are not currently researched to any degree.
3. Investigate newcomers’ experiences of the events versus the experienced volunteers’ perceptions (look into the 45 cells of the volunteer cube to see where one finds the ‘blind spots’ where research is needed).
4 Do longitudinal research so one can see if the volunteers’ motives change as their life cycles change.
5 Study the service quality of the volunteers’ work.
6 Look into negative effects of volunteering as well as conflicts of interest.

Suggested readings


Notes

1 Added by the authors.
2 For mega-events the training is implemented using e-learning platform (e.g. UEFA EURO 2012 general training was implemented using e-learning and covered knowledge of UEFA, EURO 2012, host countries, teams and the role of volunteers in the tournament).

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