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Gender matters in sport event volunteering

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The theoretical framework of Hustinx and Lammertyn on reflexive and traditional styles of volunteering is used to examine the differences between female and male volunteers at a sport event. Our study of the Nordic Skiing World Cup 2010 is an online-study involving pre- and post-event questionnaires. There were 659 respondents who answered both the questionnaires, a response rate of 63 %. Our findings confirm the results from an earlier study by Downward et al. (2005) that a major reason for women to volunteer is to improve their social capital and to become involved in useful networks. Motives were also examined in relation to membership of the sport club and/or history of previous volunteering. Men scored more highly on external and intrinsic motives. The data show that women to a lesser degree were members of a sport club and had less previous experience of volunteering at events than the men. The sport event seems to be a meeting place between traditional volunteers, dominated by males who are members of sport clubs with previous experience from other events, and the late modern volunteer culture which characterizes younger females.

Keywords: reflexive and traditional styles of volunteering, gender differences, sport event

INTRODUCTION

Why should managers of sport events concern themselves with gender? This paper will explain why. The objective of this paper is to understand the gender difference among sport event volunteers and generate knowledge that can be used directly in relation to female and male volunteers in the future. Our key question is: do female sport volunteers have weak ties to organized sport and associated with this, instrumental motives; while male sport volunteers have strong ties to organized sport and, associated with this, intrinsic motives? The intention of this research is to add to the knowledge base on sport event voluntarism in Norway by using the new perspective of reflexivity and collectivity (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003) as a back-drop and a gender lens. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) present one of the few attempts in the literature to create a theoretical framework to help understand late modern volunteerism. The framework is based on the sociologists Beck (1992) and Giddens' (1990) arguments about the decline of traditional and rigid social structures such as social class, religion, or family. These characteristics, it is suggested, predetermined many choices in modern society. In the reflexive, late modern society, people are held to be increasingly responsible for creating their own destiny or writing their own biography. One implication of this theory is that organizational affiliations are less clear and less strong than before. Traditional collective voluntarism is a symbol of collective identity and belonging, whereas late modern volunteerism, called reflexive volunteerism, is often limited in time and episodic in character (Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2003). The theoretical framework is explained in more detail later.

Event studies are an emerging academic field. Major events require a substantial volunteer labour force. The volunteers are fundamental to the success of the event. The focus here is the FIS World Cup 2010 (hereafter called 'WSC test event'), which was the test event for the FIS Nordic World Ski Championship in 2011, held in Oslo, Norway. The Nordic World Championship (WC) in Skiing is organized every two years. According to Jago and

Shaw (1998) a major sport event is defined as a national or international sport event, conducted over more than one day and engaging a minimum of 150 volunteers in operational positions. Both the WSC test event and Oslo 2011 were categorized as major sporting events according to this definition. Generally 'sport event' refers to a one-off or annual event which is of short duration.

Because volunteers are so important for the event, we need to develop our understanding of who they are, what they do as sport volunteers, and why. Doherty (2009) argues that a greater sophistication is needed in the management of sport events and this knowledge can be used to inform the more effective use of volunteers in the future.

The first section of the paper provides the contextual background relating to sport in Norway, particularly skiing and in relation to women's role in sport. This is seen particularly in the light of the WSC test event. The second section gives an overview of previous research on sport events and gender. The third section focuses on the theoretical framework for the study, and the methods used in the empirical work. Results are described in the next section. We conclude with a discussion of implications of the findings for event managers.

CONTEXT OF SPORT IN NORWAY

Norway has a prominent status as a sporting country, especially in winter sports. Sport is organized by an umbrella organization, the Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF). It is a membership organization. Forty per cent of the members of all sport clubs are female (NIF, 2011). More than 12,000 sport clubs and 54 sport federations are united in NIF. Norway has a very active sports population and one of the highest participation rates in exercise and physical activity in the world (Breivik & Sand, 2011). In 2007, 78% of women and 71% of men engaged in weekly exercise or physical

activity. These percentages have increased since data were first collected in 1985. Since 2003 women have been more active than men (Breivik & Sand, 2011).

NIF has quota regulations which require that the members of a board should reflect the gender structure in each member organization. The NIF executive board now has a majority of females (6 out of 11) and from 2007 to 2011 NIF had its first elected female president in the 150 year history of the organization.

The Norwegian Ski Federation (NSF), which is the biggest shareholder of WC 2011, is the second largest sport federation in NIF and 41% of its members are female. Three of the thirteen board members were female (21%) at the time of the event. According to the Norwegian quota regulations in sport (NIF, 2008, §2-4), this proportion is lower than would be expected in light of the female membership. At the latest election of the NSF recently, five women were elected into the board, so now they represent 38% of the board.

Ski sport has traditionally been very conservative in Norway, and the ski federation has historically opposed many aspects of modernization (Goksøyr, 2011). The 17-member executive board of the international Ski Federation (FIS) is entirely male even though its statutes contain requirements in relation to gender equality (FIS, 2011).

CONTEXT OF THE TEST EVENT OF THE NORDIC WORLD SKI CHAMPIONSHIP 2010

In May 2006 the International Ski Federation assigned the FIS Nordic World Championship 2011 to Oslo. As is customary, the host nation organized a test event one year before. The WSC test event builds on the extension of the annual Holmenkollen ski festival, which has a 119 year history. The Organizing Committee for the WSC test event had a strong desire that volunteers should reflect the entire population of Oslo in ethnicity, age, and gender (Sollie, 2009). The recurring volunteers from the Holmenkollen events were an aging group,

and the organization wanted to attract younger persons. The WSC test event was set up as a limited liability company with two main shareholders, the NSF with 60 per cent of the shares and the Association for the Promotion of Skiing with 40 per cent. Today, most major events are organised as a limited liability company in order to spread the financial risk. Concerning the FIS Nordic World Championship, the Municipality of Oslo owns the facilities (two ski jumping hills and cross-country tracks) that were renewed for the world championship. The investment in the sport infrastructure for the event cost an estimated 1.4 billion NOK (260 million USD).

The executive board of the championship was established in January 2007, and a CEO was hired, who was female. Male CEOs have traditionally dominated the management boards of major events (Emery, 2011). The CEO of WSC was keen to ensure an appropriate gender balance among the staff and volunteers. The administrative group of leaders of the WSC was balanced (five men and five women). The staff was 65% female. Perhaps for the first time, gender was put actively on the agenda in connection with a sport event. The CEO was particularly aware of the necessity to have a diversified workforce, commenting: "You will never score a goal if you have a football team with 11 goal-getters, so we have to find people that complement each other so we get the best results".

RESEARCH ON MAJOR SPORT EVENT VOLUNTEERS

Downward, Lumsdon, and Ralston (2005) appear to be the only event researchers who have focused on gender differences. They studied volunteers at the 17th Commonwealth Games in 2002 in Manchester, UK. They found that the expectations of female and male volunteers concerning the event were very different. The women expected that experiences from the event would contribute to their personal and social capital to a much higher degree. Downward et al. (2005) suggested that major events had a broader profile of volunteers than a

one-off event, which has also been supported by research at the Olympic Games (Chalip, 2000). Mega events such as the Commonwealth Games and the Olympic Games had more male volunteers than female, and also more men than women were leaders. Men who are members of sport clubs and have experience from sport are attracted by sport events. Women are more attracted in order to develop their personal and social capital according to Ralston, Downward and Lumsdon (2004). Event volunteering is called informal or ad hoc volunteering. Some researchers found that job contacts were more important for women than men, and for the young compared to the elderly as showed by Williams, Dossa and Tompkins (1995) at the Alpine world cup for men in Canada.

Several of the events investigated were only for women. Farrell, Johnston and Twynam (1998) researched the Canadian championship in curling for women, and MacLean and Hamm (2007) investigated the Canadian Women's Golf Championship. This may account for the fact that female volunteers were in majority with approximately 60% at these two events. Most of the concepts and measures used in sport event research are copied from other contexts than sport (Green & Chalip, 1998). The Sport Event Volunteer Motivation Scale used by Farrell et al. (1998) was influenced by Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) who investigated volunteers in social service agencies. Farrell and associates used a 28-item special event motivation scale (SEVMS) based on the study of Cnaan and Golberg-Glen in their research of volunteers at the Canadian women's curling championship. Their study showed that that motivation of volunteers could be grouped into four categories: purposive, solidary, external traditions, and commitments. This was not in line with the Cnaan and Golberg-Glen study (1991) which found that the volunteers they studied in social service agencies would fulfil a combination of motives in order to have a satisfying experience.

Strigas and Jackson (2003), who investigated the demographic profile and primary motives of the volunteers in a city marathon in Florida, built on Farrell et al.'s work. In

addition they used the instrument Beard and Ragheb (1983) used to measure leisure motivation. Several of the items which did not apply to sport volunteers were dropped. Based on an exploratory factor analysis by Strigas and Jackson (2003) a five-factor model to explain volunteers' motivation appeared. They saw the need for a specific inventory for sport events. The five factors they observed were: purposive, leisure, external influences, material and egoistic. The most important motive was the egoistic factor, and this can be linked to self-actualization and achievement. Further, this motive is called reflexive by Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004) and is described more in the theoretical framework.

So far, little attention has been devoted to event-specific volunteering in Norway. This is strange considering the important role of volunteer work in Norwegian society (Lorentzen & Dugstad, 2011). Until recently organized activity in Norway has been based on what we may call the popular movement model. This model is characterized by being membership-based, broadly purposed with socially diverse organizations with institutional linkages between the local and national levels (Ibsen & Seippel, 2010). However, broader social processes such as differentiation, individualization, globalization, and increasing wealth have influenced the long-established organizations (Wollebæk, 2009). An increasing proportion of volunteers undertake voluntarily work but without formal membership in the organization they assist. Altogether, individuals have a weaker attachment to membership organizations. Their period of membership is shorter while many organizations are short lived (Wollebæk & Sivesind, 2010; Wollebæk & Selle, 2002).

Historically, Norwegian organizations have been strongly collective. Consequently, the change from what has been called traditional to reflexive voluntarism seems more striking here than in other countries. The same tendencies are found in the other Nordic countries.

Cuskelly, Hoyer and Auld (2006) have suggested that a majority of studies of sport event volunteers are atheoretical and include little analysis of the implications for volunteer

management. We aim to fill that void. It is also hoped that this more theoretical approach will prove of benefit to managers in recruiting and retaining female sport event volunteers.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Volunteering is changing concurrently with individualization processes in society (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003). Hustinx and Lammertyn seek to understand late modern volunteerism by making the distinction between reflexive and collective volunteerism. Most literature on volunteers' motives is either implicitly or explicitly based on social exchange theory. In this perspective the potential volunteer makes a rational cost/benefit analysis of what the individual can get out of the activity and behaves accordingly. In collective voluntarism considerations such as duty, habit and tradition are much more important. Collective volunteers are more likely to have intrinsic motives. Further, those who are organizational members do voluntary work because they take responsibility for the organization (Hustinx and Lammertyn, 2003). In reflexive or pragmatic voluntarism personal and more highly individualized desires are much more important.

The collective-oriented organizational society has a strong history in Norway (Wollebæk & Selle, 2002). However, the long tradition of volunteers as members of the organizations that they are working for, which have had an exceptional standing in Scandinavia, is becoming less strong (Wollebæk, Selle, & Lorentzen, 2000). A typical trait of reflexive voluntarism is that the participant has weak ties with the organization. A decoupling of membership and volunteering takes place (Putnam, 2000). One characteristic is that volunteering is limited in time and space and that the event is project-based. Sport event projects are typical for this kind of voluntarism, and it is the event, and not the organization behind the event that is central for the reflexive volunteer. The volunteer does not have responsibility for, or ownership in, the organization in the same way as a member would. More so than previously, volunteerism is an arena for personal expression and development,

and cautious investment in one's human and social capital, and less than hitherto is it an expression for collective identity and belonging. "Reflexive" volunteers are making up an increasing share of volunteers.

According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004) the most commonly encountered features of cultural modernization at the individual level are young age and higher education. The demands of succeeding individually in all areas of life regulate people's way of life, and also the types of action that are socially accepted. Increasing reflexive volunteering is part of this story. The event volunteers are therefore expected to be younger and with a higher education than those who also participate in organized sport. Echoing what Giddens calls *clever people* (Giddens, 1994, p. 7), Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) refer to *smart volunteers* who are able to connect "individual biographical conditions with appropriate volunteer opportunities" (p. 183). Smart volunteers actively pursue their private interests. Reflexive volunteerism is often limited in time and has an episodic character (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003).

A sport event is also the meeting place for the traditional volunteers who are members of the organization; they know the sport and participate in organized sport on a regular basis, and apply to the event in order to nurture their close social ties. The collective voluntarism reproduces complementary and traditional gender roles (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003). However, as these traditional roles are weakened, might one expect more females to become involved in event volunteering? The hypothesis is that those with the most reflexive attitude will be included among the modern and individualized volunteers. We can hypothesize that the event volunteers have lower motivational scores on intrinsic motivation and that the development of their own competence will be a more important motive for their participation. The empirical data will show if the (reflexive) modernization theory can help by shedding light on the possibly changing nature of voluntarism in sport events.

METHOD

Sample and data collection

Anyone who wanted to become a volunteer at the WSC test event had to go through a formal, electronic application process via a proprietary online portal (www.oslo2011.no). The application process started in August 2009 and from 1600 applicants 1045 volunteers were recruited for the WSC test event in Holmenkollen (13-14 March 2010). Volunteers selected to take part in the WSC test event were contacted with a request to participate in the survey before and after the event. The e-mail addresses were obtained from the 2011 organizer with whom we had close contact. The data were generated from two internet-based surveys (QuestBack) conducted with all volunteers (N=1045) by e-mail three weeks prior to the event which was held on March 14th and 15th 2010. The response rate was 77% (QB1) N= 800 persons. The data from before the WSC test event are reported elsewhere (Wollebæk, Skirstad & Hanstad, in press). The post-event survey was held one week after the event (QB2) and had a response rate of 71%. For both surveys we sent out three reminders. Only the answers from the 659 persons who responded to both the pre- and post-event questionnaires on-line were included in this study (QB3). The response rate was then 63%. To have the same participants from both before and after the competition is a strength of the research. The personal addresses were stored separately from the completed questionnaires in the database in order to ensure the confidentiality of the participants.

Construction of the questionnaire

Motivation why people participated as volunteers was measured by 20 statements for which the respondents were asked to indicate their agreement on a Likert type scale, ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree).

The statements were based on Strigas and Jackson (2003) and Farell et al. (1998) sport event volunteer research. We included sport event-specific motives such as seeing athletes perform, inspired by Doherty (2009). An item “you obtain insight in ski sport at elite level” was added. The items to measure motivation were consistent in the pre- and post-event questionnaire they received in e-mails.

Analysis

In order to address the research questions, statistical analysis was undertaken by the use of SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). An alpha level of 0.05 (5 %) was used throughout the analysis. In exploring differences between men and women according to volunteer subgroups, responses were cross-tabulated and chi-square tests were conducted. Exploratory factor analyses were used in order to identify the underlying factors within the motivation items. Direct Oblimin rotation was selected since the motivational items were correlated. Items with factor loadings lower than 0.5 and items with cross loadings were excluded. Cronbach's alpha of 0.7 was considered as acceptable in reliability tests of factors (Nunally & Bernstein, 1994). Independent sample's t-tests were conducted to identify differences in motivation between men and women. In the analysis, we compare two groups with each other based on their affiliation with organized sport and previous experience from sport events. Organized sport was defined as being a member of a sport club. We expect the pure event volunteers, i.e. those with no formal ties to a sport club, to be younger, higher educated and to place more weight on extrinsic and instrumental motives. The volunteers were also grouped according to gender. Our assumption is that we will have more females in the group without ties to the sport club and with no previous event experience.

RESULTS

Composition of the volunteers

Descriptive statistics give an overview of the volunteers during the test WSC. We have included gender distribution, age, education, income, and employment status. In addition we include hours worked voluntarily in sports, experience from major sport events, the type of work as volunteers, and motives for taking part. The gender distribution among the volunteers is 54.6% male (N= 359) and 45.4% female (N=299). Several international findings show a balanced or more female-centered core of volunteers. One reason may be that many of these investigations have looked at women's sport activities (Farrell et al. 1998; MacLean & Hamm, 2007). The ratio among volunteers in Norwegian sport in general is 58% male (Wollebæk & Sivesind, 2010) and 60% male members in the umbrella organization for sport (NIF, 2011). The average age among the volunteers was 49 years for males and 39 years for females (Table 1).

Table 1 in here

Table 1 shows that 61% of the male volunteers and 39% of the female volunteers at the WSC test event have a direct link to the organized sport. Forty-two per cent of the volunteers appear without a connection to organized sport (membership), and half of these have never volunteered in a sport event. Sixty-one per cent of these are female. In other words, for a fifth of the volunteers this is their first meeting as a volunteer in a sport event. In comparison, among those with a sport affiliation, 58% have volunteered at events previously, and 35% in Holmenkollen arena. This led to statements like "This is how we always have done it here" according to the leader of human relations. Altogether two-thirds have event experience; whilst 42% of the women have no sport event experience. Regardless of whether they were members in a sport club, male volunteers were, on average, older than females.

Table 2 in here

More women have higher education (74.5%) than men (62.4%), but they had lower average income. This is partly because more female volunteers are students (20.3%) than men (5.7%), and more females are in part-time work (8.8% vs. 2.5%). The most striking difference is that the WSC test event volunteers are significantly better educated than sporting volunteers in general and the general public. In 2010, over half of the women in the 25–29 years age-group had higher education, and 51% of the women and 36% of the men in the age group 30 -39 years had higher education . This is a larger proportion in higher education of 17% for the women and 8 % for men compared with ten years ago (Statistics Norway, 2011). These findings confirm that volunteering is more frequent among higher socio-economic groups (Anheier & Salamon, 1999).

Division of work

The volunteers were classified according to the tasks chosen. The volunteers chose their preferred task and mostly they had their wishes fulfilled. ‘Sport functions’ refer to work related directly to sport with either cross-country skiing or ski jumping and a few who coordinated the combined sport. ‘Support functions’ refer to work such as transportation, media management and spectator service. According to the theory, the volunteers undertaking the sport functions were expected to be those who undertook the collective (traditional) form of volunteering. This is a horizontal division of the work.

Table 3 in here

Almost half of the men had jobs as sport officials, compared with only one fifth of the women. Almost 80 per cent of the women had support jobs, compared to little more than the half of the men. Men dominated the sport group, and women the support groups. Significant differences existed between men and women in these groups ($\chi^2(1, N=653)=38.511, p<0.001$). This shows a very stereotyped gender situation. Most organizations are established by men for

men (Meyerson & Fletcher, 2000) and are based on their experiences, and the sport clubs are no exception.

Experience from sport volunteerism

Table 4a shows the participation of volunteers in sport during the previous twelve months.

Table 4a in here

The only significant difference between the genders was in sport volunteering ($\chi^2(1, N=658)=11.438, p<0.001$). More than half of the men (57.4%) had volunteered in sport during the previous year, but only 44.1% of the females had done so. Table 4b shows the participation as volunteers in major sport events.

Table 4b in here

The gender difference was significant in volunteering in major sport events ($\chi^2(1, N=658)=21.641, p<0.001$). More than two thirds of male volunteers had experience of major events, but among the female volunteers the level was 57.2 per cent.

Time for voluntary work

The proportion which does not do voluntary work is much higher among women than men (36.2% vs. 22.3%). The table below shows the amount of time devoted to voluntary work.

Table 5 in here

Men spent significantly more time ($\chi^2(2, N=330)=10.888, p=0.004$) than women on voluntary work in sport; 61% of men devote more than 3 hours per week to sport volunteering, whilst more than half the women spend less than two hours per week on sport volunteering.

Motivation to volunteer at the WSC test Championship in 2010

For all volunteers it was important that the work is useful and for all of them the altruistic ideology prevails as a motive. Among all groups the opportunity to see prominent people appears to be the least important reason to volunteer.

Using the data from after the test event (QB2) four factors emerged for motivation with an eigenvalue over 1. Six motivational items were excluded due to low factor loadings (<0.5): "You get recognition for your work", "You contribute something useful for the public", "You get new experience in connection with spectators", "You have an active contribution to the organization of the WC-trial", "You can help other people" and "You get to know nice people". In addition, the fourth factor was also excluded from further analysis since it only included two motivational items: "Your friends are also volunteers at the WSC-test event" and "You can continue with the tradition of being a volunteer at Holmenkollen".

The remaining three factors explain 63.07 % of the variance, and the different items they included are in Table 6. The factors were labelled as follows. Factor 1: Competence (for work and voluntary sport) included six items and explained 35.71% of the variance. Factor 2: Instrumental/external included three items and explained 17.16% of the variance. Factor 3: Intrinsic, ski interest included three items and explained 10.19% of the variance. Cronbach's alphas ranged from 0.81 to 0.76.

Table 6 in here

Factor 1 is concerned both with competence building for work and the volunteer role. We had expected to have a clearer division of these two roles but that does not seem to be the case among the volunteers. This factor is similar to what Strigas & Jackson (2003) and MacLean & Hamm (2007) called 'material', Love et al. (2011) termed 'career enhancement' and Allen & Shaw named 'fostering competence'. All these six items in Factor 1 were highly correlated ($p < 0.001$). Those who have event experience and are a member of a sport club

scored the highest and score significantly higher than those with event experience and not membership in the sport club, as well as those without event experience and non- members. The second factor labelled 'Instrumental/External' included to see prominent people, athletes and leaders and tangible rewards such as outfit and equipment. Williams et al (1995) claimed this to be the least important motivator. The third factor, Ski interest, is related to sports, and the statement with the highest loading on this dimension was 'You get to come closer to your own interest (such as ski-sport)'. In this case this refers to ski-jumping, cross-country skiing or Nordic combined.

Table 7 in here

Table 7 shows that all three factors were significantly different for female and male volunteers after the WSC- test championship QB2. Factor 1 is competence for work and also for the voluntary role, and here the women ($M=3.92$, $SD=0.70$) score significantly higher than male volunteers ($M=3.72$, $SD=0.67$, $t(638)=3.75$, $p < 0.001$). Factor 2 (Instrumental/External motive) included the perks they received such as jackets, hats and a pullover, which they had to hand in if they were not volunteering for the WSC 2011, the following year. Some social activities were organized after the event for the volunteers. The male volunteers ($M= 2.93$, $SD=1.05$) scored significantly higher than the female volunteers on instrumental/external motives ($M= 2.70$, $SD=1.02$, $t(644) = -2.82$, $p < 0.01$). This is contradictory to the findings of Williams et al. (1995), where it was reported that this was significantly more likely to be important for young and female volunteers. For Factor 3 (intrinsic/ski interest) the men ($M= 3.69$, $SD 0.89$, $t(639) = -2.04$, $p < 0.001$) scored significantly higher than the women. All differences were significant.

DISCUSSION

The analyses have identified two quite distinct types of volunteers at a sport event: the reflexive volunteers representing late modernity, and the collective more traditional volunteers. The theoretical framework of Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004) has helped us to understand the modernization process going on among volunteers within the sport event and examine the gender differences. Our contribution has been to transfer this framework to analyse and understand volunteers at a major sport event. The reflexive group is dominated by females and has no formal ties to the sport club, and the traditional or collective group consists mainly of males with membership in the sport club. Female event volunteers are younger and better educated. Many of these have no experience from events, and they have volunteered to a lesser degree in sport (Wollebæk, 2011). This is due to the fact that they are less likely to be members of a sport club. The women are approximately ten years younger than the men.

Females and males also did different jobs at the sport event. The men worked mostly as sport officials and had strong ties to organized sport clubs while the women were support officials without the formal membership in sport clubs. In Norway, previously it was usual for a volunteer to be a member of the organization in which she/he undertakes the voluntary work (Wollebæk, Selle & Strømsnes, 2008). According to Wollebæk and Sivesind (2010) it happens more frequently today that the younger volunteers are not members of the voluntary organization where they do their voluntary work. This finding is supported by Hustinx & Meijs (2011). The young volunteers are therefore not socialized into the traditional voluntarism, but show pattern of ad hoc volunteerism at sport events.

Males volunteered more often because of their own interest in sport (intrinsic motivation) or because the event represented a large ski competition. Our research supports the emergence of a specific sport interest as one motive as Love et al. (2011) found with golf and Williams et al. (1995) found with the enthusiasm for skiing. The male volunteers

frequently had an attachment to a sport organization and were more strongly motivated by their interest in the sport. The men are dominant in the sport culture and they are the norm. This is why women often are described as “the others” (Maddock, 1999 in Sibson, 2010).

However, the group which is least involved in voluntary work in general comprises young men (Wollebæk & Sivesind, 2010). This tendency also occurs in this event. Young males are less involved in going to school and studying. This means they are absent from arenas for socializing through voluntarism such as school, sport club, school music, scouts etc. It is not clear whether they are taking a break in their voluntary work, or if it is a permanent withdrawal from it. Is this a lifecycle or a generation problem? If it is a lifecycle problem, the young will probably take over their parents’ attitudes, and then the change occurs at the individual level. This will probably not have any large effect on society. If it is a generation effect, the effect will be greater because youth will then continue their attitudes from early experiences into later life. That will have a major effect on the society.

Theoretical approaches to modernization processes (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003) have helped us in looking for differences between the volunteers associated with membership/non-membership of sport clubs, and also gender. This theoretical framework of the modernization process travels easily from the volunteers in other contexts of society to the sport event context. The present study has confirmed the results from the Commonwealth Games in 2002 (Downward, Lumsdon, & Ralston, 2005) that significant differences between the genders exist. Women tend to represent the reflexive volunteers without being tied to the sport club by membership and with previous event experience. Further they are motivated by external/instrumental motives, and by increasing their social capital. The younger women are motivated by establishing contacts for new jobs to a larger degree than men, and this confirms the findings by Williams et al. (1995) After the women entered the labour market, they have changed the organizations in which they undertake the voluntary work (Wilson, 2000). It will

be interesting to see if these women continue to be volunteers at new sport events. This study has extended evidence for sport event volunteers being different from other volunteers in sport clubs. The sport event can be viewed as a meeting place between a traditional volunteer culture mainly dominated by males and a modern and “new” type of volunteer dominated by younger females. The traditional volunteers are represented by members of sport organizations, and they reinforce the social composition of sport in general. They also tend to be associated with older age cohorts.

The generalizability of findings from such a study is limited because of the variety of sport events in terms of size, duration, mono- or multi-sport, local context and type and profile of the particular event. The research on volunteers shows they are not a homogeneous group. The sport event volunteers are different from the traditional sport volunteers. Some more research is needed in order to see if women continue to volunteer at sport events or if the motives for continuing volunteering for women will change. Therefore more research on sport events in other sports and countries is needed. These results are from a country with a high degree of voluntarism and to what degree this is transferable to other countries we do not know. Another limitation may be that the volunteers needed to achieve in order to be part of World Championship in Nordic Skiing the next year.

CONCLUSIONS

The sport event can be viewed as an interface between a traditional volunteer culture mainly dominated by males and a modern and 'new' type of volunteer characterised by younger females. The traditional volunteers are represented by members of sport organizations, and they reinforce the social composition of sport in general. They tend to be associated with older age cohorts and men.

The findings have several implications for how to reach females as volunteers, train and retain them. Their motives are mainly linked to competence building both in their voluntary job as well for the work market. That means recruitment strategies must stress these competencies which can be transferred to the labour market. Since they are less frequently members of a sport club, the recruiting process in order to get females should not focus on recruiting from sport clubs. This knowledge was also fed back to the organizer, and used when they recruited an additional thousand volunteers for the WSC 2011.

The sport events are attractive to modern reflexive volunteers, but the organizer cannot work with 'one-off volunteers' alone; they are also dependent on a core group of people who have participated in similar events before, and/or who are familiar with sport through sport team affiliations. We argue that sporting events must be viewed as a meeting place between a traditional and a late modern volunteer culture.

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Table 1: Volunteers' connection to organized sport or previous event experiences seen in relation to gender and mean age

| | Non-members of sport clubs | | | Members of sport clubs | | | Total |
|--------------------------|----------------------------|-------------|-------|------------------------|-------------|-------|-------|
| | Not volunteered | Volunteered | Total | Not volunteered | Volunteered | Total | |
| Males (%) | 39 | 55 | 47 | 47 | 64 | 61 | 55 |
| Females (%) | 61 | 45 | 53 | 53 | 36 | 39 | 45 |
| Mean age males (years) | 43 | 51 | 49 | 43 | 51 | 50 | 49 |
| Mean age females (years) | 35 | 42 | 38 | 34 | 42 | 40 | 39 |
| Total (n) | 140 | 135 | 275 | 79 | 301 | 380 | 655 |

Table 2: Volunteers by gender, education, income and employment:

| | | Women | Men |
|--------------------|----------------------|------------|------------|
| Age | | | |
| | Mean | 39 | 49 |
| | | n (%) | n (%) |
| Education | | | |
| | Compulsory | 8 (2.7) | 16 (4.5) |
| | High School | 68 (22.8) | 119 (33.1) |
| | University/College | 222 (74.5) | 224 (62.4) |
| Income | | | |
| | ≤ 250,000 (Low) | 87 (29.5) | 29 (8.2) |
| | 250,001 – 400,000 | 82 (27.9) | 86 (24.2) |
| | 400,001 – 600,000 | 89 (30.3) | 141 (39.6) |
| | 600,001 -> (High) | 36 (12.2) | 100 (28.1) |
| Employment* | | | |
| | Full-time employment | 181 (61.4) | 260 (73.7) |
| | Part-time employment | 26 (8.8) | 9 (2.5) |
| | Student | 60 (20.3) | 20 (5.7) |
| | Retired | 10 (3.4) | 39 (11.0) |
| | Other | 18 (6.1) | 25 (7.1) |

Table 3. Sport official or support official (after WSC- test event) jobs by gender

| | Women n (%) | Men n (%) | p (χ^2) |
|------------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|
| Sport official | 62 (21) | 157 (44) | 0.000 (38.511) |
| Support official | 234 (79) | 200 (56) | |
| Total | 296 (100) | 357 (100) | |

Table 4a: Volunteers in sport last 12 months

| | Women n (%) | Men n (%) | p (df, χ^2) |
|---|----------------|--------------|-------------------|
| Volunteered in sport last 12 months | 132 (44.1) | 206 (57.4) | 0.001 (1, 11.438) |
| Not Volunteered in sport last 12 months | 167 (55.9) | 153 (42.6) | |
| Total | 299 (100) | 359 (100) | |

Table 4b: Volunteers in major sport events

| | Women n (%) | Men n (%) | p (df, χ^2) |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|--------------|--------------------|
| Volunteers in major sport events | 171 (57.2) | 267 (74.4) | <0.001 (1, 21.641) |
| Not volunteer in major sport events | 128 (42.8) | 92 (25.6) | |
| Total | 299 (100) | 359 (100) | |

Table 5: Time-use on voluntary work in sport per week for men and women

| Hours per week | Women n (%) | Men n (%) | p (df, χ^2) |
|-------------------------|----------------|--------------|-------------------|
| Few (1-2 hours) | 72 (57.6) | 80 (39.0) | 0.004 (2, 10.888) |
| Moderate (3-9 hours) | 37 (29.6) | 84 (41.0) | |
| Many (10 hours or more) | 16 (12.8) | 41 (20.0) | |
| Total | 125 (100) | 205 (100) | |

Table 6: Results of explanatory factor analysis for motivation items

| Factors/Items | Chronbach's Alpha | Loading |
|--|-------------------|---------|
| <i>1. Competence (for work and as volunteer)</i> | <i>0.81</i> | |
| You increase your competences and experiences | | .833 |
| You extend your contact network | | .795 |
| You can use this work to increase your general work possibilities later | | .726 |
| You have your own area of responsibility and get the chance to make your own decisions | | .699 |
| Your work is enjoyable | | .590 |
| You obtain the insight in organizing a major sport event | | .585 |
| <i>2. Instrumental/External</i> | <i>0.81</i> | |
| You get to see prominent persons / VIPs | | .839 |
| You get to see athletes and leaders | | .803 |
| You get outfit and equipment | | .738 |
| <i>3. Ski interest</i> | <i>0.76</i> | |
| You get to come closer to your own interests (such as ski-sport) | | .842 |
| You get a better insight in ski at the elite level | | .808 |
| You get closer to what happen than you would as a spectator | | .696 |

Table 7: Differences between female and male volunteers at Post –WSC test event (QB2)
(Independent sample's t-test)

| <i>Factor</i> | <i>Gender</i> | <i>Mean score</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>t-value</i> |
|-------------------------|---------------|-------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Competence*** | Female | 3.92 | 0.70 | 3.75 |
| | Men | 3.72 | 0.67 | |
| Instrumental/external** | Female | 2.70 | 1.02 | -2.82 |
| | Men | 2.93 | 1.05 | |
| Ski interest* | Female | 3.54 | 0.97 | -2.04 |
| | Men | 3.69 | 0.89 | |

* p < 0.05
 ** p < 0.01
 *** p < 0.001