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Master thesis

A Mixed Method Research on Volunteer Motivation and Intention to Volunteer in Denmark

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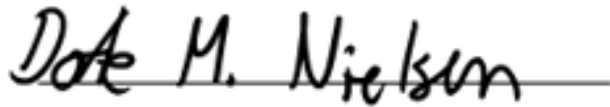
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Sworn statement

I hereby solemnly declare that I have personally and independently prepared this paper. All quotations in the text have been marked as such, and the paper or considerable parts of it have not previously been subject to any examination or assessment.

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Acknowledgements

Abstract

Purpose - The purpose of this study is to examine the determinants of volunteer motivation at sport and music events, how these motivations affect future voluntary engagement, and whether volunteers and non-volunteers differs with respect to volunteer motivations and intentions to volunteer.

Design/Methodology/approach - This study deductively derived twelve motivational factors from scientific literature. These twelve volunteer motivations were included in an online survey where (n=107) respondents completed the survey. Multiple regression analysis was used to predict future intention to volunteer on the basis of the twelve factors. Subsequently, six volunteer managers (i.e. three from professional Danish handball clubs and three from large Danish music festivals) were interviewed and asked how they would implement the results from the regression analysis, i.e. how they would make sure to satisfy the needs that predicted future intentions to volunteer.

Findings - The results reveal that the altruistic motive *Values* (where people volunteer in order to express or act on their concern for others) was the most important reason to volunteer, both among volunteers and non-volunteers. For the volunteers, the two motivations *Values* and *Career* were significantly correlated with future voluntary engagement. For the non-volunteers, the three motivations *Protective, Community contribution,* and *Love of sport or music* were significantly correlated with future voluntary engagement. The intrinsic motives *Values* and *Community contribution* had the highest impact on volunteers´ and non-volunteers´ intention to volunteer, respectively. In the regression analysis of all respondents, there was a significant correlation between the predictors *Career, Community contribution, and Love of sport or music* and the outcome variable *Intention to volunteer*. Gender, age, and previous volunteer experience had no significant effect on future voluntary engagement. The six volunteer managers from handball clubs and festivals had different approaches to how they would fulfil the needs and expectations of their volunteers.

Research limitations/implications - The sample size of the quantitative study can limit the generalizations, but the twelve motivational drivers identified in this study can serve as a framework for more extensive future research.

Practical implications - Researchers indicate that when a volunteer´s motives are fulfilled, s(he) will be satisfied, which sustains the volunteer´s commitment. The findings of this study suggest that event volunteer managers have to recognize that people have many different reasons to volunteer. Therefore, they must understand the motivational differences among their volunteers as well as potential volunteers, and utilize this information to target, recruit and manage volunteers, and thus improve volunteer satisfaction and retention.

Originality/value - To the author´s knowledge, this study is the first to include twelve volunteer motivations, all of which have been found reliable in previous studies. Second, this study asks non-

volunteers what would motivate them to become volunteers in order to identify what managers need to do to attract new volunteers. Third, even though research on event volunteer management is dominated by quantitative research designs, this study include the qualitative method by interviewing sport and festival managers to explain how to satisfy various volunteer motives.

Keywords Volunteer motivation, retention, sporting and music events, volunteer management

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1   Introduction

Many organisations rely heavily on volunteers to carry out essential services. Yet, attracting and retaining volunteers is a complex task since they do not receive financial benefits for their contributions. In other words, a major managerial challenge for event organisations, such as sports clubs and festivals, is how to recruit new volunteers and retain committed volunteers, since it is a lot easier to quit volunteering compared to quitting a paid job (Elstad, 2003). Therefore, many event mangers spend a great deal of resources on volunteer recruitment and training (Elstad, 2003). It is crucial to enhance our knowledge of event volunteer management in order to develop a greater understanding of how to recruit, satisfy, and retain volunteers in events (Giannoulakis et al., 2007; Bang et al., 2008; Allen & Shaw, 2009; Bang & Ross, 2009; Pauline & Pauline, 2009; Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011; Hallmann & Harms, 2012; Allen & Bartle, 2014; Wollebæk et al., 2014; Kim, 2018).

  Since the 1990´s there has been an increasing frequency of scientific articles examining volunteer management in events (Kim & Cuskelly, 2017; Wicker, 2017; Kim, 2018). Thus, research dealing with event volunteer management is a relatively new, but important topic. Volunteer management is not only important to event organisations. Many different organisations rely on volunteers, such as hospitals, schools, nursing homes, and various NGOs such as Red Cross and Doctors Without Boarders. Based on a study of 37 countries, the Johns Hopkins Centre for Civil Society Studies (2014) estimated that in a typical year approximately 140 million people participate in volunteer work, thereby making a contribution of US $400 billion to the global economy, which is equivalent to the 7th largest economy in Europe. If those 140 million volunteers constituted a nation it would be the 8th largest country in the world (Kim & Cuskelly, 2017; Kim, 2018). Therefore, understanding how to recruit, manage, and retain volunteers in the best possible way is of great relevance to many organisations. In order to manage volunteer recruitment, retention, and daily operations of events effectively, event managers need to understand volunteer motivations (e.g. Farrell et al., 1998; Kim & Cuskelly, 2017). Understanding volunteer motivations helps managers to identify and delegate the relevant tasks, increases the chances of a fulfilling experience, and increases the likelihood of volunteer retention (e.g. Finkelstein, 2008; Millette & Gagné, 2008; Felver et al., 2015).

  In order to better understand the different volunteer motives and how event managers can utilize volunteer motives to recruit and retain volunteers, the research question for this thesis is:

Which motivators affect the intention to volunteer for sport or music events and are these motivators different for volunteers versus non-volunteers?

The aim of this study is to contribute to the current understanding of event volunteer management by identifying various reasons to volunteer and subsequently provide managerial implications related to these volunteer motives. Even though the antecedents of volunteerism have attracted the

curiosity of many researchers (Wilson, 2012), this study is the first to include twelve potential motivational drivers identified as reliable volunteer motives in previous literature - at least to the author´s knowledge. Second, previous literature has only studied volunteers´ reasons for volunteering, thereby avoiding asking non-volunteers volunteers what reasons they would have with respect to their decision to become volunteers, which would help event organisers attracting new volunteers. Third, the research on event volunteer management is dominated by quantitative research methods (Kim & Cuskelly, 2017; Kim, 2018), with only a few relying on qualitative data, such as the research by Yeung (2004) and Fairley et al. (2007). This study uses a mixed methods approach: the quantitative method is used to find out what motivates people to volunteer, whilst the qualitative method is used to explain why the results in the quantitative research have occurred and how to implement the results by asking event managers.

This report is structured in the following way: after this introduction a theoretical background is provided. Here, relevant definitions and classifications of different types of volunteering are given followed by the outcomes and risks of volunteering for organisers. Furthermore, the theoretical background includes broadly accepted motivational and behavioural theories. Next, the literature review begins with a literature search describing how the scientific articles have been chosen systematically, followed by a literature analysis of academic results on volunteer motivation, the hypothesis development for this study, and lastly a summary including the conceptual model used in this study. Subsequently, the research methodology is presented, encompassing the data collection, data analysis, and reliability and validity of the findings for the quantitative and qualitative study, respectively. This is then followed by the research design of the quantitative study, and the results of the quantitative study. Afterwards, the research design of the qualitative study is presented, followed by the results of the qualitative study. Then, the discussion covers the aim of the research, summary of the most important results, managerial implications, limitations of this report and suggestions to further research. Lastly, a very short conclusion is provided.

2   Theoretical background

2.1   Definitions and classifications

2.1.1   Volunteering

Volunteering is any unpaid activity in which leisure time is given freely to do something that aims to benefit another person, group, or organisation (Love, 2009; Lee et al., 2014a). Volunteering has also been defined as prosocial, planned behaviours benefitting strangers and occurring within an organisational context (Penner, 2002). Additionally, volunteer work has be defined as unpaid non-compulsory work, i.e. time people give without pay to perform various activities either through an organisation or directly for those outside their own household (Kim & Cuskelly, 2017).

These definitions include three noteworthy components. First, volunteering is unpaid, so even though the volunteer might get other material rewards such as free transport, food, or merchandise, they do not receive a salary. Second, volunteering relates to planned activities, as opposed to spontaneous helping (e.g. saving a man from drowning). Third, volunteering takes place in an organisational and formal context, which is different from informal helping (e.g. helping a neighbour with shopping) or private helping (e.g. caring for an ill family member) (Alfes et al., 2017).

There are multiple activities for which people can volunteer, including:

1) Various events such as sports events or festivals
2) Community service where you can help:
     o Children and schools, e.g. by tutoring children after school or by donating toys to children in hospitals
     o Senior citizens, e.g. by reading to residents at a nursing home or hosting a bingo night for them
     o Animals, e.g. by taking care of cats, dogs, etc. at an animal shelter
     o The environment, e.g. by cleaning up a local park or river, or planting flowers or trees along highways
     o The hungry, less fortunate and/or homeless, e.g. by volunteering at a soup kitchen or by babysitting for a family in need
     o The disabled by help them grocery shopping or cleaning
     o Reduce crime and promote safety, e.g. by volunteering at a police station or firehouse, or becoming a certified lifeguard and volunteer at a local beach or pool
     o Promote community enhancement, e.g. by becoming a tour guide at your local museum, repainting community fences, or volunteer for a community parade.
3) Political campaigns where you e.g. help register people to vote
4) Counselling, such as providing financial or legal guidance
5) NGOs such as Red Cross, Doctors Without Boarders, or Green Peace.

2.1.2 Volunteer

A volunteer devotes leisure time to activities that are beneficial for the helper as well as the helped, and performs an unpaid and planned activity for the helped individual or organisation (Lee et al., 2014a). For the purpose of this study, a volunteer is defined as an individual who currently are or previously have been offering his or her time and resources for free to any professional sport organisation or public, private or non-profit music event organisation. Thus, a non-volunteer is defined as an individual who have not previously worked unpaid for any professional sport- or music event related organisation. That is, respondents who have engaged in work of the society are considered to be non-volunteers in this study.

Kim and Cuskelly (2017) explain the difference between long-term, short-term, and episodic volunteers. Both long- and short-term volunteers provide services regularly. However, long-term volunteers do this for an extended period of time without a specific end date. Episodic volunteers offer infrequently occurring service to a company, typically for a single- or multiday event such as an annually music festival.

2.1.3   Motivation and volunteer motivation

Motivation is *"the driving force leading to a behaviour"* (Felver et al., 2015, p. 185), and is created through unfulfilled needs, incentives, and expectations (Georgiadis et al., 2006). Shortly, volunteer motivation is *"reasons to participate as a volunteer"* (Elstad, 2003, p. 101). It can also be defined as a drive of an individual to seek out volunteer opportunities, to commit oneself to voluntary helping, and to keep volunteering over extended periods of time (Clary et al., 1998; Lee et al., 2014a). In this study, volunteer motivation is defined as reasons that influence an individual to become or remain a volunteer in professional sport or music events.

Since motivation to a large extend is subconsciously constructed, it is a difficult concept (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). People may have different reasons to volunteer, each volunteer may be influenced by multiple motives, and the motives that initially influenced people to become volunteers may be different from those motives that influences their decision to continue to volunteer. In general, motivation affects three main areas of the volunteer process: 1) recruitment of the volunteer; 2) satisfaction with the volunteer experience, and; 3) retention (Clary & Snyder, 1999).

2.2   Outcomes and risks of volunteering for organisers

2.2.1   Outcomes

There is no doubt that a great outcome of volunteering for organisers is the low costs compared to hiring paid staff even though the organisation still have to invest in supporting and assisting volunteers. Many organisations would simply not be able to function without volunteers. Additionally, volunteers can create positive word-of-mouth about the event, and hence raise awareness about the organisation and its goals. Business benefits of volunteer efforts also include:

1) *Extra hands:* Volunteers contribute to the organisation by extending services in order to reach greater numbers, extending hours of operation, or diversifying the types of services the organisation offers.

2) *A more diverse range of skills, knowledge, and experience:* some volunteers have special skills, such as expertise with computer technology to get the organisation more organised, or expertise in psychology, socialization or communication which can be of benefit to working with various stakeholders of the organisation.

3) *New ideas or approaches:* some volunteers may have new ideas regarding the services the event provides. This can help you (the event manager) to adapt, stay relevant to your customers´ needs, and identifying opportunities to improve.

4) *Improved service quality:* Often volunteers can also pay detailed attention to the people they serve as they are volunteering for a specific task and can devote their full attention to it.

5) *A stronger relationship with the local community:* by providing volunteering opportunities you provide opportunities for social inclusion, competency development, and potential routes to employment. Local volunteer involvement reflects acceptance and ownership of the organisation´s project within the community.

6) *Improved loyalty*: the volunteer is free to follow an individual passion or important cause, which makes the volunteer perceive a strong connection to the organisation and subsequently a reduced risk of leaving the organisation. Long-term volunteers are beneficial for the organisation because they: 1) reduce the costs associated with recruiting new volunteers; 2) do not require as much training and supervision as new volunteers do; and 3) know more about the organisation and its operations.

2.2.2   Risks

From large-scale sporting events to small community festivals, many events rely heavily on volunteer support, making volunteer management core to the event planner skill set. This paragraph includes risks a volunteer manager might face, and examples of how they can be minimized.

Event managers face many challenges in designing the event volunteer program, recruiting volunteers, managing volunteers such as orienting, training and monitoring volunteers, as well as retaining volunteers. For instance, if the event does not meet the needs and desires of the volunteer (s)he will not remain a volunteer, and it is, all things being equal, more expensive to recruit and train new volunteers than to retain loyal volunteers. Obviously, if the event is not able to recruit and/or retain enough volunteers this will have a huge economic impact on the organisation, since you have to pay others to do the job, which can make or break the success of the event.

  The National Council for Voluntary Organisations (NCVO) has identified the possible risks that are associated with organisations utilizing volunteers. Risks specifically related to volunteer involvement include: 1) accidents, injury or death of a volunteer, paid employee or attendee; 2) unacceptable performance by a volunteer resulting in harm to clients or attendees; 3) financial, physical, or emotional client or volunteer abuse; 4) volunteers exceeding job role descriptions, boundaries or authority; 5) misleading or wrong information and advise; 6) breach of confidentiality; 7) damage to property; and 8) theft, fraud, or misappropriation of funds (as cited in Gaskin, 2013). If any of these risks occur, they can cause further risks, including: 1) damage to organisational reputation; 2) loss of public trust and support; 3) loss of customers or sponsors leading to loss of financial reserves or

funding; 4) loss of paid staff and volunteers or decreased ability recruit them; 6) increased insurance costs or even withdrawal of insurance; and 7) legal claims (Gaskin, 2013).

Examples of how to design and manage a successful volunteer program in order to minimize risks

When it comes to designing the event volunteer program you (the event manager) should recognize that volunteers have needs, too. While you hire volunteers in order to fill an event need, it is important to understand volunteer motivations and needs as well. If you ask why volunteers are interested in your event it can help you add the right perks. Additionally, you have to be aware that not all jobs are well suited to volunteers. For example, some logistical and medical functions are usually best handled by professionals. Understanding volunteer (and employee) protection laws and how they apply in the country is very important too. Generally, these laws protect the individual volunteer who is acting within the scope of his or her volunteer tasks from being sued. These laws are designed to protect volunteers, not the organisations recruiting them. Adequate insurance covering volunteers is another legal aspect. Event managers need to confirm that their insurance covers their volunteers just as it covers their paid employees. Organisations should also consider including volunteers in workers compensation coverage, which prevents the injured party from suing for negligence. Another legal aspect to consider is criminal record checks. Organisations can come under fire, maybe resulting in a bad reputation, should a volunteer mistreat a customer or create a hostile work environment for employees. It will cause problems if the volunteer is a criminal who for example steals from the cash register or is violent toward others. Background checks, though pricey, can save an organisation from liability and embarrassment.

 When it comes to recruiting event volunteers you should be aware that some volunteers are expecting to get something in return for their services, such as access, experience, or training. If you clearly state the benefits they will receive upfront you can avoid that your volunteers will be disappointed. It is also important to state your selection criteria upfront, such as practical require-ments, to ensure you get the volunteers with the right skills. However, you have to make sure your criteria are reasonable, and that you do not discriminate unfairly. Additionally, it is crucial to make sure your jobs matches skills, availability, and interest to the best extend possible. You should be prepared for people having special needs or physical limitations, who want to become volunteers. You can also consider cooperating with certain community groups or schools whose mission aligns with your volunteer tasks. For example medical students could be good Samaritans, and a local recycling group may be a source for providing a green event.

  In order to manage volunteers properly you need sufficient instructions and training. All volunteers should be clearly informed about their role, including the tasks they have to do, hours of work, whom they report to, etc. Depending on the task you may also want onsite training where you demonstrate the task. Additionally, volunteers should be informed about their obligations - such as the expecta-tion that they will arrive on time, have a positive attitude towards co-workers and visitors, be safe,

and report risks or injuries - and the obligations of the organisers such as providing a fair, safe, and healthy work environment. You should also consider the consequences, both for the volunteer and for the event, if the volunteer does not show up to the assigned task, or if he is unable or unwilling to effecttively perform his job. Therefore, you should have a plan B if a volunteer does not show up, and decide on what kind of penalty the volunteer should have such as withholding any benefits, or in extreme scenarios, even charging no-showing volunteers for the benefits they have received. You also need to ensure that you can assist those volunteers who may need assistance. Every volunteer should be informed about what to in case of an emergency, such as where nearest emergency exit is located, or who they should contact in case of an injury. Lastly, it is important that you recognize your volunteers and thank them for their contribution. After the event you should also seek feedback from the volunteers to evaluate and improve the volunteer experience.

2.3   Motivation theories

2.3.1   Hertzberg´s theory of motivation and hygiene and Maslow´s hierarchy of needs

Hertzberg´s theory of motivation and Maslow´s hierarchy of needs are behavioural theories widely sited in the business literature. Herzberg proposed a theory about job factors motivating employees, and Maslow developed a theory regarding the rank and satisfaction of various human needs and how we pursue them.

  Hertzberg (1959) stated that both hygiene and motivational factors affect our attitude towards work. The "hygiene" factors - including interpersonal relations, supervision, company policy, working conditions, and salary - do not motivate or create satisfaction. But if such hygiene factors are absent it can create job dissatisfaction. On the other hand, the so-called "motivators" are factors that enrich a person´s job. Hertzberg found five factors that were particularly strong determiners of job satisfaction, i.e. recognition, achievement, responsibility, the work itself, and advancement. These motivators (or satisfiers) were associated with positive long-term effects in job performance while the hygiene factors (or dissatisfiers) produced only short-term changes in job performance and attitudes, which would rapidly fall back to previous levels.

  Confirming this theory, Maslow´s theory is about how people satisfy specific personal needs in the context of their work. He argued that every person can be defined by different needs. Additionally, he argued that an individual cannot pursue the next higher need in the hierarchy until his currently recognized need is satisfied to a great extend. Maslow divides human needs into five categories, often illustrated in a pyramid. At the bottom of the pyramid are the *physiological* (or fundamental biological) *needs*. These are e.g. thirst, hunger, sex, and shelter. The second level refers to the *need of safety*, i.e. security, stability, and protection. *Social needs* are represented in the next level, i.e. to love and be loved, and get a sense of belonging. The fourth level is *esteem needs* which refers to self-respect and respect for others. The last level of the pyramid is *self-actualization*, i.e. the need of

being capable of fulfilling one´s potentialities (Maslow, 1943). Maslow´s needs theory has been revised a bit by critics since you for instance can both be hungry and want to be acknowledged at the same time. Yet, it can still be applied to the motivations of volunteering as different motives could evolve from psychological needs (Hallmann & Harms, 2012; Wicker & Hallmann, 2013), i.e. the social and esteem needs.

   People may engage in voluntary work to satisfy needs that are not met anywhere else. In general, three broad motivations to volunteer have been emphasized: 1) *utilitarian/material*, i.e. rewards that either have monetary value or can be translated into monetary value, such as gaining tangible benefits or working experience and skills; 2) *Solidary/affective/social*, i.e. social benefits derived from group identification, group status, social interaction, interpersonal relationships, and friendships; and 3) *Purposive/normative/altruistic*, i.e. genuine concern for others and desire to help, appealing to values such as community action and contribution, civic responsibility and environmental concern (Knoke & Prensky, 1984; Taylor, 1995). Some volunteer motivation scales, such as the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (SEVMS) developed by Farrell et al. (1998) and the Motivation To Volunteer for Special Events by Monga (2006) - which will be explained in the literature review - are based on these three broad volunteer motives. As the reader will see in the upcoming paragraph, self-determination theory emphasizes two broad motivations to volunteer.

2.3.2   Self-determination theory

The self-determination theory proposes that different types of motivation, varying in degree of self-determination, underlie human behaviour (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsic motivation refers to engaging in volunteer work because it is interesting, enjoyable, and satisfying. Intrinsic motivation is the most self-determined form of motivation and is associated with outcomes such as positive feelings, persistence, performance quality, and goal attainment. Intrinsically motivated behaviours are considered highly self-determined since the individual participate on his or her own free will. Conversely, extrinsic motivation refers to engaging in an activity in order to gain a particular reward that holds some instrumental value (Millette & Gagné, 2008; Allen & Bartle, 2014; Alfes et al., 2017). The most controlled form of extrinsic motivation, called *external regulation*, represents behavioural engagement based on external pressures, e.g. from friends or family, or to obtain a reward. Extrinsic motivation can also be engagement out of ego-involvement or self-worth reasons, such as to prove oneself to others or avoid feelings of guilt, which is called *introjected regulation*. Additionally, there is also a more autonomous type of extrinsic motivation, where a person engages in volunteering because it is personally meaningful and valued, which is referred to as *identified regulation* (Millette & Gagné, 2008; Allen & Bartle, 2014).

   Allen and Shaw (2009) examined sport event volunteers´ motivation and experiences using self-determination theory. Generally their findings support the theory since the participants reported

both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation toward their volunteer jobs. However, extrinsic motivation was only reported for some volunteer tasks. Similarly, the volunteers in Allen and Bartle (2014) reported predominantly self-determined motivation. Particularly they had high levels of intrinsic motivation and moderately high levels of identified regulation. Additionally, volunteers´ intrinsic motivation significantly predicted engagement (Allen & Bartle, 2014). Likewise, the results of Bidee et al. (2013) suggest that with more self-determined intrinsic motivation, volunteers will dedicate more effort to their volunteer jobs. This is consistent with Millette & Gagné (2008) who reported that volunteer satisfaction is not only a function of finding meaning in, and enjoying one´s work (intrinsic motivation), but also a function of *not* being driven by rewards and external pressure (external regulations). These findings support self-determination theory´s assertions that: 1) more self-determined forms of motivation, i.e. intrinsic and identified regulation, are likely to lead to positive outcomes such as enjoyment, engagement, persistence, and enhanced performance; and 2) working/volunteering out of pressure is likely to decrease positive experiences at work (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Overall, these findings suggest that self-determination theory is a viable framework for examining volunteer motivation.

2.4   Behavioural theories

2.4.1   Theory of reasoned action and theory of planned behaviour

The theory of reasoned action and theory of planned behaviour are the most frequently tested models of attitude-behaviour relations, and the predictors in these models have received strong empirical support (Haddock & Maio, 2008). The theory of reasoned action is a model in which behaviour is predicted by behavioural intentions, which, in turn, are determined by attitudes and subjective norms. The theory of planned behaviour is simply an extension of the theory of reasoned action including the concept of perceived behavioural control (Haddock & Maio, 2008).

  The theory of planned behaviour argues that behavioural intentions are influenced by three predicttors, including: 1) attitude, i.e. positive or negative evaluations of performing a behaviour; 2) subjective norm, i.e. perceived social pressure or expectations to perform - or not to perform - a behaviour; and 3) perceived behavioural control, i.e. perceived ease or difficulty of performing a behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

  Drawing on the theory of planned behaviour, Lee et al. (2014b) found that these three predictors significantly explain an event volunteer´s intention to return to an event, and that the perceived behavioural control is the strongest predictor of event volunteers´ intention to return. The importance of a volunteer's perceived control over the volunteer task implies that volunteers are more likely to return to an event when they know what they have to do. This finding implies that a clear volunteer job description and training could help event organisations in increasing volunteer retention as they will make volunteers more aware of the jobs they are expected to do. Additionally,

feedback from managers will also help volunteers experience a greater control by clarifying their expectations regarding volunteers' roles (Lee et al., 2014b). Event managers may also help increase volunteers' perceived behavioural control by providing working schedules in advance so that volunteers can plan ahead and work according to their own time preferences.

2.4.2 Social exchange theory and the relationship among motivation, satisfaction, and intention to volunteer

Social exchange theory has been recognized as a fundamental theory for understanding the underlying process that generate peoples´ intentions to continue to volunteer for future events (Bang et al., 2009; Doherty, 2009). The theory was proposed by Thibault and Kelley (1959) and explains human relationships based on the consideration of rewards and costs (Bang et al., 2009). People attempt to maximize rewards and minimize costs, and will be unlikely to continue to volunteer if the expected costs are greater than the expected rewards. Conversely, when the rewards are recognized to exceed the costs, a volunteer will be more likely to be connected and develop a stronger relationship with the person or entity (Thibault & Kelley, 1959, as cited in Bang et al., 2019). Whether a given intention to continue volunteering occurs can be a function of the perceived costs and benefits the volunteer experiences as a result of volunteer experience (Bang et al., 2009). When the volunteers feel that their needs are satisfied through volunteer activities, intention to continue volunteering is likely to be higher. Social exchange theory can thus offer a clarification regarding the relationship among motivations, satisfaction, and intention to volunteer for sport and music events (Bang et al., 2009).

   Drawing on social exchange theory, Doherty (2009) examined volunteers´ positive and negative experiences with a major sport event as predictor of future behavioral intentions. As her research revealed, volunteers will be more likely to continue volunteering if they are satisfied with their previous volunteer experience. Likewise, the social exchange theory is supported by Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) who argue that a volunteer will only continue to volunteer if satisfied, i.e. when the personal volunteer experience exceeds personal expectations. Additionally, Pauline (2011) found that volunteers at a professional golf event were likely to be satisfied with the experience and willing to volunteer again for future events, supporting the social exchange theory. Farrell et al. (1998) and Green and Chalip (2004) also found that satisfied volunteers are more likely to keep volunteering with the organization.

   Generally, researchers who have studied the link between volunteer motivation, satisfaction and commitment seem to agree that when the initial motives for engaging in volunteer activities are fulfilled volunteers will be satisfied (e.g. Green & Chalip, 2004; Finkelstein, 2008; Felver et al., 2015). This personal satisfaction, in turn, sustains their volunteer activity (e.g. Cnaag & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Green & Chalip, 2004; Doherty, 2009; Fairley et al., 2013; Felver et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2019). This implies that if we want to understand volunteers´ satisfaction and intention to continue

volunteering, we need to know how to satisfy them, i.e. what needs and expectations they have, in order to build and maintain volunteer commitment (Green & Chalip, 2004). In other words, with satisfaction being necessary to retain volunteers, it is crucial to consider how potential volunteers can be motivated to engage in voluntary work at the event, and how their expectations for the event can be fulfilled. Since various factors can contribute to an individual´s intention to volunteer, event managers have to isolate the aspects of their event that will gain volunteer interest and, consequently, create a positive and satisfying experience (Felver et al., 2015).

In contradiction to this, Dwyer et al. (2013) found that people who were more satisfied with their experiences as volunteers were *not* more likely to contribute further. A reason why volunteer satisfaction and contribution (or satisfaction and commitment) may not be related among volunteers is that one´s professional job situation, family life or other external factors may prevent the satisfied volunteer to continue volunteering even when s(he) wants to. Thus, it can be argued that volunteers´ intention to quit their volunteer work is not only related to the failure of satisfying the volunteers´ individual motives, but also alterations in behavioural preferences, unexpected personal affairs, or dissatisfaction with the organisation (Kai, 2012, as cited in Felver et al., 2015).

In short, although many scholars argue that satisfaction sustains volunteers´ commitment (e.g. Omoto & Snyder, 1995; Doherty, 2009; Felver et al., 2015), a few studies have not found a significant relationship between satisfaction and commitment (e.g. Finkelstein et al., 2005; Dwyer et al., 2013). However, it is reasonable to assume that even though people have different motives to volunteer and perceive different factors to be rewarding, all long-term volunteers feel personally satisfied with their experience of volunteering.

2.5   Summary of theoretical background

Volunteering is any unpaid, planned activity, taking place in an organisational context. There are multiple activities for which people can volunteer. For the purpose of this research a volunteer has been defined as an individual who currently are or previously have been offering his or her time and resources for free to any professional sport organisation or public, private or non-profit music event organisation.

It is important for event managers to understand the various reasons influencing people to be volunteers for their events in order to satisfy them in the best way possible and subsequently retain them. In addition to the fact that volunteers help improve the bottom line figures, they can also work as ambassadors for the organisation raising awareness about it, add a more diverse range of skills, help the organisation create a good relationship with the local community, etc. Yet, managers should carefully consider the different risks in designing the volunteer program as well as recruiting, managing and retaining volunteers in order to make the event a success.

The motivation theories can be used to explain employee and volunteer attitude towards work and how they satisfy individual needs in the context of their work. Hertzberg (1959) found that five motivational drivers - i.e. recognition, achievement, responsibility, the work itself, and advancement - are strong determiners of job satisfaction and affects job performance. Additionally, Maslow´s needs theory can be used to explain that the various motivations to volunteer can evolve from individual psychological needs (Hallmann & Harms, 2012). The self-determination theory argues that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations or a combination of both underlie human behavior.

The behavioural theories can be used to explain employee and volunteer behaviour. The theory of planned behaviour argues that behaviour is predicted by attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control. These predictors significantly explain volunteers´ intention to stay committed to an event (Lee et al., 2014). Furthermore, the social exchange theory offer an explanation regarding the positive relationship among volunteer motivation, satisfaction, and commitment to an event, i.e. only when volunteers feel their motives are satisfied, they will have an intention to continue volunteering.

3   Literature review

3.1   Literature search

Today, research on volunteerism and volunteer management in the context of sport and non-profit organisations and events is considered at a prominent research topic (Wicker, 2017). This interest may be explained by the curiosity of researchers to understand the phenomenon that people work without getting paid, as well as the relevance of volunteers to non-profit and sport organisations and events.

In this literature review peer-reviewed research articles published in English journals on the topic of volunteer motivation are included. These scientific articles were identified and retrieved through the use of keywords on Google Scholar, Science Direct, as well as the university library of SDU between September 2019 and May 2020. There was no restriction on the year of publication. The key words used for the search were: "volunteer motivation" and a combination of the following terms: "event", "sport", "festival", "music festival", "non-profit", "intention", "retention", "commitment", "recruitment", "engagement" and "management". First, the research articles were sorted by title and citations, and secondly by keywords and abstracts. The reference lists of the most promising research articles were also checked to ensure a comprehensive list of articles.

3.2   Literature analysis

There are many studies acknowledging different reasons to volunteer (e.g. Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). This can, at least partially, be explained by different personality traits, cultural norms and values, attitudes, beliefs, and demographic characteristics. Additionally, a volunteer´s initial reason(s) to volunteer could be different from the motive(s) to volunteer in the long run. Many scientific articles regarding volunteer motivation have used exploratory or confirmatory factor analysis to identify various volunteer motivations, and used Cronbach´s α to assess the various models´ internal consistency reliability. However, in these studies the most significant factors of volunteer motivations have been defined differently, which makes it more difficult to compare them. A literature review of scientific articles that have identified their own volunteer motivation scales is now provided explaining the delineated factors of volunteer motivation. This is followed by a paragraph dealing with previous volunteering experience, and a paragraph concerning demographic characteristics to see if previous research has found differences among volunteer motivations based on age, and gender, and experience. Lastly, the hypothesis development of this study is provided.

3.2.1   Event volunteer motivation

Researchers agree that volunteer motivation is reasons that influence an individual to engage in volunteer activity. Identifying the unique volunteer motivations is an important step to help managers understand and organise volunteer recruitment, performance, satisfaction, and retention in order to maximize benefits for both the volunteer and the organisation (Alexander et al., 2015; Ahn, 2018). Yet, researchers have not reached a consensus on the various volunteer motivations in events because motives differ depending on the event size, context, and organisation (Bang & Ross, 2009; Ahn, 2018).

   Some researchers have developed different volunteer motivation scales such as the SEVMS (Farrell et al., 1998), VFI (Clary et al., 1998), VMI (Esmond & Dunlop, 2004), MTV for special events (Monga, 2006), OVMS (Giannoulakis et al., 2007), and VMS-ISE (Bang & Ross, 2009). An overview of these volunteer motivation scales is exhibited in Table 1, and explained in more details below. Additionally, a comparison of these research papers is clarified in Table 2.

Table 1: Review of major studies developing volunteer motivation scales

Researcher and scale	Context	Purpose	Delineated factors
Farrell et al. (1998) SEVMS (28 items)	1996 Scott Tournament of hearts, Canada (n = 137 volunteers)	Investigate motivation for and satisfaction with volunteering	Purposive, Solidary, External traditions, Commitments
Clary et al. (1998) VFI (30 items)	6 studies: Volunteers from five organisations in Minneapolis, USA + students at University of Minnesota	Apply functional approach to motivation for volunteering	Values, Understanding, Social, Protective, Career, Enhancement,
Esmond & Dunlop (2004) VMI (44 items)	3 studies: in total n=2444 volunteers from 15 organisations	Maximising VMI´s capacity to assess volunteer motivations	Values, Reciprocity, Recognition, Understanding, Self-esteem, Reactivity, Social interaction, Social, Protective, Career
Monga (2006) MTV for special events (26 items)	Larger volunteer survey of five special event organisations in South Australia (n = 487 volunteers)	Develop a measurement scale for motivation to volunteer for special events	Affiliatory, Fulfilling experience, Solidary, Career, Rewards,
Giannoulakis et al. (2007) OVMS (18 items)	The Olympics, Athens, Greece. (n = 146 volunteers)	Investigate volunteer motives at the Olympics and examine OVMS.	Olympic related, Purposive, Egoistic
Bang & Ross (2009) VMS-ISE (30 items)	2004 Twin Cities Marathon, Minneapolis, USA (n = 254 volunteers)	Extend the research of Bang and Chelladurai´s (2003) VMS-ISE, and to examine the impact of motivations on individual volunteer satisfaction	Expression of values, Career, Personal growth, Interpersonal contact, Extrinsic rewards, Community involvement, Love of sport

Source: own work

Farrell et al. (1998) studied volunteer motivation and satisfaction at the 1998 Women´s Curling Championship by adapting a 28 item scale initially developed by Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) in the area of human services. As a result of using the scale in this new sport event setting Farrell et al. (1998) developed a new 28 item scale called the **Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (SEVMS)**. The SEVMS grouped volunteer motivation into four factors, namely *Purposive* (i.e. the desire to contribute to the community and the event and do something useful); *Solidary* (i.e. incentives related to group identification, social interaction, and networking); *External traditions* (i.e. motivations related to family traditions, interests and leisure time); and *Commitments* (i.e. incentives that link external expectations and personal skills with the commitment to volunteer). Purposive reasons were ranked as the most important motivators, and External traditions and Commitments as the least important. Based on their findings Farrell et al. (1998) suggested that volunteers may have multiple motivations and that volunteers´ satisfaction with the overall experience is both a function of fulfilling their expectations and their satisfaction with the facilities and organisation behind the event. Several other studies examining volunteer motivation have provided support for the applica-tion of the SEVMS in sport event contexts (e.g. Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011; Dickson et al., 2015; Lockstone-Binney, 2015). Yet, these studies using the SEVMS scale have found different factor solutions with various numbers of factors, implying that the SEVMS´ factor structure is not constant.

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Meanwhile, with a view of volunteer motivation in the area of human services Clary et al. (1998) developed a model based on a functional approach (i.e. the same action can serve different functions). This functional approach to volunteering is based on the concept that a human behaviour is motivated by different needs and goals and that people have different reasons to volunteer (Clary et al., 1998). They developed a 30-item scale called **Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI)** and found six volunteer motivation factors, namely *Values* (i.e. opportunities to express altruistic and humanitarian concerns for others), *Understanding* (i.e. opportunities to learn and practice knowledge and skills), *Social* (i.e. opportunities to engage with friends or external pressure by important others), *Career* (i.e. any career-related benefits that could be obtained by volunteering), *Protective* (i.e. to address one´s own personal problems and reduce the guilt over being more fortunate and others), and *Enhancement* (i.e. for reasons of personal development, growth and self-esteem). Many studies have applied Clary et al.´s (1998) VIF to assess volunteer motivation (e.g. Kim et al., 2010b; Love et al., 2012; Dwyer et al., 2013; Stukas et al., 2016; Bachman et al., 2016; Bachman et al., 2017; Zievinger & Swint, 2018).

A mega study on volunteers in Western Australia by Esmond and Dunlop (2004) modified Clary et al´.s VFI to a **Volunteer Motivation Inventory (VMI)** with ten variables, and suggested that religiosity, societal and governmental factors should be studied as well. Of these ten variables, four are adapted from Clary et al. (1992, 1998), i.e. Values, Understanding, Social and Protective. Two further variables, i.e. Career and Self-esteem also have similarities to the factors developed by Clary et al. but contain different items. The last four variables are: *Reciprocity* whereby the individual volunteers in the belief of karma (i.e. what goes around comes around); *Recognition* whereby people volunteers in order to be recognized by the organisation for their skills and contribution; *Reactivity* whereby the individual is motivated to volunteer out of a need to address and fix their own issues; and *Social Interaction* whereby the individual volunteers in order to interact with others and build social networks.

Monga (2006) extracted five factors of **Motivations To Volunteer (MTV) for special events**: *Affiliatory* (i.e. an individual´s sense of affiliation with and attachment to the event or activity); *Fulfilling experience* (i.e. a mix of altruistic motivations of helping others and enhancement motivations of enhanced self-esteem by making the individual feel important and needed); *Solidary* (i.e. social recognition from acquaintances and social interaction); *Career development* (i.e. enhancing one´s career and obtain training and experience); and *Personal rewards* (i.e. tangible benefits such as free ticket to the event). As a result the affiliatory motivation factor ($\mu = 4.07$) was the strongest driving force in the decision to volunteer for all five special event organisations participating in the study, followed by the feeling of fulfilment ($\mu = 3.54$), career development ($\mu = 2.74$), personal rewards ($\mu = 1.90$), and solidary ($\mu = 1.34$).

Later, Giannoulakis et al. (2007) developed the **Olympic Volunteer Motivation Scale (OVMS)**

specifically oriented toward Olympic volunteers. This scale includes three factors: *Olympic related* (i.e. a desire of volunteers to become part of the Olympic movement or meet Olympic athletes); *Egoistic* (i.e. a need for social interaction, networking, and interpersonal relationships); and *Purposive* (i.e. a desire of volunteers to benefit with their actions such as fulfilling the "behind the scene" experience). Although the OVMS factors consist of fewer items compared to the other articles in Table 1, the Olympic related motivation was found to be the predominant factor. This could be attributed to the distinctive nature of the Olympic Games. Contrary to Farrell et al.´s (1998) study, the Olympic volunteers in Giannoulakis et al. (2007) were least likely to be motivated by the purposive factor. Still, it should be noted that Farrell et al. (1998) and Giannoulakis et al. (2007) defined "purposive" in two very different ways.

   The volunteer motivations scales by e.g. Farrell et al. (1998) and Giannoulakis et al. (2007) were unique to a specific event setting. That is, the sporting events they studied were limited to either national level special events or the Olympics, which - according to Bang and Chelladurai (2009) - would not elicit unique volunteer motivation factors in international event settings. In order to fill this gap, Bang and colleagues (i.e. Bang & Challadurai, 2009; Bang et al., 2008; Bang & Ross, 2009; Bang et al., 2009) developed and revised the **Volunteer Motivation Scale for International Sporting Events (VMS-ISE)**. This scale proposed that volunteer motivations can be grouped into the following seven factors (Bang & Ross, 2009): *Expression of Values* (i.e. concern for others, the success of the event, and society)*; Community Involvement* (i.e. to help the event being part of the local community)*; Interpersonal Contacts* (i.e. social interaction with others and creating friendships)*; Career Orientation* (i.e. gaining professional network and experience)*; Personal Growth* (i.e. enhan- cing self-esteem and gaining new perspectives); *Extrinsic Rewards* (i.e. tangible benefits)*, and Love of Sport* (i.e. strong interest in the sport and the events of the sport)*. The most important factor was Expression of Values followed by Love of Sport, Interpersonal Contacts, Personal Growth, Community Involvement, Career Orientation, and Extrinsic Rewards. The VMS-ISE has been adapted and verified by multiple studies in different sport event contexts (e.g. Bang et al., 2008; Bang et al. 2009, Hallmann & Harms, 2012; VanSickle et al., 2015).

   There has been a discussion in the scientific literature regarding which of the abovementioned scales is the most comprehensive. It has been argued that Farrell et al.´s (1998) Sport Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (SEVMS) is the most complete scale to date (Doherty, 2009) and the most common-ly used scale to examine event volunteer motivation (Dickson et al., 2015). Other researchers argue that the most well known framework to assess volunteer motivations is Clary et al.´s (1998) Volunteer Functions Inventory (Alfes et al., 2017), which continues to prove its usefulness in volunteer research (Wilson, 2012) and is commonly used in festival studies (Zievinger & Swint, 2018). Both scales were initially developed in the area of human services, since Farrell et al. (1998) adapted and revised the scale developed by Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991).

Table 2 was made as a summary to demonstrate similarities and differences among the six scales.

Table 2: Comparison of the six volunteer motivation scales

	SEVMS	VFI	VMI	MTV for special events	OVMS	VMS-ISE
Factors common to all scales	Purposive Solidary	Values Social	Values Social and Social inter-action	Fulfilling experience Solidary	Purposive Egoistic	Expression of values Interpersonal contacts
Factors shared by more than one scale		Enhancement Career Protective Understanding	Self-esteem Career Protective Understanding	Career development Extrinsic rewards		Personal growth Career orientation Extrinsic rewards
Factors unique to one scale	External traditions Commitments		Reciprocity Recognition Reactivity	Affiliatory	Olympic related	Love of sport Community involvement

Source: own work, inspired by Kim et al. (2018)

A comparison of the six volunteer motivation scales shows that the altruistic motive of concern for other people (i.e. Purposive, Values, and Fulfilling experience) and establishing relationships or social pressure (i.e. Solidary, Social, Social interaction, and Interpersonal contacts) are common volunteer motivation factors since all six scales measured them. Additionally, personal growth and development (i.e. Enhancement and Self-esteem), career-related experiences and benefits (i.e. Career), addressing personal problems and reducing one´s guilt (i.e. Protective), opportunities to learn and practice skills (i.e. Understanding), and tangible benefits (i.e. Extrinsic rewards) were identified by more than one scale, but not all of them. Lastly, unique factors were only evident in one scale, maybe as a consequence of the context in which the research took place. All unique volunteer motivation factors were shown to be reliable and valid in the various cases studied.

3.2.2   Previous volunteering experience

Only very few studies have examined the differences between new and long-term volunteers regarding their intention to remain volunteers - at least to the author´s knowledge. One of these studies found that volunteers with previous sport volunteer experience scored significantly higher on work assignment satisfaction than first-time sport event volunteers (Pauline, 2011). Nevertheless, first-time sport event volunteers reported a higher intention to continue volunteering for both sport and community events (Pauline, 2011). Likewise, Doherty (2009) found that first-time onsite volunteers were likely to have a higher intention to volunteer for the community in the future than volunteers with previous experience. On the other hand, Elstad (2003) found that the longer volunteers had worked at a large music festival in Norway, the stronger were their intentions to

return in the future. Thus, in spite of opposite results, these studies provide evidence for differences between new and long-term volunteers regarding satisfaction and intention to continue volunteering. Yet, Hallmann (2015) found no support for the two hypotheses that volunteer experience would be positively correlated with the decision to volunteer as well as with the time committed to the voluntary activity. Similarly, Bachman et al. (2017) found no support for the three hypotheses that volunteer experience moderates the relationship between: 1) volunteer motivation and satisfaction; 2) volunteer motivation and intention to return; and 3) satisfaction and intention to return.

   The individual´s previous volunteer experience seems to affect motivation. According to Georgiadis et al. (2006) new volunteers may consider altruistic motives to be less important, and experiencing the event to be more important. This is in line with Khoo and Engelhorn (2011) who found that first-time volunteers were more motivated by the opportunity to be involved in the National Special Olympic games compared to experienced volunteers. Similarly, Felver et al. (2015) argue that as an individual acquires more volunteer experience over time, a reduction of selfish motives and an increase in altruistic motives will occur. Likewise, Wollebæk et al. (2014) found that building work-related experience and qualifications were more important motives for first-time volunteers, indicating that new volunteers (more selfishly) view event volunteering as a suitable way of investing in social and human capital.

3.2.3   Demographic characteristics

Few researchers have investigated the potential of age, gender, and other demographic characteristics to influence volunteer motives at events, and most of these studies have focused on genders (VanSickle et al., 2015). Pauline and Pauline (2009) found no motivational differences between men and women or between different age groups at a professional tennis event. Conversely, other studies have reported significant differences. Male volunteers were more likely to be motivated by the love of sport than females (Downward et al., 2005; Bang et al., 2008; Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011; VanSickle et al., 2015). Additionally, men are more likely to volunteer for sporting events than females (Wollebæk et al., 2014; Hallmann, 2015). Female volunteers were more likely than men to be motivated by personal development and growth (Downward et al., 2005; Bang et al., 2008) and by helping and supporting the community (Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011; VanSickle et al., 2015). This is further substantiated by Su et al. (2009) who conclude a cross-cultural inclination for women on average to be more interested in working with people than men, whereas men on average are more interested in things, i.e. the object of the task.

   While gender differences in volunteer motivation have been investigated, age differences are rarely explored (VanSickle et al., 2015). Therefore, Pauline and Pauline (2009) requested additional examination of age in studies dealing with motivation and intention to return. VanSickle et al. (2015) found that older volunteers were motivated more by supporting the community, whereas younger volun-

teers were more motivated by career-related experiences and benefits. Similarly, Okun and Schultz (2003) discovered that understanding and career motivations decreased with age whereas social motivation increased with age. However, it is unclear whether a specific age group has a higher intention to volunteer for sport and music events than others. Wollebæk et al. (2014) found that people who volunteer regularly for sport events usually are older. Similarly, Han et al. (2013) found that older volunteers are more committed. On the contrary, Hallmann (2015) found no support for the two hypotheses that young and old people would be more likely to volunteer and to commit time to the voluntary activity than people of medium age. Likewise, Bachman et al. (2017) found no support for any of the three hypotheses that age moderates the relationship between: 1) volunteer motivation and satisfaction; 2) volunteer motivation and intention to return; and 3) satisfaction and intention to return.

3.3   Hypothesis development

In this paragraph the hypotheses for this study is explained. All twelve hypotheses have been developed from previous scientific literature concerning volunteer motivation in different contexts. Appendix A presents a table of those items that 30 scientific articles have included asking volunteers about their reasons to volunteer. For example, it can be seen that the altruistic motive "Values" have been included as a potential reason to volunteer in 26 out of the 30 articles. Appendix A has been helpful in the development of the hypotheses for this study, although other articles are included in this paragraph as well.

Values

The first motivation construct in this study, *Values*, accords with the "Values" factor in Clary et al. (1998) and Bang and Ross (2009), to the "Purposive" factor in Farrell et al. (1998) and Giannoulakis et al. (2007), and to the "Altruistic" factor in Monga (2006). Altruism has traditionally been seen as a dominant volunteer motive, where the reasons to volunteer come from personal attitudes toward social responsibility and concern for others (Monga, 2006). Since an obvious result of volunteering is helping others, it is not surprising that many researchers have found altruism to be a significant event volunteer motivation (e.g. Antoni, 2009; Bang et al., 2008 Bang et al., 2009; Alexander, 2015; Stukas et al., 2016; Butt et al., 2017). Thus, altruism seems to be a common motive amongst event volunteers. In fact, it has been found to be the most important motivation to volunteer (Esmond & Dunlop, 2004; Kim et al., 2010a; Hallmann & Harms, 2012; Zievinger & Swint, 2018).

   Some researchers (e.g. Farrell et al., 1998) have argued that special event volunteers´ motivations are different from the motivations of volunteers in human services, such as that studied by Chaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) and Clary et al. (1998). Nonetheless, it can be argued that volunteers are altruistically motivated regardless of which purpose and organisation they volunteer for, because

volunteering ultimately is based on individuals´ free choice to carry out work for others without receiving material rewards (Monero et al., 1999, as cited in Alexander et al., 2015). This is supported by other researchers who have found altruism to be one of the most dominant functions in other research contexts, such as Penner and Finkelstein (1998) who studied AIDS service organisation volunteers, Finkelstein (2008) who studied volunteers at a hospice in the United States, and Clary et al. (1998) who studied volunteers providing various services, such as social services, health care, physically disabled, disaster relief and blood services.

Volunteering in order to express social responsibility and concern for others, from now on referred to as "Values", has also been found to predict satisfaction (Dwyer et al., 2013; Wang & Wu, 2014) and commitment (Elstad, 2003; Hallmann & Harms, 2012). Based on the above-mentioned results the first hypothesis to be tested though this study was developed:

H1: Values is positively correlated with the intention to volunteer

Social recognition

As mentioned in the theoretical background one of the three broad volunteer motives is the solidary/social motive of group identification and social interaction (Knoke & Prensky, 1984; Taylor, 1995). Similarly, Table 2 and Appendix A show that social recognition from relatives and social interaction are frequently measured volunteer motivation constructs. Yet, social recognition and social interaction are two very different phenomena. When someone is motivated to volunteer by *social recognition* it is either because his friends, family, or significant others pressured him into volunteering and/or because he wants to be recognized for his engagement by his immediate circle of acquaintances. On the contrary, when you are motivated by *social interaction* it is simply because you want to meet and interact with people and develop relationships (Bang et al., 2019). This paragraph only concerns the motive of social recognition, whilst the latter motive will be examined in hypothesis 6.

Social recognition has been identified as a reason to volunteer by Clary et al. (1998) who referred to this motive as "Social". It also has parallels with the factor that Farrell et al. (1998) and Monga (2006) called "Solidary". Social recognition has for example been recognized in a study of blood donation where the donors admitted that social pressure was an important reason for their action (Piliavin et al. et al., 1984, as cited in Clary et al., 1992). Likewise, volunteers in special events have been found to be motivated by the recognition and recommendation of family, friends, or other significant ones (e.g. Farrell et al., 1998; Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011). Thus, the second hypothesis was constructed as:

H2: Social recognition is positively correlated with the intention to volunteer

Understanding

Volunteering can also serve as an understanding function by satisfying the volunteer´s desire to *"learn more about the world or exercise skills that are often unused"* (Clary & Snyder, 1999, p. 157). For example, some of Gidron´s (1978) volunteers in health and mental health institutions expected to obtain benefits related to learning, self-development, and variety in life through their participation in their voluntary work (as cited in Clary et al., 1998). The Understanding function has been found to be a significant motivational driver in other contexts as well. Clary et al. (1998) studying volunteers in human services, Kim et al. (2010a) studying volunteers in various youth sport organisations, Stukas et al. (2016) studying Australian volunteers, and Zievinger and Swint (2018) studying festival volunteers all found the Values function of volunteer motivation to be the most important motivation, and the Understanding function to be the second most important motivation. Consequently, the third hypothesis was formulated:

H3: Understanding is positively correlated with the intention to volunteer

Career

The fourth motivation construct in this study, *Career,* is very similar to the "Career" factor identified by Clary et al. (1998) and Esmond and Dunlop (2004), the "Career development" factor identified in by Monga (2006), and the "Career orientation" factor identified by Bang and Ross (2009). For example, people might be motivated to volunteer by the opportunity to gain work-related experience, make new career or business contacts, or simply to add the volunteer activity to their resumes. In contrast to the Understanding function, the career motive is when people want to learn specific skills or learn about a specific organisation in order to explore job opportunities or get new contacts (Clary et al., 1992). Career has been identified as a separate motive in several studies dealing with volunteer motivation (e.g. Esmond & Dunlop, 2004; Bang et al., 2008; Bang & Ross, 2009; Bang et al., 2009; Hallmann & Harms, 2012; Wang & Wu, 2014; VanSickle et al., 2015). Since this motive has emphasized volunteering as a response to obtaining career-relevant skills, it therefore primarily influence those volunteers who are either students or within the labour market. Especially for students, career can be an important motive (see Butt et al., 2017 for additional references). Therefore, the following hypothesis was derived:

H4: Career is positively correlated with the intention to volunteer

Enhancement

The fifth motive, *Enhancement*, accords with the "Enhancement" factor in Clary et al. (1998), the "Self-esteem" factor identified by Esmond and Dunlop (2004), and the "Personal growth" factor identified by Bang and Ross (2009). Volunteering might serve as an enhancement function where the volunteer activity enhances an individual´s esteem by making the person feel better about him- or

herself, i.e. by making the person feel important and needed (Clary et al., 1992). Even though the person feels good about himself he can be motivated to engage in volunteerism for the purpose of feeling even better and enhance his self-esteem. Clary and Snyder (1999) define the enhancement motive as where *"One can grow and develop psychologically through volunteer activities"* (p. 157). Thus, the enhancement motive centers on the ego´s growth and development (Clary et al., 1998). Research on volunteerism has found evidence that volunteers are motivated by personal growth (e.g. VanSickle et al., 2015). In fact, Hallmann and Harms (2012) found that personal growth and values were the strongest factors influencing volunteer motivation. Consequently, the fifth hypothesis was derived:

H5: Enhancement is positively correlated with the intention to volunteer

Interpersonal contacts

Bang and colleagues (e.g. Bang & Ross, 2009) identified *Interpersonal contacts* as a separate motivational driver. This motive involves meeting and interacting with people and developing friendships (Bang et al., 2019). Esmond and Dunlop (2004) who also found evidence for this motive referred to it as "Social interaction". It also has parallels with what Giannoulakis et al. (2007) called "Egoistic", and what Farrell et al. (1998) and Monga (2006) called "Solidary".

  As mentioned above, "interpersonal contacts" (or "social interaction") is different from social recognition, which merely refers to the influence from one´s acquaintances and cannot represent the volunteer´s purpose of socializing. Therefore, it has been suggested that developing new friendships should be added as an additional function for the volunteer motivations (e.g. Butt et al., 2017). Butt et al. (2017) confirmed that "Socialization" (i.e. interpersonal contacts) emerged as an independent volunteer motivation factor in addition to the independent factor "Social" (i.e. social recognition). Similarly, Elstad (2003) identified the opportunity to socialize as one of the most important reasons to volunteer for a large Norwegian jazz festival. Likewise, volunteers at the London 2012 Olympic Games seemed to be predominantly motivated by the motives "Interpersonal contacts" and "Love of sport and the Olympics" (Koutrou & Pappous, 2016). Generally, previous studies support the idea that social interaction, i.e. the desire to form social relationships and develop social networks, is an important volunteer motivation (e.g. Bang et al., 2008, Bang et al., 2009; Doherty, 2009; Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011; Pauline, 2011; Hallmann & Harms, 2012; Alexander et al., 2015). Additionally, volunteers who are motivated by the desire for interpersonal contacts have been found to be more likely to volunteer in other contexts in the future and less likely to quit volunteering (Koutrou & Pappous, 2016). Drawing on the above-mentioned considerations, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H6: Interpersonal contacts is positively correlated with the intention to volunteer

Protective

People may volunteer in order to protect their ego (Butt et al., 2017), where they use volunteering to address personal issues or to reduce negative feelings, such as guilt (Clary & Snyder, 1999). Evidence of the protective motive was already found in Keniston´s (1968) sample of student activists who e.g. felt guilty over being more fortunate than others, and in Frish and Gerrard´s (1981) research where some Red Cross volunteers volunteered in order to escape negative feelings (as cited in Clary et al., 1992). The protective motive has also more recently been identified as a significant reason to volunteer in different contexts (Clary et al., 1998; Esmond and Dunlop, 2004; Millette & Gagné, 2008; Bachman et al., 2016; Butt et al., 2017). Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H7: Protection of the ego is positively correlated with the intention to volunteer

Extrinsic rewards

As mentioned in the theoretical background one of the three broad volunteer motives emphasized by Knoke and Prensky (1984) and Taylor (1995) is the utilitarian/material motive related to the acquisition of tangible benefits (e.g. free event tickets) and personal, intangible benefits (such as gaining working experience, information, and skills). Monga (2006) hypothesized that these tangible and intangible benefits, which he referred to as "Instrumental motivations", would be one dimension of volunteer motivation. However, as a result of Monga´s factor analysis two independent factors occurred from these instrumental motivations: the first factor called "Career development" included the intangible benefits of gaining practical experience and skills, and the second factor "Personal rewards" included the material benefits of free participation in the event and souvenirs (Monga, 2006). Hence, tangible and intangible benefits are considered to be two distinct volunteer motives.

  In this study, *Extrinsic rewards* refers to the tangible, material benefits volunteers might receive such as event tickets, event staff clothes, and food and beverage. Extrinsic rewards has been identified as an important motivational driver for sport and festival volunteers (e.g. Elstad, 2003; Kim et al., 2018), especially for new volunteers with low incomes (Caldwell & Andereck, 1994). In fact, Pauline and Pauline (2009) found it to be the strongest volunteer motivation at a professional tennis event. Consequently, the next hypothesis was derived:

H8: Extrinsic rewards is positively correlated with the intention to volunteer

Positive life experience

In short, *Positive life experience* refers to the "anti-everyday life" volunteers experience by being at a festival venue or at a football stadium. It is expected that some might be motivated to volunteer for such events just because they think it is fun and exiting to become part of the event production, or because it is an escape from their everyday life. This statement is supported by Doherty (2009) who found "Positive life experience" to be an independent reason to volunteer at a major Canadian sport

event by using exploratory factor analysis (Cronbach´s α = .77). Similarly, Millette and Gagné (2008) used exploratory factor analysis to examine the motives of volunteers who helped a local community by visiting seniors, driving seniors to their appointments, tutoring school kids, coaching new mothers, etc. They identified four factors; one of which they called "Intrinsic motivation" referred to volunteering because it is fun, interesting and enjoyable (α = .75), and the volunteers reported being motivated the most by this factor (Millette & Gagné, 2008). Additionally, some volunteers at a Canadian elite curling event described one of their reasons for volunteering as "a chance of a lifetime" (Farrell et al., 1998, p. 292). Lastly, Monga (2006) identified an "Affiliatory" dimension of volunteering for special events. This dimension recognizes that a volunteer´s attachment to an event or activity can be a significant volunteer motivation. In other words, a volunteer´s passion and attachment to an event combined with the uniqueness, quality, festive spirit, performance, special rituals, and celebrations that mark a special event, is a motivation to volunteer for that specific event (Monga, 2006).

Regarding future intent to volunteer, Doherty (2009) divided the 1098 volunteers who answered her post-event survey into two groups: volunteers involved in the planning stage of the event and volunteers actively working at the event. For both groups "Positive life experience" was a significant predictor of intention to volunteer in the future. Likewise, Green and Chalip´s (2004) study of volunteers at the Sydney Olympic Games revealed that the motive "Excitement" had a direct impact on both satisfaction and commitment. Drawing on these considerations, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H9: A positive life experience is positively correlated with the intention to volunteer

Community contribution

The motive *Community contribution* refers to an individual´s desire to support, help, and feel part of the community. This motivation construct might initially sound the same as the values/altruism construct hypothesized in H1. Both these constructs belong in the third broad motivation to volunteer: Purposive/normative/altruistic, which is when volunteers have a genuine concern for others and a desire to help, and appeals to values such as community contribution (Knoke & Prensky, 1984; Taylor, 1995). However, it can be argued that Values (H1) and Community contribution (H10) should be treated as two separate volunteer motives. This is supported by Bang and colleagues (e.g. Bang & Ross, 2009) and Kim et al. (2018), who identified Values and Community involvement as two separate volunteer motivation factors. Furthermore, Kim et al. (2018) identified four sport event volunteer clusters, i.e. "material benefit seekers", "sport and community enthusiasts", "altruists", and "career and social relationship seekers", which again suggest that community contribution and altruism are two independent reasons to volunteer.

In addition to this, Doherty (2009) found the "Community contribution" factor to be the highest

experienced benefit of volunteering at a major sport event (variance % = 17.5; α = .90), and to be a strong predictor of future intention to volunteer for both planning and on-site volunteers. Similarly, VanSickle et al. (2015) found the "Community support" factor to be the most important volunteer motivation at the 2012 Super Bowl (variance % = 29.3; α = .82). In accordance with this, volunteers at a professional tennis event recognized the value of their efforts to the community and society in general (Pauline & Pauline, 2009). Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H10: Community contribution is positively correlated with the intention to volunteer

Love of sport or music

The mere passion for a specific sports club, a sport in general, or music may be a motive for volunteering at such events. Some volunteers tend to travel far to be involved in large-scale sporting and festival events, and the "Love of sport or music" could explain this behaviour (Bang & Ross, 2009). In general, people who are passionate about sporting or music events might wish to express their love and interest in these events by volunteering for them (Kim et al., 2018). This is supported in a Norwegian festival study where being connected with one´s interests was one of the two most important volunteer motivations, and this factor had a significant effect on volunteer commitment (Elstad, 2003). Similarly, the love of sport seemed to be one of the two most important reasons to volunteer at the Olympic Games in London 2012 (Koutrou & Pappous, 2016). Generally, previous research argues that the event itself is an important volunteer motive (Giannoulakis et al., 2007; Bang et al, 2008; Bang et al., 2019; Wang & Wu, 2014; Alexander et al., 2015; Dickson et al., 2015; Felver et al., 2015; VanSickle et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2018). For this reason, the present study includes and tests the following hypothesis:

H11: Love of sport or music is positively correlated with the intention to volunteer

Time

The last motivation construct in this study, *Time*, refers to when people volunteer because they have nothing else to do and/or have more free time than they used to have. These two items were included e.g. in Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen´s (1991) study of volunteer motivations in human services and in Farrell et al.´s (1998) development of the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (SEVMS). Yet, neither of these researchers found Time to be an independent factor. Contrary, two decades later "Spare time" has been identified as an independent factor (Lockstone-Binney et al., 2015), although Cronbach's alpha for this factor was quite low (α = .69). An alpha value beneath 0.6 is considered poor, whereas values above 0.7 are considered acceptable, and values above 0.8 are considered good (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Hence, it can be argued whether a value of .69 is considered acceptable. Nonetheless, an identical Time factor was found by Alexander et al. (2015) studying volunteers at the 2012 London Olympic Games. Additionally, a quite similar Time factor was

identified by Dickson et al. (2015) who studied volunteers at the Sydney World Masters Games in 2009. Based on these results the last hypothesis to be tested though this study was developed:

H12: Time is positively correlated with the intention to volunteer

3.4   Summary of literature review

In this review six volunteer motivation scales has been identified: SEVMS (Farrell et al., 1998), VFI (Clary et al., 1998), VMI (Esmond & Dunlop, 2004), MTV for special events (Monga, 2006), OVMS (Giannoulakis et al., 2007), and VMS-ISE (Bang & Ross, 2009). Of these scales Farrell et al.´s (1998) Sport Event Volunteer Motivation Scale and Clary et al.´s (1998) Volunteer Functions Inventory are the most cited and have both been adopted by several other researchers examining volunteer motivations. These two scales were initially developed in the area of human services, since Farrell et al. (1998) adopted and revised the scale developed by Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991). It can thus be argued that individuals volunteering for human services (e.g. volunteering at a hospice) share a common framework of motives with those volunteering in a sport or music event context. For example, the altruistic motive (i.e. the desire to express altruistic and humanitarian concerns for others), and the solidary motive (i.e. the desire to strengthen one´s social relationships and establish new relationships) were identified as reasons to volunteer by all six scales. Additionally, personal growth and development (Enhancement), career-related experiences and benefits (Career), addressing personal problems and/or reducing the feeling of guilt (Protective), opportunities to learn and practice skills (Understanding), and tangible benefits (Extrinsic rewards) are volunteer motivations identified by more than one of the six scales. Yet, some motives such as the Olympic related (Giannoulakis et al., 2007; Fairley et al., 2007), Love of sport (Bang & Ross, 2009; VanSickle et al., 2015), and Extrinsic rewards (Monga, 2006; Bang & Ross, 2009) have been identified as specific event volunteer motives. This suggests that special event volunteers´ motivation is slightly different from those of other volunteers (Farrell et al., 1998; Slaughter & Home, 2004; Giannoulakis et al., 2007; Bang & Ross, 2009; Kim & Cuskelly, 2017).

Existing literature is non-conclusive on the importance of age, gender and past volunteering experience in terms of them being predictors for future intentions to volunteer. This study will include them in the multiple regression analysis; whether a hypothesis will be established for their importance will be based on the finding in section 6 "Quantitative results". The hypothesis development is conceptualized in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Conceptual model
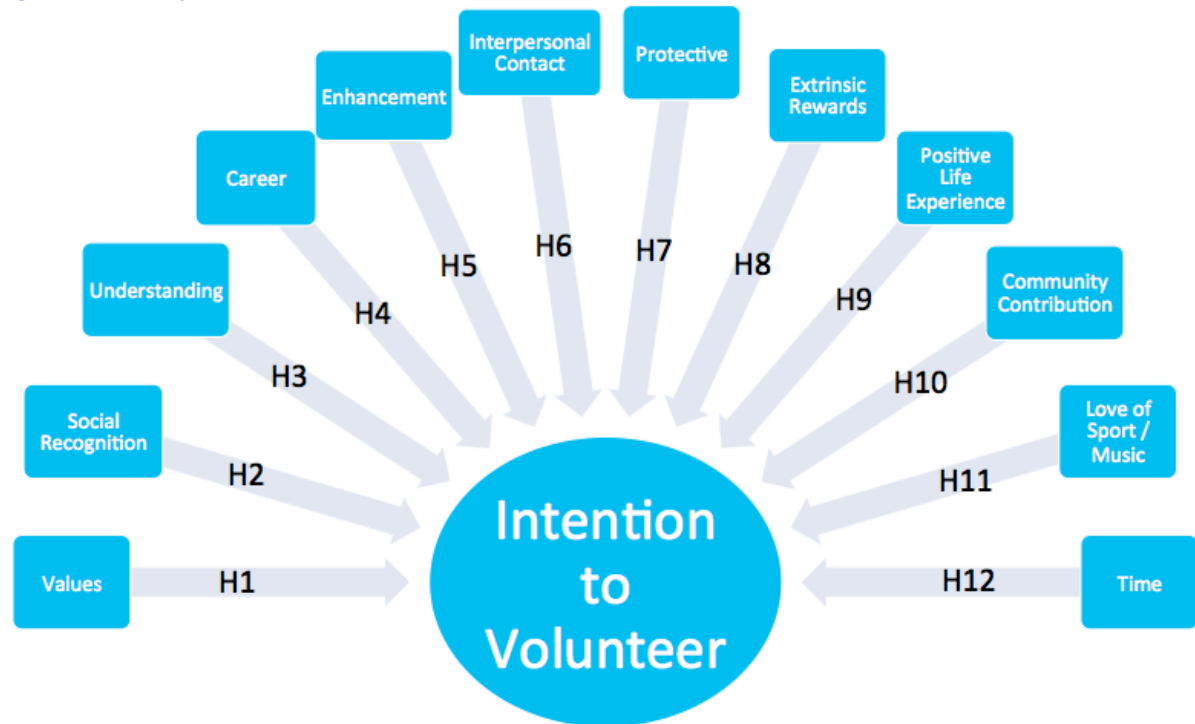
Source: own work

As shown in the conceptual model several independent variables need to be taken into consideration when the goal is to identify which motivators affect the intention to volunteer for sport and music events, and if these motives are different for volunteers and non-volunteers, respectively. The underlying model to be tested for this study is illustrated in Figure 1.

4   Research methodology

In order to answer the research question, two independent researches will be carried out. The first is a quantitative survey of volunteer motivations and the intention to volunteer, and the second is qualitative interviews with volunteer managers. Qualitative and quantitative research methods are complements, not substitutes. They have different aims and should thus be used for different purposes. Quantitative research can be used in this case since it has a confirmative nature, i.e. the researcher already have an idea about the hypotheses because s(he) e.g. has read about it in the scientific literature. The qualitative research is also appropriate in this study since it has a more exploratory nature. The qualitative research can explain *why* the results in the quantitative research have occurred, and *how* to implement these results by asking managers. In general, you could say that quantitative research aims to prove or disprove, while qualitative data strives to uncover and discover (Keller, 2013).

4.1   Paradigm choice

The term "paradigm" has been defined in numerous different ways, which is not surprising since Thomas Kuhn - the most responsible person for bringing this phenomenon into our awareness - has himself used the term in 21 different ways (Masterman, 1970, as cited in Guba, 1990). A research paradigm can be defined as a *"set of common beliefs and agreements"* shared by researchers regarding *"how problems should be understood and addressed"* (Kuhn, 1962), or in short as a *"basic set of beliefs that guides action"* (Guba, 1990, p. 17). Thus, it is a specific way of perceiving the world that shape how we seek to answer research questions. According to Guba (1990) research paradigms are mainly characterized by their ontological, epistemological, and methodological dispositions. Saunders et al. (2016) defines "philosophy" in a similar way as Kuhn defines "paradigm", i.e. as *"system of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge"* (p. 124). They have developed useful Figure called "the research onion" illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2: The research onion
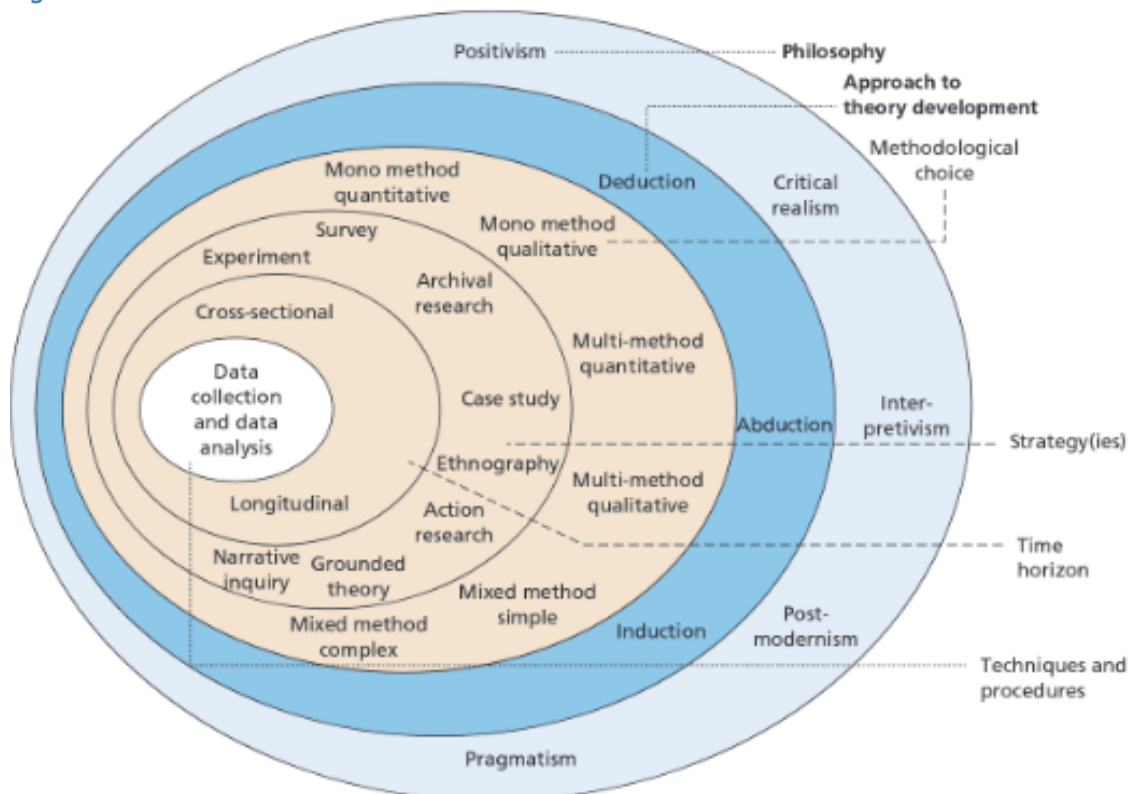
Source: Saunders et al. (2016), p. 124.

As this figure shows, in order to choose how you collect and analyse your data (in the centre of the onion) you have to explain why you made the choice you did. Consequently, you have to start by understanding and explaining the outer layers of the onion. This paragraph solemnly focuses on the research paradigms (the outer layer of the onion). A comparison of the five research paradigms is provided in Table 3.

Table 3: Comparison of five research paradigms

Paradigm	Ontology (what is reality?)	Epistemology (how can I know reality?)	Methodology (How can I create knowledge?)
Positivism	Reality exists "out there" and is driven by immutable natural laws and mechanisms. Time- and context-free generalizations. Some are cause-effect-laws.	If there is a real world operating according to natural laws, the researcher must behave in ways that put questions directly to nature and allow nature to answer back directly. *Objectivity* is crucial and permits the researcher to explore nature´s secrets without altering them. Values and other bias are excluded from influencing the outcomes.	Typically deductive, questions/hypotheses are stated in advance and tested under carefully controlled conditions. Typically quantitative methods. Look for causal relationships to create law-like generalisations. Use highly structured methodology to facilitate replication.
Critical realism	Reality is external and independent, but not directly accessible through observation and knowledge. What we experience is manifestations of things in the real world, rather than the actual things. Our senses deceive us.	Knowledge is historically situated (i.e. it is a product of its time). Facts are social constructs agreed upon by people. Causality cannot be reduced to statistical correlations and quantitative results.	If human sensory cannot be relied upon, it is essential that the "findings" of an inquiry be based on as many sources - of data, investigators, theories, and methods - as possible. Focus on providing an explanation for observable events by looking for underlying causes through which social constructs shape everyday life → Much in-depth historical analysis of organisational and social structures, and their changes over time.
Interpretivism	There is no single reality or truth. Individuals in groups create reality. Different people make different meanings, and create and experience different social realities. No universal "laws" applying to everybody.	Reality needs to be interpreted. Used to discover the underlying meaning of events and activities. The researcher engages in the activities and discerns the meanings of actions as they are expressed within a specific social context. Findings are literally the creation of the process of interaction between the inquirer and inquired.	Usually qualitative and inductive. Small samples, in-depth research to create new, richer understandings of social worlds and contexts, e.g. looking at companies from the perspectives of different stakeholders, or looking at people with different social or demographic characteristics.
Post-modernism	Emphasize the role of language and power relations, question common ways of thinking and provide alternative views.	"Truth" and "knowledge" is decided collectively by dominant ideologies. Dominant ways of thinking are not necessarily the best. Other suppressed perspectives can be just as valuable to create alternative truths.	Taking apart any forms of data - texts, images, conversations, voices and numbers - to search for insecurities within their widely accepted truths, and for what has not been discussed. In-depth research of silences and absences. Various data types, but usually qualitative analysis methods.
Pragmatism	Reality is constantly debated and interpreted in light of its practical usefulness.	True theories and knowledge are those that solve problems and guide successful action.	Various methods. Focus on research question/problem and practical solutions and outcomes. Action research.

Source: own work, inspired by Guba (1990) and Saunders et al. (2016)

No one of the five research paradigms is more "true" than others. There are positive aspects of each research paradigm. In the author´s opinion, a researcher has to remain neutral and detached from the research and data in order to avoid subjectively influencing the findings (positivism and critical realism). It can be discussed whether there is a single reality or truth, especially when it comes to human behaviour, even though a positivist would claim there is. However, it seems save to claim that people will not engage in an activity - or at least not continue to do an activity, such as volunteering - if the perceived costs exceeds the perceived benefits. Thus, some law-like generalisations can be made (positivism). Nonetheless, social and organisational structures can change over time (critical realism), and organisations should be looked at and interpreted from the perspectives of different groups of people (interpretivism). Additionally, it can be argued that researchers should primarily have focus on those research questions that can solve practical problems (pragmatism).

   The author is convinced that taking a positivistic and pragmatic approach to the development of knowledge is the best way. Large sample sizes are needed in order to have representative, reliable and valid data sets that are analysed objectively, and studies should be well explained to facilitate replication (positivism). When designing the research question the researcher should always keep in mind how s(he) contributes to the current knowledge of the specific research area and which practical problems s(he) can solve by answering the proposed research question (pragmatism).

4.2   Quantitative research

There are three main reasons why the quantitative research method is appropriate for the current study of volunteer motivation and intention. First, the approach in this study is deductive since the research starts with theory developed from reading academic literature, and the research is designed with predefined variables from scientific literature (Saunders et al., 2016). Second, the method involves testing the hypotheses about the relationship between the variables. Third, the quantitative method aligned with the positivistic philosophy focusing on the relationship between volunteer motivation and intention, use objective measures making the research easy to reproduce (Love, 2009; Saunders et al., 2016).

4.2.1   Data collection and sample

The quantitative research is an online survey of random respondents. A pilot-study of the survey was made before the survey was released in order to find out: 1) how long the questionnaire took to complete; 2) which, if any, questions were unclear or ambiguous; 3) which, if any, questions the respondent felt uneasy about answering; 4) whether there were any major topic omissions in their opinion; 5) whether the layout was clear and welcoming; and 6) if they had any other comments. Four pilots participated in the pilot-study, the survey took roughly ten minutes to complete, and none of the pilots took issue with any of the questions being asked. Yet, one concern raised through

the pilot-study was the availability of more than a binary gender-choice. This was not accommodated in the final study.

The final survey was made using the online questionnaire tool www.onlineundersoegelse.dk and distributed through Facebook on the 3rd of December 2019, using the snowball sampling technique. A reminder was sent out in the beginning of January 2020, and the final data set was gathered on February 3rd 2020.

135 respondents started the survey, but only 108 completed it. Unfortunately, online participants often quit a survey after the first few questions (Rice et al., 2017). Additionally, one respondent was removed from the data set since he responded the same to all Likert-scale questions indicating that he did not consider the questions asked. In total, 107 usable observations/respondents were included in the data set. Their average age was 40.9 years (SD = 15.5; range 21-72 years), 61.7% were females, and 39.2% were sport or music event volunteers.

4.2.2   Data analysis

The data is analysed using SPSS 26. Overall, the analysis of the data can be divided into three steps. First, the means of the twelve motivational drivers (see Table 4) are calculated for each respondent, reducing the items in each predictor from four to one. Additionally, the means of the two dependent variables, i.e. intention to volunteer, are also calculated. These new means are used for the second and the third step. In the second step, the assumptions for multiple linear regression are explained, including 1) a linear relationship between each predictor and the outcome variable; 2) an absence of multicollinearity between the independent variables (IV´s); 3) the values of the residuals are independent; 4) the variance of the residuals is constant, i.e. homoscedasticity; 5) the values of the residuals are normally distributed; and 6) an absence of outliers for all the variables. In the third step, the different multiple regression analyses are carried out, including testing the necessary assumptions, to see which volunteer motivations have a significant correlation with the intention to volunteer. Results are deemed statistically significant when $p < 0.05$.

The "enter" method in SPSS is used to carry out the multiple regression analyses. Even though the "enter" method forces all the independent variables (IV´s) into the multiple regression equation irrespective of their statistical significance, you can discard the IV´s yourself based on their multicollinearity. The stepwise regression methods, i.e. forward inclusion, backward elimination, and stepwise solution, are all regression procedures in which each IV enter or leave the regression equation one at a time based on the contribution to the explained variance (Malhotra et al., 2013). However, the stepwise methods do not result in optimal regression equations, in the sense of producing the largest R^2, for a given number of predictors. Due to the correlations between IV´s, an important variable might not be included or less important IV´s might enter the equation (Malhotra et al., 2013). In order to identify the optimal regression equation, you have to compute combinatorial solutions in which all possible combinations are examined. Hence, the enter method is more appropriate.

4.2.3   Reliability and validity of findings, sample size, and distribution of questionnaire

Two important terms are crucial to consider when judging the quality of research, namely reliability and validity. **Reliability** is replication and consistency (Saunders et al., 2016). This quantitative study is easy to reproduce, but it is not assured that results would be the same if a researcher did a similar research in another context or at another time, and therefore this study is not necessarily externally reliable. However, there are other elements that suggest a higher reliability. First, Cronbach´s α is commonly used to test internal consistency reliability (Saunders et al., 2016; Butt et al., 2017). This statistic is used to measure the consistency of responses to a set of questions that are combined as a scale. Cronbach´s α of various volunteer motivations in many academic studies are higher than 0.7 (see paragraph 5.1) indicating that the volunteer motivations are acceptable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) and hence internally reliable. Thus, the questions combined in the scale are measuring the same thing. Additionally, the pilot-study indicates that the questions were easy to understand and there were no errors, which makes the data more reliable. There is no indication that the pilots consistently interpreted a question in the questionnaire in another way than intended by the researcher. To summarise, there is some degree of reliability and it is possible to repeat the study.

  Validity refers to: 1) the appropriateness of the measures used; 2) accuracy of the analysis of the results, and; 3) generalizability of the findings (Saunders et al., 2016). First, the measurement validity is assured since the questions in the survey are based on academic literature in the field of volunteer management. Thus, the questions in the survey are considered appropriate to measure what they intend to do. Second, internal validity is established when the research accurately demonstrates a relationship between two variables (Saunders et al, 2016). In this survey internal validity is established since a set of questions is shown statistically to be associated with an outcome at the 95% confidence level. Third, external validity refers to whether the study´s research findings can be generalised to others, such as a larger population or other organisations or cultures. In this case, only 107 respondents completed the questionnaire, which is not considered to be a representative sample size of the population. However, the 107 respondents have different demographic character-ristics: the average age is 40.9 years (SD = 15.5), approx. 62% are females, and 39% have volunteered for professional sport or music events. Hence, the findings are more generalizable than if respondents shared the same demographic characteristics.

  Sample size is a methodological issue that needs to be addressed. Several studies that analysed volunteers have sample sizes smaller than n=250 using quantitative methods (e.g. Elstad, 2003; Giannoulakis et al., 2007; Finkelstein, 2008; Millette & Gagné, 2008; Bang et al., 2008; Bang et al., 2009; Pauline, 2011; Fairley et al., 2013; Koutrou & Pappous, 2016). Recently, Zievinger and Swint (2018) based their data analysis on 103 valid online surveys from festival volunteers. Only few studies have sample sizes over n=1000 (e.g. Doherty, 2009; Alexander et al., 2015; VanSickle et al., 2015). A potential reason for the small sample sizes could be that that access is difficult and that the number

of volunteers is quite small (Hallmann & Harms, 2012). Thus, generalisations should often be made with care. However, from a methodological standpoint the most important point is that the prerequisites for the applied statistical procedures are met (Hallmann & Harms, 2012). In this case, it is doubtful that 107 respondents is a good enough sample size to include in a multiple regression analysis containing twelve predictors. For example, the finding of Knofczynski and Mundfrom (2008) indicate that a model utilizing twelve predictor variables would require an excessive sample size, not fully attained by the survey conducted for this study. Hence, generalisations of this study need to be made with care.

As mentioned earlier the survey was distributed through Facebook, which was perceived as the most convenient sampling technique by the author. However, collecting data in this way means that the researcher has a greater subjective influence in sample selection. This happens because the researcher shares the survey among her friends on social media, who, in turn, can share it with their friends. Thus, respondents might be demographically similar to each other, indicating that reservations must be made for possible bias in the study due to the sampling technique. In short, there might be issues with the representativeness of the study.

4.3   Qualitative research

4.3.1   Data collection and sample

Fifteen volunteer managers from various Danish professional soccer and handball clubs and music festivals were contacted through e-mail and asked if they wanted to participate in an interview regarding volunteer motivation. They were also offered to receive the main questions before the interviews were carried out. Nine volunteer managers replied, and six of these were willing to participate. The remaining three replied that COVID-19 impacted their activities in the organisation to such a great extent that they did not have time for an interview. Three out of the six participants work for professional handball clubs in the best Danish handball league called "Primo Tours Ligaen", and the other three work for large music festivals in Denmark. The questions for the interviews are shown in Appendix G. Even though four of the managers are anonymous in the report, the author knows their names.

The interviews were conducted between February and March 2020. Four interviews took place over the phone and lasted between 15 and 40 minutes. The interviews were audio recorded, and notes were taken during the interviews if clarifications were needed. Data was transcribed directly from the audiotapes. The two remaining managers preferred to answer the questions in writing and this need was met. All interviews were conducted and transcribed in Danish, added in Appendix H. However, for the sake of the reader, the interviews have been translated into English in Appendix I.

4.3.2   Data analysis

The transcribed text was processed into a manageable form, i.e. key messages and topics were extracted, and conclusions were drawn. A deductive approach was utilized to analyse the transcribed data. Deductively, a pattern match technique was used to compare the managers´ replies to each question. For this purpose, each participant´s answer for each question was treated individually, followed by matching and comparing the answers of each participant on each question with one another (Miles et al., 2014). When the cross comparison was completed, conclusions were drawn on each question.

4.3.3   Reliability and validity of findings and sample size

Although it is time consuming to transcribe and analyse an interview, you do not need as many participants for interviews as you would need for a questionnaire to make the study representative. According to Saunders et al. (2016) you would need minimum 5-25 respondents for a proper interview sample size. This study consists of interviews with six volunteer managers, three of whom are from professional handball clubs and the remaining three from large music festivals. Hence, this sample ought to be representative. However, two main disadvantages of qualitative data should be noted. First, the adaption of external **validity** to qualitative research can be questioned because small samples might not necessarily generalize to broader populations (Keller, 2013; Saunders et al., 2016). Second, the internal validity can also be questioned because there is a great risk of bias from subjective interpretation of the results due to the qualitative nature (Keller, 2013). In order to avoid subjective interpretation it is necessary to code the answers in order to standardize the results from the interviews, which has been done in Table 13 (see Appendix J for more details). Additionally, to assure internal validity - also referred to as "credibility" in qualitative studies - the transcript material should have been approved by the interviewees to confirm their statements. The interviews were recorded and transcribed word by word, but transcriptions were not sent back to interviewees to approve what they have said.

When it comes to external **reliability**, qualitative research is not necessarily intended to be repro-duced because it reflects the interpretations of participants in a particular setting at the specific time it is conducted. However, a detailed description of the research design, methods, and context could help other researchers to replicate similar studies (Saunders et al., 2016). In this report, reliability - also referred to as "dependability" in qualitative studies - has been assured through the transcription of the interviews, and through the description of methods and research design. The use of more than one interviewer and data analyst (e.g. to evaluate the extent to which they agree about the data and its analysis) would also improve the research quality, referred to as internal reliability. Yet, this report including data collections and analyses, etc. has only been executed by the author.

5   Research design: Quantitative study

A survey with a correlational research design is the preferred method to conduct the research required to meet the aims of the current study. The purpose of this paragraph is to explain the questions in the survey. The entire survey questionnaire design for volunteers can also be found in Appendix B.

The first question "have you ever been a volunteer?" was asked in order to divide people into two groups of volunteers and non-volunteers to determine differences in motivations and likelihood to volunteer in order to answer the research question. The second question "In which context have you primarily been a volunteer?" was asked as an open question since there are many different activities for which people can volunteer. Additionally, the initial purpose of this research was to compare whether motivations to volunteer are different for sport event volunteers versus music event volunteers. However, since there are only 20 sport event volunteers and 22 music event volunteers in the usable data set, it is not enough to compare these two groups. Likewise, the third question "How many times have you been a volunteer?" was asked to see whether new sport/music event volunteers were motivated by different things than long-term sport/music event volunteers.

5.1   Motivation to volunteer

The next questions examined potential reasons to volunteer, exhibited in Table 4. In total 46 items were used. The purpose was to utilize the analytical procedure of multiple regression to determine whether the twelve motivational drivers predict intentions to volunteer (see Figure 1). Each of the twelve predictors consists of four items, except Time only containing two items. The reason to use multiple items for each predictor is to avoid measurement errors associated with single items (Churchill, 1979). On the other hand, if you include too many items, the survey would simply be too long, and people would not finish it. A previous professor at SDU Esbjerg have argued that people should be able to answer the questionnaire in less than ten minutes, and this was taken into account. The list of measurement items was made after a literature search on volunteer motivation and retention for special events (e.g. Clary et al., 1998; Farrell et al., 1998; Bang & Ross, 2009). The questions in Table 4 were asked to both volunteers and non-volunteers, only phrased slightly differently. For example volunteers were asked: "Volunteering allows me to explore different career options", whereas non-volunteers were asked: "In case I´m volunteering, I expect I can explore different career options". Respondents were asked to rate how important each of these potential reasons for volunteering are for them on a Likert scale from 1 (not important at all) to 7 (extremely important).

Table 4: Measurement of volunteer motivations

Motivation	Items	Adapted from
Values	I feel it is important to help others I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself I can do something for a cause that is important to me I want to do something worthwhile	Clary et al. (1998); Elstad (2003)
Social recognition	My friends/family members volunteer People I´m close to want me to volunteer Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best People I know share an interest in community service	Clary et al. (1998); Antoni (2009)
Understanding	I can learn more about the cause for which I am working Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things Volunteering lets me learn new things through direct, hands on experience I can explore my own strengths	Clary et al. (1998); Zievinger & Swint (2018)
Career	Volunteering can help me to get into a place where I would like to work I can make new contacts that might help my career or business through volunteering Volunteering allows me to explore different career options Volunteer experience will look good on my resume	Clary et al. (1998); Bang et al. (2009)
Enhancement	Volunteering makes me feel important Volunteering makes me feel needed Volunteering enhances my self-esteem Volunteering makes me feel better about myself	Clary et al. (1998); Hallmann & Harms (2012)
Interpersonal contact	I want to develop relationships with others I want to work with different people I want to meet people I want to interact with others	Elstad (2003); Doherty (2009)
Protective	By volunteering I feel less lonely No matter how bad I have been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles or personal problems	Clary et al. (1998); Butt et al. (2017)
Extrinsic rewards	I want to get free access to the event I want to get free event staff clothes I want to get free nourishment at the event I want to get other material rewards	Elstad (2003); Bang et al. (2009)
Positive life experience	By volunteering I get new experiences Volunteering is exiting Volunteering is an escape from my everyday life By volunteering I broaden my horizons	Doherty (2009); Millette & Gagné (2008)
Community contribution	I want to support the local community I want to help make the event a success I want to feel part of the community I want to help create a better society	Doherty (2009); Bang & Ross (2009)
Love of sport/music	Sport and/or music is something I love I enjoy being involved in sport and/or music events I can watch some events while working As a volunteer I can do things that interests me	Elstad (2003) Bang & Ross (2009)
Time	I have more free time than I used to have I don´t have anything else to do with my time	Lockstone-Binney et al. (2015) Alexander et al. (2015)

Source: own work. The means and standard deviations of all items are displayed in Appendix C, in descending order from the most important to the least important item.

All twelve motivational drivers have previously been examined, but not all together. Appendix A demonstrates which drivers 30 scientific articles have examined in their studies of volunteer motivation. Including all twelve motives contribute to the current knowledge of volunteer motivation since no one else have examined all these motives altogether in one study.

   All twelve motives have been found to be reliable by previous studies. Clary et al. (1998) assessed internal consistency for each of the six factors: Values (Cronbach´s α = .80); Social recognition (α = .80); Understanding (α = .81); Career (α = .89); Enhancement (α = .84); and Protective (α = .81). Elstad (2003) also extracted factors with as satisfactory reliability, such as Interpersonal contact (α = .80) and Extrinsic rewards (α = .87). The two factors Positive life experience (α = .77) and Community contribution (α = .90) was found in Doherty´s (2009) study. Love of sport (α = .85) was a factor developed by Bang & Ross (2009). Lastly, Time (α = .69) was identified as a motivational factor in Lockstone-Binney et al. (2015). To the author´s knowledge only very few articles have identified Time as an independent motivational factor. However, since it has been identified as a factor in Lockstone-Binney et al. (2015), Dickson et al. (2015) and in Alexander et al. (2015), it was included in this analysis as well.

   In addition to the twelve drivers, another volunteer motivation included in mega-event studies, i.e. the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup, is Patriotism. However, since volunteers in smaller local events are unlikely to feel a sense of national pride and patriotism compared to volunteers of mega-sporting events (Bang et al., 2008), the patriotism motivation was not included in this study.

5.2   Intention to volunteer

The intention to volunteer, used interchangeably with likelihood to volunteer, is the volunteer's belief that he or she will volunteer in the future, and is used as the dependent variable in the current study, since *"intent to engage in behavior is the best predictor of actual behavior"* (e.g. Sheeran, 2002; as cited in Doherty, 2009, p. 188). Participants´ intention to volunteer was measured with the two items: "My likelihood to volunteer in an event in the near future is high" and "I will engage myself at an event in the near future as a volunteer". The respondents were asked to rate these two dependent variables on a Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Even though these two questions are quite similar, 27 respondents (25%) rated them differently.

5.3   Demographic questions

In addition to the twelve volunteer motivations age, gender, and volunteer experience were also included as independent variables in the multiple regression analyses in order to see whether any demographic differences affect the intention to volunteer. The two demographic questions, age and gender, were deliberately asked at the end of the survey. It is not necessary to ask easy questions in

the beginning of a survey. When people start the survey they are ready to answer it, and they can still state their gender even after many questions.

6   Results: Quantitative study

6.1   Descriptive statistics

Table 5 shows the means and standard deviations for all respondents, sport and music event volunteers, and non-volunteers, respectively regarding their motivations to volunteer (MTV) in descending order.

Table 5: Overall importance of volunteer motivations

All respondents (N=107)		Volunteers (N=42)		Non-volunteers (N=65)	
Motivation	Mean (SD)	Motivation	Mean (SD)	Motivation	Mean (SD)
Values	5.38 (0.95)	Values	5.18 (0.93)	Values	5.52 (0.95)
Understanding	4.90 (1.34)	Community	4.95 (1.06)	Understanding	5.03 (1.38)
Community	4.84 (1.22)	Sport or music	4.89 (1.14)	Community	4.76 (1.32)
Interpersonal	4.58 (1.44)	Interpersonal	4.80 (1.30)	Interpersonal	4.44 (1.51)
Life experience	4.42 (1.14)	Understanding	4.71 (1.26)	Life experience	4.41 (1.24)
Sport or music	4.41 (1.42)	Life experience	4.42 (0.98)	Enhancement	4.12 (1.64)
Enhancement	4.10 (1.51)	Enhancement	4.07 (1.30)	Sport or music	4.10 (1.50)
Career	3.79 (1.76)	Career	3.81 (1.81)	Career	3.78 (1.74)
Social recognition	3.44 (1.49)	Social recognition	3.46 (1.33)	Social recognition	3.42 (1.59)
Protective	2.77 (1.43)	Extrinsic rewards	2.82 (1.56)	Protective	2.94 (1.58)
Time	2.72 (1.56)	Time	2.61 (1.52)	Time	2.80 (1.59)
Extrinsic rewards	2.44 (1.45)	Protective	2.50 (1.13)	Extrinsic rewards	2.20 (1.34)

Source: own work

First of all, the altruistic variable, Values, is the most important MTV on the Likert scale from 1 (not important at all) to 7 (extremely important), and has the smallest standard deviations (SD) in all three groups. The primary reason to volunteer, regardless of previous volunteer experience, is for the sake of helping others. Next, Understanding, i.e. learning new things is moderately important to non-volunteers, whereas volunteers are more motivated by the intrinsic motivation Community contribution. However, Community contribution is the third most important MTV for non-volunteers, making it a moderately important motivational driver for all respondents. Likewise, Understanding is also moderately important to the volunteers. Additionally, the volunteers are more passionate about sport or music compared to non-volunteers (μ = 4.9 for volunteers and μ = 4.1 for non-volunteers). Interpersonal contact, i.e. meeting and working with other people is also somewhat important to all respondents, as the fourth most important MTV.

   Moving down, people tend to be more neutral in their answers, i.e. the value 4 on the Likert scale. Both volunteers and non-volunteers rate overall Positive life experience as μ = 4.4 on the Likert scale. Appendix C demonstrates that while three of the items in Positive life experience are placed in the top, one item drags the mean down (μ = 4.99; 4.96; 4.78; and 2.83 respectively). Additionally, volunteers and non-volunteers rate Enhancement (μ = 4.1), Career (μ = 3.8) and Social recognition (μ

= 3.4) in the same way. Career has the largest SD of 1.7 - 1.8 in the groups, suggesting there could be differences among people based e.g. on age. Although there are small differences, both volunteers and non-volunteers find the variables Protective, Time, and Extrinsic rewards as having a low importance with respect to their decision to volunteer.

6.2   Model assumptions

There are several assumptions for multiple linear regression, including 1) an absence of multi-collinearity between the independent variables; 2) a linear relationship between each independent variable (IV) and the dependent variable (DV); 3) the values of the residuals are independent; 4) the variance of the residuals is constant, i.e. homoscedasticity; 5) the values of the residuals are normally distributed; and 6) an absence of outliers for all the variables. The first two assumptions are described in the next two paragraphs, and will be checked in the multiple regression analysis. The last four assumptions are described and checked simultaneously afterwards.

6.2.1   Is there multicollinearity between the predictors?

Multicollinearity generally occurs when the IV´s are highly correlated to each other. It is thus a disturbance in the data, and if multicollinearity is present the statistical inferences made about the data might not be reliable. The main problem is that whenever two IV´s are highly correlated, it makes it more difficult to assess their relative importance in determining the DV (Blalock, 1963).

  Several approaches have been recommended to deal with multicollinearity, the simplest one being variable exclusion. By using this approach the researcher discards any IV showing correlations with other IV´s higher than a certain threshold. A Pearsons´s correlation coefficient $|r| > 0.7$ has often been used as a threshold (Dormann et al., 2013), although the exact r-value is left to the discretion of researchers. A Pearsons´s correlation coefficient close to zero means that there is a weak relationship between the two variables, i.e. that changes in one variable are not correlated with changes in the second variables. At the other extreme, a Pearson´s correlation coefficient close to 1 or -1 there is a strong relationship between the variables, either positive or negative. Analysts would not typically think of $r = 0.5$ as too much collinearity between two IV´s.

  The estimation of variance inflation factors (VIF) is another approach used to identify non-independence among IV´s. VIF represents the overall correlation of each IV with all others included in the model. If the VIF > 10 it is usually considered as evidence for high multicollinearity, and justifies the removal of certain IV´s.

  Deciding on which variables to exclude might also be based on a principal component analysis (PCA) to select relevant predictors among a set of collinear variables. However, a variable exclusion ignoring the unique contribution of removed predictors can result in a loss of explanatory power. For this reason, the assumption of an absence of multicollinearity between the predictors is tested using the Pearson correlation and VIF.

6.2.2   Is there a linear relationship between the predictors and the outcome variable?

Interpretation of correlation coefficients differs significantly from one scientific research area to another. In psychology, and hence behavioral science, the predictor variable should correlate with the outcome variable at a value > 0.3 in order to be considered "moderate" (Akoglu, 2018). If the correlation is < 0.3 it is considered to be "weak".

6.2.3   Are the values of the residuals independent?

The observations, i.e. the individual data points, need to be independent/uncorrelated from one another. This assumption can be tested using the Durbin-Watson (DW) statistic. If the value is close to 2 the residuals are uncorrelated. Only values smaller than 1.5 and higher than 2.5 indicate problems (Jensen & Knudsen, 2011). In the analysis of all respondents the DW-statistic is 2.32. For the volunteers DW = 2.95 and for the non-volunteers DW = 1.82. In other words, when making the multiple regression analysis with all respondents and non-volunteers the assumption of uncorrelated residuals is met. However, for the volunteers the assumption is not met and could render the analysis invalid. On the other hand, since the data in this analysis is not time series data, this test is less important, and will therefore not be discussed any further.

6.2.4   Homoscedasticity

This assumption states that the variance of the error terms is similar across the values of the predictors. A scatterplot of standardized residuals versus predicted values is a commonly used method to show whether points are equally distributed across all values of the predictors. There should be no clear pattern in the distribution in order to meet the assumption.

  A visual examination of the plot of the standardized residuals (the errors) by the regression standardized predicted value, Figure 3, shows that the standardized residuals decrease as the dependent variable increases. Thus, the variance of the errors is not constant, and the assumption of homoscedasticity is violated. Models in which error terms do not all have the same variance are said to exhibit heteroscedasticity. When heteroscedasticity is present, the usual procedures for deriving confidence intervals and tests of hypotheses for the coefficients are no longer valid (Newbold et al., 2007). The scatterplots with all respondents (Figure 3) and with non-volunteers (Appendix F) show a similar pattern, and the assumption of homoscedasticity is not met in these tests. In short, the results of the analyses should be interpreted with caution since the variance of the errors is not constant.

However, in the scatterplot with the volunteers (Appendix E) there does not appear to be any relationship between the predicted value and the magnitude of the residuals. Hence, in the multiple regression analysis of the volunteers, there is no evidence of heteroscedasticity.

Figure 3: Test of homogeneity of variance for all respondents

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: Mean Intention to volunteer
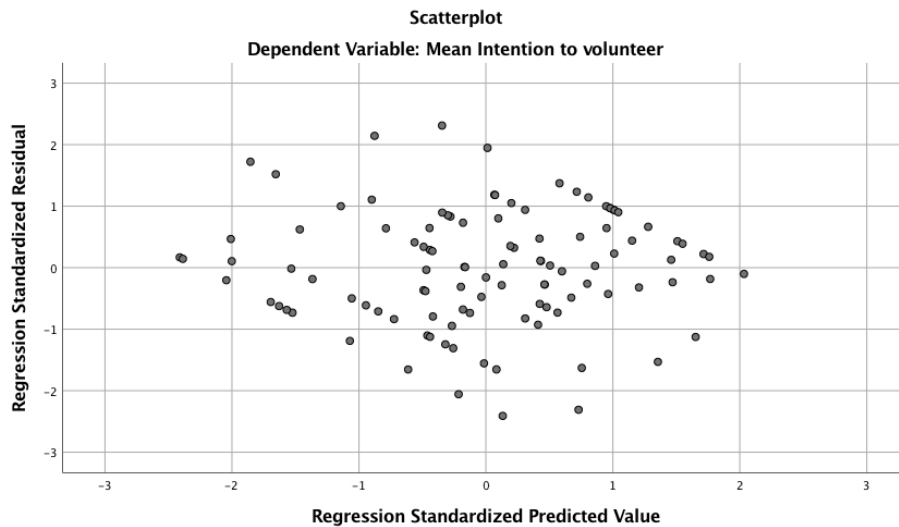
Source: own work

6.2.5   Are the values of the residuals normally distributed?

This assumption is tested by looking at the P-P plot for the model in Figure 4, which includes all predictors and all respondents. The closer the dots are to the diagonal line, the closer to normal the residuals are distributed. As Figure 4 illustrates, the data points of all respondents are close to the line, indicating that this assumption is met.

Figure 4: Test of normal distribution of residuals

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: Mean DV
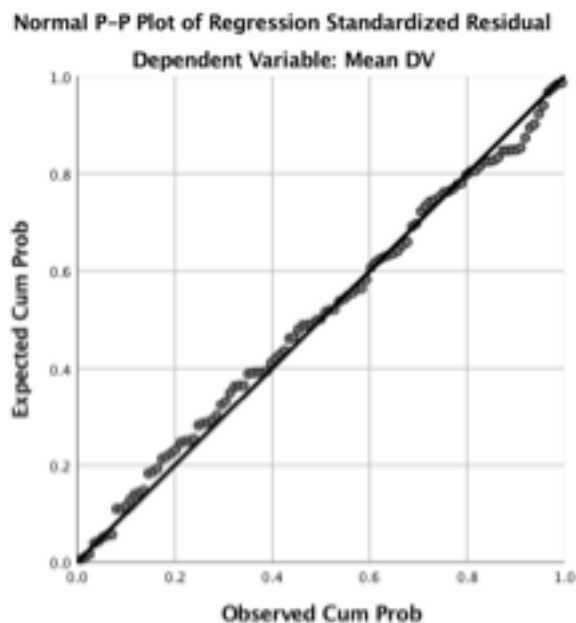
Source: own work

In Appendix D, E, and F all P-P-plots are illustrated. If we look at the P-P plots for all the respondents and the non-volunteers, the residuals are normally distributed. However, for the volunteers, the data points does not touch the line to the same extend as above, indicating that this assumption may be violated for the volunteers, and that results should be interpreted with caution.

6.2.6   Are there any outliers in the variables?

Can you actually classify an outlier with a Likert scale variable? By the very nature of a Likert scale variable there is both a floor and a ceiling, i.e. 1 and 7 in this case. Hence, it seems imprudent to discard respondents because they respond at either extreme of this spectrum. On the other hand, it can be argued that outliers can occur in a dataset when a response is extreme compared to what is considered within the "norm" in a sample. An outlier is defined as a value placed by more than 3 times the interquartile range (IQR) away from the 1st or 3rd quartile. Additionally, a suspected outlier is defined as a value placed by more than 1.5 times the interquartile range (IQR) away from the 1st or 3rd quartile (Bowerman et al., 2015).

   In order to check for outliers, box plots for each variable have been examined. There are two low suspected outliers in the predictors Understanding and Positive life experience, respectively, and three low suspected outliers in the predictor Community contribution. No other suspected outliers have been found in the dataset, and no extreme outliers have been found.

   In order to check whether these suspected outliers affect the data, the mean and the 5% trimmed mean are now compared. The 5% trimmed mean is the mean that "cuts off" 5% of the extreme higher and lower ends of the dataset. If there is a large difference between the mean and the 5% trimmed mean, then there is a big risk that the further analysis, i.e. the correlation and regression, will be affected. In this case, however, there are no striking differences between the mean and the 5% trimmed mean, the maximum difference being 0.06 for Understanding. It is thus expected that none of the seven detected outliers will affect the upcoming analyses.

   Additionally, the Cook´s Distance statistic is a measure of how much influence an IV has on the predicted value of the DV. Specifically, it refers to how far on average predicted Y-values will change if the particular record is dropped from the data set. One theory is that as long as the Cook´s Distance for each participant is lower than 1, there are no significant outliers. In this case, the highest Cook´s Distance is 0.22, hence the assumption of no outliers is met. Since there are no outliers, this assumption will not be mentioned in the analysis.

6.3   The null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis

In order to make the multiple regression analysis the following hypotheses are established:

H0: $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = … = \beta_n = 0$. The DV is independent of the IV´s. In other words, the IV´s have no influence on the DV.

H1: at least one $\beta_j \neq 0$.

The results for all hypotheses are provided in paragraph 6.4-6.6. They are all tested at the 95% confidence level.

6.4   Multiple regression with all respondents

6.4.1   Assumptions

In order to check whether there is multicollinearity between the predictor variables and a linear relationship between the predictor variables and the outcome variables, Table 6 demonstrates the correlations for all respondents (N=107).

Table 6: Pearson´s correlation matrix for all respondents

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12
V1	1											
V2	.41**	1										
V3	.51**	.26**	1									
V4	0.18	0.09	.42**	1								
V5	.46**	.39**	.56**	.34**	1							
V6	.34**	.34**	.55**	.35**	.71**	1						
V7	.29**	.42**	.38**	.25**	.59**	.49**	1					
V8	-0.18	0.10	0.01	.25**	0.13	0.06	.30**	1				
V9	.41**	.25**	.70**	.25**	.61**	.67**	.43**	0.06	1			
V10	.41**	.38**	.34**	0.04	.56**	.60**	.30**	0.00	.57**	1		
V11	0.15	.24*	.41**	.36**	.47**	.64**	.36**	.35**	.53**	.44**	1	
V12	0.09	.20*	0.17	.26**	.28**	.24*	.45**	.22*	.22*	0.09	.31**	1
DV	.38**	.43**	.32**	.22*	.44**	.51**	.35**	0.03	.45**	.60**	.51**	0.11

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).
DV = mean Intention to volunteer, V1 = mean Values, V2 = mean Social recognition, V3 = mean Understanding, V4 = mean Career, V5 = mean Enhancement, V6 = Interpersonal contact, V7 = mean Protective, V8 = mean Extrinsic rewards, V9 = mean Positive life experience, V10 = mean Community contribution, V11 = mean Love of sport or music, V12 = mean Time.
Source: own work

In accordance with Dormann et al. (2013), if a Pearson´s correlation coefficient $|r| > 0.7$ then those variables are multicollinear, which is not ideal between the predictors. As Table 6 illustrates, two Pearson correlations ≥ 0.7 i.e. the correlations marked with red between Enhancement and Inter-personal contact, as well as the correlation between Understanding and Positive life experience. Additionally, there are four Pearson correlations ≥ 0.6 marked with yellow. Especially, Interpersonal contact (V6) and Positive life experience (V9) are highly correlated with other predictors.

   As mentioned above, the variance inflation factor (VIF) also indicates whether there is a multi-collinearity problem. Since all VIF factors are < 4 and in Appendix D, this indicates that there is no multicollinearity (Jensen & Knudsen, 2011). Additionally, it should be mentioned that there is no multicollinearity between the twelve volunteer motivations and age, gender, and volunteer experience.

As Table 6 also illustrates, the assumption of a linear relationship between the predictor variables and the outcome variables is not met for all predictors. Three of the predictors Career (r = 0.22), Time (0.11) and Extrinsic rewards (0.03) do not meet the threshold of r > 0.3 and hence do not meet the assumption of having a moderate correlation with the dependent variable (Akoglu, 2018). On the other hand, the nine other predictors meet this assumption. The predictors having the strongest

correlation with the intention to volunteer is Community contribution (r = 0.60), Love of sport or music (0.51) and Interpersonal contact (0.51), followed by Positive life experience (0.45), Enhancement (0.44), Social recognition (0.43), Values (0.38), Protective (0.35), and Understanding (0.32).

6.4.2   Results of all respondents

All assumptions have now been tested. Remember that four of the IV´s were multicollinear (Pearson's r > 0.7) and that three of the IV´s did not correlate with the DV in Table 6. This strongly indicates that the conceptual framework is not a perfect model. In the full model including all twelve motivational drivers, age, gender, and volunteer experience, the R^2 = 0.545 and thus 54.5% of the variance in the DV (intention to volunteer) can be explained by all predictors ($F_{(15,91)}$ = 7.262, p < 0.001). Thus, H0 is rejected and it is assumed that at least one IV has an influence on the DV.

  A problem with R^2 is that it is influenced in size by the number of predictors. Thus, we have to look at the adjusted R^2. More importantly, because the sample size is small and the two DV´s are not normally distributed (Kolmogorov-Smirnov p < 0.01), the adjusted R^2 is preferred over the R^2. As the name states, the adjusted R^2 adjusts it in proportion to the IV´s and the sample size. The adjusted R^2 is an estimate of the model´s explanation if it is used for the entire population instead of this sample size. In this case the adjusted R^2 = 0.470 and hence an explanation of 47% is expected if this sample size was generalized to the entire population. Overall, since the adjusted R^2 > 0.3 it is considered a good fit. The coefficients-table of the full model is illustrated in Appendix D.

  If the twelve motivational drivers are included in the model without age, gender, and volunteer experience, it only changes the results to a small extend (R^2 = 0.514, adj. R^2 = 0.452, p < 0.001).

Since Interpersonal contact (V6) and Positive life experience (V9) are highly correlated with other predictors, and do not meet the assumption of an absence of multicollinearity, these two predictors are removed from the model.

  The final model based on linear combinations of ten volunteer motivation, age, gender and volunteer experience is significant ($F_{(13,93)}$ = 8.478, p < 0.001), and 54.2% of the variability in volunteer intention is attributable to variability in the volunteer motivations, age, gender, and volunteer experience (adjusted R^2 = 0.478). The coefficients for the final model are illustrated in Table 7.

Table 7: Coefficients of the final model (all respondents)

	Unstandardized coefficients		Standard.	t	Sig.	95% Confidence int.		Collinear.
	B	Std. err.	Beta			Lower	Upper	VIF
(Constant)	-2.03	1.08		-1.88	0.06	-4.17	0.12	
Values	0.18	0.19	0.15	1.54	0.13	-0.05	0.50	1.85
Social recog.	0.17	0.12	0.13	1.50	0.14	-0.06	0.41	1.62
Understanding	-0.13	0.14	-0.09	-0.92	0.36	-0.42	0.15	2.00
Career	0.20	0.10	0.18	1.99	0.05	0.00	0.40	1.69
Enhancement	-0.14	0.15	-0.11	-0.94	0.35	-0.43	0.15	2.59
Protective	0.21	0.14	0.16	1.54	0.13	-0.06	0.49	2.12
Rewards	-0.13	0.12	-0.10	-1.17	0.24	-0.36	0.09	1.51
Community	0.63	0.16	0.40	4.03	0.00	0.32	0.94	1.95
Sport or music	0.41	0.14	0.30	2.99	0.00	0.14	0.67	2.00
Time	-0.13	0.10	-0.10	-1.23	0.22	-0.33	0.08	1.40
Volunteer exp.	0.02	0.02	0.12	1.54	0.13	-0.01	0.05	1.19
Age	0.01	0.01	0.09	1.01	0.31	-0.01	0.03	1.48
Gender	-0.39	0.29	-0.10	-1.32	0.19	-0.97	0.19	1.09

DV = mean Intention to volunteer. Volunteer exp. = volunteer experience.
Source: own work

Table 7 looks quite similar to the full model including all independent variables in Appendix D. In both tables Community contribution, Love of sport or music, and Career have a significant impact on the respondents´ intentions to volunteer in events ($p > 0.05$). These three predictors alone accounted for approximately 44.2% of the unique variance in intention to volunteer ($F_{(3,103)} = 27.235$, $p < 0.001$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.426$). However, none of the other motivational drivers, nor age, gender or previous volunteer experience have a significant impact on intention to volunteer.

The unstandardized coefficients indicate how much the DV varies with an IV when all other IV´s are held constant. Consider the effect of Community contribution in Table 7. The unstandardized coefficient for Community contribution is equal to 0.63. This means that for each one unit increase in Community contribution, there is an increase in intention to volunteer of 0.63 units. Likewise, if you increase Love of sport/music or Career by one unit, the intention to volunteer will increase by 0.41 and 0.2 respectively. By now it should be clear that Community contribution increases the intention to volunteer the most. Looking at the Beta values confirms this statement. Since Community contribution has a higher Beta (0.4) than Love of sport or music (0.3) and Career (0.17), the motive Community contribution has the highest positive influence on intention to volunteer.

Career has the lowest confidence interval among the three significant independent variables. Hence, the influence from career can be estimated more precisely than Community contribution and Love of sport or music. The VIF-values confirms the absence of multicollinearity in the final model. In other words there is no undesirable situation when one IV explains the variance in another IV, since each IV only explains the DV.

6.5   Multiple regression with volunteers

6.5.1   Assumptions

Table 8 demonstrates the Pearson´s correlation coefficient between the twelve motivational drivers and the dependent variable for the volunteers (N=42).

Table 8: Pearson´s correlation matrix for volunteers

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12
V1	1											
V2	.38*	1										
V3	.54**	0.04	1									
V4	0.00	-0.06	.41**	1								
V5	.45**	0.07	.62**	.32*	1							
V6	.37*	-0.02	.67**	.40**	.73**	1						
V7	0.27	0.03	0.22	0.04	.49**	.31*	1					
V8	-.30*	0.04	-0.22	0.01	-0.18	-0.24	0.10	1				
V9	.41**	0.02	.67**	0.21	.55**	.69**	0.21	-0.13	1			
V10	.57**	0.22	.38*	-0.00	.61**	.58**	0.21	-.30*	.54**	1		
V11	0.19	-0.09	.55**	.37*	.48**	.60**	0.18	0.19	.65**	0.17	1	
V12	0.03	0.02	0.18	0.17	0.26	0.17	.53**	0.06	.30*	0.03	0.24	1
DV	.50**	0.18	.49**	.34*	.36*	.40*	0.03	-0.28*	0.26*	.38**	0.17	-0.06

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).
DV = mean Intention to volunteer, V1 = mean Values, V2 = mean Social recognition, V3 = mean Understanding, V4 = mean Career, V5 = mean Enhancement, V6 = Interpersonal contact, V7 = mean Protective, V8 = mean Extrinsic rewards, V9 = mean Positive life experience, V10 = mean Community contribution, V11 = mean Love of sport or music, V12 = mean Time.
Source: own work

There are many significant correlations, but only one exceeds 0.7 indicating multicollinearity between Enhancement (V5) and Interpersonal contact (V6) (Dormann et al., 2013). Especially, Understanding (V3), Enhancement (V5), Interpersonal contact (V6), and Positive life experience (V9) are highly correlated with other predictors. The variance inflation factor (VIF) in Appendix E also indicate there is a problem of multicollinearity since the VIF of Interpersonal contact (V6) and Positive life experience (V9) exceeds 4 (Jensen & Knudsen, 2011).

The assumption of a linear relationship between each IV and the DV is not met, as Table 8 shows. Six of the twelve predictors, i.e. Social recognition (V2), Protective (V7), Extrinsic rewards (V8), Positive life experience (V9), Love of sport or music (V11), and Time (V12), does not correlate moderately with the intention to volunteer. In fact there is a negative correlation between the predictors Extrinsic rewards and Time and intention to volunteer. On the other hand, Values (r = 0.5) and Understanding (r = 0.49) have the strongest correlation with volunteers´ intention to volunteer, followed by Interpersonal contact (0.4), Community contribution (0.38), Enhancement (0.36), and Career (0.34).

6.5.2   Results of volunteers

When all predictors are included in the model, including age, gender, and volunteer experience, 49.6% of the variance in intention to volunteer can be explained by all predictors (adjusted R^2 =

0.205). However, this model is not significant (F(15,26) = 1.704, p = 0.11). Hence, H0 cannot be rejected and it cannot be concluded that at least one predictor has an influence on the intention to volunteer. If the three variables age, gender, and volunteer experience are removed from the model, so only the twelve volunteer motivations are included as predictors, it changes the p-value, but it is still not significant (R^2 = 444, adjusted R^2 = 214, p = 0.07). Since Interpersonal contact (V6) and Positive life experience (V9) have many high correlations with other predictors, and the VIF of both predictors > 4, these two motivational drivers are removed from the model.

   The final regression model including the remaining ten volunteer motivations, age, gender, and volunteer experience is significant (F(13,28) = 2.195, p = 0.04, R^2 = 0.485, adjusted R^2 = 0.259). It can therefore be assumed that at least one predictor has a significant influence on the DV. Yet, since the adjusted R^2 < 0.3 it is not considered as a good fit. Table 9 illustrates the final model.

Table 9: Coefficients of the final model (volunteers)

	Unstandardized coefficients		Standard.	t	Sig.	95% Confidence int.		Collinear.
	B	Std. err.	Beta			Lower	Upper	VIF
(Constant)	-0.65	1.91		-0.34	0.74	-4.56	3.26	
Values	0.48	0.31	0.45	2.01	0.05	0.04	1.26	1.87
Social recog.	-0.03	0.20	-0.02	-0.13	0.90	-0.43	0.38	1.57
Understanding	0.20	0.29	0.16	0.69	0.50	-0.39	0.80	3.09
Career	0.36	0.16	0.42	2.21	0.04	0.03	0.69	1.96
Enhancement	-0.09	0.30	-0.07	-0.29	0.77	-0.70	0.53	3.50
Protective	-0.03	0.28	-0.02	-0.11	0.92	-0.61	0.55	2.37
Rewards	0.00	0.18	0.00	-0.01	1.00	-0.37	0.37	1.86
Community	0.25	0.31	0.17	0.80	0.43	-0.39	0.89	2.53
Sport or music	-0.14	0.27	-0.10	-0.52	0.61	-0.69	0.41	2.16
Time	-0.12	0.17	-0.12	-0.71	0.49	-0.48	0.23	1.61
Volunteer exp.	0.01	0.02	0.07	0.44	0.67	-0.03	0.05	1.43
Age	0.02	0.02	0.23	1.27	0.22	-0.02	0.06	1.74
Gender	-0.26	0.48	-0.08	-0.53	0.60	-1.24	0.73	1.32

DV = mean Intention to volunteer. Volunteer exp. = volunteer experience.
Source: own work

Based on Table 9 only two predictors, i.e. Values and Career, significantly influence sport and music event volunteers´ intention to volunteer for such events in the future (P > 0.05). These two predicttors alone accounted for approximately 36.5% of the variance in intention to volunteer (F(2,39) = 11.209, p < 0.001, adjusted R^2 = 0.332). Based on the unstandardized coefficients and Beta values the motivation Values has the highest impact on intention to volunteer, followed by Career. These results, however, should be interpreted with caution based on the few number of respondents (N=42). The VIF-values shows there is no multicollinearity in this final model excluding Interpersonal contact and Positive life experience.

6.6   Multiple regression with non-volunteers

6.6.1   Assumptions

Table 10 shows the correlations between the variables for the non-volunteers (N=65).

Table 10: Pearson´s correlation matrix for non-volunteers

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12
V1	1											
V2	.45**	1										
V3	.48**	.37**	1									
V4	.30*	0.17	.43**	1								
V5	.47**	.53**	.54**	.35**	1							
V6	.37**	.52**	.52**	.33**	.71**	1						
V7	.28*	.58**	.44**	.36**	.63**	.61**	1					
V8	-0.04	0.13	0.21	.43**	.32**	0.22	.49**	1				
V9	.42**	.35**	.72**	.27*	.64**	.67**	.52**	0.18	1			
V10	.37**	.44**	.34**	0.06	.55**	.61**	.35**	0.15	.58**	1		
V11	0.21	.39**	.42**	.38**	.49**	.65**	.51**	.38**	.51**	.54**	1	
V12	0.10	.29*	0.15	.32**	.29*	.29*	.41**	.36**	0.18	0.13	.39**	1
DV	.42**	.55**	.30**	0.17	.49**	.55**	.52**	0.13	.54**	.68**	.59**	0.20

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).
DV = mean Intention to volunteer, V1 = mean Values, V2 = mean Social recognition, V3 = mean Understanding, V4 = mean Career, V5 = mean Enhancement, V6 = Interpersonal contact, V7 = mean Protective, V8 = mean Extrinsic rewards, V9 = mean Positive life experience, V10 = mean Community contribution, V11 = mean Love of sport or music, V12 = mean Time.
Source: own work

The correlations between the predictors in Table 10 look quite similar to Table 6 (Pearson´s correlation matrix for all respondents). Again, there is a problem of multicollinearity between Enhancement (V5) and Interpersonal contact (V6), as well as between Understanding (V3) and Positive life experience (V9) where r > 0.7 marked with red. Furthermore, there are six correlations where r > 0.6. Specifically, Enhancement (V5), Interpersonal contact (V6) and positive life experience (V9) have high correlations with other predictors. Yet, the VIF factors in Appendix F show no sign of multicollinearity.

Regarding the assumption of a linear correlation between the predictors and the outcome variables, there are also similarities between Table 10 and Table 6. The three predictors Career (V4), Extrinsic rewards (V8), and Time (V12) do not correlate with the DV. Additionally, Understanding (V3) only just reaches the threshold of 0.3. However, the eight other predictors do correlate moderately with the DV. Community contribution (V10) has the strongest correlation with the intention to volunteer (r = 0.68) followed by Love of sport or music (0.59), Social recognition (0.55), Interpersonal contact (0.55), Positive life experience (0.54), Protective (0.52), Enhancement (0.49), and Values (0.42).

6.6.2   Results of non-volunteers

The full model including all twelve volunteer motivations, age, and gender is significant ($F_{(14,50)}$ = 6.984, p < 0.001), and 66.2% of the variability in volunteer intention is attributable to variability in the volunteer motivators, age, and gender (adjusted R^2 = 0.567). If the twelve motivational drivers

are included in the model without the demographic questions, it only changes the results to a small extend ($R^2 = 0.661$, adj. $R^2 = 0.582$, $p < 0.001$). However, not all the variables were found to be significant. The correlations in Table 10 indicate that although most of the volunteer motivations are related to the intention to volunteer, partial correlations also exist with each of those independent variables. For example, Interpersonal contact (V6) and positive life experience (V9) seems to represent many partial correlations with other volunteer motivations. Hence, these two predictors are removed from the model in order to avoid multicollinearity in the model.

   The final selected regression model includes the remaining ten volunteer motivation predictors, age, and gender ($F(12,52) = 7.760$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.642$ adjusted $R^2 = 0.559$). Table 11 clarifies the coefficients for the final model.

Table 11: Coefficients of the final model (non-volunteers)

	Unstandardized		Standard.	t	Sig.	95% Confidence		Collinear.
	B	Std. err.	Beta			Lower	Upper	VIF
(Constant)	-2.30	1.36		-1.69	0.10	-5.02	0.42	
Values	0.34	0.25	0.15	1.37	0.18	-0.16	0.84	1.83
Social recog.	0.18	0.16	0.14	1.12	0.27	-0.14	0.50	2.12
Understanding	-0.23	0.17	-0.15	-1.34	0.19	-0.57	0.11	1.80
Career	0.02	0.14	0.02	0.15	0.88	-0.26	0.30	1.95
Enhancement	-0.12	0.17	-0.09	-0.72	0.48	-0.46	0.22	2.50
Protective	0.40	0.18	0.30	2.16	0.04	0.03	0.77	2.77
Rewards	-0.22	0.18	-0.14	-1.26	0.21	-0.58	0.13	1.84
Community	0.68	0.19	0.43	3.60	0.00	0.30	1.06	2.03
Sport or music	0.41	0.17	0.29	2.43	0.02	0.07	0.75	2.11
Time	-0.06	0.13	-0.05	-0.46	0.65	-0.32	0.20	1.43
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.03	-0.25	0.80	-0.03	0.02	1.52
Gender	-0.16	0.38	-0.04	-0.43	0.67	-0.93	0.61	1.14

DV = mean Intention to volunteer.

Source: own work.

From Table 11 it is concluded that the volunteer motivations Community contribution, Love of sport or music, and Protective have a significant impact on the non-volunteers´ intention to volunteer in events in the future ($p > 0.05$). These three predictors alone accounted for approximately 57.4% of the unique variance in intention to volunteer ($F(3,61) = 27.372$, $p < 0.001$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.553$). None of the other motivational drivers have a significant impact on the intention to volunteer in events. Based on the unstandardized and standardized coefficients, Community contribution has the highest positive influence on intention to volunteer, followed by Love of sport or music, and Protective. The VIF-values confirms the absence of multicollinearity in the final model.

6.7   Summary of quantitative results

Table 12 summarises the results of the quantitative study of the twelve reasons to volunteer.

Table 12: Summary of hypothesis testing

	Variable	Assumed effect	All respondents	Volunteers	Non-volunteers
H1	Values	+	No effect	Confirmed	No effect
H2	Social recognition	+	No effect	No effect	No effect
H3	Understanding	+	No effect	No effect	No effect
H4	Career	+	Confirmed	Confirmed	No effect
H5	Enhancement	+	No effect	No effect	No effect
H6	Interpersonal contact	+	No effect	No effect	No effect
H7	Protective	+	No effect	No effect	Confirmed
H8	Extrinsic rewards	+	No effect	No effect	No effect
H9	Positive life Experience	+	No effect	No effect	No effect
H10	Community contribution	+	Confirmed	No effect	Confirmed
H11	Love of sport or music	+	Confirmed	No effect	Confirmed
H12	Time	+	No effect	No effect	No effect

Note: "Confirmed" implies that a significant effect was estimated which corresponds to the assumed effect. "No effect" implies that there is no significant contribution of the variable to the overall model (in essence, the hypothesis is rejected). Source: own work

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the results of the hypotheses, and to explore the differences of volunteer motivations among volunteers and non-volunteers. An assumption was made that each of the twelve motivational drivers would be positively correlated with the intention to volunteer. Even though all respondents rated *Values* as the most important reason for volunteering regardless of previous volunteer experience (see Table 5), there are still major differences among volunteers and non-volunteers in this study.

For the volunteers only two predictors were significantly correlated with the likelihood to volunteer, i.e. the intrinsic motivation *Values* and the extrinsic motivation *Career. Values*, the altruistic motive of volunteering in order to help other people or supporting an important cause, had the highest impact on the likelihood to volunteer.

For the non-volunteers, three predictors were significantly correlated with the intention to volunteer, i.e. the intrinsic motivations *Community contribution* and *Love of sport or music*, and the extrinsic motivation *Protective*. Again, the intrinsic motivation *Community contribution* had the highest impact on respondents´ likelihood to volunteer. Despite of the small sample size, these results indicate that event organisers should use different messages to persuade non-volunteers to become volunteers and to retain current volunteers.

The results of all respondents reveal significant positive correlations between three of the predictors - *Career, Community contribution*, and *Love of sport or music* - and the dependent variable (*Intention to volunteer*). Yet, none of these volunteer motivations were rated as being very important with respect to the respondents´ decision to become volunteers or remain volunteers (see Table 5).

7   Research design: Qualitative study

As mentioned earlier, the qualitative study is more exploratory in nature and can explain why the results from the survey have occurred and how to implement the results by asking managers. The purpose of the interviews with volunteer managers from various sports clubs and music festivals is: 1) to find out if and how managers use volunteer motivation in their recruitment and retention strategy, and 2) to directly address the significant results of the regression analyses. The prepared interview questions are presented in Appendix G, and all interviews can be found in Appendix H (Danish) and I (English). The purpose of this paragraph is to explain the interview questions.

The interviewer started by briefly introducing herself, the purpose of the study, and the main findings. The interviewee was then asked to present himself, his workplace and role in the organisation. The next question regarding the volunteer recruitment process was asked in order to find out whether or not the managers are taking various volunteer motivations into consideration when they delegate tasks. The following five questions were directly addressing the significant results of the regression analyses, i.e. how the managers would make sure to fulfil the motives of the respondents that influence their intention to volunteer. Additionally, the managers were asked if they: 1) had noticed any differences between motivations for new versus long-term volunteers; 2) had noticed any common characteristics of their volunteers, and 3) used different messages in advertisements when recruiting volunteers, e.g. based on different job tasks or volunteer motivations; 4) experienced any major challenges as volunteer managers, and how they attempted to solve these challenges; and 5) tried to make sure to satisfy their volunteers, and how? These questions were asked in order to uncover practical implications for volunteer managers when it comes to recruiting and retaining volunteers. Lastly, for ethical reasons they were asked if they, or their company, wanted to be anonymous in this report.

8   Results: Qualitative study

In order to analyse and compare the results of the interviews Table 13 reflects the key message of the answers to each question from each respondent. A more detailed version is depicted in Appendix J. Respondent A, B, and C are managers from three different handball clubs in the best Danish league "Primo Tours Ligaen", and D, E, and F are managers from three of the top 5 largest music festivals in Denmark. This section will go through the results of each question in turn.

Table 13: Key messages from the interviews

Interviewee	A	B	C	D	E	F
Occupation	Responsible for marketing and the event	Responsible for match management	Administration manager	Marketing and volunteer coordinator	Program manager for organisational management	Chief of volunteers
Recruitment process	First recruit, then adaption of tasks	First plan tasks, then recruit continuously	Various procedures	First plan tasks, then recruit	Volunteer leaders define tasks. Volunteers can sign up to tasks	Volunteer leaders plan the tasks first and then recruit and allocate them
Career (H4)	Not important, our volunteers are 65+ years old	Not important, our volunteers are retired	Primarily younger volunteers	Need for people aged < 30. Letters of recommendation + diploma	Many job opportunities you can use in paid job, e.g. management tasks	Need for people aged < 30. Learn practical skills. Online competency development + leadership courses
Values (H1)	Good experience/ connection. Information/ recognition	Cause is important, support club. Social community	Interest in club. Involvement/ recognition/ events	Need to tell people we are non-profit and do charity	Need to tell people we are non-profit and do charity	70% of our volunteers say it is important we are non-profit and do charity
Community contribution (H10)	Highlight the "product" and volunteer efforts	Making the event a success is a motivating factor		Buy products and get labour from locals. Accommodate all so all can contribute	You contribute when you think it is fun or when you think it makes a large difference.	
Love of sport/music (H11)	Gratitude and information	Watch matches + invitation to a Champions League match	Include them in the club´s activities	All 4.700 volunteers are offered cheap tickets to other concerts + opportunity to volunteer for other concerts.	Free choice. Passion for music → music festival	Ask people what music they want to hear, and ask leaders about expression and content
Protective (H7)	Provide work in teams, space for fun and talk, listen	Socializing, working and talking with others + annual events	Provide food/beverage before match + annual activities	Social events + volunteer party + courses and training	Volunteers always work with and have opportunities to meet with others	Events and team parties + annual volunteer party + small communities at festival
Motivation for new vs. long-term volunteers	No	No	Not documented. New: interest in club and experience Long-term: community and association with club	Age < 30: resume and social recognition Age > 30: community and "anti-everyday-life"	New: experience, career, socialization, values, etc. Long-term: meet familiar faces and community	New: basic needs + ticket Long-term: community, identity, and desire to develop
Common characteristics	Retired, need to socialize and make a difference	Retired, passion for sport and sense of community	No	Managers a bit older than non-managers	No	No
Advertising	WOM except for special tasks	No.	WOM	No recruitment marketing. More retaining	Volunteer leaders recruit volunteers. Online	Volunteer leaders recruit volunteers.

				than recruiting	volunteer tasks	Database of job postings for special skills.
Problems	Age group find it difficult to adapt	To keep them	Instructions so tasks are solved on time	1/3 of managers are 50+. How do we keep them without exhausting them?	No big challenges, but you can always do better. E.g. instructions to volunteers	How to recruit talented volunteers + retention of volunteers
Satisfaction	We listen and answer. Praise, honesty and gratitude	Holding events, meet players, trips, and delegate responsibility	Involvement and annual events	Volunteers want community, experiences, being able to do something for others, and feel heard and involved	Good conditions + good experience with immediate manager + community	Being aware that there are many motives and that we have to meet all needs as mentioned earlier.
Anonymous	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No

Source: own work

Recruitment process

The managers do not seem to consider different volunteer motivations to a great extend when recruiting and allocating volunteers. The three annual music festivals have 4.700, 15.000, and 30.000 volunteers, respectively and each festival have a hierarchy of volunteer managers and leaders - i.e. chairman, deputies, and middle managers - who are responsible for the many volunteers. The volunteer leaders plan their individual tasks first and then recruit and allocate the volunteers they need. One of the managers mentions that they also have well defined tasks their volunteers can sign up to, and hence decide themselves what they want to do. The managers of handball clubs have different answers. One club recruit their volunteers first and then adapts the tasks the available volunteers, while another recruit continuously through word-of-mouth, and the third have relatively fixed roles with their volunteers.

Career

All managers argue that the relationship between career and intention to volunteer typically applies to younger volunteers. Since the vast majority of volunteers in the handball clubs are retired this need does not exist for them. However, as one of them mentions, they will still help a volunteer who needs advise regarding job search, resume, etc. The festival managers argue that volunteers can use the festival practically to try out skills they may have required through education and solve tasks that they may not be able to do in a paid job, such as large leadership tasks. One of the festivals has a volunteer strategy aiming to work with what they can offer in relation to any letters of recommendation, online diplomas, etc. within the next three years, because it is a great desire for many of their young volunteers. Another festival has online competency development programs that can distribute knowledge, information, and the foundation for acquiring skills to use in both the festival and civilian job, such as an online hygiene course or a module dealing with conflict management. Additionally,

this festival offers two leadership development courses, where the volunteer leaders can acquire various leadership skills they can use in their civilian job as well.

Values

When asked what they would do to make sure to fulfil the altruistic motivation of helping others and do something for an important cause, the festival managers argue it is important to spread the word about the festivals being non-profit and donating proceedings to charitable purposes. A study from one of the festivals reveal that up to 70% of their volunteers say it is either important or very important to them that the festival is non-profit and does charity.

   The handball managers argue that the cause and the interest in the club are important to their volunteers. In order to create a good experience and a good connection between the volunteers and the club, the managers recognize their volunteers´ efforts, inform and involve them in the club´s activities, and hold social events for them.

Community contribution

When confronted with the result that non-volunteers are significantly more likely to volunteer if they perceive they have the opportunity to help the community in general, the handball managers provide quite similar answers as they did to the previous question (Values). One manager argues that you have to highlight the "product" and the value of the volunteers' efforts by for instance recognizing their efforts by thanking them, and by making articles for the newspaper or posts on social media where you explain the big difference the volunteers make. Additionally, you can create a pride that through voluntary efforts you can create larger events.

   One of festivals buy products and receive labour from locals whenever it is feasible, and this means a lot to the locals according to the manager. They embrace every hand they can get - including the older ones who might not be as strong as they used to - because they want to offer the volunteer opportunity to anyone who want to give something back to the local community. Another festival manager argues that community contribution is a motivational driver for many volunteers in various contexts simply because people volunteer in the context where they have fun and where they think their contribution makes a large difference.

Love of sport or music

In order to fulfill this need one handball manager mentions that he invited the volunteers to a Champions League match in order to unite their interest in sport with being social. Additionally, holding events for the volunteers where they meet the coaches and the players is not only a way to fulfill this motivation, but also a gesture of showing gratitude for their efforts.

The festivals also try to accommodate this need by asking what kind of music people would like to hear, and by offering their volunteers cheaper tickets to other concerts, and the opportunity to volunteer for other concerts throughout the year.

Protective

In order to make sure that this specific need is fulfilled - i.e. that volunteers will not feel lonely when volunteering and will be able to escape from personal troubles - both festival and handball managers argue that they always have to provide volunteer work in teams, and make sure their volunteers always have opportunities to meet, talk, and have fun with others. Moreover, they arrange various parties and events for their volunteers where they can meet and have fun with each other without working in order to create a better sense of community. The managers also offer specific places for their volunteers where they can eat, drink, and enjoy themselves together by turns depending on their tasks. One festival manager points out that they spend a great deal of resources to ensure that the many different volunteer teams can establish small detached areas to occupy during the festival because it is important for volunteers to have a base and experience a small community within the big community. These small bases, she argues, are crucial to the festival´s success in retaining volunteers.

Motivation for new versus long-term volunteers

The handball managers have not noticed any differences between new and long-term volunteers, at least not documented. However one of them experience that the long-term volunteers are primarily driven by the community and the association with the club, whereas new volunteers may get involved because of their interest in the club and to gain experience benefitting their careers. The festival managers all agree that the sense of community is one of the most important motivational drivers for long-term volunteers. One of the festival managers argues that new volunteers are typically concerned with the physiological needs at the bottom of Maslow´s pyramid and to get the ticket for free, whereas long-term volunteers are more driven by the community, the identity, and the desire to develop. Another festival manager argues there are many reasons to become a volunteer - such as career, social interaction, social recognition, values, etc. - whereas the reasons to remain a volunteer are to meet and work with familiar faces and experience a great community. The third festival manager explains that their own festival studies shows people aged 30 years or younger want to add the activity to their resumes and legitimize to their acquaintances why they are volunteering, while volunteers aged 30 or above are more motivated by the community and the "anti-everyday-life" experience.

Common characteristics

Two of the handball managers state their volunteers are retired, have a passion for sport and a need to make a difference, socialize, and to be part of the community. Since the festivals have thousands of volunteers, they have many types of volunteers. However, two of the festival managers mention that many volunteers come from the festival city and surrounding areas.

Advertising

None of six managers´ organisations use different advertising messages based on volunteer motivations to recruit volunteers. The handball clubs recruit volunteers internally through word-of-mouth, i.e. through their volunteers´ networks, and hence do not use advertising for the purpose of recruiting volunteers. If they need people with specific skills for special tasks they address them directly. Even though they do not advertise, one of the managers mentions his club would use the arguments that you will become part of the community and be close to the team if they had to use advertising.

  The festivals work decentralized with recruiting volunteers since hundreds of volunteer leaders have the responsibility of recruiting the volunteers necessary to solve their individual tasks. One festival manager claims her company does not spend time on recruitment marketing since their volunteers only have to work six hours for a free ticket. Yet, the festivals do use different messages based on various job tasks. They have websites and Facebook pages where each volunteer leader can put up employee jobs and where any (potential) volunteer can seek exactly the kind of task s(he) want to help solve.

Problems

Each interviewee face different volunteer related challenges. The vast majority of volunteers in the handball clubs are retired. One of the handball managers mentions these older volunteers find it difficult to be adaptable, while another manager argues the club´s biggest challenge perhaps is to give clear instructions in order to solve all tasks in time, and the third manager argues the biggest challenge is to retain the volunteers. In order to solve these problems the managers often repeat themselves, and make sure to give their volunteers good experiences and to express their appre-ciation of the volunteers´ efforts.

  One of the festival managers also states that a third of the festival´s managers are long-term volunteers over the age of 50, and according to the festival strategy they have to handle how to take care of these volunteers within the next three years. They want to keep these volunteers because of their huge knowledge and skills, but at the same time they also know that older volunteers cannot work for as many hours as it takes to be a manager. Thus, this festival´s biggest challenge is how to make sure they can keep their experienced volunteers without exhausting them. The second festival

manager do not think the festival faces any big challenges, but of course they can always do better for instance at making it easier for volunteers to find out what tasks they can sign up for and giving them good instructions, she says. Lastly, the third festival manager argues that their biggest challenges are how to recruit talented volunteers with the right skills and to retain the volunteers.

Satisfaction

In order to satisfy their volunteers the managers propose different solutions. The handball managers involve their volunteers in the clubs´ activities, give them responsibilities, appreciate their work, hold various events for them, and communicate with them. The festival managers argue that what matters to the volunteers is the community, experience, being able to help others, and cooperation and communication with their immediate manager. They are aware that there are many different volunteer motivations and that they have to fulfil these motivations.

9   Discussion

9.1   Summary

The aim of this research was to find out which motives affect the intention to volunteer for sport and music events and if volunteers and non-volunteers have different reasons to volunteer. Identifying the unique volunteer motivations is a relevant topic because event organisations are crucially dependent on their volunteers to carry out core services. In accordance with the social exchange theory, managers working with volunteers need to understand the various reasons/motives and expectations people have when volunteering in order to satisfy their volunteers´ needs and expectations and increase the potential retention of volunteers (e.g. Monga, 2006). In return, out-comes of volunteering for organisers include low costs, extra hands, a more diverse range of skills, improved service quality and loyalty, etc.

   Even though several scholars have examined the relationship between volunteer motivation and intention to volunteer, this study contribute to the current knowledge of event volunteer management by: 1) including more motivational drivers than previous academic literature has, all of which have been found to be reliable by previous studies; 2) asking non-volunteers what would motivate them to become volunteers in order to help event managers attracting new volunteers; and 3) using the qualitative method to find how event managers would implement the significant results from the regression analysis, i.e. how they would make sure to fulfil the needs of volunteers.

Twelve hypotheses, i.e. twelve volunteer motives used as predictors of intention to volunteer, were deductively developed from previous scientific literature, and the hypotheses were tested through three multiple regression analyses of all respondents, the sport and event volunteers, and non-volunteers, respectively. The twelve predictors of intention to volunteer include: *Values* (where

people volunteer in order to express or act on their concern for others); *Social recognition* (where volunteers want to get recognized by their acquaintances and strengthen their social relationships)*; Understanding* (where the volunteer seeks to learn more about the outside world or exercise unused skills)*; Career* (where the volunteer wants to gain career-related experience and/or business contacts through volunteering); *Enhancement* (where the volunteer wants to grow and develop psychologycally through the volunteer experience)*; Interpersonal contacts* (where people volunteer in order to meet, interact, and develop relationships with others); *Protective* (where people use volunteering to address personal problems and/or to reduce negative feelings)*; Extrinsic rewards* (where the individual volunteers to receive tangible benefits such as free event tickets)*; Positive life experience* (where the individual volunteers to experience a new and exiting anti-everyday life); *Community contribution* (where the individual wants to support and feel part of the community); *Love of sport or music* (where the mere interest in or passion for a certain sports club or event is a motive to volunteer); and *Time* (where the individual volunteers due to excess leisure time).

Regardless of whether one looks at people with or without event volunteer experience, the findings from the quantitative study suggest that people´s motivations to volunteer are multifaceted. It appears that people´s volunteer motivations cannot be classified as either intrinsic (altruistic) or extrinsic (egoistic), but rather a combination of both, which is also suggested by the self-determination theory. This is probably because some specific volunteer motives are combined of self-interested and other-interested considerations and because a large amount of respondents indicate they have both altruistic and egoistic reasons for volunteering (Clary & Snyder, 1999). To support this argument, Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) conclude that people do not necessarily volunteer to fulfil any specific category of motives, but rather seek to fulfil all the motives that combined can be described as a rewarding experience. Similarly, the results of this quantitative study reveal that both volunteers and non-volunteers are motivated by intrinsic and extrinsic motivations.

All respondents, on average, rated the altruistic motive, *Values*, as the most important reason to volunteer (see Table 5), which is consistent with previous findings (Clary et al., 1998; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Esmond & Dunlop, 2004; Finkelstein, 2008; Kim et al., 2010a; Hallmann & Harms, 2012; Zievinger & Swint, 2018). Similarly, according to Alfes et al. (2017) most researchers studying volunteer motivations recommend that non-profit organisations should design recruitment ads based on the *Values* motive in order to attract a wide range of people. However, only for the **volunteers** in this study *Values* was significantly positively correlated with the intention to volunteer along with the extrinsic motive *Career* (see Table 12), supporting H1 and H4. Since *Career* emphasizes volunteering as a response to obtaining career-relevant skills, it is primarily a motive for those volunteers who are within the labour market, especially the younger volunteers, according to the six interviewees in the qualitative study and e.g. Okun and Schultz (2003) and VanSickle et al. (2015).

For the **non-volunteers**, on the other hand, the intrinsic motivations *Community contribution* and *Love of sport or music*, and the more extrinsic motivation *Protective* were significantly positively correlated with the intention to volunteer, supporting H7, H10, and H11. These results are supported by previous literature. First, other researchers have identified *Protective* as a significant volunteer motivation in different contexts (Clary et al., 1998; Esmond and Dunlop, 2004; Millette & Gagné, 2008; Bachman et al., 2016; Butt et al., 2017). Second, *Community contribution* has been found to be the most important volunteer motive (Farrell et al., 1998; Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011; VanSickle et al., 2015) and the highest experienced benefit of volunteering (Doherty, 2009). Third, the mere *Love of sport or music* was found to be one of the most important reasons to volunteer (Elstad, 2003; Koutrou & Pappous, 2016). The finding that *Love of sport or music* significantly predicts non-volunteers intention to volunteer aligns with Love et al.´s (2012) finding that while people may initially become festival volunteers because of personal interest, this is certainly not why they keep volunteering.

Of the significant results from this quantitative study, the intrinsic motives *Values* and *Community contribution* had the highest impact on volunteers´ and non-volunteers´ likelihood to volunteer, respectively. This result is coherent with the findings of Allen and Shaw (2009), Allen and Bartle (2014), Bidee et al. (2013), and Millette and Gagné (2008) supporting self-determination theory´s assertions that more self-determined forms of motivation - i.e. intrinsic and identified regulation - are likely to lead to positive outcomes such as enjoyment, engagement, and enhanced performance (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

When looking at the results of the regression analysis of **all respondents**, and thus answering the first part of the research question, there was a significant positive correlation between the three predictors *Career, Community contribution, and Love of sport or music* and outcome variable *Intention to volunteer* in the future. *Community contribution* had the highest impact on future volunteer engagement. Still, none of the twelve volunteer motivations were on average rated as being very important with respect to the respondents´ decision to become or remain volunteers (see Table 5). It should also be mentioned that the results of the quantitative study ought to be interpreted with caution since they are only based on 107 respondents, and some of the model assumptions were not fully met. Even though a few multicollinear variables were withdrawn from the regression analysis, the assumption of homoscedasticity was violated. Additionally, the assumptions of independent and normally distributed values of the residuals were violated with respect to the regression analysis of the event volunteers. In other words, these results are not completely valid and reliable. For example, the factor *Extrinsic rewards* was not important to the respondents, nor did it impact their intention to volunteer. However, one of the interviewed festival managers argued that when people volunteer for the first time it is likely that some of them just want to get the free ticket, whereas long-term volunteers are more intrinsically motivated e.g. by the

sense of community. This is in line with Love et al. (2012) who found that any kind of material benefit provided by a festival might have an impact on new volunteers but have little or no impact on why people keep volunteering for the same event. Thus, even though this report found no support for the hypothesis that extrinsic rewards is positively correlated with the intention to volunteer, it is likely that some people decide to volunteer in order to save the entrance fee - especially new volunteers with low incomes (Caldwell & Andereck, 1994).

Event managers from professional Danish handball clubs and large Danish music festivals suggested different solutions to fulfil the needs of their volunteers in order to retain them. In order to fulfil the *Career* motive, the interviewees argued that they could provide letters of recommendation, online diplomas, online competency development programs where the volunteer can learn the skills required to perform the volunteer task, and different kinds of leadership development courses.

When it comes to the altruistic *Values* motive the festival managers all argued that it is important to tell their volunteers about what it means to be "non-profit" and which good causes they support financially. The handball managers also strived to inform and involve the volunteers in the clubs´ activities, but they focus more generally on creating a good experience and a good connection between the volunteers and the clubs by holding social events for them and recognizing their efforts.

Regarding the motive *Community contribution*, it has been suggested that managers should highlight the great value of the volunteers´ efforts, for example on social media or in an article in the newspaper, where they can explain the big contribution of their volunteers. Furthermore, one festival manager argued that the festival buys local products and get local labour whenever feasible, which is important to the locals.

In order to satisfy a volunteer´s motive of *Love of sport*, sport event managers can invite their volunteers to see club´s games or other games and hold events for the volunteers where they can meet coaches and players. Furthermore, to fulfil volunteers´ *Love of music* motive managers can ask the volunteers what kind of music they would like to hear, collaborate with other music event organisers and offer their volunteers to volunteer for these concerts throughout the year, and/or offer their volunteers cheaper tickets to these other concerts.

Lastly, to make sure that volunteers will not feel lonely and will be able to escape from personal problems (the *Protective* motivation), the managers wanted to make sure that their volunteers always work in team, and that they always have opportunities to meet, talk, and have fun with others. Furthermore, the managers offer specific areas for their volunteers where they can meet during breaks, and host various events and parties for their volunteers.

9.2   Managerial implications

There are several managerial implications that should be acknowledged. Managers need to recognize that their volunteers have needs too. In order to satisfy these needs and add the right perks they have to understand the various reasons to volunteer. The quantitative results show that different motivational concerns are present for volunteers and non-volunteers, respectively. This implies that managers should use different advertising messages to attract non-volunteers and to retain their volunteers.

In order to recruit volunteers, managers *first* need to consider whom they want to recruit (e.g. students, retired people, employees from local industries, etc.) in order to identify the relevant motivations of potential volunteers (Clary et al., 1992). *Second*, managers need to measure what motivates their audience to volunteer for their specific event (remembering that different people can be motivated by different factors, that their motivations to volunteer can be multifaceted, and that motives can change over time). This is important because the motivations to volunteer can be slightly different depending on the type of event or sport (Hallmann & Harms, 2012) and because some events or sports might be more popular among volunteers than others (Wicker & Hallmann, 2013). The twelve motivations identified in this study can be used for this purpose. *Third*, event managers need to create appropriately targeted persuasive messages based on peoples´ motivations to motivate people to action (Clary et al., 1992; Clary et al., 1994). Based on this quantitative study five volunteer motivations had a significant relationship with the intention to volunteer, i.e. *Values, Career, Protective, Community contrition*, and *Love of sport or music.* A persuasive message appealing to the *Values* motive could describe how volunteering gives you a chance to act on your concerns for others, make a difference in someone else´s life, and let you express a caring and compassionate side of yourself that is not easy to show in your everyday activities. A message focused on *Career* considerations could highlight how volunteer work provides opportunities to acquire a broad range of skills making yourself more marketable to employers, strengthen your resume, explore different career options, and make new contacts that may help your career. A message designed to engage the *Protective* motivations could emphasize volunteer work as a means to reduce guilt over e.g. being more fortunate than others, gain a new perspective on your own challenges by serving others, and being able to work through personal problems and improve your life. A *Community contribution* message could point how the event benefits the society and how you can help make the event a success and support the community. Unfortunately, volunteers are far too often not informed about how their work contributes to the goals of the organisation (Esmond & Dunlop, 2004). Lastly, a message appealing to peoples´ *Love of sport or music* could emphasize the structure of the event program and additional benefits, such as meeting people with similar interests, receiving tangible benefits such as free or cheaper tickets to similar events of volunteers´ interest, and meeting players and coaches and/or making team building activities where the volunteers play the sport the

event/club is concerned with (for sport event volunteers). Clary et al. (1994) supported a so-called "matching hypothesis" that the participants who received a message matching a motivation of great importance to them considered the message to be more persuasive and were more likely to volunteer in the future than those participants who received a mismatched message. Hence, persuading people to volunteer will succeed to the extent that managers address the specific volunteer motivations underlying human behaviour and attitudes (Clary et al., 1994; Clary et al., 1998). The advertising messages managers choose have to include the assurance that the volunteer activity will satisfy the motivation(s) important to the volunteer (Clary et al., 1992).

In the recruitment process it is recommended that managers clearly state the benefits the volunteers will get upfront to avoid disappointed/dissatisfied volunteers. Managers should also state the requirements to their volunteers upfront to ensure that they get the volunteers with the right knowledge, skills and competences. Drawing on the theory of planned behaviour, the perceived behavioural control (i.e. the perceived ease or difficulty of performing a behaviour) has been found to be the strongest predictor of volunteers´ intention to return to volunteer at a tennis event (Lee et al., 2014b). This implies that volunteers are more likely to commit to an event when they know what they have to do, when they have to do it. Therefore, providing clear job descriptions clarifying the expectations regarding the volunteer and providing training could help event managers in increasing volunteer retention (Lee et al, 2014b).

Understanding various volunteer motivations help managers place the volunteers at tasks where they would be most effective (Clary et al., 1992; Monga, 2006; Bang & Ross, 2009; Hallmann & Harms, 2012). When volunteers are assigned to tasks that meet their needs and expectations, it will enhance volunteer satisfaction and retention (Slaughter & Home, 2004; VanSickle et al., 2015). However, it is a challenging task for volunteer managers to correctly identify the task at which the individual volunteer will be most productive and from which s(he) will be most pleased (Clary et al., 1992). Attempting to align thousands of volunteers with their personal motives is a very difficult task. Still, any efforts made by managers would be beneficial both for the volunteer and the event. Volunteer motivations could be obtained by including a questionnaire as part of the volunteer application in order to give the managers an idea of what the individual volunteer wants to get out the volunteer experience, and subsequently base the task delegation on these results. In this questionnaire, managers could also ask the volunteers which 3-5 tasks they would prefer to perform, which allows the volunteers to be assigned to or choose the tasks they desire. Additionally, keeping a database of volunteers and their experiences and skills could be used as a basis for task delegation (Fairley et al., 2016). A database of volunteers might help organisations: 1) create awareness of various volunteering opportunities; 2) allow volunteers to choose the task that they want to work with; 3) allow people to volunteer for as many hours as they want; and 4) let people volunteer according to their own time schedule.

A key management concern - beyond fulfilling volunteers´ motivations - is to enhance volunteer satisfaction by giving them positive experiences throughout the event, especially in the areas of operations and facilities, which managers have considerable control over (Farrell et al., 1998). For example, the interviewees in this report´s qualitative study argue that recognition of volunteers´ efforts, communication, and feeling a sense of community are important aspects of the volunteer experience. This is consistent with Farrell et al.´s (1998) finding that recognition of volunteers and communication with other volunteers significantly predicted volunteer satisfaction. Hence, managers not only need to satisfy volunteers´ needs and expectations based on motivations, but they also have to address how they organise their volunteers including orientation, training, supervision, communication, and recognition - and of course provide facilities necessary to accommodate the basic needs of their volunteers. Especially for new volunteers, event organisers have to consider providing an orientation program including event information and job instructions, since participants will receive a better service quality from well-trained and well-informed volunteers.

In the qualitative results the festival managers argued that new volunteers might be more extrinsically motivated whereas long-term volunteers are more intrinsically motivated. Therefore, event managers need to be aware that motivations can change over time. That is, as time passes and a volunteer´s initial needs may be met, the volunteer might feel the need to satisfy new motivations (e.g. Clary et al., 1992). To becoming aware of these changes in motivations and needs managers should always seek feedback from their volunteers regarding their job satisfaction in order to evaluate and improve the volunteers´ experiences. For example, all festival managers in this study agree that a sense of community is one of the most important motivational drivers for their long-term volunteers. Sense of community has been acknowledged as an important predictor of volunteers´ overall experience (Green & Chalip, 2004; Doherty, 2009; Fairley et al., 2013) and retention (Love, 2009). This implies that it is crucial for event organisers to promote a sense of community within their volunteer bases and create places where volunteers have the opportunity socialize and feel that they belong to the community and to a common cause.

Based on the interviews in this report, it seems that explaining volunteers how they make a difference and recognizing them for their contribution is important to retain them, in accordance with the results of Elstad (2003) and Love (2009). Event managers are therefore advised to tell and show how their volunteers support the organisation and its mission and causes, how the event benefit the (local) community, and simply how the event is crucially dependent on their volunteers. Failure to provide such feedback might lead the volunteer to feel s(he) is not appreciated and ultimately leave the organisation. Since *Values* was identified as the most important reason to volunteer in the current study, managers should proof to the volunteers that they are in fact helping others when they volunteer.

9.3   Limitations to the study and recommendations for future research

There are several limitations that can be attributed to this research. First, the results of the 107 respondents in the quantitative study cannot be generalized to the broader population. Second, these respondents are random and, in contrast to respondents of previous researches, not volunteers for a specific event. The volunteers in this study have either volunteered for professional sport or music events, but it is unknown for which specific events they have participated. Only the context is known, and therefore it is difficult to conclude what motivates volunteers at specific events - and non-volunteers for that matter. Third, it is possible that the results of the quantitative research reflect a response bias to the extent that people who were more enthusiastic about their volunteer experiences may have been more likely to answer the survey. Fourth, it is a limitation to ask respondents about their future behavioural intention without referring to a specific activity or event (Sheeran, 2002, as cited in Doherty, 2009). In the online survey, respondents were asked about their likelihood to volunteer in any event in the near future, which may have reduced the strength of the relationship between their volunteer motivations and their future intentions. Fifth, the adjusted R^2 values demonstrate that no model described the dependent variable (intention to volunteer) to a high extent. This is not surprising, since people behave differently for different reasons. However, it is still considered to be a limitation of this research, because other significant predictors of intention to volunteer might be missing. For example, as volunteering occurs within an organisational context, the characteristics of the event and organisation, such as image and HRM, have to be considered as well when examining the drivers of volunteer engagement (Wicker & Hallmann, 2013).

The major two disadvantages of the qualitative data are: 1) the small sample size may not necessarily generalize to broader populations, and 2) due to the qualitative nature data can be biased from subjective interpretation (Keller, 2013). The latter risk of subjective interpretation has been mitigated by transcribing the interviews word by word and coding the answers in a schema in order to standardize the results from the interviews. Nonetheless, bias may be present.

There are also several limitations that provide guidelines for future research. First, this study did not include a factor analysis that could determine the reliability of the use of the twelve motivational drivers included in this study. Previous literature has found these twelve predictors to be reliable using Cronbach´s α albeit not all predictors have been included in the same study, at least not to the author´s knowledge. Hence, future research should include the items of all twelve volunteer motives in a factor analysis to confirm or reject their use in event volunteer research and in specific sport and music event contexts.

Second, this study only examined the direct effect of volunteer motivation factors to explain future volunteerring intentions. Previous literature suggests that the relationship between motivation and retention is mediated by satisfaction (e.g. Green & Chalip, 2004; Fairley et al., 2013; Felver et al.,

2015). Therefore, future research is recommended to examine if there is direct and indirect relationships between the twelve motivation factors, satisfaction, and intention to volunteer. Recently, Bang et al. (2019) confirmed that volunteer motivations had both direct and indirect effects (through satisfaction) on intention to continue volunteering.

Third, a Danish sample was used in this research, making it difficult to generalize the results to other countries or cultures. Researchers should take socio-demographic, economic, and cultural differences into account when replicating this study. Future research in this field should be conducted in different countries in order to produce a stronger validation and generalization of the findings. For example, volunteer motivations may vary significantly in different cultural (individualistic vs. collectivistic) or organisational (local, national, or mega-event) contexts (Wang & Wu, 2014). Therefore, it may not be sufficient to apply event volunteer models, scales, and theories developed in western countries to other cultures, especially to cultures that do not have an established volunteering tradition (Fairley et al., 2013).

Fourth, "only" four items was used to measure each motivational factor. Future research might consider the addition of items in the measurement model when replicating this study. Additionally, the mega study on volunteers in Western Australia by Esmond and Dunlop (2004) suggested that scholars should study religiosity, societal, and governmental factors in addition to their ten identified factors. Recently, Butt et al. (2017) found that "Religion" and "Organisation" emerged as two independent volunteer motivation factors, confirming that such factors should be included in future research as well.

There are several other recommendations to future research that do not pertain to the limitations of this report. First, volunteer motivation, satisfaction, and future volunteering intentions may vary by demographic characteristics, such as age, gender, income and employment status, and family status. Additionally, there may be a variation in volunteer motivation, satisfaction, and future volunteering intentions according to the type of volunteer task, event, and hours worked. Therefore, future research is ought to identify the factors that could explain variation in event volunteers´ motivation and intentions to remain. Additionally, it is recommended to examine potential motivational differences between planning versus on-site volunteers at events, as Doherty (2009) did.

Second, this study provides a preliminary picture of motivational factors that are important to explain peoples´ intention to volunteer in Denmark. Future research are recommended to follow up the findings from the quantitative study in this report, to see if these findings are valid for volunteers at specific sports or festival events.

Third, as mentioned in the introduction, the research of volunteer management in events is dominated by quantitative studies (Kim & Cuskelly, 2017), and it is therefore recommended to spend

more efforts using qualitative methods, for instance by asking managers how they practically accommodate the various needs of their volunteers.

Fourth, to the author´s knowledge only few researchers have attempted to cluster event volunteers into heterogeneous groups based on their motivations, such as Alexander et al. (2015), Lockstone-Binney et al. (2015), and Kim et al. (2018). This research gap needs to be addressed, since such clusters could inform event organisers how to design targeted recruitment advertisements and allocate the tasks to the right volunteers for better engagement.

Fifth, in accordance with the social exchange theory perceived benefits to volunteer have been researched several times, but perceived costs has not. More research is needed to examine volunteers´ intention to quit. For instance, task overload and personal inconvenience have been found to predict volunteers´ intention to quit (Doherty, 2009). Similarly, approximately a third of volunteers in Elstad (2003) and Love et al. (2012) had considered quitting volunteering. The top reasons to quit volunteering at film and music festivals included too high workload, the organizing of the festivals, and not being appreciated enough (Elstad, 2003; Love et al., 2012). Thus, managing volunteer workload, meeting volunteers´ expectations and needs, and making sure to acknowledge volunteers for their contribution is extremely important. Furthermore, because volunteers are not financially dependent on the event organisation, it is much easier for changes in a volunteer´s personal life - such as a new paid job, a new place to live, care of family, or too little leisure time - to affect the intention to quit (Elstad, 2003; Love et al., 2012). Yet, perceived costs and intentions to quit should be examined in other contexts and countries as well. By doing this, the identified managerial and administrative concerns for volunteer satisfaction and retention, such as recognition of and communication with volunteers, can be mitigated by establishing procedures for event managers to train their volunteers sufficiently and developing means to monitor and evaluate volunteer satisfaction and retention (Farrell et al., 1998).

Sixth, just as understanding the motivations why people do volunteer is extremely important for organisations relying on volunteers, it can also be important to understand the reasons why people do *not* volunteer (Esmond & Dunlop, 2004). Some of the major reasons the non-volunteers in Esmond & Dunlop´s (2004) study gave for volunteering in the future were: 1) the need to know that their potential future volunteer work would make a difference in people´s lives; 2) if they believed in the mission and philosophy of the organisation; and 3) if they were volunteering for an organisation of which they were already a member. Significant reasons for not volunteering were related to the busyness of non-volunteer´s lives, such as professional job, family, hobbies, etc. Those organisations relying on volunteers to carry out core services may well consider techniques to respond to these reasons in order to convert non-volunteers into volunteers (Esmond & Dunlop, 2004). Thus, more research examining potential reasons for non-volunteers to become volunteers is needed.

Lastly, event managers should strongly consider making pre- and post event surveys dealing with volunteer motivations, satisfaction, and commitment at their event to find out whether volunteers´ motivations and intention to volunteer are different before and after the event, such as the studies by Doherty (2009) and Dickson et al. (2015).

10 Conclusion

There is no widely accepted approach to explain volunteer motivations. Different volunteer motivation scales have been developed, some scales have been repeatedly used in the scientific literature, but even researchers using the same scale with the same items have derived different motivational factors and defined various volunteer motivations differently. Researchers have not reached a consensus on event volunteers´ motivations, which may stem from the motivations differentiating not only depending on event size, type, context, and organisation, but also on personality traits, cultural norms and values, attitudes, beliefs, and demographic characteristics.

Reasons to volunteer are multifaceted, arising out of the divide between intrinsic and extrinsic factors, albeit in different forms. This study found five motives significantly correlating with the intention to volunteer, i.e. *Values, Career* (for volunteers), *Protective, Community contribution,* and *Love of sport or music* (for non-volunteers). Especially, the altruistic motives *Values* and *Community contribution* had the highest influence on volunteers´ and non-volunteers´ future voluntary intentions, respectively. The finding that all volunteers, on average, rated *Values* as the most important reason to volunteer is consistent with previous findings (Clary et al., 1998; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Esmond & Dunlop, 2004; Finkelstein, 2008; Kim et al., 2010a; Hallmann & Harms, 2012; Zievinger & Swint, 2018). *Community contribution* has also been identified as the most important volunteer motivation (Farell et al., 1998; Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011; VanSickle et al., 2015) and the highest experienced benefit of volunteering (Doherty, 2009).

Identifying the unique volunteer motivations is an important step to help event managers organise volunteer recruitment, task delegation, performance, satisfaction, and retention. Yet, the six interviewed event managers in this study do not seem to consider the various volunteer motivations to a great extent when they recruit and allocate volunteers. In order for managers to identify what their volunteers are motivated by, the very short answer is: ask them! As event managers´ understanding of volunteer motivations increases, so too will their ability to help ensure the longevity of their organisations through the retention of volunteers (Slaughter & Home, 2004).

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