

**MOTIVES FOR VOLUNTEERING IN SPORT ORGANISATIONS AND THE  
RELATIONSHIP WITH VOLUNTEER COMMITMENT AND VOLUNTEER  
SATISFACTION**



**By**

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## ABSTRACT

**Key words:** sport organisations; volunteering; volunteer motives; volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction.

Volunteering is a core component of sport service delivery and remains essential to the viability of the sport system in many sport organisations and communities. To this end, it has become incumbent for them to ensure that a sufficient pool of volunteers exists. Despite this assertion that volunteers in sport organisations are considered such a valuable resource, they are increasingly scarce and there is a considerable debate about the underlying structure or dimensionality of volunteer motives. Therefore, the primary objective of this study was to examine motives for volunteering in sport organisations within Gauteng province and its relationships with volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction.

This research drew from the convergence of the social exchange and self-determination theories that were used in this study to provide a theoretical understanding as to why people engage in volunteer work and the outcomes thereof. In order to achieve the primary objective of the study, a quantitative research approach was adopted and a cross-sectional descriptive survey was utilised. A non-probability convenience sampling procedure was also adopted. Prior to the main survey data collection, a pilot study was undertaken by administering a questionnaire to 40 participants who did not form part of the main survey. The main survey data was thereafter acquired from 270 volunteers from conveniently selected sport organisations within Gauteng province through a structured self-administered questionnaire.

The data were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS version 26.0) and the reliability and validity analysis yielded satisfactory results in terms of the measuring instrument. Descriptive statistics were also computed to summarise the data into usable information by making use of frequencies, means and standard deviations. Exploratory factor analysis was used to statistically aggregate the large number of observed measures (28 items) relating to independent variable (volunteer motives) into a smaller set of three unobserved (latent) variables called factors while regression and correlation analysis were undertaken to establish the relationships among the study constructs in line with the objectives of the study. Results from

correlation and regression analysis respectively ( $r = 0.440$ ;  $\beta = .410$ ) revealed that volunteer motives significantly contribute towards enhancing volunteer commitment among volunteers in sport organisations. Furthermore, the study's results indicated that volunteer commitment, in turn, contributes towards volunteer satisfaction of volunteers in sport organisations ( $r = 0.561$ ;  $\beta = .561$ ).

Based on these results, this study recommends, among others, that management of sport organisations should explore the effectiveness of implementing an internal system of self-evaluation as a starting point to examine motives for volunteering. Furthermore, it is recommended that sport organisation management should develop an organisational culture which assigns authority and responsibility to sport volunteers.

The study concludes by affirming the achievement of the study's objectives, highlighting its limitations as well as identifying future research opportunities.

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## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION AND STUDY SETTING**

#### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

The importance of volunteering in sport organisations has been extensively acknowledged during the past decade, primarily because it provides the organisations and administrators with the ability to offer, sustain and expand the quantity, quality and diversity of services (Strigas 2003:112). The contribution of volunteers at various sport organisations is also well-documented in literature (Green & Chalip 1998:15; Chelladurai 2006:4; Cuskelly, Hoye & Auld 2006:187). Volunteers play a variety of essential roles, including chaperoning of athletes and officials, fund-raising, administration, coaching, event planning, and transport, especially at grassroots level (Cuskelly *et al.* 2006:188). Given the value that volunteers add to sport organisations, it then becomes incumbent for these organisations to ensure that a sufficient pool of volunteers exists.

Volunteering is an activity where time is given freely to benefit another person, group or cause (Wilson 2000:215) while a volunteer is regarded as an individual who offers a service without any expectation of monetary compensation (Shin & Kleiner 2003:63). Thus, volunteering is part of a cluster of helping behaviours, which require more commitment than spontaneous assistance, but is narrow in scope when compared to the care that is provided to family and friends (Wilson 2000:215). In addition, volunteer work is an important resource for many non-profit organisations which serve as key human resources for community-based sport organisations (Cuskelly *et al.* 2006:189).

Volunteers are a valuable set of human resource for any sporting organisation (Bang & Ross 2009:61). Volunteering is a core component of sport service delivery and remains essential to the viability of the sport system in many communities as sport organisations may experience challenges without volunteers (Auld & Cuskelly 2001:30). This is reflected in the increased reliance on volunteer support at various organisations to minimise the burden placed on permanent employees and to reduce costs during challenging economic times (Green & Chalip 1998:20; Strigas & Jackson 2003:119).

## 1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Whilst volunteers in sport organisations are considered as a valuable resource, they are increasingly scarce (Jago *et al.* 2003:4) and despite recent advances in research on volunteer motivations, there is still considerable debate about the underlying structure or dimensionality of volunteer motivations (Wang 2004:420). Some researchers posit that motivation to volunteer is a uni-dimensional construct (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen 1991:270) while others posit that it is multi-dimensional (Smit 1981:21; Marro-Howel & Mui 1989:26; Omoto & Snyder 1995:673; Bang & Chelladurai 2009:332). Further, while a large number of studies have illuminated the motivations behind volunteerism, limited research has been undertaken on volunteer motivation, commitment and satisfaction in different sports' organisations. What has been primarily studied is volunteer motivation in elite sport events such as the Olympic Games (Estad 1996:79).

Further, Farrel, Johnson and Twynam (1998:299) suggest that “motivation for special volunteers” is different from that of other volunteers”. For example, researchers on special event volunteers might find these distinct dimensions: purposive, solidarity, external conditions and commitments important because of their volunteer commitment and their attachment to the activity. These dimensions may differ because of the nature of special events. The suggestions that motivation for a special event is different from that of other volunteers was reinforced by a study undertaken by Johnson, Ywynam and Farrel (2000:175), which suggest that this study is essential among volunteers within a South African context.

Furthermore, research that focuses on volunteerism in sport settings is limited and studies in non-sport sectors have been unable to identify whether sport volunteerism is driven by considerations that are unique to sports (Strigas & Jackson 2003:119). Giannoulakis, Wang and Gray (2008:194) advocated for additional research to be conducted in order to establish a conceptual theory that may identify the motives to volunteering in sports' settings. Moreover, the theory needs to take into account the size, location, purpose and the composition of volunteers so that taxonomy of sport volunteer motivation could be developed and tested (Strigas & Jackson 2003:121).

Given the enormous contribution of volunteers in sport organisations, a better understanding of their motivations are imperative for managers to develop effective volunteer recruitment and

retention strategies (Clary 2004:2). Identifying specific volunteer motivations in sport organisations may provide not only theoretical and practical contributions for volunteerism in sport, but also invaluable insights on specific motives which influence volunteer commitment and satisfaction. In South Africa, very few research studies have examined sport volunteer motives (Surujlal & Dhurup 2008:105). In addition, based on the social exchange and self-determination theories, a volunteer's motivation may address this relation with volunteer commitment and satisfaction. Hence, a gap remains, which warrants further research in this area of study.

### **1.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW**

Social exchange and self-determination are the underlying theories that were used in this study to provide a better understanding of the study's constructs.

#### **1.3.1 The social exchange and self-determination theories**

The social exchange theory evolved from psychology, sociology, and economics to help explain human behaviour based on self-interest and the choices made to accomplish personal goals. The basic premise of the theory is that people make choices to maximise rewards and minimise costs, especially in sport organisations. The rewards can be tangible (money) or intangible (attention, status, affection) as long as they are seen as having value or bringing satisfaction. This premise applies to exchanges between individuals as well as larger social systems (Blau 1964:352).

A key concept of social exchange theory is the idea of reciprocal exchange. This refers to the expectation that when people receive rewards, they respond by doing good things for others (Homans 1974:386). Furthermore, reciprocal exchange involves the idea that interactions between people should remain stable. At first glance, the social exchange theory may not seem relevant to volunteerism. Why would people engage in an activity to help others without receiving remuneration? A closer look, however, shows that the social exchange theory is one of the most useful perspectives for understanding volunteerism. Volunteering provides people with opportunities to express or demonstrate their beliefs; learn new things; fend off feelings such as guilt, shame, and isolation; and enhance their self-confidence and sense of efficacy (Jago, Chalip, Mules & Ali 2003:8).

Volunteer commitment is linked to the concept of reciprocal exchanges. People become committed to volunteering with an organisation when their self-interests merge with the interests and needs

of the organisation (Kanter 1972:234; Sherr 2003:557). Volunteering benefits not only the organisation in which the volunteer is involved, but also an individual and society (Brewis, Russell & Holdsworths 2010:114).

The self-determination theory (SDT), on the other hand, is an approach to human motivation and personality that uses traditional empirical methods while employing an organismic theory that highlights the importance of a human's evolved inner resources for personality development and behavioural self-regulation (Ryan, Kuhl & Deci 1997:701). Hence, this theory is also applicable to volunteers as their self-determination may also assist them to engage in volunteer activities.

According to the SDT, autonomy, competence, and relatedness are three fundamental needs that underlie people's intrinsic motivation or a motivational state in which an individual is energised to engage in a task because of some inherent satisfaction generated from the task itself (Deci 1971:217). Social contexts that satisfy these needs may enhance intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan 1985:109; Ryan & Deci 2000:68). Therefore, motivation is enhanced when contextual conditions that allow volunteers to feel that their actions are freely emanating from the self, afford people with the possibility of developing competence, and support a sense of belonging with others in their environment. Intrinsic motivation is present when individuals do something for pleasure or enjoyment, whereas extrinsic motivation occurs when individuals do something because of external forces (Deci & Ryan 2000:68).

### **1.3.2 Volunteer motives**

Motivation is a basic psychological process or a need that activates behaviour (Luthans 2011:69) and results from the interaction between the individual and the environment (Latham & Pinder 2005:486). In order to enhance the understanding of volunteer behaviour, it is vital to identify a volunteer's fundamental motive for volunteering (Bussell & Forbes 2002:244). Different individuals may engage in similar volunteer events for various reasons and to achieve different goals, and volunteering can satisfy different motives for the same individual at different times (Clary, Snyder & Stukas 1996:487). Across the many theories of work motivation, it is quite common to conceptualise motivation as varying primarily in quantity rather than in quality or type (Gagné & Deci 2005:332). Based on the SDT, Deci and Ryan (2000:68) suggest that there are two primary types of motivation that can guide individual behaviour: extrinsic motivation (to attain a reward or consequence separable from an activity itself) and intrinsic motivation (to do something

because of an inherent inclination or interest) (Gagné & Deci, 2005:334). Hence, volunteers may engage in volunteer activities because of their intrinsic motivation.

Further, extrinsic motivation can be divided into four types, ranging from least to most autonomous: external (for reward or praise); introjected (to avoid guilt or anxiety); identified (the person sees value in the activity); and integrated (the person has internalised the reasons for engaging in the behaviour) (Wang & Biddle 2001:4; Koestner & Losier 2002:556; Ntoumanis 2002:178; Gagné & Deci 2005:331).

A substantial body of research suggests that personal motives play an important role in volunteerism (Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen & Miene 1998:1516; Omoto & Snyder 2002:847; Penner 2002:447; Bang & Chelladurai 2009:332; Bang & Ross 2009:63). Clary *et al.* (1998:1516) applied a functional approach to volunteers' motives by identifying six broad functions served by volunteering: values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement. The values of functional motivation reflect the opportunities that volunteerism presents to express one's values related to altruistic and humanitarian concerns for others. The understanding function relates to opportunities to exercise knowledge, skills and abilities and for new learning experiences. The social motivation relates to an individual to be with friends or to engage in an activity viewed favourably by others. Career function represents one that may be derived from participation in volunteer work. The protective function reflects traditional concerns that may serve to reduce guilt, especially when one is more fortunate than others, or addressing one's own personal problems. Enhancement is a function of volunteering that involves the ego's growth and development.

Clary and Snyder (1999) identified six primary motives for volunteering: protective motive (to reduce negative feelings); values (to express or act on important values); social (to strengthen social relationships); understanding (to learn about the world); career (to gain career-related experience); and enhancement (to enhance self-esteem).

Other studies by Farrell, Johnson and Twynam (1998:289) distinguished four categories of motives for volunteering in sport organisations, namely, purposive, solitary, external traditions and



commitments, whereas Knoke and Prensky (1984:18) identified three general motives for volunteering, namely, normative (altruism), utilitarian (self-interest), and affective dimensions.

Fairley, Kellett and Green (2007:48) describe nostalgia, camaraderie and friendship, Olympic connection, and sharing and acknowledgement of expertise as the four key motives to emerge from their study of Olympic Games volunteers. However, the motives for volunteering identified by Farrell *et al.* (1998:289) have been supported by several other studies of large multi-sport organisation volunteers (Ralston, Downward & Lumsden 2004:20; Reeser, Berg, Rhea & Willick 2005:24). What is clear from the above is that the dimensionality of the motives for volunteering varies across specific sport organisations and the nature of events.

### **1.3.3 Volunteer commitment**

Volunteer commitment is considered as one's attitude or an individual's degree of association with an organisation which is related to the willingness to dedicate significant time and effort to the organisation without monetary compensation (Ryan, Kaplan & Grese 2001:629). Although volunteers work for an organisation without remuneration, they are likely to have unique expectations concerning the organisation. Volunteers, for instance, may expect some intrinsic reward from the organisation (Lavelle 2010:918). Adeyemo and Aremu (1999:185) argued that individuals' fulfilled motivation encourages the individuals to improve their performance and contributes to their degree of commitment. Thus, when volunteers receive functionally relevant benefits (specific motives for volunteering) directly related to the quality of their volunteer experiences, they are more likely to be satisfied (Clary *et al.* 1998).

Commitment is an important concept that links individuals to their organisation (Cuskelly & Boag 2001:80). The commitment of volunteers is recognised as critical to the effective organisation and delivery of community-based sport (Cuskelly, Macintyre & Boag 1998:189). Evidence shows that committed individuals are valuable workers as they are likely to expend more effort on behalf of their organisations (Mathieu & Zajac 1990:189; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnysky 2002:45).

### **1.3.4 Volunteer satisfaction**

Identifying volunteers' motives and sources of satisfaction is an important step towards understanding volunteer performance and retention. Researchers examining sources of satisfaction have reported a variety of factors that influence volunteers' levels of satisfaction (Finkelstein 2008:10). These include the opportunity to expand one's social network, be part of an event, and achieve job competence (Elstad 1997:76). In addition, management practices such as facilitating the quality of communication between volunteers and recognition for their efforts have been associated with satisfaction (Johnston, Tywynam & Farrel 2000:163). For a sport organisation, a volunteer's satisfaction is related to the recognition of volunteers' efforts (Farrell *et al.* 1998:290; Reeser *et al.* 2005:23).

The relationship between volunteer satisfaction and volunteer commitment has received considerable attention. Literature has empirically supported a strong positive relationship between volunteer satisfaction and volunteer commitment (Lok & Crawford 2001:595). Studies on voluntary workers have also indicated the importance of satisfaction as an influential factor in explaining behaviour (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley 2001:45; Omoto & Snyder 2002:847). For example, Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley's (2001:50) findings indicate that group integration and participation efficacy are correlated significantly with volunteer satisfaction and often predict intent to remain in an organisation.

## **1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

### **1.4.1 Primary objective**

The primary objective of the study is to investigate the motives for volunteering as well as their relationships with volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction among volunteers in sport organisations within Gauteng province, South Africa.

### **1.4.2 Theoretical objectives**

To achieve the primary objective, the following theoretical objectives were formulated for the study:

- to appraise literature on the underlying theories to the constructs under investigation;
- to provide an overview of motives for volunteering in sport organisations;
- to conduct a literature review on volunteer motivation;

- to undertake a review the literature review on volunteer commitment among volunteers; and
- to synthesise literature on a volunteer's satisfaction in sport.

### 1.4.3 Empirical objectives

The following empirical objectives were formulated in line with the theoretical objectives and the purpose of the study:

- to determine volunteer motives and its relationships with volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction towards volunteering in sport organisations;
- to determine the relationship between volunteer motives and volunteer commitment towards volunteering in sport organisations; and
- to determine the relationship between volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction towards volunteering in sport organisations

## 1.5 CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES FORMULATION

Based on the literature review, the following conceptual model was developed. Volunteer motives are set as predictor variables, volunteer commitment is set as an intervening variable and volunteer satisfaction is set as the outcome variable.



**Figure 1.1: Conceptual model**

The following hypothesised relationships between research variables were developed thereafter:

H<sub>1</sub>: There is a positive relationship between volunteer motives and volunteer commitment.

H<sub>2</sub>: There is a positive relationship between volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction.

## **1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

A descriptive research design was deemed fit for the study since it involves finding a larger population through the survey of a sample of that population (Leedy & Ormrod 2013:195). Burns and Grove (2003:213) define research methodology as an overall blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over the factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings. The researcher opted for a quantitative research method because quantitative research is based on larger sample sizes in order to produce results which can be generalised to a wider population. Sampling design is a basic notion in sampling theory. It describes the selection of a sample from a population (Traat, Bonddesson & Meister 2004:396). The following sampling design procedure was followed:

### **1.6.1 Literature review**

A literature review on motives for volunteering in sport organisations and the relationship with volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction was undertaken. The study utilised textbooks, journals, electronics databases and the Internet as sources of information.

### **1.6.2 Target population**

Malhotra (2010:372) defines target population as the collection of elements that possess the information sought by the researcher and about which inferences are made. The target population for this study comprise both male and female volunteers in sport organisations under the auspices of the South African Football Association (SAFA), South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee (SASCOC) Athletes Association of South Africa (ASA), Cricket South Africa (CSA) and South African Rugby Union (SARU) in the Gauteng province.

### **1.6.3 Sampling frame**

Sampling frame is defined as a set of elements from which a researcher can select a sample of the target population (Malhotra 2010:372). Because a researcher rarely has direct access to the entire population of interest in social science research, a researcher must depend upon a sampling frame to represent all of the elements of the population's interest. For this study, a list of volunteers obtained from various targeted sporting organisations served as a sample frame.

### **1.6.4 Sample size**

The sample size refers to the number of elements to be included in the study (Malhotra 2010:374). Important factors that are considered in determining the sample size include the importance of the decision, the nature of the research, the number of variables, the nature of the analysis, sample

sizes used in similar studies, completion rates and resource constraints (Malhotra2010:374). The sample size adopted for the study (N=350) was based on previous studies (Eley & Kirk 2002:151; MacLean & Hamm 2007:540; Pauline & Pauline 2009:178; Liao & Huang 2013:86). These studies used sample sizes ranging from 280-650 and the researcher deemed a sample size of 350 as adequate for the study. The chosen sample size is also adequate to conduct multivariate statistics such as factor analysis and regression analysis (Malhotra 2010:240).

### **1.6.5 Measurement instrument and data collection**

A structured questionnaire consisting of four sections was used for the study. Section A was aimed to solicit information on respondents' demographic information and comprises mainly of multiple-choice questions. Section B adopted previous variables developed by Wang (2004:422) and Giannoulakis *et al.* (2008:195) to measure the motives for volunteering. In Section C, questions on volunteer commitment were adapted from the scales used by Allen and Meyer (1997:17). In Section D, items on volunteer satisfaction were adapted from the scales used by Battour, Ismail, Battor & Awais (2014:17).

Section B, C, D items were measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale that was anchored by 1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree to express the degree of agreement or disagreement to various statements of the measuring scales used for the study.

The questionnaire was distributed physically by the researcher and trained field workers to volunteers at different identified sporting organisations in Gauteng province.

## **1.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

Data analysis procedure consisted of two stages. First, the collected data were coded in an Excel spreadsheet and then the study proceeded to data cleansing. Secondly, coded data was transformed and thereafter descriptive statistics (frequency tables, means and standard deviation) as well as inferential statistics (exploratory factor analysis, correlations and regression analysis) were undertaken using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25.0.

## **1.8 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY**

The reliability of a research instrument concerns the extent to which the instrument yields the same results on repeated trials (Bulmer & Warwick 1983:147). In order to test the reliability of the measurement instruments for this study, the Cronbach alpha was used. Validity refers to the degree in which a test or other measuring device is truly measuring what it is intended to measure (Golafshani 2003:598). Various methods of validity assessments adopted for the study include content, construct and predictive validity of the measuring instrument which are highlighted in Chapter Three.

## **1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

There are ethical considerations in research that have to be observed in data collection processes and interaction with human subjects. These are discussed in greater detail in Chapter Three.

## **1.10 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION**

### **Chapter 2: Literature Review on study constructs**

This chapter provides a discussion on the study constructs, namely, motives for volunteering, volunteer commitment and volunteer's satisfaction in sports' organisations as well as the underlying theories as a bedrock for the study constructs.

### **Chapter 3: Research design and methodology**

This chapter consists of the target population, sampling frame, sampling size and measurement instruments as well as ethical considerations. The various types of descriptive and multivariate analysis are discussed. Reliability and validity issues as well as ethical considerations are also expounded upon.

### **Chapter 4: Data analysis and results**

This chapter consists of analysis, interpreting, and discussion of the results using descriptive statistics, factor analysis, correlations and regression analysis. Furthermore, the measuring instrument reliability and validity is ascertained.

### **Chapter 5: Results, conclusion and recommendations**

This chapter revisits the objectives of the study and their accomplishment. Recommendations, limitations and further areas of research are highlighted.

### **1.11 CONCLUSION**

The chapter entailed the background, problem statement as well as the research objectives of the study. The research design and methodology were briefly outlined, the statistical analysis procedures discussed as well as the reliability and validity assessments of the measuring instrument and the classification of chapters. The following chapter focuses on the literature review of this study.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter a brief introduction and background to the study was provided. The research objectives pertaining to the study were developed and the research design and methodology aspects were briefly mentioned. This chapter provides a detailed discussion of the theories that are foundational to this study as well as its constructs under investigation in line with the conceptual framework identified in the previous chapter.

#### **2.2 AN OVERVIEW OF SPORT ORGANISATIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA**

The role of sport in South African society has been enriched by its broad history that emerged after the apartheid regime in the 1990s; and several studies which were published concentrated on the main sports of rugby, soccer, athletics and cricket. Sport had historically been segregated in South Africa prior to 1994 due to the policies of racial discrimination and apartheid, which caused the fragmentation in South African sport. These policies were based on the ideology of white supremacy over people of colour and created a situation of independent existence of sport organisations against the wishes of the majority of the sporting family in the country (Nauright, 1997; 124). Certainly, the international boycott against apartheid sport in South Africa was a major point of international pressure that had a great symbolic impact on South Africa. More recently, the hosting of large-scale events such as the Rugby World Cup, the Cricket World Cup and the soccer, FIFA World Cup demonstrated that sport has a continued important role to play in the new South Africa of the twenty-first century (Nauright 2011:2). Much has been done in the process of uncovering, recovering and reconstructing histories of sport organisations in South Africa. The major sport organisations are briefly highlighted in the following paragraphs.

##### **2.2.1 Athletics South Africa (ASA)**

Under the guidance of the International Association of Athletics Federation (IAAF) which consists of 214 countries and is the custodian of global athletics, a unified structure ASA was formed in 1992. The first ASA development strategy was introduced soon after the establishment of ASA in order to give direction on how the various splinter groups can unite in building a unitary structure that can service all communities in South Africa. In 2018, ASA refocused the ASA development strategy again to align ASA with the latest technologies, services and resources available to ASA.



Athletics South Africa. Focusing on underdeveloped areas to growth was a sound strategic business principle of ASA, which was not influenced by the term “affirmative action”. It is important to note that ASA has experienced phenomenal growth, both in the volume participation as well as in the quality of the achievements.

### **2.2.2 South African Football Association (SAFA)**

The first organised formation of football at national level in South Africa was established in 1892. Of note, is 30 September 1951, when a milestone was reached in the annals of black soccer in South Africa during the amalgamation of three racial bodies, namely, the South African Football Association (SAAFA), the South African Coloured Football Association (SACFA) and the South African Indian Football Association (SAIFA) to form the South African Soccer Federation (SASFA) to further the interests of black football during apartheid era.

Realising the urgent need to fulfill the historic task of unifying the different football organisations in preparation for a united, democratic, indivisible and non-racial South Africa, SASFA and the South African National Football Association (SANFA) merged into an indissoluble single organisation, namely SAFA. SAFA was formed, mainly to carry on the public benefit activity of administering, developing, coordinating and promoting the game of football in which the participants take part in accordance with the principles as laid down in the statutes of the Federation Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) (Nauright 2011:2).

### **2.2.3 Cricket South Africa (CSA)**

Cricket South Africa’s (CSA) vision is to portray cricket as a truly national sport of winners by focusing on two critical elements, namely: to ensure that cricket is supported by the majority of South Africans and available to all who want to play it; and to pursue excellence at all levels of the game. Furthermore, as the governing body of cricket in the country, CSA is geared towards:

- Promoting and protecting the game and its unique spirit in the context of a democratic South Africa.
- Basing their activities, which includes inclusivity and non-discrimination by accepting South African’s diversity as strength and delivering outstanding, memorable events by providing excellent service to affiliates, associates and stakeholders.

- Implementing good governance based on King III, and matching diligence, honesty and transparency to all their activities by actively marketing cricket from mini-cricket to the Proteas (Nauright 2011:2).

#### **2.2.4 South African Rugby Union (SARU)**

Rugby in South Africa is a very popular team sport along with cricket and football and is widely all over the country. From the early years, the game of rugby has been enthusiastically and passionately adopted by coloured and black populations in the Cape colony, and the Eastern Cape in particular, but rugby organisation (under the South African Coloured Rugby Board formed in 1896) and teams were kept segregated with discrimination against black and coloured players and little government funding. From 1990 to 1994 the legal apparatus of apartheid was abolished, and in 1992 the Springboks were re-admitted to international rugby. On 23 March 1992 the non-racial South African Rugby Union and the South African Rugby Board were merged to form the South African Rugby Union. The unified body changed its name in 2005 to the current SARU (Nauright 2011:2).

#### **2.2.5 South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee (SASCOC)**

The mission of SASCOC is to develop, promote and protect the Olympic Movement in the Republic of South Africa, in accordance with the Olympic Charter. Parallel to its main objective, SASCOC assumed those functions relating to high performance sports, which were carried out by the following controlling bodies before the establishment of SASCOC: Disability Sport South Africa (a Nonprofit company); National Olympic Committee of South Africa; South African Commonwealth Games Association (a Nonprofit company); South African Sports Commission; South and Recreation South Africa and the South African Student Sport Union (Nauright 2011:2).

### **2.3 THEORIES UNDERLYING STUDY CONSTRUCTS**

This study drew from the convergence of the social exchange and self-determination theories that are briefly discussed below.

#### **2.3.1 Self-determination theory (SDT)**

Basic research to expand and refine motivational principles has continued at a vigorous pace, but the huge increase in the volume of published SDT studies has been most apparent in the applied fields of sport, education, and health care. SDT as a macro theory of human motivation addresses such basic issues as personality development, behavioural self-regulation, universal psychological

needs, life goals and aspirations and the impact of social environments on motivation, affect, behaviour and wellbeing (Ryan, Kurl & Deci, 1997:310). Thus, its arena is the investigation of people's inherent growth tendencies and innate psychological needs of autonomy (the belief that one is the origin and regulator of his or her actions), which are the basis for their self-motivation and personality integration, as well as for the conditions that foster those positive processes.

SDT can be traced back to the seminal work of psychologists Edward Deci and Richard Ryan in 1985, who developed this theory to suggest that people tend to be driven by a need to grow and gain fulfillment (Ryan, Kurl & Deci, 1997:310). The basic key assumptions of this theory are the need for growth that drives both behaviour (people are actively directed toward growth) and autonomous motivation (internal sources of motivation such as independence). The theory further posits that there are two main types of motivation, namely, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and that both are powerful forces in shaping who we are and how we behave (Deci & Ryan, 2008:112). This means that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are highly influential determinants of our behaviour, and both drive us to meet the three basic needs identified by the SDT model as follows:

- ***Autonomy***: the sense of being able to take direct action that will result in real change plays a major part in helping people feel self-determined.
- ***Competence***: manifests when people feel that they have the skills needed for success and thus become more likely to take actions that will help them achieve their goals.
- ***Connection or relatedness***: need to experience a sense of belonging and attachment to other people i. e. an affectionate relationship with others (Ryan & Deci, 2019:112).

Intrinsic motivation is an example of autonomous motivation while the use of extrinsic rewards in the early experiments was found to induce controlled motivation (Deci, 1971:109). When people engage in an activity because they find it interesting, they are doing the activity wholly volitionally. In contrast, being controlled involves acting with a sense of pressure, a sense of having to engage in the actions (Ryan & Deci, 2008:110). In addition to this idea of controlling one's own destiny, SDT is relevant to anyone hoping to guide their lives through life's goals and aspirations (Deci & Ryan, 1985:110). Furthermore, the theory has been applied to issues within a wide range of life domains since it has a more personal and psychologically- relevant meaning today (Moller, Deci & Ryan, 2006:115).

### 2.3.2 Social exchange theory (SET)

Researchers have been increasingly interested in the role of exchange processes in organisations (Rousseau & Parks, 1993:362), hence SET finds its relevance in this study, because the theory focuses more on personal satisfaction in the areas of social, family, work and voluntary organisations (Farzalipour, 2012:3). SET's explanatory value has been felt in such diverse areas as social power (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999:364), networks (Brass, Galaskiewicz, Greve & Tsai, 2004; Cook, Molm, & Yamagishi, 1993:210), board independence (Westphal & Zajac, 1997:74), organisational justice (Konovsky, 2000:92), psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1995:284), and leadership (Liden, Sparrowe & Wayne, 1997:110), among others.

Although different views of social exchange theory (SET) have emerged, theorists agree that social exchange involves a series of interactions that generate obligations (Emerson, 1976:326). Within SET, these interactions are usually seen as interdependent and contingent on the actions of another person. As described by Blau (1964:169), social exchanges entail unspecified obligations; when one person does another a favour, there is an expectation of some future return, though exactly when it will occur and in what form is often unclear. SET also emphasises that these interdependent transactions have the potential to generate high-quality relationships. High levels of SET create feelings of obligation, whereby volunteers not only feel that they ought to be committed to their leaders and organisation, but also feel an obligation to return the voluntary commitment by engaging in behaviours that support organisational goals (Gouldner 1960:475).

By adopting a social exchange framework, Eisenberger *et.al* (1987:436) argued that such beliefs underlie employees' inferences concerning their organisations' commitment to them, which in turn contribute to the volunteer commitment to their organisations. Towards this end, Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa (1986:436) differentiate between two types of social exchanges being: exchanges between a volunteer and a voluntary organisation called perceived organisational support (POS); and exchanges between a volunteer and his or her leader (supervisor), referred to as leader-member exchange (LMX). Eisenberger *et.al* (1986:441) developed the concept of POS to explain the development of volunteer commitment to an organisation. The authors proposed that POS refers to global beliefs developed by volunteers concerning the extent to which the organisation values their contribution and cares about their wellbeing. Of note is that POS is premised on the particular volunteered history of a volunteer and represents his or her perception

of the extent to which the organisation is committed to him or her as an individual (Kopelman, Brief & Guzzo, 1990:210).

Concerning LMX, Organ (1988:327) proposed that supervisor fairness leads to a volunteer's citizenship because a social exchange relationship develops between volunteers and their supervisors, i. e. social exchange and the norm of reciprocity dictate that volunteers reciprocate. Perceptions of being valued and cared about by an organisation also enhance volunteer trust that the organisation will fulfil its exchange obligations of recognising and rewarding desired volunteer attitudes and behaviour such as praise and mentoring (Gouldner 1960:93). Thus, SET may well have the potential to provide a unitary framework for much organisational behaviour in that volunteers seek a balance in their exchange relationships with organisations (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004:102; Cropanzano, Rupp, Mohler & Schminke, 2001:205). Furthermore, volunteers tend to take a long-term approach to social exchange relationships at sporting activities, with the pattern of reciprocity over time, determining the perceived balance in exchanges (Blau, 1964:88; Rousseau, 1989:183).

## **2.4 VOLUNTEERING IN SPORT ORGANISATION**

Volunteering is a type of 'serious leisure', the characteristics of which include a need to persevere with the activity, the tendency to have a career in it, durable benefits, unique culture and participant identification (Parker, 1992:2). It is a formalised activity in which individual time and efforts are given freely without any remuneration for the benefit of other persons, from or with sport organisations (Gratton, Shibli & Coleman, 2005:233). Of note is that volunteering is not a substitute for paid work as volunteers do not replace paid workers, i. e. they do not constitute a threat to the job security of a paid worker (Cordingly, 200:74), but rather participate in roles undertaken to support, arrange or run organised sport and physical activity (Australian Bureau Statistics, 2002:54). Sport organisations around the world, regardless of the size, tend to rely on sport volunteers for the efficiency and execution of their events (Downward & Ralston, 2005:18). Throughout the world, volunteers are utilised by various sport organisations for numerous events and therefore volunteers have become a vital part of ensuring the efficiency of sport events in sport organisations (Schuyler, 2008:110). Sport volunteering is one of the most important types of volunteering activity in sport organisations (Hwang, 2010:78) involved in the successful

implementation of sports' developmental programmes at the local, national and international levels (Gratton, Shibli, & Coleman., 1997:98). Sports' volunteerism is thus a human service delivery venture which involves individual volunteers helping others in sport and receiving either no remuneration or only expenses (Taylor *et al.*, 2003:235). The role of sport volunteers is widely recognised as contributing an important economic and cultural dimension to the effective operation of sporting events (Ingerson, 2001:89).

Butt, Paine and Smith (2007:11) defined formal volunteering as giving unpaid help through groups, clubs or organisations to benefit other people or the environment while Low *et al.* (2007:11) refer to informal volunteering as giving unpaid help as an individual, not through a group, club or organisation. From a research point of view, this distinction between volunteering categories is clear and logical, and thus easy to use (Adams & Deane, 2009:119). Some previous research examining the impact and prevalence of volunteers (Low *et al.*, 2007:12; Gaskin, 2008:112) appears to only explore formal volunteering rather than those who may give time to helping individuals on more of an ad hoc basis.

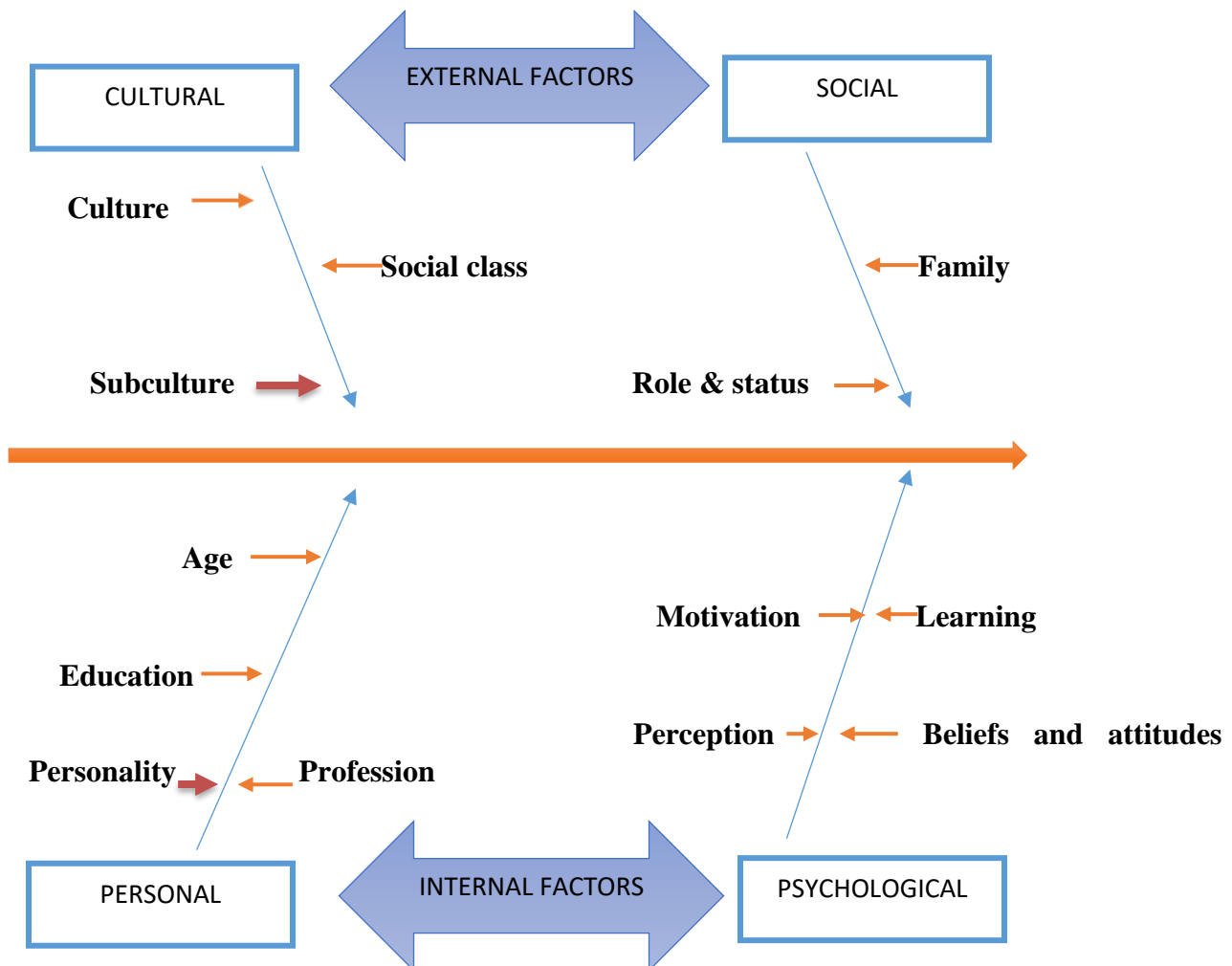
However, other researchers, Taylor, Nichols, Holmes, James, Gratton, Garrett, Kokolakis, Mulder and King, (2003:132), have specifically included both types of volunteering. This is possibly because there is the recognition that whilst the majority of volunteering in sport occurs within clubs, groups and organisations, some volunteers may also give their time to individuals within a sporting context but outside of the organisation setting. In addition, Taylor *et al.*, (2003:132) noted further that the reimbursement of expenses or the provision of small gifts did not preclude people receiving benefits from being considered as volunteers.

Geographical location appears to have an impact on volunteering rates, with some research suggesting that those who live in rural locations may find it more difficult to access leisure activities such as volunteering in sport organisations or sports' events (Low *et al.*, 2007:54). This may be due to the distances involved in travelling to sport organisations' facilities, a lack of transport (particularly for young people), and the cost of travelling to access sport organisation facilities, which may deter such individuals from pursuing certain sporting activities (Collind, 2004:727; Matthews, Taylor, Sherwood, 2000:141). Previous research has also consistently indicated that those from a white ethnic background are more likely to volunteer than other ethnicities, particularly in sport organisations (Attwood, Singh, Prime & Cresey, 2003:114;

Gaskin, 2008:105: Low *et al.*, 2007:57). Contrary to this, Davis-Smith, Ellis and Howlett (2002:132) as well as Cen (2011:116) reported success in recruiting sport volunteers among young people from a variety of ethnic backgrounds. This suggests that targeted intervention programmes may have more success in attracting ethnic minority participants compared to naturally occurring sport volunteer opportunities. It is therefore self-evident that employed staff of sports' organisations, sports' associations, sports' agencies and sports' ministries may never be adequate for effective and efficient administration and development of sports events without sport volunteers.

## 2.5 FACTORS INFLUENCING VOLUNTEER MOTIVES

This section explores the most prominent internal and external factors affecting volunteer motives identified by the fish bone framework, illustrated in Figure 2.1 Each of the factors will be briefly explained hereafter.



## **Figure 2.1: The Fish Bone Framework**

**Source: Adapted from Khaniwale (2015:282).**

Of note is that Figure 2.1 has two directional arrows that indicate the interrelatedness of the two set of factors which influence volunteers' motives, being the internal and external factors which are explained hereafter.

### **2.5.1 External factors**

According to Figure 2.1, external factors can be categorised into two components, namely social and cultural factors. These are not individualistic but external to the individual volunteer in that they are associated with the groups that the individual interacts with and belongs to.

#### **2.5.1.1 Social factors**

Social factors entail the opinionated influence of people the volunteers regard as close family, friends or acquaintances, whose opinions are deemed valuable (Du Toit 2013:17). According to Andersone and Gaile-Sarkane (2008:2), social criteria concern the impact the sport volunteer makes on the person with perceived relationships of other people, and the influence of social norms on the person. Social norms refer to the external pressures that affect or influence behaviour (Lee 2011:302). Failure to adhere to social norms normally may become internalised by sanctions in the form of guilt feelings (Biel & Thogersern 2007:94). From the authors' elucidations mentioned, it can be noted that social norms may govern a volunteer's behaviour of choice, which is because his/her decision is informed by personal norms but also is generated largely from social norms of a group to which the volunteers value on which particular beliefs are based. According to Gajjar (2013:2), the important social factors are reference groups, family, role and status. These are discussed as follows:

##### **2.5.1.1.1 Reference groups**

Almost all individuals frequently interact with other individuals, who directly or indirectly influence their sport organisational choice decision as well as their participating decisions. (Azuah & Aigbvboa 2014:787). According to Bishnoi and Mann (2015:87), the term reference group is associated with an actual or imaginary group that has a direct influence on an individual's volunteering decision. Similarly, McDaniel *et al.* (2013:209) refer to reference groups as groups that function as figures of reference for individuals in their consumption decisions, as they are considered credible informants.



Reference groups influence decisions on sport organisational choice because members of the group are expected to adhere to group norms and act in particular ways acceptable to other members (Cox Brittian 1996:66). Rutenburg (2003:222) advances that the reference group plays a role in the lives of young people as they are sometimes cast easily into volunteering, depending on their reference groups. Khaniwale (2015:282) further expressed that individuals are knowingly or unknowingly a part of some groups. For example, female volunteers at a particular university are part of a female volunteer group in that university. Furthermore, if an individual wishes to become a member of a particular group, he or she will consider the group's behaviour when forming his or her own attitudes, beliefs and behaviour aspects (Bishnoi & Mann 2015:87), for example, one chooses clothing to fit the group one associates with.

#### **2.5.1.1.2 Family**

A family is thought to have a strong influence on an individual's values, attitudes and volunteering behaviour (Gil *et al.*, 2007:188). Yakup and Jablonsk (2012:64) assert that a family consists of two or more people, who are related by blood or marriage and are part of a household consisting of individual's living singly or together with others in a residential unit. Of note, is that a family, as a participant and decision-making unit, is a central phenomenon in volunteering behaviour (Commuri & Gentry, 2000:1). However, it is the volunteer who provides service in the sport organisation (Kotler, Armstrong, Wong & Saunders, 2008:248-249).

#### **2.5.1.1.3 Role and status**

People belong to different groups (like clubs, organisations and others) and within those groups take on certain roles and status, which they are expected to fulfil (Kotler & Armstrong (2010:170). According to Khaniwale (2015:281), the role individuals perform and the status they have in a group determines their position or status in the group.

Relatedly, Yakup and Jablonsk (2012:65) expressed the view that the person's position in each group can be defined in terms of both role and status, for example, wealthy people dress to conform to their status in the society (Azuah & Aigbvboa 2014:787). Thus, a sport volunteer tends to select and use organisations that suit his/her position accordingly (Khaniwale 2015:281).

### **2.5.1.2 Cultural factors**

According to Yakup and Jablonsk (2012:64), cultural factors refer to the sum total of external factors that are beyond an individual's control but have direct or indirect impact on a volunteer's participation or involvement decisions.

Culture affects people's lives, choices, and view of life (Akgün & Yalın 2015:129) and influences how an individual reasons, and ultimately, makes decisions (Yuanyuan 2012:8). According to Coakley (2007:5), culture consists of the ways of life people create as they participate in a group or society. In this context, culture represents the mix of norms, financial and moral values, convictions, attitudes and habits developed in time by mankind, which the members of society share and which greatly determine their behaviour, including volunteering behaviour (Radulescu, Cetina & Orzan 2012:2). In addition, culture is an important combination of character, behaviour and a self-identification of human beings, which shape volunteering behaviour (Familmaleki, Aghighi & Hamidi 2015:44) as numerous interactions exist around volunteer culture and sport organisational culture (Rutenburg 2003:45). For example, a sport volunteer may not be aware of the extent of his or her culture's influence when engaging in sport organisational activities.

Each culture contains smaller sub-cultures, or groups of people with shared value systems based on common life experiences and situations (like nationalities, racial groups, religions and geographical regions), which can influence the manner in which volunteers behave (Kotler & Armstrong 2010:161) and provides specific ways of recognition and socialisation for their members (Kotler & Keller, 2012:175).

Similarly, Purwanto (2013:71) refers to sub-culture as a smaller part of a culture, or groups of people with shared value systems based on common life experiences and situations. Furthermore, sub-cultures can be described as possessing unique beliefs, values and customs that set them apart from other members of society (Motale 2015:34) and can be identified by age, geography or ethnic identity (Wright 2004:353).

### **2.5.2 Internal factors**

According to Figure 2.1, internal factors can be categorised into personal and psychological factors.

### **2.5.2.1 Personal factors**

Volunteering decisions are influenced by personal characteristics which include the volunteer's age and life cycle stage, occupation, economic situation, lifestyle, personality and self-conception (Purwanto, 2013:71). For the purposes of the study, only age, education and personality or profession characteristics will be briefly referred to hereafter.

#### **2.5.2.1.1 Age**

Age is an important factor to consider when investigating the performance of sport volunteers (O'Cass, 2000:569) since people of the same age have similar patterns of undertaking responsibilities (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2004:385). In addition, age is strongly related to both sport volunteer commitment and volunteers' satisfaction. (Lamb *et al.*, 2010:51), and it influences the abilities and resources the sport organisation brings when organising events or sport activities (Yoon, Cole & Lee, 2009:13). A volunteer does not provide the same services at 20 or 70 years of age as the sport volunteers change their participation and services with the passage of time (Rani, 2014:57).

#### **2.5.2.1.2 Education**

Educational attainment is the most reliable determinant of the sport volunteers' status in sport organisations (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:331; Van der Vyver, 2008:22). Generally, an educated volunteer tends to make wise decisions compared to an uneducated volunteer due to the ability of collecting, processing and analysing information as well as situations (Khaniwale, 2015:282). In addition, Paulins and Giestfied (2003:377) contend that the educational level is an important determinant used by other volunteers when selecting a sport organisation.

#### **2.5.2.1.3 Personality or profession characteristics**

Elendu and Ogujiofor (2012:395) have identified the following personality or professional characteristics/qualities as the most appropriate for volunteers in a sport organisation. They should:

- have good communication skills;
- be interested and passionate about sports;
- understand the terrain and geographical location of where the sports event is to take place;
- be a person with integrity;

- be friendly and possess the ability to work in and with groups;
- be of good moral conduct;
- possess a reasonable level of commitment;
- be flexible;
- possess practical problem-solving and leadership skills; and
- have the ability to adapt to different socio-cultural settings.

### **2.5.2.2 Psychological factors**

Psychological factors are characterised as the internal processes that control a volunteer's decision-making (Martin & Del Bosque, 2008:264). In this section, the influence of perception, motivation, learning, beliefs and attitudes on the volunteers' decision-making process is briefly discussed.

#### **2.5.2.2.1 Perceptions**

In order to understand sport volunteers' behaviour, sport organisations must consider the influence of perception (Schiffman & Kanuk 2009:532). Perception is how sport volunteers understand the world around them based on information received through their senses (Durmaz 2014:196) and how they refer to the process of determining meaning by selecting, organising and interpreting stimuli in the environment (Wan 2005:40). Similarly, Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff, Terblanche, Elliot and Klopper (2010:87) are of the opinion that perception is a process by which individuals observe, organise and interpret stimuli into a meaningful and comprehensive picture. In the same vein, Hoyer and MacInnis (2004:91) as well as Sheth and Mittal (2004:13) note that perception is the process by which incoming stimuli activate our sensory receptors, namely vision, hearing, taste, smell and touch which are all influenced by sport a volunteer's characteristics such as personal knowledge and experiences On a daily basis, sport volunteers are exposed to various stimuli but they tend to be selective towards information they choose to process or pay attention to, or even interpret (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:279; Tusiime, 2009:45).

#### **2.5.2.2.2 Motivation**

Motivation is an activated internal need leading to goal-directed behaviour to satisfy that need (Durmaz 2014:196), an inner state of arousal that denotes energy to achieve a goal (Hoyer &

MacInnis 2004:55), the driving force within individuals that impels them into action (Mallalieu (2000:14) and the activation of internal desires, needs and concerns, which energises behaviour and sends the organism in a particular direction, which is aimed at satisfaction. (De Klerk & Tselepis (2007:414). To this end, sport volunteers are motivated to act when their systems are aroused and driven towards a particular behaviour aimed at satisfying their desired goal (Rutemberg 2003:37). For example, female volunteers or their counterparts who are concerned about their egos are most likely to volunteer in sport organisations which are personally relevant to their desired status. Overall, for volunteers working within sports organisations, a key motivation appears to be the altruistic desire to want to help the sport organisation and those members within it (Taylor *et al.*, 2003:220; Welch & Long, 2006:261).

#### **2.5.2.2.3 Learning**

Learning is a change in a person's thought processes caused by prior experiences (Yakup & Jablonsk, 2012:67). According to Tilley (2000:48), learning is defined as the result of a combination of motivation, attention, experience and repetition. This implies that the volunteers must be motivated, must give full attention to the message and must repeat the new information in order to learn (Strydom *et al.*, 2000:85). In relation to this study, the new information that will be stored in the volunteer's memory can be recalled during any stage of a volunteer's decision-making process, thus assisting in making appropriate decisions to the sport organisation's choice.

#### **2.5.2.2.4 Beliefs and attitudes**

Sport volunteers possesses specific beliefs and attitudes which affect their behaviour towards sport organisations (Rani 2014:60) and attempts to explain man's social behaviour which cannot be observed directly (Anderson 2006:7). A belief is defined as a person's supplementary thought on anything (Akgün & Yalım 2015:132), or a conviction acquired through experience, learning or external influence (family , friends, etc) (AL-Nahdi, Nyakwende, Banamah & Jappie 2015:15; Rani 2014:60; Anderson 2006:7); consequently, the individual will develop beliefs that influence his/her volunteering behaviour. On the other hand, attitudes are defined as a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour (Dreezens, Martijin, Tenbult, Kok & De Vries, 2005:40) or a tendency of an individual to respond positively or negatively to objects, opinions or conditions (Akgün & Yalım 2015:132). Likewise, Haung, Lee and Ho (2004:600) define an attitude as a learned predisposition to respond in a

consistently favourable or unfavourable manner toward a particular sport activity. Similarly, Junga, Shimb, Jinc and Khangd (2015:5) refer to attitudes as sport volunteers' psychological likelihood demonstrated by assessing a particular sport activity with some extent of favour or disfavour.

## **2.6 VOLUNTEER COMMITMENT**

If sporting organisations and associations are to be successful in the delivery of their programmes and events, they need to recruit sport volunteers with a sense of commitment. Sporting organisations that fail to retain the services of committed volunteers may have to expend greater levels of effort in recruiting and training new volunteers than in furthering sport organisational goals. According to Anderson (1993:27), all sport volunteers must face up to the challenge of how to evaluate, utilise and develop their skills and abilities to ensure that sport organisational goals are achieved, and also to ensure that sport volunteers gain as much satisfaction as possible from their volunteerism, while making effective contributions. Thus the decision by an individual to continue or discontinue as a sport volunteer may be a symptom of his or her level of sport organisational commitment. Sport volunteers are thus accordingly regarded as committed to a sport organisation if they willingly continue their association with it and devote considerable effort to achieving its sport organisational goals (Zangaro 2001:16). Past research studies on commitment of volunteers to sport organisations have taken two different directions or paths towards defining employee commitment, namely: foci of commitment (Reichers, 1985:456); and bases of commitment (Meyers, Allen & Smith, 1993:115; Reilly & Chatman, 1986:492). Foci of commitment refer to individuals and groups to whom a volunteer is attached within a sport organisation or occupation e. g., superiors, co-workers, etc. (Meyer, Allen & Topolnytsky, 1998:84) and include occupational and sport organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen 1997:87; Turner 2001:113). Bases of volunteer commitment, on the other hand, refers to the motives that produce the attachment to the foci of commitment e. g., compliance, identification and internalisation (Becker & Billings, 1993:177; Becker, 1992:234). The ensuing section will elaborate on defining the concept of volunteer commitment.

### 2.6.1 Towards a definition of volunteer's commitment

Table 2.1 reflects various definitions of volunteer commitment as proposed by different scholars in order to provide or set a foundation towards the study's objectives.

**Table 2.1: Different definitions of volunteer commitment**

No.	Author	Definition
	Porter, Steer, Mowday, and Boulian (1974:604)	The strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular sport organisation.
	Blau & Boal, (1987).	Conceptualised as a state in which sport volunteer identifies with a particular sport organisation and its goals, and he or she wishes to maintain sport volunteerism in the sport organisation in order to facilitate its goals
	O'Reilly (1989:17	A sport volunteer's psychological bond to the sport organisation, including a sense of sport volunteer involvement, loyalty and belief in the values of the sport organisations.
	Chow (1994)	The degree to which sport volunteers identify with their sport organisation and the managerial goals, and show a willingness to invest effort, participate in decision making and internalise sport organisational values.
	Cohen (2000)	A force that binds sport volunteers to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets.
	Meyer and Herscovitch (2001:299)	A binding force that is experienced as a mind set or

No.	Author	Definition
		as a psychological state that leads a sport volunteer towards a particular course of action
	Lee & Miller (2001:538).	A state of being, in which sport organisational members are bound by their actions and beliefs that sustain their activities and their own involvement in the sport organisation
	Miller (2003:73)	A state in which a sport volunteer identifies with a particular sport organisation and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation
	Arnold (2005:625) that;	The relative strength of sport volunteer's identification with and involvement in the sport organisation

Although, various definitions have been proposed in Table 2.1, sport volunteer commitment from the study's point of view is characterised by a sport volunteer's acceptance of sport organisational goals and willingness to exert effort on behalf of the sport organisation (Miller & Lee, 2001:534); and of note is a recurring strand among the proposed definitions the idea of a psychological bond (Firestone & Pennell, 1993:489).

To this effect, Best (1994:69) maintains that committed sport volunteers enact specific behaviours due to the belief that they are morally correct rather than personally beneficial. In the same vein, Reichers (1985: 468) is of the opinion that sport volunteer commitment as behaviour is visible when volunteers are committed to existing organisational members. Therefore the study adopts Lee and Miller's (2001:538) definition that conceptualises volunteer commitment as a binding force that is experienced as a mind-set, or a psychological state that leads a sport volunteer towards a particular course of action. This definition is in line with Porter, Steer, Mowday, and Boulian's (1974:604) view that sport volunteer commitment comprises three key components namely: a strong belief in and acceptance of the sport organisation's goals and values; a willingness to exert



considerable effort for the sport organisation; and a strong desire to maintain sport organisational membership.

### **2.6.2 The hierarchical model of volunteer commitment**

Models are important in the study of sport organisational commitment as they explore the different perspectives studied and documented and how they are expressed in a sport organisational setting. Consequently, in this section, the study explores the hierarchical model of volunteer commitment proposed by Kohlberg's (1969:347). This model comprises five stages, namely: primitive commitment; affective commitment; continuous commitment; external commitment; and normative commitment. The various stages of the hierarchical model of volunteer commitment are highlighted in Table 2.2.

**Table 2.2: Stages of hierarchical model of volunteer commitment**

<b>STAGES</b>	<b>DESCRIPTION</b>
<b>Primitive commitment</b>	<b>Occurs when individuals accept social influence to receive a favourable reward or avoid punishment and agree with others, but keep their dissenting opinion private.</b>
<b>Affective Commitment</b>	<b>Refers to volunteer's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation as well as the attachment of volunteer's fund of affectivity and emotion to the group</b>
<b>Continuance Commitment</b>	<b>Is referred to as a structural phenomenon, which occurs because of sport volunteer organisational transactions and investments over time</b>
<b>External commitment</b>	<b>Refers to recognition of social expectations or pressures on one's consistent line of actions from socially relevant or significant others, and thus an orientation to doing duty and regard for the earned expectations of others of cognitive moral</b>

STAGES	DESCRIPTION
	development i.e. an orientation to approval and to pleasing others. .
Normative Commitment	Volunteer's moral obligation to continue volunteering in sport organisations includes socialisation and congruence of organisational mission.

Source: Adapted from Weideman (2014:84)

### 2.6.2.1 Primitive Commitment

Primitive or compliance commitment is related to the awareness of possible punishment or the restriction derived from being inconsistent in actions which occur because individuals agree with others, but keep their dissenting opinion private (Kelman 1958:51); for example, learners who participate in mandatory community service as a graduation requirement (Planty, Bozick, & Regnier 2006:177). Of note is the view that it is difficult to expect positive and direct outcomes related to volunteering at this level because this cohort would stop volunteering if the requirement or punishment were waived (Planty *et al.*, 2006:177), which may reduce their intention for future volunteering as well (Batson, Coke, Jasonski & Hanson, 1978:86; Kunda & Schwartz, 1983:763).

### 2.6.2.2 Affective Commitment

Affective commitment is conceptualised as an attitude or an orientation toward the sport organisation which links or attaches the identity of sport volunteer to the sport organisation (Sheldon 1971:145; Mowday *et al.*, 1982). Similarly, Meyer and Allen (1984:375) define affective commitment as positive feelings of identification with, attachment to and involvement in volunteering in sport organisation and relates to the category wherein sport volunteers stay in the sport organisation because they want to, and identify with the sport organisation and its values (Meyer *et al.*, 1990:715). Of note is that affective commitment is very closely related to sport organisational identification (Gautam, Van Dick, & Wagner, 2004:301), perceived organisational support (Bang, 2011:64; Pulis & Hoye, 2010) and could predict intention to continue volunteering (Park, 2010:141). In summary, sport volunteers with strong affective commitment might be ideal

for sport organisations because they are the most favourable to sport organisational success and are willing to devote themselves to their sport organisation.

### **2.6.2.3 Continuance Commitment**

Continuance commitment can be regarded as an instrumental attachment to the sport organisation, where the sport volunteer's association with the organisation is based on assessment of economic benefits gained (Beck & Wilson, 2000:115). It is an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the sport organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997:11.), or the profit associated with continued participation and a cost associated with leaving it (Kanter 1968:504) At this stage of the model, an individual is concerned with external rewards and exchange and makes moral decisions based on their own interests and to obtain a fair deal. Of note is that several scholars (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2008:160; Dawley, Stephens, & Stephens, 2005; Kim *et al.*, 2008; Liao-Troth, 2001; Stephens *et al.*, 2004) posited that continuance commitment may not be relevant to general volunteering contexts because of its instrumental ties between the volunteer and the organisation. It becomes apparent then, that continuance commitment may not yield positive volunteering outcomes because of its calculative nature (Meyer *et al.*, 2002:21). However, volunteers with continuance commitment would be more willing to volunteer and, hence, be more favourable to the sport organisation than sport volunteers with primitive commitment.

### **2.6.2.4 External Commitment**

External commitment relates to an individual's consistent line of action influenced by sub-cultural norms, or the force of social expectations and can be best explained as an identification that involves accepting social influence to satisfy one's relationship with other individuals or groups (Kelman, 1958:52). According to Ajzen (1991:179), the major determinant of an individual's intention to perform a specific behaviour is the subjective norm, defined as the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour in question. Relatedly, sport volunteers are more likely to enact cooperative behaviours induced by external commitment if they regard the social relationship as necessary or attractive (Kohlberg 1969:376), for example, an individual's participation in leisure activities (i. e. volunteering) is greatly influenced by social groups or subjective norms (Ajzen & Driver, 1991:179, 1992:207; Crandall, 1979:165; Young & Kent, 1985:90). Hauser, Koontz, and Bruskotter (2012:77) and concludes that subjective norms (others' expectations toward an individual's behaviour) and personal requests were highly related to active

volunteer participation. Of note is that moral value resides in performing a good or right role in maintaining the conventional order and the expectancies of others, or pleasing and seeking approval from significant others by conforming to their expectations. Accordingly, some individuals may participate in volunteering, and continue to do so, to meet social expectations or after making public statements about engaging in such a good behaviour (volunteering).

#### **2.6.2.5 Normative Commitment**

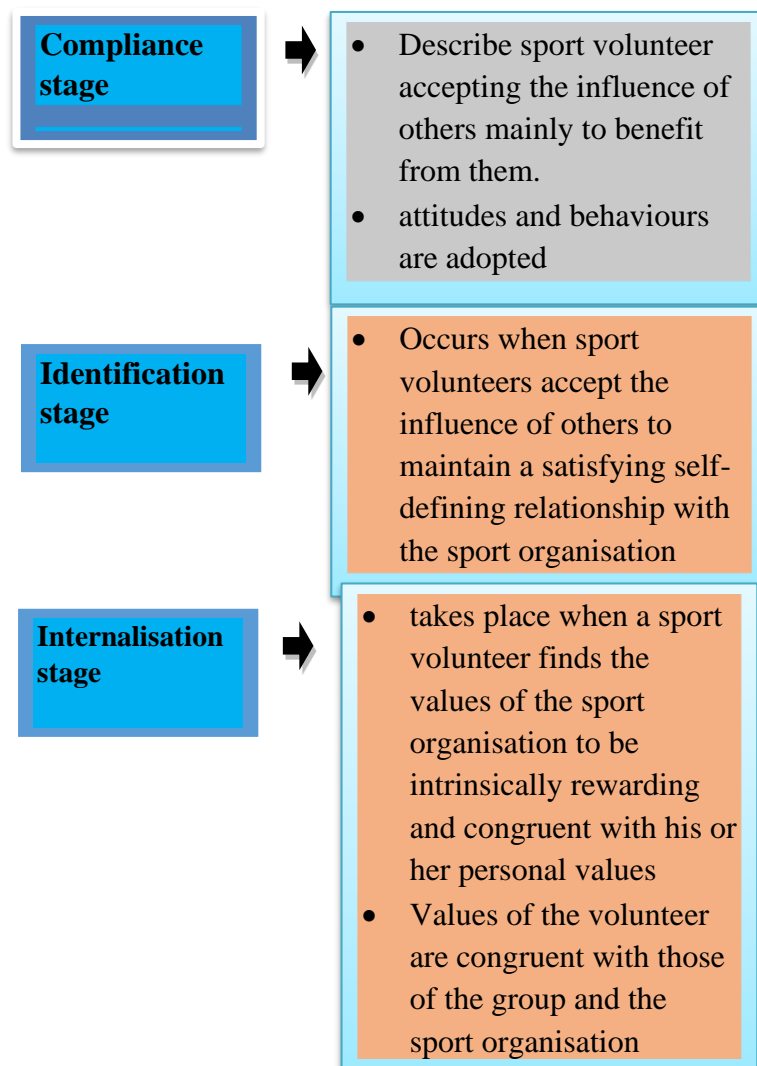
Normative commitment or moral obligation refers to the sport volunteer's feeling of obligation to continue volunteering in sport organisations, includes socialisation and congruence of organisational mission and values with personal values (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010:292) and is congruent with an individual's personal values (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010:283; Stephens, Dawley & Stephens, 2004; Allen & Meyer, 1990:6).

Of note is that the implication which is normative commitment is an important motivational force that has been overlooked and underutilised (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010:292), particularly the potentially beneficial implications of it being 'experienced as sense of moral duty rather than as an indebted obligation' (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010:292).

At this final stage of the model, sport volunteers feel that they ought to remain with the sport organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991:67) because it is immoral to leave it and in addition its mission is compelling (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007:773). In this regard, volunteer commitment is defined in terms of a contractual and legalistic agreement (Allen & Meyer, 1990:7; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Prestholdt, Lane, & Mathews, 1987:221; Scholl, 1981:589; Wiener & Vardi, 1980:54), and derives from the volunteer's sense of obligation to a sport organisation (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999 Wiener 1982:421; Marsh & Mannari, 1977:59).

#### **2.6.3 Developmental stages of volunteer commitment**

As suggested by several researchers (Cuskelly *et al.*, 2002/2003:191; Green & Chalip, 2004:49; Haski-Leventhal & Bargal, 2008:67), volunteer commitment can be viewed as evolving and developing through stages outlined by O'Reilly (1989:12) as compliance, identification and internalisation. These stages are depicted in Figure 2.2 and are briefly referred to below:



**Figure 2.2: Hierarchical model of volunteer commitment**

**Source: Churchill & Iacobucci (2005:76)**

### **2.6.3.1 Compliance stage**

The first stage, namely compliance, centralises around the sport volunteer accepting the influence of others mainly to benefit from them, through learning (O'Reilly, 1989:130). At this stage, attitudes and behaviours are adopted, not because of shared beliefs but simply to gain experience and implies that sport volunteers stay in the sport organisation because of what they receive (Meyer & Allen, 1997:11).

The nature of sport organisational commitment in the compliance stage is associated with the continuance dimension commitment, where the sport volunteer is calculative with the need to stay in the sport organisation when evaluating the rewards (Beck & Wilson, 2000:211).

#### **2.6.3.2 Identification stage**

The second stage occurs when sport volunteers accept the influence of others in order to maintain a satisfying self-defining relationship with the organisation (O'Reilly, 1989:132). Sport organisational commitment at this stage is based on the normative dimension (Meyer & Allen, 1997:87) as sport volunteers feel proud to be part of the organisation and may regard the roles they have in it as part of their self-identity (Best, 1994:115).

#### **2.6.3.3 Internalisation stage**

The final stage, namely internalisation, takes place when a sport volunteer finds the values of the sport organisation to be intrinsically rewarding and congruent with his or her personal values (O'Reilly, 1989:132). Sport organisational commitment at this level is based on the affective dimension (Meyer & Allen, 1997:89). Of note is that the sport volunteer at this stage develops not only the sense of belonging but passion to belong to the sport organisation, hence the commitment is based on a 'want to stay' basis (Suliman & Iles, 2000:140). The values of the volunteer are therefore congruent with those of the group and the sport organisation

### **2.6.4 Levels of sport volunteer commitment**

The following discussion focuses on the description of the levels of sport volunteer commitment identified by Reichers (1985:101)

#### **2.6.4.1 Higher level of sport volunteer commitment**

A high level of sport volunteer commitment is characterised by a strong acceptance of the sport organisation's values and willingness to exert efforts to remain with it (Reichers, 1985:99). The 'will to stay' suggests that the behavioural tendencies at this level relate closely with affective dimension of sport volunteer commitment, where sport volunteers stay because they want to (Miller (2003:73.). High sport volunteer commitment means identifying with one's related sport organisation.

#### **2.6.4.2 Moderate level of sport volunteer commitment**

The moderate level of sport volunteer commitment is characterised by a reasonable acceptance of sport organisational goals and values as well as the willingness to exert effort to remain in the sport organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997:145).

#### **2.6.4.3 Lower level of sport volunteer commitment**

The lower level of sport volunteer commitment is characterised by a lack of neither acceptance of sport organisational goals and values nor the willingness to exert effort to remain with the sport organisation (Reichers, 1985:110). A sport volunteer who operates on this level must be disillusioned about the sport organisation; such sport volunteer may stay because he or she needs to stay as associated with the continuance dimension (Meyer & Allen, 1997:145). If given an option of withdrawal, this category of volunteers may leave the sport organisation.

### **2.6.5 Approaches to sport volunteer commitment**

Approaches to sport volunteer commitment are conceptualised in a variety of ways. For the purpose of the study and convenience, the various approaches have been subsumed in the following categories namely behavioural, attributions and psychological approaches in line with recommendation.

#### **2.6.5.1 Behavioural Approach.**

The behavioural approach holds that sport volunteers are committed to the sport organisation as far as they hold their positions and accumulate better benefits, or incur greater costs at departure; i. e. they may be dissuaded from seeking an alternative sport organisation (Becker, 1960:150). Sport volunteer commitment is thus an outcome of inducement or contribution transactions between sport organisation and its sport volunteers (Blau & Boal, 1987:209). This suggests that sport volunteers are committed to the sport organisation because the benefits assimilated with staying are higher than the alternative opportunities and costs to leave (Blau & Boal, 1987:210; Collins & Seller, 1988:132). According to Stevens (1978:113), a limitation of exchange-based measures of sport volunteer commitment stems from the lack of empirical evidence that they are, in fact related to particular on-going behavioural outcomes within the sport organisation.

### **2.6.5.2 Attribution Approach**

The attribution approach conceptualises sport volunteer commitment as a binding of the sport volunteer to behavioural acts, which occur when sport volunteers attribute an attitude of commitment to themselves after engaging in behaviours that are volitional, explicit, and irrevocable (Reichers, 1985:10). These attributions are made in part in order to maintain consistency between one's behaviour and attitudes (Johnston & Snizek (1991:123)

This is a moral or attitudinal approach in which the sport volunteer's behaviour is guided by emotions or heart (Johnston & Snizek, 1991:156). This approach focuses on attitudes that result in the attribution of sport volunteer commitment and is also called affective or value rationality. Consequently, sport volunteers are socialised by showing active participation and affective participation for the goals of the sport organisation (Bar-Hayim & Berman, 1992:110; Randall, 1990:117).

### **2.6.5.3 Psychological Approach**

The psychological approach relates to the process of identification and dedication of a volunteer's own energies to the sport organisation's goals and conceptualises sport volunteer commitment as an attitude or an orientation towards the organisation that links or attaches the identity of the sport volunteer to the sport organisation (Jaros, Jermier, & Sincich, 1993:89; Steers & Porter, 1985:103). This approach consists of three components: sport volunteer's identification with the goals and values of the sport organisation; high involvement in its work activities; and a strong desire to maintain volunteerism in the sport organisation (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974:98; Steers, 1977:90). According to Buchanan (1974:78), together these components of psychological approaches to sport volunteer commitment depict a decidedly positive, high intensity orientation towards the sport organisation.

## **2.7 VOLUNTEER SATISFACTION (THE OUTCOME)**

Social transaction theory discusses more with regards to personal satisfaction in the areas of social, family, work and voluntary organisations that are changed according to the balance between values and benefits of activities (Farzalipour, 2012:39). In organisational research, satisfaction has frequently been examined because it increases the likelihood of predicting retention-related outcomes (Galindo Kuhn & Guzley, 2001:108). According to Mitchell and Lasan (1987:98), it is



generally recognised in the organisational behaviour field that volunteer satisfaction is the most important and frequently studied attitude.

There are many similarities to the sport volunteering environment and experience of all sport volunteers. For instance, all sport volunteers are expected to interact with others within the sport organisation and have certain expectations from their contribution as much as those of sport volunteers (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001:45). As sport volunteers are assigned to specific tasks and jobs, they constitute an integral part of the labour of a sport organisation and are often compared to paid employees and job-related environments with regard to their satisfaction (Chelladurai, 2006:199).

Volunteer satisfaction in a sport organisation is a very important factor in respect of a volunteer's durability, sport organisation stability and finally organisation success (Salman Farzalipour *et al.*, 2012:687). To understand and to follow-up the development of sport volunteers, their satisfaction is crucial (Hibbert *et al.* 2003). This is particularly in contexts where their work and presence has become fundamental and whose future is deeply influenced and even dependent on their membership. It seems evident therefore, to consider that more satisfied sport volunteers will be more dynamic and that the probability of staying in the same sport organisations is higher (Finkelstein 2008:9).

### **2.7.1 Towards a definition of volunteer's satisfaction**

Traditionally, satisfaction has been defined as an individual's feelings or affective responses to facets of the situation (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969:6) while currently, satisfaction is viewed as the summarised psychological state manifesting when the emotion surrounding disconfirmed expectation is coupled with the volunteer's prior feelings about the consumption experience (Wen *et al.* 2011:16). It refers to the feeling of volunteers toward their work and the organisation in relation to previous experiences, expectations and possible alternatives (Balleret, *et al.* 1990:230), and is a key determinant of future behaviour intentions (Cronin, Brady & Hult, 2000:125; Murray & Howat, 2002:131). Locke (1976:1304) refers to volunteer satisfaction as the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception of one's job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfilment of one's important job values as well as providing those values which are compatible with one's needs. In addition, Locke and Lathan (1976:211) suggest that a comprehensive definition of volunteer satisfaction refers to a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal

of one's volunteer experience in the sport organisation. Similarly, Hellier *et al.* (2003:1764) define volunteer satisfaction as the degree of overall tranquil happiness experienced by the volunteer resulting from the service ability to accomplish the volunteer's wishes, expectations and the needs from the particular service. In summary, sport volunteer satisfaction can be described either as an effective response to the job viewed in its entirety (global satisfaction), or with regard to particular attributes that constitute the experience (facet satisfaction) such as supervision, rewards, communication etc. (Tett & Meyer, 1993:259).

### **2.7.2 Different types of volunteer satisfaction**

According to (Chelladurai, 2006:211), a volunteer's satisfaction can be classified in two different types, being affective and cognitive satisfaction. Affective satisfaction reflects the extent of volunteers' experiencing positive feelings and emotions from their experience overall, while cognitive satisfaction refers to the extent sport volunteers value and are satisfied with particular facets or aspects of their job or the situation such as volunteering hours and environment, rewards obtained, supervision etc. (Chelladurai, 2006:211; Locke, 1976:1645; Moorman, 1993:759). Affective satisfaction is thus more subjective in nature, as it focuses on the feelings one has for the situation overall, whilst cognitive satisfaction is more logical and objective, as it evaluates facets of the situation (Locke, 1976:1321). Affective satisfaction consists of two elements, being moods and emotions. Moods are longer lasting but there is no clear cause of them, while emotions are more intense, short lived and what causes them is clearer (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996:168). Emotions can be positive such as joy, pride, hope, enthusiasm and satisfaction or negative such as fear, stress, anxiety (Vecina & Chacon, 2005:30) When people experience negative emotions, they tend to respond instantly to such stimuli, become alert and their facial expression reflects their worry, which can be easily identified by an independent observer. On the other hand, in the case of experiencing positive emotions, the response is not easily identifiable, is more subjective in nature, indirect less specific and longer lasting (Vecina & Chacon, 2005:32). Moods and positive and negative emotions and overall satisfaction with the experience are directly related (Brief & Roberson, 1989:717; Weiss *et al.*, 1999:310). Research has shown that the frequency someone experiences a positive emotion is a better predictor of overall sport volunteer satisfaction than the intensity of the emotion at the time it is experienced (Fisher, 2000:185). This reflects on the emotions' ability to lead to memory and event recollection. Previous research in the field has

shown that emotional intensity is linked to greater memory confidence but not to memory consistency (Levine & Pizarro, 2004:530).

On the other hand, cognitive satisfaction is more attribute-based and can assist sport volunteers to focus on task-relevant stimuli (Landin, 1994:299). Nideffer's (1976:394) conceptualises cognitive satisfaction along two dimensions, namely; width (ranging from narrow/few stimuli to broad/many stimuli); and direction (ranging from internal /thoughts and feelings to external/events occurring around the sport volunteer). Much on volunteer satisfaction pertains to the behavioural criteria of participating and involvement in sport organisations. Generally, it is agreed that volunteer satisfaction interacts with other cognitions of an emotional nature (self-esteem and goal-setting), (Mace, 1990:203). There are a multitude of reasons why volunteers engage in sport organisations (Munroe *et al.*, 2000:120; Nordin & Cumming, 2005a:3). Cognitive reasons include learning and improving performance, memorising, planning and strategising and improving understanding (Murphy & Martin, 2002:405). Satisfying reasons include enhancing motivation, changing thought and emotions, and regulating physiological responses.

Disgruntled sport volunteers affect not only their immediate performance, but also their overall self-esteem, and in extreme cases can lead to acute depression (Zinsser, Bunker, & Williams, 2006:284). Indeed, irrational beliefs and distorted thinking often underlie much of the stress and consequential negative thoughts and feelings sport volunteers experience during sporting events and sporting activities and in life in general (Zinsser *et al.*, 2006:285). Munroe *et al.* described cognitive satisfaction as being used by volunteers to understand what it takes to achieve process and outcome goals. Finally, cognitive satisfaction is used to stay focused, confident, positive and mentally tough (volunteer through difficult situations and deal with adversity), (Murphy *et al.*, 2002:410).

## **2.8 CONCLUSION**

This chapter commenced by observing the theoretical framework that the study is based on, as well as reporting on its significance and role within sport organisations in determining its ability to retain sport volunteers. It defined the establishment of various sport organisations, volunteer motives, volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction and emphasised the need to understand constructs that influence sport volunteer's behaviour. Chapter Three provides an overview of the

methodology used in the study. Various aspects of the design of the study, data collection and statistical techniques used to analyse the data are discussed.

## **CHAPTER 3**

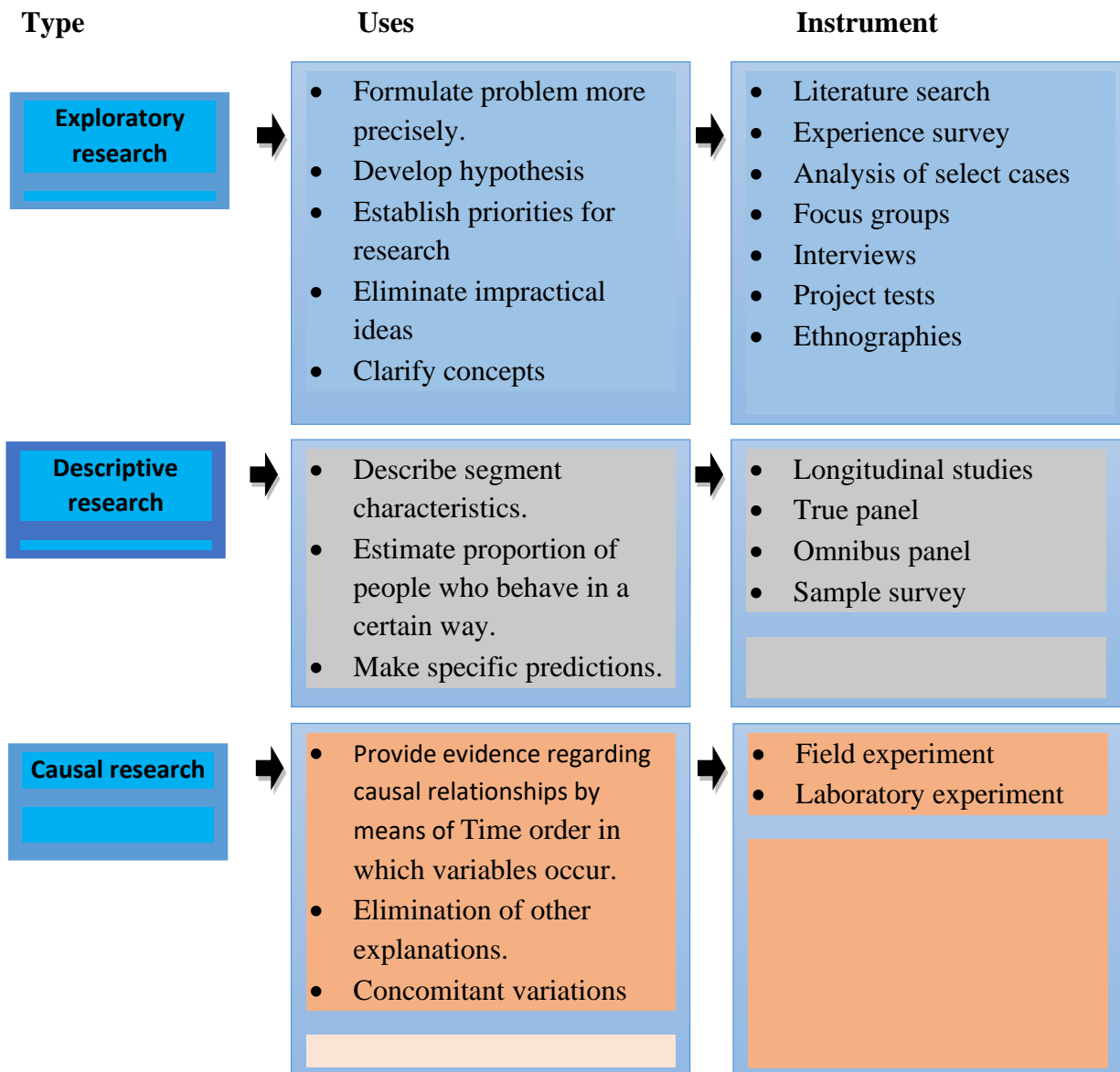
### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The preceding chapter (Chapter Two) reviewed literature on theoretical foundations underlying the study and provided an in-depth discussion on the study constructs. The current chapter describes the research design and approach applied in the study, the sampling design and the measuring instrument used in data collection. It further provides information regarding the data preparation procedure and elaborates on the data analysis procedure. Finally, the chapter covers reliability and validity procedures employed and concludes by detailing the ethical considerations upheld in the study.

#### **3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN**

Research design is defined as the method and structure of an investigation chosen by the researcher to conduct data collection and analysis (Coetzee & Van Zyl 2014:4) and provides the framework for conducting the research project (Ostlund, Kidd, Wegstrom & Rowa-Dewar 2011:369). Thus, it is a preliminary plan for conducting a research strategy of a study to be carried out, even though all research projects or studies are different, McDaniel and Gates (2008:41) identified three main types of research designs, namely, exploratory research (which primarily involves qualitative data), causal research and descriptive research (both of which primarily involve quantitative data). The design types are illustrated in Figure 3.1.



**Figure 3.1: A comparison of different research designs**

**Source: Churchill & Iacobucci (2005:76)**

### 3.2.1 Descriptive research design

A descriptive research design is devoted to the gathering of information about prevailing conditions or situations for the purpose of description and interpretation (Salaria 2012:1). Descriptive studies, in other words, seek to have an understanding of the subject's status of the present practices i. e., descriptive research studies are constructed to answer who, what, when, where and how questions (Welman *et al.* 2005:22). In addition, descriptive research designs may

be either cross-sectional, whereby data are collected from a sample (single cross-sectional design) or samples (multiple cross-sectional design) once, or they may be longitudinal, whereby data are collected from a sample or samples repeatedly (Malhotra, 2010:106-110).

### **3.2.2 Exploratory research design**

According to Malhotra (2010:102-103), exploratory research investigates problems that have not been previously studied and attempts to identify new knowledge, new insights, new understanding and new meanings. Welman *et al.* (2005:22) have observed that explanatory design explains why things are the way they are and why one variable affects another i. e. enables the researcher to develop concepts more clearly as well as establish priorities, develop operational definitions and improve the final research design. This type of research involves collecting data in an unstructured and informal manner and is mostly applicable in instances where little is known with regard to the research phenomenon (Berglund, 2007:58).

### **3.2.3 Causal research design**

Causal research, as the name suggests, focuses on the concept of causality by isolating the cause and the effect in order to explain the effects that one variable (independent variable) has on the other (dependent variable) (Kent 2007:18). This is mostly achievable through experimental designs (Malhotra 2010:113).

For the purpose of this study, a causal and descriptive research design using the single cross-sectional approach was followed in this study. The selection of these designs was informed by the objective of the study, which is to explore the relationship between a volunteer's motives on volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction in sport organisations within Gauteng province. In addition, the selected designs enable one to describe the causal relationships with the constructs used in the study

## **3.3 RESEARCH METHODS**

Once a particular research design is selected, the data collection method needs to be determined. According to Creswell (2003:119), research methods for collecting primary data are classified into three research categories, namely, qualitative, quantitative, and mixed research paradigms. Table 3.1 below summarises the differences between the different research methods.

**Table 3.1: Dimensions of contrast among the three research methods**

<b>DIMENSION OF CONTRAST</b>	<b>QUALITATIVE POSITION</b>	<b>MIXED METHODS POSITION</b>	<b>QUANTITATIVE POSITION</b>
<b>Methods</b>	<b>Qualitative methods</b>	<b>Mixed methods</b>	<b>Quantitative method</b>
<b>Researchers</b>	<b>QUALs</b>	<b>Mixed methodologists</b>	<b>QUANs</b>
<b>Paradigms</b>	<b>Constructivism</b>	<b>Pragmatism; transformative perspective</b>	<b>Post positivism</b>
<b>Research question</b>	<b>QUAL research questions</b>	<b>MM research questions (QUAN plus QUAL)</b>	<b>QUAN research question; research hypothesis</b>
<b>Form of data</b>	<b>Typically narrative</b>	<b>Narrative plus numeric</b>	<b>Typically numeric</b>
<b>Purpose of data</b>	<b>(Often) exploratory plus confirmatory</b>	<b>Confirmatory plus exploratory</b>	<b>(Often) confirmatory plus exploratory</b>
<b>Role of theory, logic</b>	<b>Grounded theory; inductive logic</b>	<b>Both inductive and deductive logic; inductive-deductive research cycle</b>	<b>Rooted in conceptual framework or theory; hypothetico-deductive model</b>
<b>Typical studies or designs</b>	<b>Ethnographic research designs and others (case studies)</b>	<b>MM designs, such as parallel and sequential</b>	<b>Correlational; survey; experimental; quasi-experimental</b>
<b>Sampling</b>	<b>Mostly purposive</b>	<b>Probability, purposive and mixed</b>	<b>Mostly probability</b>
<b>Data analysis</b>	<b>Thematic strategies: categorical and contextualizing</b>	<b>Integration of thematic and statistical; data conversion</b>	<b>Statistical analyses: descriptive and inferential</b>
<b>Validity/trust worthiness issues</b>	<b>Trustworthiness; credibility; transferability</b>	<b>Inference quality; inference transferability</b>	<b>Internal validity; external validity</b>

Source: Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:22)



### **3.3.1 Qualitative research method**

Qualitative research is a method for exploring and understanding the meaning, individual or group, ascribed to a social, human problem or phenomenon (Creswell & Creswell 2018:4). One of the main objectives of qualitative research is to ascertain preliminary insights into a research problem and includes subjective exploration and evaluation of attitudes, opinions and behaviours of categorical information (Shiu, Hair, Bush & Ortinau, 2009:172).

### **3.3.2 Quantitative research method**

Quantitative research is used for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among proposed variables (Creswell & Creswell, 2018:4). Quantitative methods require the use of a pre-constructed standardised instrument into which the participants' varying perspectives and experience are expected to fit, and usually demand a large representative sample in order for researchers to generalise their findings from the sample (Yilmaz, 2013:313). Quantitative data are normally precise due to their link to a positivism paradigm and usually results in findings with a high degree of reliability (Collis & Hussey, 2014:130).

### **3.3.3 Mixed method research**

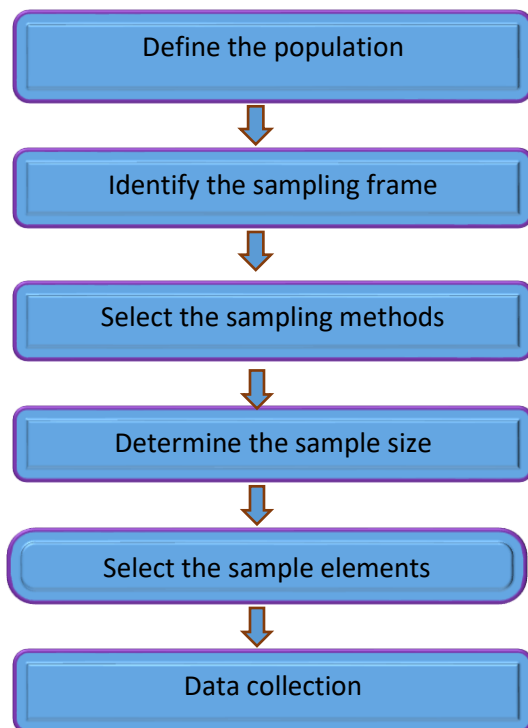
Mixed method research approach involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study in which the data is collected simultaneously or sequentially (Taguchi, 2018:3). In the same vein, Zou, Xu, Sanjayan and Wang (2018:239) assert that mixed methods research is based on a pragmatism paradigm at the philosophical level and it concentrates on collecting and analysing both quantitative and qualitative data for the research at the methodological level. Researchers may employ mixed methods for the following reasons: triangulation and corroboration of results; elaboration and clarification of results; development of new methods; and discovery of new or contradictory perspective and expansion of the scope of inquiry (Brown, Strickland-Munro, Kobryn & Moore, 2017:153). Furthermore, mixed methods allow for creating a more holistic picture on a new phenomenon by combining strengths of different research methods (Tauscher & Laudien, 2018:322).

The researcher opted for a quantitative research method for this study because it enhances the accuracy of results through statistics analysis (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:348) and avoids the elements of subjectivity associated with the qualitative approach (Du Plessis & Rosseau, 2007:21). In addition, quantitative research tends to be based on larger sample sizes in order to produce results,

which can be generalised to a wider population. The following section outlines the sampling design procedure followed for collecting the required data.

### 3.4 SAMPLING DESIGN PROCEDURE

Salkind (2012:95) states that the sampling design procedure includes a description of the target population, the sample frame, the sample method and the sample size. Specific steps, as recommended by Wiid and Diggines (2011:196), were followed in developing the sampling procedure for the empirical study, as indicated in Figure 3.2 and such factors are outlined in the following section, which discusses each step.



**Figure 3.2: The steps in the sampling design procedure**

**Source: Wiid and Diggines (2011:196)**

#### 3.4.1 Target population

A target population is defined as the totality of units (Bryman & Bell, 2011:176) that share similar characteristics relevant for the purpose of the research (Kent, 2007:227). A population of interest in research is the entire group of people about whom information is needed (McDaniel & Gates, 2006:319) and also includes the restrictions of barring individuals to form part of the population

(Clow & James, 2014: 226). Malhotra (2010:358) views a target population as a collection of homogeneous elements or objects that possess the information sought by the researcher and about which inferences are to be made. In this study, the target population was restricted to both male and female volunteers from various sporting organisations within Gauteng province.

### **3.4.2 Sampling frame**

After determining the target population, a sample frame of the population has to be obtained before the sampling process can begin. This is a master list containing the members or elements of the population from which sample units are to be drawn (McDaniel & Gates, 2008:332), or alternatively, a representation of the elements of the target population that consists of a list of directions for identifying the target population (Zikmund, 2007:468). For this study, a list of volunteers obtained from various sporting organisations within Gauteng province served as a sample frame (270 participants).

### **3.4.3 Sampling methods**

The choice of the sample method depends on factors such as the nature of the research problem, the research objectives, as well as cost and time limitations (McDaniel & Gates, 2008:334:48). The sampling procedure can be divided into two fundamental methods called probability (random) and non- probability (non-random) sampling methods (Dahlberg & McCaig, 2010:175). With probability sampling, every element has a known non-zero probability of being selected and the statistical projections of the sample are generalised in such a way that the total population is represented (Zimund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2013:398). On the other hand, in non-probability sampling, the probability of selecting each sample unit is not known (Hair *et al.*, 2000:345) and therefore the potential sampling error cannot be accurately known (Tustin, Ligthelm, Martins, & Van Wyk, 2010:345).

Probability and non-probability sampling methods are classified into sub-groups, as presented in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2: Types of probability and non-probability sampling methods**

<b>PROBABILITY SAMPLING TECHNIQUES</b>	<b>DESCRIPTION</b>
Simple random sampling	Each element of the population has an equal and known chance of being selected as part of the sample
Stratified random sampling	The population is divided into subgroups of mutual characteristics and a simple random sample is chosen from each sub-group
Cluster sampling	The population is divided into subgroups of mutual characteristics and a simple random sample is chosen from subgroups. Often associated with area sampling
Systematic sampling	Random selection of a digit (n) and then selection of sample element at every n the interval depending on population size and the required sample size
<b>NON-PROBABILITY SAMPLING TECHNIQUES</b>	<b>DESCRIPTION</b>
Convenience sampling	Any process when researcher selects sample elements quick and easy
Judgement sampling	The sample depends on the experience, skill, knowledge and insight from one choosing the sample to provide accurate information
Quota sampling	The population is divided and assigned appropriate quotas based on prior knowledge and understanding of characteristics. Quota categories usually involve age, gender and occupation.

Source: Weideman (2014:84)

#### **3.4.3.1 Probability sampling method**

Probability sampling techniques include simple random, systematic, stratified, cluster as well as multistage sampling. These approaches to sampling are useful, especially since they allow the researcher to statistically generalise and make projections of the sample to the population as a whole (Malhotra, 2010:395).

#### **3.4.3.2 Non-probability sampling method**

In contrast, non-probability sampling provides no way of estimating the probability that any sample element will be included in the sample, and thus there is no way of ensuring that the sample is representative of the population (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:322). The non-probability samples rely on subjective judgement of the researcher and includes convenience, judgement, quota as well as snowball sampling (Malhotra, 2010:396).

The current study made use of a non-probability sampling method due to the nature of the sport organisations. Moreover, the convenience sampling procedure was used in selecting the participants because of the ease of the researcher's access to these cohorts of volunteers and their willingness to participate in the study. The next step, after selecting a sampling method, is determining the relevant sample size.

#### **3.4.4 Sample size**

A sample can be defined as a portion of a larger population (Dube, Roberts-Lombard & Van Tonder, 2015:243) as well as the number of elements to be included in the study (Hair, Hanson, Wolfe & Pollak, 2015:163) i. e. the count of factors involved in the study (Roets, 2013:36). Similarly, Kumar (2014:233) and Gupta (2011:116) posit that the number of subjects in a study is called the sample size. Important factors that are considered in determining the sample size include: the importance of the decision; the nature of the research, the number of variables, and the nature of analysis; sample sizes used in similar studies; completion rates; and resource constraints (Collins, Onwuegbuzie & Jiao, 2007:267).

The sample size adopted for the study (N=350) was based on the following previous studies (historical evidence method), namely: Eley and Kirk (2002:151; MacLean and Hamm (2007:540); Pauline and Pauline (2009:178); Liao and Huang (2013:86). These studies used sample sizes ranging from 280-650 and the researcher deemed a sample size of 350 as adequate for the study.

The chosen sample size is also adequate to conduct multivariate statistics such as factor analysis and regression analysis (Malhotra 2010:240).

### **3.5 DATA COLLECTION**

Data collection, which is common to all fields of study, is the process of gathering and measuring information on targeted variables in an established systematic fashion, which then enables one to answer relevant questions and evaluate outcomes (Bar-Ilan, 2001:7). The questionnaires were physically distributed by the researcher and trained field workers to volunteers at different identified sporting organisations in Gauteng province. In order to maximise return rates, questionnaires were designed to be as simple and clear as possible, with targeted sections and questions.

### **3.6 MEASURING INSTRUMENT**

A questionnaire is defined as any set of specific questions for obtaining information from the participants in order to meet the objectives of the study (Babbie, 2011:255), hence questionnaire design procedure is of utmost importance (Burns & Bush, 2006:300). The questionnaire design is a procedure whereby information that will effectively support decision makers is created (Malhotra & Birks, 2006:327) and most importantly, the design of the questionnaire should be in accordance with the researcher's goal and meet the expected purpose for the study (Salkind, 2012:149). Zikmund and Babin (2010:270) maintain that a survey is only as good as the questions it asks; therefore, the questionnaire design is a critical stage in the survey. A well-planned questionnaire layout is more likely to increase the response rate (Bryman & Bell, 2011:238), hence, the active participation of respondents in a study suggests an effective questionnaire (Zikmund *et al.*, 2012:335).

For this study, a fully structured questionnaire was administered. According to Hair *et al.* (2000:441), a structured questionnaire is pre-formulated and requires the respondent to choose from a predetermined set of responses or scale points.

The questionnaire was divided into four sections:

- Section A contained demographic profile of the respondents, which included age, gender and ethnicity, volunteer period and types of participants.

- Section B contained scale items developed by Wang (2004:422) and Giannoulakis *et al.* (2008:195) to measure the motives for volunteering.
- Section C contained scale items on volunteer commitment adapted from the scales used by Allen and Meyer (1997:17).
- Section D contained scale items on volunteer satisfaction adapted from a study by Battour, Ismail, Battor and Awais (2014:17).

Furthermore, Sections B, C and D were measured by a seven point Likert scale items where the respondents had to express their level of agreement/disagreement by ticking a range number from 1= strongly disagree, 2 = slightly disagree, 3= disagree, 4= neutral, 5 = agree, 6= slightly agree and 7= strongly agree.

The covering letter and main survey questionnaire are included as Appendix A.

### **3.7 PRETESTING AND PILOTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

Pretesting involves testing the research instruments in similar conditions as the main study (with no intention of reporting the results) to check any anomalies in the wording of questions, clarity of questions and their ability to solicit data in a systematic and economical manner (Maholtra, 2007:319) The methods used for pre-testing include checking that data collected are relevant and as accurate as possible, with no misinterpretations and that the layout and sequence of questions are correct (Tustin *et al.*, 2005:413). In addition, Cooper and Schindler (2006:417) have identified the following four reasons why pre testing should be done:

- It helps with increasing the participant's interests.
- It increases the likelihood that participants will remain engaged to the completion of the survey.
- It helps discover question content, wording and sequencing problems.
- It explores ways to improve the overall quality of survey data.

In this research the researcher adopted a respondent debriefing technique where a questionnaire was distributed to five respondents and later follow-up questions or debriefing was done to try to assess their understanding on the questions they answered and other aspects of the questionnaire. The pre-test was useful as certain questions on Sections A and D were adjusted and subsequently

a pilot study was conducted. A pilot study is defined as a mini version of a research study or a trial run conducted in preparation of a full-scale study and may be conducted specifically to pre-test a research instrument (Malhotra, 2005:302). The pilot testing was necessary in order to identify actual and potential problems that the researcher can address before conducting the main study. The questionnaire was piloted on a convenience sample of 40 respondents from the relevant population which were excluded from the main sample survey. The pilot test results are presented in Section 4.2 of Chapter 4.

### **3.8 DATA PREPARATION**

Before data analysis, the research questionnaires require to be subjected to validation tasks necessary to ensure that all questions were answered properly and fully (Cooper & Schindler, 2011:490). Although many researchers regard this as a tedious exercise, it is paramount to the success of a research project as the results are largely dependent on the accuracy of such raw data (Tustin, Ligthelm, Martins & Van Wyk, 2005:453). The validation tasks include data editing and data coding, which are discussed in the ensuing sections below.

#### **3.8.1 Data editing**

According to Malhotra (2010:453), editing is the process of checking the completeness, consistency and legibility of data and ensuring that the data is ready for coding. Zikmund and Babin (2013:369) further maintain that editing consists of checking completed questionnaires for omissions, incomplete or otherwise unusable responses, illegibility and obvious inconsistencies. Two types of editing, namely, field and central editing were undertaken by the researcher in line with Hair *et al.*'s (2006:480) recommendation. Field editing was done to ensure that obvious errors and omissions are corrected and thus clear up misunderstandings about procedures and specific questions. Central editing, on the other hand, was completed to ensure a complete and exacting scrutiny and correlation of the completed returns.

#### **3.8.2 Data coding**

Data coding describes the process of grouping and assigning numeric codes to responses of a question or statement (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:444) and is regarded as the technical procedure by which raw data are transformed in symbols (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:353). This procedure involves specifying the alternative categories or classes into which the responses are to be



placed, assigning code numbers to the class. For the purpose of this study, coding was implemented by the statistician.

### **3.9 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES**

Once the data have been prepared, data analysis can be performed. For the purpose of this study, the following data analysis procedures, namely, descriptive statistics (also referred to as exploratory data analysis) and inferential statistics (exploratory factor analysis, correlation analysis and regression analysis) were conducted.

#### **3.9.1 Descriptive statistics**

Descriptive statistics presents quantitative descriptions in a manageable form (O’Leary, 2010:237), and transforms raw data into a form that will make them easy to understand and interpret (Wegner, 2008:8). Thus, descriptive statistics were undertaken to analyse the composition of the sample through frequencies, mean scores and standard deviation, as recommended by Zikmund *et al.* (2013:69).

##### **3.9.1.1 Frequency distribution**

Frequency distribution by definition is a mathematical distribution with the aim of obtaining a count of a number of respondents associated with different values of one variable and to express these counts in percentage terms (Malhotra & Peterson, 2006:429). It refers to a summary of how many times each possible raw response to a question appears in the data set. i. e. indicates how popular the different values of the variable are among the units of analysis. (Malhotra, 2004:427) The study made use of frequency distributions, which were then transformed into pie and bar charts for discussion purposes in the demographic section of the study-Section A (See Section).

##### **3.9.1.2 Mean (locating measures)**

The mean is the sum of all observations of a particular variable divided by the number of observations (McDaniel & Gates, 2001:410). Wegner (2000:194) defines a mean as the value which lies at the centre of a set of data values, and its central position shows that the sum of the differences between each data value and the mean equals zero. Means were duly computed for Section B, C and D of the questionnaire.

### **3.9.1.3 Standard deviation (measures of dispersion or spread)**

Standard deviation is a measure of dispersion (also called measure of variability) calculated by subtracting the mean of a series from each value in a series, squaring each result, summing them, dividing the sum by the number of items minus one, and taking the square root of this value (McDaniel & Gates, 1996:527). It is a statistical measure that expresses the average squared deviation about the mean in the original of the random variable (Wegmer, 2000:262). Standard deviations were as well computed for Sections B, C and D of the questionnaire.

## **3.9.2 Inferential statistics**

### **3.9.2.1 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)**

Exploratory factor analysis refers to a set of procedures primarily used for data reduction and summarisation (Bradley, 2010:334) and a form of multivariate analysis based on the hypotheses (Chrisnall, 2005:479).

The patterns on the initial ratings are observed according to the responses given by participants. Based on the patterns of the data received after factor analysis, the high correlations that were maintained on certain characteristics were the grouped into dimension factors (Hatcher & O'Rourke, 2014:50). The variables that did not correlate were omitted (Malhotra, 1999:586). Tustin *et al.* (2005:672) noted that factor loadings of 0,4 are low and that loadings above 0,5 are considered to be appropriate for factor analysis. Resultantly, a factor is identified when an item has loaded high on the one factor and has either loaded very low on another factor or has not loaded at all on any of the factors. This assisted the researcher in grouping the factors with high loading together into factors. After all the factors had been rotated, there was a weighted summary score determined from a set of related variables. These scores showed how much the variable contributes to each factor. By adding the total variation of the correlated variables, a cumulative percentage of the total variance was applied. Eigenvalues that had values of greater than 1.0 were retained for analysis and inclusion as absolute factors. In addition, the study made use of scree plot tests as well as personal judgment to determine the number of factors that were deemed to be appropriate for the study.

The process, results and discussion of EFA are presented in Chapter Four under Section 4.5.

### **3.9.2.2 Correlation analysis**

Correlation analysis is defined as the establishment of the degree to which changes in one variable are associated with changes in another variable and attempts to estimate the magnitude of the changes (Kumar 2014:13; McDaniel & Gates 2010:560). It involves measuring the closeness of the relationship or joint variation between two variables at a time (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2010:512). Correlation analysis is used when a researcher wants to describe the extent to which a variable affects another variable (Kent, 2007:363) or used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables (Pallant, 2010:129).

This study used correlation analysis for the main purpose of exploring the relationships between constructs used in this study. Although there are many types of correlations to be used in statistical measures, in this study, the Pearson's correlation coefficient was applied because the constructs under investigation are of a quantitative nature, and Pearson's correlation coefficient is a measure of the strength of the linear relationship between two variables (Hauke & Kossowsk, 2011:88). In addition, the way data is ranked does not matter (whether data be arranged in an ascending or descending order) (Khamis, 2008:157). According to Chuck (2010:16), the only requirement for using the measure is that data should be ranked in such a manner that such rank can be assigned to the smallest value or the largest value.

### **3.9.2.3 Regression analysis**

According to Churchill and Iacobucci (2005:410), regression analysis is an instrument used to derive an equation that relates the criterion variable to one or more predictor variables i. e. it provides a tool that quantifies relationships and further integrates the relationship of intentions with two, three, or more variables simultaneously. Regression analysis is a multivariate procedure for analysing relationship between variables (Malhotra, 199:527) and a model that can be used to predict, describe and control the variable of interest on the basis of the independent variable (Aaker *et al.*, 2004:515).

Regression analysis is used for the following reasons, as suggested by Malhotra and Peterson (2006:503):

- Determine whether the independent variable (IV) explains a significant variation in the dependent variable (DV), whether a relationship exists.

- Determine how much of the variation in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variable(s), the strength of the relationship.
- Control other independent variables when evaluating the contributions of a specific variable or a set of variables.
- Determine the structure or form of the relationship.
- Control other independent variables when evaluating the contributions of a specific variable or sets of variables.
- Regression analysis between two variables effectively calculates a “best fit line” which will subsequently predict the effect of one variable upon the other.

The regression analysis procedure is reported in Section 4.3.7 of Chapter 4.

Reliability and validity analysis as crucial aspects of research practice was also undertaken to determine the consistency of the results. These aspects are discussed in the next section.

### **3.10 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY**

#### **3.10.1 Reliability**

Leedy and Ormrod (2014:95) refer to reliability as a degree to which the measuring instrument is consistent and dependable over time. In sampling, reliability incorporates both accuracy and precision (Hammond & Wellington, 2013:150) and as such, a sampling process is reliable when it provides accurate results consistently over a large number of trials (Rubin & Babbie, 2011:194). Furthermore, reliability addresses the accuracy and precision of a measurement procedure in that it is concerned with the question of whether the results of a study are repeatable (Cooper & Schindler 2006:318).

For the purpose of the study, internal consistency reliability was used and the Cronbach alpha coefficient was utilised to assess the reliability of the scales. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient is the average or mean of all possible split-half coefficients resulting from different ways of splitting the scale items (Malhotra, 2010:319) and as such, it has gained wide acceptance by most researchers as a means to assess scale reliability (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013:229).

In addition, Cronbach's alpha coefficient can be categorised as follows: 0.80 and 0.96 possessing excellent reliability, between 0.70 and 0.80 possessing good reliability, and between 0.60 and 0.70 possessing fair reliability, and below 0.60 possessing poor reliability (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, Griffin, 2013:302; Zikmund & Babin, 2013:257; Rekleiti *et al.*, 2018:63). The reliability results of the current study are reported in Chapter Four in Table 4.1.

### **3.10.2 Validity**

Validity refers to how well a measurement instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Kapondoro, Iwu & Twum-Darko, 2015:7) and is defined as the quality of research results that leads one to expect them as true (Uysal & Madenoğlu, 2015:39). In measuring the validity of a scale, the researchers attempt to determine whether that what was supposed to be measured is actually measured (McDaniel & Gates, 2008:258). In this study, the measuring instrument was tested for content, construct and predictive validity are as follows: the methods of assessing the various types of validity are discussed below:

#### **3.10.2.1 Content validity**

Content validity (also known as face validity) is a systematic evaluation of how well the content of a scale represents the measurement task at hand (Malhotra, 2004:269) and refers to whether or not the measurement characterises aspects of the study (McDaniels & Gates, 2013:290). In addition, Zikmund and Babin (2000:320) assert that content validity is established when a scale's content logically appears to reflect what it was intended to measure. Content validity was ascertained through a review of literature to affirm the instruments, pre-testing and piloting the study. (Refer to Section 4.2 of Chapter Four and Section 3.6 of Chapter Three for pre-testing information).

#### **3.10.2.2 Construct validity**

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010:92), the general definition of construct validity is that it refers to the extent to which an instrument measures a characteristic that cannot be directly observed but is assumed to exist in people's behaviour. Similarly, McDaniel and Gates (2002:304) view construct validity as the degree to which a measurement instrument represents and logically connects, via the underlying theory, the observed phenomenon to the construct. Furthermore, construct validity was determined through the computation of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of

the scale items, as a means to assess the internal consistency of the related criterion variables under investigation (Refer to Table 4.12 and Section 4.3.6.1 of Chapter Four).

### **3.10.2.3 Predictive validity**

Predictive validity involves the ability of measured research phenomena at one point in time to predict another research phenomena at a future point (Feinberg *et al.*, 2013:131) In this study, regression analysis procedure was applied to establish the predictive validity based on the relationships between the dependent and independent variables. (Refer to section of Chapter Four).

## **3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Ethics refers to the branch of philosophy that deals with how we ought to live, with the idea of the good, and with the concepts such as right and wrong (Fieser & Pojman, 2012:1). The following ethical principles were adhered to during the data collection phase:

- The researcher obtained permission to gather and use the data from the participating sport organisations.
- Prior to administering questionnaires, the aims and objectives of the study were explained clearly to the participants.
- The key ethical considerations observed during the study includes informed consent, voluntary participation, privacy respected, protection from victimization and freedom to withdraw from the study.
- Further, the results of the study are reported in aggregate format with no indication or identification of the respondents in order to maintain the confidentiality and anonymity principle.

## **3.12 Conclusion**

This chapter provided a review of the research design and methodology that was used during the course of the study. It provided detailed discussions of the research design as well as the specific layout that was set to obtain empirical evidence for successfully achieving the research objectives. The data collection instrument (questionnaire) format, construction and layout are explained showing how it was designed, structured and administered in the field. The data collection method used in this study and the different statistical procedures applied in the study were also highlighted.

Reliability and validity procedures used were also discussed as well as the ethical issues pertaining to the study. The next chapter provides an interpretation of the data and a detailed analysis of the findings. The statistical tools are used in such a way that the breakdown of findings can be developed into meaningful interpretation.

## CHAPTER 4

### DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

A detailed description of the sample selection and composition, questionnaire development, as well as data collection and statistical analysis was provided in the previous chapter. The current chapter reports on the statistical analysis and interpretation of the empirical findings of the data collected through self-administered questionnaires. Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS version 22.0 for windows) was used to analyse the data. A brief discussion of the reliability of the measuring instrument of the pilot study is given in the next section.

#### 4.2 PILOT STUDY RESULTS

The questionnaire was piloted on a convenience sample of (N=50) respondents in order to ascertain its initial reliability and appropriateness, as alluded to in Section 3.7 of Chapter Three. The reliability was tested by computing the Cronbach alpha coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) which is the most universally used approach for assessing the reliability of a measurement scale with multi-point items. Table 4.1 reports on the pilot study results.

**Table 4.1: Summary of the pilot study results**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Number of items</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Cron bach alpha (<math>\alpha</math>)</b>	<b>Item - total- correl ations</b>
(Section B) Motives for volunteering	28	50	0.860	All items >0.30
(Section C) Volunteer Commitment	6	50	0.695	All items >0.30
(Section D) Volunteer Satisfaction	5	50	0.822	All items >0.30



The results obtained from the pilot study gave a satisfactory indication of the Cronbach alpha coefficient which was equal and above the recommended level of approximately 0.70 as shown in Table 4.1. It is on this basis that the scale was deemed acceptable and adopted with the assumption that the value would subsequently increase with a larger sample size during the main study (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994:264). In addition, the recorded item total correlation values exceed the recommended cut off level of less than 0.30, thereby suggesting that the scales have adequate internal consistency (Pallant, 2007:98).

### **4.3 MAIN SURVEY RESULTS**

350 questionnaires were distributed in the main survey. Of the 350 questionnaires distributed, 289 were completed and returned, resulting in a response rate of approximately 83 per cent. Of those, 19 were incomplete and unusable. A discussion of the stages of data analysis and interpretation is presented as follows:

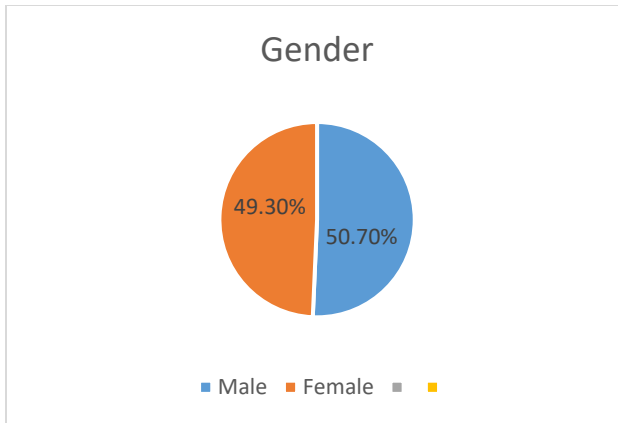
- Demographical information of the respondents.
- Exploratory factor analysis.
- Descriptive statistics for the constructs.
- Reliability assessment.
- Validity assessment.
- Correlation analysis.
- Regression analysis.

#### **4.3.1 Demographical information of the respondents**

Section A of the questionnaire reports on the general demographic information of the sport volunteers. Information such as their gender, age, period of volunteering, participation sections and ethnic groups was gathered.

##### **4.3.1.1 Gender composition of the sample.**

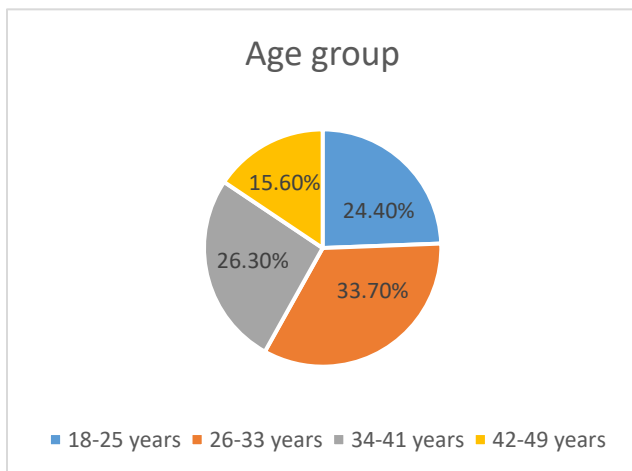
Figure 4.1 provides a description of the gender composition of the respondents. The gender characteristics of the sample consisted of slightly more female respondents (n=137;50.7%) than male respondents (n=133; 49.3%).



**Figure 4.1: Respondents' gender**

#### 4.3.1.2 Age group distribution of the sample

Figure 4.2 provides the age group distribution of the respondents. The majority were between the ages of 26-33 (n= 91; 33.7%) followed by those who were between the ages of 34 – 41 (n= 71; 26.3%), followed by those who were between the ages of 18 - 25 (n= 66; 24.4%) and lastly by those who were between the ages of 42 - 49 (n= 42; 15.6%).

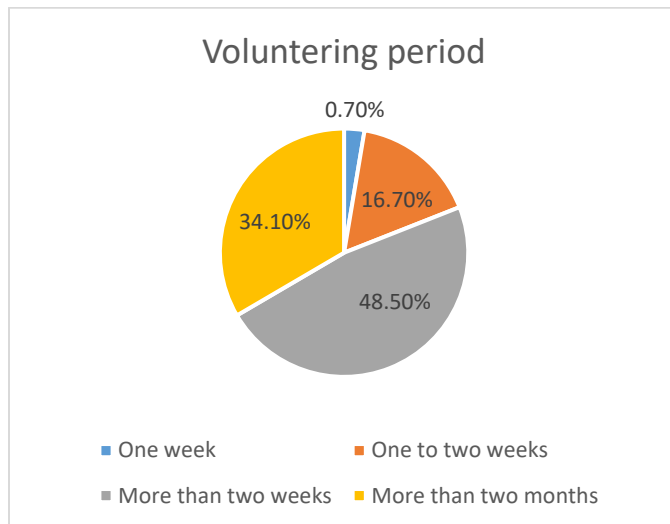


**Figure 4.2: Age group distribution of the sample**

#### 4.3.1.3 Volunteering period

Figure 4.3 provides volunteering period of the respondents. The majority of the respondents indicated a period of volunteering of more than two weeks (n= 131; 48.5%) followed by those who indicated a volunteering period of more than two months (n= 92; 34.1%), followed by those who

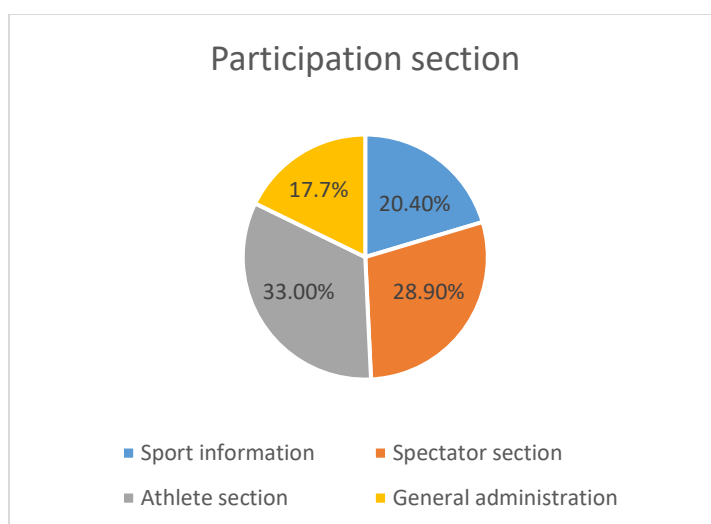
indicated a volunteering period of between one to two weeks (n = 45; 16.7%); and followed by those who indicated a volunteering period for one week (n= 2; 0.7%).



**Figure 4.3: Volunteering period of the respondents**

#### 4.3.1.4 Sport organisation's participation section

Figure 4.4 provides the sport organisation's participation sections in volunteering. The majority of the respondents (n=89; 33,0%; have been placed in the athletic section followed by those placed in the spectator section (n =78; 28,9%), followed by those placed in the sport information section, (n =55; 20,4%) and lastly followed by those placed in the general administration section (n= 48; 17,8%).



**Figure 4.4: Sport organisation's participation section**

#### 4.3.1.5 Ethnic group composition

Table 4.2 provides the ethnic group composition of the respondents of which the majority were Africans (n = 269; 99,6%), followed by Indians (n= 1; 0,4%). The high variation could be attributed to the observable race population in the Vaal Triangle, which is mostly Africans.

**Table 4.2: Ethnic group composition of the respondents**

<b>Ethnic group</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Black	269	99.6
Indians	1	0.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>270</b>	<b>100</b>

Having examined the demographic characteristics of the respondents, the following section focuses at the exploratory factor analysis procedure

#### 4.3.2 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA).

The exploratory factor analysis procedure was specifically performed for volunteer motives in the questionnaire (Section B) to ascertain the factor structure of this scale which was used to collect data. However, EFA was not performed for the volunteer commitment as well as the volunteer satisfaction in the questionnaire because these measuring instruments were uni-dimensional using a global evaluation scales.

The appropriateness of factorability on the data set was statistically determined using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) as well as the Bartlett's test of sphericity, prior to the extraction of the factors. Table 4.3 provides both the KMO and Bartlett's test analysis results of Section B of the questionnaire. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) value was 0.856, which is above the 0.50 minimum threshold suggested by Kaizer (1974), indicating that the factor analysis is appropriate for the data set. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity similarly yielded a significant chi-square equal 2158.458 with 136 degrees of freedom at  $p < 0.000$  for the volunteer motives construct, indicating that the correlations among the variables and the factor analysis procedure are appropriate for the data set (Malhotra, 2004:561).

**Table 4.3: KMO measures and Bartlett's Test results**

<b>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.</b>		<b>0.856</b>
<b>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</b>	<b>Approximate Chi-Square</b>	<b>2158.458</b>
	<b>Degrees of freedom (df)</b>	<b>136</b>
	<b>Significance (Sig.)</b>	<b>0.000</b>

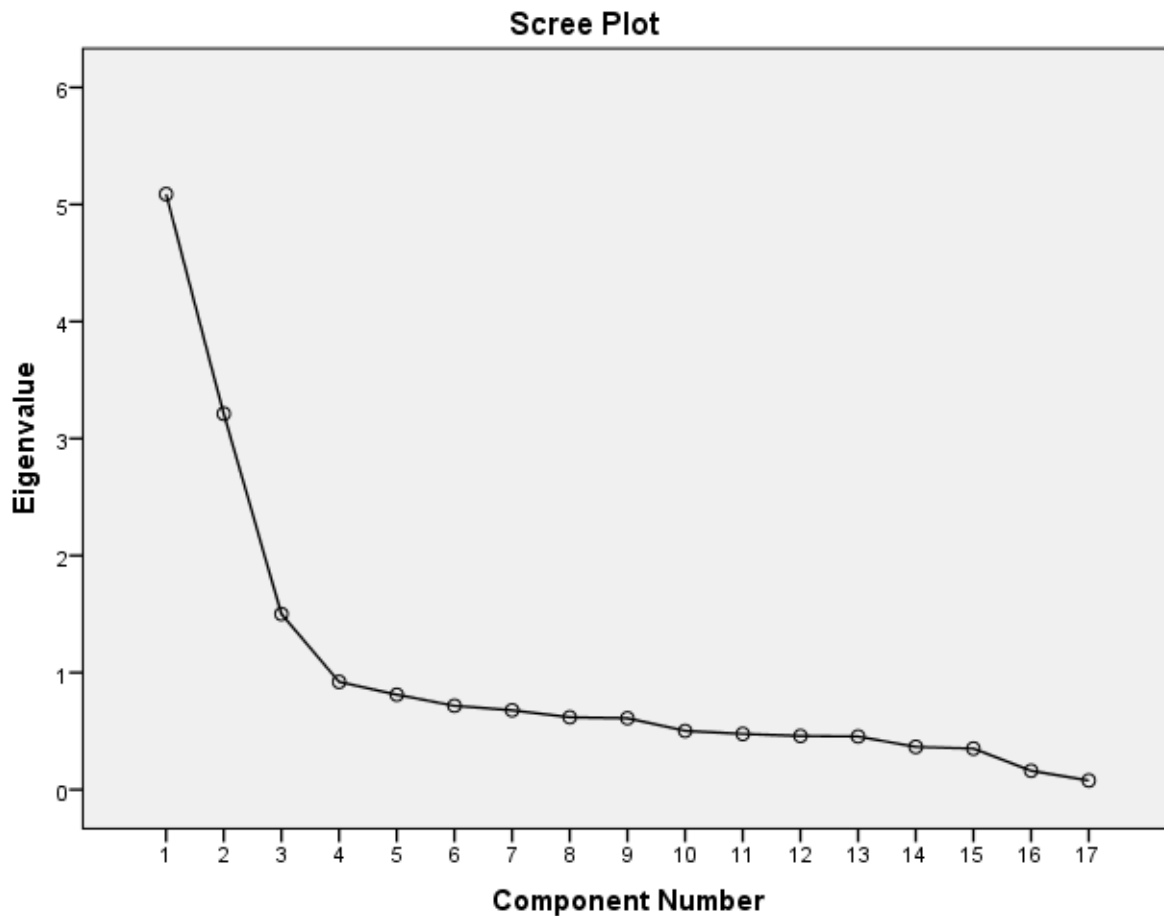
On the basis of these results, it is concluded that the matrix is suitable for further analysis. The eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (unit) criterion, percentage of variance explained (>50%) and scree plot were the three methods used in the study to determine the number of factors extracted and each is explained in the paragraphs that follow:

Malhotra (2010:642) defines an eigenvalue as the amount of variance associated with the factor. This method of determining the number of factors based on eigenvalues requires that only factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 be retained because together they account for most of the variance, while those factors with eigenvalues less than 1.0 are not included in the model (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:496). Table 4.4 provides the individual eigenvalues associated with each linear factor after extraction which resulted in three factors.

The other method of extraction used was the percentage of variance explained. The number of factors extracted was determined in such a way that the cumulative percentage of variance extracted by the factors reaches a satisfactory level. Malhotra (2010:567) states that a satisfactory percentage of variance should account for at least 50% of the variance. For the current study, the cumulative percentage was 57.621 % after the extraction of three factors. The percentage of variance is also reported in Table 4.4.

The next step of factor analysis was to determine the number of appropriate factors to be extracted based on the scree test. Malhotra (2010:643) describes a scree plot as a plot of the eigenvalues against the number of factors in order of extraction, or a point at which the scree begins to have a distinct break. The scree test was used to determine the number of clear breaks between the eigenvalues greater than 1.00. Furthermore, the shape of the scree plot was examined to identify the point where the line levels off as the “graphs elbow” (Huck 2012:490). According to Figure

4.5 which reflects the scree plotted for the study, the line seems to level off after three factors i. e. the true number of factors is denoted at the point at which the scree begins.



**Figure 4.5: Scree Plot**

Having identified the number of factors, the next step was to determine the significant factor loadings. To determine how strongly correlated a measured variable was with a given factor, a variable was supposed to load with a value of at least 0.5 on a factor in order to elucidate the interpretation of the factors (Bradley, 2010:336). Item reduction was then undertaken by examining low item correlations, multiple loadings and unstable variables. The Principal Component Analysis (PCA), the factor rotation analysis method, using varimax rotation for data reduction maintained the independence of the three factors and was chosen to eliminate error

variance on the data in line with Bradley's (2010:410) recommendations. Table 4.4 provides the EFA results after rotating all the variables.

**Table 4.4: Rotated factor loading structure matrix**

Descriptions	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3
B21: Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession	<b>.764</b>		
B26: Volunteering makes me feel needed	<b>.761</b>		
B15: Volunteering allows me to explore different career options	<b>.702</b>		
B27: Volunteering makes me feel better about myself	<b>.694</b>		
B10: I can make new contacts that might help my business or career	<b>.647</b>		
B25: I can learn how to deal with a variety of people	<b>.647</b>		
B28: Volunteering is a way to make new friends	<b>.638</b>		
B16: I feel compassion toward people in need	<b>.621</b>		
B8: I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving	<b>.610</b>		
B19: I feel it is important to help others	<b>.577</b>		
B2: My friends volunteer		<b>.954</b>	
B4: People I'm close to want me to volunteer		<b>.933</b>	

Descriptions	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3
B6: People I know share an interest in community service		<b>.900</b>	
B23: Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best		<b>.770</b>	
B3: I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself			<b>.815</b>
B5: Volunteering makes me feel important			<b>.782</b>
B11: Doing volunteer work relieves me of the guilt over being more fortunate than others			<b>.670</b>
Eigen values	5.089	3.211	1.501
% of variance	29.932	18.861	8.828
Cumulative % of variance	29.932	48.793	57.621

The final step involved focusing on the naming of the factors based on the meanings of common variables that loaded on a specific factor. These factors were labelled accordingly as altruistic, social adjustment and egoistic enhancement motives

Factor one labelled “*altruistic value*” has an eigenvalue =5.089 and accounted for 29.932 % of the total variance explained by the construct This factor consists of ten items that represent a person’s intrinsic beliefs in helping others and contributing to society because volunteerism, by its very nature, is prosocial and altruistic. A person with altruistic value tends to think about the welfare of other people, to feel empathy for them and to act in a way that benefits them. Thus, sport volunteering for a worthy cause provides people with an opportunity to express their humanitarian concerns and translate their deeply held values into action (Penner, 2002:447). Hence, prior research on volunteerism suggests that intention to volunteer is positively related to altruistic value and volunteers often choose their voluntary acts without expecting a complete “quid pro quo” (Pullis & Hoyer, 2010:121).



The second factor labelled “*social adjustment*” has an eigenvalue = 3.211 and accounted for 18.891 per cent of the total variance explained by the construct. This factor comprises four items that take into account how social adjustment reflects motivations regarding relationships with other people. Sport volunteer work is an activity in which a person can participate with his or her friends and engage in activities viewed favourably important by others. Past research has provided consistent evidence that people consider perceived social adjustments when they form behaviour intentions (Clary *et al.*, 2002:333). Furthermore, Clary, *et al.* (2008:1516) found social adjustment being significantly related to satisfaction with volunteering and intentions to volunteer.

The third factor labelled “*egoistic enhancement*” has an eigenvalue = 1.501 and accounted for 8.828 per cent of the total variance explained by the construct. This factor consists of three items that relate to volunteer’s needs for social interaction, interpersonal relationships and networking. Clary *et al.* (2002:335) found ego enhancement to be significantly related to satisfaction with volunteering and intentions to volunteer. Ego enhancement encompasses motivations that deal with positive strings of the ego (Clary *et al.*, 2002:333). Personal development represents is thus one important aspect of egoistic motives that refers to a volunteer’s desire to receive self-oriented benefits pertaining to personal growth and learning of new skills (Penner, 2002:447; Smith, 2004:21). Volunteers seeking personal development value not only cherish the chance to gain new knowledge and experience but also the opportunity to challenge themselves and test their existing skills and abilities. This is consistent with Becker’s (2006:817) theory of human capital investment, which refers to those activities that enhance motivation for volunteering in sport organisations.

#### **4.3.3 Descriptive statistics for the constructs**

Descriptive statistics are designed to provide information about the distributions of the scale variables as well as to act as a tool to summarise and describe the basic characteristics of large sets of data received from a sample of respondents more efficiently (McDaniel & Gates, 2001:495). The mean scores as well as the standard deviations of the items in section B, C and D of the questionnaire are discussed in the next sub-sections.

#### 4.3.3.1 Descriptive statistics of volunteer motives (Section B)

Table 4.5 reports on a volunteer's motives in relation to volunteering. The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement, through a Likert scale questionnaire that ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

**Table 4.5: Descriptive statistics of volunteer motives**

Scale description	N	Min	Max	Mean	Standard deviation
B1 Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work	270	1	7	6.33	.748
B2 My friends volunteer	270	1	7	5.30	1.297
B3 I am delighted with the volunteering experience gained at this sporting event	270	1	7	5.87	1.238
B4 People I'm close to want me to volunteer	270	1	7	5.23	1.409
B5 Volunteering makes me feel important	270	1	7	5.77	.878
B6 People I know share an interest in community service	270	1	7	5.42	1.188
B7 No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it	270	1	7	4.98	1.182
B8 I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving	270	1	7	6.25	.717
B9 By volunteering I feel less lonely	270	1	7	5.60	.824
B10 I can make new contacts that might help my business or career	270	1	7	6.06	.704
B11 Doing volunteer work relieves me of the guilt over being more fortunate than others	270	1	7	5.46	.978

<b>Scale description</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard deviation</b>
B12 I can learn more about the cause for which I am working	270	1	7	5.92	.760
B13 Volunteering increases my self-esteem	270	1	7	6.30	.682
B14 Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things	270	1	7	6.08	.704
B15 Volunteering allows me to explore different career options	270	1	7	6.18	.710
B16 I feel compassion toward people in need	270	1	7	6.43	.722
B17 Others with whom I am close to place a high value on community service	270	1	7	5.64	.990
B18 Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands-on experience	270	1	7	5.84	.742
B19 I feel it is important to help others	270	1	7	6.31	.848
B20 Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems	270	1	7	5.28	1.193
B21 Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession	270	1	7	6.00	.823
B22 I can do something for a cause that is important to me	270	1	7	5.89	.792
B23 Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best	270	1	7	5.34	1.229
B24 Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles	270	1	7	4.81	1.516

Scale description	N	Min	Max	Mean	Standard deviation
B25 I can learn how to deal with a variety of people	270	1	7	5.79	.891
B26 Volunteering makes me feel needed	270	1	7	5.96	.784
B27 Volunteering makes me feel better about myself	270	1	7	6.17	.715
B28 Volunteering is a way to make new friends	270	1	7	6.43	.646
Overall mean score	6.16				

On assessing the means regarding volunteer motives construct, respondents seem to be totally in agreement with all the statements pertaining to volunteer motives towards volunteering. Overall, the recorded means score of 6.16 suggests that respondents in this study consider the essence of motives/motivations in their volunteering experience within the sport organisations. The standard deviation ranged from 0.646 to 1.409, indicating that respondents did not deviate much from average, in their responses.

#### 4.3.3.2 Descriptive statistics of volunteer commitment (Section C)

Table 4.6 reports on a volunteer's commitment levels towards volunteering. The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement through a Likert scale questionnaire that ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

**Table 4.6: Descriptive statistics of volunteer commitment**

Scale description	N	Min	Max	Mean	Standard deviation
C1 I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving	270	1	7	6.28	.664

<b>Scale description</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard deviation</b>
C2 I enjoy discussing about my organisation with other people	270	1	7	6.26	.731
C3 I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	270	1	7	5.41	1.037
C4 I feel like part of the family at my organisation	270	1	7	5.43	.968
C5 I feel emotionally attached to this organisation	270	1	7	6.11	.813
C6 This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	270	1	7	5.47	.999
Overall mean score	5.83				

On assessing the means regarding volunteer commitment construct, respondents seem to be totally in agreement with the statements that they are “genuinely concerned about the particular group they are serving”, “enjoy discussing about my organisation with other people”, “really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own”, “willing to encourage friends, colleagues and social media participants to use their preferred smartphone brand”, “would watch videos, follow posts and news about their preferred smartphone brand”, “feel emotionally attached to the sport organisation” and “this organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me”. The standard deviations in all statements are close to 1 (range 0.664 - 1.037) indicating that respondents did not deviate much from average in their responses.

#### 4.3.3.3 Descriptive statistics of volunteer satisfaction (Section D)

Table 4.7 provides information regarding the respondents' satisfaction levels when they were asked to indicate their level of agreement, through a Likert scale questionnaire that ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

**Table 4.7: Descriptive statistics of volunteer satisfaction**

Scale description	N	Min	Max	Mean	Standard deviation
D1 I am satisfied with the volunteering experience gained at this sporting organisation	270	1	7	6.28	.701
D2 I am happy with the volunteering experience gained at this sporting organisation	270	1	7	6.13	.688
D3 I am delighted with the volunteering experience gained at this sporting organisation	270	1	7	6.14	.687
D4 I think this organisation has successfully provided value-added experience in volunteering	270	1	7	6.15	.749
D5 Overall, I am satisfied with my decision to volunteer into this organisation	270	1	7	6.64	.527
Overall mean score	6.27				

With regard to volunteer satisfaction construct (Table 6.14), respondents were in consensus with the statements that they are “satisfied with the volunteering experience gained at this sporting organisation”, “happy with the volunteering experience gained at this sporting organisation”, “delighted with the volunteering experience gained at this sporting organisation”, “thinking that the sporting organisation has successfully provided value-added experience in volunteering”, and “overall, satisfied with my decision to volunteer into this organisation”. The means in this category

were all close to 6.5 while the standard deviations in all statements are close to 1 (range 0.527-0.749), indicating that respondents did not deviate much on average in their responses.

The following sections report on the assessment of the reliability and validity measures respectively found within the main survey questionnaire conducted in this study.

#### **4.3.4 Reliability assessments**

The internal consistency of the research measures was assessed by using the Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ) coefficient which were computed for each variable (motives, commitment and satisfaction respectively). Table 4.8 reports on the reliability results.

**Table 4.8: Reliability results of the scales**

<b>Questionnaire sections</b>	<b>No of items</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Cronbach's alpha coefficient</b>
<b>Section B Volunteer motives</b>	28	270	0.887
<b>Section C Volunteer Commitment</b>	6	270	0.802
<b>Section D Volunteer Satisfaction</b>	5	270	0.822

The Cronbach coefficient results of the main study ranged from .802 to .887 exceeding the recommended threshold of 0.07, thereby suggesting that scales have adequate internal consistency (Nunnally, 1978:246).

#### **4.3.5 Validity assessment**

The following measures of validity, namely, content validity, construct validity and predictive validity are discussed in the following sub-sections.

#### **4.3.5.1 Content validity**

Content validity was ascertained through a review of literature to affirm the instruments, pre-testing and piloting the study. (Refer to Section 4.2 of Chapter Four and Section 3.7 of Chapter Three for pre-testing information).

#### **4.3.5.2 Construct validity**

Construct validity was determined through the computation of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the scale items, as a means to assess the internal consistency of the related criterion variables under investigation (Refer to Table 4.8 and Section 4.3.4 of Chapter Four).

#### **4.3.5.3 Predictive validity**

In this study, regression analysis procedure was applied to establish the predictive validity based on the relationships between the dependent and independent variables. (Refer to Section 4.3.7 of Chapter Four).

The following section provides a discussion on correlation analysis as it demonstrates the formulated relationships between the study constructs.

#### **4.3.6 Correlation analysis**

Relationships play a significant role in data analysis. A researcher often wishes to determine whether two variables are related and if so, what is the nature and magnitude of the underlying relationship. To accomplish this, correlation analysis which has the primary purpose to detect patterns of associations among variables is usually employed (Pallant, 2011:129). In this study the Pearson correlation coefficient was used to determine if there are any relationships among the data sets used. The degree or strength of the relation between variables is reflected by the product moment correlation ( $r$ ), which is also known as the Pearson correlation coefficient (Malhotra, 2010:562). The size of the relationship between variables reflects the strength of the relationship. Pallant (2016:137) suggests the following guidelines:

**Table 4.9: Size/strength of relationship between variables**

<b>Size of <math>r</math></b>	<b>Strength</b>
(0.00 to 0.09)	Very weak or no relationship
(0.10 to 0.29)	Weak correlation/relationship



Size of r	Strength
(0.30 to 0.49)	Moderate relationship/medium correlation
(0.50 to 1.0)	Strong relationship/high correlation

**Source: Pallant (2016:137)**

Table 4.10 reflects the results of the correlation analysis that was undertaken for this study.

**Table 4.10: Correlation matrix**

	Volunteer motives	Volunteer commitment	Volunteer satisfaction
Volunteer motives	1	.440**	.455**
Volunteer commitment	.440**	1	.561**
Volunteer satisfaction	.455**	.561**	1
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

All the correlational combinations in Table 4.10 showed that all possible combinations of variables were significant at the 1% level.

#### **4.3.6.1 Correlation between volunteer motives and volunteer commitment**

The results revealed a moderate and positive correlation between volunteer motives and volunteer commitment ( $r = 0.440$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ), which provides an indication that volunteer motives are associated with volunteer commitment. Previous research such as Smid (2013:19), indicated a positive significant relationship between volunteer motives and volunteer commitment and as such, affirm that a higher degree of volunteer motivation leads to a significantly higher degree of organisational commitment. (Olurotimi, Asad & Abdulrauf, 2015:117-122; Madi, Assal, Shrafat, & Zeglat, 2017:134-145 Simatupang & Saroyeni 2018: 31-37).

#### 4.3.6.2 Correlation between volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction

A strong relationship between volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction was recorded ( $r = 0.561$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), signifying that increasing volunteer commitment will strongly increases volunteer satisfaction. This strong association could possibly indicate that a higher degree of volunteer commitment leads to a significantly higher degree of volunteer satisfaction (Starnes, 2007: 26-30; Erdurmazlı, 2019: 129-146, Ayyagari & Lathabhavan, 2020: 3477-3487).

#### 4.3.6.3 Correlation between volunteer motives and volunteer satisfaction

The results show a moderate positive correlation between volunteer motives and volunteer satisfaction ( $r=0.455$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). This implies that increasing volunteer motives will moderately increases volunteer's satisfaction in line with the previous studies completed by Weerakoon, Abeysignhe and Vitharane, (2021: 193-216) as well as Pierce, Johnson, Felver, Wanless and Judge (2014 :63-72).

The following section provides a detailed report on the regression analysis results.

#### 4.3.7 Regression analysis

As alluded to in Chapter Three, regression analysis is more concentrated in assessing the relationship that exists between dependent and independent(s) variables. The study employed regression analysis to address the following hypotheses:

H1 There is a positive relationship between volunteer motives and volunteer commitment.

H2 There is a positive relationship between volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction.

The conceptual framework of the study, which was presented in Chapter One, is herein presented as a means to provide better understanding of the results. In line with the above-mentioned study questions the model is presented in the figure below:



**Figure 4.6: Conceptual framework for the study**

Prior to the computation of the regression model is essential to assess multicollinearity within the data set. Multi-collinearity refers to a condition said to exist in multiple regression analysis when the predictor variables are highly correlated among themselves (Churchill *et al.*, 2010;474). Multi-collinearity was assessed in this study by inspecting the tolerance values (Tol) ( $>0.1$ ) and their variance inflation factor (VIF) ( $<10$ ) for each independent variable. Based on these values shown in Table 4.9, all the independent variables had VIF intentions of  $<10$  and tolerance values of  $>0.10$ , thus dispelling any multi-collinearity threat (Pallant 2016:152). Multicollinearity is also inferred from the high inter-factor correlations between the independent variables (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:549), thus the inter-factor correlation matrix was scrutinised to determine whether the variables in the study are highly correlated. On examining the correlation matrix (Table 4.8) no multi-collinearity problems were identified as none of the sets of correlations coefficients were greater than collinearity thresholds ( $>0.90$ ) (Hair *et al.*, 2000:44).

In model 1 (Table 4.11), volunteer motives were entered into the regression equation as an independent variable and volunteer commitment was entered as the dependent variable. The interpretations of the results are discussed in the following paragraphs.

**Table 4.11: Regression analysis of model 1**

Model 1:Dependent variable (Volunteer commitment)	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
Independent variable				TOL	VIF
Volunteer motives	.410	7.323	.000*	1.000	1.000
R = 0.492 R <sup>2</sup> = 0.168 Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = 0.165 R <sup>2</sup> change= 0.168 F change 53.628 **sig at $<0.05$ TOL.= Tolerance value, VIF= Variance inflation factor					

The result of the regression model 1 indicated an adjusted R<sup>2</sup> of 0.165 This suggests that approximately 17 per cent of the variance in volunteer commitment is accounted for by volunteer motives Furthermore, they revealed a beta coefficient of ( $\beta = .410$ ). This suggests that volunteer motives (independent variable) uniquely contribute towards explaining volunteer commitment (dependent variable).

The foregoing statement is supported by Olurotimi, Asad and Abdulrauf (2015: 118), who state that volunteer motives is an antecedent of volunteer commitment. This school of thought is supported by Madi, Assal, Shrafat, and Zeglat, (2017:134-45) as well as Simatupang and Saroyeni (2018: 31-37).

In the second model (Table 4.12), volunteer commitment was entered in the regression equation as the independent variable and the dependent variable was volunteer satisfaction. The interpretations of the results are discussed in the following paragraphs.

**Table 4.12: Regression analysis of model 2**

<b>Model 2: Dependent variable (Volunteer satisfaction)</b>	<b>Standardised Coefficients Beta</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>Collinearity Statistics</b>	
<b>Independent variable</b>				TOL	VIF
Volunteer commitment	.561	11.094	.000*	1.000	1.000
R = 0.561 R <sup>2</sup> = 0.315 Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = 0.312 R <sup>2</sup> change= 0.315 F change 123.072 **sig at <0.05 TOL.= tolerance value, VIF= Variance inflation factor					

The results of the regression model 2 indicated an adjusted R<sup>2</sup> of 0.312, which signifies that approximately 31 per cent of the variance in volunteer satisfaction is accounted for by volunteer commitment. Furthermore, Volunteer commitment revealed a beta coefficient of ( $\beta = .561$ ). This suggests that volunteer commitment (independent variable) uniquely contributes towards explaining volunteer satisfaction (dependent variable). The results indicate that when volunteers feel a sense of belongingness to a sport organisation, they are able to perform to the best of their ability and in doing so they satisfy volunteer commitment goals (Ayyagari & Lathabhavan, 2020: 3477-3487). Moreover, correlations analysis revealed a strong relationship between volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction at ( $r = .561^{**}$ ). Both these results support the hypothesis (*H2*) that state that there is a relationship between volunteer commitment *and* volunteer satisfaction, as indicated in Figure 4.6 above. This is in line with studies of Erdurmazlı, (2019: 129–146), which revealed that volunteer commitment is connected largely with volunteer

satisfaction. In addition, Starnes (2007: 26-30) confirms that volunteer's satisfaction is influenced considerably by volunteer's commitment.

#### **4.4 CONCLUSION**

This chapter of the research presented empirical findings through a clear reporting and interpreting strategy. An exploratory factor analysis procedure was specifically performed to ascertain the factor structure of volunteer motives questionnaire (Section B) scale used to collect data. Means, correlations and descriptive analysis were computed. To examine the nature of the relationships between the constructs, the correlational analysis method was utilised. Regression analysis was used to establish the predictive relationships in the terms of conceptual framework elucidated in Chapter One of the study. The next chapter presents a synopsis, recommendations and conclusion of research work. The empirical and theoretical objectives are reviewed and recommendations, limitations, suggestions for further research and conclusions from the research are presented.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The preceding chapter provided the analysis, discussions and interpretations of the empirical findings. The phases for data collection and analysis were identified and described. The information was analysed and summarised using descriptive analysis, correlation analysis and regression analysis. Reliability and validity of the measurement instrument were also confirmed.

The current chapter offers an overview of the study as well as addresses the achievement of the research objectives by placing the theoretical and empirical objectives into context. Furthermore, the limitations and implications for future research opportunities are covered.

#### **5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY**

The focus in Chapter One was on providing an introduction and background to the study. The problem definition, proposed research model, hypotheses development and formulation of research objectives were highlighted. Furthermore, the research design and methodology procedures employed in the study were outlined as well as the chapter classification.

The theoretical objectives formulated in Chapter One were used in structuring Chapter Two, being the literature review component of the study. The underpinning theories (SET and SDT) guided and located the study into perspective. The review from previous literature further discussed the study constructs under investigation, namely, volunteer motives, volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction.

The aim in Chapter Three was to render an explanation of the research design and methodology that were used to address the research objectives followed in this study. An exposition of the different research designs, the research method used in the study as well as the sampling design procedure were addressed. Thereafter, data collection, measuring tool, data preparation and the various data analysis techniques used to interpret and report on the collected data for the statistical analysis in Chapter Four were discussed. The chapter also explained reliability and validity analysis followed by ethical considerations.

In Chapter Four, data collected from volunteers in sport organisations within Gauteng province was analysed using SPSS 26.0. Descriptive and inferential statistics were utilised in the analysis and the empirical results were interpreted and reported upon. The reliability and validity of the research instrument were also confirmed. The results presented in this chapter are in accordance with the empirical objectives formulated for the study.

The final chapter presents the summary of the research findings, recommendations resulting from the findings proposed, and limitations of the study and future research opportunities identified. Most importantly, it covers how the research objectives are accomplished and the study concludes accordingly.

In order for sport organisations and researchers to make informed decisions and derive value from this study, all research objectives were addressed based on the data generated from the survey in order to ensure that the initial purpose of the study was achieved. Both theoretical and empirical objectives were achieved respectively as follows:

### **5.3 THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES**

The theoretical objectives of the study were accomplished by means of a comprehensive review of secondary sources such as peer reviewed journal articles, textbooks and published reports as outlined in Table 5.1

**Table 5.1: Achievement of the theoretical research objectives**

<b>Specific research objective</b>	<b>Theoretical research objective being addressed</b>	<b>Section where the research objective was addressed</b>
<b>Theoretical objective 1</b>	<b>To provide an overview of volunteering in sport organisations</b>	<b>Sections 2.2</b>
<b>Theoretical objective 2</b>	<b>To appraise literature on the underlying theories to the constructs under investigation</b>	<b>Sections 2.3</b>
<b>Theoretical objective 3</b>	<b>To conduct a literature review on volunteer motivation</b>	<b>Sections 2.4</b>

<b>Specific research objective</b>	<b>Theoretical research objective being addressed</b>	<b>Section where the research objective was addressed</b>
<b>Theoretical objective 4</b>	<b>To undertake a literature review on volunteer commitment among volunteers.</b>	<b>Section 2.5</b>
<b>Theoretical objective 5</b>	<b>To synthesise literature on volunteers' satisfaction in sport organisation</b>	<b>Section 2.4.4</b>

### **5.3.1 To provide an overview of motives for volunteering in sports organisation**

This objective was accomplished under Section 2.4.5 of Chapter Two. A sport organisation was reviewed in Section 2.2 of Chapter Two in order to comprehensively understand the organisation on which the study focused and its role in the economy. Section 2.2 of this study delivered a foundation of this research project through an overview of motives for volunteering in sports organisation. Finally, the theoretical research objective aimed to synthesise literature on motives for volunteers in sport organisations was conducted in Section 2.6 in order to provide a precise understanding of the construct. Nonetheless, this research suggests that there are two clusters of factors influencing volunteers' motives in sport organisations and their relationship with volunteer commitment and volunteers' satisfaction intentions to volunteering, namely: internal (intrinsic) and external (extrinsic) motivations. These internal factors are poor training, volunteering conditions, management practice, rate of pay and recruitment process and external factors are unemployment rate and the volunteers' personal interest. The knowledge and understanding of the factors influencing their motives in sport organisations is paramount as it will help practitioners, managers and sport organisations to develop strategies on how to improve volunteering in their organisations (Ongori, 2007:49).

### **5.3.2 To appraise the literature on the underlying theory to the constructs under investigation**

This research drew from the convergence of the social exchange and self-determination theories that were used in this study to provide a theoretical understanding as to why people engage in volunteer work and the outcomes thereof.



The second theoretical research objective intended to theoretically review the social exchange theory (SET) in view of determining the influence of motives for volunteering in sport organisations and the relationship with volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction was discussed in Section 2.3. It indicated that the theory resulted from attitude research that used the Expectancy Value Models to explain how and why attitude affects behaviour.

It was also found that the formulation of SET was done after attempting to estimate the inconsistency that occurred between attitude and behaviour (Otieno, Liyala, Odongo & Abeka, 2016:1). Knowledge gained from SET formed an important part of this study towards providing an insight into how this has an impact on volunteer motives and volunteer commitment.

The objective to appraise the literature on the theory adopted in this study was done in Section 2.3 in Chapter Two.

### **5.3.3 To conduct a literature review on volunteer motivation**

This objective was accomplished under Section 2.4.5 of Chapter Two.

### **5.3.4 To undertake a literature review on volunteer commitment.**

This objective was addressed under Section 2.4.5 of Chapter Two. If sporting organisations and associations are to be successful in the delivery of their programmes and events, they need to recruit sport volunteers with a sense of commitment.

When sporting organisations have a better understanding of the processes that lead volunteers to become committed, they will be better able to come to terms with the reasons sport volunteers choose to take on certain roles and why they behave as they do within sport organisational settings (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982:121).

According to Anderson (1993:99), all sport volunteers must face up to the challenge of how to evaluate, utilise and develop their skills and abilities to ensure that sport organisational goals are achieved and also to ensure that sport volunteers gain as much satisfaction as possible from their volunteerism while making effective contributions.

Best (1994:69) maintains that committed sport volunteers enact specific behaviours due to the belief that it is morally correct rather than personally beneficial. Reichers (1985:468) is of the opinion that sport volunteer commitment as behaviour is visible when sport organisational members are committed to existing groups within the sport organisation. Therefore, sport

volunteer commitment is a state of being, in which sport organisational members are bound by their actions and beliefs that sustain their activities and their own involvement in the sport organisation (Lee & Miller, 2001:538).

### **5.3.5 To undertake a literature review on volunteer satisfaction**

This objective was addressed under Section 2.4.5 of Chapter Two. This section provided the definitions of volunteer satisfaction and elaborated on the different types of volunteer satisfaction.

## **5.4 EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVES**

The empirical objectives as set out in Chapter One of this study, are revisited in the next sections.

### **5.4.1 To determine volunteer motives and its relationship with volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction towards volunteering in sport organisations**

The association between volunteer motives, volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction towards volunteering in sport organisations was outlined in Section 4.3 in Chapter Four. Correlation analysis was employed to assess the strength and direction of the relationships between volunteer motives, volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction towards volunteering in sport organisations. The statistical output confirmed that this empirical objective was attained.

### **5.4.2 To determine the relationship between volunteer motives and volunteer commitment towards volunteering in sport organisations**

The relationship between volunteer motives and volunteer commitment towards volunteering in sport organisations was outlined in Sections 4.3 and 4.4 in Chapter Four. The results of the correlation analysis between volunteer motives and volunteer commitment revealed a moderate significant positive correlation ( $r = 0.440$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). The results of the regression analysis ( $\beta = .410$ ) also confirmed the extent to which volunteer motives predict volunteer commitment. Therefore, the statistical output confirmed that this empirical objective was attained.

### **5.4.3 To determine the relationship between volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction towards volunteering in sport organisations**

The relationship between volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction was outlined in Sections 4.3 and 4.4 in Chapter Four. The results of the correlation analysis between volunteering commitment and volunteer satisfaction, revealed a strong significant positive correlation ( $r = .561$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). The results of the regression analysis ( $\beta = .561$ ) also confirmed the extent to which

volunteer commitment predict volunteer satisfaction. Therefore, the statistical output confirmed that this empirical objective was attained.

## **5.5 LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

The study was confined to the respondents from Gauteng province only as a result of the scope of the study. By focusing on one geographical area the results are limited. Therefore, caution should be taken when interpreting these results as they cannot be accepted as completely relevant to broader geographic locations. Future studies could consider using a broader and more geographically diverse group of participants. This would enlarge the research sample and reliability and validity of the research results to a much more representative section of the population. The researcher recommends that the study could also be conducted in other geographical locations in South Africa and better comparisons could be made.

In addition, an increase of the scope of the study from provincial to country-wide sport at large may be useful, or more information could be obtained for accurate findings for the purpose of comparative and future studies. To be able to generalise the results across various sport organisations, future research should compare sport organisations in terms of types of sport volunteering control measures and technology used by volunteers.

The survey approach used in this study has limitations, such as the use of self-reported measures, which posed a great challenge towards ensuring the actual validity of the responses. The reliance on data collected from self-reported questionnaires has a shortcoming in that it is almost impossible to control respondent behaviour, nor verify or confirm the accuracy of the responses. It is in the unobtrusive nature of the self-reported questionnaires that they provide willing respondents an opportunity to complete the survey at their own convenience and as a result, most people tend to ignore the survey request or take long delays in completing and returning the survey.

Since this study used a quantitative approach, future research may perhaps consider using both a quantitative and qualitative research design to complement each other. Other insights may be obtained if future studies make use of the mixed methods, which combines both qualitative and quantitative methods, and a larger sample size could be used in future research.

Another limitation is the choice of using a single method of data collection, i. e. a non-probability convenience sampling technique was employed in the study. This could have implications

regarding the sampling error because the researcher relied on personal judgement and availability of sample members. It is imperative to note that the aforementioned limitations do not necessarily negate the contributions of this study but open up further avenues for future research.

## **5.6 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY**

Even though the study was subject to its limitations, it nevertheless provided interesting and relevant findings in terms of motives for volunteering in sport organisations and the relationship with volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction. The informational contribution of this study is not only restricted to scholars and academicians but also extends to industrial players in order for them to understand the relationships. The study has highlighted the current challenges faced by sport organisations and the fact that they need to be transformed in order to be responsive, relevant and to offer more flexible programmes, skills, knowledge and qualifications that support sport volunteers. The framework developed in the study extends current knowledge regarding the motives for volunteering in sport organisations and the relationship with volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction. In addition, a number of important implications for future research were based on the relevancy of the sport sector, overall level of sport volunteer satisfaction and perceptions of volunteer respondents in sport organisation can be drawn from survey respondents.

## **5.7 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based on the analysis of the literature, and more specifically, in the light of the findings of the theoretical and empirical research, the following recommendations are offered.

### **5.7.1 Recommendation regarding the significance of motives towards commitment in volunteering within sport organisations**

Motivation has been identified as one of the crucial factors that influence volunteering in sport organisations. A need to engage in new experiences and to exercise knowledge and skills as well as the participants expected useful and beneficial experiences from involvement in sport volunteer service organisations underlies the quest for understanding the significance of motives towards commitment to volunteer within sport organisations.

The social motive reflects a need to be involved in sport volunteer service organisations to meet others who are valued or held in high esteem while the career motive is associated with concern for enhancing career opportunities or skills. The protective motive, on the other hand addresses a need to reduce, or relieve negative or adverse feelings, such as loneliness or guilt by participating

in sport volunteer service, and finally, the enhancement motive focuses on the ego's growth and development. In other words, individuals volunteer for reasons of personal development or to obtain satisfaction related to personal growth and self-esteem. Therefore leaders who want to promote sport volunteering need to establish close and friendly relationships with subordinates, involve them in the organisation's goals, build high degrees of confidence and develop good leadership abilities

### **5.7.2 Recommendation regarding the significance between volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction**

Management must understand the implications and benefits of volunteers before they can even start to implement quality sport activity programmes, as its implementation can make a significant contribution to alleviate attitude and retention challenges. An important recommendation is that managers should take initiatives towards amplifying organisational commitment and satisfaction as well as the volunteers' intention to stay in their organisations. The implication arising from this is that firstly, sport organisations should provide a list of all the training courses they currently run to a new group of volunteers. Further, they should map the career paths within the organisations that these training courses can facilitate, and managers should expose volunteers to the full career spectrum. The issue of a mixture of training interventions, the age of volunteers and its effect on turnover towards volunteer's commitment and consequently volunteer's satisfaction, requires further research in the sport organisation.

### **5.7.3 Practical recommendations**

Managers in sport organisations have to arrange innovative means of retaining volunteers in their pool to avoid confrontations from disgruntled volunteers. Due to changing times and the set of values held by each generation, the perception of a sport organisation suggests a need to build a working environment by managers that is supportive of multiple generations (Ashwin & Anand, 2014:3). Technology may have an impact on volunteers' perceptions towards volunteerism measures in sport organisations because competency plays a significant role when it comes to types of control measures and technology used in sport. The sport organisation could focus on its volunteer's welfare by providing them with a better and more attractive volunteering work environment through creation of a career growth opportunity within their environment that may lead to optimum performance. The satisfaction with volunteer experiences may further lead to positive commitment to the organisation. The ability of a sports organisation to create strategies

for a meaningful experience, to make volunteers feel responsible for outcomes, and provide them with positive feedback may result in increasing volunteer motivation and satisfaction while at the same time encourage individuals to volunteer in future events.

## **5.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this final chapter, a systematic summary of the whole study was presented. The extent to which the primary objective, the theoretical objectives and the empirical objectives were achieved was explained. Finally, recommendations were advanced, limitations of the study were identified and suggestions for further research opportunities and conclusions from the research were presented.

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## APPENDIX A SPORT VOLUNTEER QUESTIONNAIRE

### MOTIVES FOR VOLUNTEERING IN SPORT ORGANISATIONS AND THE RELATIONSHIP WITH VOLUNTEER COMMITMENT AND VOLUNTEER SATISFACTION

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a Master's degree student at the Vaal University of Technology. This questionnaire, seeks to establish motives for volunteering in sport organisations and its relationships with volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction. I am therefore requesting you to complete the questionnaire below. The research is purely for academic purposes and all information will be kept confidential. It will take approximately 20 minutes of your time to complete responding to the items in the questionnaire.

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### SECTION A-DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE AND GENERAL INFORMATION

In this section we would like to find out a little more about the characteristics of volunteers. Please place a cross (x) in the appropriate block.

<b>A1</b>	<b>Gender of participants</b>	Male	Female
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<b>A2</b>	<b>Age category of participants</b>	18-25 years	26-33 years	34-41 years	42-49 years	50 years and over
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<b>A3</b>	<b>Your period of volunteering</b>	Less than one week	Between 1 to 2 weeks	More than 2 weeks	More than two months prior to the event
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<b>A4</b>	<b>Participants type of volunteering</b>	Sport information services	Spectator services	Athlete services	General administration	Other (specify)
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<b>A5</b>	<b>Participants ethnicity</b>	African	White	Indian/Asian	Coloured	Other (Foreign country)..... .....
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<b>A6</b>	<b>Participants current employment status</b>	Unemployed	Employed (Part-time)	Employed (Full time)
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## SECTION B: MOTIVES FOR VOLUNTEERING

In this section we would like to find out a little more about your perception of motives for volunteering. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (Strongly disagree) and 7 (Strongly agree).

B1	Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B2	My friends volunteer	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B3	I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B4	People I'm close to want me to volunteer	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B5	Volunteering makes me feel important	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

B6	People I know share an interest in community service	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B7	No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B8	I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B9	By volunteering I feel less lonely	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B10	I can make new contacts that might help my business or career	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B11	Doing volunteer work relieves me of the guilt over being more fortunate than others	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B12	I can learn more about the cause for which I am working	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B13	Volunteering increases my self-esteem	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B14	Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B15	Volunteering allows me to explore different career options	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B16	I feel compassion toward people in need	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B17	Others with whom I am close to place a high value on community service	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B18	Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B19	I feel it is important to help others	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B20	Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

B21	Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B22	I can do something for a cause that is important to me	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B23	Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B24	Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B25	I can learn how to deal with a variety of people	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B26	Volunteering makes me feel needed	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B27	Volunteering makes me feel better about myself	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B28	Volunteering is a way to make new friends	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

## SECTION C: VOLUNTEER COMMITMENT

We would like to find out a little more about your perceptions of the volunteer commitment construct. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (Strongly disagree) and 7 (Strongly agree).

C1	I am very happy being a member of this organisation	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
C2	I enjoy discussing about my organisation with other people	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
C3	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
C4	I feel like part of the family at my organisation	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
C5	I feel emotionally attached to this organisation	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree



C6	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
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## SECTION D: VOLUNTEER SATISFACTION

We would like to find out a little more about your satisfaction construct. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (Strongly disagree) and 7 (Strongly agree).

D1	I am satisfied with the volunteering experience gained at this sporting event	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
D2	I am happy with the volunteering experience gained at this sporting event	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
D3	I am delighted with the volunteering experience gained at this sporting event	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
D4	I think this event has successfully provided value-added experience	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
D5	Overall, I am satisfied with my decision to attend the event	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

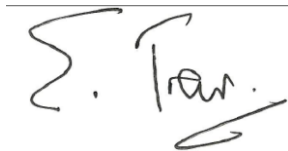
**Thank you for time and your cooperation. Your views are much appreciated.**

8 Belle Ombre Road  
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28 January 2022

#### **LANGUAGE EDITING**

This is to certify that I language-edited the dissertation, “Motives for volunteering in sport organisations and the relationship with volunteer commitment and volunteer satisfaction”, by Lebamang Tshabalala for the MTech in Business Administration Management, Faculty of Management Sciences, at the Vaal University of Technology.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'E. Trew', is positioned below a horizontal line.

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