

WHAT PREDICTS THE SPORT EVENT VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCE? EXAMINING MOTIVATION, SATISFACTION, COMMITMENT, AND SENSE OF COMMUNITY

ERIK L. LACHANCE,  JORDAN T. BAKHSH,  ASHLEY THOMPSON, 
AND MILENA M. PARENT 

Faculty of Health Sciences, School of Human Kinetics, University of Ottawa, Ontario, Canada

Despite the large body of literature on sport event volunteers, researchers have a poor understanding of the volunteer experience despite studies claiming direct and indirect relationships involving motivation, satisfaction, commitment, and sense of community towards the volunteer experience. In fact, most studies fail to statistically measure experience as a dependent variable. As such, the importance of these four antecedents as predictors of the volunteer experience remains assumed and uncertain. The purpose of this study was to empirically test if and how sport event volunteers' motivation, satisfaction, commitment, and sense of community predict their experience. Following the 2019 Osprey Valley Open, 161 volunteers (65% response rate) completed an online self-administered questionnaire. A two-step structural equation model analysis tested the hypothesized linear relationships. Results indicated direct (i.e., motivation and satisfaction) and indirect (i.e., commitment and sense of community) relationships between antecedents and the volunteer experience. Commitment had an indirect relationship to the volunteer experience through motivation's direct relationship, while the indirect relationship of sense of community occurred through satisfaction's direct relationship to the volunteer experience. Confirmatory factor analysis also indicated motivation and sense of community had poor factor loadings, while satisfaction and commitment loaded adequately. Moreover, only the egoistic motivation factor was supported in this study motivation's direct relationship to the volunteer experience. These findings empirically support previous claims for motivation and satisfaction's direct relationship to the volunteer experience but dispute previous claims of direct relationships involving sense of community and commitment. Contributions include the need to move beyond investigating individual antecedents of the volunteer experience as it requires a multifaceted analysis due to conceptual interrelationships. Event managers should understand their volunteers' experience as being complex and develop strategies aimed at each of the four antecedents.

Key words: Sport event; Volunteers; Questionnaire; Structural equation modeling

Introduction

Volunteers are pivotal for the success and survival of sport events (Hoye et al., 2020). They encompass much of an event's workforce as they are charged with important roles and responsibilities whereby the fate of the event's delivery rests in their hands (Hoye et al., 2020; Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013). It is hard to imagine the success and survival of most sport events without the involvement and contributions of volunteers. For instance, thousands of volunteers are required for the delivery of mega-sport events (e.g., 70,000 volunteers at the 2016 Rio Olympic Games; International Olympic Committee, 2014), while smaller events (e.g., community-level) also require the contributions of volunteers as they often assume multiple formal and informal roles during the event (Kerwin et al., 2015).

Given the importance of this resource, it becomes critical for event managers to create a positive experience for their volunteers (Farrell et al., 1998; Kerwin et al., 2015; Lachance & Parent, 2020). These positive volunteer experiences can help event managers achieve desired outcomes (e.g., hosting a successful event, retaining volunteers for recurring events) and enhance the success and survival of their event. For instance, volunteers who have a positive experience during their volunteer activity may be more likely to contribute more to the event or its successful delivery (e.g., Farrell et al., 1998). In comparison, individuals who have a negative volunteer experience may fail to be engaged or perform in their roles (e.g., Lachance & Parent, 2020), which could lead them to quit without notice or refuse to volunteer for future events. Any one of the aforementioned scenarios would likely have a negative impact on the delivery of the event and impede the chances of the event's success and survival. Thus, it is important for event managers to better understand the volunteer experience—defined as an “individual's overall perception of their involvement in a given volunteer activity and defined context” (Lachance & Parent, 2020, p. 95)—as it can impact the delivery of the event, help retain volunteers for future events, and contribute to the event's overall success.

A central tenant for the volunteer experience is its relationships with four popular

variables—motivation, satisfaction, commitment, and sense of community (Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021). These variables are seen as important antecedents to understand the volunteer experience phenomenon (Farrell et al., 1998; Kerwin et al., 2015; Lachance & Parent, 2020; MacLean & Hamm, 2007). This importance is highlighted by the volunteer experience being directly impacted (either positively or negatively) by these four antecedents (Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021). Despite studies examining individual antecedents in relation to the volunteer experience, previous research has not statistically measured the volunteer experience as a dependent variable (e.g., Farrell et al., 1998).

Rather, previous studies have made claims regarding the potential for relationships between motivation, satisfaction, commitment, and/or sense of community and the volunteer experience but fail to measure the latter as a dependent variable (e.g., Farrell et al., 1998; Lu & Schuett, 2014; Wang & Wu, 2014). Current knowledge about the importance of each of the four variables to predict the volunteer experience remains an assumption given the lack of statistical measurements and analyses. Thus, this issue must be resolved for adequate event stakeholder decision making (e.g., how to promote positive volunteers' experiences, where to invest resources).

An additional and pertinent gap noted when discussing these four antecedents is the lack of a multifaceted examination (Lachance & Parent, 2020). To date, the majority of previous research has conducted independent studies of single antecedents (e.g., motivation, satisfaction, or sense of community; Bang & Chelladurai, 2009; Kerwin et al., 2015; Pauline, 2011) or two purposefully selected antecedents (e.g., motivation and satisfaction; Bang & Ross, 2009; Vetitnev et al., 2018; Wang & Wu, 2014). This is problematic as evidence is mounting that these four antecedents (i.e., motivation, commitment, satisfaction, and sense of community) are not mutually exclusive; volunteers can and do experience them simultaneously at various points during their tenure (e.g., Lachance & Parent, 2021). Although two exceptions have conceptually considered all four antecedents to the volunteer experience (i.e., Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021), and provide a deeper front-line insight, measures

confirming relationship claims were not provided given their autoethnographic nature. Thus, motivation, satisfaction, commitment, and sense of community's joint ability to predict the volunteer experience is currently unknown given the previous siloed investigations of select antecedents (e.g., motivation and satisfaction; Farrell et al., 1998; Vetitnev et al., 2018) and the lack of an appropriate experiential measure (cf. Lu & Schuett, 2014; Wang & Wu, 2014).

As such, researchers and event managers are left at a standstill, uncertain as to which antecedent(s) is the most important predictor or what relationships do exist between these four antecedents and the volunteer experience. Thus, the purpose of this study was to empirically test if and how sport event volunteers' satisfaction, motivation, commitment, and sense of community predict their experience. Such knowledge regarding these relationships would refine our conceptualization of the phenomenon to better understand not only what can influence the volunteer experience, but if and how such sequences occur, ultimately providing event managers evidence to make effective event decisions and improve volunteer retention. By empirically examining these four popular antecedents simultaneously to the volunteer experience, findings can be modeled and generalized to a wider population.

Literature Review and Hypotheses

Research on sport event volunteers is a large body of literature in sport management (Wicker, 2017). Previous research has been conducted in different sport event contexts, including mega-sport events (e.g., Olympics, Paralympics; Dickson et al., 2013; Kodama et al., 2013), international-level sport events (e.g., world championships; Cuskelly et al., 2021; Kristiansen et al., 2015), national-level sport events (e.g., Doherty, 2009; Lachance & Parent, 2020), and smaller-sized sport events (e.g., provincial level, community level; Kerwin et al., 2015; Rogalsky et al., 2016).

To date, research on sport event volunteers has focused more on examining constructs from an individual's perspective (e.g., motivation, commitment, experiences) in comparison to the institutional perspective (e.g., recruitment, selection, retention), the multilevel perspective (e.g., club characteristics

and volunteerism, community characteristics and volunteerism), or the policy perspective (e.g., policy implementation challenges, monetary value of volunteer work; Wicker, 2017). Specific to the individual perspective, various constructs have been investigated such as motivation (e.g., Farrell et al., 1998), gender (e.g., Skirstad & Hanstad, 2013), job design (e.g., Neufeind et al., 2013), engagement (e.g., Allen & Bartle, 2014), satisfaction (e.g., D. Kim et al., 2019), commitment (e.g., Han et al., 2013), social class (e.g., Hayton & Blundell, 2020), sense of community (e.g., Kerwin et al., 2015), role ambiguity (e.g., Rogalsky et al., 2016), volunteer legacy (e.g., Doherty, 2009), and future volunteer intentions (e.g., Dickson et al., 2015).

Within the aforementioned constructs lies an important phenomenon for practitioners and scholars: the volunteer experience. Research on the sport event volunteer experience (which excludes research focused on facets of volunteers' past experiences and roles in different sport events; cf. Bang et al., 2019) has examined its relationship with four constructs: motivation, satisfaction, commitment, and sense of community (Downward & Ralston, 2005, 2006; Downward et al., 2005; Farrell et al., 1998; MacLean & Hamm, 2007; Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021; Kerwin et al., 2015; Ralston et al., 2003).

These four antecedents are important to understand the volunteer experience as direct and indirect relationships have been suggested in previous studies (Farrell et al., 1998; Kerwin et al., 2015; MacLean & Hamm, 2007; Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021). For example, satisfaction, which is not an outcome of the volunteer experience and instead an antecedent, is suggested to directly impact the volunteer experience both positively (e.g., successful job performance, role diversity; Lachance & Parent, 2021) and negatively (e.g., poor job performance; Lachance & Parent, 2020). In comparison, commitment was found to indirectly impact the volunteer experience through an interrelationship with sense of community and motivation (Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021). Motivation, which has received much attention in the sport event volunteer literature (E. Kim & Cuskelly, 2017; Wicker, 2017), is posited to directly (e.g., Farrell et al., 1998) and indirectly (e.g., Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021) impact the volunteer experience. A similar claim can be made for the impact of

sense of community on the volunteer experience, as an indirect impact has been found (e.g., Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021) while others have advocated that sense of community is “inherent in the volunteer experience” (Kerwin et al., 2015, p. 78).

Despite previous research suggesting direct and indirect relationships, these findings are not based on appropriate statistical measures or analyses of the volunteer experience as a dependent variable (e.g., Farrell et al., 1998; Lu & Schuett, 2014; Rogalsky et al., 2016; Wang & Wu, 2014). For instance, the volunteer experience has been measured through items such as the length of tenure and number of meetings attended (e.g., Lu & Schuett, 2014) or through the past experiences of volunteers in previous events (e.g., Bang et al., 2019). The issue with these measures of the volunteer experience resides in the current lack of consideration for, and application of, experience-based items. Such experience-based measures should consider items related to the individual’s perceptions of their volunteering (Lachance & Parent, 2020) rather than descriptive-based measures (e.g., past experiences, length of tenure). These measurements can be completed with previously developed scales (e.g., Flow State Scale; Jackson & Marsh, 1996) that possess experience-based items (e.g., action awareness, challenge-skill balance; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) from related literatures (e.g., leisure). Given the nature of the sport event volunteer experience in the present study as a phenomenon experienced from an individual perspective, experienced-based items are needed to provide a more appropriate assessment.

The lack of studies presenting the volunteer experience as a dependent variable is also problematic. For instance, many studies in the sport event volunteer literature have discussed the volunteer experience (e.g., Downward & Ralston, 2005, 2006; Downward et al., 2005; Farrell et al., 1998; Lu & Schuett, 2014; Ralston et al., 2004; Rogalsky et al., 2016; Wang & Wu, 2014)—but these studies highlight three main issues: (a) a lack of information on the development and rationale for the included items (e.g., Lu & Schuett, 2014); (b) a lack of strong statistical analyses (e.g., lack of factor analyses for items, level of Cronbach alpha scores for factors included in analyses; e.g., Wang & Wu, 2014); and (c) a lack of definition and operationalization of the volunteer experience (e.g., Downward & Ralston, 2005, 2006;

Downward et al., 2005; Farrell et al., 1998; Ralston et al., 2004; Rogalsky et al., 2016). As such, proper construct operationalization and empirical analyses are needed in relation to the four identified variables (i.e., motivation, satisfaction, commitment, and sense of community) to challenge assumptions and bridge siloed investigations of the volunteer experience (Lachance & Parent, 2020). A combined, multifaceted examination would allow for an understanding of the simultaneous impacts of the four antecedents on the volunteer experience to be uncovered. Further, and while both direct and indirect relationships are claimed to be present between these antecedents and the volunteer experience (e.g., Farrell et al., 1998; Kerwin et al., 2015; Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021), these have yet to statistically be tested together. Such research is needed to address assumptions about the importance of each antecedent to predict the volunteer experience.

Given the stated purpose and above literature review, this study is guided by the following research question: what relationships do motivation, satisfaction, commitment, and sense of community have to the volunteer experience? To answer this question, hypotheses are developed from Lachance and Parent’s (2020) conceptual framework of the volunteer experience, where the volunteer experience is suggested to be directly impacted by its four antecedents: motivation (i.e., reasons for volunteering; Farrell et al., 1998), satisfaction (i.e., how the needs of volunteers are met; Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley, 2001), commitment (i.e., emotional attachment towards the event; Cuskelly & Boag, 2001), and sense of community (i.e., shared purpose and common identity among volunteers; Kerwin et al., 2015). As such, the following four hypotheses (Hs) are proposed:

- H1:** Motivation will have a direct positive relationship with the volunteer experience.
- H2:** Satisfaction will have a direct positive relationship with the volunteer experience.
- H3:** Commitment will have a direct positive relationship with the volunteer experience.
- H4:** Sense of community will have a direct positive relationship with the volunteer experience.

Researchers have also claimed the presence of indirect relationships (e.g., Costa et al., 2006; Farrell

et al., 1998; Lachance & Parent, 2021). As such, the present study will start by determining the ability for each individual antecedent to predict the volunteer experience (i.e., test the hypotheses). Once this is done, direct versus indirect assumptions will be challenged through further statistical analyses.

Methodology

This section presents an overview of the study's context followed by the data collection method (i.e., self-administered online questionnaire), procedures, and the data analysis process.

Study Context

The study context is the 2019 Osprey Valley Open, a professional golf tournament held July 11 to 14 in Toronto, Canada. A tournament on the Mackenzie Tour, this event featured 159 competitors and required the assistance of 256 volunteers. Each sport event volunteer was assigned a formal role by the organizing committee related to various departments of the event (e.g., security, transportation, scoring, maintenance, and hospitality).

Volunteers at this event are recognized as sport event volunteers as they engaged in a freely chosen leisure activity to assist with the organization and staging of this sport event (cf. Hoye et al., 2020). Further, participants in the study were asked to self-identify as volunteers in the questionnaire (see below). Only participants that self-identified as volunteers were able to complete the questionnaire.

Data Collection

Data were collected through an online self-administered questionnaire using Qualtrics (i.e., online questionnaire software). The questionnaire was inspired from Lachance and Parent's (2020) conceptual framework of the volunteer experience and developed from extant scales in the sport event volunteer literature. The questionnaire was comprised of 98 items across six sections: (a) demographic information, (b) motivation, (c) satisfaction, (d) commitment, (e) sense of community, and (f) experience. Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 *strongly disagree* to 5 *strongly agree*.

In line with definitions provided for the four antecedents and the volunteer experience from the sport event volunteer literature, the following scales were selected. First, motivation was measured using 15 items adapted from MacLean and Hamm's (2007) sport event volunteer research; items related to egoistic, purposive, material, leisure, and external motivators. Second, satisfaction was measured using 15 items adapted from Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley's (2001) Volunteer Satisfaction Index; items related to organization support, participation efficacy, empowerment, and group integration. Third, commitment was measured using nine items adapted from Cuskelly and Boag's (2001) survey on organizational commitment used on a previous volunteer workforce. Fourth, sense of community was measured using 15 items adapted from Kerwin et al.'s (2015) Sense of Community in Sport Scale; items related to administration consideration, common interest, equity in administration decisions, leadership opportunities, and social spaces. Finally, the volunteer experience was measured using 27 items from Jackson and Marshes' (1996) Flow State Scale developed to measure individuals flow in sport and physical activity settings; items related to challenge-skill balance, action-awareness merging, clear goals, unambiguous feedback, concentration on task at hand, sense of control, loss of self-consciousness, transformation of time, and autotelic experience. A flow state is understood as a positive experiential state, one where an individual's state is optimal when their personal skill is equal to the challenge required (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). When in this experiential state, an individual becomes completely encapsulated within the activity "and experience a number of positive experiential characteristics, including freedom from self-consciousness and great enjoyment of the process" (Jackson & Marsh, 1996, p. 18). Thus, the use of this psychometrically valid scale elicits whether a positive experiential state occurred for volunteers or not. Table 1 presents sample items for each of these adapted sections.

To respect the study's ethics certificate, the questionnaire was administered to the entire volunteer workforce ($n = 246$) following the completion of the event. Participants received an e-mail from the event's tournament director on July 15 (i.e., the day after the event finished), which contained the

Table 1
Sample Items for Measured Antecedents

Survey Section	Sample Items
Motivation	“I want to put something back in the community” “I want to help make the event a success”
Satisfaction	Items were prefaced with the statement “ <i>I was satisfied with . . .</i> ” “The differences my volunteer work is making” “My relationship with paid staff”
Commitment	“I am proud to tell others that I am part of this event” “I would accept almost any task in order to keep volunteering for this event”
Sense of community	“Leaders of the 2020 Osprey Valley Open support their volunteers” “I feel like I belong when volunteering for the 2020 Osprey Valley Open”
Experience	“Timed seemed to alter (either slowed down or speeded up)” “The challenge and my skills were at an equally high level”

Note. Items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 *strongly disagree* to 5 *strongly agree*.

questionnaire link and information related to the study. The questionnaire link was open for a period of 2 weeks postevent (i.e., until July 28th, 2019) and took approximately 10 min for participants to complete. At the end of the data collection period, 161 volunteers (65% response rate) completed the questionnaire. Although a small sample size is demonstrated in this study, the response rate still provides a representative picture of the volunteer population at the chosen sport event (i.e., over 50% of volunteers participated). Further, this response rate can be considered as being higher than average for online questionnaires (Sauermaun & Roach, 2013) and surpasses those of other studies in the sport event volunteer literature where response rates of 13.4% (i.e., Bang et al., 2019), 25% (i.e., Dickson et al., 2015), 55.7% (i.e., Kerwin et al., 2015), and 62.6% (i.e., MacLean & Hamm, 2007) are found. Given the response rate of this study that is representative of the selected volunteer population, it is deemed appropriate for statistical analyses to be conducted.

Sample Characteristics

Of the 161 sport event volunteers who provided useable responses, the majority were male (68.3%, $n = 110$), married (84.2%, $n = 112$), and had children (72.4%, $n = 97$). Participants' education was comparably distributed between obtaining a high school diploma (21.6%, $n = 29$), college diploma (28.4%, $n = 38$), and an undergraduate degree (29.9%, $n = 40$). Most individuals self-identified as

a current sport/physical activity participant (95.5%, $n = 127$) and participated in physical activity on average 3.54 times per week ($SD = 1.69$). In relation to the event itself, most participants had not volunteered for the Osprey Valley Open before (68.9%, $n = 93$) but knew someone else who had (71.5%, $n = 98$).

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using structural equation modeling (SEM). SEM is a technique used to assess linear relationships (e.g., direct and mediating) on a set of latent variables (Shah & Goldstein, 2006). An assumption of SEM is that data are normally distributed. As such, SPSS was used to test for each item's data normality (e.g., Q-Q Plot, multicollinearity, residuals). No distinctions of normality were identified. Beyond normality testing, confirmed through a missing value assessment, participant response rate was 100% (Allison, 2003). In addition, while SEM analyses often occur on larger sample sizes, previous researchers (e.g., MacCallum et al., 1999) have determined sample sizes between 100 and 200 cases are adequate when multiple indicators determine a factor and marker variables used have appropriate loadings (i.e., >0.7), all of which align with the present data analysis.

Data were then analyzed using a common two-step SEM analysis (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) in SPSS AMOS 26 using maximum likelihood estimation. The two-step procedure involved first testing a measurement model through confirmatory

factor analysis (CFA) then examining the linear relationship between the latent variables aligned with research hypotheses.

The measurement model was specific to five correlated factors: motivation (15 items), satisfaction (15 items), commitment (nine items), sense of community (15 items), and experience (27 items). Following the CFA, 18 items with weak factor loading scores (<0.7) were removed from the measurement model and not used in the subsequent analysis (Byrne, 2013): eight from motivation, four from satisfaction, and seven from sense of community. This led to the following results for each factor: motivation (7 items), satisfaction (11 items), commitment (9 items), sense of community (8 items), and experience (27 items; items having factor loading scores between 0.70 and 0.95). Items for each factor were summed and aggregated to form an overall measure of each factor to examine internal consistency through Cronbach's alpha. Each factor revealed a Cronbach's alpha with good internal consistency of ≥ 0.7 (Cortina, 1993): motivation (0.797), satisfaction (0.933), commitment (0.895), sense of community (0.933), and experience (0.914).

Consistent with the SEM literature, the adequacy of the model was assessed using fit indices (Hair et al., 2010). Fit indices are indicators of how well the specified model fits the data used to test the hypotheses. The fit indices used to assess the hypothesized model were: (a) chi-square/*df* ratio (χ^2/df) with its *p* value; (b) comparative fit index (CFI); (c) normed fit index (NFI); and (d) root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) along with its *p* value (PCLOSE). Aligned with the SEM literature (e.g., Byrne, 2013; Hair et al., 2010; Williams et al., 2009) and akin to recent sport management SEM research (e.g., Hallman et al., 2020; Rocha, 2020; Wear & Heere, 2020), strong measurement models should

have a χ^2/df ratio of less than three with a *p* value that is not significant at the 0.05 level, CFI and NFI values greater than 0.90 (though preferably greater than 0.95), and a RMSEA that is less than 0.08 (though preferably less than 0.05) with a PCLOSE value that is not significant at the 0.05 level.

Results

Results indicate the hypothesized model had an unsatisfactory overall fit (see Table 2), with $\chi^2/df = 31.54$ ($p < 0.001$), CFI = 0.233, NFI = 0.239, RMSEA = 0.634 with a PCLOSE of <0.001 . This model supported hypotheses one to three: motivation ($\beta = 0.249$, $p < 0.001$), satisfaction ($\beta = 0.324$, $p < 0.001$), and commitment ($\beta = 0.179$, $p = 0.010$). Although these hypotheses were supported (see Fig. 1), no fit indices scores indicated a satisfactory fit.

Therefore, to find a satisfactory fit for the data, and answer our research question, an exploratory phase examined how the model could be improved (Byrne, 2013). This analysis explored various linear (direct and mediated) relationships among the four volunteer experience antecedents. The first exploration combined the significant direct relationships revealed in the hypothesized model and previous suggestions that sequential (or indirect mediating) relationships may be present in volunteer experience (Lachance & Parent, 2020). As such, a second model was assessed, which positioned experience to be directly predicted by motivation, commitment, and satisfaction, with sense of community as an antecedent to each (see Fig. 2). Results indicated model two had an unsatisfactory overall fit (see Table 2), with $\chi^2/df = 7.24$ ($p < 0.001$), CFI = 0.896, NFI = 0.884, RMSEA = 0.286 with a PCLOSE of 0.000. Although fit indices scores were not satisfactory, each score showed improvement from the first model. Each of the linear relationships tested in

Table 2
Model Fit Statistics for Proposed and Refine Structural Models

	χ^2/df	CFI	NFI	RMSEA	PCLOSE
Model 1: Proposed model	31.54	0.233	0.239	0.634	<0.001
Model 2: Refined model	7.24	0.896	0.884	0.286	<0.001
Model 3: Refined model 2	1.319	0.996	0.984	0.065	0.346
Model 4: Structural model	1.13	0.998	0.982	0.041	0.437



Figure Caption

Variables =

Relationships =

Figure 1. Proposed structural model of the sport event volunteer experience. Variables with relationships shown by arrows. ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

model two were significant at the 0.05 level except for the commitment to experience relationship ($p = 0.06$). This led to understanding the best model fit might position motivation and satisfaction to

directly predict experience, with commitment and sense of community as their antecedents.

Thus, a third model was assessed, which positioned experience to be directly predicted by

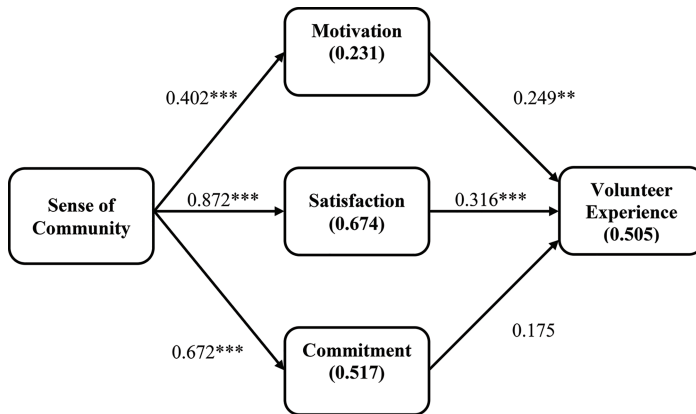


Figure Caption

Variables =

Relationships =

Figure 2. Refined model of the sport event volunteer experience. Variables with relationships shown by arrows. ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

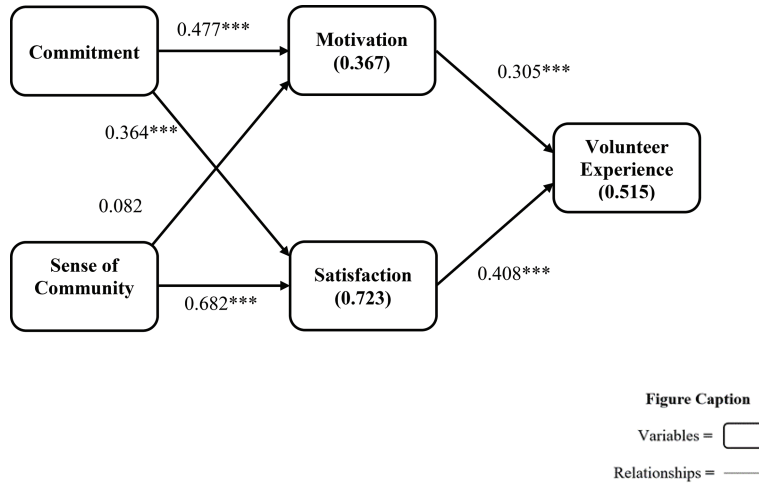


Figure 3. Refined model 2 of the sport event volunteer experience. Variables with relationships shown by arrows. *** $p < 0.001$.

motivation and satisfaction, with commitment and sense of community as antecedents to each (see Fig. 3). Results indicated model three had a satisfactory overall fit (see Table 2), with $\chi^2/df = 1.319$ ($p = 0.266$), CFI = 0.996, NFI = 0.984, RMSEA = 0.065 with a PCLOSE of 0.346. Each linear relationship tested in model three were significant at the 0.001 level except for the sense of community to motivation relationship ($p = 0.455$). Further, while commitment significantly predicted motivation and satisfaction, it held stronger predictive utility to motivation. These results indicate that, for best model fit, commitment and sense of community might not be antecedents to both

motivation and satisfaction. Rather, commitment might independently predict motivation, and sense of community might best independently predict satisfaction. In addition to these relationship modifications, while all fit indices scores were satisfactory and improved from model two to model three, an RMSEA of <0.05 is preferred. This led to the refinement of the model by addressing these independent relationships.

Finally, this exploratory process led to the assessment of model four, which positioned experience to be directly predicted by motivation and satisfaction, with commitment predicting motivation and sense of community predicting satisfaction (see Fig. 4).

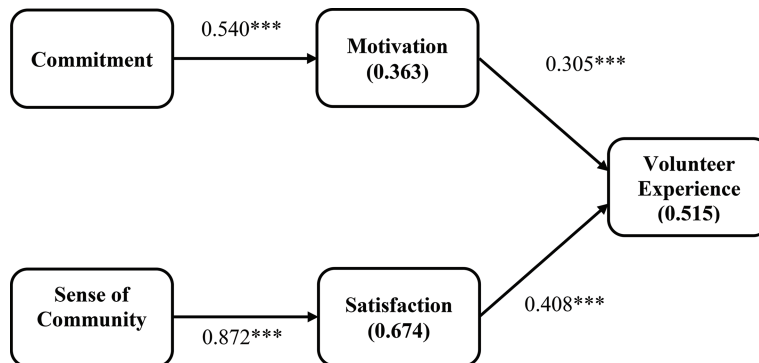


Figure 4. Structural model of the sport event volunteer experience. Variables with relationships shown by arrows. *** $p < 0.001$.

Results indicated model four had a good overall fit (see Table 2), with $\chi^2/df = 1.13$ ($p = 0.341$), CFI = 0.998, NFI = 0.982, RMSEA = 0.041 with PCLOSE of 0.437. All paths were significant at the 0.001 level revealing positive direct linear relationships and indicating the data fit well. Because all fit indices scores were adequate and each relationship was statistically supported, this analysis concludes the refined model was an adequate and good fit of the data.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to empirically test if and how sport event volunteers' motivation, satisfaction, commitment, and sense of community predict their experience. Based on the results, claims related to the individual importance of motivation, satisfaction, commitment, and sense of community towards the volunteer experience (e.g., Farrell et al., 1998; Kerwin et al., 2015; Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021; MacLean & Hamm, 2007; Wang & Wu, 2014) are confirmed. Before discussing these results, it is important to first detail statistical understandings relevant to models, variance, and relationships, and how this relates to this study's results.

More precisely, there is a statistical hierarchy, where significant relationships are rudimentary without significant variance, and significant variance is rudimentary without an adequate model fit (e.g., χ^2/df less than 3). If a relationship is significant but within an inadequate model, the statistical support of that relationship is questionable. Although some direct and indirect causal relationships were significant in the initial tested models, a lack of fit suggests caution when making claims of their relationships.

Based on the structural model confirmed by the SEM analysis (see Fig. 4), each of the four antecedents revealed a causal relationship to the volunteer experience. However, these relationships were not all direct to the volunteer experience. Rather, the prediction of volunteers' experiences is determined through a combination of direct and indirect relationships. For instance, both motivation and satisfaction were found to have direct relationships with the volunteer experience, while commitment (through motivation) and sense of community (through satisfaction) had indirect relationships

with the volunteer experience. The presence of direct and indirect relationships challenges the assumed direct causality between individual antecedents and the volunteer experience discussed in the sport event volunteer literature (e.g., Farrell et al., 1998; Kerwin et al., 2015; Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021; MacLean & Hamm, 2007; Wang & Wu, 2014). Each individual antecedent is discussed below according to previous assumptions in the sport event volunteer literature regarding the role of antecedents and their direct and indirect relationships towards the volunteer experience.

Motivation

An important facet worthy of discussion is associated with the CFA results for the items comprised within motivation. Of the five types of motivation measured within the motivation construct, only one type had adequate factor loading scores for all items: egoistic (i.e., motivated by self-interest; Batson, 1991). Based on the appropriate fit of egoistic items, the importance of this motivation type is highlighted to understand this antecedent's relationship with the volunteer experience. For instance, volunteers' motives appear to be centered on meeting individual needs as opposed to having leisure choices (i.e., leisure), gained utility (i.e., material), contribute to a group or end goal (i.e., purposive), or be influenced by an external source (i.e., family; MacLean & Hamm, 2007). This finding contests claims in the sport event volunteer literature regarding the importance of purposeful-related motives, such as contributing to a group, event, or community, for the volunteer experience (Farrell et al., 1998; Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021).

Although the items and five factors applied by MacLean and Hamm (2007) were supported, findings from the present study indicate the need for deeper inquiries on motivation and the volunteer experience. This will help better understand the importance of motivational types present, and if focusing on egoistic motivation is indeed most effective for sport event managers. These inquiries would also enable for greater theoretical and practical knowledge to be linked to types of motivation present for sport event volunteers, and how these nuanced motivations might entice first-time and recurring volunteer activities.

Beyond this CFA motivation discussion, the SEM analysis supports previous claims regarding the direct relationship between motivation and volunteers' experience (e.g., Farrell et al., 1998; Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021; MacLean & Hamm, 2007). Motivation, particularly egoistic motivation, can directly lead to understanding experiences because of that individual's self-interest or bias. Self-motivated individuals can view negative consequences through a positive lens. This relationship is well understood among elite athletes (or typical highly motivation sport individuals) who make sacrifices (e.g., social and health) to create an experience (i.e., compete; Leymre et al., 2007). Despite inherently negative aspects to these experiences, athletes associate these experiences with positive attributes (Leymre et al., 2007). Linked to the present study's volunteers, the stronger an individual's self-motivation was to perform their role, the greater their perceived volunteering experience. As such, effective volunteer management practices, such as classifying individuals into different categories of motives (e.g., Alexander et al., 2015), could be important for managers to consider to positively impact their volunteers' motivation of (E. Kim, 2018) and lead to a more positive volunteer experience.

Satisfaction

Like motivation, the CFA resulted in the dismissal of satisfaction items. More precisely, two of four items related to participation efficacy (i.e., volunteering will benefit someone else) were removed. In comparison, all items for organization support, empowerment, and group integration loaded adequately. From this preliminary analysis, it appears satisfaction's relationship to the volunteer experience is best understood through items such as communication and support from the organization and supervisors, providing opportunities for volunteers to have authority positions (e.g., supervisory or department managers). Thus, these CFA findings advance Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley's (2001) original scale.

This SEM analysis indicated two direct predictors of volunteers' experience: motivation and satisfaction. Although both antecedents had this direct and positive relationship, researchers have

claimed motivation is the most important predictor of volunteer experience (e.g., Lachance & Parent, 2020). However, motivation was not the most important predictor of volunteers' experiences when examining all antecedents simultaneously in the present study; satisfaction had the greatest direct predictive utility. This finding not only supports claims in the sport event volunteer literature that satisfaction impacted the volunteer experience (e.g., Lachance & Parent, 2021; Pauline, 2011), but also challenges research indicating motivation as the most important predictor (e.g., Farrell et al., 1998) and research suggesting a negative relationship between satisfaction and the volunteer experience (e.g., Lachance & Parent, 2020).

The direct causal relationship between satisfaction and the volunteer experience found in this study is logical. For instance, as an individual's needs are met (e.g., assigned appropriate role) during their activity (e.g., volunteering), the stronger their perception of the experience will be. This demonstrates the importance of satisfying the needs of individuals to enhance their experience. Although this may seem simplistic, each individual's needs are different, which challenges management practices of event managers.

Commitment

Commitment represented the only antecedent without any modifications to its items. The CFA findings and items fit demonstrate the appropriateness of Cuskelly and Boag's (2001) scale to understand commitment and its relation to the volunteer experience. This scale's appropriateness could be explained by its foundation in the attitudinal perspective of commitment as opposed to a behavioral perspective. Further, this supports previous claims for the attitudinal perspective to understand commitment among sport event volunteers (e.g., Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021).

Next, rather than a direct relationship to the volunteer experience, the best fit for commitment within the model was as an antecedent to motivation, and thus, held an indirect relationship to the volunteer experience through motivation. This empirically supports previous claims regarding

an indirect relationship between commitment and the volunteer experience (e.g., Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021).

When reflecting upon this relationship, this sequence of antecedents is logical as one's commitment to a cause will make an individual more motivated to perform that action. For instance, the emotional attachment is important for individuals so they can meet their own needs and motives (e.g., developing skills, experience; egoistic motive). Such an emotional attachment is established toward the event and/or volunteer group and is crucial for enhancing one's motivation level in an activity, such as volunteering. Further, an individual may be motivated to develop new skills or gain work experience, but this motivation level is dynamic and could disappear after some time. Thus, without an emotional attachment to the activity, an individual's motivation is not likely to be as positive, which would lead to a negative experience during the activity (e.g., volunteering).

Sense of Community

An emerging finding in this study relates to the inappropriateness of fit regarding two of the five factors used to measure sense of community: social spaces and leadership opportunities. This CFA result indicates the need for sport event volunteer research to reconceptualize the factors and items within this antecedent. This would allow for a more appropriate measurement of sense of community to better understand its relationship to the volunteer experience.

Based on this study's findings, claims regarding the importance of sense of community (e.g., networking, relationships with other volunteers, culture, identity) in relation to the volunteer experience are supported (e.g., Costa et al., 2006; Green & Chalip, 1998; Kerwin et al., 2015; Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021). Despite this importance, sense of community had an indirect relationship with the volunteer experience and a direct relationship with satisfaction. Therefore, these empirical analyses challenge previous claims that sense of community and volunteer experience are inherently linked (e.g., direct relationship; Kerwin et al., 2015), while confirming the presence of an indirect relationship (e.g., Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021).

The significance of the relationship of sense of community to satisfaction is logical given the importance of social factors inherent to volunteering (e.g., relationships, networking, and culture). However, the influence of this antecedent is not directly linked to an individual's experience. Rather, an individual's perception of the volunteer culture and relationships with other volunteers is crucial for their satisfaction, which then leads to the volunteer's experience. For instance, an individual's satisfaction may not be as strong without the presence of social factors in their activity. Without a sense of community, a volunteer's satisfaction may be decreased, and, as a result, negatively impact their experience.

Interrelationships Between Antecedents

Perhaps the most important finding regards the presence of both indirect and direct causal relationship between the four antecedents and the volunteer experience. This finding challenges assumptions in the sport event volunteer literature by demonstrating that an understanding of the volunteer experience is not simplistic nor exclusively based on the direct relationship of individual antecedents (cf. Downward & Ralston, 2005, 2006; Downward et al., 2005; Farrell et al., 1998; MacLean & Hamm, 2007; Ralston et al., 2004). The complexity of this phenomenon was illustrated in the interrelationships between the examined antecedents and the volunteer experience, such as the indirect relationships of commitment and sense of community and direct relationships of motivation and satisfaction. For instance, the absence of a direct relationship between sense of community and the volunteer experience challenges previous research advocating a direct link (e.g., Kerwin et al., 2015). The direct relationships found related to motivation and satisfaction also challenges the sport event volunteer literature to broaden its understanding of this phenomenon.

More precisely, scholars interested in sport event volunteers have long suggested direct relationship between these antecedents and the volunteer experience while ignoring the potential for indirect relationships to exist (e.g., Farrell et al., 1998). Put another way, the assumptions and directionality of research and practice can all be traced to the siloed

understandings of the volunteer experience (cf. Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021). By examining the concepts together, this study has demonstrated the need for researchers to move beyond this simplistic understanding of the volunteer experience, and instead understand and further examine the simultaneous interrelationships between satisfaction, motivation, commitment, sense of community, and volunteer experience (Lachance & Parent, 2020, 2021).

Conclusion, Implications, and Future Directions

This study tested the relationships between volunteers' motivation, satisfaction, commitment, and sense of community to their experience. Through an SEM analysis, findings demonstrated direct and indirect causal relationships between the volunteer experience and its four antecedents. As such, this study provides a first step in conceptualizing the volunteer experience, thereby moving away from siloed investigations to a simultaneous statistical examination and understanding of the volunteer experience.

Implications

Theoretical Implications. This study's findings offer important theoretical implications pertaining to sport event volunteers, and the development of a conceptual framework. First, by challenging assumptions, which both confirmed (e.g., direct relationship between motivation and experience) and rejected (e.g., direct relationship between sense of community and experience) previous claims, the volunteer experience should no longer be regarded as a simplistic phenomenon that can be independently examined through individual's motivation, satisfaction, commitment, and sense of community (cf. Farrell et al., 1998; Kerwin et al., 2015). Rather, the volunteer experience should be understood as a phenomenon involving complex interrelationships with its antecedents (i.e., motivation, satisfaction, commitment, sense of community). Such findings indicate sport event volunteer researchers should move beyond a siloed understanding of the volunteer experience in their future studies towards a more multifaceted understanding of this phenomenon.

Second, this study provides researchers a first empirical step to refine Lachance and Parent's (2020) conceptual framework of the sport event volunteer experience towards a volunteer experience model. Developing a volunteer experience model would allow sport event researchers and practitioners to better understand this phenomenon and the complexity of its interrelated antecedents. For instance, the model would further test the direct and indirect relationships between the antecedents and the volunteer experience, add potentially new antecedents, and explain such relationships theoretically and statistically through validated items and factors. Developing the model would include testing and refining Figure 4 with different sport event volunteer contexts and continuing to explain why these relationships exist with logical arguments (cf. Bacharach, 1989; Sutton & Staw, 1995; Weick, 1989).

Practical Implications. Based on this study's findings, event managers should promote positive volunteer experiences to ensure outcomes are achieved (e.g., successful event) and enhance the potential for volunteers to participate in future events. Four managerial implications are suggested.

First, commitment was found to have a direct and causal relationship with motivation. Because volunteers' motivation can be enhanced through commitment, practitioners can attempt to establish an affective connection (i.e., emotional) with the event to motivate their volunteers, which in turn would positively affect their experience. Managers could also educate volunteers about the event's values, culture, and goals to develop an emotional attachment, which would, in turn, lead to higher motivation. Specific to egoistic motivation, managers should seek to understand the individuals' motives, for example through preevent questionnaires comprised of open-ended questions completed by volunteers, to develop strategies to address various self-interests. For instance, if certain individuals are motivated by access to competitions or event-day operations, then managers can place them in roles with front-line access. In addition, positive affective responses can be evoked through inspiration (e.g., interacting with elite athletes), which can increase individuals' commitment and desire

(Potwarka et al., 2018). A golf event-specific example would be a previous event champion providing a complimentary clinic to volunteers, leading an activity during volunteer training sessions or being present at social events with volunteers (e.g., end-of-event volunteer appreciation social).

Second, sense of community had a direct causal relationship with satisfaction. This means practitioners should consider the use of social factors among volunteers to positively impact their satisfaction. Creating positive social spaces and environments can generate greater volunteer retention outcomes as positive group sport event experiences can foster greater social networks for individuals (Bakhsh et al., 2019). This positive social environment can be developed through networking opportunities during training/orientation and/or offering social gatherings during the event that can be formal (e.g., city tours, venue tours, event spectating) or informal (e.g., social nights at restaurants).

Third, volunteers' experience was impacted through two indirect relationships. The indirect influence of commitment to experience, as well as sense of community to experience, offer potential avenues for practitioners to not only create positive volunteer experiences, but also increase their sport event volunteers' motivation (through commitment) and satisfaction (through sense of community). For instance, although most volunteers communicate with event organizers over time, from training to event completion, practitioners could create social gatherings (e.g., volunteer golf day) outside of traditional times (e.g., pretraining, postevent). Doing so would promote these important social factors and increase volunteers' overall satisfaction with the event coordination, and ultimately, their own volunteer experience. Similarly, practitioners could enhance volunteers' experiences through commitment-related factors (e.g., emotional connection) by (a) providing in-person recognition (e.g., volunteer service awards at social gatherings); and (b) providing virtual emotional connections (e.g., e-newsletters highlighting volunteer's contributions and displaying photos/videos).

Finally, an important implication for practitioners regards the complexity of the volunteer experience. This creates challenges for practitioners in terms of volunteer management as their volunteers' experience is not impacted exclusively by a single antecedent. As

such, practitioners should gather information about their volunteers' experiences at various time points (e.g., before, during, and postevent) by engaging in formal and informal discussions with volunteers. Such inquiries can elicit greater understandings about volunteer roles, management, and potential modifications of current roles, systems, and processes for the betterment of the event and its volunteers. These strategies are important for practitioners to consider and implement outside of volunteers' training to event timeline, as experience antecedents (e.g., commitment) can be fostered and increased outside of this traditional scope.

Limitations

First, despite the direct and indirect relationships identified between the four antecedent and the volunteer experience, the results of this study are limited by the selected context (i.e., professional golf event in North America) and the small sample size (i.e., 256 volunteers at the event). The sample consisted of 161 participants and included more men than women and older individuals who were married and had children versus youth. It is possible that some findings were impacted by the preferences and dispositions of this group (mainly married men with children), such as those related to egoistic motivation.

Second, the purpose of this study was to determine if and how the four antecedents predicted the volunteer experience. Although other factors may be present in the volunteer experience, such as contextual (e.g., size of the event, prestige of the event, location of the event), organizational (e.g., leadership style, management practices, structure), or individual (e.g., age, gender, returning vs. first-time volunteers) factors, only the four antecedents from the Lachance and Parent (2020) framework were examined as predictors. Thus, other factors, such as gender, age, or individual preferences found to be important to consider in engaging and managing volunteers (cf. Lee & Kim, 2018; Skirstad & Hanstad, 2013; Treuren, 2014) but not examined in relation to the volunteer experience, could influence the direct and indirect relationships found in this study. It would be important to consider the role of these factors on the volunteer experience in future studies. This could help further explain and advance the

findings from this study to better understand the event volunteer experience.

Future Research Directions

First, additional studies in various sport event contexts (e.g., large-scale events vs. small-scale events, able-bodied events vs. para-sport events, single sport events vs. multisport events, recurring sport events vs. one-off sport events) and with a broader sample representation gender- and age-wise should be conducted to compare this study's findings (e.g., indirect and direct relationships found). For instance, researchers could examine the relationship between the volunteer experience and its four antecedents as it pertains to differences between gender, age, and/or volunteer roles in multisport (e.g., Olympic Games) and single sport events (e.g., curling world championship) at the international, national, provincial, and community levels. Such studies should attempt to include events held in countries beyond North America where most of the sport event volunteer literature is currently situated (E. Kim & Cuskelly, 2017) (e.g., developing countries in Africa or the Middle East), to consider cultural differences in individuals' perspectives on their event volunteer experience. This is critical for the development of a volunteer experience model as potential similarities and differences in event contexts could further refine our understanding of this phenomenon.

Second, longitudinal studies featuring both quantitative and qualitative methods are needed to test relationships over time to understand how they change. Despite finding support for the four antecedents in relation to the volunteer experience in the present study, future research should include a pre/postevent design. This would enable the exploration of the shifts or drivers of change in the volunteer experience and its antecedents. Such studies would enable researchers and practitioners to understand points in time where the volunteer experience is most impacted (either positively or negatively) and how to create a positive impact through the different antecedents.

Third, like volunteer experience claims tested in the present study, the relationship between experience and retention is assumed and has yet to be examined. Although this study's examination of

the volunteer experience and its four antecedents was a necessary step to understand the volunteer experience as a phenomenon, it now needs to be investigated in relation to volunteer retention (e.g., does positive experience lead to retention?). This would enable assumptions related to the volunteer experience as leading to volunteer retention to be advanced. In addition, future research should incorporate research designs with multiple points of data collection, such as before, during, and after the event. Such research would enable for changes in the relationships between antecedents and the volunteer experience to be explored. Additional research conducted after the event (e.g., 6 months after the event, 1 year after the event) is also important to consider in an effort to better understand the long-term impacts and outcomes (e.g., retention) of the volunteer experience and gather empirical evidence of future volunteer intention versus actual behavior.

Finally, this study's findings provide a good fitting and statistically supported model (i.e., Fig. 4) to conceptualize the volunteer experience based on direct (i.e., motivation, satisfaction) and indirect relationships (i.e., commitment, sense of community) with four antecedents. Researchers embarking on sport event volunteer experience investigations should test and refine this model. For instance, future research could test the model in other sport event contexts as noted above, in other sport organization contexts (e.g., national-level nonprofit sport organizations, community-level nonprofit sport organizations), and even other management contexts (e.g., social services organizations, health care organizations) to draw out broad volunteer experience trends. Additional research could also be conducted on different types of volunteers in organizations and events, such as core versus peripheral volunteers (e.g., Ringuet-Riot et al., 2014) or virtual volunteers (e.g., Lachance, 2020). Such findings would identify the boundaries of the model for effective conceptual, empirical, and practical application, as well as refine this model. This can be done through internal construct examinations (e.g., types of motivation) and testing new constructs within the model (e.g., culture).

ORCID

Erik L. Lachance:  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4935-5833>

Jordan T. Bakhsh: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7658-4020>
 Ashley Thompson: <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4868-0482>
 Milena M. Parent: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8789-3523>

References

- Alexander, A., Kim, S. B., & Kim, D. Y. (2015). Segmenting volunteers by motivation in the 2012 London Olympic games. *Tourism Management*, *47*, 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.09.002>
- Allen, J. B., & Bartle, M. (2014). Sport event volunteers' engagement: Management matters. *Managing Leisure*, *19*(1), 36–50. <https://doi.org/10.1080/11745398.2015.1079492>
- Allison, P. D. (2003). Missing data techniques for structural equation modeling. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, *112*(4), 545–557. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-843X.112.4.545>
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, *103*(3), 411–423. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.103.3.411>
- Bacharach, S. B. (1989). Organizational theories: Some criteria for evaluation. *Academy of Management Review*, *14*(4), 496–515. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1989.4308374>
- Bakhsh, J. T., Potwarka, L. R., & Snelgrove, R. (2019). Are “youth days” effective at motivating new sport participation? Evidence from a pre-post event research design. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, *11*(1), 89–104. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEFM-03-2019-0019>
- Bang, H., Bravo, G. A., Mello Figuerôa, K., & Mezzadri, F. M. (2019). The impact of volunteer experience at sport mega-events on intention to continue volunteering: Multigroup path analysis. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *47*(4), 727–742. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.22149>
- Bang, H., & Chelladurai, P. (2009). Development and validation of the volunteer motivations scale for international sporting events. *International Journal for Sport Management and Marketing*, *6*, 332–350. <https://doi.org/10.1504/IJSMM.2009.030064>
- Bang, H., & Ross, S. D. (2009). Volunteer motivation and satisfaction. *Journal of Venue and Event Management*, *1*(1), 61–77.
- Batson, C. D. (1991). *The altruism question: Towards a social psychological answer*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Byrne, B. M. (2013). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming* (2nd ed.). Routledge.
- Cortina, J. M. (1993). What is coefficient alpha? An examination of theory and applications. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *78*(1), 98–104. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.78.1.98>
- Costa, C. A., Chalip, L., Green, B. C., & Simes, C. (2006). Reconsidering the role of training in event volunteers' satisfaction. *Sport Management Review*, *9*(2), 165–182. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1441-3523\(06\)70024-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1441-3523(06)70024-9)
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1975). *Beyond boredom and anxiety*. Jossey-Bass.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *Flow*. Harper & Row.
- Cuskelly, G., & Boag, A. (2001). Organizational commitment as a predictor of committee member turnover amongst volunteer sport administrators: Results of a time-lagged study. *Sport Management Review*, *4*(1), 65–86. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1441-3523\(01\)70070-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1441-3523(01)70070-8)
- Cuskelly, G., Fredline, L., Kim, E., Barry, S., & Kappelides, P. (2021). Volunteer selection at a major sport event: A strategic human resource management approach. *Sport Management Review*, *24*(1), 116–133. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.smr.2020.02.002>
- Dickson, T. J., Benson, A. M., Blackman, D. A., & Terwiel, A. F. (2013). It's all about the games! 2010 Vancouver Olympic and Paralympic winter games volunteers. *Event Management*, *17*(1), 77–92. <https://doi.org/10.3727/15259513X13623342048220>
- Dickson, T. J., Darcy, S., Edwards, D., & Terwiel, F. A. (2015). Sport mega-event volunteers' motivations and postevent intention to volunteer: The Sydney World Masters Games, 2009. *Event Management*, *19*(2), 227–245. <https://doi.org/10.3727/15259515X14297053839692>
- Doherty, A. (2009). The volunteer legacy of a major sport event. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, *1*(3), 185–207. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19407960903204356>
- Downward, P., Lumsdon, L., & Ralston, R. (2005). Gender differences in sports event volunteering: Insights from Crew 2002 at the XVII Commonwealth Games. *Managing Leisure*, *10*(4), 219–236. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13606710500348086>
- Downward, P., & Ralston, R. (2005). Volunteer motivation and expectations prior to the XV Commonwealth Games in Manchester, UK. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development*, *2*(1), 17–26. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790530500072310>
- Downward, P. M., & Ralston, R. (2006). The sports development potential of sports event volunteering: Insights from the XVII Manchester Commonwealth Games. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, *6*(4), 333–351. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16184740601154474>
- Farrell, J. M., Johnston, M. E., & Twynan, D. G. (1998). Volunteer motivation, satisfaction, and management at an elite sporting competition. *Journal of Sport Management*, *12*(4), 288–300. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.12.4.288>
- Galindo-Kuhn, R., & Guzley, R. M. (2001). The volunteer satisfaction index: Construct definition, measurement, development, and validation. *Journal of Social Service Research*, *28*(1), 45–68. https://doi.org/10.1300/J079v28n01_03
- Green, B. C., & Chalip, L. (1998). Sport volunteers: Research agenda and application. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *7*, 14–23.

- Hair, J. F., Black, W., Babin, B., & Anderson, R. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective*. Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Hallmann, K., Zehrer, A., Fairley, S., & Rossi, L. (2020). Gender and volunteering at the special Olympics: Interrelationships among motivations, commitment, and social capital. *Journal of Sport Management*, 34(1), 77–90. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.2019-0034>
- Han, K., Quarterman, J., Strigas, E., Ha, J., & Lee, S. (2013). Committed sport event volunteers. *ICHPER-SD Journal of Research*, 8(2), 45–54.
- Hayton, J. W., & Blundell, M. (2020). Exploring the relationship between social class and sport event volunteering. *Sport Management Review*, 24(1), 92–115.
- Hoye, R., Cuskelly, G., Auld, C., Kappelides, P., & Misener, K. (2020). *Sport volunteering*. Routledge.
- International Olympic Committee. (2014, December 24). *Over 240,000 volunteer applications for Rio 2016*. <https://www.olympic.org/news/over-240-000-volunteer-applications-for-rio-2016>
- Jackson, S. A., & Marsh, H. W. (1996). Development and validation of a scale to measure optimal experience: The Flow State Scale. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 18(1), 17–35. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jsep.18.1.17>
- Kerwin, S., Warner, S., Walker, M., & Stevens, J. (2015). Exploring sense of community among small-scale sport event volunteers. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 15(1), 77–92. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16184742.2014.996581>
- Kim, D., Park, C., Kim, H., & Kim, J. (2019). Determinants and outcomes of volunteer satisfaction in mega sports events. *Sustainability*, 11(7), 1859–1877. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11071859>
- Kim, E. (2018). A systematic review of motivation of sport event volunteers. *World Leisure Journal*, 60(4), 306–329. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16078055.2017.1373696>
- Kim, E., & Cuskelly, G. (2017). A systematic quantitative review of volunteer management in events. *Event Management*, 21(1), 83–100. <https://doi.org/10.3727/152599517X14809630271195>
- Kodama, E., Doherty, A., & Popovic, M. (2013). Front line insight: An autoethnography of the Vancouver 2010 volunteer experience. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 13(1), 76–93. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16184742.2012.742123>
- Kristiansen, E., Skirstad, B., Parent, M. M., & Waddington, I. (2015). ‘We can do it’: Community, resistance, social solidarity, and long-term volunteering at a sport event. *Sport Management Review*, 18(2), 256–267. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.smr.2014.06.002>
- Lachance, E. L. (2020). COVID-19 and its impact on volunteering: Moving towards virtual volunteering. *Leisure Sciences*, 43(1–2), 104–110. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01490400.2020.1773990>
- Lachance, E. L., & Parent, M. M. (2020). The volunteer experience in a para-sport event: An autoethnography. *Journal of Sport Management*, 34(2), 93–102. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.2019-0132>
- Lachance, E. L., & Parent, M. M. (2021). Understanding the sport event volunteer experience in the implementation mode of a para-sport event: An autoethnography. *Event Management*, 25(5), 501–519. <https://doi.org/10.3727/152599520X15894679115556>
- Lee, Y., & Kim, M. (2018). Serious leisure characteristics of older adult volunteers: The case of an international sporting event. *World Leisure Journal*, 60(1), 45–57. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16078055.2017.1305441>
- Leymre, P., Roberts, G. C., & Stray-Gundersen, J. (2007). Motivation, overtraining, and burnout: Can self-determined motivation predict overtraining and burnout in elite athletes? *European Journal of Sport Science*, 7(2), 115–126. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17461390701302607>
- Lu, J., & Schuett, M. A. (2014). Examining the relationship between motivation, enduring involvement and volunteer experience: The case of outdoor recreation voluntary associations. *Leisure Sciences*, 36(1), 68–87. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01490400.2014.860791>
- MacCallum, R. C., Widaman, K. F., Zhang, S., & Hong, S. (1999). Sample size in factor analysis. *Psychological Methods*, 4(1), 84–99. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.4.1.84>
- MacLean, J., & Hamm, S. (2007). Motivation, commitment, and intentions of volunteers at a large Canadian sporting event. *Leisure/Loisir*, 31(2), 523–556. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14927713.2007.9651394>
- Neufeld, M., Guntert, S. T., & Wehner, T. (2013). The impact of job design on event volunteers’ future engagement: Insights from the European Football Championship 2008. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 13(5), 537–556. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16184742.2013.837083>
- Parent, M. M., & Smith-Swan, S. (2013). *Managing major sports events: Theory and practice*. Routledge.
- Pauline, G. (2011). Volunteer satisfaction and intent to remain: An analysis of contributing factors among professional golf event volunteers. *International Journal of Event Management Research*, 6(1), 10–32.
- Potwarka, L. R., Drewery, D., Snelgrove, R., Havitz, M. E., & Mair, H. (2018). Modeling a demonstration effect: The case of spectators’ experiences at 2015 Pan Am Games’ track cycling competitions. *Leisure Sciences*, 40(6), 578–600. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01490400.2017.1325796>
- Ralston, R., Downward, P., & Lumsdon, L. (2003). The XVII Commonwealth Games: An initial overview of the expectations and experiences of volunteers. *LSA Publication*, 80, 43–54.
- Ringuet-Riot, C., Cuskelly, G., Auld, C., & Zakus, D. H. (2014). Volunteer roles, involvement and commitment in voluntary sport organizations: Evidence of core and peripheral volunteers. *Sport in Society*, 17(1), 116–133. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17430437.2013.828902>
- Rocha, C. M. (2020). Temporal variations in the relationship between legacies and support: A longitudinal case study in Rio 2016 Olympic Games. *Journal of Sport Management*, 34(2), 130–146. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.2019-0039>

- Rogalsky, K., Doherty, A., & Paradis, K. F. (2016). Understanding the sport event volunteer experience: An investigation of role ambiguity and its correlates. *Journal of Sport Management, 30*(4), 453–469. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.2015-0214>
- Sauermann, H., & Roach, M. (2013). Increasing web survey response rates in innovation research: An experimental study of static and dynamic contact design features. *Research Policy, 42*(1), 273–286. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.respol.2012.05.003>
- Shah, R., & Goldenstein, S. M. (2006). Use of structural equation modeling in operations management research: Looking back and forward. *Journal of Operations Management, 24*(2), 148–169. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jom.2005.05.001>
- Skirstad, B., & Hanstad, D. V. (2013). Gender matters in sport event volunteering. *Managing Leisure, 18*(4), 316–330. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13606719.2013.809188>
- Sutton, R. I., & Staw, B. M. (1995). What theory is not. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 40*(3), 371–384. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/2393788>
- Treuren, G. J. M. (2014). Enthusiasts, conscripts or instrumentalists? The motivational profiles of event volunteers. *Managing Leisure, 19*(1), 51–70. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13606719.2013.849506>
- Vetitnev, A., Bobina, N., & Terwiel, F. A. (2018). The influence of host volunteer motivation on satisfaction and attitudes toward Sochi 2014 Olympic Games. *Event Management, 22*(3), 333–352. <https://doi.org/10.3727/152599518X15239930463145>
- Wang, C., & Wu, X. (2014). Volunteers' motivation, satisfaction, and management in large-scale events: An empirical test from the 2010 Shanghai World Expo. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, 25*, 754–771. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11266-013-9350-0>
- Wear, H., & Heere, B. (2020). Brand new: A longitudinal investigation of brand association as drivers of team identity among fans of a new sport team. *Journal of Sport Management, 34*(5), 1–13.
- Weick, K. E. (1989). Theory construction as disciplined imagination. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(4), 516–31. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1989.4308376>
- Wicker, P. (2017). Volunteerism and volunteer management in sport. *Sport Management Review, 20*(4), 325–337. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.smr.2017.01.001>
- Williams, L. J., Vandenberg, R. J., & Edwards, J. R. (2009). Structural equation modeling in management research: A guide for improved analysis. *The Academy of Management Annals, 3*(1), 543–604. <https://doi.org/10.5465/19416520903065683>

Reproduced with permission of copyright owner. Further reproduction prohibited without permission.