Expectations and Experiences of Volunteers at Sport-for-Development Projects: The Case of Sri Lanka

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School of Business

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Attestation of Authorship

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

Full Name: Preben Stai

Signed __________________________________

Dated ___________________________________
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To all of you, thank you!
AUTEC Ethics Approval

MEMORANDUM

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC)

To: Nico Schulenkorf
From: Dr Rosemary Godbold and Madeline Banda Executive Secretary, AUTEC
Date: 17 June 2011
Subject: Ethics Application Number 11/118 Expectations and experiences of volunteers at sport-for-development projects: The case of Sri Lanka.

Dear Nico,

Thank you for providing written evidence as requested. We are pleased to advise that it satisfies the points raised by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) at their meeting on 9 May 2011 and we have approved your ethics application. This delegated approval is made in accordance with section 5.3.2.3 of AUTEC’s Applying for Ethics Approval: Guidelines and Procedures and is subject to endorsement at AUTEC’s meeting on 11 July 2011.

Your ethics application is approved for a period of three years until 13 June 2014.

We advise that as part of the ethics approval process, you are required to submit the following to AUTEC:

- A brief annual progress report using form EA2, which is available online through http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/research-ethics/ethics. When necessary this form may also be used to request an extension of the approval at least one month prior to its expiry on 13 June 2014;
- A brief report on the status of the project using form EA3, which is available online through http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/research-ethics/ethics. This report is to be submitted either when the approval expires on 13 June 2014 or on completion of the project, whichever comes sooner.

It is a condition of approval that AUTEC is notified of any adverse events or if the research does not commence. AUTEC approval needs to be sought for any alteration to the research, including any alteration of or addition to any documents that are provided to participants. You are reminded that, as applicant, you are responsible for ensuring that research undertaken under this approval occurs within the parameters outlined in the approved application.

Please note that AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval from an institution or organisation for your research, then you will need to make the arrangements necessary to obtain this. Also, if your research is undertaken within a jurisdiction outside New Zealand, you will need to make the arrangements necessary to meet the legal and ethical requirements that apply within that jurisdiction.

When communicating with us about this application, we ask that you use the application number and study title to enable us to provide you with prompt service. Should you have any further enquiries regarding this matter, you are welcome to contact Charles Griner, Ethics Coordinator, by email at ethics@aut.ac.nz or by telephone on 921 9999 at extension 8860.

On behalf of AUTEC and ourselves, we wish you success with your research and look forward to reading about it in your reports.

Yours sincerely,

Dr Rosemary Godbold and Madeline Banda
Executive Secretary
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: Proben Stai proben.stai@gmail.com, Sean Phelps
Abstract

The importance of volunteers is acknowledged around the world, and most research has investigated volunteer contributions in sport and events settings. The area of sport for development is a context that has recently received increasing recognition, and sport for development organisations depend on the voluntary contribution of committed individuals. Although it is realised the volunteers have a significant impact on the running and the existence of such organisations and their projects, little previous research has focused on the people going overseas to contribute as volunteers in sport for development. Therefore, the aim of this research is to investigate the expectations and experiences of those who are going abroad to do volunteering.

A single case study approach was utilised; the Asian German Sport Exchange Programme (A.G.S.E.P.) in Sri Lanka was used as the focus of this study. This research involved 12 interviews and two focus groups with volunteers of this organisation. Five of the volunteers were yet to have started their participation and were regarded as future volunteers. Four students were already at the location doing their volunteer work as current volunteers, while 3 interviews were conducted with people who had previously participated in the organisation; hence they were classified as previous volunteers.

Findings suggested that the volunteers showed high levels of interest in sport; however the importance of the organisation being a sport organisation was only highlighted by those students from the fields of sport science, education or management. Non-sport related students highlighted the development aspect of the organisation as a significant factor for their engagement. This research suggests that sport for development volunteers expect instrumental outcomes from their participation, such as gaining new skills and knowledge, socialising, improving their CV, personal development, professional development, and cultural engagement. Previous volunteers also confirmed these expectations to a large degree.

This research has a number of important implications for A.G.S.E.P., and their volunteer management in particular, and for other sport for development organisations
in similar settings more generally. Furthermore, future sport for development volunteers can benefit from this study as they can find out in detail about the expectations and potential outcomes, benefits and challenges of being involved in overseas projects in disadvantaged community settings. Future longitudinal research could build on this case study and investigate volunteer expectations, experiences, relationships and challenges on a larger scale.
Chapter 1.  

Introduction

1.1 Background to the Research

International attention is turning towards the developing world in the fight against increasing social and health related challenges such as poverty, hunger and war (SDP IWG, 2007). National governments, non-governmental organisations, academia, the private sector and government agencies are initialising projects in the developing world to provide people in disadvantaged settings with much needed knowledge, skill and money (Kim, Zhang, & Connaughton, 2010b). Sport for development (S4D) has become more and more recognised for the potential positive impacts it has on our society. Sport for development is nowadays associated with projects that are used to develop surroundings, games, societies and other in-demand impact areas. An example of this is the United Nations (UN) work to achieve a better world for populations around the globe.

The knowledge and skills in S4D are often provided by volunteers participating at such organisations (Volunteering England, 2011). In fact, these organisations are dependent on the flow on volunteer participation (Kidd, 2008), and many volunteers are recruited from developed countries overseas. Humanistic organisations and development agencies, such as the UN, World Health Organisation (WHO), United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) and Oxfam, create opportunities for volunteers to work at international, national, state and local level training and competitive events in their work towards development and peace in the developing world. Kim et al. (2010b) suggest that “due to the philanthropic and humanitarian mission of organisations that serve children with special needs, volunteer motivation may be unique” (p. 349). They highlight that little is known about the characteristics of volunteers and management issues in humanitarian aid and development organisations. Understanding the expectations and experiences of S4D volunteers is therefore one way to contribute to the exploration and advancement of volunteer work.

Although, overall, volunteers are getting greater political and cultural recognition today than in previous decades (Anheier & Salamon, 2001), much of the existing research on volunteer management focuses on the organisations’ impact on society, rather than investigating volunteers themselves. In particular, it is difficult to find any studies that
have investigated the expectations and experiences of volunteers that spent their time volunteering at sport projects abroad. Moreover, no research has analysed the volunteer phenomenon in a sport for development context. Therefore, this study aims to contribute to the body of knowledge by investigating the expectations and experiences of volunteers at an S4D programme in rural Sri Lanka.

1.2 Research Context

People are engaged in volunteering locally, nationally or internationally. Volunteering opportunities exist within a range of different fields, like environmental, public, sporting events and clubs, nature, health and peace organisations. In the same way that volunteering has become increasingly popular (Anheier & Salamon, 2001), the S4D phenomenon is also a field receiving greater recognition (Beutler, 2008; Kidd, 2008). Health and peace organisations operate in vulnerable countries, societies and communities. Sport has in recent years increased its understanding and acknowledgment for the power that sport holds towards promoting development and peace in disadvantaged community settings (Beutler, 2008; Kidd, 2008).

Overall, the developing world is facing several challenges in terms of standard of living, health problems, poverty, racial issues and social development (United Nations, 2006). In recent decades, several nations, organisations, groups and other campaigns have therefore increased their efforts towards resolving some of these issues. The positive side of such work is highlighted as opportunities for the local community to socialise, interact and cooperate with foreigners to contribute to cultural learning, feelings of increased comfort and trust, and the establishment of networks, including those that lead towards socio-economic development (Schulenkorf, 2009). However, there is also a negative side, which must not be overlooked. Not every community is supportive of external engagement in development, which suggests that negative attitudes and tense intra-community situations can lead to the social development being undermined (Schulenkorf, Thomson, & Schlenker, 2011).

The research context for this particular study is the islands of Sri Lanka, located south of India, in the Indian Ocean. It is an island with beautiful nature and beaches, as well as several historic places and cities. Divided into 25 districts, Sri Lanka is a country with a population of more than 20 million. Sri Lanka, as a country, has been confronted with the severe consequences of civil war, ethnic tensions and regular terrorist acts.
Schulenkorf (2009) confirms that “Sri Lanka is an ethnically, religiously and linguistically diverse society” (p. 121) where the majority (74%) are Sinhalese (mainly Buddhist), 18% are Tamils, (Hindu and Christian), and 7% are Indian and Sri Lankan moors (Muslim). The civil war that dominated life on the island was fought between the Sinhalese dominated Government of Sri Lanka and the Tamil Tigers, a terrorist organisation that saw themselves as the representatives of the Tamil people who were fighting for an independent Tamil state in the northern parts of the country. From 1983 onwards, civil war and ethnic tensions led to over 100,000 casualties in Sri Lanka, and the relationships between people and communities have remained tense even after the official end of the war – and the defeat of the Tamil Tigers – in 2009 (cf. BBC, 2011; Schulenkorf, 2009; Schulenkorf, Thomson, & Schlenker, 2011).

Colombo is Sri Lanka’s capital and the largest city, with 1.5 million residents. About 55 kilometres north of Colombo, along the western coast, lays the village of Marawila. Marawila is host to the Asian German Sport Exchange Programme (A.G.S.E.P.), a non-governmental organisation (NGO), which has been in operation since 1989. Around Marawila the programme has been implementing local sport events and international team exchanges between Sri Lankan and European sport teams, with a particular focus on Germany. Dr Dietmar Doring, the current CEO, founded the organisation as a result of his personal experience with the civil war. His motivation was to combine tourism with sport events aiming to encourage intercultural participation and understanding in the ethnically divided country (Schulenkorf, 2009). Today A.G.S.E.P. is working as a quasi-development organisation with a clear focus on “social development, integrating sportspeople of Sri Lanka’s different ethnic groups in sport camps, sport events and workshops” (Schulenkorf, 2009, p. 133).

The organisation is financed largely through overseas aid money and free volunteer support. Schulenkorf (2009) explains that European interns work several months for the organisation free of charge and make significant contributions to the success of the development projects. The roles and responsibilities of the volunteers at A.G.S.E.P. consist of organising, managing, planning and conducting inter-community events in Sri Lanka. This study focuses on their expectations and experiences in conducting S4D work in a developing world context, using A.G.S.E.P. as the case study for investigation.
1.3 Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this research is to investigate expectations, experiences, limitations and best practice for sport organisations engaged in sport projects in the developing world. It aims to reveal new insights and contribute to the body of knowledge for both the NGOs as well as volunteer managers who, as a result of this investigation, may better understand international volunteers and may thus prepare better for their arrival, engagement and future development. In particular, to answer the research question, “What are the expectations and experiences of sport for development volunteers?”, the study has these research objectives:

Objective 1: To investigate characteristics of sport for development volunteers
Objective 2: To investigate expectations of sport for development volunteers
Objective 3: To investigate experiences of sport for development volunteers
Objective 4: To discover implications and highlight recommendations for future study and practice in the field of sport for development volunteers

Volunteering overseas in the developing world is a form of volunteering that nowadays receives increasing recognition. Non-governmental organisations centred on sport are doing a significant job in the developing world; working towards promotion of sport, and utilising sport in working against health problems, poverty and war, as well as creating knowledge and networks of the people in the developing world. Despite the awareness and recent recognition of NGOs in the developing world, and their dependence on the volunteers, limited research has focused on the volunteers when doing research on such programmes. Many NGOs are focusing on the impact the organisation has on the local community and other impacts of the organisation rather than focusing on the volunteers. The volunteers and their experiences, expectations and characteristics, as well as their reasons for choosing to go to a developing nation to do volunteering, have been overlooked. This important information could benefit both the NGOs as well as the volunteers themselves. Attempting to fill the gaps in such research and practice, this study examines the experience, expectations and characteristics of the volunteers.

Due to the variety of options and possible activities for volunteering, the width of the field makes it popular and assures that there will be volunteering opportunities for
anyone (Volunteering England, 2011). Kidd (2008) emphasises this for the area of S4D where the organisations are relying on volunteer input and providing a wide variety of options for volunteers to get involved. Therefore it is important for the organisations to understand the volunteers’ expectations and experiences to better prepare for their arrival (Kim et al., 2010b).

The term “volunteer” is a complex and difficult one to define. Researchers seems to agree that voluntary action contains a portion of free will, a level of remuneration, and that it should be beneficial for others. However, the issues and discussions are to which level an action is free will, how much remuneration is acceptable before it is not counted as volunteering, and who are the people that benefit from the voluntary action. Gratton, Nichols, Shibli and Taylor (1997) provided this definition of volunteers in sport, “Individual volunteers [are] helping others in sport, in a formal organisation such as clubs or governing bodies, and receiving either no remuneration, or only expenses” (p. i).

1.4 Overview of Research Design

Incorporating an interpretive paradigm, the study was based around a single case study approach that included 12 semi-structured interviews and two focus groups with volunteers of A.G.S.E.P., as the host organisation. Of the 12 interviews, five interviews were conducted with future volunteers, four with current volunteers, and three with previous volunteers. The focus groups included the two cohorts of five future and four current volunteers respectively.

The inductive analysis of data involved a thematic analysis of research participants’ responses. Themes were created after analysing the transcribed documents of the focus groups and semi-structured interviews. The data analysis was completed based on the transcripts from the interviews and focus groups, by reading and analysing the documents multiple times to create an awareness of the findings for the researcher.

1.5 Outline of Thesis

This section outlines the structure of this thesis. A review of the literature is undertaken in Chapter 2, which discusses the concepts of volunteering, volunteering in the developing world, and, especially, volunteering in sport. This chapter also focuses on the sport for development and peace movement, and, within this, the existence and
operation of NGOs in the developing world. Chapter 3 outlines the methods undertaken in this research, as well as the research philosophy, approach and methods of data analysis. Chapter 4 details the findings from the interviews and the focus groups conducted, which are presented according to the emergent themes. Chapter 5 discusses the findings related to future, current and previous volunteers’ experiences, expectations, characteristics and reasons of volunteering, including a comparison of the three different volunteer groups. This chapter also outlines recommendations for future research, implications and contribution of this study, before it finishes with a conclusion.

1.6 Delimitations of Scope and Key Assumptions

Discussion centres on three different groups of volunteers, namely future volunteers, current volunteers and previous volunteers. Future volunteers are those who have applied and been accepted by the organisation to participate as a volunteer. The aim is to investigate their expectations before they start doing their volunteering participation at a sporting organisation in the developing world and their reasons for choosing to go overseas to do volunteering. The volunteers who are currently working at the organisation and carrying out their volunteering projects are referred to as the current volunteers. Their experiences will be explored as well as their expectations of the post-volunteer phase, in addition to their reasons for choosing to go overseas to a developing nation to volunteer. With the previous volunteers, the research project investigates those volunteers who have successfully completed their time at the organisation. The aim is to investigate how they have developed or benefited from their participation as volunteers.

The research project explored a sporting organisation in the developing world; however, being a German organisation it seems to attract German volunteers in particular. Of the 12 interviewees, all were German speaking, including one Italian person from the German speaking part of Italy. This means the sample lacks diversity in terms of geographical origin, which suggests that findings from this research project may be limited to German volunteers’ comprehension of volunteer work and should therefore not be generalised across the entire spectrum of volunteers.

The volunteers participating at the organisation are mainly students doing compulsory practice related to their studies. Only two participants explained they were volunteers of their own free will and that they were not bound to do an internship. Hence, the research
findings might be specific to internship students rather than volunteers, especially when discussing reasons for volunteering. However, it should be highlighted that the reason for choosing the developing world and Sri Lanka were rather similar and both groups were free to choose wherever they wanted to go.

This research is based around a single case study, investigating volunteers at an organisation in Sri Lanka. Similar organisations are found all over the world, meaning the findings may be limited to the particular organisation. Hence, the findings from this research might be specific to the socially constructed environment that people reside in, rather than instilling potential transferability of these findings to other social settings (Glesne, 1999). Therefore, the findings from this research ought to be carefully transferred to inform similar organisations in similar settings, as opposed to being used as a generalised recipe for development for organisations dealing with volunteers.

1.7 Looking Back and Looking Forward

This chapter outlines the background and rationale for this research. The following chapter presents a review of previous literature within the field of volunteering, volunteering in sport, and volunteering at S4D projects in the developing world in particular.
Chapter 2. Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

As the influences of sport organisations and sport projects on hosting communities are receiving greater recognition (Black, 2010; Kidd, 2008), volunteering is a critical variable for these organisations’ and events’ existence (SDP IWG, 2007). Therefore, the ability to recruit, retain and train the volunteers becomes a matter of critical importance (Kim et al., 2010b).

A challenge within the volunteer market is a decreasing pool of volunteers, whilst those who volunteer are required to contribute a higher number of hours each (Costa, Chalip, & Green, 2006). However, volunteering is still a popular field due to its wide variety of voluntary options and activities (Volunteering England, 2011). This is particularly true for the area of sport for development, where organisations rely on volunteer input and provide a wide variety of options for volunteers to get involved (Kidd, 2008).

The social integration provided to members of voluntary organisations is considered as important as that provided by most community organisations, sports clubs and event projects. In all of these, volunteers are regarded as an integral part of their operations and also as a precondition for success (Seippel, 2010). Previous research suggests that volunteering is popular, however, it remains a complex field to obtain information about, as the volunteers come from different backgrounds, and their reasons and motivations vary (Bussell & Forbes, 2002). As a result, Bussell and Forbes (2002) created a framework to assist in better understanding and analysing the volunteer. They created the four “W’s”, being the what, where, who and why of volunteering. This creates an effective method to assist in the understanding of volunteers, and this concept will be explored further in the next section.

This chapter starts with a definition and an overview of the overall volunteer market. The area is then narrowed to the volunteer market in sport, and lastly to sport volunteers in developing countries. Literature on development projects involving sport and event based activities is reviewed next. The gap in research of volunteers within sporting projects in the developing world will then be explained, before the main findings are summarised.
2.2 Volunteering

Seippel (2010) argues that voluntary organisations have an important feature of being able to provide humans with social integrations and provide for greater democracy. For most community organisations, sport clubs and event projects, volunteers are an integral part of their operations and regarded as a precondition for success. These comments suggest that volunteers and volunteering are important aspects of our contemporary society, which is reflected in Anheier and Salomon’s (2001) comment that “volunteering enjoys greater political and cultural recognition today than it did in past decades” (p. 1).

Before analysing the concept of volunteering, and in particular the volunteers and their expectations and experiences, it is important to define the terms "volunteer" and “volunteerism” to gain a clear understanding of their meaning and importance in our world today.

The Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC), and United Nations Volunteers (UNV) published a guidance note for their organisations in 2004. They defined a volunteer as:

an individual who, by free choice, offers his or her time, work and skills, occasionally or on a regular basis, without expectation of compensation, other than reimbursement of reasonable expenses and subsistence allowance necessary for the accomplishment of his or her assignments as a volunteer, for the public benefit, individually or within the framework of informal or officially registered non-governmental non-profit Organisations or national or international public entities (IPU & IFRC, 2004, p. 19).

In addition, volunteerism was defined as “the group of activities carried out by individuals, associations or legal entities, for the common good, by free choice and without the intention of financial gain, outside the framework of any employment, mercantile or civil service relationship” (p. 19). These definitions suggest that
volunteering is a popular yet complex phenomenon; volunteers are coming from all backgrounds and engage in their voluntary work for a variety of reasons.

To better understand the different elements and components of volunteers and volunteering, and to provide a framework for systematic analysis, Bussell and Forbes (2002) define the four “W’s” of volunteering to be: what, where, who and why (see Figure 1 below). “What” refers to the definition of volunteers, “Where” is about the context of volunteering, “Who” defines the characteristics of volunteers, while “Why” discusses the motivation of volunteers.

To achieve a thorough understanding of volunteerism, this framework will be used to create an overview of the literature in the field. The framework will enhance the reader’s opportunity to create an overall understanding of the volunteer market. The categorisation clarifies different aspects and skills related to volunteering, and it also creates a better understanding on how they interact and impact each other.

(A model for understanding the volunteer market)

Figure 1: The Four W’s of Volunteering (Bussell & Forbes, 2002, p. 4)
2.2.1 What

The “What” refers to the definition of the terms “volunteering”, “volunteer”, “volunteerism” and “voluntary work” that have been explored by a large number of authors (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Bussell & Forbes, 2002; Clary, Ridge, Stukas, Snyder, Copeland, Haugen, & Miene, 1998; Cnaan, Handy, & Wadsworth, 1996; Donoghue, 2001; Grossman & Furano, 2002; Hoye, Cuskelley, Taylor, & Darcy, 2008; IPU & IFRC, 2004; Paine, Hill, & Rochester, 2010; Salamon & Sokolowski, 2001; Wilson, 2000; Wilson & Musick, 1997).

Bussell and Forbes (2002) argue that the lack of standard practice in volunteering creates significant diversity, hence the various definitions of volunteering and volunteers. In fact, Volunteering England (2011) states that “with the wide variety of volunteering opportunities that are available today, there is bound to be something for everyone” (Volunteering England, 2010). The organisation goes on to say that because of its popularity and variety, it is a challenge to create one definition to cover all aspects of volunteering.

While it seems impossible to provide a full overview of the different terms, the ones most important and relevant for this study are presented next. For example, Clary et al. (1998) define volunteers as those who:

a) Often actively seek out opportunities to help others, b) may deliberate for considerable amounts of time, and c) may take commitment to an on-going helping relationship that may extend over a considerable period of time and that may entail considerable personal costs of time, energy, and opportunity (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1517).

Building on this definition, Bussell and Forbes (2002) acknowledge that when a person enters into volunteering, there is an aspect of exchange where volunteers respond to costs and benefits. In fact, most of the definitions of volunteering accept that there is some kind of reciprocal exchange, meaning that volunteer action can benefit not only the receiver of services, but also the volunteer. This is summarised by Cuskelley, Taylor, Hoye and Darcy (2006a) who argue “volunteering is unpaid, freely chosen involvement
undertaken through an organisation or agency and performed for the benefit of others or the environment as well as oneself” (p. 143). In a sports context, one of the most recognised definitions is provided by Gratton et al. (1997) who state that “individual volunteers [are] helping others in sport, in a formal organisation such as clubs or governing bodies, and receiving either no remuneration, or only expenses” (p. i).

Finally, Paine et al. (2010) have recently conducted a major study on volunteering, which is most relevant for this study. In cooperation with the Institute for Volunteering Research (IVR) they define volunteering as an activity where the volunteers spend time doing something that benefits other people apart from themselves or their family, as well as not receiving any remuneration for their actions. This definition covers the three main principles of volunteering, which will be further explained in the following section.

2.2.1.1 Unpaid

![Level of Unpaid Work](image)

Figure 2: Level of Unpaid Work (Paine et al., 2010, p. 12)

Being unpaid, or an absence of payment, is the most recognised factor in defining what a volunteer or volunteering is. However, Paine et al. (2010) also argue that there are several examples where people who are regarded as volunteers receive, in some way, payment or reimbursement of expenses incurred when they are volunteering. They group these payments into four areas: Incurred Expenses, Enhanced Expenses, Incentives and Rewards, and Payments.

Incurred expenses are reimbursed to ensure that volunteers do not suffer financial loss by participating as a volunteer. Examples of this type of payment could be for the
volunteer to get transportation costs covered. This is regarded as being well within the boundaries of what they define as volunteering.

Enhanced expenses are when there is an additional financial payment that goes beyond the volunteer being out of pocket for their work. This means that as soon as the enhanced expenses are of such value that they can be seen as payments, the contribution would no longer be seen as volunteering.

Incentives and rewards fall into the grey area of the definition of payment type. They are usually seen as being appropriate when the volunteer receives them unexpectedly, or when they are so small that they would not affect the volunteer’s decision to volunteer. However, when they are an influencing factor in the decision to volunteer, the incentives and rewards could well be considered a payment and therefore contradictory to the idea of volunteering. Receiving actual payments steps over the boundaries of volunteer work and this type of activity can be classified as any other paid activity.

2.2.1.2 Free Will

![Figure 3: Level of Coercion (Paine et al., 2010, p. 14)](image)

As a central element of volunteering, “free will” is regarded as being important (Paine et al., 2010) as it is one of the first things people think of when they are talking about volunteering (Wilson, 2000). Free will, however, is a broad term. In this study it is used when discussing whether the volunteer chooses freely where to volunteer and in what kind of volunteering to become involved.
Paine et al. (2010) created a continuum from free will to coercion, trying to distinguish between the five categories of coercions considered appropriate or not appropriate for volunteering: Physical, Legal, Institutional, Social or Individual coercion.

The placement of an activity on the scale is dependent upon two factors: firstly, “the strength of the pressure placed on the individual”, and secondly, “the extent of which there are clear and direct consequences of a refusal to comply” (Paine et al., 2010, p. 13).

Paine et al. (2010) state that institutional, social and individual coercion are vague and complicated in terms of the degree of impact of the two factors mentioned above. This is because they involve both formal and informal pressure on the individual, which makes it complicated to determine which factors are most significant.

Using institutional coercion as an example, the more pressure put on the individual to volunteer – and the greater the expected consequences of rejecting the volunteering proposal – the less free will is available to decide whether to volunteer or not. On the other hand, if there is no pressure from the surroundings, and there is no consequence for the individual if he or she refuses to comply, then it can be regarded as free will.

Hence, it is important to understand the two dependent factors mentioned above when positioning volunteers between free will and coercion (Paine et al., 2010). A clearer case is presented when talking about physical coercion. When people are forced to volunteer or their physical wellbeing is threatened if they fail to follow a particular course of action, these situations are not regarded as volunteering (Paine et al., 2010). This then moves the position closer to coercion in the continuum because of the distinctness of the coercion put on the volunteer. Finally, legal coercion is also not counted as volunteering. In other words, when there is a legal requirement of people to follow a certain course of action (e.g. community service as a sentence) this contribution is not classified as volunteer work.
2.2.1.3 Benefit to Others

Paine et al.’s (2010) principles suggest that any kind of volunteer work should benefit others. There are two principles that need to be defined here. First, clarification of what exactly is regarded as beneficial, and second, clarification of what is meant by the term “others”. They distinguish between “actual benefit” and “intended to benefit” when they discuss the tension of providing benefit for others. They provide the example of a fundraising project that loses money overall, instead of generating funds to give out to the community. In other words, the intention for a fundraising project is to generate money for a particular project; however, sometimes this does not eventuate because of the costs that are related to organising and staging the fundraising activity.

Paine et al. (2010) also discuss the element of the “others”. They make it clear that activity that only benefits the volunteer or his/her immediate family do not qualify to be called volunteer work. The problem they are facing with this definition is the cultural differences that vary in the definition of immediate family; in some cultures the extended family has a very close relationship to the protagonist, yet the extended family is excluded from the definition.

Furthermore, the question whether volunteering needs to benefit people directly, or may extend to people’s environment, is important (Paine et al. 2010). The following points build on their definition of volunteering and provide a clearer understanding that volunteer participation needs to have some benefit to other people or surroundings.
The six points explored and explained by Paine et al. (2010) include:

- Benefits only to self, immediate family and close friends
- Benefits to members of an extended family
- Self-help and mutual aid activities which benefit members of a small group or tight-knit community as well as the volunteer
- Member benefits
- Volunteering in a “mixed benefactory”
- Volunteering for public benefit

Out of those six suggested scenarios, Paine et al. (2010) regard only the last four points as volunteering. The first one is not regarded as volunteering as they do not consider favours for the individual, immediate family or close friends as doing volunteering; rather they regard this as helping.

The second point, benefits to members of an extended family, is regarded by Paine et al. (2010) as ambiguous because they allow for different cultures to have their own rules regarding what is expected as extended family. However, the main rule is that activities that are beneficial for family are not regarded as volunteering.

For the purpose of this thesis, the last two points made by Paine et al. (2010) are the most relevant. Volunteering in a “mixed benefactory” can be understood as an activity with several beneficiaries, which could include the environment, a local community, the volunteer, an organisation and family members.

Following on from this, in terms of this thesis, it is expected that volunteering at a sport project in the developing world will be beneficial for: a) the organisation, which will get additional human resources for minimal cost; b) the local community, which will benefit through the volunteer’s support work, transfer of knowledge, and networking with international people; and c) the volunteers themselves, who are expected to gain
professional experiences in their field and personal experiences in a different cultural context.

Having discussed a variety of definitions and the specific characteristics highlighted by Paine et al. (2010), it is now possible to define a working definition suitable for this study. As the focus of this thesis is on volunteering at sport for development projects, it should be acknowledged that the working definition is in line with work presented on the official webpage of the Swiss Academy for Sport (2011). It reads:

Volunteering is any activity which involves spending time, unpaid, doing something which aims to benefit someone (individuals or groups) other than or in addition to close relatives, or to benefit the environment for any initiative, project, programme, multi-stakeholder initiative, campaign, or other activity that uses sport as a tool to reach development or humanitarian objectives (Swiss Academy for Sport, 2011).
2.2.2 Who

The “Who” in volunteering relates to the characteristics of people doing volunteer work. In recent years there has been a variety of research exploring the characteristics of volunteers and volunteering (Cnaan et al., 1996; Sherer, 2004; Wilson & Musick, 2000). These characteristics can differ significantly, as the lack of standard practice in volunteering creates a wide range of volunteering activities (Bussell & Forbes, 2002). For example, the characteristics of volunteers are likely to differ among people who volunteer as coaches for their children, and those who volunteer in a human service organisation, a church, or their community.

Contained within these types of voluntary activities are different versions of volunteering in terms of involvement, commitment and time consumption (Hibbert, Piacentini, & Dajani, 2003). For example, there will be differences between a volunteer within a sport club who is coaching a youth team on a regular basis, compared to another volunteer within the same club who sells lotteries to earn money at a specific event.

Overall, volunteering is an activity conducted by different kinds of people from all different backgrounds and age groups. Davis Smith (1998) explains the differences between age groups in general, being that younger volunteers participate in volunteering work as an opportunity for them to gain new skills within a field, while the elderly have more spare time and participate for the social benefits, such as the opportunity to make new friends. Wilson (2000) argues that with the change in human capital, older people are getting priority to be chosen for volunteering. However, Wilson (2000) mentions high-risk volunteering as a field that attracts younger people rather than the elderly.

Gender differences have been discussed in a few studies (Anheier & Salamon, 2001; Downward, Lumsdon, & Ralston, 2005; Downward & Ralston, 2006; J. Wilson, 2000). For example, Downward et al. (2005) conducted research exploring the motivations and
experiences of volunteering among males and females. They found a balanced
distribution of males and females, although females were more likely to “enhance their
personal development, to increase their confidence and to experience a chance of a
lifetime” (p. 229), while “men on the other hand are more likely to volunteer because of
associations with sport and existing sports identity” (p. 234).

Anheier and Salomon (2001) found little systematic gender difference but reported
higher levels of volunteering in the field of social services and health by women, and in
the areas of sport, recreation and culture by men. Ralston, Downward, and Lumsdon
(2004) explain the difference between male and female regarding their tendency to
volunteer. They say that, in general, men have to be asked to participate, preferably with
something associated to their own interests or social benefits, while they argue women
are more likely to reach out to help friends and family with their service.

In other sport studies there have been mixed results. For example, Kim et al. (2010b)
found a significant difference in motivation between genders in their studies of
volunteers at sports events. They suggest that in a particular sport, the gender and age
profile reflects the profile of the participants in the sport.

Downward et al. (2005) further concluded that females are more likely to want to be
involved as a volunteer in a specific sport to redefine their identities and challenge the
constraints they face as females in both sports and work. Males are more likely to
volunteer because of their associations with sport and their existing sports identities
(Downward & Ralston, 2006). Their argument is that there are more male volunteers in
sport due to their likeliness to be elected as chairpersons or board members, or the
opportunity to participate in a senior coaching role.

Downward and Ralston (2006) suggest that there are differences between volunteering
in general, and volunteering in sports. They argue that in sport, male and younger
volunteers are the groups that are most likely to participate as volunteers. Other research
has found that the gender and age profile of the participants in the sport often reflects that of the volunteers (Harrington, Cuskelley, & Auld, 2000). Saying that, Chalip (2006) and Moreno, Moragas, and Paniagua (2000) conclude that the profile of volunteers is broader at larger multisport events.

To date, there have not been any specific studies conducted on gender and age regarding volunteer involvement at sport for development projects in a developing world context. From personal experiences and anecdotal evidence, the majority of volunteers in these activities tend to be from the younger generation, especially students between 20 to 30 years old. In particular, male and female students and those seeking international experiences in a ”gap year” are contributing their services free of charge to different organisations around the world, with the majority being girls who are participating at such organisations. This means that those who participate as volunteers at sporting organisations in the developing world will differ from the norm at other sporting organisations and events.

2.2.3 Where

Volunteering is an activity that is conducted all around the world, ranging from support at large-scale or mega events to smaller community activities. Just as it is a complex task to define the term volunteer, it is also difficult to outline the context in which volunteering occurs (Bussell & Forbes, 2002). Here, the context relates not only to a geographical area, but also to the different types of locations and spaces where volunteers do their work.

Different contexts and types of volunteer work have been explained and explored by various authors. For example, Wilson and Pimm (1996) categorise volunteer locations and related activity under charities, sports clubs, business associations, social clubs, health self-help groups, political groups, religious groups and supportive agencies. Donoghue (2001) mentions organisations or groups, church groups, societies or associations, sports clubs, self-help groups and voluntary groups as different contexts where volunteering participation occurs.
Volunteering England (2012) suggests several different activities or settings for volunteering, ranging from animal welfare to health and social care. This includes volunteering with arts and heritage, the criminal justice system, the environment and conservation, as well as sport. Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) did research on volunteering in human services. Lorimer (2009) investigated the UK volunteers leaving the country to work for international conservation projects, while McDougle, Greenspan, and Handy (2011) examined young adult volunteers in environmental volunteerism.

Many authors also explore volunteers staying away from home, often in a developing country. Good examples are provided by Nawrocik (2010), who researched the overseas experience of western volunteers in Taiwan, and Sherer (2004), who conducted research on local volunteers in Israel. Sherer (2004) found that the social surroundings were a key factor for the volunteers, influencing their motives and their decision to volunteer.

When considering sport as a context of volunteering, research has predominantly focused on sporting events (Bang, Won, & Kim, 2009; Costa, Chalip, & Green, 2006; Downward et al., 2005; Downward & Ralston, 2005, 2006; Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998; Kim, Kim, & Odio, 2010a).

Predominantly, these events have been staged in the developed world where people supported the Olympic Games, Federation Internationale de Football Association (FIFA), Commonwealth Games etc. In these instances, volunteers were mainly recruited from within the country or neighbouring countries.

Sherer (2010) suggested that a system to reach out to young people and families needs to be established to secure on-going volunteer support, and proposed that not only altruistic but also instrumental motives should be highlighted when focusing on
recruiting new volunteers. The motivations – in other words, the “why” of volunteering – will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

Overall, there are a lot of organisations such as the US Peace Corps, Red Cross, and Doctors Without Borders who are engaging in projects that offer volunteering opportunities overseas, and especially in the developing world. However, there is a significant gap in the literature in the area of expectations and experiences of international volunteers at sporting projects in the developing world. This study aims to contribute to closing that gap and provide much needed empirical data in the area.
2.2.4 Why

Volunteer motivation and reasons for why people do volunteering is of great importance for people managing and recruiting volunteers. Many researchers have explored why people do volunteering in several different settings.

Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) tried to measure the motives to volunteer in human services. They found that volunteers do not think of their motivation for participation as being categorised into one underlying motivation. Rather, they act on a combination of different motivations, both altruistic and egoistic. Lorimer (2009) investigated the UK volunteers leaving the country to work for international conservation projects, concluding that volunteering possibly has an impact on international conservation projects. The transfer of money and labour are potential positive impacts.

A study that examined the motivations and mechanisms which influence proclivity and intensity of young adults’ environmental volunteerism was done by McDougle et al. (2011). They wanted to investigate the motivation of young adults volunteering to work for the environment. Their findings explain that their decision to do volunteering for the environment was based upon engagement in the subject, as well as previous volunteering experience in non-profit organisations.

Humanistic organisations and development agencies create opportunities for volunteers to work at international, national, state and local levels at different sport projects and events. Kim et al. (2010b) suggest that “due to the philanthropic and humanitarian mission of organisations that serve children with special needs, volunteer motivation may be unique” (p. 349). They criticise that little is known about the characteristics of volunteers and their management in humanitarian aid and development organisations.
When analysing volunteers and their expectations and experiences, it is important to understand their motivations. Different research has suggested different models and ways of defining and analysing motivation in this context. The approach to defining and analysing volunteer motivation often depends on the social context, and Slaughter and Home (2004) suggest that there is not only one way to assess volunteer motivation, rather there are multiple factors impacting it.

A functional approach (values, understanding, social, career, protective and enhancement) (Clary et al., 1998), a three-category model (altruistic, instrumental and obligation) (Barker 1993), and a two-category model consisting of intrinsic motives and extrinsic hygiene factors (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991) have been applied by different researchers. Similarly, Caldwell and Andereck (1994) used three categories for analysis but named them purposive, solitary and material incentives, while Sherer (2004) named five different motivations for the research of people in the national service (altruistic, instrumental, integrative motives, motives related to peer pressure, and ideological or religious motives).

Another study about motivation among volunteers in different youth organisations used the Modified Volunteer Functions Inventory for Sport (MVFIS) to cover volunteer motivation (Kim et al., 2010b). The MVFIS consists of six factors: value, understanding, social, career, enhancement and protective. The authors concluded that the MVFIS “displayed evidence of good validity and reliability” (p. 347).

Finally, Morrow-Howell and Mui (1989) grouped their participants’ responses regarding volunteer motivations into more generic altruistic, social and material categories.

While all these models and approaches have been applied with some success, the most relevant one for structuring this thesis was the three-category model provided by Barker (1993). Barker built on Morrow-Howell and Mui’s work and identified three basic
motivational factors that explain why people volunteer, namely altruism, instrumentalism and obligation. Barker’s approach underpins the following discussion and provides a structure in accordance with the three categories. It is important to acknowledge that volunteer motivations are often a mix of supporting factors, and categories may at times overlap (Bussell & Forbes, 2002).
2.2.4.1 Altruistic

Batson, Ahmad and Tsang (2002) explain altruistic motives as being “when the goal is to increase the welfare of one or more other individuals” (p. 434). Barker (1993) acknowledges this and states that altruistic motives consist of four senses. First, altruistic motives contain a sense of solidarity for the poor. Second is the sense of the compassion for those in need. Third is identification with suffering people, and the fourth and final motive is the sense of giving hope and dignity to the disadvantaged.

Anderson and Moore (1978) explored the motivations to volunteer and argued that altruism was among the most frequent reasons for doing volunteering. They supported this by saying the desires to help others and to feel useful and needed outweigh other reasons given for volunteers’ motivation in social service agencies.

This view is supported by other researchers exploring volunteers’ motivations and decision making (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). However, recent research shows that this view is not entirely true and is considered rather simplistic. Although altruism is still an important motivational factor, the argument is that the underlying motivations to do volunteer work consist of a combination of different factors.

Donoghue (2001) found the following three motivators to come at the top of volunteering in Ireland: 1) belief in the cause, 2) being asked to help, and 3) wanting to help. Linked to these findings, Cnaan and Godberg-Glen (1991) argued that “the opportunity to do something worthwhile” and “volunteering for others makes me feel better about myself” (p. 278) were the highest ranked comments. These comments support the argument for both altruistic and egotistic motives being motivators for volunteers from a human service perspective (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991).

Meanwhile, Farrell et al. (1998) found, in respect to a special-needs sporting event, the feelings of wanting to help make the event a success, creating a better society, doing something worthwhile, and interaction with others were different motivating factors.

In researching volunteering and long-term commitment, Slaughter and Home (2004) found that there were five key motives: 1) their belief that they are doing something worthwhile that will benefit society, 2) their desire to socialise and be part of a community, 3) the opportunity to gain new skills, 4) external pressure, and 5) tangible
gains. They concluded that the opportunity to learn new skills and to gain experience were distinctly strong motives for long-term volunteers.

The lowest ranked motives of “I was lonely” and “wishing to gain practical experience toward paid employment” supported the social and material-egoistic underlying motivators, as found by Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen (1991, p. 278). Donoghue (2001) also explored reasons or motivations for why people did not volunteer and found that “no time”, “never thought about it” and “never been asked” (p. 9) were the three main reasons for not participating in volunteer work.

2.2.4.2 Instrumental

Instrumental motivational factors argue there are underlying motives to the volunteers’ personal development which impact the decision to volunteer. This is explained by Barron and Rihova (2011) as those “based on the prospect of getting something out of the volunteering experience, and include the concept of career enhancement by increasing one’s human capital, acquiring new skills and knowledge” (p. 205).

Barker (1993) previously stated this and said that instrumental motives to gain new experience and new skills, to do something worthwhile in spare time, to meet people, and to satisfy personal needs were outcomes of his research. Bryman and Bell (2003) explain instrumental motives as egoistic motives.

Anderson and Moore (1978) said that opportunities for “self-fulfilment and personal development” (p. 122) were motives that were seen as important, while companionship and friendship were on the lower end of the response rate. Anderson and Moore (1978) also concluded that “more younger volunteers appear to be interested in gaining opportunities for personal development and growth than do older volunteers” (p. 123).

Galley and Clifton (2004) mention personal development and academic achievement as some of the reasons for participating in overseas expeditions, in their study of motivational and demographic characteristics of research ecotourists. Galley and Clifton also mention that travellers previously were motivated by basic needs for survival, while these days the motivations have their root in modern society.
Galley and Clifton found four motives most frequently expressed by volunteers in ecotourism in Indonesia: 1) to experience something completely new, 2) to take part in a rare opportunity, 3) to observe the diversity of animal species, and 4) to stand out on my CV as invaluable experience. Additionally, they state:

the personal development and academic achievement factor which exists among the volunteers is highly likely to be linked with their educational level and academic abilities, as well as their perceived desire to become more informed about nature-related issues. The volunteers would therefore not consider their expedition to Indonesia as a regular holiday, but more as an opportunity in which they can become more closely associated with nature, and also gain first-hand experience of issues directly related to the unique environment of Sulawesi. (Galley & Clifton, 2004, p. 77)

Kim et al. (2010b) suggest that personal benefit for the volunteer such as improving their professional skills, experiences and credentials are utilised during volunteer participation. Downward and Ralston (2006) suggest that organisations promote to potential volunteers that volunteering could improve their chances of employment, offer them the opportunity to gain new skills and capabilities, enhance and develop their existing skills, enhance their personal development, increase their self-confidence, provide new challenges, look good on a CV and other application forms, and has the potential to change their lives for the better.

Volunteer England (2011) found that there are several motives for people to volunteer, and has used this knowledge to promote the different benefits of volunteering. This organisation explains that some use volunteering as a route to employment or a career change. It emphasises gaining new skills, knowledge and experience as motivating factors, along with developing existing skills and knowledge. These personal development benefits can be utilised to enhance a CV, improve employment prospects, gain an accreditation, and to provide an opportunity to use professional skills and knowledge to benefit others. For those who are inspired to volunteer because of the social benefits, it lists the potential flow-on benefits of meeting people, making new friends, having a chance to socialise, and getting to know the local community.
2.2.4.3 Obligation

Obligation motives could “result from internalized pressure to be consistent with one’s value system and to help maintain one’s positive self-image as one who repays debts” (Cooper & Jayatilaka, 2006, p. 156). Whately et al. (1999) explains that if a person with obligation motives does not redeem such obligations, this could result in self-reproach and guilt.

Barker (1993) mentions motives of dealing with moral and religious duties, contributing to a local community, repaying debt, and a feeling of political duty to bring about change. Over the years the situation within volunteer work has changed (Barker 1993). Barker argues that the recent change is because the former tradition of lifetime volunteers is now decreasing, and the practice of short-time volunteering is increasing. In addition, volunteers now see more of a return for their personal benefit, rather than contribution being regarded as a service to others. They also want to see a connection between the effort they put into volunteering and the results they have achieved (Barker, 1993).

The highest ranking motivators found for volunteering for an elite sporting event were: wanting to help make the event a success, volunteering creates a better society, wanting to do something worthwhile, a desire to put something back into the community, a chance to connect with the community, to help out, to interact with others, and to have the opportunity of a lifetime (Farrell et al., 1998).

At the lower end of the scale, but still valid reasons to do volunteering for an elite sporting event, they found the motives to be: to obtain educational experience, a relative or friend is involved in the sport experience, it is considered prestigious, because other people in the community volunteered, they were expected to volunteer, and wanting to continue a family tradition.
In contrast, in a study on non-profit sport events, Kim et al. (2010b) identified that community belonging was important with people who often volunteer as coaches, referees or team managers. This study acknowledges that motivational factors have been explored in many ways and settings. Slaughter and Home (2004) did a comparative study between human service and events, Donoghue (2001) focused on sports volunteering in Ireland, while Hibbert et al. (2003) had specific research based on volunteer motivation in a community-based food cooperative.

Motivation has also been studied as a relationship to commitment as predictors of volunteers’ intentions to continue to volunteer in the future (Bang et al., 2009). However, this is only one of the parts of overseas volunteering that this study is focusing on. The chapter now continues by exploring possible volunteer outcomes of volunteer participation.

2.2.5 Volunteer Outcomes

Volunteer outcomes are just as valid for the communities and the organisation, as well as for the volunteers. This section highlights possible outcomes of volunteering as human, social and cultural capital for the volunteer.

Wilson and Musick (1997) argue that the theory among volunteer participation and the reasons for starting to volunteer require human, social and cultural capital. Donoghue (2001) confirms that health and social gain are interlinked. Recent research tends to conclude that volunteer motivations consist of multiple motivational factors from each of the different capitals (Allison, Okun & Dutridge, 2002; Bussell & Forbes, 2002; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Farrell et al., 1998; Kim et al., 2010b).

One of the most widely explained theories of volunteering involves four categories of characteristics of volunteers: exogenous factors, human capital, social capital and cultural capital (Wilson & Musick, 1997). Exogenous factors refer to age, gender and race of the volunteer, otherwise known as the demographic factors. Volunteers possess human capital as well. This is a term to cover the resources the volunteer contains, such as knowledge, skills and personality, which are unique for each individual volunteer (Wilson & Musick, 1997). Social capital – the stock of trust, networks and reciprocity – defines what a volunteer is about; their social connections, and the strength and validity
of those connections (Putnam, 1995). Finally, cultural capital is explained by how much value there is to a person to help out other people (Wilson & Musick, 1997). This thesis acknowledges that the three capital categories of characteristics of volunteers are of great importance. Therefore, they will be explained in more detail next.

2.2.5.1 Human Capital

Many authors consider that human capital has an impact on volunteering. Human capital, according to Wilson and Musick (1997), is explained as covering education, income and functional health, while Donoghue (2001) state that human capital includes knowledge, skills and the health of individuals. Anheier and Salomon (2001) state that volunteering varies with education, with higher educated people to be more likely to volunteer than less educated. McPherson and Rotolo (1996) also found that the level of education is the most consistent predictor of volunteering, with education increasing the chance of volunteering due to the volunteers’ raised awareness of problems and issues, and increased empathy and self-confidence (Brady, Verba, & Schlozman, 1995).

However, there are inconsistencies in the field. Some authors have argued that high socio-economic people are more willing to volunteer (Caldwell & Andereck, 1994), whilst others have disagreed and suggest the opposite (Lammers, 1991).

2.2.5.2 Cultural Capital

Cultural capital is discussed by Wilson and Musick (1997) in respect to it covering the religiosity of a person and how much of value it is to a person to be helping out other people. Wilson and Musick (1997) suggest from their findings that religiosity is related to formal volunteering.

This is supported by Wilson and Janoski (1995) who claim that volunteering was found to be affected by ethnic and religious factors. Reasons why religious people are more likely to volunteer is due to their attendance at church and the culture of helping others that is taught as part of the church culture (Wilson & Musick, 1997).
Cultural capital and altruistic motives relate quite closely. Altruism is defined as self-sacrifice with no apparent personal rewards (Unger, 1991). Cultural capital can therefore be seen as part of the altruistic motives. This has been investigated by several authors (Anheier & Salamon, 2001; Unger, 1991). An altruistic motive, such as the opportunity to do something worthwhile, has been suggested to be among the highest ranked motives for volunteering (Anderson & Moore, 1978; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Liao-Troth & Dunn, 1999).

### 2.2.5.3 Social Capital

Social capital is stated by Wilson and Musick (1997) as being positively related to formal volunteering. Social informal interactions are connected to formal volunteering, because of the social aspects of meeting new people (Wilson & Musick, 1997). Coalter (2007) explains social capital as the “social networks based on social and group norms which enable people to trust and cooperate with each other and through which individuals or groups can obtain certain types of advantage” (2007, p. 540).

Putnam (1995) states that participation in society or the community is vital in the description of social capital, and also says that it is based on trust and on belonging to social networks and organisations. Freeman (1997) adds that people with more social ties are more likely to be asked to volunteer. Freeman (1997) also states that people with high social capital will be more likely to volunteer since they will have a higher chance of being asked to volunteer because of, and through, their social networks and associations.

Wilson (2000) suggests that social networks explain why extroverted people are more likely to volunteer, the higher rate of volunteering amongst married people and parents, and why religious people volunteer more. He states that “extroverted people are more
likely to volunteer because there is nothing in extroversion as such that would predict helping others” (p. 223).

Although it is argued that social capital could lead to volunteering, there are some critiques that argue against this as well. It is the nature of volunteer work that decides whether a social tie is positive or negative, and the social tie could also be insignificant to the decision about volunteering (McAdam & Paulsen, 1993).

Social capital in sport for development has been discussed by several authors (Coalter, 2007; Misener & Mason, 2006; Schulenkorf et al., 2011; Skinner, Zakus, & Cowell, 2008). In particular, research on the wider roles of sport has been conducted by Coalter (2007) who explores the impact that sports projects in disadvantaged communities have on the development of social capital.

Both Coalter (2007) and Skinner et al. (2008) discuss how building, bonding and bridging social capital is important to see lasting benefits of sport programmes. Here, volunteers hold a significant role in facilitating the creation of social capital. For example, volunteers help in creating an environment where people can have fun, be entertained and experience community pride, which, according to Moscardo (2007), are important elements for the creation of social capital.

Donoghue (2001) explains the concept of social capital as “social relations, that is, in the relationships and interacting among individuals and groups” (p. 6), arguing that sport is a social activity, even for those sports in which a person may be the sole participant, hence the impact that social capital has on the decision to volunteer.

To summarise the paragraphs relating to exogenous factors and human, social and cultural capital, Haski-leventhal, Meijis, and Hustinx (2009) say that, “Volunteering can have a positive impact on the individual volunteer as well: it can increase physical and psychological wellbeing, create a wider social network, reduce loneliness, help youth volunteers overcome adolescence-related problems and more” (p. 140).
2.3 Volunteering in Sport

Volunteering at the local club, at a national governing body or at the Olympic Games shows that volunteers contribute at all levels within the field of sport, and, in all of these sectors, volunteers play an important role (Cuskelly, Hoye, & Auld, 2006b). Both Cuskelly et al. (2006b) and Downward and Ralston (2005) confirm that sport is a field with volunteering at many levels, and evidence found sport volunteers represent the largest category of volunteers in Australia and in the United Kingdom (UK). Research of sporting volunteers ranges from sporting events (Bang et al., 2009; Costa et al., 2006; Downward & Ralston, 2005, 2006), sport for development and peace (Darnell, 2010), youth sport organisation (Kim et al. (2010b)), long-term volunteers (Slaughter & Home, 2004) and volunteering in sports in general (Donoghue, 2001). As this thesis’ overall aim was to find out more about volunteers that donate their time and effort at sport for development projects, it therefore builds on previous research in the area.

The significance of volunteers within sport is well established. Sports organisations are seen as significant in the discussion of the importance of civil society for modern societies (Seippel, 2010). In this context, the importance of volunteers to economic viability, training and development, and community support has been acknowledged (Downward & Ralston, 2005).

Bang et al. (2009) argue that volunteers are among the most vital human resource in creating successful sporting events. Cuskelly et al. (2006a) go on to say that without volunteers, some sports organisations simply would not exist.

Kim et al. (2010b) state that in the UK, 26% of all volunteers are involved in sport, and sports clubs and sporting events depend on volunteers on different levels in their organisation. Kim et al. (2010a) talk about volunteering in mega-sporting events, stating that “Volunteering in mega-sporting events is an exceptionally memorable experience for individuals and constitutes an indispensable labour source to the event by delivering service to athletes, officials, spectators, and tourists” (p. 132). Once seen as an activity without adequate influence and reputation, Anheier and Salomon (2001) suggest that
“volunteering enjoys greater political and cultural recognition today than it did in past decades” (p. 1).

Costa et al.’s (2006) research on sport event volunteers argued that “opportunities to share opinions and experiences during training help build volunteers’ sense of community” (p. 165) and further suggested that this will have a positive effect on the volunteers’ commitment. They also found that volunteers are not necessarily attracted to a job, but that they are there to experience a feeling of belonging to the subculture of a sport/event, and hence they argue that volunteering becomes an opportunity to feel part of the subculture.

While many studies have been conducted on volunteering, less work has been conducted on volunteering overseas. In particular, it is difficult to find any studies that have investigated the expectations and experiences of volunteers who spent their time volunteering at sport projects abroad.

2.4 The Field of Sport

“Sport” is a powerful word in terms of meaning, impact, coverage and popularity. The definition says that “sports are all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental well-being, and social interaction” (United Nations, 2003, p. 2), including “play, recreation, organised or competitive sport, and indigenous sports and games” (SDP IWG, 2007, p. 164). These definitions indicate the wide range of contexts and fields of sports.

The term “sport” is often associated with words such as champions, winners, Olympics and happiness, although on the flip side of this description, sport encompasses some of the worst traits, including violence, corruption, discrimination, hooliganism, excessive nationalism, cheating and drug abuse (United Nations, 2003).

Some possible positive outcomes of sport include an overall healthier population, the opportunity to promote peace, and prevent violence for the community, nations and the global society (United Nations, 2003). Beutler (2008) says that “sport is about humanity, and together, with sport and through sport, a better world can be created” (p. 360).

Sport has been recognised as a common language and as a tool to create. It can be used as a means of “building bridges between people; it can help overcome the cultural
differences and create a common understanding and tolerance between participants” (Beutler, 2008, p. 359).

However, Sugden (2004) recognises that sport is a social construct and that it is not good or bad, but is dependent upon “what organisations make of it, and how it is consumed” (p. 251). He warns not to exaggerate the importance of sport. With the various possible positive impacts that sport can achieve, it is easy to get a “too good” impression of the impacts of sport.

Sport is nowadays more recognised and researched than the traditional sport and exercise sciences. For example, Darnell (2010) argues that meeting international development goals such as promoting sustainable health practices, facilitating peace and post conflict integration, and supporting economic development and capacity building, are areas where sport has a role to play. In fact, there has been a shift in the view by practitioners, academics and support agencies such as the UN regarding sports’ social potential.

The UN states in their 2003 report: “The aim of United Nations activities involving sport is not the creation of new sporting champions and the development of sport but rather the use of sport in broader development and peace-building activities” (United Nations, 2003, p. 2). The report adds that “while in some instances such activities may lead to the development of sport, the primary desired outcome is to contribute to overall development via sport-related projects” (p. 2). This emphasises the socio-cultural importance sport is gaining in our global society.

Research on the intangible benefits of sport and event projects has been increasing significantly over the past two decades. While most of the early research has focused on the economic impacts of events (Gratton, Dobson, & Shibli, 2000; Preuss & Solberg, 2006; Wilson, 2006), the focus has changed more recently towards other more intangible impacts such as social (Coalter, 2007; Doherty & Misener, 2008; Kidd, 2008; Silvestre, 2008), cultural (Schinke et al., 2008), psychological (Clary & Snyder, 1999), and political and/or environmental impacts (Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis, & Mules, 2000; McDougle et al., 2011; Preuss, 2006; Teigland, 1999). Along with the shift towards social impact, came the rise of the field of sport for development, which has received greater recognition the last decade (Black, 2010; Burnett, 2010; Coalter, 2010b; Darnell, 2010; Kidd, 2008).
2.4.1 Sport for Development

Sport for development is among the newest terms in the field of sport, and refers to the different ways that sport can work as a tool for development and peace. Specifically, sport for development focuses on developing disadvantaged communities. This does not suggest that sport for development may not be applied to settings in developed countries; however, the focus of most sport for development work is taking place within the developing world, with sport projects trying to contribute to community well-being, physical and social health, social cohesion and capital building (Kidd, 2008; Schulenkorf, 2009).

The official webpage of the Swiss Academy for Sport talks about sport for development as:

Actors in sport, academia, private sector, non-profit and non-governmental organisations, government agencies, UN agencies and international organisations, the media, the general public as well as young people are increasingly interested in the potential of sport as a tool to reach personal, community, national and international development objectives. (Swiss Academy for Sport, 2011)

The webpage continues to say “They are also interested in how sport can be used as a tool for addressing some of the challenges that arise from humanitarian crises and in conflict and post-conflict settings (Swiss Academy for Sport, 2011).

The sport for development phenomenon has become more and more recognised for the potential positive impact it has on our society. The sport for development movement is nowadays associated with projects that are used to develop surroundings, games, societies and other in-demand impact areas.

As an example, the UN works to achieve a “better” world for populations around the globe. To achieve this goal, all the countries in the world decided in the year 2000 to have a common goal for the work against poverty. The eight millennium development goals were established as a guideline for countries to work towards peace, security, alleviation of poverty and the overall respect of human rights. The eight specific goals are to:
1) Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
2) Achieve universal primary education
3) Promote gender equality and empower women
4) Reduce child mortality
5) Improve maternal health
6) Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
7) Ensure environmental sustainability
8) Develop a global partnership for development (Sport and Development International Conference, 2003)

In recent years, sport has been acknowledged as a tool to help the UN on their way towards achieving these goals. A related policy document, the 2003 Magglingen Declaration, was created. The Magglingen Declaration resulted from the proceedings of the first International Conference on Sport and Development held from 16 to 18 February 2003 in Magglingen, Switzerland. Here, sport bodies highlighted the importance of sport in violence and crisis situations; sport in conflict prevention and peace promotion; sport and health; sport and education; media for sport and development; the role of sport in local development and social dialogue; managing safe and sustainable sports programmes; and corporate social responsibility with the goals of creating a better world through sport (Sport and Development International Conference, 2003). In one of the first discussions of the wider sport for development sector, Kidd (2008) examined the social, economic and ideological contexts of sport for development, acknowledging that there are a growing number of national and international agencies and organisers involved. Kidd (2008) highlights that a large number of different organisations work towards sport for development and peace. He uses Kicking AIDS Out as an example of a project to teach personal health and sexual responsibilities, UNICEF’s Open Football Schools are used to teach kids about the dangers of landmines, and Peace Players International attempted to implement communication and cooperation from different ethnic groups and religions.

According to Darnell (2007), organisations “use sport, physical activity and play as tools to facilitate social improvement in nations and communities targeted for development” (p. 560).
In addition to specific sport for development programmes, there are many larger aid organisations currently dealing with sport for development, being: United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), United Nations Volunteer (UNV), the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the World Health Organisation (WHO) (Beutler, 2008). Specific to sport, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and Olympic Committees from First World countries like Canada, USA, Norway, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, Netherlands and UK, started to contribute more significantly to development through sport (Kidd, 2008).

Finally, Levermore (2010) highlights that corporate organisations such as Adidas, Coca Cola, FIFA, Nike, Deloitte and Vodafone contribute to this sector through their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) programmes. Most importantly, NGOs have been on the forefront of implementing sport for development projects. Their work is going to be presented and discussed in the following sections.

Many authors have investigated the field of sport for development from different perspectives. Giulianotti (2011) provided a contextual analysis of the sport, development and peace sectors, while Coalter (2010b) explored the meaning of sport for development and how it affects social capital. Schwery (2003), on the other hand, studied the potential for sport for development and peace, while Sugden (2006) provided one of the first in-depth case studies on sport for conflict resolution and co-existence in Israel. This overview suggests that there are also different views of how sport for development can be used to benefit the community. For example, sport and health, sport and education, sport and sustainable development, and sport and peace are all different fields where sport development has arguably made an impact (United Nations, 2003). These fields are now presented in more detail.

2.4.2 Sport and Health

Sport and health is associated with the benefits provided to the population by keeping fit and active. For example, the UN (2003) argues “evidence shows that regular participation in physical activity programs provides all people with a wide range of physical, social and mental health benefits” (p. 5). The wider influence of sport participation is that it creates awareness of “diet strategy, discourage the use of tobacco, alcohol and drugs, and enhance functional capacity” (United Nations, 2003, p. 5).
Wilson (2000) argues that physical and mental health could be regarded as a consequence of volunteering. This belief is founded in his argument that volunteering is a social role producing beneficial health effects from the social ties and networks achieved. Wilson (2000) regards volunteering to be a way to integrate people into communities, and as mental health is an outcome of social integration, he posits that mental health should be regarded as a possible consequence of volunteering.

Wichstrøm and Wichstrøm (2009) investigated how sport participation during adolescence had an impact on, or later prevented, alcohol, tobacco and cannabis use. They argued that “sport has at least five features that may affect the risk for young people’s use of cannabis, tobacco and alcohol” (p. 138).

The five features are: social activity, age segregation, time spent on sport, adult supervision and orientation towards success (Wichstrøm & Wichstrøm, 2009). Wichstrøm and Wichstrøm (2009) argue that most sports involve other people, meaning that there is an opportunity to increase the social network of participants. They also believed that the use of drugs and alcohol is a social activity. By stating this, they indicated that sport could possibly increase the risk of drug use. They indicate that age segregation has an influence, whether sport is done with same-aged and same-sex people, or if they do sport with older adolescents. In the latter example, they believe that participation in sport is more likely to increase the risk of smoking, drinking and drugs. They argue that the more time spent participating, the less time participants have to do other activities, including smoking, drinking and doing drugs, and that adult supervision, and especially parental supervision, could similarly limit any problems. Lastly, the more professional and success-oriented an adolescent is, the less likely the adolescent will be to start smoking, or taking drugs or alcohol, because it will impact negatively on the physical activity.

Physical activities are often connected to positive effects on an individual’s health. This is widely acknowledged both amongst academics and by the general public (Lechner, 2008). Lechner (2008) introduced in the research that “sport activities might signal to potential employers that individuals enjoy good health, are motivated and thus will perform well on the job” (p. 2). However, Becker, Klein, and Schneider (2006) stated that it is not certain whether good health increases sports activity, or if it is sports activities that improve health.
The UN (2003) report suggests that people from low socio-economic groups are the least likely to participate in sport, due to the problems of access and unequal opportunity. Arguably, an investment in sport for development to increase social and economic opportunities of people can therefore be seen as an investment in the population and work-force.

This section argues that sport has an impact on health, although there are more areas than sports which have an impact. However, it is acknowledged that health is one of the positive outcomes of sport participation and physical activity. In the following section, the area of educational capital where sport could have an impact is explored.

2.4.3 Sport and Educational Capital

Sport and education can be combined both in schools (as a part of education) or outside school (as a lesson for life). The latter is possibly more important due to the opportunity of learning basic values, life skills, cooperation, the creation of confidence and communication when participating in sport (United Nations, 2003). The UN (2003) highlights the importance of sport and education in and around the school system, helping to create equal opportunity for participation, irrespective of gender, ethnicity or ability.

Sport and education can also be seen as a vehicle to give knowledge about the positive impacts of sport participation, and the creation of awareness of social and health problems such as the threat of HIV/AIDS, and dangers of tobacco and drug use.

Lindsay and Banda (2010) explain that the participation in sport and its impact on the fight against HIV/AIDS should be a partnership approach. They explore the nature of such partnerships that work towards this. This reflects one of the millennium goals in Zambia and showed that such partnerships are important to raise awareness and reach out to people.

Mwaanga (2010) insists that in the work against HIV/AIDS the people involved in sports, especially the leaders, hold the power of sport, rather than the sport itself. This means it is the way leaders choose to use sport as a tool that decides the impact sport has on education and how it creates knowledge and awareness among participants.

Sport has been explored to determine the impact on the participants’ performance at school. Sport and education attainment has been explored by Cornelißen and Pfeifer
(2007). In their study on German adolescents, which explored if those who “participate in outside school activities have better educational attainment in form of secondary school degrees and professional degrees” (p. 2), Cornelißen and Pfeifer (2007) concluded that “participation of German adolescents in sport activities has significant positive effect on educational attainment” (p. 14).

As shown in this section, there are many possible outcomes of sport related to school, both in knowledge and also in terms of how participation can possibly affect the students. Cornelißen and Pfeifer (2007) summarise this point by saying that “the positive effect of sport activities should encourage politics to strengthen sport activities in school and out of school” (p. 15).

2.4.4 Sport and Social Capital

Connected to the theory that volunteers produce, consume and re-produce social capital, Donoghue (2001) suggests that “sport is a social activity, even where individuals may engage in an endeavour alone, there is the involvements of others at the level of organising the sports activity, hence sport builds up social capital” (p. 6). A conclusion is reached that volunteering in sports organisations is both contributing to, and building, social capital for sport participants (Donoghue, 2001).

Ottesen et al. (2010) used Putnam’s theories on building social capital and examined the development of social capital within football and running participants. Their study states that social capital could be considered as a by-product of sport activities, and also that the different sports performed have an impact on what kind of social capital is a possible outcome.

Relating to this, Costa et al. (2006) highlighted the importance of creating and building a sense of community among the volunteers and staff, which has flow-on effects on the creation of social capital internally. Sherry, Karg, and O’May (2011) also acknowledged the latest work on sport to create social capital, and its popularity. They explored the building of social capital in sporting events, saying that “the role of social capital in attitudinal change is emphasised, specifically bridging capital that signifies the creation of relationship between disparate individuals” (p. 111). In their findings Sherry et al. (2011) confirm that their participants changed attitude, saying that this supports their argument that “events can facilitate the building of social capital” (p. 122) and summarising by saying that “by creating increased understanding between different
social groups, greater community cohesion and more inclusive social capital may be developed” (p. 122).

However, Numerato and Baglioni (2011) discuss the negative side of social capital in sport, saying that “the dark side of social capital as situations in which trust, social ties and shared beliefs and norms that may be beneficial to some persons are detrimental to other individuals, sport movements, or for society at large” (p. 1). They argue that rather than bonding and bridging people, sport may work as a place for social exclusion because it “reinforces the networks of insiders and exclude outsiders” (p. 4). In addition, “social bonds created in sport are sometimes misused for commercial interest” or they help to “maintain and reproduce a normative framework that is contradictory to idealised myths about sport being exclusively beneficial” (p. 4).

Day and McDonald (2010) support this and say that the outcomes of social capital and the return to the individual may vary between different social groups, implying that “social capital may play a more important role in advancement for white males than for other groups” (p. 139). In their discussion, Day and McDonald (2010) say that “the impact of social capital is contingent on race, as different types of contact generate different mobility returns for black and white coaches” (p. 152).

This section highlights possible positive social capital outcomes, although it also stresses that not all sports projects produce social capital and not all achieve positive outcomes. Some are quite exclusive and therefore hinder people from participating and experiencing social capital.

2.4.5 Sport and Peace

Arguably, the area of sport and peace is a tool to not only prevent or heal conflicts, but can also be an element for the creation of sustainable peace (United Nations, 2003). Sport as a common language may provide people and communities with the power necessary to promote social interaction and to create tolerance and respect (Schulenkorf, 2009; Sugden, 2006; United Nations, 2003).

The area of sport for development has in recent years increased its understanding of, and acknowledgement for, the power that sport holds towards promoting development and peace (Beutler, 2008; Kidd, 2008). This was partly due to the United Nations’
creation of their Office for Sport for Development and Peace, which is headed by the adviser to the UN General Secretary, Mr Willi Lemke.

Sport and peace can be promoted in disadvantaged communities by international organisations. Within such a context, the recommendations given by the UN (2003) are that sport should be “equity driven and culturally relevant” as well as based upon “the sport-for-all model, ensuring that all groups are given the opportunity to participate, particularly those who gain additional benefits such as women, persons with disabilities and young people” (p. 24).

Kidd (2008) highlights the change from the traditional towards a new approach that focuses on empowering communities and teaching locals. Teaching individuals skills in both management and social values is seen as necessary and important for the advancement of knowledge, ensuring partnerships and peace.

According to Lyras (2008), international organisations and sport managers have the opportunity to initiate and implement activities that will serve as a vehicle to help resolve important social issues. Therefore, sport is a powerful tool, which, when used for peace and development, can create positive social change for people in disadvantaged community settings.

Kidd (2008) states that “in recent years, national and international sports organisations, governments and NGOs, universities and schools have conducted programs in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) and the disadvantaged communities of the First World to assist sports development (e.g. Olympic Solidarity), humanitarian relief (e.g. Right to play), post-war reconciliation (e.g. Playing for Peace), and broad social development (e.g. Kick AIDS Out)” (p. 370).

Sugden (2006) highlights that only if these development projects “are locally grounded, carefully thought out, and professionally managed they can make a modest contribution to wider efforts to promote conflict resolution and peaceful co-existence” (p. 221). Both Sugden (2006) and Schulentorf (2009) stress the importance of including local people in decision-making processes, while the sporting organisation is working as an agent (in the background) to implement the programme.

Within this context, one of the issues acknowledged by Kidd (2008) is that when teaching locals in the developing world, the locals often take their new knowledge and
use it as a gateway out and away to a “better life.” However, the idea is to increase the knowledge and skill of the local people, so that the transfer of knowledge increases the skills in the local community. The goal is that at the end, the local community will run by itself without any external help.

Black (2010) discusses the ambiguities of development and highlights a number of important issues. He says that it is complicated to keep development projects sustainable, and acknowledges the difficulty of transferring development knowledge to other social and cultural settings. One of the issues is the lack of communication and collaboration between different development actors in different sectors and institutes.

It can be concluded that a lot more practical work on the ground needs to be conducted to understand and help create suitable management processes and policy development in this area. Coalter (2010a) further raises awareness of dangers with the new approach of sport for development, where advocates tend to confuse:

potential micro-level individual outcomes with community and broader macro-level impacts, ignoring wider socio-political contexts within which sport for development organisations have to operate, seeking to solve broad gauge problems via limited focus interventions, and, encouraging mission drift by sport for development organisations wholly dependent on aid from a variety of aid agencies (p. 295).

It is important to realise that sport itself cannot solve the world problems of wars or provide reconciliation between estranged (ethnic) groups. Rather it can work as a part of larger projects (SDP IWG, 2007). SPD IWG (2007) states that sport programmes can and should be “part of comprehensive peace-building initiative” (p. 184) and “evidence suggests that such programs should be accessible, community-based, culturally sensitive” (p. 184).

SPD IWG (2007) also states that sport for development and peace programmes might create false and elaborate expectations that cannot be met. “Sports themselves are unable to address problematic political structures, employment, access to land, an egalitarian distribution of income, elementary health provision, affordable housing, educational opportunities, clean water and campaigns to address AIDS” (SDP IWG, 2007, p. 176).
However, despite their criticism, the SDP IWG confirms that many projects and organisations show positive outcomes. “Since sport offers important opportunities for social networking and relationship building, it may complement peace-building strategies based on relational spaces” (SDP IWG, 2007, p. 177).

There is an overall agreement that the only way to proceed towards realising the ambitious sport and peace goals, is for culturally relevant projects to be complemented with rigorous research work. This thesis aims to contribute to this space by focusing on one of the key participants in the sport for development field, namely international volunteers.

2.5 Gap

This thesis brings together three significant areas of research, namely sport, volunteering and developing world theories. It combines volunteer management with sport in the developing world context. Within all three areas, numerous research studies have been conducted. In volunteering, motivations for volunteering and the different types of volunteering are only two of the fields that have been explored. Sport has been analysed in all sorts of ways. Recent studies have tried to ascertain how sport impacts on our society, the economy, people’s psyche and the environment. For decades different countries in the developing world have been the setting for numerous social studies, aid and development work, many of which have focused on how to make life better for people in the developing world.

A significant gap found in this literature review relates to the experiences, expectations and characteristics of overseas volunteers at sporting projects in the developing world. Although volunteers’ expectations and experiences have been investigated previously, it remains to be seen if their intentions, motivations and experiences are similar at sport projects in a developing world context.
2.6 Looking Back and Looking Forward

This chapter provided an overview on the literature on volunteers and the volunteering market. It has highlighted theories on volunteering in general before moving into the sport for development space. The literature review also looked at volunteering in sport, and sport for development projects in particular. The literature review identified a gap in the inter-connection between volunteers, sport and the developing world. Therefore, the main objective of this research was to investigate a new field, attempting to contribute to discussions on volunteerism in an international context, with a particular focus on sport for development volunteers. In the following chapter, an outline of the methodology and methods that underpin this research will be provided.
Chapter 3. **Research Methodology**

3.1 Introduction

This chapter has been divided into two interrelated sections; the research methodology, and the research methods. The methodology section provides the theoretical and philosophical concepts that underpin this research and outlines the research design which is based on a qualitative single case study approach. The methods section explains the two qualitative methods used for data collection, namely semi-structure in-depth interviews and focus groups. Further on the chapter describes the thematic analysis process, acknowledges potential bias, highlights the ethical considerations undertaken and discusses the limitation of the project.

3.2 Social Context and Setting

In recent years, Sri Lanka has experienced several disasters; both natural and man-made disasters have impacted the Sri Lankan community and lead to a divided society. Consequences of civil war, ethnic tensions and regular terrorist acts have characterised Sri Lankan history (Schulenkorf, 2009), while Sri Lanka was also exposed to the 2004 Tsunami catastrophe. This has led to the importance of NGOs, including the one featuring in this thesis, A.G.S.E.P., to help Sri Lanka to re-establish the trust towards the different ethnic groups, and to help people enjoy water activities without fearing for their lives. Civil war, ethnic tension and terrorist acts have made it extremely difficult to include all the ethnic groups in development activities, and to get them to live and cooperate.

The empirical part of the research project will be conducted in the A.G.S.E.P. headquarters in Marawila, Sri Lanka. This challenging location has been chosen for several reasons. A.G.S.E.P. was willing to host and cooperate with me for the duration of my research. Furthermore, A.G.S.E.P. has been working in the research space for a number of years and has contacts within the country that were of benefit during the research. This is a well established, trustworthy and reliable organisation, running as an everyday business in the local community. The programme has different events and social projects that have proven to impact positively on the community, emphasising their significance (Schulenkorf, 2009). In addition, involvement in Sri Lanka is of major interest of the researcher, and getting the opportunity to explore the country and local communities up-close was considered a once in a life time opportunity. Apart from
being a Masters project, this research also enhances the personal development and experience of the researcher, gaining insight in a new country, language and culture.

Finally, by focusing on a single case study I was required to contribute to the actual project and explore, research, experience and observe the action. This was a major benefit for the research in terms of knowledge creation and access to the organisation and beyond. Taken together, these factors made A.G.S.E.P. a perfect fit for this thesis.

3.3 Research Objective

The overall purpose of this research project was to investigate different experiences, expectations and characteristics of overseas volunteers at sporting projects in the developing world. In particular, this study was built on the following research objectives:

Objective 1: To investigate characteristics of sport for development volunteers
Objective 2: To investigate expectations of sport for development volunteers
Objective 3: To investigate experiences of sport for development volunteers
Objective 4: To discover implications and highlight recommendations for future study and practice in the field of sport for development volunteers

This study utilised qualitative research methodology, using a single case study combining interviews and focus groups with volunteers in their natural settings to “learn about some aspect of the social world and to generate new understandings that then can be used” (Rossman & Rallis, 2003, p. 4).

3.4 Research Paradigm

According to Usher (1996) “paradigms are frameworks that function as maps or guides for scientific communities determining important problems or issues for its members to address and defining acceptable theories or explanations, methods and techniques to solve defined problems” (p. 15). This is supported by Bryman and Bell (2003) who indicate that a paradigm is how a researcher or a scientist within a certain discipline justifies what should be studied, how the studies are going to be conducted, and how the outcome should be interpreted. It is important to keep in mind that the paradigm which will be used for the particular research will have implications for the research design as well as for the data collection that will be used (Bryman & Bell, 2003). However, not only is it the approach and the methods used which are determined by the paradigm, the
purpose of the research and the roles of the researcher are also determined through it (Firestone 1987 as cited in Glesne, 1999). It can be argued that the research paradigm is to be considered as the recipe of each research project.

There are two main types of paradigms based on epistemological concerns about what should be considered as acceptable knowledge. There is either positivism or interpretivism, with the latter being the one suitable for this particular research. While positivism suggests that the reality is objectively given so that findings are independent of observer and the methods utilised (Schulenkorf, 2009), interpretive research is “predicated upon the view that a strategy is required that respects the differences between people and objects of the natural sciences and therefore requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of social action” (Bryman & Bell, 2003, p. 19). This means that the researcher thinks of reality as socially constructed, and that it is best explored and interpreted through interaction with social actors. Overall, while positivism is seeking explanations of human behaviour, interpretivism puts emphasis on understanding human behaviour (Bryman & Bell, 2003) and accepts the fact that research is ideologically driven, and that there will be no value-free or bias-free research (Janesick, 1994).

3.4.1 Interpretivism

This study is undertaken by using a qualitative research strategy under an interpretivist paradigm, which by Glesne (1999) could also be referred to as constructivist research. Bryman and Bell (2003) define that “constructionism is an ontological position which asserts that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors” (p. 23). Constructionism emphasises the hold our culture has on us: it shapes the way in which we see things and gives us a quite definite view of the world” (Crotty, 1998, p. 54). Constructivism begins with the premise that the human world is different from the natural, physical world and therefore must be studied differently (Lincoln & Guba, 1990). Crotty (1998) discusses the distinction made between constructivism and constructionism, saying: “Constructionism describes the individual human subject engaging with objects in the world and making sense of them. Constructionism, to the contrary, denies that this is what actually happens, at least in the first instance” (p. 79).
As opposed to positivists, the interpretivists argue that social realities are multifaceted and complicated. An interpretivist approach not only identifies existing occurrences or situations (i.e. the “what”) at a given point in time. Rather, it strives to look below the phenomenon’s existence to answer “why” and “how” it exists (Yin, 2009). As the social actors can have diverse perceptions of reality, the interpretivist research attempts to identify and recognise the variety of different perceptions from different social actors (Glesne, 1999). Interpretivism is explained to respect the differences between people and the objects of the natural sciences, and therefore requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of social action (Bryman & Bell, 2003).

Glesne (1999) explains the interpretivist researchers explore the world where “the reality is socially constructed, complex, and ever changing” (p. 5). In interpretive approaches the position of the researcher is to interact with participants, to be able to best understand their social constructions (Glesne, 1999). In other words, the socially constructed realities that arise from shared values, beliefs and meanings of social actors are explored and analysed by interpretivists (Glesne, 1999). The interpretivist paradigm makes the researcher “relate and interact with your participants in an effort to come to understand their experiences and the meaning they ascribe to them” (Grant & Giddings, 2002, p. 16). The role of the researcher is inter-subjective; the researcher will listen to the participant and then interpret the data obtained through interaction with the participant (Grant & Giddings, 2002). As the different social actors hold various perceptions of reality, the interpretivist intends to identify and recognise the various perceptions among social actors (Glesne, 1999; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Accordingly, as social actions take place within perceived social realities, there is the possibility – or even likelihood – that different researchers or observers will interpret situations differently.

Interpretive research determines and interprets findings through the identification of common themes, which are sequentially compared and discussed with the relevant literature (Bryman & Bell, 2003). This is therefore an inductive study, where “the researcher infers the implication of his or her findings for the theory that prompted the whole exercise” (Bryman & Bell, 2003, p. 12). Therefore, the inductive process uses data to inform the development of theory.

This study is of an interpretive nature and aims to understand volunteers’ expectations and experiences in sport for development. Similarly, in Glesne (1999) the interpretivist
position has been applied to discover the different perceptions from diverse participants within the groups of future, current and previous volunteers, achieving a range of different perspectives.

3.5 Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is the most obvious approach when the epistemological position of the interpretivist is utilised and the ontological belief of the constructionist is considered (Bryman & Bell, 2003). The research question itself determines the method, and when the research questions includes why or what investigations, the qualitative research is the most suitable approach (Bryman & Bell, 2003; Yin, 2009). Following is an explanation of the six main steps in qualitative research (Bryman & Bell, 2003, p. 406), and how these are countered in this research:

1) General research question
2) Selecting relevant sites and subjects
3) Collection of relevant data
4) Interpretation of data
5) Conceptual and theoretical work
   a. Tighter specification of the research question(s)
   b. Collection of further data
6) Writing up findings/conclusions

Step 1 is given by the title of this research and the previously discussed research questions; the study focuses on the expectations and experiences of volunteers in a particular context at a given organisation in the developing world. The research question is “What are the expectations and experiences of sport for development volunteers?”

Step 2 focuses on where the research is conducted and who the subjects of the research are. This research focuses on the volunteers within A.G.S.E.P., located in Marawila, Sri Lanka. Relevant data is collected through in-depth interviews and focus groups, and secondary data is also utilised.

For Step 4, data was interpreted following an inductive thematic analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Thematic analysis makes it possible for the researchers to handle a large amount of data, and it is possible to “provide rich and detailed, yet complex, account of data” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 78). Thematic analysis can underline differences and
similarities within the content, and it can provide unanticipated insights. This will be explained further under the data analysis part of this chapter.

The conceptual and theoretical work in Step 5 happens after the interpretation of data and when the researcher is trying to create a clearer understanding regarding conceptual or theoretical insights or frameworks. It may be found that, a) tighter specification of the research questions is needed, and therefore b) there is the need to collect further data to support the framework. This process is done until conceptual and theoretical understanding is created.

Finally, the writing up of findings and conclusions is completed. Here the main arguments are highlighted and the audience should be convinced about credibility and significance of the research (Bryman & Bell, 2003). This section needs to link back to the overall research purpose and the research questions asked.

3.5.1 A Case Study Design

A single case study is used to investigate a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident (Yin, 2003). However, it is important to recognise the important contextual conditions this include (Yin, 2009). Although this study utilises a single organisation case study, it uses multiple qualitative methods to eliminate the danger of relying on findings of one method (Knights & McCabe, 1997, as cited in Bryman and Bell, 2003). Yin (2009) differs between exploratory, descriptive or explanatory case studies, and argues that these are the methods for all purposes. The problem of defining which methods to utilise has to be decided considering three conditions (Yin 2009).

These are, “1) the type of research question, 2) the extent of control an investigator has over actual behavioural events, and 3) the degree of focus on contemporary as opposed to historical events” (Yin, 2009, p. 8). This research fits the requirements that Yin (2009) has for choosing a case study, namely that the form of research question is how or why, it does not require control of behavioural events, and the research focuses on contemporary events.

The reason for choosing a single case study is based on Yin’s (2009) five major different rationales for when single case study is an appropriate design. First, the case represents the critical case to test a well-formulated theory, is when a case meets the propositions and circumstances of the propositions made by theory. Secondly, the case
represents an extreme case, or a unique case. This is when the case is so rare that the value of potential findings is worth exploring. Thirdly, the case is representative or a typical case. This is used to explore an everyday situation. Fourthly, the case is a revelatory case. This is for a case where the researcher can explore something previously inaccessible to social science inquiry. Fifth, if a single-case study is the longitudinal case, which means studying the single case at two or more different points in time. This is used to see how different conditions changes over time

Longitudinal research considers information about the phenomena at different stages, to see how the situation changes over time (Bryman & Bell, 2003). Longitudinal cases can be difficult to measure because the surroundings keep changing (Bryman & Bell, 2003), but it will give the research a broader understanding of the changing process. For this thesis, a longitudinal case will explore the differences of expectations and experiences of three different groups of volunteers, because the research will investigate a case at three different points in time. Although it will not look at the same participants over time, it will give a brief understanding of how expectations and experiences change from when they are future volunteers, throughout their volunteer stage, and finally when they are looking back at their volunteer participation.

Yin (2003) has highlighted the advantages of using case studies for research conducted using institutional theory, saying that “in general case studies are the preferred strategy when ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon with some real-life context” (p. 1). Continuing, Yin (2003) talks about the strengths of case studies, saying that “the case study’s unique strength is its ability to deal with a full variety of evidence – document, artefacts, interviews, and observation” (p. 8). Researchers involved in institutional theory use case studies to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation and meaning of those involved. For this study, the evidence was conducted through semi-structured interviews and focus groups. As this was a single case study, findings and theories stem from previous, similar research.

For a single case study approach, Yin (2009) differs between two approaches within these designs, namely holistic, where there are single units of analysis within a single case, or embedded designs, where there are multiple units of analysis. The embedded case study is used when a case study involves more than one unit of analysis, for example when the attentions are given to subunits of the organisation or case explored.
The disadvantage of using an embedded case study design is that the research can fail to return from the focus of the subunits towards the larger unit of analysis (Yin 2009). However, exploration of the subunits can “add significant opportunities for extensive analysis, enhancing the insights into the single case” (Yin, 2009, p. 52). In this research, the case study explores the non-government organisation A.G.S.E.P., while the subunits being explored are future, current and previous volunteers, making embedded single-case study the best case study design for this research.

The decision of exploring a single case study, as opposed to multiple case studies was based on the limited resources and time. Yin (2009) discusses that single case studies are vulnerable because you are going “all in” with your data collection, and argues that multiple cases will give a better overview and support for generalisation. However, Yin (2009) acknowledges that multiple cases are preferred to single cases if the researcher has the choice and the resources for conducting them. Critiques of single case studies therefore relate to the” uniqueness or art factual conditions surrounding the case” (Yin, 2009, p. 61).

In the consideration of qualitative research and using a case study design, critics discuss the ability of qualitative research to meet the criteria of validity, reliability, and replicability in research (Bryman & Bell, 2003). Another question focuses on the lack of external validity or generalisability of case study research (Bryman & Bell, 2003). In qualitative research the external validity is known as transferability (Miles & Huberman, 1994). It is important to acknowledge that a single case study cannot be generalised to the wider society, but rather, it gains in-depth understanding of the phenomena instead, which could be perceived to be valid for some other similar cases as well (Bryman & Bell, 2003). The argument is that the purpose of this research is not to generalise it to the wider population, but instead gain a deeper understanding of that particular context. However, findings and conclusions from this research can be transferable to other organisations in a similar context and setting.

To enhance the transferability, the researcher needs to consider which type of case should be exploited (Bryman & Bell, 2003). For transferability, the necessity is to know whether the conclusion from the research study will have any larger impact. Although the organisation has been exposed to different types of research before, this is the first
time the volunteers have been the main focus, as it involves future, current and previous volunteers.

In this study, the case chosen was based upon several criteria. The accessibility to the organisation was of primary importance as the supervisor had previously participated as a volunteer and conducted research there. The organisation has also been a long-term contributor in the field of sport for development, dealing with volunteers and internship students for more than 20 years. This meant that the organisation was a valid contributor to the sport for development field, and an organisation used to dealing with volunteers, local people and different cultures. The organisation was well involved with local businesses and organisations, having built a mutual trust between the organisation and the local community. This organisation based their existence on participation from volunteers and internship students, mainly from Germany, but also from other European or western countries. Therefore, the organisation had a steady flow of volunteers and long-term experience dealing with volunteers and interns. Participants were chosen for the study because had a connection to the organisation. As the study aimed to investigate expectations and experiences of volunteers and internship students with either a future, current or previous belonging to the organisation, it was necessary that there were some differences within the groups.

For the future volunteers, participants were chosen if they had already decided to take part as volunteers for A.G.S.E.P., although their volunteer participation hadn’t begun. The aim was to explore their expectations at a stage before they were introduced to the organisation. However, the interviews were done upon their arrival at the organisation to make the study more efficient in terms of money and time. This research is aware of the difficulties and the bias it could have on the future volunteers, as they could have been biased by their surroundings such as current volunteers impacting how they framed their expectations based on conversations with current volunteers. Prior to arrival at the organisation, the researcher contacted the management of the organisation to plan the trip depending on when they had students scheduled. In the time between 25th of July and 5th of August, five new students arrived, and they were all interviewed as soon as they felt comfortable. The interviews were either conducted the same day they arrived, or within their first few days. Circumstances such as jetlag, arriving at night or in the weekend, all affected the decision on when to conduct the interviews. A focus group was established after all five students had arrived. They were all asked
upon arrival to participate, and they all accepted the invitation. The interviews were conducted in the office of the organisation at a time decided by the volunteers. However, some of the participants for this focus group, which was meant to consist of future volunteers, had already been there for a week to 10 days, while one volunteer had just been there for a couple of days.

The researcher expected less bias from the current volunteers due to the nature of their participation role. Their expectations however could be hard to remember, and also biased by their stay. However, their experiences were valuable for this research as it was recent events and experiences being discussed, and therefore more likely to be remembered and contributed most to the subject of experiences. The researcher had, in discourse with the assistant manager at the organisation, arranged to stay with the organisation at the time when most current and future volunteers were there. Four people were already volunteering for the organisation when the researcher arrived. They were all asked to participate as interviewees, and all accepted the invitation. The interviews were conducted in the office of the organisation at a time decided by the volunteers. The establishment of trust with the researcher was the biggest challenge experienced during the interviews with the current volunteers, and their comfort communicating in English, their second language. From the researcher’s point of view, the participants felt uncomfortable and nervous completing the interviews in English. Hence, the researcher spent the first week getting to know the participants, building relationships with the participants so they could trust and feel comfortable talking in their second language. All the participants also accepted to participate in the focus group for current volunteers.

The biggest challenge for the data collection was the conducting of the interviews with the previous volunteers. One of the interviews was conducted on location, as the assistant manager was a previous volunteer. However, to get a more valid amount of data from that group, further interviews were needed to be done. As mentioned above, most of the previous volunteers were German or based somewhere else in Europe. Conduct face-to-face interviews with this group would have taken significant time and money, which this research could not afford. Therefore, in collaboration with the assistant manager, contact details for several previous volunteers were given to the researcher. In addition to this, the researcher had previously spent time at the location, and those volunteers who had spent time with the researcher were contacted as well. An
email interview was therefore most suitable in terms of money and time, and the need for transcription was eliminated. Therefore, maximum variation, a homogenous sample, criterion sample and convenience sample was utilised to gain a valid sample size with suitable characteristics for participation in this research. This will be described later on in the methods and participant criteria sections.

3.6 Design and Methods

3.6.1 Methods

This was a single case study which aimed to explore social relations between volunteers and their organisation and the environment it is operating in. The data collection for this study combined multiple qualitative data collection methods. As previously indicated, the research study took a social constructionism perspective to gain an interpretative understanding on volunteer expectations and experiences participating at a sport for development project.

Firstly, secondary data was collected through previous research, such as Schulenkorf (2009) to provide the literature review and a greater understanding of the field. Secondly, the focus groups were conducted prior to the interviews to allow for different ideas and concerns to be raised. The focus groups were all digitally recorded and transcribed. Thirdly, semi-structured interviews were conducted and transcribed. Finally a follow up interview to further investigate the issues raised was conducted and transcribed. Interviews have proved to be a popular method for qualitative research because first-hand information is obtained that may help inform, clarify or verify a particular area of interest (Daymon & Holloway, 2002). The data collection methods are further explained in detail below.

3.6.1.1 Secondary Data

First, an exploration of accessible secondary data relating to the proposed research project was undertaken. This included experience reports of previous volunteers, and previous research conducted by the organisation and at similar sporting projects. It was anticipated that this secondary data research would provide further insight into similar projects and contexts where volunteers have an important role. Also, data collected from this research assisted in the development of a suitable question for the empirical research. Articles and volunteer organisations’ web pages have also been explored to
gain a deeper understanding of the view upon volunteers in the field. The secondary data assisted the researcher in gaining knowledge and developing a theoretical and conceptual framework of the volunteer sector, providing the study with important information towards the literature review.

3.6.1.2 Participant Criteria and Identification

A purposive sampling approach was considered to be appropriate for this research. Patton (2002) captures the difference between qualitative and quantitative approaches with sampling approaches, arguing that the qualitative approach usually tends to go in-depth on small samples, which are selected purposefully. Purposeful sampling enables the researcher to learn more from interviewing purposeful people, instead of the fear of missing out on a random sampling. Random sampling is often assumed with quantitative studies, where random sampling enhances the possibility to generalise (Patton, 2002). As Patton (2002) states, “studying information-rich cases yields insights and in-depth understanding rather than empirical generalisations” (p. 230). Basically, in purposeful sampling, or purposive or judgment sampling, as Patton (2002) also named it, the aim is to use the participant that can best serve the purpose of the research. Patton (2002) discusses 16 different purposive sampling strategies. Following is a discussion of those strategies utilised by this research:

1) Maximum variation sampling: the purposeful selection from a variety of backgrounds to cover different aspects. One of the problems with small samplings, as can be the case with qualitative research, is that “heterogeneity can be a problem because individual cases are so different from each other” (p. 235).

2) Homogenous sampling: Although opposed to maximum variation sampling, homogenous sampling gives a better description and exploration of the particular group.

3) Criterion sampling: The purpose of this sampling is that the participant meets certain criteria to be chosen as a research object.

4) Convenience sampling: Allows the research to draw from own personal network of contacts.
The multiple sample techniques are used to pick the most suitable participants within the three different groups of volunteers. Each of the three groups has certain limitations and sampling techniques that are more suitable for each, hence the multiple sampling techniques.

The purposive approach was chosen to ensure that the participants for this research could provide useful and reliable information, due to their experiences and knowledge in the field of volunteer work.

Maximum variation sampling was used in this research. The participants were most likely to be Germans since the participating organisation has German roots. However, there were still several participant characteristics which were differentiated. There were purposively selected participants with different ages, genders, geography (in Germany), fields of study and other background variables.

Although maximum variation was used in this research, the opposite strategy, namely homogenous sampling, was also used. In this case, only volunteers from overseas were studied, and the research only focused on the volunteers’ point of view, rather than other surroundings or external perceptions of the volunteers’ expectations and experiences.

The purposive criterion sampling was used to make sure the right participants were interviewed and participated in focus groups. This criterion was to get the knowledgeable and experienced volunteers, which fit into one of the three groups being explored. The criteria for this research were that the participants were:

1) Signed up as future volunteers for A.G.S.E.P.

2) Currently volunteering at A.G.S.E.P.

3) Previous experience from participating as volunteers at A.G.S.E.P.

All the participants were related to A.G.S.E.P. in one of the three criteria mentioned above. This meant that they were all going to have an experience or already had knowledge and experience as volunteers in the sport for development project at A.G.S.E.P. Alongside that they also would willingly share their experiences and/or expectations of their volunteer participation. They were chosen solely because they were at the organisation at the time the interviews were conducted.
For this research, convenience sampling was applied to the previous volunteer participants. There were several reasons for this. Since this was a one year thesis, it was both time-saving and cost effective to use the convenience sampling. This meant the researcher did not need to look in the organisation’s database, and reach out to previous volunteers, hoping to get someone who was willing to participate in interviews. Since the researcher and the researcher’s supervisor both have connection to the organisation, willing and reliable previous volunteers were easily found that satisfied the requirements of the research. However, the problem with convenience samples is the bias of the researcher and the researcher’s supervisor, and the connection between them and the participants of the research study. Secondly, since the network connections are there, it generates trust and makes it easier to arrange for Skype interviews, which are convenient for the research. It also generates trust for the research, which knows that the right correspondences are made to get the best possible outcome of the interviews. Finally, the last reason involves money as the option instead of email and Skype interviews would be to travel to Germany to conduct interviews. This would be both time consuming and expensive, which would expand the already limited budget for this thesis.

The selection of participants in this research meets the criteria mentioned above. For this research, 12 participants with as much variation as possible were chosen. To achieve variation involves “Looking for outlier cases to see whether main patterns still hold” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 28). They were all within, and equally divided between, future, current and previous volunteers. The variation between sexes was not equal, due to the availability of the volunteers. Statistics shows that girls are more common actors in the field explored, hence the majority being girls. The age group was also consistent with the statistics of similar projects, namely students between 20 to 30 years old. The demographic location of the singular participant was spread out from different parts in Germany. It is a German organisation, hence the majority were German students.

3.6.1.3 Participant Recruitment and Challenges

Initial contact with potential participants was made either by email or in person by the researcher at A.G.S.E.P.’s location in Marawila, Sri Lanka. The research project was introduced to them due to their involvement at A.G.S.E.P. and an invitation to participate in the project was offered. Participant information sheets (Appendix A) and
consent forms (Appendix B) were supplied to those who chose to participate in the research project. The interviews and focus groups with the future and current volunteers were conducted over a month, from middle of July to middle of August, since that was the period of time the researcher spent in Sri Lanka.

The research interviews with previous volunteers were conducted at different times at a later stage. This was because contact information was obtained through the A.G.S.E.P. assistant manager, and some time was needed to establish contact with the identified interview objects, and to conduct the interview at a time suitable for the participants. Interview via email was found to be the most suitable way to conduct the interviews with previous volunteers, as it saved time, money and transcription for the researcher. Meho (2005) argues that email interviews can be used in qualitative research, concluding that it is “in many cases a viable alternative to face-to-face and telephone interviewing” (p. 1284). Meho (2005) discusses both the benefits as well as the challenges of using email interviewing in qualitative research related to the interviewers and participants, costs, time, recruitment, participation and data quality.

With regards to the interviews and participants, the advantages of using email include that individuals who are often difficult or impossible to reach for a face-to-face or telephone interview can be accessed, allowing for a more diverse range of research subjects. It also enables the researcher to interview individuals who do not, or cannot, express themselves as well verbally as they do in writing. However, email interviewing requires both access to the Internet and certain skills in online communication, both from the participant as well as from the interviewer.

Regarding the costs, the advantages are that it eliminates costs of travelling, calling, transcribing and decreases the cost of recruiting geographically dispersed samples, which is the case for the previous volunteers. The cost on the other hand can be high for the participants in terms of time. However, there are also time efficiencies gained through eliminating time spent on transcribing and the need to schedule appointments. However, it may take several days or weeks before an interview is complete, if they even respond. This highlights the disadvantages with participation when it is confirmed there are high undeliverable rates.

Another advantage is that the interview takes place in a familiar environment, in which they can take their time, being able to express their opinions and feelings more honestly.
Transcription error is also eliminated. Finally, the data quality of email interviewing was mentioned as both advantageous and disadvantageous. The advantages of data quality include that the participants are able to construct their own experiences with their own dialogue, facilitating a closer connection with the participants’ feelings, beliefs and values, and the data is more focused on the interview questions asked. The disadvantages of the data quality is that it is only text based and the in-depth information is not always easily obtainable (Meho, 2005, p. 1292).

Some of the challenges related to the participant recruitment arose when the researcher planned the trip to Sri Lanka to do the data collection. The research was first to be conducted from the middle of June to the middle of July, although the lack of volunteers at the project in this period delayed the research data collection by a month. Some other challenges occurred upon arrival in Sri Lanka. These included scheduling the interviews and focus groups, as well as the lack of cooperation with the volunteers. Some of the volunteers seemed uncertain of their language skills and lacked confidence to conduct the interviews in English. However, due to the close contact established between researcher and the interviewees, a certain level of trust and friendship was achieved, which made it easier for them to relax during the interviews.

Other challenges related to establishing contact, the time difference and recording. Establishing contact with the previous volunteers was harder than expected. The email addresses obtained could obviously be old and no longer in use; spam filters and erased messages were other potential issues. Time difference is another reason why Skype interviews were not conducted with previous volunteers. Since the researcher often travelled during the research, to Norway, Sri Lanka, Australia and New Zealand, often the time difference made it difficult to arrange Skype interviews suitable for both parties. Additionally, Skype does not allow conversations to be recorded. With these factors in consideration it was decided that email interviews were most suitable.

The email sent out to the previous volunteers used the subject line: “A.G.S.E.P. – Marawila”, to gain more interest from the recipients, as they already had a relationship to the organisation. Then, the research was introduced, and it was explained how the contact details were obtained. This was to establish some trust with the recipient, as they would have been familiar with the name of the person who gave the information to the researcher. Following that, an introduction to the research and explanation of what was needed in filling out the consent form was given, before the email was ended with.
the questions for the research. The questions were also attached to the email, along with the consent form.

3.6.1.4 Focus Groups

Focus groups have the advantage of being able to access groups’ norms, as well as providing the researcher with insights into the formation of views, which are not as readily achieved during individual interviews (Barbour & Schostak, 2005). This research aimed to investigate the participants’ expectations and experiences, and focus groups are regarded as a recognised method to collect personal perceptions and perspectives from a larger group of respondents (Barbour & Schostak, 2005). Focus groups were chosen as members can express their opinions more openly in a group setting (Barbour & Schostak, 2005). Focus groups can reduce the distance between the researcher and the researched and they can contribute to a comfortable research environment. Furthermore, “the multivocality of the participants limits the control of the researcher over the research process” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 641). This will allow respondents to express their own immediate thoughts and conclusions, as well as enable the interviewees to inspire, and be inspired by each other, so that discussion and interactivity can lead to broader and more detailed knowledge gathering, which would not have been possible through one-on-one interviews (Daymon & Holloway, 2002). This makes focus groups an ideal process for this research. Two focus groups were conducted, providing the researcher with an opportunity to obtain different opinions relating to the same issue, and use this to create an understanding of general perspectives relating to the subject, as well as between the two different groups of volunteers; future and current.

Morgan (1997) discussed focus groups sizes and found both advantages and disadvantages for using a small number of people in a focus group. The advantages are that small focus groups work best when the participants in the focus group have a personal interest in the topic being discussed, as well as being respectful towards the other participants. Moreover, focus groups are best “when the researcher desires a clear sense of each participant’s reaction to a topic simply because they give each participant more time to talk” (p. 42). For this research, the participants, just by being at the organisation, showed interest in the topic, and they seemed to respect each other. In addition to this, since the researcher had done face-to-face interviews with participants,
the researcher wanted to hear each participant’s viewpoint, to investigate the other participant’s reactions and to create discussion.

A disadvantage of focus groups with fewer participants is that dynamics are more easily disturbed due to friendships, experts or non-cooperative participants. This was experienced during the focus groups for this research. A sense of friendship among the participants was experienced, although whether it stopped creative discussions between participants or not is unknown. Therefore, the potential of interruptions to the discussions and agreement was present.

3.6.1.5. Semi-structured Interviews

The interviews for the research project were semi-structured and they were digitally recorded before being transcribed by the researcher. Semi-structured interviews were chosen as they allow the interviewee to express their feelings and opinions in detail, whilst being guided by overarching areas of discussion (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Twelve semi-structured interviews were conducted, based on several open-ended questions. The duration of each interview was between 20 minutes and 45 minutes. The interviewees were made aware of this before commencement, and permission to digitally record the interview was sought. All interviewees were assured anonymity, and they were aware of the option to withdraw from the interview at any time. They were made aware that participation was voluntary and should they choose to accept or deny this request it would not reflect negatively on them personally or on their organisation. The interviews were participant-driven and the interviewer was able to follow up on topics of interest to the participant gaining their view on issues (Appendix C, D and E).

In qualitative studies, and especially interpretive case studies, there have been criticisms of the lack of representativeness and bias in choosing the sample (Andrade, 2009). However, this should be rejected because of the value of the information given by each individual participant. Four people from each group were selected to give insight from each participant’s perspective. In fact, this research was about getting the in-depth understanding of a specific phenomenon; it did not attempt to measure or prove certain hypothesis.
3.6.2 Data Analysis

Data was analysed using Van Manen’s (1997) research method, which includes the employment of thematic analysis. Each transcript was coded and phrased, and sentences related to the interview questions were grouped together. This resulted in evolving themes from which further analysis took place. The data analysis started when conducting the interviews and focus groups by the researcher taking notes. Following this, the transcription of the interviews was also a way the researcher analysed the data, taking down notes and starting to think of the findings and suggested themes as the researcher did the transcription into word documents for each interview. Then the researcher started investigating each of the transcripts. First the researcher read the transcriptions of the interviews and the focus groups. Then the researcher used highlighters when reading through the transcripts, marking quotes and statements and categorising them into themes by using different coloured highlighters. When this was done, the researcher created new documents from each of the three volunteer groups, for each of the themes, meaning that 12 new documents arose from the four themes. These documents are the foundation of the Findings chapter.

Strategies to ensure rigour and trustworthiness were employed. The transcriptions of each interview were sent back to each of the participants for them to confirm and clarify that the transcriptions were correct. Both the interviews and focus groups were conducted at the organisation’s offices to ensure they were conducted in as familiar a setting as possible for the volunteers. With the previous volunteers, the researcher spent a week to get to know the participants before commencing the interviews. This was done to create more trust towards the researcher, so the participants would feel safer and more comfortable during the interviews. The researcher was the only one to review the transcripts apart from the participants themselves, hence the researcher’s bias in interpretive research.

3.6.2.1 Thematic Analysis

There are many researchers that have defined thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Aronson (1994) explains that “thematic analysis focuses on identifiable themes and patterns of living and/or behaviour” (p. 1). Boyatzis (1998) defines thematic analysis to be a process on how to encode the qualitative information. A theme is
defined as “a pattern found in the information that the minimum describes and organises the possible observations or at the maximum interprets aspect of the phenomenon” (Boyatzis, 1998), while a code is identified as “a list of themes: a complex model with themes, indicators, and qualifications that are causally related” (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 161). As understood from those researchers, thematic analysis is used to link, code and analyse the qualitative data collected and is in this case considered to be the most appropriate approach.

Thematic analysis can be conducted deductively and inductively. With a deductive method, it is understood that the data is not classified in a pre-existing coding framework, i.e. retrieved from literature reviewed prior to the analysis. In inductive analysis, the development of themes is solely based on the analysis of the actual raw information (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clark, 2006). As the research themes can be unclear and unidentifiable, the qualitative researcher tends to take an inductive approach to structure and organise the various personal perceptions of participants (Bryman & Bell, 2003). This research utilises an inductive thematic analysis as the themes are based on the analysis of data conducted through semi-structured interviews and focus groups.

There are several reasons for choosing thematic analysis as the appropriate way to analyse the conducted data. First, the theoretical freedom, which means that thematic analysis is possible to utilise on different occasions due to its simple and available way of adapting to different kinds of information (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Secondly, Braun and Clarke (2006) describe thematic analysis as “relatively easily to conduct a good thematic analysis on qualitative data, even when you are still learning qualitative techniques” (p. 24). However, they acknowledge there are several things that can make the analysis poor. They iterate that both learning how to use and conduct thematic analysis is easy, which makes it attractive for people who are inexperienced in qualitative research (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This research is conducted by a first-time researcher, both in qualitative research and research in general. Thematic analysis makes it possible for the researcher to handle a large amount of data, and it is possible to “provide rich and detailed, yet complex, account of data” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 78). Thematic analysis can underline differences and similarities within the content, and it can provide unanticipated insights.

This analysis process is based on six phases described by Braun and Clark (2006), which are: 1) familiarising yourself with the data, 2) generating initial codes, 3)
searching for themes, 4) reviewing themes, 5) defining and naming themes, and 6) writing the report. These six phases will now be described, and an explanation given as to how they have been utilised during the data analysis for this research. It is important to notice that thematic analysis and its phases are similar to some qualitative research, and the analysing technique is not merely unique to thematic analysis.

The first step is familiarising oneself with the data involves transcribing the data, which includes reading and re-reading it (Braun & Clarke, 2006). During this research, the researcher collected the data through interaction with the participants, meaning that the researcher already had some knowledge of the data prior to the data analysis stage (Braun & Clarke, 2006). It is important to note that the transcribing part also generates knowledge to the researcher, and is part of the process of familiarising oneself with the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This researcher had been interacting with the participants, as well as being a participant himself. The semi-structured interviews and the focus groups have been transcribed into word documents, printed, and re-read multiple times.

Secondly, generating initial codes refers to “coding the interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, and collating data relevant to each code” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 87). That is, when the researcher is familiar with the data, a list of ideas is created through the familiarisation process, which includes what is interesting and what the content is (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Coding means to shorten the written data, which means the data is narrowed down from pure text, to coding or grouping of data the way the researcher prefers (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The importance of this phase is to “work systematically through the entire data set, giving full and equal attention to each data item, and identify interesting aspects in the data items that may form the basis of repeated patterns (themes) across the data set” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 89). Another piece of advice is to do as much coding as possible, as one can never know what will be important and interesting at a later stage. However, it must be remembered to keep some context with the coding (Braun & Clarke, 2006), as the criticism is that this sometimes is lost (Bryman & Bell, 2003). The process starts in the first phase, when the researcher takes down notes. Several codes for some of the data are produced to keep the options available for different themes occurring. According to Willis (2006) there are two main coding approaches: open coding and axial coding. Open coding denotes that the preliminary set of open codes is assigned to a piece of text, while the axial coding “follows and involves the redefining of these
initial open codes, with each becoming more clearly defined” (Schulenkorf, 2009, p. 112). The data in this research was coded by the researcher.

The third phase is searching for themes. This is a natural step from coding, to then collate them into different themes that appear (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The relationship between codes and themes needs to be considered, as some data might cover several meanings (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The data are now divided into themes and sub-themes, and the data has been coded in relation to them (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Hence, after this phase, a sense of understanding of which of the data is important and interesting will occur (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The fourth phase starts when the themes have been identified. This step is reviewing the themes, which checks if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts, and the entire data set, leading us to produce a thematic map of the analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The relevance is that “data within themes should cohere together meaningfully, while there should be clear and identifiable distinctions between themes” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 91). Themes might not be supported enough by the data to be characterised as themes, or merged into one theme, while multiple themes also need to be split up into several themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The fifth phase is to define and name themes, and begins when the researcher’s thematic map of data is satisfactory (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The themes that will be presented in the analysis will now be defined and refined, as well as the data within each theme (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In this research, a detailed analysis of each of the themes in the analysis was conducted and documented.

The sixth and final phase is to produce the report. The purpose of writing up the report is to “tell the complicated story of your data in a way which convinces the reader of the merit and validity of your analysis” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 93). It must provide evidence for the themes, as well as “a concise, coherent, logical, non-repetitive and interesting account of the story the data tells” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 98).
3.7 Potential Bias

The potential biases relating to qualitative research often apply to the researcher and their potentially biased interpretations towards their findings and presumptions entering the data collection (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). It is important to remember that “the qualitative research accepts the fact that research is ideologically driven, and that there will be no value-free or bias free design” (Janesick, 1994, p. 14). Schullenkorf (2009) acknowledges that in addition to the researcher’s world view having a potential to be biased, there can also be a bias in the participants due to the “inseparableness of the researcher from the research” (p. 114).

3.8 Ethical Considerations

To ensure the ethical considerations of conducting research involving human participants, ethical approval was provided by Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) (Page viii) prior to commencement of the interviews and focus groups.

Several procedures were undertaken during this research, some of which were required from the University and others that were not. The interviews and focus group always intended to be at the most suitable time for the participants, making them decide when to conduct the interviews and focus groups within a limited timeframe. All the participants, both for interviews and for focus groups were provided with a Participant Information Sheet (Appendix A) giving them an invitation to participate in this research by outlining the intent and purpose of the research project, as well as how they were identified, what would happen during the interviews and focus groups, and how they could deal with any unlikely discomforts and/or risks. They were assured that, for the interviews, their privacy would be protected, and they would have the opportunity to decline to participate without any negative implications from either the researcher or the organisation. They were also given contact details in the event that they had any questions. Additional to this, the participants also signed the Consent Forms (Appendix B), advising the participants of their rights to withdraw from the study at any stage, and without any personal consequences.
3.9 Limitations

One limitation of this thesis is that the volunteers participating at this organisation were all German, apart from one girl who was from the German-speaking part of Italy. It is possible the findings from this research project are limited to German volunteers’ comprehension of volunteer work. This means the findings could not be generalised, although that is not the point of qualitative studies.

The majority of volunteers participating at the organisation are students doing compulsory school practice with their studies. Only two participants explained they were volunteers of their own free will and that they were not bound to do an internship, as the rest of the volunteers were required to do. Hence, the research findings might be limited to internship students rather than volunteers, especially when discussing reasons for volunteering. However, both groups were able to choose wherever they wanted to go, and the reasons for choosing the developing world and Sri Lanka was relatively equal.

The researcher also recognises that the quality of the findings is dependent on the voluntary contribution of the personal experiences, expectations, and reasons for doing volunteering by the individuals. As the participants all had German as their first language, validation of the interviews was done by sending the transcript to the volunteers to clarify and verify the transcription done by the researcher. The assumption here is that the participants may have misunderstood or contributions interpreted incorrectly as a result of language challenges.

3.10 Delimitations

This research is based around a single case study, investigating volunteers at an organisation in Sri Lanka. Similar organisations are found all over the world, meaning the findings may be limited to the organisation participating. Hence, the findings of this research may have more significance for the investigated organisation than other organisations. The findings from this research might be specific to the socially constructed environment which they reside in, rather than instilling potential transferability of these findings to other social settings (Glesne, 1999). Therefore, the findings from this research might carefully be transferred to inform similar organisations in similar settings, as opposed to suggest a general reality for multiple organisations dealing with volunteers.
Skype interviews with previous volunteers needed to be conducted due to the time limit and the budget of the thesis. Interviewing previous volunteers face-to-face would have included travel to, and around, Germany, to conduct interviews. For the same reason, no focus groups were conducted from this group, which means the amount of data is significantly better for future and current volunteers.

Due to travel costs, the interviews with the future volunteers were conducted onsite in Marawila upon their arrival. For some of the students, due to jetlag and other duties for the organisation, the interviews was not conducted until 2-3 days after their arrival, meaning that they could be biased by other students and their expectations might differ from before they came to Sri Lanka.

The same counts for the focus group for the future volunteers, as I had to conduct all the interviews prior to the focus group, meaning that some of the participants already had been there for up to 10 days, giving them an impression about life in Sri Lanka and may have changed their expectations. One of the previous volunteers was currently working for the organisation and could possibly have been biased due to their role for A.G.S.E.P.

3.11 Looking Back and Looking Forward

This chapter has explained the research paradigm chosen by the researcher and the reasons for choices made in relation to the research methodology. This research used an interpretivist approach to explore the expectations and experiences of the participants. The participants were all related to A.G.S.E.P., and semi-structured interviews with future and current volunteers were conducted at A.G.S.E.P.’s location in Marawila, Sri Lanka. Interviews with previous volunteers were conducted via e-mail, as well as one onsite at A.G.S.E.P. offices as the participant was now working for the organisation. Focus groups with current and future volunteers were also conducted onsite. Both interviews and focus groups were later transcribed by the researcher and sent back to the participant for confirmation and to remove any possible wrong interpretations made by the researcher. Thematic analysis was then utilised on the transcripts from the interviews and the focus groups, working out codes and themes for the data conducted. The following chapter will discuss the findings done from the data analysis utilising the thematic analysis.
Chapter 4. Findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from the empirical investigation undertaken by the researcher through conducting semi-structured in-depth interviews and focus groups.

4.2 Research Participants

Twelve individuals participated in the research, which was undertaken on the premises of the A.G.S.E.P. organisation in Marawila, Sri Lanka, and via email. (see Table 1). The column Type reflects whether the participants were there solely to do volunteer work out of their own free will, or whether they were internship students who completed duties as part of their university study programmes. This suggests more internship students volunteer, rather than those who volunteer out of free will. This table also shows there were more female volunteers than male volunteers, which is supported by a statement from the management at A.G.S.E.P. saying that on average there has been 80% female and 20% male volunteer participation at the organisation (Management staff, personal communication, 24 July 2011).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category:</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Date of interview</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFV-1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Female</td>
<td>10.08.2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Female</td>
<td>08.08.2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Female</td>
<td>01.08.2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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</tr>
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<td>Male</td>
<td>20.07.2011</td>
</tr>
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<td>Interview Previous Volunteers</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Internship</td>
<td>Male</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPV-2</td>
<td>Online</td>
<td>Internship</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>15.11.2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Online</td>
<td>Internship</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15.01.2012</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Internship</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>10.08.2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FGFV-2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus Group Current Volunteers</td>
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<td>02.08.2011</td>
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<td>Marawila</td>
<td>Internship</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>02.08.2011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6: Overview of the Volunteers
4.3 Characteristics of Sport for Development Volunteers

Characteristics explain who the volunteers are. This also investigates what the participants think are important characteristics and skills of sport for development volunteers. The characteristics can be grouped under the themes of adventure, sports interest, and altruism.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adventure</td>
<td>People who like to travel and gain new experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports Interest</td>
<td>Interested and/or participating in sports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
<td>To do something good for other people</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7: Characteristics of Sport for Development Volunteers

4.3.1 Adventure

The characteristic of “adventure” relates to volunteers who enjoy travelling to gain new experiences and explore new places. Many of the volunteers had previous experience in travelling overseas, although this was not true for everyone. Findings for the two subthemes of “Travel” and “Previous experience” will be further explained below.

4.3.1.1 Travel

Going overseas to do volunteering clearly involves some kind of travelling, as the individual will go to another country. Nevertheless, findings show that many of the volunteers had previous travel experience, and the opportunity to travel post-volunteering was a key consideration. The majority of the students mentioned travelling as an expectation of their stay, although many said it was not the main reason. IFV-5 says this about their travel experience, “I travelled before university and that was work and travel. I studied in Bali; it was a really good programme with sustainable tourism and proper tourism concepts, very good, which inspired me for my masters” (IFV-5, personal communication, 05 August 2011). IFV-1, another student also had previous travelling experience through a study abroad programme, “I studied at a school in America, at Ohio, twice. Then travelled in Europe” (IFV-1, personal communication, 05 August 2011). Travel interests were confirmed to be of importance when electing to do
volunteering at A.G.S.E.P. For example, a previous volunteer stated they were “always interested to go to Asia, to see different culture. I always wanted to go abroad, and I wanted to work in another country when I finished my studies” (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011).

Retrospectively, IPV-3 says that because of their stay in Sri Lanka, their attitude towards travelling changed:

Sri Lanka was so exciting and interesting; I started to like to be abroad. In December I went to South Africa, next time I would like to go to South East Asia and/or New Zealand and Australia. I got addicted to overseas-travelling. (IPV-3, personal communication, 15 January 2012)

IFV-3 confirmed their desire to travel while doing the internship, explaining, “I want to do some travelling while I am here. I want to go to Kandy to see the elephants. Buddhist mosque, snorkelling I want to do. I want to go to the big mountain I’ve heard about” (IFV-3, personal communication, 03 August 2011), confirming that both travelling and cultural experiences are important reasons for going somewhere as a volunteer.

4.3.2 Sports Interest

4.3.2.1 Sport Adventurers

The volunteers studying sports revealed their interest in sport at both a personal level and a professional level. IFV-3 said that they wanted to volunteer in “climbing and volleyball” and said that it was important “of course, because it’s part of my studies” (IFV-3, personal communication, 03 August 2011). They are supported by other previous volunteers who were interviewed. IPV-2 explained, “I like to watch sport a lot and participate also... It was one reason to choose an internship with A.G.S.E.P.” (IPV-2, personal communication, 15 November 2011). Meanwhile, IPV-3 said, “I do sport, and I like to watch sport. I tried cricket, I’ve visited a World Cup match in Sri Lanka. It was a nice specially that this internship and volunteering was connected to sport” (IPV-3, personal communication, 15 January 2012). This comment suggests that new and previously unknown sports such as cricket were important for the sport adventurer.

IFV-1, who was studying sport science and sport economics, acknowledged their interest in sport – and particularly new sports – by saying:
I start with swimming and gymnastics when I was a kid, and now I’m doing dancing and we also take parts at tournaments. I’ve been doing this since I was 15 and its very much fun. Can’t miss the sport any longer and then I’m just going to run and doing some other sports. I’m very interesting to try new sports. (IFV-1, personal communication, 05 August 2011)

The importance of the organisation being a sport organisation could also be seen as related to their studies by the previous volunteers. For example, IPV-1 highlighted the sports factor as key to his decision to volunteer:

It was important for me. Actually I was looking for example for the South African internship, I was going only for clubs, like they are playing there, so for me it was sure that I want to do something within sport because my major studies are sports management and sports journalism. (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011)

Interestingly, ICV-3 on the other hand said, “the reason was I want to see new companies and how they work. For me the most important thing was the international part. This is an international organisation and it was the most big reason” (ICV-3, personal communication, 20 July 2011). Whilst the international part was considered of central importance, they went on to suggest that volunteering in sport “was really important because of my career building and this sports event management part. It was of course important that it was a sport organisation” (ICV-3, personal communication, 26 July 2011).

4.3.2.2 Non-sport Adventurers

The volunteers from non-sport related studies confirmed a certain interest in sport on a social level; however none of them seem to have chosen this organisation because of the sport aspect. Instead, they suggested that the development aspect was the more interesting side of the organisation. For example, IFV-5 said that “everywhere I went I started a new sport” (IFV-5, personal communication, 05 August 2011) but went on to say that the importance of the organisation being a sport organisation was not a decisive factor in their decision making: “No, it was not the fact that I applied. When I saw the job offer it was more the peace development (sic)” (IFV-5, personal communication, 05 August 2011).
Another student confirmed that sport was “not really important” (IFV-4, personal communication, 01 August 2011) when asked about how important it was that the organisation was a sport organisation. However, another student does acknowledge the impact sport can have on sport for development by saying, “I think because of sport, you can really better connect people because they have something to talk about. They have a reason why they should meet and so on” (IFV-2, personal communication, 10 August 2011). Finally, ICV-2, a student within European management, summed up that sport was not the most significant factor for their adventure in Sri Lanka; however they said, “I like the idea, peace for sport. But it’s not really important to me, it’s for my studies. I like sport, I do also sports in Germany but it’s not the most important thing” (ICV-2, personal communication, 26 July 2011).

4.3.3 Altruism

Altruistic tendencies were also characteristic of some of the volunteers. IPV-3 said, “I would like to do something senseful, to help children get better conditions of life [in peace village], to connect people with different backgrounds with sport events” (IPV-3, personal communication, 15 January 2012). The volunteer is supported by IPV-1 who explained, “I do it more for other people than for myself. Because it’s more like I want things to be happen for other people than for me or myself” (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011). They go on to talk about their motivation to do volunteer work and altruistic commitment behind it:

I think it’s somehow personal about myself. It’s like, when I am doing something, I’m really into it. So I want something to happen, I want to see outcome, and I want to see results. So that was something just not to disappoint myself about my work. (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011)

Although altruistic characteristics are common, it should not be forgotten that other personal benefits are considered significant reasons for volunteering. IPV-1 said, “The thought to do something helpful for other people, get to know other cultures and also the fact that it is a good point in ones CV (are the most important factors)” (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011). This statement reflects that volunteers also expect some benefits for themselves, which may not be in line with our general understanding of altruism.
An interesting comment regarding the expenses was mentioned in the focus group when one participant said that “it costs a lot of money. We don’t get any money because we are volunteers. That was also a consideration before I decided to come, I could do this because of the money and I wanted to give something to the poor” (FGFV-1, personal communication, 10 August 2011). The volunteer goes on to say that altruistic motives and expectations of going to a developing country may in fact relate to what kind of studies they are doing:

To do something useful. I think a lot of volunteers especially those who come here from the field of social studies they really expect to do something good. To do something helpful to the people. Since Sri Lanka is regarded as third world or developing country, it’s been to war, so I think their expectations include to really do something good through the project. (FGFV-1, personal communication, 10 August 2011)

4.4 Expectations of Sport for Development Volunteers

“Expectations” include what the volunteers expected to experience throughout their stay at A.G.S.E.P. The expectations towards volunteering in general and regarding participation in an internship at A.G.S.E.P. varied among the respondents. Interview data were split into the different themes of expectation based upon the answers the participants gave. The themes mentioned by the volunteers were socialising, safety, networks, learning and cultural expectations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expectations of sport for development volunteers</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Themes</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Engagement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

_Figure 8: Expectations of Sport for Development Volunteers_
4.4.1 Socialising

Socialising and making friends with locals and other volunteers was an important expectation; however, for some volunteers they were surprised to meet so many new people while working on the sport projects. In the focus group with future volunteers, “new contacts and making friends” (FGFV-5, personal communication, 10 August 2011) was expected, while current volunteers confirmed they had “met a lot of new friends here” (ICV-3, personal communication, 20 July 2011). This particular volunteer went on to say that “for me it was a surprise” which would suggest they did not expect to forge close friendships with as many people as they had.

IFV-1 also had a view on the international nature of future socialising opportunities: “I hope the relationship will be good. I don’t think there are any problems. It is very interesting that there are not people just from Germany, for example for Italy and Norway” (IFV-1, personal communication, 05 August 2011). This underlies that variety is positive for the students as well as being good for them personally to connect with people from other countries. IFV-5 confirmed the expectation of getting to know the local people; however they highlighted a problem of an overabundance of Germans and was critical about developing long-term friendships with the local community:

I’ll probably get in contact with a lot of locals, but it is always very dangerous when you have so many Germans around and those are the one you hang out with. I don’t think I will develop any long-term friendships with the locals. Usually it doesn’t happen [with me]. (IFV-5, personal communication, 05 August 2011)

In addition to this criticism, IFV-5 highlights the problem of volunteers coming and going all the time, and expected it to be a potential problem when relating to other interns.

It is a bit difficult that people are coming and leaving all the time. We meet everybody and get into it, and then people are leaving next week, or in three weeks. And its only girls here too, it is not good. I think a mix [between boys and girls] are better. (IFV-5, personal communication, 05 August 2011)
During the interviews the importance of having other people around for comfort and social reasons surfaced. Volunteers acknowledged the importance of having other students as well as local people to work with.

We want that intern so you’re not just alone here. And that you work with locals together, and the only interns here, so I think that would be very boring, so it is very good that we are more than one student. Also meet the locals and to do projects together with the locals. Make some nice trips to see the country. (FGFV-1, personal communication, 10 August 2011)

The volunteers expected social interaction and understood that it was important for the volunteers to be “open and friendly, going forward towards people, don’t be scared” (IFV-4, personal communication, 01 August 2011) when engaging with other volunteers and local people. The volunteers talked about the importance of being outgoing and social saying that “to be open to people and not to be shy. To talk to them or get in touch with them. Just to be interest” (IFV-1, personal communication, 05 August 2011).

4.4.2 Safety

Within the interviews, a question was asked about the importance of the A.G.S.E.P.’s German background. For many students the importance of the organisation being German had an influence on their choice of where to volunteer, as they perceived the organisation as safer than a local Sri Lankan organisation and that it could be trusted. This is underlined by IFV-5 who says that:

It’s important because I know it’s a lot of more structured and you know that when you arrive someone will be there to pick you up and you will have accommodation and you get some project and there’s like, I guess more system and structure and everything. I don’t know if I would have chosen it if it was a Sri Lankan organisation. Maybe if I had some good recommendations. (IFV-5, personal communication, 05 August 2011)

IFV-1 also acknowledged the importance of the organisation being German, saying that:

It was important because I read the application of the internship and I wasn’t sure, okay it’s stressful or not. Then I went to the homepage and the homepage
had a very good impression to me, so I had no fear to come. (IFV-1, personal communication, 05 August 2011)

The latter comment indicates that the homepage helped make a safe and trustworthy impression; people believed A.G.S.E.P. was a well-organised and professional organisation, which helped to build trust. When asked about the relevance of the organisation being German, IFV-4 said that “well, kind of. Because you’re feeling like that it’s maybe safe. Yeah, because it’s kind of German, maybe you don’t know what an Asian company could be like” (IFV-4, personal communication, 01 August 2011). This comment suggests that a feeling of security, comfort and safety are associated with an organisation that is related to someone’s home country.

4.4.3 Networks

The creation of networks among the volunteer and the local community that may benefit the individual in the future was highlighted in the interviews. IFV-1 expected the relationships being built in Sri Lanka to give them something at a later point in life:

[Expect] to meet interesting people, also to meet the students, to talk with the students about what they are doing, if they are also studying sports, and what their plan are for the future…. I think I can get some contacts here and maybe stay in touch when I’m back in Germany. I’m very excited about that. Especially to meet local people and to see how they are doing sports here …. Maybe I can have some contacts here and to keep in touch of these contacts also when I am in Germany. I’m on the Project 100 where some national teams come to Germany. I hope that’s the basketball and the football and the badminton federation, and they will come next year to Germany and I hope I can visit their tour. I hope to get professional benefits and to make some friendships with the people here. (IFV-1, personal communication, 05 August 2011)

Focus group participants also suggested that creating networks would benefit them later, saying they were given the chance to establish “contacts all over the world. It is also good on your CV and to see different countries (is excellent), and we can use these contact in our jobs later” (FGFV-1, personal communication, 10 August 2011). Networking was also suggested to be a reason that volunteers chose to go overseas; they followed recommendations from friends or family and other people who were able to
say something about the country or its people. For IFV-1 this was the case since they had a roommate back in Germany who was Sri Lankan. They said:

My roommate, her mother comes from Sri Lanka but they live now in Germany. They travelling every year and come to Sri Lanka. She told me much stories and showed me pictures. Found out that A.G.S.E.P. was in Sri Lanka and where her mother lives it’s just the village next to Marawila. So I chose to come here and to choose this country. (IFV-1, personal communication, 05 August 2011)

ICV-4, a volunteer who participated at the organisation without being connected to any university, indicated other motives for his involvement with A.G.S.E.P. They said they got to know the CEO of the organisation personally through a networking event, which made them sign up for his work experience in Sri Lanka:

The reason is because I got to know [the CEO] in Germany. I’ve known him before and he told me something about his project. I was very interested in that and also I never been in Asia before. So it is a change to come here. To get to know the people, Asia and also everything about the culture. (ICV-4, personal communication, 20 July 2011)

4.4.4 Learning

Learning is divided into personal development and professional development. Personal development is the expected development that rests with the individual, while professional development relates to the expectation of benefits for studies or future work.

4.4.4.1 Personal Development

Personal development was one of the most frequently mentioned themes in regards to the future volunteers’ expectations of their stay at A.G.S.E.P. For example, IFV-5 talked about how they could benefit from their participation:

I’ll have the experience abroad and the language as well. I can learn how to live in a development country, and do some work there. And I can also make some contacts here maybe, that can help me later so I can get a job in this direction. (IFV-5, personal communication, 05 August 2011)
In some way their expectations link and overlap with the “Networking” and “Culture” themes presented in this section; however, from a personal development perspective these experiences are expected to make them “stronger” as a person.

Similarly, ICV-2 said, “I think it’s very important to know other countries. And in this case also to get experience with developing countries” (ICV-2, personal communication, 26 July 2011). IFV-2 goes on to say what they expect as personal benefits from these volunteers:

I think there are many but I can’t name all of them. It’s my first time in Asia, it’s my first travel on my own, so I think I’m gonna get many experiences. Like knowing people, and just doing things on my own. And have all responsibility on my own. (IFV-2, personal communication, 10 August 2011)

Several interviews confirmed their interest in Sri Lanka as a country that was different to what they were accustomed to. IFV-4 raised this as a reason for volunteering in Sri Lanka: “I wanted to do an internship in south east Asia and this was the most interesting internship place I found” (IFV-4, personal communication, 01 August 2011). They continued by saying, “I like travelling and I wanted to experience something else, and work in Germany I will do for the rest of my life” (IFV-4, personal communication, 01 August 2011).

There is an expectation among some of the volunteers that this participation was going to change their view of certain issues. IFV-3 looked forward to their stay hoping to gain some personal development and possibly be changed as a person. When talking about what they were hoping to take away from their involvement, they stated, “I think there are so many things that you see and that may change your opinion of life. Maybe I leave from here with another opinion of the life” (IFV-3, personal communication, 03 August 2011).

In similar style, ICV-3 said they expected the volunteering participation to have an impact on them later in life by saying:

It will help me in my life. I know if I’m back in Germany, I have a good life. Because I saw here in Sri Lanka some people that really bad life but that are also so lucky. This is for me the most important thing I’ve learned here. (ICV-3, personal communication, 20 July 2011)
The volunteer’s feelings are supported by IFV-4 who said, “I think you learn to appreciate how good it is to live in Europe, and how much we actually have and they don’t have” (IFV-4, personal communication, 01 August 2011), insinuating that they expected the experience to open their eyes on the quality of their own life in comparison to the quality of life in other countries.

### 4.4.4.2 Professional Development

Professional development outcomes was one of the major themes found in the focus group and interviews. Professional development relates to either volunteers’ current studies or future work opportunities and CV building, and in fact often a combination of these.

#### 4.4.4.2.1 Study

Study-related expectations and reasons were significantly mentioned by the volunteers. Some volunteers saw their volunteer participation as a possibility to explore which direction to go with regards to their studies. However, the expectations of study-related outcomes were divided between those who expected a benefit for their studies and those who thought it would not have an impact at all. Those who suggested the participation would benefit their studies mentioned that it would either give them experience in the field, or the participation would help them decide which studies to continue doing. When discussing why Sri Lanka was chosen as a country for volunteering, IFV-5 mentioned that, “here I get chance to do something with sport and event management” (IFV-5, personal communication, 05 August 2011), which indicates they expected a reward from the participation towards their sport management studies. This was further underlined later in the interview when they added, “I hope it’s a good thing [this participation] to get into the master programme, and get a job in this sector later on” (IFV-5, personal communication, 05 August 2011). This comment relates back to their expectation of getting reward in terms of future study and future work possibilities. The statements are supported by IFV-4 who expected the participation to benefit their studies, especially as it is in the growing Asian market, stating, “I think it’s good for business administration it’s important to experience the Asian style. How it works, how you get your work done here, as more and more of the market opportunities are outsourced to Asia” (IFV-4, personal communication, 01 August 2011). A previous
student also confirmed his expectations of the participation as impacting his decision on future direction in terms of his studies and work:

I wanted to make an internship in the management part as sports management was one of my major studies. I wanted to get some experience in there, because I already had some internships in the journalism part [which was the other field of his studies]... So afterwards I could make myself a picture... and [decide] what will I like to choose for the next step. (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011)

Similarly, a sociology and education student said that the organisation and their stay in Sri Lanka could have an impact on their decision to study further within the field:

I thought it would be cool and I am also interested in all these peace research things. And I’m not quite sure what I am going to do in the future, but right now I’m thinking about a master in international politics and peace science such a thing. I though this could be a good experience for this type of work. (IFV-2, personal communication, 10 August 2011)

IFV-5, a student studying leisure and tourism management said this about their reasons for choosing Sri Lanka for their internship:

I just like the programme and here I get chance to do something with sport and event management. I want to do my master in development management, so to me it is a big step to go over the bridge. On the other hand I get to work for development country, like the school project I like very much (IFV-5, personal communication, 05 August 2011).

Another student talked about volunteer participation and how they hoped they could gain valuable experience which would add value to their studies saying, “I hope to organise some sports events, to manage them. To see how the real life, real work it, not only the study” (IFV-3, personal communication, 03 August 2011). IFV-4 highlighted that the organisation they were choosing needed to offer something related to their studies and doing something interesting, which was explained by saying:

They (A.G.S.E.P.) offered something under the marketing sector. That’s what I probably gonna choose as my major subject so that was it. And it sounded just interesting what you had to do in the internship here. You could work on your
own a lot. You were responsible for a lot of stuff, not just hanging around in the office. (IFV-4, personal communication, 01 August 2011)

ICV-2 mentioned that they could use this volunteering “for my curriculum because I think there is not that many students travelling in this countries”, stating that they are doing something different than the majority and by doing that, stand out with the experience.

However, not all volunteers thought their involvement would actually be beneficial for their studies. They thought they would have been better off doing volunteer work somewhere else if the main goal was to get reward towards study. Someone mentioned the uncertainty of what they will get back from the experience that will be relevant for their studies; however, they generally underlined the importance of non-study related experiences. IFV-5 confirmed that when discussing their expectations of the applicability of volunteering to studies:

I probably won’t learn things I would have not learned in a normal office in Germany anyway, like how to use the programs and stuff, but I definitely learn how to organise myself here, and do things on my own. (IFV-5, personal communication, 05 August 2011)

This is confirmed by a previous volunteer who had been there and expected rewards towards their studies. It was mentioned that their expectation was to gain some benefit towards studies, although on reflection, that was not necessarily the outcome. “I hoped to learn thing for my studies, which was not the case. But I learned a lot about Sri Lanka as a country and culture” (IPV-2, personal communication, 15 November 2011), confirming their primary expectations towards studies were not reached. They did, however, indicate they were rewarded on a personal level.

4.4.4.2.2 Work

Many students saw their time as volunteers as a gateway to future work; or as a decisive factor of which direction to go after their studies. IFV-1 discussed their impression of the organisation and talked about their expectations of it:
Experience how work is here in a foreign country. They [A.G.S.E.P.] will help me to work on my project. That when I read about the internship on the internet I wasn’t sure about the organisation, what are they doing. I got more information about reading the whole page, and now I am here and now I see a little bit more clearly how it works here. I hope that they help me to do more experience and to work on the project on my own. (IFV-1, personal communication, 05 August 2011)

The volunteers highlighted that they were doing something different by volunteering overseas. ICV-1 confirmed this by saying “Concerning my CV I think it’s an eye catcher” (ICV-1, personal communication, 27 July 2011). The current volunteers’ focus group indicated they expected it to be a unique positive experience, with one of the volunteers saying, “I’m the only one to make an internship in a developing country of 60-80 students” (FGCV-3, personal communication, 02 August 2011). FGCV-4 iterated, “I think it’s later also easier to find a job if you have an internship from the third world than for example from France or somewhere in Europe” (FGCV-4, personal communication, 02 August 2011). This statement is supported by FGCV-1, “If you have a job application letter for a job that said you have been doing volunteer work in Sri Lanka, it will be somehow different to other countries” (FGCV-1, personal communication, 02 August 2011).

In the future volunteers’ focus group, several potential outcomes of their participation was discussed. FGFV-5 said, “if I’m in a big company and we’re outsourced to some business in Asia, then at least you know how things work here, the style here, it’s very slow and, you know always very lazy” (FGFV-5, personal communication, 10 August 2011), which was supported from a colleague who said, “We can use these contacts in our jobs later” (FGFV-1, personal communication, 10 August 2011).

One of the current volunteers revealed some expectation of participation in work related tasks saying that:

Maybe I can later find better job, because I can show them here I had an internship in Sri Lanka about sport events organisation and sport exchange programs. I’m almost sure it will help me get a job. It’s a big difference because they can see ‘oh, it’s a person who is interested about this job who wants to learn more’ and something like this. (ICV-3, personal communication, 20 July 2011)
A few students talked about their expectation of the work and how they should prepare for it. IFV-4 said, “I like to work in a team so want to do that here a lot. I don’t want to work on my own a lot, then I can also ask people” (IFV-4, personal communication, 01 August 2011). IFV-5 said, “To be patient and probably you have to be very organised for everything here” (IFV-5, personal communication, 05 August 2011).

The volunteers expected differences in working culture between the German and Sri Lankan way of working. Cultural expectations were certainly among them and FGCV-4 said they expected “to learn a new culture and to see the other way of work – For example the appointment causes a lot of problem. Sometime you have to wait two hours for an appointment you made” (FGCV-4, personal communication, 02 August 2011). In support, FGCV-1 said:

Lots of people are coming here for their first time – their first time of staying overseas. A lot of people also going here as their first time after university hasn’t been overseas for a long term. So you get a good view of what’s going on in a country. We are in a country you would spend a longer time to explore it. (FGCV-1, personal communication, 02 August 2011)

ICV-2 explained, “For my studies it’s a great point. For my curriculum because I think there are not that many students travelling in this countries. And also it’s important for my life to know other cultures and to travel” (ICV-2, personal communication, 26 July 2011). This highlights the interactions between the expectations of the volunteer, which leads into the cultural findings.

4.4.5 Cultural Engagement

Cultural expectations were mentioned by nearly all the future volunteers as expectations towards their stay. It is widely accepted that the culture differs from country to country and it is a wide aspect to cover. However, volunteers seemed to mention the cultural experience as an expectation of their stay overseas.

IPV-1 said the following about why they chose Sri Lanka:

That was especially for my own purpose to see something else than Europe. And also, always interested to go to Asia, to see a different culture. So Sri Lanka
sounded very interesting. It was totally different from all I have ever seen so far in Europe and all that stuff. It was very interesting. And you meet a lot of people in here, I mean just apart from the work you did, it was a very good experience to see different things, to experience different things, just to get to know something new. (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011)

IFV-2 mentioned the importance that the organisation was located in the developing world: “Yes because I really wanted to see another culture. So I wanted to see a real other world” (IFV-2, personal communication, 10 August 2011). The cultural development and expectations are split up into clusters of “work”, “new country and people”, “language” and “challenges” being the sub-themes mentioned during interviews. Another person added, “you have to be kindly person who is open. Open to the people here and to the culture” (ICV-3, personal communication, 20 July 2011).

Some of the participants showed they were aware of how to understand the new culture. ICV-2 said that they needed to be “tolerant and open concerning the other culture, to live with the Sri Lankan people, to work with them it’s really important to be tolerant and open” (ICV-2, personal communication, 26 July 2011). FGCV-2 said, “It’s important to tolerate other people, who you are working with... You need to be tolerant considering time” (FGCV-2, personal communication, 02 August 2011) and “food” (FGCV-1, personal communication, 02 August 2011), recognising there are several cultural aspects for the volunteers to familiarise themselves with.

4.4.5.1 New Country and People

Going to a new country and meeting new people of a different culture was among the themes most commonly mentioned by the volunteers during their interviews about their expectations towards their stay. ICV-2 talked about expectations, saying that it’s “important for my life to know other cultures and to travel. Especially I like to see a developing country” (ICV-2, personal communication, 26 July 2011). IFV-4 is another student who expected cultural experiences from their stay and says they expected to, “See a lot of the island, and experience some cultural stuff. Like see how they live” (IFV-4, personal communication, 01 August 2011).

The fact that Sri Lanka is different to Germany and a reasonably unexplored country by many Germans, seemed to interest the participants. A student confirmed their expectation to experience a new continent as well as exploring a new and beautiful
country. IPV-3 said that “I heard a lot of beautiful stuff about this island, so I had to have a look there. Sri Lanka sounds much more interesting than internships in Munich. I’ve never been in Asia before, so it was an easy chance to get the first impression of Asia in a real way” (IPV-3, personal communication, 15 January 2012). IFV-1 said that a reason for going overseas was because it was “interesting to see another country and because it sounds much interest” (IFV-1, personal communication, 05 August 2011). IFV-3 also added that, “I thought it was a good idea to come here to combine culture and sport, because I am studying this” (IFV-3, personal communication, 03 August 2011). IPV-2 confirmed the previous statement by saying that “I chose Sri Lanka and A.G.S.E.P. because it was totally different from all other options and I wanted to get to know such a different country and culture” (IPV-2, personal communication, 15 November 2011).

IFV-1 also indicated that travelling and experiencing a new culture were important factors when deciding where to go, especially as there was no monetary remuneration:

I also applied in Germany at an agency and there I’d get money for an internship but I want to experience a new country and its time to leave Germany now, so I decided to do this without getting money. (IFV-1, personal communication, 05 August 2011)

In the focus group with future volunteers, culture was one of the most discussed expectations of the volunteers, summed up by FGFV-1 who added in the focus group:

They want to experience the culture because we know the western culture. The European culture and the American is almost the same. I think here is much more different to Germany or to western countries. And to get to know these people. (FGFV-1, personal communication, 10 August 2011)

Meeting the local people also seemed to be of importance for several of the participants. ICV-1 explained their expectations with regards to contact with the local people, “I can work with locals, and get to know a lot of locals, and do some travelling, and see more of the whole island so I get the whole picture of the island” (ICV-1, personal communication, 27 July 2011), also saying that “people are not as poor as I expected it to be” indicating they had an assumption of going to a developing world to see poverty.
4.4.5.2 Language

Although neither Sri Lanka nor Germany has English language as their first language, volunteers indicated that they expected to develop their language skills by doing volunteering overseas. On the question of why they chose Sri Lanka, ICV-2 said that:

Working for social thing was my first choice, and to speak English because my first language is not English, it’s French. I made information for secretary for French [and] also I have to improve my English. And to go to Asia, I liked that. (ICV-2, personal communication, 26 July 2011)

Another student with previous volunteering experiences said that for this stay, “I want to experience it in a foreign country and different language” (IFV-1, personal communication, 05 August 2011), insinuating that cultural expectations were a motive of going overseas to do volunteering, which could also been seen as an expectation of gaining personal development in terms of widening their knowledge of both another country and language.

4.4.5.2.3 Challenges

The students were also asked if they foresaw any potential challenges during their stay at the organisation. Several different topics were discussed in the interviews such as climate, relationships with other people, language, working procedures and cultural differences.

IFV-5 talked about cultural expectations, and revealed another expectation of the different culture in terms of working, assuming a challenge in working with people from other cultures.

See how people in Sri Lanka work. And I think it is very complicated for us Germans to work together with people from Asia. It is also very good to get used to the culture issues between us. I got to do stuff I could never do at home. (IFV-5, personal communication. 05 August 2011)

IFV-2, on the other hand, had different assumptions of the culture, saying they expected “more poverty, not these hygienic standards [as in Germany], and everything is more, not quite fixed if you know what I mean. And just another feeling” (IFV-2, personal communication, 10 August 2011).
IFV-5 mentioned potential problems with climate and also potential problems with both locals and other students, explaining, “Climate is hard in the beginning. It will probably be some conflicts between the students or, I don’t know. I see the other girls having problems with working together with the Sri Lankan people, getting stuff for the school” (IFV-5, personal communication, 05 August 2011).

IFV-1, alternatively, highlighted language as an expectation of a challenge, although their answer indicates it had been biased by a past experience:

I figure out the slang of the Sri Lanka is very difficult to understand at the first time. So I hope when I also will work with them together that I will understand everything, and I don’t know the culture and the traditions. Maybe there are some traditions you don’t know and you’re doing something wrong. (IFV-1, personal communication, 05 August 2011)

This is supported from another future volunteer who said this about language as a possible challenge:

Of course. Maybe like the English part, because I’m not so good in English. Maybe that is the difficult one. To work in front of the laptop to write English, or if I can’t understand what people want from me. Language problems in general. (IFV-3, personal communication, 03 August 2011)

Other challenges mentioned by IFV-2 included “work and cockroaches and so on” (IFV-2, personal communication, 10 August 2011), showing that there are different challenges that the volunteers prepare for.

4.5 Experience of Sport for Development Volunteers

The experiences of the volunteers were taken from the current and previous volunteers, as the future volunteers were yet to experience anything from their volunteer participation. The experiences are to highlight what the volunteers remembered and what stood out as incidents they relate to this particular volunteer experience. Both bad and good experiences were discussed and they both have an impact on the overall stay of the volunteer, as well as an impact on the organisation and the local society.

The experiences from their time volunteering are split up into themes: socialising, networking, learning, cultural engagement and organisational issues.
### Experiences of sport for development volunteers

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#### Figure 9: Experiences of Sport for Development Volunteers

#### 4.5.1 Socialising

The volunteers suggested socialising as a main theme from their volunteering experience. A previous student highlighted the fact that while volunteering they associate with a range of different people:

Interesting to work with a lot of different people. Like all the students we had in here. I mean, the time I was a student we were at one point 11 students. So you got a lot of different characters and you got like these kind of lazy people, who won’t do anything. They are just travelling or relaxing. On the other hand you got these hyper motivated people who are like always ‘come on’, pushing pushing. Like, there was a good experience to fix everything in because when I was doing that project here I was supposed to be the chief coordinator so I also had to recruit people to work with me on that project, so it was not easy to find the right person for that. Just to keep going after them, like if you have one guy who doesn’t want to really, then you have to ‘okay, come on’ push it push it. For the other guys, they are like ‘okay, so can we do something else like this and this and this’ and focus on the main part is also not easy. So that gave me a lot of experience I think. (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011)

For some of the students meeting other people was seen as the highlight of their stay in Sri Lanka. IPV-1 explained, “It was great to see with how much enthusiasm people can work on such projects. The highlight was to see the country and get to know the people of Sri Lanka” (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011).
Another student agreed about the experience of meeting new people; however that was not one of his expectations. They were therefore surprised to be able to meet so many new people and make new friends. “For me it was really surprised I met a lot of new friends here,” confirming later on that “the people is one of the highlights. My friends here in Sri Lanka” (ICV-3, personal communication, 20 July 2011). Although networking and making friends was experienced by the volunteers, the relationships between the students and the locals differed:

[The relationship with the locals] are really good. I’ve met a lot of new friends here and I was also really surprised about the people here because they are really kindly and really friendly. Also I met some parents from a friend from a friend and they showed me a lot of food, they gave me something, also without English. It was really nice to see this. One of my friend he want to show me how to guitar and one of my friends here they invite me to go next year to Bali. (ICV-3, personal communication, 20 July 2011)

With regards to the relationship with the other students, the same person stated that it depended on the kind of person:

It’s good [the relationship to other students], but it depends on the person it we will keep in touch later. You can see here in Sri Lanka, my friends in Sri Lanka they don’t care about a lot of things and they don’t care about especially money. You can see they have not life like we in Germany but they are more friendly and kindly and something that some German people. (ICV-3, personal communication, 20 July 2011)

4.5.2 Networking

During the stay, it is important for the volunteers to have a social network, and post-volunteering findings showed this can build networks for the future. The volunteers confirmed the importance of being able to cooperate with other volunteers as well as the local people during their daily life:

I like that we are working together with the students. That we are so many students but also that we have to work with Sri Lankan people. The experience is that it’s too different to Europe because there is no strict way to work. I think for us there is a little bit holidays but holiday with work. It’s difficult to say, but its
normal here that you can’t work as strictly as in Europe. (ICV-2, personal communication, 26 July 2011)

Another student confirmed that they had been in touch with the volunteers who were there at the same time, acknowledging the importance of creating networks and being able to use them later in life, saying, “The relationship was very good. I still have contact to some of them. They are good friends now and we write, call or meet regularly” (IPV-2, personal communication, 15 November 2011).

4.5.3 Learning

Learning outcomes of the volunteer participation was identified throughout the interviews. The participants expressed both personal development learning as well as professional development learning. Personal development and experiences related to the travel and the personal experiences of the volunteers. The outcome related to studies and future work is the professional development discussed.

4.5.3.1 Personal Development

The outcome of this volunteer participation is often related to personal development. A previous volunteer said that:

I think that I really made a step forward I think in general as a human being. Like you have seen something different, you have seen another country, you have like, okay, you can work in there, you can connect somehow to the local people in there, so that was a good experience I think. New things you have seen all over, like culture and religious stuff and all that. Like living in a different world from day to day, and dealing with that and somehow experience to like it, that’s was I think. (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011)

The variety of personal development is highlighted in the interviews, confirming that the personal development is gained in different ways. ICV-3 indicated:

I learned especially for my life something because here you can see how people live. Maybe poor people or to the rich people and you can see that a lot of people
in Sri Lanka they don’t care about money. They want just have good life and this things is really good. (ICV-3, personal communication, 20 July 2011)

Another student also acknowledged that the volunteer participation impacted them as a person, saying, “I think I became a bit more serene. Meaning, to take time not too serious but of course this decreased after sometime back in a western country such as Germany” (IPV-2, personal communication, 15 November 2011). In this statement they confirmed they adapted to the culture, although after a time back home once they reverted, summarising it in a final comment, “I realised that you can be very happy also without a lot of material things and a less tight understanding of time” (IPV-2, personal communication, 15 November 2011).

Many of the experiences the volunteers discussed were their travelling experiences. One volunteer commented on the combined importance of volunteering and travelling:

Yes, definitely. It’s always like when I get new application from the new volunteers every second one ask already before they are here ‘Is the any time to travel?’ So they want to know how many hours you work in the week so if there is a possibility to see some of the nice places in the weekend. So yeah, that’s one expectation of everybody coming here. (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011)

Travel and personal experiences were confirmed by the volunteers as one of the highlights throughout their participation.

This tourists part are very nice, to go to see the temples and Sigirya and something like that. Also to Adams Peak was something we have to do. Also if you can go to the wedding of friends here you run there and see how they celebrate and something like that is very special. (ICV-4, personal communication, 20 July 2011)

IPV-3 explained that in his personal experience, volunteering at A.G.S.E.P. changed his relationship with travelling, and in fact impacted on his post-volunteering travel plans:

Sri Lanka was so exciting and interesting. I started to like to be abroad. In December I went to South Africa, next time I would like to go to South East Asia and/or New Zealand and Australia. I got addicted to overseas travelling. (IPV-3, personal communication, 15 January 2012)
4.5.3.2 Professional Development

The volunteers confirmed learning that contributed to their studies and future work is themed to professional development. The volunteers acknowledged the impact the participation could have on them in their studies or work after their volunteer experience. Many of the volunteers explained that they used the experience to decide on what they wanted to study further, while for work, the creation of networks and CV building was mentioned, as well as certain skills being useful in work life later.

4.5.3.2.1 Study

Study related experiences are those which impact the volunteer’s decision on what to continue studying, or work experiences that are related to their field of studies. Studies are mentioned as an important experience. It should be considered that these interns are university students back in Germany. They are required to undertake internships, which mean it is natural to both expect and experience situations which relate to their studies:

I definitely learned something, especially in the marketing sector. Most of the time I was involved in the marketing project, like we renewed actually the project for the sport exchange when I was here. In that time it was not possible to bring teams from Europe in here so we started again when I came here. So it was [the organisation’s CEO] and another student, we started from point zero. So we set it up again so there was both involved management part and organisation and marketing of course. (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011)

One of the students talked about their experiences at the organisation and how it related to their studies in European management:

It’s difficult to say because its differences between European management and management here in Sri Lanka. But there are many differences, too much difference. But I think it’s not important for me because you can see the difference and I know what to do in Europe in management. Here it’s another thing. You can choose every theory or practice from European management to work here but they don’t use it. But for yourself you can try to use it and you can try to promote it and promote your idea or something else. There are things
which are related but it’s not so much. (ICV-2, personal communication, 10 August 2011)

One student stated that the experience had some kind of influence on their studies, although it wasn’t necessarily the case. ICV-1 says this about the relevance of their work towards their studies: “right now, yes a little bit because I have some work regarding the travel reservation system but this is the first project or the first work which refers to my studies” (ICV-1, personal communication, 27 July 2011). However, with regards to the relevance of their work towards their studies: “I didn’t expect that [to be related to their studies]” (ICV-1, personal communication, 27 July 2011).

4.5.3.2.2 Work

Work was mentioned as both a positive as well as a challenging experience for the volunteers. Their work experience was also seen as a way to develop certain professional skills.

I think I learned how to start a project from the beginning, how to develop a project, and from the idea to the end. Because when I left we started I think in early February and before I left we had the first team signed in to come here. So it was like just in two months, just from the idea, although I knew that it works because [the organisation’s CEO] did it before. Just from the idea to ‘OK, we do this, we do this from that side we do this and this’. We had the outcome in the end like some positive feedback by the first team that signed already in the time that I was still here. (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011)

The working part was mentioned by some of the students as their best experience in Sri Lanka.

The best part in the work I think are the projects. For example, me and [another volunteer] have so much different projects. I like to work in every project and to get an impression of the work and I like to see the changes of the project. (ICV-2, personal communication, 10 August 2011)

They also mentioned that it gave them certain advantages that would help them get a job when they returned home. IPV-3 explained, “I could do all the experiences etc to get a very well paid student-job in Munich” (IPV-3, personal communication, 15 January 2012).
Obtaining knowledge through work was an expectation the volunteers had. However, as the experiences demonstrate, there were many challenges and differences. Working and time management seemed to be something the volunteers experienced differently:

When you have meeting you have to wait for the people and they have no organisation I think. They only work when they work; there is no force to work. For us students, yes, but for the hotel person I think. But the management here in A.G.S.E.P. it’s only a different thing, you can’t relate it to other things like the hotel management, because A.G.S.E.P. is German-Sri Lankan. Something which are also German or European for the management, because [the organisation’s CEO] is German…Waiting for people, it’s not really bad, it’s normal here. For us it is a change, it’s a bit different I think. (ICV-2, personal communication, 10 August 2011)

In one of the interviews the confirmation that the organisation gives the individual a chance to develop certain skills was found. ICV-4 stated, “I think altogether the organisation is a very good one. Because the organisation’s CEO gives people a chance to act on themselves. On the other side, if people are coming who have to being pushed to work, he won’t to that” (ICV-4, personal communication, 20 July 2011). Further on in the interview, it was suggested that the organisation can react to people who lack motivation:

When they come here first time, they don’t know the culture mostly. So they must get some experience first. They have to be told how it works here and a big introduction. And this doesn’t happen. That’s a problem I think. (ICV-4, personal communication, 20 July 2011)

4.5.4 Cultural Engagement

Cultural experiences were highlighted by several participants. Cultural experiences reflect their experiences with a new country, meeting new people, seeing a new way of living and being somewhere different than where they would be in their normal lives. The cultural experiences were mentioned as some of the volunteers’ trip highlights.

ICV-2 explained, “it’s interesting to see how people live in this country and to know how we live in Europe, to see the big difference. It’s another kind to see it here in live,
or to see it at home in Germany on TV or something like this” (ICV-2, personal communication, 26 July 2011). ICV-1, another student, also confirmed their experience with the culture as one of the highlights, explaining that “It was quite exciting for me to experience how the people are working here, and that people are not as poor as I expected” (ICV-1, personal communication, 27 July 2011). This was supported later in their interview where they explained that their best experience was “to meet so many locals and to see how they live and to get at least an impression of how it is for locals to live in Sri Lanka with their families” (ICV-1, personal communication, 27 July 2011).

ICV-3, one of the volunteers who had a first-hand experience living a week with a Sri Lankan family, highlighted this as one of the best experiences of their stay, saying that:

The highlight of the other part is maybe I spend one week with a friend with local people here and lived in his house. I saw the life of typical Sri Lankan people. I saw the culture, the mentality and I also saw their life. (ICV-3, personal communication, 20 July 2011)

The cultural experiences mentioned often related to meeting the local people and getting an insight in their lives. IPV-3 said that:

They are very friendly guys. Still in touch with Ruki [a local] and connect with Ruki, Noel, Fernando [all locals] at Facebook. The experience of the reaction of the children in peace village impressed me a lot. They are all smiling and laughing the whole time. Wonderful. (IPV-3, personal communication, 15 January 2012)

The relationship to the local people turned out as a positive experience for one of the previous volunteers.

The main thing was I think that I didn’t expect people to be that friendly. It was like, you know when, Sri Lanka is considered a third world country. So it’s always like when you went here, everybody said like ‘okay, there must be like high criminality’ and I don’t know ‘people will trick you’. In general the people is [are] so friendly and you meet so many people, everybody wants to know something from you. Although it’s sometime annoying if everybody want to talk to you but in general it’s just natural. If they see somebody different they want to talk to him and to get to know him and by that it’s also easy to build up
friendships when you’re here. It was pretty nice. (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011)

One of the current volunteers said that the work provided the volunteers with personal, cultural and professional development:

I’m getting to know the culture and how to behave with the locals here. And what you better do, and what you better don’t do. And what you can await if they tell you something if they say ‘I’m coming next week’ or ‘I’ll call you’, then they won’t call you. Then you have to know. So you are to call them if you want something. (ICV-4, personal communication, 20 July 2011)

IPV-3 talked about his experience during the volunteering period and how it impacted him personally.

You can help a lot of people just with your hands, you do not need any money, you just want to help. I got another view of my life here in Europe. First thing I did when I was back in Germany – I sold my car. (IPV-3, personal communication, 15 January 2012)

4.5.4.1 Cultural Challenges

Many of the students explored the challenges and difficulties of coming to a place like Sri Lanka to do volunteer work. However, the kind of challenges they experienced differed. Differences from language and work, to the cultural ways of working and living in Sri Lanka, were discussed. IPV-1 said this about the challenges:

Life was challenging. Beside work, travelling was a bit challenging. To find the way to somewhere, especially when you travelled alone but that is something particular about this country I think. So, what I said before, just deal with everybody. All the different kind of characters that was challenging. Just like the differences to all this, to adapt to the differences. I mean, if you don’t adopt then you will get pretty soon tired of how people live their lives in there and that also affect work. I mean, if you make an appointment with somebody and you have to wait there one and a half hour, only to get a call the she is not coming today but maybe tomorrow, if you don’t accept that as it is, it is a habit for the people, you start to get pissed or like, that is one challenge you really have to face when you are here. (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011)
Another student said that the most challenging part was:

Understanding of time of the Sri Lankan people. If you have an appointment in western countries the people keep this date mostly. In Sri Lanka people are more open to that point so that you often have to wait some time (IPV-2, personal communication, 15 November 2011).

On the other hand cultural differences can also be a challenge for people to experience and to accept how the life is lived in a different culture. ICV-4 said that one of the most negative parts about his stay was the dynamic of relationships in Sri Lanka:

I think it you want people of the local people there is a lot of corruption and also people who are married are always cheating, and something like that I think it’s bad. They look like healthy people but that are not healthy at all. Everything is alright but if you look closer they are living like they are divorced but they can’t because the social pressure is too much. (ICV-4, personal communication, 01 August 2011)

Another challenge experienced by a volunteer was the awareness of poverty in the developing world, “I don’t know if I can call it a bad experience but when we was travelling on the train ride, one of the poorest persons was begging on the train” (ICV-1, personal communication, 27 July 2011).

4.5.6 Organisational Issues

Organisational issues experienced by the volunteers concerned the impact and importance of how to behave in the organisational setting, as well as the S4D concept and how this impacts their view on the organisation and their impact on the local community. IPV-1 argued that an organisational issue was raised depending on the volunteers who were there and explained how to behave in this setting. They explained that:

You have to be open-minded. You have to be tolerant and open-minded because as you can see, sometimes also from the part of work you have like sometime you have these strange ideas by [the organisation’s CEO]. Like doing some farming etc but sometimes there are projects like this where you first say ‘hey, what’s this?’ but in the end if you just have a look behind and stay open to that idea, then you can really develop something out of it. You have to deal with so
many different kinds of people. Not only students are different characters, also
the people you meet in here you sometimes have to work with. You have to stay
there and take the maximum out of it and just accept the situation as it is and
then deal with yourself about that. (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July
2011)

Although the students were from a range of fields, studying the idea of the sport for
development and peace seemed to have had an impact on the volunteers and their
experiences with the organisation:

I like the idea behind the organisation. To get together and make sports with
other cultures. To get knowledge about other cultures only by doing sports. But
it’s not only sport, its living and staying for a time with other people (ICV-2,
personal communication, 26 July 2011)

Support was received from one of the other volunteers who said:

I think A.G.S.E.P. is doing a good job with the sport exchange programmes and
I think it helps a lot to the people living here and I hope it will develop further. I
think just because of the sport programmes they [the locals] are able to get to
know people from different countries and I don’t think they would have this
option to go to Germany so easily and play against German sports teams there

As mentioned, they highlight the idea of the organisation, saying that:

The idea from this exchange programs is really, really good because you can
show this people from Sri Lanka how it is in Germany. Also you can show
German people how it is in Sri Lanka and you can get some relationships. I think
also sport is another language because you can take five people from Sri Lanka
without English and also 5 from Germany without English skills and they can
play without language. It’s another kind of language (ICV-3, personal
communication, 20 July 2011)

During the focus group, the discussion of the organisation’s existence was mainly
positive from the volunteers’ point of view.

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If you have an organisation on a social field then it’s good here. We are running the peace village that is impact on the kids which benefiting directly from us. Or for example the school, if we’re doing project like this you can see a lot of jobs for the local people. On the other hand we are doing for example when we are getting sporting teams here we don’t have direct link, it’s more like their being tourists here in a third world country, so it’s more contribution to the tourism in the country but in the end it’s a positive outcome for the local people. In areas there you don’t have foreigners much here in Sri Lanka; it’s exciting just to see someone from another country. They are quite interested; they touch your white skin and are interesting in you. Plus you have to experience that with direct contact with the locals which should be good outcome for both parts. (FGCV-1, personal communication, 02 August 2011)

When discussing possible negative outcomes of projects like this in a developing world, some aspects were mentioned, although overall the volunteers seemed to think that the possible positive outcomes exceed the possible negative impacts.

I can only see a difference in living standard for example. If you have the local people in a country like this sometimes they live just above the poverty line and they see all the foreigners’ money there, so they might try to adapt to the way of life and lifestyle but they cannot have it. That could be a problem in general but I think the good things overcome the bad. We are creating jobs for them; we’re definitely supporting local companies, so I think that is definitely more positive outcomes for the locals. (FGCV-1, personal communication, 02 August 2011)

4.6 Looking Back and Looking Forward

This chapter has highlighted the findings from this research. The findings show evidence of characteristics, expectations and experiences among the sport for development volunteers, which can also be transferable to other fields of volunteering. The discussion of the findings with the researcher’s interpretation will be outlined in the next chapter.
Chapter 5. Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This research project was undertaken to explore the characteristics, expectations, and experiences of sport for development volunteers. The findings of this research project provide the background to identifying, exploring, interpreting, and discussing the views, beliefs and thoughts of the volunteers participating at A.G.S.E.P.

A significant gap was found in the literature relating to the experiences, expectations, and characteristics of overseas volunteers at sporting projects in the developing world. Although volunteers’ expectations and experiences have been investigated previously, it is unknown if their intentions, motivations, and experiences are similar at sport projects in a developing world context. The previous literature suggested a trend shifting from altruistic expectations towards instrumental expectations for the volunteer. This research supports these findings, as well as showing that female internship students are more likely to participate as sport for development volunteers. Their experiences focused on social interaction, personal development and cultural experiences. This chapter will provide discussion utilising the findings of this research by comparing it with previous research in the field and with similar context, which has been highlighted in the literature review.

Firstly, the characteristics of the volunteers participating at the research project, as well as their assumptions, are discussed. Secondly, the discussion focuses on the findings from future volunteers regarding future participation at sport for development projects. Thirdly, the discussion will move towards the experiences from the current and previous volunteers, before recommendations for future research and the implications of this research will be outlined. Finally, the contribution of this research and the conclusions from these perspectives are presented.

5.2 Characteristics

The first research question investigated the characteristics of the sport for development volunteers. These findings put this research into context and provide an overview of the volunteers working for A.G.S.E.P. The common characteristics of the volunteers are that they are mainly adventurers and have an interest in sport, whether it is just for fun or social purposes, or whether they are studying it.
5.2.1 Gender

The analysis of the research shows that the majority of the volunteers at the organisation were female. Eight out of 12 participants being female does not exactly correlate with previous findings in volunteer theory, but the sample size was small, and the results apply to this case only.

The general literature suggests a balanced distribution of male and female (Anheier & Salamon, 2001; Downward et al., 2005), however they did suggest different motives for volunteering. Kim, Zhang and Connaughton (2010b) stated that the characteristics of the volunteers reflects the age and gender profile of the participants in sport for which they are volunteering. Downward and Ralston (2006) discussed volunteers in sport in general, arguing that males are more likely to volunteer in sport, as an underlying motive of being elected as chairpersons or board members are increased to be fulfilled.

Sport for development is a different setting compared to previous research on volunteer characteristics. In this case study, there were more females than males. The management of the organisation confirmed the skewed male/female ratio, saying that on average, there have been 80% female and 20% male volunteer participation at the organisation over time (Management staff, personal communication, 24 July 2011).

A potential reason for more females being involved was argued by Ralston, Downward, and Lumsdon (2004). They indicated that generally, females are more likely to volunteer of their own volition while males have to be asked to participate. Males needed to believe that their own interests or social factors could be benefited, while “Women are more likely to offer their services to the perceived needs of family and friends” (p. 14). Although it's not possible to generalise, this could be the explanation why there normally has been more female than male volunteers at the organisation.

A practical application to be made of this research is that organisations could benefit by striving to achieve gender balance; however this research did not investigate how gender balance or inequality could impact the volunteer. Future research in a multinational context would be able to confirm whether the findings from this research are valid in the development world context.
Further research could also investigate the impact of a gender balance or inequality and the impact on the volunteer, thus providing organisations with a practical application on how to optimise the gender dispersion among the volunteers in their organisations.

5.2.2 Age

Findings from this research showed that all of the volunteers were aged between 20 and 30 years of age. These findings differ from many theories of volunteering. Previous research argued that, due to higher human and social capital, older people were more likely to volunteer (J. Wilson, 2000). However, Wilson (2000) suggested that high-risk volunteering attracted younger people rather than older. The definition of a high-risk volunteer is unclear. However, the fact that A.G.S.E.P. is located in a country previously involved in a civil war, could make it fall into that categorisation.

Davis Smith (1998) explains the differences between age groups, in general, as relating to the younger volunteer participating because it was an opportunity for them to gain new skills within a field, while the elderly have more spare time and did it for the social reasons, like the opportunity to make new friends.

5.2.3 Students or Volunteers

Paine et al. (2010) argued that there were a range of options that categorised someone as a volunteer. Volunteers at this organisation were mainly internship students doing volunteer work as part of their studies. An argument could be made as to whether these students on internship can be classified as volunteers, due to the requirement from their universities for them to have practical field experience. None of the students went to Sri Lanka against their free will and none of them received any remuneration. Therefore, this research suggests that they can be given volunteer status, even though there were some institutional requirements forced on them by universities.

5.2.4 Altruism

Altruism characteristics and motives have previously been suggested as being vital for the volunteers’ decision as to whether to volunteer or not (Anderson & Moore, 1978; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). This research built on other studies, which suggested a combination of personal characteristics drove the decision of volunteer participation. Volunteers showed to have an expectation of both personal and professional outcomes and development, as well as still containing the altruistic characteristic of wanting to...
make a difference by doing something good for someone else. This finding supported Barker (1993) findings, who argued that the situation within volunteer work has changed over the years.

Barker (1993) argued that the recent change is that the former tradition of lifetime volunteering now is decreasing, and that short-term volunteering is increasing. Additionally, volunteers now expect and look for personal benefits for their contribution, rather than contributing to be of service to others.

Volunteers want to see a connection between the effort they put into volunteering and the results (Barker, 1993). This parallels this research’s findings in terms of the volunteers being engaged in their own personal development; however in this research they were also contributing in service to others and were not receiving any tangible remuneration for their volunteer work. There was evidence that the volunteers wanted to see a connection between the effort they put into volunteering and their own intangible benefits.

5.3 Expectations

The second research objective was to investigate the expectations of sport for development volunteers. The views stated by the volunteers have been analysed from the data collected into the categories of socialising, safety, network, learning, and cultural expectations held by the volunteers. Theory in general highlighted instrumental and altruistic expectations, as well as a combination of those for volunteers. Personal developments, combined with the fact that they are doing something good are previously mentioned as expectations for volunteer work.
5.3.1 Socialise

The findings showed that the ability to socialise, meet new people and make new friends during their volunteer participation was a motivational element. The creation of social networks with locals as well as with other volunteers was seen as an important expectation towards their stay at A.G.S.E.P. The volunteers did realise that with the majority of the volunteers being German, this had the potential to create limitations on their socialising outside the volunteer group.

I’ll probably get in contact with a lot of locals, but it is always very dangerous when you have so many Germans around and those are the one you hang out with. I don’t think I will develop any long-term friendships with the locals. Usually it doesn’t happen [with me]. (IFV-5, personal communication, 05 August 2011)

In addition to this comment, IFV-5 highlighted the challenges of the transient nature of volunteers, and expected it to be a potential problem when relating to other interns.

These comments highlighted that the creation of social capital might be more beneficial for the volunteers and internship students rather than the local community. However, they acknowledged that having other students around was beneficial for the social part of their stay.

Although it was mainly Germans who worked at the organisation, it was mentioned that meeting other people from around the world was also an advantage when doing volunteer work. It offered the potential to create a social network for post-volunteer interaction. The acknowledgement of the expectation of socialising would be helpful to the organisation.

As previously stated, not much research had been done on volunteers’ expectations prior to participation, and especially not in sport for development context. In the experience section, the researcher will show that this expectation played a vital part of the volunteers’ experience with the organisation. Future research could investigate the creation of social capital and how it benefits the volunteers compared to the local community.
5.3.2 Safety

Another finding showed the expectation and perception of the organisation as being safe and trustworthy because of its German origin. The perception of a German organisation being more structured was mentioned during the interviews. The volunteers felt more comfortable about trusting the organisation to do things like arranging their pick-up from airport. They perceived that there would be a good structure and system within the organisation. These were all perceptions and expectations from the volunteers prior to their participation.

The research does not suggest that German organisations are any better or more trustworthy than Sri Lankan organisations. However, it does argue that familiarity and recognition of similar cultural norms within the organisation created perceived trust and safety for the individual participating as a volunteer. This was reinforced by the volunteers being mainly of German origin within the organisation. There was only one student of a different nationality among the volunteers, being Italian. However, the person came from the German-speaking part of Italy and so had a strong connection to the German culture.

The universities that are sending volunteers to A.G.S.E.P. had to approve the organisation for the volunteer prior to volunteering; hence the universities also generated trust and safety by their acceptance in approving the organisation. Universities also created safety by acknowledging that the volunteer’s participation would count towards the participator’s studies.

Another student confirmed the perception of a German-based organisation being safer. Their perception was that an Asian structure was unknown and this strongly influenced their decision-making when choosing to volunteer. It was said, when asked about relevance of the organisation being German; “Kind of. Because you feeling like that it’s maybe safe. Yeah, because it’s kind of German, maybe you don’t know what Asian company could be like” (IFV-4, personal communication, 01 August 2011).

This research suggested if the volunteer was able to relate to the organisation in some way, it increased the chances of the individual’s decision to do volunteer work. Therefore, how the organisation was perceived and how it related to the volunteer were shown as important decisive factors in where to volunteer.
Findings suggested that the nationality of the organisation was important in building trust and security, while previously discussed findings suggested that the organisation being sport-related was important. Future research could investigate the relationship between the organisation and its volunteers, exploring the factors that determine whether or not to do volunteering at particular organisations.

5.3.3 Networks

Similar to the socialising theme, creating networks was seen as an expectation for the volunteers. The networking theme was relevant to the creation of networks in helping to obtain future work, and other work-related opportunities.

This expectation was important because it showed that the volunteers expected to get some kind of personal or professional reward from their participation. They anticipated that these networks would be beneficial for them in the future. One of the previous students acknowledged that the network created through their volunteer participation still existed. Future research could potentially investigate the formation or otherwise of these networks, and their impact on the volunteer post-participation.

5.3.4 Learning

Positive learning outcomes for being a volunteer were an expectation of the participants. This research found evidence of expectations towards learning, covering both personal development and professional development for the volunteer. This research supported the findings of Galley and Clifton (2010) who suggested that the personal development and academic achievement of the volunteers were likely to be linked with their educational level and abilities. In their study of volunteering in Indonesia, they suggested that the volunteers would not consider this as a regular holiday, but rather as an opportunity to gain experience and feel useful by doing something they care about (Galley & Clifton, 2010).

This research supports Davis Smith (1998) who found that younger volunteers participated because they perceived an opportunity for them to gain new skills within a field. This research established that volunteers expected, if not a monetary remuneration, at least some intangible benefits for their participation. It appeared to be part of the underlying motivation and an influence on their decision-making, that they would gain some personal and/or professional development by doing volunteer work.


5.3.4.1 Personal Development

The majority of the respondents mentioned travel as an expectation and something they looked forward to during their participation. One volunteer’s comments supported this by saying that “I want to do some travelling while I am here. I want to go to Kandy to see the elephants. Buddhist mosque, snorkelling I want to do. I want to go to the big mountain I’ve heard about” (IFV-3, personal communication, 03 August 2011).

The travelling itself was also a reason for someone to choose Sri Lanka as a location for their volunteer participation. Several of the research participants confirmed having previous travel experiences. In addition, the previous volunteers stated that their stay at the organisation had increased their need and desire to travel and explore other countries and cultures.

These results implied that by participating at sport for development organisations, the volunteers would be interested in travelling and exploring new countries and cultures. It also suggested that participation in this volunteering experience opened the eyes of the volunteers in terms of wanting to investigate and explore other countries and cultures.

It is important to recognise that this finding connected with the cultural expectation of the volunteers. The volunteers expected to see a new country, meet new people, and experience a new culture. This applied to both personal and cultural development, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

In relation to personal development expectations, evidence was shown that the volunteers expected their participation to change their views on life, and also to teach them to become more empathic towards other cultures and lifestyles. The volunteers wanted to use the experience to investigate differences between the new culture and their country of origin, with an aim to get a better life post-volunteering. They felt that it enhanced their self-esteem by doing something good for someone worse off than themselves. This was supported by the research done by Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991), which showed that one of the highest ranked comments on reasons to do volunteering was in a human service perspective.

These findings suggest that it is important for the organisation to provide information on how participation can benefit the volunteer both personally and professionally. It
showed that volunteers were more concerned about benefits for themselves. By understanding this, organisations could adjust and highlight the possible beneficial outcomes for the volunteers.

Webpages and volunteer recruitment agencies have realised this, and use this as a strategy to entice people to volunteer (Volunteering England, 2011).

Future research could investigate the personal development for volunteers, and how the experience impacts the volunteer post-volunteering. In addition, a study on a larger scale to test the hypothesis that personal development benefits are seen as an important factor when deciding upon volunteering, would help confirm this research.

5.3.4.2 Professional Development

Evidence showed that the sport for development volunteers at this organisation expected their participation to benefit either their studies, or future work, post volunteering.

Some of the volunteers suggested that volunteer participation might help them decide which subjects to choose later in their studies, or options to consider for postgraduate studies. This study identified this as being an expectation towards sport for development volunteer participation.

However, it was not proven whether this was an actual outcome and something which the volunteers would benefit from later. As mentioned earlier, most of these volunteers participated as part of their study requirements. This meant that the volunteers were there as a result of what they were studying. It would follow that the volunteers would expect some benefits and increased knowledge to assist in their studies.

This research suggested that future research on sport for development volunteers could investigate the professional outcome of volunteering towards studies, to ascertain how the participation impacts students post-volunteering.

Professional career development was also seen as an expectation by the volunteers. This included both those regarded as purely volunteers as well as the internship volunteers. Both groups acknowledged that they expected their volunteer participation to improve their CV, hence improve their chances of getting better and more interesting work when they finished their volunteering participation and studies. They stated that the specialness of this volunteering would stand out on their CV.
This was also confirmed by Kim, Zhang et al. (2010b) who suggested that “people may utilize their volunteer experience to gain and/or improve their professional skills, experiences, and credentials” (p. 360).

Future research could investigate whether sport for development volunteering actually is beneficial in terms of job applications. If this shows positive outcomes, the organisers of volunteers have another benefit to encourage future volunteers.

To summarise the expectations towards professional development within study and CV-building, the volunteers expected the experience of being overseas in the developing world to benefit their studies and work, in terms of increased knowledge and different experiences.

As this research has mainly focused on internship students, future research could be undertaken with a larger number of volunteers at several international locations, to investigate this expectation.

5.3.5 Cultural Engagement

Cultural expectations were also expressed during the data collection in this research. The expectation of seeing something new and different as opposed to what they are used to was stated to be an important factor in deciding where to volunteer. The volunteers wanted to explore something new and different than what was normal to them, and what other people had done.

This finding was confirmed by one student saying that the reason for choosing Sri Lanka was “That was especially for my own purpose to see something else than Europe. And also, always interested to go to Asia, to see a different culture” (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011). This highlights that gaining new experiences and knowledge is important in the decision making of whether to volunteer or not.

Working within a developing world country had an impact in terms of people getting increased knowledge about a new country, new people and a new culture. Also it was expected that participation in this programme would help in future work opportunities, as they anticipated that experience in Asia was something unique and something that not many other people had.
This is a German organisation and the place is different. Sri Lanka is a third world. This is the main reasons why I chose Sri Lanka. Because it’s international. It’s also for my English. It’s also good if I want to get a new job; it’s good then I can show them that I’ve worked, that I’ve had internship overseas. (ICV-3, personal communication, 20 July 2011)

Cultural expectations were shown as important for volunteers and there was an almost constant expectation from the volunteers to experience something new and different.

This meant that cultural expectation could be considered as an important factor in assisting the organisation to prepare for the volunteers. This research suggests that this finding could be transferable to similar projects in similar settings because of the nature of the organisation being in a different culture.

This research posits that the feeling that the volunteers would increase their knowledge of something unique and different was important to achieve. Future research could investigate whether this statement is true for other countries and organisations, as this research was limited to only one organisation in Sri Lanka. Similar research in Africa or a non-developing world country would be interesting to compare to these findings.

This research investigated the cultural expectations of the volunteer; other research could investigate the impact the volunteer had on the local community. Research is often focused on the organisation and its impact on the local community. It is important to recognise that volunteers are only a part of the organisation, and their impact on the local community would further enhance the body of knowledge.

There were also some challenges experienced amongst the volunteers’ expectations. The volunteers were aware of the differences in working ethic and culture, and acknowledged that this posed a potential challenge for their volunteer participation. A comment made by a future volunteer summarised the challenges succinctly:

I figure out the slang of the Sri Lanka is very difficult to understand at the first time. So I hope when I also will work with them together that I will understand everything, and I don’t know the culture and the traditions. Maybe there are some traditions you don’t know and you’re doing something wrong. (IFV-1, personal communication, 05 August 2011)
Along with the work challenge, language barriers were also acknowledged as a potential problem. This was because neither Sri Lanka nor Germany had English as their first language. There was potential for this to cause misunderstanding during their time at the organisation.

How these challenges affected the work of the volunteering could be possible future research. This could be of relevance to both the organisation as well as the volunteer as a means to increasing productivity for the organisation. Creating awareness of these potential problems could make it easier for the organisation to prepare for the arrival of the volunteer.

Providing information in advance to the volunteers about potential challenges would create awareness of them; thus making it easier for the volunteers to make preparations and educate themselves in these areas before they joined the organisation. How the volunteers dealt with such challenges is another future research topic, which could be of interest to both the organisations and volunteers.

As a summary of the expectations towards the volunteers’ participation as volunteers, this research confirmed that expectations are interrelated and interconnected. There was evidence of a combination of altruistic and instrumental, as well as cultural expectations and motives of sport for development volunteering. This research will now continue discussing the interpretation of the experiences found in the data collection, arguing that the experiences met the expectations raised by the volunteers.

5.4 Experiences

The third objective was to investigate the experience of sport for development volunteers.

The experiences of sport for development volunteers were sought from both current and previous volunteers. The results showed similar themes to those created during the data analysis; namely socialising and networking, learning, cultural, cultural challenges, plus organisational experiences. The latter was not evident among the expectations.

5.4.1 Socialising

Evidence found in this research explained that the social and networking experiences are a vital part of volunteering. However, in the expectation section in this chapter the
research discussed certain criticisms found among the expectations of the volunteers. The criticisms were that volunteer participation was mainly of benefit for the volunteers participating at this organisation, rather than the local community. The volunteers were more likely to engage with other volunteers rather than the local people.

However, findings from the experiences showed that, although the students were mainly German, the volunteers socialised with the local people. This had a positive impact on their volunteer satisfaction. Meeting the local people was the highlight for some of the volunteers.

A current volunteer confirmed the social aspect by saying, “I like that we are working together with the students. That we are so many students but also that we have to work with Sri Lankan people” (ICV-2, personal communication, 26 July 2011). This was supported by the comments of another student, who said that “the people is one of the highlights. My friends here in Sri Lanka” (ICV-3, personal communication, 20 July 2011). This finding indicates that the social network of the volunteer can increase with both locals and other volunteers during volunteer participation.

Findings from this research suggested that there was a correlation between the social part of volunteer participation and an increase in volunteer satisfaction. Sherer (2004), who conducted research on local volunteers in Israel, found that the social surroundings were a key motivating factor for the volunteers in influencing their decision to volunteer. This research argues that ensuring the volunteers interact socially with both the locals and with other volunteers is important for the organisation. Keeping the volunteers satisfied will keep them happy, hence helping to ensure more commitment to contribute to the organisation.

Organisations must not take the social part for granted and leave it up to each individual; it should create opportunities for the volunteers to socialise with each other as well as with local people. Further research could investigate the actual impact socialising has on the volunteers’ satisfaction with the organisation. Findings from this research suggested a hypothesis that volunteers who socialised quite a lot with other volunteers and the local people would have greater satisfaction with their involvement in the organisation.
5.4.2 Networking

A previous volunteer confirmed the possible post-volunteering benefits of creating networks by saying that “I still have contact to some of them. They are good friends now and we write, call or meet regularly” (IPV-2, personal communication, 15 January 2011).

It was confirmed that some of the networks formed through the volunteer participation still existed, however it was acknowledged that it depended on the individual and with whom they maintained contact. This was confirmed by one of the current volunteers, who said that some of his network in Sri Lanka would exist in the long term, however it was dependent on the other individuals as well.

The research of Costa et al. (2006) highlighted the importance of creating and building a sense of community among the volunteers and staff, which had flow-on effects on the creation of social capital internally. Sherry et al. (2011) also acknowledged the latest work on sport to create social capital and its popularity. They explored the building of social capital in sporting events, and said that “the role of social capital in attitudinal change is emphasised, specifically bridging capital that signifies the creation of relationship between disparate individuals” (p. 111). In their findings, Sherry et al. (2011) confirmed that their participants changed their attitudes, saying that this supported their argument that “events can facilitate the building of social capital” (p. 122) and summarised this by saying that “by creating increased understanding between different social groups, greater community cohesion and more inclusive social capital may be developed” (p. 122).

This supported the evidence from this study, which confirmed that social capital at some level is gained through volunteering. Future research could investigate how these networks turn out, and if they are beneficial for work or just for socialising long term as well as investigating what makes these ties successful and long-lasting.

5.4.3 Learning

Learning was one of the most important experiences for the volunteers. Evidence showed that personal learning, as well as personal development, was achieved through their volunteer participation at A.G.S.E.P.
Personal development related to the volunteers’ perception of gaining some personal rewards from volunteering. Findings showed that the experience of being in a new country, learning a new culture, seeing things differently than what they are used to, as well as being able to travel, were the most exciting experiences for the volunteers at A.G.S.E.P.

By coming to a new country in a different setting than what they are used to, they experienced other aspects of life, acknowledging that the participation raised their awareness of other people and helped them to appreciate their life differently.

This was summarised by one of the previous volunteers saying that:

I think that I really made a step forward I think in general as a human being. Like you have seen something different, you have seen another country, you have like, okay, you can work in there, you can connect somehow to the local people in there, so that was a good experience I think. New things you have seen all over, like culture and religious stuff and all that. Like living in a different world from day to day, and dealing with that and somehow experience to like it, that’s was I think. (IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011)

5.4.3.1 Personal Development

Information of the volunteers’ experiences and what they found most attractive and satisfying during their participation could be of help to the organisations. This could help organisations to better prepare in arranging the arrival and stay of new volunteers. Whether organisations do this or not, is suggested as a future study on the relationship between the volunteers and the organisations.

If organisations were able to improve their preparation for a positive experience for the volunteers, they could end up with more satisfied volunteers. Also, word-of-mouth as a marketing tool could have a bigger impact.

This research did not investigate how the volunteers found A.G.S.E.P. Further research could investigate the relationship between organisations and volunteers. One potential way to approach it could be to research the organisations’ ways of marketing themselves to their audience.
5.4.3.2 Professional Development

Professional development was found as an expectation towards volunteering, as well as an actual experience. Kim et al. (2010b) explained that “people may utilize their volunteer experience to gain and/or improve their professional skills, experiences, and credentials” (p. 360), and this has been confirmed by the findings of the experiences of the volunteers involved in this research.

During their volunteering participation, students were responsible for different tasks related to the organisation and its work. The volunteer gained professional development towards their studies as well as towards their future work life. Their experience related to working with other students, working with locals, seeing the business culture of the organisation, managing people and learning how to connect with different types of people. As well, many thought of this experience as being beneficial for their CV and future work applications.

The latter has not been explored in great detail in this research. The impact that the volunteers’ participation has on their future work could be a field of future studies.

Findings highlighted the students’ experience with a different workplace environment: “It’s a totally new experience. In Germany everything is working as fast as possible. Here you have to wait to get something done, you have to be very patient” (ICV-1, personal communication, 27 July 2011). Another said; “It’s important to tolerate other people, who you are working with, so it’s teamwork. You need to be tolerant considering time” (FGCV-2, personal communication, 02 August 2011).

5.4.4 Cultural Engagement

Cultural experience was found to be among the most popular and recognised experience of the volunteers’ time in Sri Lanka. Similar to learning, the cultural experience related to their experience of being in a different surrounding and setting than where they normally operate. There were new people and a new way of living. The living standard was different, and cultural and religious aspects were different. This new experience of the volunteer impacted the volunteers’ knowledge and raised awareness of other cultures and people.
ICV-3, one of the volunteers who had a first-hand experience living with a Sri Lankan family for a week, highlighted this as one of his best experiences for his stay, saying that:

The highlight of the other part is maybe I spend one week with a friend with local people here and lived in his house. I saw the life of typical Sri Lankan people. I saw the culture, the mentality and I also saw their life. (ICV-3, personal communication, 20 July 2011)

This meant that volunteering created an opportunity for the volunteers to learn and develop their knowledge about a new culture. It was also a possibility that in return the local community received knowledge about the volunteers’ culture. This meant that the exchange of knowledge was a possible outcome of volunteering.

This could receive further investigation and is not confirmed by this research. However, the hypotheses created with this research as a background would suggest that knowledge exchange and cultural exchange could occur during sport for development volunteering.

5.4.4.1 Cultural Challenges

Although the cultural experience had a vital impact on the volunteers, the experiences were not only positive. The research found evidence of cultural experiences being a challenge for some of the volunteers. It was not necessarily a negative thing, as all experiences create a lesson for life and the volunteers could still turn the cultural challenges experienced into a positive experience.

A previous volunteer spoke of several different challenges that occurred:

The work was challenging. That was definitely true. I mean, we started the project again, so it was a challenge to make it run. Life was challenging. Beside work, travelling was a bit challenging. To find the way to somewhere, especially when you travelled alone but that is something particular about this country I think. So, what I said before, just deal with everybody. All the different kind of characters that was challenging. Just like the differences to all this, to adapt to the differences. I mean, if you don’t adopt then you will get pretty soon tired of how people live their lives in there and that also affect work. I mean, if you make an appointment with somebody and you have to wait there one and a half
hour, only to get a call she is not coming today but maybe tomorrow, if you don’t accept that as it is, it is a habit for the people, you start to get pissed [angry] or like, that is one challenge you really have to face when you are here.

(IPV-1, personal communication, 26 July 2011)

The cultural challenges related mainly to the work culture and the difference in work ethics between Germans and Sri Lankan. The volunteers emphasised that the culture was different in terms of work attitude and reliability, for example, whether people would show up to a meeting or not.

Challenges were often related to time. While the German way is to be strictly on time, the experience of the Germans regarding the Sri Lankan attitude towards time was different. It was suggested that the challenge for the volunteer was to adjust to the Sri Lankan culture.

It was acknowledged that there was a skill involved for a volunteer to be able to adjust rather than get upset. They also acknowledged they were in different surroundings and that they had to adjust to that.

Research could be done on differences in work ethics among countries. In addition, this creates something more for the organisation to be aware of. They would be able to talk to their volunteers about this, upon the volunteers’ arrival. This could assist the volunteers to be better prepared and thus, to be able to cope better and end up with a more satisfying volunteering experience. Other future research could focus on the impact the challenges had on the volunteers, including their motivation and work productivity.

5.4.5 Organisational Issues

Organisational experiences refer to the volunteers’ experiences with the organisation and the way it is run, as well as the sport for development concept.

This point was not raised among the expectations of the volunteers, although some of them mentioned that the fact that the organisation was involved in development work was regarded as being important.

In addition, the sport students mentioned the importance of the organisation being a sport organisation. The students confirmed that they believed that sport for development
was a good way of implementing development work. They considered sport as being an international language, enhancing the possible positive impact that the sport organisation could have on the local community. A current volunteer said that:

The idea from this exchange program is really, really good because you can show this people from Sri Lanka how it is in Germany. Also you can show German people how it is in Sri Lanka and you can get some relationships. I think also sport is another language because you can take five people from Sri Lanka without English and also 5 from Germany without English skills and they can play without language. It’s another kind of language. (ICV-3, personal communication, 20 July 2011)

This was supported by Beutler (2008), who said that sport had been recognised as a common language and as a tool to creating and “building bridges between people; it can help overcome the cultural differences and create a common understanding and tolerance between participants” (p. 359).

The volunteers recognised the possible impact the organisation could have on the local community by saying that the organisation created works and networking opportunities for the local community, as well as creating safety for the kids and development opportunities.

One of the volunteers also acknowledged the possible negative parts about the organisation, by stating that there was a possibility that it highlighted the differences in lifestyle. However, this did not change their belief that the possible positive outcomes exceeded the possible negative outcomes.

Previous research had been done on the impact of organisations and events on the local community (Schulenkorf, 2009; Silvestre, 2008). Despite this, overall there is a lack of research exploring the volunteers’ impact on the local community, as well as how the local community affects the volunteer. Future research could investigate this relationship as possible areas of impact on volunteering.

5.5 Recommendations for Future Research

The Discussion chapter has, so far, explored the first three objectives of the research, namely investigation of the characteristics, expectations, and experiences of sport for
development volunteers. This section relates to the fourth objective, where the aim is to provide implications and recommendations for future research.

As suggested throughout this chapter, the findings from this research are not able to generalise to the wider volunteer context. However, these findings could have similarities with other sport and development projects located in the developing world, and therefore might be transferable to those kinds of projects, as well as to other sport for development volunteers.

The results of this research have provided further evidence confirming that the complex area of volunteering is yet to be fully explored, and further research in the area is needed to create a better understanding in the different fields of volunteering.

The present study has brought forward that the characteristics, expectations and experiences of volunteers might differ depending on the specific field of volunteering being explored. However, further research opportunities that would contribute to a fuller understanding of volunteering, and volunteers within sport for development, are presented next.

Firstly, the extent to which relationships, such as that between the organisation and the volunteer, and the volunteer and the local community, have not been fully addressed in the present study. Due to the design of the study, the impact of the volunteers at the local community level – where their participation and involvement took place – was neglected. Any further research in this area could examine their contribution and impact towards the local people and vice versa, especially considering that anecdotally the local people had a major impact on the volunteers’ experiences.

Future research could explore and compare the two groups, volunteers and internship volunteers, as this could be beneficial information for the organisation on how to behave differently towards them. The internship students at this organisation were more or less equally divided between those who were studying a subject within sport, and those studying non-sport related subjects.

Further research could be done on a larger scale to explore the hypotheses of this research, which supported that in a sport for development context, volunteers were more likely to be aged between 20 and 30 years, because they were involved due to requirements from their schools or universities. They showed as being less likely to
have commitments at home, such as children or other family members, which would limit their chances of going away to do volunteer work for longer periods.

Future research could also examine variation in experiences and expectations for sport for development volunteers at different locations. The question can be raised: Would similar results be obtained if this study were replicated with sport for development volunteers in Africa, or within other types of volunteering situations else in the world?

Future research could also investigate how cultural and knowledge exchange relates to other fields of volunteering, not only sport for development. This research might argue that there was a higher possibility of cultural exchange at an organisation located somewhere completely different to where the volunteers originate.

In relation to this, further research that considered expectations and experiences of sport for development volunteers across larger contexts could also be of benefit. The advantage of looking across different geographical contexts of volunteering would be the capturing of specific cultural factors and changes that may not be detected at A.G.S.E.P. in Sri Lanka.

Information gathered and analysed could then assist NGOs in their preparation for volunteers, so they could better prepare for the arrival of volunteers to make their participation a better experience. For the volunteer, such information would be useful for those committed to go to a sport for development project to do volunteer work. This information could create awareness for potential outcomes, and prepare the individual volunteer for future volunteer participation. Therefore, this information could be useful to assist NGOs and volunteers to make the experience better and more productive for both parties.

Thirdly, further research incorporating a similar design and larger sample size would be of value. In fact, fieldwork for this research was conducted over the period of only one month in Sri Lanka, investigating previous, current and future volunteers. The time span was not long enough to follow one group through all phases, hence the interview with three different groups with different characteristics. Extending the research to longitudinal studies over a greater period of time would provide even richer data and potential for the capturing of changes in perspectives regarding expectations and experiences in volunteering. This would also increase the opportunities of generating a
larger set of rigorous data with the possibility of major findings being transferable to similar projects in similar contexts.

This research has spent time looking at the volunteers and their expectations and experiences towards their stay at A.G.S.E.P. as sport for development volunteers. Although this research concentrated on the volunteers, the voluntary sector faces challenges to obtain and recruit new volunteers, and to create retention of volunteers (Cuskelley et al., 2006). However, not investigated in this research, and which could be included in future research, was data on those who decided not to stay, or those who did not choose the volunteering option. Incorporating this data would provide knowledge, and thus information towards how to deal with the challenge.

5.6 Contributions of the Study

Firstly, one of the most significant findings from this research was the confirmation of the change of attitude in the expectations and reasons for volunteering. These have changed from being mainly altruistic, to currently being more of a combination of factors. For example, a combination of altruistic and instrumental characteristics was found to be evident. Instrumental characteristics, such as gaining new skills, experiences and meeting new people, were found to be important in regards to expectations and reasons for volunteering.

Both personal and professional experiences and expectations were evident among the volunteers towards their participation, and during their participation, at A.G.S.E.P. This research found evidence for altruistic motives among volunteers who wanted to contribute and help disadvantaged people.

This showed that a combination of motives needs to be considered when exploring and planning for volunteers’ expectations and motivations for volunteering. Evidence to confirm this expectation was found by current and previous volunteers stating that the outcome of their participation related to personal development, professional development, and fulfilling altruistic reasons as well as cultural experiences.

Secondly, cultural factors were also evident as key expectations and experiences. Specifically, this research found that the new experiences of seeing a new country, meeting new people, getting to know a new lifestyle and a different culture in a completely different social and geographical context, were all important factors.
Furthermore, current and future volunteers expected to develop personal skills and to learn something as a person; something which was confirmed as a key outcome of volunteering by the experiences of both current and previous volunteers. These findings provide organisations and volunteer agencies with useful information on how to retain and attract more volunteers. This research suggests that knowing what the volunteers’ expectations and experiences are towards volunteering, can help the organisation to better prepare for their arrival. In addition, it can be used in marketing aimed to attract more volunteers.

This research confirms the approach of existing webpage volunteer recruitment agencies towards attracting potential future volunteers. This research states that such volunteering agencies can use this data to highlight the possibilities of gaining new skills and experience, obtaining more knowledge, and enhancing their CVs, as well as the social aspect of meeting new people and making new friends.

The research showed that there were mainly young internship students participating as volunteers at sport for development organisations. This meant that the target group for A.G.S.E.P. is therefore university students with a requirement to participate in practical experiences. Furthermore, this study suggests that females are more likely to contribute as volunteers in the sport for development context. These are important findings because they provide organisations with information on their target group, thereby assisting organisations to adjust and create strategies on how to retain and recruit volunteers.

This research found evidence that the volunteers do hold some kind of relationship or acknowledgement towards the organisation. Out of 12 participants, 11 were German, while the last was from the German speaking part of Italy. The volunteers could relate to the organisation being German, which was suggested by some of the volunteers as a crucial enabler for the creation of perceived trust and security.

For sport education students in particular, the “sport factor” was a significant element when choosing A.G.S.E.P. as an internship provider. Whilst students from the social sciences were largely attracted by the aid and development focus of the organisation, these students focused their search for potential volunteer providers around the aspect of sport. This has implications for the organisation in terms of the marketing and targeting
of future volunteers. In particular the organisation needs to highlight both their work in development as well as sport to the respective target groups.

Finally, to be able to socialise was found as an important decisive factor for the volunteer to be satisfied. The social aspect was also found by several students to be the highlight of their participation, and a previous student confirmed the social network created through the participation was still intact. This outcome has not been evident in previous research on volunteers’ experiences. Galley and Clifton (2010) presented the four most frequent responses of the volunteers’ reasons of participating at their research on ecotourists. These four were to a) experience something completely new, b) take part in a rare opportunity, c) to observe the diversity of animal species, and d) to stand out on their CV as an experience. All of the above factors, with the exception of the point c) of observing the diversity of animal species, were evident in this research.

However, these responses above do not include what was among the most important findings of this research, namely the social aspect. Social aspects need to be investigated in terms of the impact on satisfaction of the volunteer. For volunteers, the outcomes of this research highlight what the volunteers can potentially expect from their participation. This research has also highlighted potential challenges for sport for development volunteers, which need to be taken into account by those preparing for an overseas experience. This may better prepare volunteers on their upcoming participation, which again can affect their satisfaction, motivation and connection to the organisation and the local community.

5.7 Conclusion

Volunteers have become the backbone of many sport organisations worldwide, particularly those aiming towards social development and peace building in disadvantaged community settings. The first objective of this research was to investigate the characteristics of sport for development volunteers. The second objective was to do an investigation of the expectations towards sport for development volunteering. The third objective was to investigate experiences of volunteer participation at sport for development projects. Finally, as a combination of these objectives, the research led towards important implications and recommendations of future research in the field of overseas volunteerism.
The study was carried out at A.G.S.E.P., a German NGO located in Marawila, Sri Lanka. A qualitative approach was adopted to collect data, utilising the methods of semi-structured interviews and focus groups to obtain data of future, current and previous volunteers at the organisation. Twelve interviews were conducted for the data collection, in addition to two focus groups consisting respectively of five future volunteers and four current volunteers.

This research has helped increase the body of knowledge about sport for development volunteers and their expectations and experiences towards their volunteer participation. As well, themes have been highlighted which could be further explored in the field of sport for development volunteering.

In the investigation of the characteristics of the volunteers, it was found that they were most likely to be female internship students doing volunteering as part of their studies. Their studies were equally divided between those studying sport studies and those not studying in the field of sport. Although all showed an interest in sport at some level, for sport education students in particular, the “sport factor” was a significant element when choosing A.G.S.E.P. as an internship provider.

Students from the social sciences were largely attracted by the aid and development focus of the organisation. Personal skills, such as the ability to be open-minded and tolerant, were two skills that were perceived to be important by the sport for development volunteers.

The expectations towards sport for development volunteering focused on instrumental expectations for the volunteer, such as gaining new skills and knowledge, socialising, and the opportunity to improve their CV. Evidence was also found that altruism did occur and people felt good about doing something for more disadvantageous people. Cultural expectations were also vital prior to the volunteering, such as expecting to see something new, meeting different people, seeing a new lifestyle and experiencing a new culture.

The experiences found among the current and the previous volunteers compliment the expectations by the future volunteers. The most important experiences related to instrumental learning, social development and cultural experiences. Those creating most valuable memories for the volunteers were instrumental experiences, such as what they have learnt, seen and experienced to benefit the individual personally. The main
findings were the experience of meeting new people and creating a social network, personal development such as increased knowledge and skills, professional development by CV building, and cultural experiences. The cultural experiences were mentioned as being contact with the local people, experiencing a new country and a new culture, and being in a developing world.

Results from this investigation showed that future volunteers’ expectations were largely in line with the actual experiences reported by previous volunteers. The most important aspects necessary for volunteers to be satisfied with their engagement were the social aspects, personal development, professional development and cultural development; all were regarded as instrumental characteristics, alongside the altruistic characteristic of doing something good for disadvantaged people.

Overall, this research is relevant to A.G.S.E.P. as well as organisations located in similar contexts and settings. Other sport for development volunteers would also benefit from this study, because it gives insight and information of the characteristics, expectations and experiences of volunteering at overseas projects in disadvantaged settings. This may lead to more awareness for the volunteers and protection for the organisation, as it may inform future sport for development volunteers on both possible positive outcomes as well as some of the challenges the volunteers should be aware of.

This information can also attract promising volunteers for participation, as well as prepare them for their stay by making it an easier and more informed transition to their new setting. For A.G.S.E.P., the results show how their volunteers perceive them, what their expectations are prior to their stay, as well as what their best experiences have been with the organisation. This provides A.G.S.E.P. with useful information for future recruitment of volunteers and how to better prepare for their arrival.

Findings from this research are also relevant for other organisations finding themselves in a similar situation to A.G.S.E.P. Hence, this research provides a body of knowledge with useful information on sport for development volunteers and organisations.
5.8 Looking Back and Looking Forward

Looking back, this research has achieved the aims of exploring the characteristics, expectations and experiences of sport for development volunteers at overseas projects in a developing world context. Furthermore, it has made recommendations for further research in the area of volunteering, and especially sport for development volunteering.

This journey has without doubt impacted positively on the researcher in many ways. The knowledge gained from accomplishing a master thesis is tremendous, and not only in the sense of educational knowledge. While the educational knowledge has increased significantly during this research, important personal development and experiences were gained by the researcher. Participating at A.G.S.E.P. in Sri Lanka and meeting so many different people from different backgrounds and cultures was truly an adventure. Seeing and experiencing Sri Lanka leaves the researcher with unforgettable impressions and memories.

Looking forward, this research and future projects that flow from it are attempting to contribute to the body of knowledge on volunteering in sport for development. It is hoped that additional interest and curiosity is created for other people to engage in volunteering, and for academics to take up the opportunities and recommendations for further research in the field.


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Appendices

Appendix A: Participation Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

Date Information Sheet Produced:
14.04.2011

Project Title
Expectations and Experiences of Volunteers at Sport-for-Development projects in the developing world

An Invitation
My name is Preben Stai, and I am a Masters of Business student at Auckland’s University of Technology / New Zealand. I am currently completing my Master’s thesis in the area of Volunteers in Sport-For-Development (S4D) organisations and I am inviting you to participate in this research. As a person who has participated in S4D projects or is going to participate as a volunteer through a sport-for-development organisation, you are invited to take part in this project.

This research aims to help to better understand the motivations, experiences and expectations of volunteers participating in S4D organisations in the developing world. The outcomes of the research should benefit the participants, researcher, and communities. It is important to note that the researcher desires that there be mutual benefit to not only the researcher but also to you, as someone who may benefit from the findings.

Your choice to participate or not to participate is entirely voluntary and should you choose to accept or deny this request it will not reflect negatively on you personally or your organisation. Participation will not advantage or disadvantage you in any form.
personally or towards the organisation. You may withdraw from the study at any
time prior to the completion of data collection.

What is the purpose of this research?

The main purpose of proposing this to understand the motivation of volunteers to
participate at a project which they prior to the stay have no connection to the project.
The research mainly focuses on the volunteer’s benefits and aims to explore and
understand the reason for them go away from home to do volunteer work.

This research is part of a field where the organisation side has received most attention
and there is a gap in the literature for volunteers participating at sport projects in the
developing world.

The findings of this study will be published in a Master’s thesis and a copy will be
stored in the AUT library as well as a personal copy for the researcher. No material that
could identify you or your organisation will be used in any publications. Again, nothing
that could identify you or your organisation will be used in any of the presentations of
the findings and all data will be held confidential. The findings from this research
project may also be published in academic journals and / or presented at conferences.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

You have been chosen to participate in this research because you have had experience
or are going to participate as a volunteer in the S4D project A.G.S.E.P in Marawila and
are willing to share of your experiences and/or expectations from this organisation.
A.G.S.E.P is the organisation explored in this case.

Participants have been chosen through a database of previous and future volunteers
participating at A.G.S.E.P S4D project in Sri Lanka. After a respond on an e-mail sent
to everybody in the database, the researcher randomly picks people to be asked to
participate in this case study.

What will happen in this research?

You will participate in one interview and one focus group about your experience and
expectations to volunteer for this particular sport project.
You will be interviewed about your experience and/or expectations to participate in this particular sport project. The commitment from you will be one interview that will take approximately one hour of your time. The interview will be structured in a way that allows you as the participant to openly contribute with minimal interference from the researcher. You may terminate the interview at any time.

In addition to the one hour interview you may be asked further questions by the researcher as a follow up to the interview and further studies, again, your participation in the follow up is voluntary and the follow up questions will not take more than half an hour of your time. Communications via email and phone will give you the opportunity to privately express any concerns you have about the research.

You will also participate in a focus group consisting of 4 (including) participants discussing topics regarding your experience and expectations towards being a volunteer at the organisation. The commitment form you will be on focus groups that will take approximately one hour of your time. The focus groups will be structured in a way that allows you to have an open discussion with the other participants about your experience and expectations towards participating at the sport project. You may terminate the focus group at any time.

Both the interview and the focus group will be recorded on a digital recorder. Upon completion, the data may be used for journal applications and academic presentations.

**What are the discomforts and risks?**

There are minimal risks or discomforts in participating in this research. There will be no questions of personal nature or provoking statements to be discussed (Refer to the questions in appendix). You have the opportunity to hold or terminate the interview at any stage. If you do not feel comfortable discussing the topic at all then please choose not to accept this request to be part of this research. You can choose not to answer any of the questions if you wish.

**How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?**

These discomforts will be approached with sensitivity by the researcher and as mentioned you are not required to answer a question if you do not wish to. You are free
to choose whether you will not answer any or all of the questions. Counselling services are available to you free of charge at the AUT Health and Wellbeing centre (921 9999 ext. 9992) if you feel you require this service.

**What are the benefits?**

As a participant you will have the opportunity to view the final output of the research in sport management. It is the intention of the researcher to positively affect in some way your views of volunteers’ experiences and expectations. It is the intent that the findings from this research project will be useful to volunteers and managers of S4D organisations.

**How will my privacy be protected?**

Neither you nor your organisation will be identifiable in the reports of this research. A random reference number will be assigned to your data and that will be used in any analysis. All information produced will be anonymous.

**What are the costs of participating in this research?**

This interview will cost you approximately one hour of your time. If follow up questions are necessary, this will take up to half an hour of your time. The focus group will cost you approximately one hour of your time.

**What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?**

Please complete the accompanying consent form and return to Preben Stai via email within one week of receiving the forms to be a part of this research. The Consent Form will give you the opportunity to assess your perception of any personal or professional risk prior to the commencement of the interview. The researcher will work to accommodate the best suited time for you to participate in the interview. Again, participation is completely voluntary and if you wish to withdraw up to the completion date of the research you are free to do so without any adverse consequences of any kind. If you wish to see a copy of the final report one can be provided to you on completion of the thesis.

**How do I agree to participate in this research?**
Once you send the signed consent form back via email it will be regarded as your acceptance to be a part of this study.

**Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?**

If you request feedback from the researcher in regards to anything that was discussed or any potential outputs of the research then you are able to request this via the email addresses listed below any time after the completion of the interview. Feedback will be given to the best of the researcher’s ability in a reasonable time frame for response.

If you would like more information or have any questions at all please contact Preben Stai at the addresses given below.

**What do I do if I have concerns about this research?**

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, Nico Schulenkorf, PhD, email: nico.schulenkorf@aut.ac.nz office: +64 99219999 ext. 7311.

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary, AUTEC, Madeline Banda, madeline.banda@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 8044.

**Whom do I contact for further information about this research?**

Research contact details

Preben Stai

Mobile: +64 21 027 026 12

Email: preben.stai@gmail.com

Supervisor contact details

**NICO SCHULENKORF** Ph.D.
Lecturer Sport & Event Mgt
School of Sport & Recreation
Auckland University of Technology
Akoranga, North Shore Campus
Private Bag 92006
Auckland 1142, NZ
email: nico.schulenkorf@aut.ac.nz
office: +64 99219999 ext. 7311

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on type the date final ethics approval was granted, AUTEC Reference number type the reference number.
Appendix B: Consent Form

Consent Form

*Project title:* Expectations and Experiences of Volunteers at Sport-for-Development projects in the developing world

*Project Supervisors:* Nico Schulerskorf, PhD
Sean Phelps, PhD

*Researcher:* Preben Stai

- I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 17th June 2011.
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and that they will also be audio-taped and transcribed.
- I understand that I may withdraw myself or any information that I have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.
- If I withdraw, I understand that all relevant information including tapes and transcripts, or parts thereof, will be destroyed.
- I agree to take part in this research.
- I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research (please tick one): Yes ☑ No ☐

Participant’s signature: .................................................................

Participant’s name: .................................................................

Participant’s Contact Details (if appropriate):

........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
Date:

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 17.06.2011
AUTEC Reference number 11/116
Appendix C: Interview Questions Future Volunteers

Location:
Time:
Get demographic: Age, gender, nationality (part of Germany), etc., studies?

Questions for future volunteers

1) What were your reasons for volunteering?
2) Did you have any other options?
3) What were your reasons for volunteering overseas? Why Sri Lanka, Why A.G.S.E.P.? Why S4D?
4) Did you have any other options? If you do, can you explain the reason for your choice? Sport organisation, why?
5) What are your expectations to this volunteer period? What do you think you will learn? What skills do you think you will develop?
6) What skills do you currently hold that you think will be useful for this volunteering?
7) How do you think you will benefit from your involvement at this programme in the future? (aiming at personal and professional things)
8) What are your expectations to the organisation?
9) Have you done a similar volunteering earlier? What, where, why?
10) What do you think of your relationship with the local people? How do you think that is going to be?
11) What do you expect to get out of the relationship with the other volunteers?
12) What did you know about the organisation and about your tasks before you got here?
13) What do you aim to get out of the stay?
14) What do you expect you will experience?
15) Any difficulties or challenges?
16) How is your relationship with sport? And how did it affect your decision of volunteering at this organisation?
17) What challenges are you expecting? If any. What motivates you to do volunteer work?
Appendix D: Interview Questions Current Volunteers

Location:

Time:

Get demographic: Age, gender, nationality (part of Germany), etc., studies

Questions for current volunteers

1) What were your reasons for volunteering?
   a. Did you have any other options?

2) What were your reasons for volunteering overseas? Why Sri Lanka, Why A.G.S.E.P.? Why S4D?
   a. Did you have any other options? If you do, can you explain the reason for your choice?
   b. Why an s sport organisation?

3) What kind of expectations did you have before you started this volunteer participation?

4) Tell about what you have learned from being a volunteer so far?
   a. Highlights? Skill? What is the most important thing you have learned? Why?

5) What skills do you currently hold that you have found most useful for this volunteering?

6) How do you think you will benefit from your involvement at this programme in the future? (aiming at personal and professional things)

7) What did you expect of the organisation before you started as a volunteer? Did it fulfill your expectations? Did you know much about it?

8) Have you done a similar volunteering earlier? What, where, why?
   a. Would you do it again? Why, why not?

9) What do you think of the organisation so far?
   a. What would you recommend for the organisation to keep doing or to change for making it a better experience for future volunteers?

10) How do you get along with the local people? Can you explain the relationship to them?

11) What do you aim to get out of your stay?

12) What has been the best part so far?

13) What has been the most negative part so far? Any difficulties or challenges?

14) How is your relationship with the other volunteers and local people? What do you think you will get out of it? Long term friendships?

15) How is your relationship to sports? Do you play any sports or played earlier?

16) What motivates you to do volunteer work?
Appendix E: Interview Questions Previous Volunteers

Location:

Time:

Get demographic: Age, gender, nationality (part of Germany), etc., studies

Questions for Previous volunteers (please use examples to answer questions where it’s suitable)

1) What were your reasons for volunteering?
2) What were your reasons for volunteering overseas? Why Sri Lanka, Why A.G.S.E.P.? Why S4D?
   a. Did you have any other options? If you do, can you explain the reason for your choice?
      How did you find this organisation? Why sport?
3) What was the most important thing you learned from being a volunteer? What was the highlight for you as a volunteer?
   a. In what way has it changed you?
4) Did you gain any rewards for participating at a volunteer? How have you used your participation at this organisation after you finished? Do you think it has helped you later in your life?
5) What did you expect of the organisation before you started as a volunteer? Did it fulfill your expectations?
6) What skills did you hold that you found most useful for your participation?
7) Have you done a similar volunteering afterwards? What, where, why?
   a. Would you do it again? Why, Why not?
8) How was your relationship to the organisation?
   a. What would you recommend for the organisation to keep doing or to change for making it a better experience for future volunteers?
9) How was your relationship to the local people? Explain, still keep in touch
10) What about relationship with other volunteers? Do you still keep in touch? How is your relationship to them?
11) What experiences have been most valuable for you as a person during you stay at A.G.S.E.P.?
    a. How did your experience compare with your expectations?
12) How is your relationship to sport? Participate, watch? How did this affect the decision of volunteering for A.G.S.E.P.?

13) What was most challenging?

14) What motivates you to do volunteer work?
Appendix F: Questions for Focus Groups

Questions for focus groups – Volunteering in A.G.S.E.P in Marawila, Sri Lanka.

1) Discuss and consider what they feel are the main reasons for participation as volunteering overseas at a sport development programme like A.G.S.E.P.?

2) Discuss what expectations volunteers might have to participate at a sporting programme like A.G.S.E.P.?

3) Discuss different outcomes of volunteers’ participation? In what way will they benefit (personal and professional) and are there any critiques or difficulties that can be the outcome?

4) What types of skills are the most important for a volunteer to hold at this type of organisation? Discuss which one is the most important or create a discussion between them.

5) Discuss how the organisation and the volunteers affect the local people? Positive, negative?
Games for Peace
Supported by the Ministry of Rehabilitation
Resettlement and Refugees of Sri Lanka

AGSEP
connecting sportpeople

01.11.2010

Confirmation of Partnership for Research Project

We herewith confirm that the Asian German Sports Exchange Programme (A.G.S.E.P.) will work together with Mr. Preben Stai, born 07.06.1985 in Arendal, on his sport volunteer project “Expectations and Experiences of Volunteers in Sport-for-Development”.

Mr. Stai is supervised by Dr. Nico Schulekoff, who has been associated with our organisation for several years. We welcome Mr. Stai’s decision to conduct his research in Sri Lanka and we will thoroughly support him throughout his project.

D. Doering
AGSEP – CEO
Consultant to the Ministry of Rehabilitation, Refugees & Resettlement
Appendix II: Researcher Safety Protocol

Researcher Safety Protocol – Preben Stai

The data collection for this research will take place in Marawila, Sri Lanka, at the premises of the organisation explored, A.G.S.E.P.

The premises are at Aquarius Sport Resort (http://www.ceylonhotel.com/aquarius/index.php) with on-site security 24 hours a day, 7 days a week.

This is also where the volunteers at the organisation is living, and also where the offices where they are working are located.

- The interviews for this research will be conducted in one of the offices provided by the organisation, at the organisation’s premises. On-site there will be security and other people working in relation with the organisation.

- The organisation’s assistant manager, Kai Globig, will be noticed about where the interviews will be conducted and who that will be interviewed. He will be noticed face-to-face just before the interview takes place, and as soon as it is finished. He will also be in position of both the researcher, Preben Stai, as well as the supervisors, Nico Schulenkorf and Sean Phelps, contact details, such as mobile number, Skype contact and e-mail address.

- On arrival in Sri Lanka, the researcher will be registered at the Norwegian Embassy in Colombo, Sri Lanka.

- The staff at the Aquarius Resort will be noticed when the researcher are leaving the premises, giving them information about where the researcher will be, how to establish contact, and when the researcher will return.

- The researcher will travel with insurance from the Norwegian based insurance company, Europeiske Forsikring (www.europeiske.no) as well as the insurance provided through AUT.
- The researcher will have regularly Skype-contact with the supervisors during the data collection in Sri Lanka.

- In any unlikely case of accident, the research will have the supervisors, as well as the assistant manager of A.G.S.E.P’s, phone numbers and other contact details.

- In any unlikely case there will be an accident involving the researcher, the assistant manager as stated above, will have the supervisors contact details, as well as the contact number to the Norwegian Embassy in Colombo, Sri Lanka.