Extreme Volunteering: A holistic perspective on international women sport volunteers

A thesis submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

by

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Anyone moderately familiar with the rigours of composition will not need to be told the story in detail; how he wrote and it seemed good; read it and it seemed vile; corrected and tore up; cut out; put in; was in ecstasy; in despair; had his good nights and bad mornings; snatched at ideas and lost them; ... now cried; now laughed; vacillated between this style and that; ... and could not decide whether he was the divinest genius or the greatest fool in the world.

~Virginia Woolf (1928)~
Abstract

This thesis explores the lives of a group of fifteen exceptional women who were dedicated to the cause of advancing girls and women in sport and physical activity. Over several decades, they worked in a voluntary capacity to transform women in sport through practice and policy development. Moreover, they aligned such unpaid work with personal and local experiences of volunteering that eventually led to their participation in international sport circles and policies. The key settings for their voluntary service came from their roles in the emergence and maintenance of two international women’s sport organisations – International Association of Physical Education and Sport for Girls and Women (IAPESGW) and WomenSport International (WSI). In addition, their voluntary roles were so substantial that they were inextricably interwoven within all aspects of their lives. Therefore, the purpose of this thesis is to explore the participants’ relationships with sport volunteering, in the particular settings of IAPESGW and WSI, whilst analysing the role of volunteering in their lives.

The study utilised a holistic framework to gain an in-depth understanding about the women’s commitment to the cause and how volunteering fits into their lifestyle. As there were no models from the sport volunteering field that were appropriate for this study, the research drew upon and developed Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) non-sport model called the Collective and Reflexive Styles of Volunteering (SOV). The SOV was valuable because it offered a multi-dimensional approach to explain how, why, and when the participants got involved with advancing women’s sport and physical activity, and how their involvement related to and influenced their wider lifestyles. A critical realist and social constructionist philosophy was employed to have a greater understanding of the women’s realities, and life history interviews were conducted to gain a greater understanding about how they constructed their knowledge about themselves, sport, and the world around them.
The study illustrated the complexity of the women’s volunteer participation. The findings suggested that their sport passion and identity guided many of their actions and activities throughout their life, such as choices for higher education and within professional work. In addition, the findings showed that it was their personal experiences and gained knowledge about gender disadvantages in sport that initially stimulated and then repeatedly reinforced their interests and commitment. Although these had strong impacts on the women’s entrance into and commitment to the cause, the findings highlighted that the women had to identify the conditions of their relationships, family, and types of paid work to be compatible with levels of volunteering. The study concluded that sport researchers can benefit from examining volunteers from a holistic perspective to gain a better understanding of the conditions under which individuals make such an extreme, voluntary contribution to sport.
Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my mother, Charlene L. Gipson. She provided me with the foundation, support, and strength to complete this intellectual journey, and, without her, this would not have been possible. She deserves to celebrate every bit of this accomplishment because she was with me throughout this whole process: the good, bad, and ugly. She was (and still is) my rock! I am grateful to have her in my life.
Acknowledgments

There are a number of people who embarked on this incredible, life-changing journey with me. It gives me pleasure to show these individuals some form of gratitude.

I would like to thank my supervision team for teaching, guiding, and pushing me throughout the most intellectually challenging journey I have ever undertaken. I would not have had this opportunity if it was not for Professor Celia Brackenridge who presented this doctoral opportunity to me. She guided me, a novice researcher, how to propose, set up, and carry out a doctoral study. Dr Laura Hills watched me grow and develop as a researcher. She taught me about sociological theories, particularly feminist theory, and how to apply it to the thesis. Professor Tess Kay joined the supervision team late in the process. Tess helped me continue to grow as a researcher as she was honest, logical, and patient. Tess helped build my confidence as a researcher and better understand how to put my thoughts down on paper. I would like to thank Tess for working closely with me in the last few months of completion. This was a long road, but as the process is coming to the end, I am thankful that my supervision team and I are building on the supervisor/PhD relationships to become more of colleagues and friends.

I am indebted to the wonderful women who participated in the study. Without their willingness to participate and share their lives, this research would not have been possible.

I am grateful for my two mentors. This opportunity would not have possible without Professor Darlene Kluka ‘taking a chance’ on me. She has always believed in me and always offered supportive words. Dr Vassil Girginov offered me opportunities to grow as an academic. He also offered me advice, support, enthusiasm, and encouragement to stay strong and finish the thesis. I am grateful that Dr Donna Pastore from the Ohio State University took me on for one year as an external supervisor when I was collecting data in the USA. It was refreshing to work with Dr Pastore who brought new ideas and energy to my doctoral process.
I would like to thank all my doctoral colleagues who came through Office 270 because of their support and positive attitudes. Particularly, Nicola Theis has become an amazing friend in the last year as she has been a motivator, a workout partner, an editor, a listener, a colleague, and just an overall friend. My fellow social science and/or international PhD student friends shared something special with me, and it was always nice to have pizza nights, coffee breaks, or random PhD sleepovers with Miss Katherine Maddocks, Mr Harry Lim, and Miss Laura Green.

Dr Glen Wintrup (friend, colleague, and supporter) has been there from the moment I stepped off the plane. He was there for my 2:00 am phone calls, my crazy meltdowns, and my need for a conversation to make sense about a PhD. I am not sure how I would have gotten through this process without the help of Glen. He provided a listening ear, constructive editorial comments, and the right questions to help me better understand what I should be doing.

Outside of the PhD environment, I would like to thank my friends in the USA and the UK. The PhD put a strain on many of these relationships from the USA, but I am ready to work on them from here on. In the UK, I would not have stayed sane without Saeeda Hussain and Laura Allsop. Our relationships grew throughout the last four years, and I am thankful they were only a phone call away. Noor Mir came into my life at a very trying time and uplifted my spirits and determination.

There is a special group of women who offered their help and prayers that I would like to acknowledge – Ms Susan Melvin, Ms Jeanette Taylor, Dr Moore-Cooper, Mrs Shelia Jenkins, Mrs Etta Cobb, and Ms Charlene Gipson. Finally, I would like to thank my family for allowing me to live abroad to embark on this journey, whilst continuing to be supportive, enthusiastic, and interested. They attempted to understand my world, which I do not believe is possible from being on the outside. A PhD student never realises how much the research takes out of them until they are in the thick of it. Some of the most important people in my life had to deal with my selfishness and continued absence over the
last four years. Hearing their supportive voices on the other end of the phone or seeing a face on a computer screen is nothing like enjoying a hug, a hand shake, or simply being in their presence.
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- Lifelong influences to volunteer from community-based outlets and actors
- Developing interests for volunteering at a global level - leading to IAPESGW and WSI

Motivations and reasons for choosing to volunteer in IAPESGW and WSI

- Entrance into IAPESGW
- Entrance into WSI

Linking course and intensity of commitment to motivational structure and choice of activity

- Shared interests and sport and politics within IAPESGW and WSI
- IAPESGW: Group-based identities
- WSI: Group affiliation and identity affirmation

Course and intensity of commitment linked to motivational structure

Volunteers’ contribution to IAPESGW and WSI through core involvement

- Core involvement in IAPESGW and WSI

Relation to paid work in IAPESGW and WSI

The relation of volunteer work with paid work

- Ways of managing paid and unpaid work
- Reasons for changing intensity levels in volunteer participation

Balancing paid work, voluntary work, and private lives

Summary

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- The biographical frame of reference dimension of the SOV
- The motivational structure dimension of the SOV
- The course and intensity of commitment dimension of the SOV
- The organisational environment dimension of the SOV
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

This thesis examines a group of women who came together in the 20th century in a voluntary capacity to challenge male domination in sport and physical activity. Over a period of several decades, this relatively small number of individuals created conditions in which the movement to enhance women and girls’ access to sport was transformed. These women were heavily involved with the emergence and maintenance of two international women’s sport organisations that challenged global sport structures – the International Association of Physical Education and Sport for Girls and Women (IAPESGW), formally launched in 1953, and the Women Sport International (WSI), formally launched in 1994. Both worked to confront gendered practices in sport from grassroots to elite performance levels, and, ultimately, their efforts were to affect policy and practical delivery of sport in contexts ranging from community to international. Although the majority of the women came from Westernised countries and much of their early work was concerned with sport and physical activity within this context, as the organisations continued to develop, their work to promote sport and physical activity permeated more diverse cultural contexts and challenged more acute cultural constraints. To this day, IAPESGW and WSI remain the only two global, women-led sport organisations.

The organisations played an important role in the advancement of modern sport for women and girls, and the story of this development has been subject to a lengthy and continuing tradition of analyses within the social sciences, primarily with an explicit focus on gender. Scholars from many disciplines have undertaken feminist and pro-feminist analyses of women and girls’ gender-based discriminatory experiences, focusing on issues such as sport participation and exclusion (Birrell & Theberge, 1994; Hargreaves, 1994; Scraton & Flintoff, 2002), media representation of women’s sport (Nylund, 2004; Stetson-Lee, 2008; Whiteside & Hardin, 2011), sexuality and sport (Dowling, 2000; Schweinbenz, 2000; West & Zimmerman, 1987), the female sporting body (Castelnovo & Guthrie, 1998; Dworkin & Messner, 1999), and organisational settings (Claringbould & Knoppers, 2007; Henry,
Radzi, Rich, Shelton, Theodoraki, & White, 2004; Pfister, 2010). Within this body of work, researchers like Pfister (2010) have increasingly pushed for research that uses theoretical models to explain and challenge the oppressive status of women or the means of allocating power and resources. Like other writers since the late 1990s, Brackenridge (1992) argued that the early non-feminist research described women’s positions but had limited impact on raising political awareness.

This pro-feminist emphasis among researchers means that research on women in sport has been predominantly carried out within theoretical frameworks that focus on gender issues. To some extent, this has meant that the contribution of this body of research to wider understanding of sport has been underplayed. This thesis will, therefore, address this by analysing the experiences and contributions of the women who participated in IAPESGW and WSI with a primary focus on *sport volunteering*.

From the 1950s onward, first IAPESGW and later WSI engaged in a wide range of demanding activities which have always been sustained through voluntary work. The women involved undertook ambitious programmes of activities, including travelling widely to develop networks; staging local, national and international conferences; participating in cross-national working parties; and producing extensive written outputs (research reports, discussion papers, policy analyses and academic articles) for diverse audiences. Volunteering is, of course, widespread in sport, but what marks this as unusual is the extent to which it required a sustained level of intense commitment. Many women within these organisations invested high levels of energy over prolonged periods of time. Since the mission of each organisation was to advance girls’ and women’s sport, the organisations were subsequently challenging male sport domains, and this could be intense and demanding. Ultimately these efforts led to representation and influence at the most senior levels of international sport – a proportionate outcome for an extreme level of voluntary activity.

The purpose of this study is to gain insight into the women leaders of IAPESGW and WSI. While there is substantial and growing literature concerned with understanding
volunteering activities in sport, the special circumstances of the voluntary movement that sought to advance women’s sport has not been directly investigated in-depth (Andrew, 1996; Downward, Lumsdon, & Ralston, 2005). The current study, therefore, aims to address the gap in the existing literature by examining the backgrounds of women who engaged in voluntary work, their actions, and their interests which provide a holistic, in-depth understanding about their involvement within IAPESGW and WSI.

The nature of sport volunteering

Sport volunteers are those who freely give their time, energy, skills, and abilities to help others in sport through organisations like clubs or governing bodies (Donnelly & Harvey, 2011; Gratton Nichols, Shibli, & Taylor, 1996). According to Taylor, Nichols, Holmes, James, Gratton, Garrett, Kokolakakis, and Mulder (2003), these volunteers are significant because they enable sports clubs to exist and community sports to be sustained. In fact, in Safai’s (2005) doctoral dissertation about sport in Canada, she stated that “the volunteer is the lifeblood of sport” (as cited in Donnelly & Harvey, 2011, p. 55). Moreover, following an investigation of volunteerism in Canada, Norway, and the United Kingdom, Donnelly and Harvey (2011) highlighted the importance of sport volunteering as they found that it was the single largest category of volunteering compared to any other, even religion.

To highlight the significance of sport volunteerism in a more tangible way, scholars have attempted to put a monetary value on unpaid service in sport (Chelladurai, 2006; Hoye & Cuskelley, 2003; Sport England, 2008; Taylor et al., 2003). In research carried out in England, Taylor et al. (2003) investigated the number of unpaid hours worked by sport volunteers compared to hours worked in full-time jobs, and they found that the 1.2 billion hours served by volunteers was equivalent to 720,000 full-time paid jobs which were valued at 14 billion pounds. Further conclusions illustrated that there were an estimated 106,423 voluntary sport clubs with 8,152,000 members. Sport England (2008) added to these findings as they identified that over two million adults volunteered in sport at least one hour per week. These findings were consistent with studies from other Western
nations, like the United States (USA) (Kim, Chelladurai, & Trail, 2007) and Australia (Cuskelly, 2008). For example, Hoye and Cuskelly’s (2003) Australian study found that there were over 30,000 voluntary sport organisations. In addition, Chelladurai (2006) suggested that the value of Canadian voluntary sport organisations exceeded 50 billion Canadian dollars. The aforementioned scholars clearly revealed that volunteers are the backbone and lifeblood of sport (Doherty, 2005; Safai, 2005). Safai (2005) argued that sport probably could not survive without volunteers’ unpaid efforts.

Scholars have also been interested in the people who volunteer and in their activities, evident by the growing trend of research on sport volunteering topics such as: motivations (Inglis & Cleave, 2006; MacLean & Hamm, 2007; Reeser, Willick, Rhea, & Berg, 2005; Wang, 2004), pathways to volunteer commitment (Green & Chalip, 2004), event volunteer motivations (Baum & Lockstone, 2007; Doherty, 2009; Downward & Ralston, 2005; Twynam, Farrell, & Johnston, 2002), volunteer characteristics (Doherty, 2005; Shibli, Nichols, Taylor, Gratton, & Kokolakais, 1999), and volunteer management (Cuskelly, Hoye, & Auld, 2006; Robinson & Palmer, 2011). Additionally, such research represented a variety of volunteers whose roles ranged from community volunteers to professional organisational volunteers and even professional sport and event volunteers. However, as previously mentioned, much of the existing work that is available about women sport volunteers is concerned with identifying the extent of gender inequalities, inequities, and power imbalances in national and international male-dominated sport organisations (Hall, 1994; Hargreaves, 1994; Pfister, 2010). There is limited research on the experiences and motivations of women volunteers in traditional (i.e., male-focused) sport settings, and in women-centred ones (Cuskelly, Hoye, & Auld, 2006; Inglis & Cleave, 2006). Therefore, this research will increase knowledge in the area of women sport volunteers as it draws on women’s experiences, tasks, and reasons for engaging in sport volunteering activities, within a women-centred sport movement which has achieved global status.
Research aim and objectives

The aim of the research is:

- To construct a holistic understanding about female participants’ contributions and experiences as sport volunteers in international women’s sport organisations.

The research objectives are:

1. to explore the personal biographies of women who volunteer in international women’s sport organisations;
2. to examine the women’s experiences of volunteering within IAPESGW and WSI;
3. to examine the interaction of the research participants’ volunteer experiences with their wider lifestyles across the lifespan; and
4. to contribute to the study of research into sport volunteering by applying and evaluating a multi-method qualitative approach that contextualises volunteering within individuals’ wider lifestyles.

Significance of the study

The significance of the research lies in its contribution to the current body of knowledge about sport volunteering. The study addresses two primary areas that have been under-investigated. The first area, as outlined above, is the lack of research on women’s voluntary service in sport, which, in this thesis, is addressed in the context of international women’s sport organisations. The thesis locates the voluntary activities of the women who played pivotal roles in women-based sport organisations that were committed to advancing women’s positions in the context of their wider lifestyles. This study adopts a holistic framework that utilises multiple dimensions. The purpose of the framework is to uncover the qualities, activities, interests, and practical conditions which surrounded the women’s intense and enduring involvement with international sport organisations.
The second area of significance surrounds issues based on the ways in which sport volunteerism has been studied. This study adopts a holistic approach, which contrasts with the predominant trend in research on sport volunteering, where most studies are underpinned by uni-dimensional frameworks or by models which address two (or occasionally three) dimensions of volunteering (Esmond & Dunlop, 2004; Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003). This is evident across diverse research areas.

The most researched ‘aspect of voluntary activity’ is volunteer motivations because practitioners and scholars are interested in ‘why’ people volunteer (Hustinx, Cnaan, & Handy, 2010; Wilson, 2000). For example Haski-Leventhal (2009) highlighted that scholars from psychological and sociological disciplines have been interested in the complex interplay between altruistic and self-interested natures of volunteering. While the area of volunteer motivation demonstrates depth in the research field, it also highlights the limitations within the existing voluntary literature. For instance, Esmond and Dunlop (2004) and Wang (2004) reviewed the literature on sport volunteering focusing on individuals’ motives to participate in unpaid service. The scholars found that most of the sport motivational research drew on non-sport disciplines, and also identified similar debates about the structure and dimensionality of volunteer motivations. These debates address whether volunteering should be identified and explored as a uni-dimensional construct (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991), a two-dimensional structure (Frisch & Gerrard, 1981; Smith, 1981), a three-dimensional structure (McCurley & Lynch, 1994), or a five-dimensional model (Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). However, when scholars like Wang (2004) have wanted to know more about people’s volunteering motivations, they found that research focusing on fewer dimensions only provided part of the picture about people’s volunteering activities. Wang (2004, p. 421) referred to uni-dimensional structures as being “weak” and argued that voluntary motivations needed to be studied from multidimensional constructs.

Unfortunately, scholars in the sports discipline have drawn on these relatively narrow non-sport models to adapt or build motivational models to explore sport volunteering. For example, Caldwell and Andereck (1994) used a three-dimensional model to investigate
why people volunteer in recreational-related voluntary associations, whilst Wang (2004) adapted Clary, Snyder, and Ridge’s (1998) Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) (5-dimensional model) to explore sport volunteering in Australia. Further, most of these models have used quantitative research approaches to identify reasons for volunteer participation, leaving scholars with narrow or limited perspectives about volunteers as such approaches only present a ‘snap shot’, or an understanding at the moment in time, of why an individual volunteers.

The limitations of research on volunteer motivations are evident in other areas of sport volunteer research, such as volunteer’s characteristics (Bekkers, 2004; Musick & Wilson, 2008; Wilson, 2000), life cycles and processes (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal, 2008; Hustinx, 2006), and frequency (Handy, Brudeur, & Cnaan, 2006; Macduff, 2004; Pearce, 1993), as scholars are interested in investigating very specific topics. Such limited concerns fragment the field of sport volunteering research (Hustinx, Cnaan & Handy, 2010).

Currently, the only model that focuses on sport volunteering with a multidimensional framework was developed by Baum and Lockstone (2007) in their work on sport event volunteering. Following a review of conceptual frameworks to study volunteers, Baum and Lockstone (2007) provided a strong argument for the use of multidimensional conceptual approaches that would be concerned with a wide range of themes and issues that pertain to sport volunteering. They suggested that such an approach offers a holistic perspective about individuals who volunteer in sport. Baum and Lockstone (2007) identified Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) Collective and Reflexive Styles of Volunteering (SOV) framework as an appropriate starting point for research into sport event volunteering because it offers a holistic approach. The SOV addresses the complexity of volunteering by identifying a framework based on six dimensions: the biographical frame of reference, motivational structure, the course and intensity of commitment, the organisational environment, the choice of (field of) activity, and the relation to paid work. Baum and Lockstone (2007) recognised the need to adapt the SOV framework to adequately fit their study on sport or special sport events. They highlighted, for example, that sport volunteers have different time demands compared to traditional volunteers, and argued that their
research required a framework suited for such demands, events, and specific interests (sport). Baum and Lockstone (2007) therefore created a framework concerned with volunteers of mega-sporting events by addressing demographics, relationship to the event, motivation, circumstances, personal histories of volunteering, short- and long-term outcomes, and benefits of volunteering. This framework aimed to help future sport event researchers and to inform the thinking of policy makers, sports administrators, tourist interests, and academics. The adapted framework has limitations for the present study because it does not fully address the long-term, sustained nature of the volunteer experiences and contributions of the group understudy, but provides a useful example of how adaptation can be made.

Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) non-sport framework is valuable to sport researchers as it addresses the need for scholars to employ holistic or multidimensional perspectives to obtain rich data. As Baum and Lockstone (2007) have shown, its limitations can be overcome by appropriate adaptation. The SOV is employed in this study as it is suited to a sociological analysis of volunteering that addresses the interplay of a wide range of factors that influence women’s engagement with IAPESGW and WSI. Through the six dimensions of the framework, information will be elicited to illustrate the complexity of women’s voluntary involvement in the two women-led organisations.

**Overview of research approach**

A critical realist ontological position and a social constructionist epistemological position were employed for this study. Although it may be assumed that a feminist perspective would be appropriate because the study focuses on women’s sport, the current study is aiming to develop a holistic understanding about sport volunteering as well as their contributions to international women’s sport organisations. Employing critical realism and social constructionism as the philosophical positions for this study enabled the identification of how the participants constructed their realities and understanding of knowledge. Moreover, through the use of the SOV, the changes in the participants’
realities could also be tracked over time and across multiple dimensions in the women’s lives.

**Organisation of the thesis**

The thesis consists of seven chapters including one chapter of introduction (Chapter One), one chapter of literature review (Chapter Two), one chapter describing the conceptual framework (Chapter Three), one chapter of research approach (Chapter Four), two chapters of the findings and discussion (Chapters Five and Six), and one chapter of research conclusions (Chapter Seven).

**Chapter One** introduces the rationale and significance of the research. It highlights key characteristics of the field of study to provide context for the study, and to introduce the conceptual approach and qualitative methodology.

**Chapter Two** reviews the literature of two main topics. First, the literature is used to illustrate how researchers have aimed to make sense of the field by focusing on volunteer characteristics and volunteer paradigms in non-sport settings. This review is essential for providing a starting point for the current study. The second review focuses on empirical studies from the sport volunteering field. The literature discusses volunteering in sport (activities, time demands, and entrance into sport volunteering) and engaging in sport volunteering (motivations, commitments, and balancing public, private, and voluntary roles).

**Chapter Three** presents the conceptual framework employed for this study.

**Chapter Four** outlines the philosophical positions and the qualitative methodology for the current study. This chapter further describes the research participants, the research methods, and data analysis processes.

**Chapter Five and Six** present the empirical evidence and synthesise the results based on the SOV.
Chapter Seven completes the report by clearly highlighting the actual outcome of the study and how it contributes to current knowledge. This chapter illustrates how the methodology evolved as the study progressed, and that, at the end, the development of the methodological approach itself became a substantial contribution of the work. Links are made between the findings, methodology, and current literature. The chapter concludes by providing recommendations for future work.

Clarification of key terms

The terms listed below are used throughout the thesis, with the following meanings:

Physical activity vs. physical education – physical activity broadly covers exercise and exercise-related disciplines; physical education focuses on the study of physical education and working in the discipline.

Voluntary – descriptive term used to explain an activity or setting where a person freely gives his or her time.

(Sport) volunteer – individual who freely chooses to engage in unpaid work for little or no pay in formal (sport) settings.

(Sport) volunteering – any activity where a person freely chooses to engage in unpaid work on behalf of others or for a cause for little or no pay in a formal (sport) setting.

(Sport) volunteerism – the activity, people, and culture of (sport) volunteering.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

An extensive body of research explores volunteering in an attempt to understand the field. Volunteering has, therefore, been examined from a number of different disciplines and from various sectors. The literature reviewed for this study represents this diversity as it utilises reports from practitioners, from non-profit sectors, and from academic researchers. A report called ‘Making Sense of Volunteering for the Commission on the Future of Volunteering’, written by Colin Rochester (2006), guides the first part of the literature review to identify ways in which volunteering is researched and contextualised. Empirical studies and other academic literature from sociology, social psychology, management, and political science are used to support Rochester’s (2006) report.

The purpose of this chapter is to examine the concept of volunteerism and how it is studied in sport. The chapter begins with a brief synopsis of the nature of volunteering, focusing on its core characteristics. The next section provides an overview of three paradigms used to investigate the field of volunteerism. The chapter then explores the empirical work of sport volunteerism to identify the forms of sport volunteering and the reasons why people report engaging in sport voluntary activities. The limited literature on women as sport volunteers is interwoven throughout the chapter when appropriate.

Complexity of volunteerism

Volunteering is a complex phenomenon that lacks clarity (Kendall & Knapp, 1995). Kendall and Knapp (1995, p. 66) described the field of volunteerism as ‘a loose and baggy monster’ as there is “no single correct definition” that can be applied to every volunteering situation. Researchers attempting to provide an explicit definition for volunteerism (e.g., Cnaan, Handy, & Wadsworth, 1996; Okun & Michel, 2006; Putnam, 2000; Steen, 2006; Van Willigen, 2000; Wilson, 2000) have produced differing views and understandings for
the term and the field. Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth (1996) identified, in their review of over 200 definitions, that the term ‘volunteering’ is utilised in research based on a variety of definitions. In an effort to delineate the boundaries for the definition and field of volunteering, Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth (1996) identified the four most common dimensions of volunteerism found in the existing literature: free choice, absence of remuneration, structure, and intended beneficiaries. The work by Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth (1996) is valuable for the field because part or all of the abovementioned dimensions are applied to working definitions of volunteering by various types of scholars, such as sociologists (Hustinx, 2006; Lockstone-Binney, Holmes, Smith, & Baum, 2010; Wilson, 2000), psychologists (Haski-Leventhal, 2009; Warburton & Oppenheimer, 2000), economists (Bowman, 2004; Sajardo & Serra, 2011), and political scientists (Hodgkinson, 2003; McBride & Sherraden, 2007). The term ‘volunteering’ nonetheless continues to be constructed and defined differently within each discipline as scholars make limited use of work outside of their own disciplines.

Paine, Hill, and Rochester (2010) aimed to identify the boundaries within the volunteering field. The abovementioned scholars explored literature on volunteering to determine the boundaries between conceptualisations of formal volunteering and other activities. Rochester (2006, p.1) referred to this process as ‘making sense of volunteering’, by focusing on four commonly used research topics: the classifications of voluntary activities (self-help, mutual-aid, philanthropy, and advocacy), the intensity of volunteers’ involvement (short-term, long-term, and episodic), the core characteristics of volunteering (structure, free choice, no remuneration, and benefiting others), and the volunteering paradigms (civil society, non-profit, and leisure). These four ways of ‘making sense of the field’ illustrate that volunteerism is more than simply engaging in activities for the common good of others. Despite the significance of each of these ways of making sense of volunteering, the field is too wide and diverse to unpack all the concepts and investigate their key properties within this study. Therefore, the current study analyses the elements of volunteerism to create a synthesis of what the field embodies. This synthesis is utilised to guide the research.
Understanding the nature of volunteering

Core characteristics of volunteering

Rochester (2006) utilised Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth’s (1996) four dimensions of volunteering to identify the core characteristics of volunteering: structure, free choice, remuneration, and intended beneficiaries. Rochester (2006) identified a large amount of concurrence among scholars concerning the dimensions of volunteering, despite inconsistencies within their definitions of volunteerism. Through the core characteristics of volunteering, Rochester (2006) suggested distinguishing more clearly between volunteering and other activities. This section briefly discusses each of these core characteristics of volunteering.

Core characteristics of volunteering - structure


- **formal volunteering**: defined as ‘giving unpaid help through groups, clubs or organisations to benefit other people or the environment’;

- **informal volunteering**: defined as ‘giving unpaid help as an individual to people who are not relatives’; and

- **civic participation**: defined as individuals ‘attending a public meeting or rally, taking part in a public demonstration or protest, or signing a petition’.

Scholars like Tilly and Tilly (1994) and Wilson and Musick (1997) distinguished formal from informal volunteering by focusing on the context of the activity and to identify who benefits from actions. According to Wilson and Musick (1997), formal voluntary activities are typically carried out in organisational contexts. Nesteruk and Price (2011) concurred
and also linked formal volunteering with community engagement. Fyfe and Milligan (2003) and Martinez, Crooks, Kim, and Tanner (2011) highlighted that volunteering is often studied and understood as a formal activity, and such an understanding is based on survey research that focuses on topics revolving around formal volunteering and governmental policies (Cnaan, Jones, Dickin, & Salomon, 2011).

Consequently, informal volunteering is under-researched. Wilson and Musick (1997) explained that this is due to the activities not being recognised as volunteering. Zedlewski and Schaner (2005) referred to these informal voluntary activities as ‘general engagements’. According to Martinez et al. (2011), most people engage in some type of informal service within their own families. Tilly and Tilly (1994) referred to informal activities as ‘helping out’ in settings that Wilson and Musick (1997) identified as unorganised and private. Friends, neighbours, and kin benefit from informal volunteering (Cnaan et al., 2011; Rozario, 2006; Tilly & Tilly, 1994; Wilson & Musick, 1997). Informal volunteering, therefore, represents various activities (Tilly & Tilly, 1994). However, measuring or recognising informal volunteering is difficult (Choi, Burr, Mutchler, & Caro, 2007; Hank & Stuck, 2008) because of the settings, the different types of beneficiaries, and the range of informal activities. Wuthnow (1991) suggested that individuals may have feelings of obligation to help family and friends when they feel it is needed. This indicates that a sense of obligation exists from both a social and a personal context in informal settings—and these forms of assistance may not be classed as ‘volunteering’.

Moreover, informal voluntary work is considered as services most commonly conducted by women, resulting in women volunteers receiving relatively little recognition (Burr, Choi, Mutchler, & Caro, 2005; Gill, 2006; Warburton & McLaughlin, 2006; Wilson & Musick, 1997). Nesteruk and Price (2011) suggested that this is because society ascribes women’s social roles as family care, and, because of such social stereotypes, women’s service in this capacity is not recognised as volunteering but instead as an obligation and intrinsic part of the female ‘role’. Nesteruk and Price (2011) described this obligation as a socially constructed understanding of women’s roles in society. They alluded that women are
expected to engage in this form of volunteering; therefore, this is one reason that informal volunteering receives minimal recognition and attention.

Lastly, Rochester (2006) referred to civic participation as a dimension of voluntary service. Civic participation involves a wide range of political and advocacy activities, including activism which has particular relevance in the context of the current study and is therefore grounded in the discussion. This reflects the position held by scholars such as Musick and Wilson (2008) who have criticised those who have studied volunteering and activism separately because of the numerous concepts and motives that are shared between the two. They argued that there are numerous similarities and subtle differences, and because of this, they should be studied together (see Appendix A for comparison of volunteerism and activism).

According to Keck and Sikkink (1998, pp. 89-90), activists are people who try “not only to influence policy outcomes, but to transform the terms and nature of the debate”. Musick and Wilson (2008) highlighted that most activists are volunteers and even suggested that activism could be identified as a sub-category of volunteering. Moreover, these individuals’ civic participation fit into Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth’s (1996) dimensions of volunteering. Additionally, activists engage in collective action for an intended collective good, and volunteering and activism are identified as forms of altruism. However, Musick and Wilson (2008) indicated that different types of people may be recruited to voluntary work in comparison to activist work, which is a critical factor when comparing peoples’ entrance into volunteering versus activist work. For instance, activists may be more politically motivated, and volunteers may be more interested in civic good.

Overall, the structuring of volunteering is varied. It appears that scholars place more attention on formal structures than informal. In addition, scholars suggest that volunteering and activism are closely linked, and some regard them as synonymous.
Core characteristics of volunteering - free choice

The second core characteristic of volunteering addressed by Rochester (2006) focuses on whether people freely choose their activity or if they are coerced into an activity. Handy, Cnaan, Brudney, Ascoli, Meijs, and Ranade (2000) suggested that volunteering is rooted in freedom of choice with some obligation. Stebbins (2009) suggested that volunteering should be identified as a form of leisure because individuals have the freedom to choose their activities. Free choice also addresses the changes in the level of commitment by volunteers (Davis Smith, 1999). In contrast, scholars of volunteerism, such as Davis Smith (1999) and Merrill (2006), identified varying degrees or levels of coercion (or obligation) within volunteering which differs across social, cultural, situational, and national contexts. Rochester (2006) suggested that coercion within an activity may mean that the activity is not freely chosen, and it may not be appropriate to always consider it volunteering. Haski-Leventhal, Meijs, and Hustinx (2009) highlighted the recent increase in third parties’ (governments, corporations, and institutions of higher education) involvement with individuals’ volunteer engagement. Researchers report an increase in the number people required to volunteer by their workplace (Bell, 2007; Tschirhart, 2005), their educational systems (Handy, Hustinx, Cnaan, Brudney, Yamauchi, & Yeung, 2008; Paxton & Nash, 2002), and for mandated community service, unpaid work experience, and internships (Markus Klein, 2011; Neugebauer & Evans-Brain, 2009). In these settings, this is referred to as (required) volunteering, yet it does not fit into Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth’s (1996) identified dimensions of volunteering because the level of coercion is high. Moreover Handy et al. (2000) argued that this manipulates the volunteer component of free choice. Despite such understandings, Hustinx et al. (2010) and Stebbins (2009) recognised that the nature of volunteering has changed, and volunteers’ time continues to be demanded, which means there still is a substantial amount of freedom of choice.

Core characteristics of volunteering - remuneration

The third core characteristic focuses on whether and how volunteers receive payment (Rochester, 2006). Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth (1996) argued that volunteers are
unpaid. However, Barnes and Sharpe (2009) pointed out that the categories of remuneration range from no payment to stipend or low pay. Baxter-Tomkins and Wallace (2009) expanded on this understanding by identifying the debate about payment of volunteers and suggested that it should be discussed based on a continuum. One side of the debate focuses on scholars arguing that volunteers should not receive any form of remuneration, and, once an individual does, he or she cannot be considered a volunteer (Baxter-Tomkins & Wallace, 2009; Cordingley, 2000; Noble & Rogers, 1998). The other side of the debate suggests that some economic remuneration should be acceptable as volunteers may need to be compensated for personal funds for travelling or accommodations or even personal factors, such as childcare (Barnes & Sharpe, 2009). This financial support would not come close to the value of volunteers’ time or effort, but would enable volunteers to offer a greater commitment level (Barnes & Sharpe, 2009). Moreover, Barnes and Sharpe (2009) used the work of McCarthy (1982) to illustrate how the concept of no remuneration for volunteering grew out of the high class Victorian-era, which is a different social context from the twenty-first century and contemporary society. Therefore, the payment of volunteers continues to be debated among scholars.

**Core characteristics of volunteering – intended beneficiaries**

Kendall (2003) emphasised volunteerism having a positive social, cultural, and political impact. Wilson (2000) acknowledged the positive impact from volunteering in areas of citizenship, antisocial behaviours, health, and socioeconomic achievement. Additionally, Wilson (2000) asserted that volunteering is an activity benefiting another person, group, or organisation. Therefore, volunteering is identified as an activity that benefits others in all structures. Meier and Stutzer (2008) pointed out that people volunteer because they care about the recipient as a pro-social preference, they enjoy the task required, and/or they enjoy the act of helping others. This suggests that volunteers are people with the intention to do something for others.

Having identified the core characteristics of volunteering and highlighted the boundaries of volunteerism, this section presents the multifaceted factors aligned with volunteerism,
illustrating the complexity of the nature of volunteering (Rochester, 2006). These core characteristics are discussed in the thesis to highlight one system that researchers utilise to make sense of volunteerism. For the current study, the core characteristics provide a foundational understanding for the current study of volunteerism. Moreover, it illustrates the attributes that determine whether activities could be classified as volunteering. For the current research, international women’s sport organisations represent formal structures through which women can participate in civic activities in a volunteer capacity. This section begins to identify the parameters and complexity of the current study. The next section considers further ways that researchers make sense of the volunteering field.

Alternative paradigms of volunteerism

Rochester (2006) identified alternative paradigms that scholars have applied to make sense of volunteerism. Paradigms are valuable because they offer researchers with models to address problems and solutions by identifying what can be observed, how it can be observed, and in what ways the results should be interpreted (Kuhn, 1962). Although there are numerous paradigms that can be used to understand volunteering, this study draws on three relevant paradigms: civil society and activism; unpaid work and non-profit; and serious leisure (Billis, 1993; Lyons, 2001; Rochester, 2006). Consistent with Kuhn’s (1962) definition of paradigms, Lohmann (2004) identified how these different paradigms for volunteering construct the theoretical underpinnings, issues, aims, and boundaries that are utilised within research. This section discusses these three paradigms in which research into volunteerism is commonly situated.

Civil service and activism paradigm

The civil society and activism paradigm emerged between the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries as a means to overcome perceived tension between public and private realms (Beck, 2000; Billis, 1993; Lyons, Wijkstrom, & Clary, 1998). Within this paradigm, volunteering is identified as a service-oriented activity (Harmer, 2006). Giddens (1998)
and Lyons, Wijkstrom, and Clary (1998) also asserted that the civil society paradigm is academically rooted in political science and sociology. Rochester (1997) found that research within this paradigm investigates the impact of volunteering in the wider community, which Gardner (1995) suggested encompasses both geographic and relational communities. Scholars like Govekar and Govekar (2002), Hankinson and Rochester (2005), and Wilson (2000) were concerned with individuals who are interested in making a contribution to their community. Stebbins (2004, p. 2) referred to these participants as “helpers, as people filling a distinct contributory role in modern society and, more particular, in certain kinds of organizations”. In addition, Hankinson and Rochester (2005, pp. 98-99) referred to them as people who “cared, were compassionate, enjoyed doing something worthwhile, had commitment and passion and liked to ‘give back to the community’ ... [because they are interested in] helping to make the world a better place”. In an attempt to re-shape perceptions of volunteering, Hankinson and Rochester (2005, p. 99) concluded that their participants felt that their involvement was based on “responsible citizenship rather than volunteering”.

Rochester (2006) and Wuthnow (1991) pointed out that the civil society and activism paradigm is concerned with a community of people interested in shared needs, issues, political views, and social problems. Lyons, Wijkstrom, and Clary (1998) asserted that individuals studied within this paradigm often work together to address the abovementioned interests from a voluntary capacity. Scholars, therefore, illustrate that volunteering as activist-type work can be a force for social change (Krishna & Khondker, 2004; Rochester, 2006). As suggested earlier, Musick and Wilson (2008) argued that activism and volunteering should not be discussed separately because of the similarities in their values and goals. Moreover, Kemmelmeier, Jambor, and Letner (2006) and Krishna and Khondker (2004) argued in their work that tackling social issues is the fundamental activity of volunteering. Paine, Hill, and Rochester (2010) illustrated that activism involves working with others to meet shared needs, campaign for social welfare, and take leadership positions in associational settings. Blake, Robinson, and Smerdon (2006) and Craig (2009) concurred and argued that social justice and social change could potentially be achieved through voluntary organisations and activities.
Seligman (2002, pp. 13-14) suggested that confusion within the civil society and activism paradigm stems from the relationships between the “private and public; the individual and the social; public ethics and individual interests; and individual passions and public concern”. One example of these social issues is women’s disadvantages in society. It was suggested by Musick and Wilson (2008) that social justice can be obtained by working in a voluntary capacity within this paradigm. For instance, volunteers/activists can challenge the dominating gendered norms in society that denote appropriate roles, behaviours, activities, and attributes for both men and women and create socially acceptable masculine and feminine stereotypes which limit women’s opportunities in public, private, and voluntary spheres (Bittman, England, Sayer, Folber, & Matheson, 2003; Rake & Lewis, 2009; Reskin & Bielby, 2005). Ridgeway and Correll (2004) described these disadvantages in private spheres as the expectation of women to fill the role of motherhood, which is socially and culturally assigned to women rather than men. Social theorists have argue that the social construction of gender roles and norms create a gender order and distribution of rights and power that disadvantage women in the labour force and wages (Inglis, Danylychuk, & Pastore, 2000), family roles (Kay, 2003; Woods, 2007), and leisure time (McGinnis, McQuillan, & Chapple, 2005; Nomaguchi & Bianchi, 2004). In the interest of the current study, there is particular concern with women’s experience of disadvantages in voluntary activities during their leisure time.

Women’s disadvantages are evident within voluntary settings as researchers, such as Rotolo and Wilson (2007), argue that men are more likely than women to serve on boards and committees (positions of leadership), whilst women are allocated gender-appropriate tasks and positions (such as secretary). This is consistent with earlier work by Moore and Whitt (2000) because they investigated the gender composition of not-for-profit organisations and found that men occupied a majority of the trustee seats and were even more likely than women to hold multiple leadership roles. Rotolo and Wilson (2007) explained this by recognising the links to women’s positions in paid settings. Although the scholars illustrated the impact gender has on role allocation, Rotolo and Wilson (2007) pointed out that gender did not influence who volunteers or in what settings.
Women-based organisations fit into the civil society and activism paradigm as they often address social issues in hope of producing social change and social justice (Meinhard & Foster, 2003). According to Meinhard and Foster (2003), all women’s organisations are represented within one of the following classifications: (1) women-led organisations which are entities where a number of women get together for the purpose of achieving goals; (2) women-centred organisations which are entities in which a group of individuals, regardless of sex, get together for the purpose of achieving goals related to women’s issues and/or causes; or (3) separatist organisations which are entities in which a group of women get together for the purpose of achieving goals related to women’s issues and causes. These three classifications represent organisations whose members share similar goals and objectives about women’s issues. The organisations in the current study will be further explored and identified within these classifications. Sperling, Ferree, and Risman (2001) also researched women’s groups with missions interested in gender equality at an international level and referred to them as ‘transnational advocacy networks’. Keck and Sikkink (1998, p. 3) defined these networks as sets of “relevant actors working internationally on an issue, who are bound together by shared values, a common discourse and dense exchanges of information and services”. They represent formal organisations, informal grassroots associations, and individuals who are bound together by a common set of values and objectives that challenge the status quo (Sperling, Ferree, & Risman, 2001). Such networks are important nationally and internationally to exchange information; coordinate activities; provide mutual support on common issues; send representatives to meetings; utilise similar vocabulary; and come together to lobby, advocate, and take direct actions towards realising the goals of equality and women’s empowerment (Moghadam & Senftova, 2005). Moreover, valuable resources are exchanged between organisations, such as members, leaders, skills, knowledge, and money to launch collective action (McCammon, Campbell, Granberg, & Mowery, 2001).

Yang (2004) criticised the civil society paradigm because it is an ‘ideal-typical construct’ because it is not intended to be a precise reflection of society rather it is an analytical instrument accentuating elements or reality. In addition, research within the paradigm does
little to consider the individual and the changing social contexts (Seligman, 2002). Yang (2004) argued that the civil society paradigm is however valuable as a ‘plan of thought’ that can be used to guide empirical research. Therefore, the civil society and activism paradigm can be identified as a foundation for research because it focuses on the idea of volunteering as a vehicle for social change. This has high relevance to the sport organisations and research participants of the current study since their primary concern is to improve sport for girls and women. The civil society and activism paradigm is, therefore, valuable because it helps identify and analyse women’s volunteering interests.

**Unpaid work and non-profit paradigm**

Research into the unpaid work or service paradigm grew out of the civil society paradigm. Lyons, Wijkstrom, and Clary (1998) asserted that the unpaid work paradigm is rooted in economics, law, and management as it demonstrates the effectiveness of volunteers producing capital through their unpaid service (Van Willigen, 2000). Therefore, volunteer service is aligned with offering public service. However, researchers like Lyons (2001) identified that professional third parties (e.g., governments) are increasingly getting involved and nearly forcing non-profit organisations to adopt business-like, professional models. Scholars such as Gaston and Alexander (2001), Kong (2010), and Lyons, Wijkstrom, and Clary (1998) identified that some non-profit organisations embrace the adoption of business practices, as they found in their research focusing on organisational resources (e.g., formulation, human resource management, and public relations).

Lohmann (2004) and Paine, Hill, and Rochester (2010) identified the unpaid work and non-profit paradigm as the dominant view of volunteering in the United Kingdom (UK), North America, and Western Europe. These scholars also recognised that studies within this paradigm are mainly situated in non-profit settings (non-profit organisations and non-profit corporations which are parts of the structure of the third sector). Davis Smith (1999) concurred and extended the work of Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth (1996) by proposing that the study of volunteerism should adopt an additional organisational setting to the dimensions of volunteering. Such addition would then address the non-profit paradigm.
which places a large amount of emphasis on the organisational settings, cultures, and functions. The non-profit sector is unlike any other as it heavily relies on volunteers (McDonald & Warburton, 2003). In a comparison between paid work and unpaid work, Pearce (1993) highlighted that non-profit volunteers are not dependent on organisations like paid workers, and instead enjoy their sense of independence. However, Rochester (2006, p. 2) stated that the unpaid labour paradigm “contributes to the work of a formally organised agency and, as such, needs to be managed according to the ‘workforce model’ in which the norms and procedures of managing paid staff are applied to volunteers”. This definition illustrates the changing nature of volunteering. The definition alluded to volunteering becoming more structured than what appeared in the civil society and activism paradigm. McDonald and Mutch (2000) and Zappalà (2001) asserted that there is an obvious split away from the charity model (civil society) of volunteering to a business-enterprise model. The move away from the ‘warm and fuzzy’ idea of volunteering to a ‘business-like’ non-profit model challenges researchers to investigate this style of volunteering and the settings in which voluntary activities take place (McDonald & Mutch, 2000).

Scholars such as Lyons (2001) and Saul (2004) highlight researchers’ interest in observing the changing dynamics between non-profit organisations and third-party groups. Funding is a core concern within these relationships as it is harder to obtain due to the increased demands of service from the community, growing competition for contracts with the public and for-profit sectors, decline of volunteer support, and, on top of all this, tighter governmental funding sources. This is viewed as a shift in power, which is growing in interest across all disciplines, as scholars are concerned with how such shift negatively influences funders whilst leaving volunteers to feel as if they are losing control (Edwards, Mason, & Washington, 2009; Haski-Leventhal, Meijs, & Hustinx, 2009).

Lyons, Wijkstrom, and Clary (1998, p. 52) described individuals’ studied in the unpaid work paradigm as people who are interested in philanthropic or altruistic activities as their service is viewed as a “gift of time rather than money”. Paine, Hill, and Rochester (2010) recognised that volunteers’ time is a resource and referred to it as an act of charity.
However, as studies in this paradigm are dominated by large non-profit settings (Lyons, Wijkstrom, & Clary, 1998), Zappalà (2001) argued that the people studied within this perspective may be more interested and influenced by the possibility that employment and professional qualifications will be enhanced. In a study about re-branding volunteering in the UK by Hankinson and Rochester (2005), the scholars found that people refer to volunteering as a means of acquiring skills such as leadership skills, improved social skills, or self-confidence. In other words, Aschaffenburg and Mass (1997) asserted that these benefits move individuals away from the values of volunteering as people are more interested in their personal gain from creating an image of being well-rounded. Daoud, Shtarkshall, Laufer, and Verbov (2010) identified this growing trend being linked to volunteering for personal development, and therefore, within the unpaid work paradigm, these professional benefits of volunteering for actors and organisations are highlighted.

The unpaid work and non-profit paradigm is significant for the current research because it is concerned with the unpaid element of volunteering. As highlighted in the core characteristics of volunteering, volunteers freely give their time, and this is represented by the women in the current study who freely give their time to serve within non-profit organisational settings. This unpaid work and non-profit paradigm is valuable for the current research because it highlights the blurring of boundaries between volunteering and professional activities, which has become a more recent concern within the field.

**Serious leisure paradigm**

The serious leisure paradigm is applied to the study of volunteering. Stebbins (2009, p. 764) defined serious leisure as the “systematic pursuit or an amateur, a hobbyist, or a volunteer activity sufficiently substantial, interesting, and fulfilling for the participant to find a (leisure) career there acquiring and expressing a combination of its special skills, knowledge and experience”. Despite the concept of serious leisure gaining attention as a means of studying volunteering in the 1970s, it was rarely applied to the study of volunteerism until the 21st century. Traditionally, volunteering and leisure are not studied together because, according to Henderson (1984, p. 58), volunteering is viewed as “more
lofty than fun”. In addition, Stebbins (1996) noted that volunteering was under-researched, and when it is studied, scholars’ perspectives often draw on work from the civil society paradigm (i.e., volunteers as helpers). Yet, according to Rochester (2006, p. 211), “volunteering is invariably … a form of leisure”. Stebbins (2004b) concurred and argued that the absence of understanding volunteerism with a focus on individual’s enjoyment (as a leisure experience) produces a critical gap within the volunteering literature. Stebbins (2009) described volunteering within the serious leisure paradigm as a way to study those who engage in uncoerced volunteer activities by freely choosing to give their time. These factors identified by Stebbins (2009) suggest that volunteering as leisure fits into Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth’s (1996) dimensions of volunteering.

Stebbins (1996) explained that when volunteering is studied alongside leisure, critical issues arise, such as whether volunteer managers, who are leisure-seeking, could be committed to their work as are traditional volunteers. In his article, Stebbins (1996, p. 212) aimed to “negate the proposition that conceived volunteering as leisure trivializes volunteering, implying … that volunteers are at bottom, selfish, unreliable, and prone to giving less effort”. This is significant since academic work in the serious leisure paradigm often focuses on volunteering on an individual level as benefits, rewards, costs, and interests of the individual donors are all investigated (Arai & Pedlar, 2003; Gillespie, Leffler, & Lerner, 2002; Paine, Hill, & Rochester, 2010; Pearce, 1993). Stebbins (1996) highlighted that volunteers within this serious leisure paradigm engage in service because their self-interestedness is their primary motive, and is possibly overlooking the broader social ramifications of their actions. In more recent research, Stebbins (2009) recognised that these individuals are more intrinsically motivated than extrinsically. For such reasons, Pearce (1993, p. 28) previously rejected volunteering as leisure because he asserted it “ignores the sacrifices that many people [volunteers] make in order to carry out such activity” because volunteering from this perspective is focused on the ‘donor’. In contrast, Stebbins (2007) conducted research on two voluntary organisations in Canadian francophone communities where participants referred to volunteering as a leisure activity and identified their tensions and sacrifices as scarce time, relational strains, personal and professional obligations, and no time for other leisure activities. Moreover, Arai and Pedlar
(2003) highlighted that the community (recipients) benefits from any level of volunteering. This is also consistent with Stebbins’ (1996) earlier work where he argued that volunteering as serious leisure does make substantial contributions to the wider community.

Baldwin and Norris (1999), Gillespie, Leffler, and Lerner (2002), Orr (2006), and Raisborough (2006) were all concerned with the link between identity and the social world, suggesting that volunteers define themselves based on their activities. Discussions about social identities and social commitments in the general serious leisure paradigm are much more prevalent in other fields than volunteering as scholars’ research has focused on hobbyists and amateurs who engage in serious, casual, and project-based leisure (Arai, 2000; Gibson, Willming, & Holdnak, 2002; Green & Jones, 2005; Rojek, 2000).

Stebbins (1996) highlighted that volunteers studied within the serious leisure paradigm engage in unpaid work. Studies such as Stebbins (2009) and Paine, Hill, and Rochester (2010) located these volunteers in management or board positions, within formal and informal environments, and working on all types of tasks, even engaging in advocacy work. Stebbins (2009) asserted that, within this paradigm, there are two types of volunteers: career volunteers and casual volunteers. Stebbins (2009) referred to casual volunteers as individuals who participate in voluntary activities for pure enjoyment and satisfaction. Career volunteers, on the other hand, are individuals who participate to fulfil an activity or mission (Stebbins, 2009). Stebbins (1996) suggested that casual volunteers are more aligned with the definition of leisure whilst Paine, Hill, and Rochester (2010) acknowledged that career volunteers are more aligned with paid work structures as they require more perseverance.

Stebbins (2004a) also addressed volunteers whose service stems from employment settings. When addressing high commitment levels in paid work settings, Stebbins (2004a) referred to such attachment as occupational devotion. When paid work interests are extended into voluntary services, Stebbins (2000) referred to such action as spirit of professional work. The serious leisure paradigm is significant for the current study because it focuses on why individuals volunteer as a self-interestedness activity as part their identity. In interest of the
current study, this paradigm addresses the identities and commitment of volunteers whose interests are based on gender issues within sport and physical education.

**Voluntary paradigm as a hybrid**

The three paradigms identified provide a frame of reference to understand the perspectives utilised by scholars studying volunteerism. The paradigms are presented separately in order to capture the complexity within the phenomenon of volunteering. Through these paradigms, the different types of volunteer opportunities and variety of people are linked to various types of activities, service, activist, or leisure perspectives. However, this only represents part of the study of volunteerism and not the whole field (Rochester, 2006). Moreover, separate paradigms do not adequately reflect the complexity of volunteerism as there is a large amount of overlap among them (Rochester, 2006) (see Figure 2.1). This model highlights the overlaps among the paradigms, which Billis (1993) suggested was the part of volunteering research that was unclear.
Hustinx, Cnaan, and Handy (2010) suggested that, in order to gain a full understanding of volunteerism (determinants, nature, and process), researchers need to consider combining the different ways of studying volunteerism. Rochester (2006) proposed developing hybrid forms (paradigms) of volunteering. Hybrid forms enable the complexities and contradictions ingrained in volunteerism to be better understood and to be identified, which is used as the point of departure for the current study (Hustinx, Cnaan, & Handy, 2010). Rochester (2006) explained that employing a hybrid form to understand volunteerism refers to the nature of volunteering and the roles from a combined perspective. Below are four examples of hybrid forms (Rochester, 2006, p. 4):

- volunteering which can be seen as a combination of unpaid work and activism;
- volunteering which can be seen as a combination of activism and serious leisure;
- volunteering which can be seen as a combination of serious leisure and unpaid work;
- volunteering which can be seen as a combination of all three elements.


Figure 2.1 Three Perspective Model of Volunteering
The core characteristics of volunteering that shape the academic study of volunteerism are presented throughout this section to provide a frame of reference through which scholars make sense of the volunteering field. The discussion thus far explores the complexity in the field. Volunteering is defined, studied, and interpreted in various ways. However, throughout the section, it is evident that there is a large amount of overlap among the concepts and paradigms. These core concepts and paradigms of volunteering are presented to show how they are defined for the current study.

The chapter now moves from general volunteering research to sport research into volunteerism. Sport research differs from traditional volunteer research because of the different expectations, patterns, and goals. The remainder of this chapter, therefore, only utilises literature within the sport discipline, but demonstrates the ways in which sport scholars draw on general research.

**Volunteerism in sport**

Traditional research into volunteerism contributes greatly to the understanding of volunteerism within sport. Baum and Lockstone (2007) asserted that it would be reasonable to assume that volunteers who contribute to sporting events exhibit similar characteristics to volunteers’ committed to other non-sport contexts. Hwang (2010) and Strigas and Jackson (2003), however, noted that there are differences between general volunteerism and sport volunteerism. For instance, Donnelly and Harvey (2011) highlighted that, unlike non-sport contexts, sport volunteering is embedded in amateurism, which represents sport volunteers who are sport participants, ex-athletes, and other individuals interested in service. Therefore, it is important to recognise the roots of volunteering when contextualising current/modern volunteer sport research. As presented in Chapter One, volunteers are the backbone of sport, yet individuals’ reasons for engaging, particularly in sport volunteering, are still unclear. Safai, Harvey, Lévesque, and Donnelly (2007) asserted one important reason for this uncertainty is because national statistics, such
as Canada’s National Survey of Giving, Volunteering and Participation, do not distinguish sport as an area of volunteering.

Consequently, since sport volunteer research is intertwined with general volunteer research, it does not fully represent sport volunteerism. Bang and Chelladurai (2009) pointed out that this negatively impacts the understanding of sport volunteerism since it is overlooked and the literature does not capture the significance of sport volunteering. This is consistent with Strigas and Jackson’s (2003) concern that most information on volunteerism, commitment, and motivation is obtained in non-sport settings, leaving sport volunteering under-represented. Chalip (2006) and Doherty (1998) argued that sport scholars need to grow their research so it can be distinguishable from other disciplines. This enables scholars of sport volunteerism to highlight the uniqueness and distinctions of sport volunteerism in comparison to non-sport volunteers. Therefore, sport volunteers should be the centre of analysis as it addresses “cost and viability, economic regeneration (physical and employment), creation of researchers and infrastructure for future community, and event use, national pride, and environmental activity among a plethora of others” (Baum & Lockstone, 2007, p. 29).

**Characteristics of sport volunteers**

This section begins by presenting a brief overview of sport volunteers’ characteristics to provide a frame of reference about the people who participate in unpaid service in sport volunteering. Scholars investigate sport volunteers’ backgrounds and characteristics to build profiles which focus on gender, age, education, employment, and income (Coleman, 2002; Doherty, 2005; Harvey, Donnelly, & Lévesque, 2005; Hoye, & Cuskelley, 2003; Nichols & Padmore, 2005; Nichols & Shepherd, 2006). In addition, according to Downward and Ralston (2005), literature from scholars such as the abovementioned typically refines the context to sport volunteering in both individual sports and sporting events.
Based on gender, Doherty (2005) and Nichols and Padmore (2005) indicated that more males volunteer in sport than females. Doherty (2005) illustrated this in her profile of Canadian sport volunteers where general sport volunteers in community settings were made up of 64% males and 36% female. Moreover, the executive sport volunteers in community settings represented 61% men and 39% women (Doherty, 2005). Nichols and Padmore’s (2005) findings from Sport England’s general population survey echoed this as it was shown that 70% of sports club volunteers were male. However, Nichols and Shepherd (2006) questioned if this was due to a higher male membership base or a representation of sport’s traditional participants. In contrast, Downward and Ralston (2005) suggested that it may be due to the increased formalities associated with volunteering in male-oriented sport. The authors also identified males being more likely than women to be in chairperson, treasurer, or senior coaching positions, indicating that men are in the positions with the most power. Nichols and Shepherd (2006) suggested that these imbalances of positions are closely aligned with societal ideologies that suggest gender-appropriate activities, such as washing equipment, making food, or taking secretarial roles. There is a large body of literature that discusses gender imbalances and women’s disadvantages within sport structures, and some of this literature will be addressed in a later section. In general, studies show that more males volunteer in sport than women at all levels (Chalip, 2006; Downward, Lumsdon, & Ralston, 2005; Nichols & Padmore, 2005).

Age has also been of interest for sport scholars as it has generally been found in Westernised societies that the largest percentage of sport volunteers engage in service between the ages of 35-44 (Doherty, 2005; Harvey, Donnelly, & Lévesque, 2005; Nichols & Padmore, 2005; Nichols & Shepherd, 2006). This age range was particularly notable in community sport settings as Doherty (2005) suggested parents are asked to fill roles (e.g., coaching). This is supported by empirical work that illustrates that some people get involved in sport because of their children (Burgham & Downward, 2005; Busser & Carruthers, 2010; Harvey, Donnelly, & Lévesque, 2005; Long & Goldenberg, 2010). Scholars also found that people in the 45+ age range engage in a large amount of volunteer activities (Doherty, 2005; Nichols & Padmore, 2005). Nichols and Shepherd (2006) linked this to individuals reducing their sport participation. The scholars also suggested that this
was during the transitioning stages into voluntary service where their sport experience was required and relevant for specific positions. In other words, Nichols and Shepherd (2006) linked the differences of volunteer behaviours to people’s life stages. Doherty (2005) explained this by stating that, before the age of 35, individuals are in or finishing their education followed by establishing a career and starting a family. Thus, she suggested that once a person is well established in paid work, he or she is more prepared to volunteer in sport.

Educational and labour market status has been researched to highlight sport volunteers’ characteristics. Scholars like Coleman (2002) and Harvey and Lévesque (2005) indicated that sport volunteers often have higher educational qualifications than general volunteers. In addition, Coleman (2002) highlighted that the more education the volunteer has, the more likely he or she is to volunteer at the club or organisational level. This implies that more organisation-specific qualifications are needed at higher levels. This can also be linked to workforce and socio-economic statuses as Nichols, Taylor, James, Holmes, King, and Garnett (2005) showed that people in higher economic classes are more likely to volunteer, despite their limited amount of flexible time. Doherty (2005) furthered this discussion by suggesting that these sport volunteers are likely to be well-established in their employment and, therefore, are in higher income brackets than younger or retired individuals.

Scholars have also considered volunteers’ marital statuses (Doherty, 2005; Harvey & Lévesque, 2005). In their Canadian pilot study on two team-based sport teams and two individual-based sport teams from two different areas, Harvey and Lévesque (2005) found that 85% of their participants were married or had a common law partner, 7.9% were divorced or separated, and 6.7% were single (never married). Moreover, 93.4% of the respondents had children. Harvey and Lévesque’s (2005) findings were consistent with Doherty’s (2005) findings about community sport volunteers engaging in voluntary work because of children and partners; however, it should be noted that her figures showed that 37% of general sport volunteers and 34% of executive sport volunteers did not have children in the household.
In summary, the literature suggests that sport volunteers are not a homogenous group but do share some dominant characteristics. Overall, the population of sport volunteers is made up of more male sport volunteers than females, with the largest percentage of volunteers aged between the ages of 35 – 44. Sport volunteers tend to have relatively high educational levels and be in stable well-paid employment; and the majority of them are married with children.

The next section explores the sport literature to understand volunteerism from a sporting perspective. The section is divided into two parts: (1) Volunteering in sport which addresses the activities, patterns of time requirements, and pathways into voluntary activities; and (2) Engaging in sport volunteering which addresses motivations for voluntary activity, commitment to activities, and impact of balancing public and private roles. As previously indicated, the limited research that addresses women’s sport volunteerism will also be presented within this section.

**Researching volunteering in sport**

**Volunteering in sport – voluntary activities**

MacLean and Hamm (2007) noted that sport volunteering provides a variety of different active leisure opportunities. Studies on sport volunteerism examine volunteers in various settings, engaging in a variety of tasks, and at different levels – local, national, and international (Harvey, Donnelly, & Lévesque, 2005; Jarvis & Blank, 2011; Kim, Zhang, & Connaughton, 2010). Donnelly and Harvey (2011) suggested that there are three main settings for sport volunteering: at events, in grassroots and community organisations, and in high performance settings. Within each of these volunteering settings, there is also a variety of roles that volunteer managers have to fill to maintain sport and the organisation; for example, event roles include event promotion, ticketing, ushering, security, accreditation, media, hospitality, merchandising, and medical support (Strigas & Jackson,
According to Donnelly and Harvey (2011), grassroots and community-based sport are the largest settings for sport volunteering. Sport volunteers within these settings often undertake multiple roles and engage in varied tasks (Coleman, 2002; Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, & Darcy, 2006; Doherty, 2005; Doherty & Misener, 2008; Donnelly & Harvey, 2011; Jarvis & Blank, 2011). Nichols and Shepherd (2006) identified voluntary roles in these settings, including coach, instructor or teacher, referee or umpire, committee member or administrator, scorer or time keeper, or medical support. Individuals who volunteer in high-performance settings are identified as having special skills (Donnelly & Harvey, 2011). Donnelly and Harvey (2011) indicated that roles within this setting represent individuals who serve on national agencies (World Anti-Doping), professional organisations or committees (International Olympic Committee [IOC]), and commissions (IOC Medical Commission). Their duties include attending meetings, completing work outside formal meetings, developing and understanding how organisational environments operate, and undertaking specific tasks (project based). Often, these volunteers are also invited to serve on committees and working groups. Voluntary roles are widespread and varied based on the competition level, function type, organisational mission, clientele, and location (Kim, Zhang, & Connaughton, 2010). In addition, these positions which are on-field (coaching, officiating, scoring) and off-field (board members, programme managers, treasurer) need to be filled to maintain the sport industry, and, in many cases, this is developed by the volunteers.

Volunteering in sport – time devotion and patterns

Sport volunteering requires a large amount of time. The time demand ranges from sporadic to continuous day-to-day input. Green and Chalip (1998) suggested that the majority of sport volunteers’ patterns are referred to as casual or short-term. This form of volunteering requires less time commitment than long-term volunteers and is defined as individuals who engage in short-term volunteering assignments or tasks (Pauline & Pauline, 2009). Episodic patterns of volunteering can also be identified as having a short-term time pattern. However, it does not follow a consistent daily pattern; instead, volunteers of annual sporting events are referred to as episodic volunteers whilst community sport volunteers,
like coaches, are referred to as short-term, seasonal volunteers. According to Cuskelly, Harrington, and Stebbins (2003), short-term volunteers require less skill or knowledge to engage in voluntary activities, and they typically engage in sporting events and seasonal sports (Green & Chalip, 1998; Pauline & Pauline, 2009). For instance, Kim (2009) pointed out that the literature shows many volunteer community coaches’ experience, knowledge, and skills varying, as many of them do not possess adequate standards for coaching.

On the other hand, Cuskelly, Hoye, and Auld (2006) described individuals undergoing specific training and development, where they gain significant levels of knowledge and skill for their particular voluntary activities. In many cases, this leads to these individuals engaging in voluntary activities for a long period of time. This type of volunteering means a person will participate over an extended period of time, which Cuskelly, Hoye, and Auld (2006) suggested is measured by the years of participation. These scholars highlighted the importance of long-term volunteers in voluntary organisations because of their stability and continuity of the sport activities. Long-term volunteers are often found in organisational settings since this is where volunteers are needed on a regular basis and often are in positions of power (Pauline & Pauline, 2009). Cuskelly, Harrington, and Stebbins (2003) pointed out that these volunteers have sustained involvement and are highly committed to their volunteering endeavours. Echoing these authors, Nichols and King (1999) referred to these individuals as serious volunteers because of their strong attachment and identification with their service.

Volunteering in sport – pathways into voluntary activities

Scholars of non-sport volunteerism have shown interest in the pathways into volunteering (Andolina, Jenkins, Zukin, Ketter, 2003; Haski-Leventhal & Cnaan, 2009; Mook, Handy, Ginieniewicz, & Quarter, 2007; Wilson, 2000), but sport scholars have given much less attention to this aspect of sport volunteering. Pathways have sometimes been included alongside other major topics in research, such as motivations, but as a minor topic. Doherty (2005) highlighted that pathways into sport volunteering are distinctive because, outside of sport, volunteers are more likely to enter into volunteering because someone
asked them to join. Sport, on the other hand, differs as Harvey and Lévesque (2005) concluded that the most common pathway into community sport volunteering in Canada was through parents and partners, as the scholars found 52% of their participants had children or spouses who participated when they volunteer. Harvey and Lévesque (2005) also found that participants identified pathways such as approaching sport associations (19.3%), were approached (17.6%), were asked by friends (4.7%), were asked by people outside of the association (3.4%), and were nominated or elected to their positions (3.0%).

In sport event settings, Coyne and Coyne (2001) explored how women and men learned about opportunities to volunteer for major golf tournaments. The scholars identified four ways volunteers, employed and unemployed, learned about volunteering opportunities (see Table 2.1):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Newspaper</th>
<th>Friend</th>
<th>Recruited</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female employed</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female unemployed</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male employed</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male unemployed</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


According to Haski-Leventhal and Cnaan (2009, p. 66), people are recruited to organisations by mentors, friends, and colleagues as an individual’s “social contacts usually encourage volunteering, either by direct request or by setting an example”. Haski-Leventhal and Cnaan (2009) suggested that individuals are recruited because of their interests, personal skills, or previous work, whilst Doherty (2005) suggested mentors have positive impacts of bringing new volunteers.

Doherty (2005), Jarvis and Blank (2011), and MacLean and Hamm (2007) suggested that pathways into sport volunteering are a continuous process. In research about profiling
Canadian volunteers, Doherty (2005) found that her participants were predisposed to sport volunteering. The participants stated that they engaged in voluntary service because when they were younger, they participated in organised sport, saw a role model helping others, were helped by others, had a parent who did volunteer work, or were influenced because they belonged to a youth group. Jarvis and Blank (2011) researched people who travelled to mega-sport events and found that 98% of their participants reported having previous volunteering experience. However, these scholars did not go into detail about the significance of the volunteers’ previous service or the type of volunteering activities in which they engaged – e.g., whether the respondents were socialised to understand the importance of volunteering through factors like family traditions or religion. Harvey and Lévesque (2005) also addressed participants’ previous voluntary service by asking about experiences and found that 58.9% of their participants did some kind of voluntary service when they were younger. Eley and Kirk (2002) suggested that voluntary service at a young age prepares people for future leadership roles in such settings.

Hamm-Kerwin, Misener, and Doherty (2009) used semi-structured interviews to probe how older Canadian community sport volunteers got involved with sport volunteering. The scholars found that 85% of their participants had family and friends who volunteered. One female participant called Kay (71 years old) stated that “I think it just comes from the family; if they see it in the family, they do the same things themselves” (p. 671). Another participant called Bill (69 years old) stated that he has volunteered all his life. Half of the participants also noted that they volunteered in activities outside of sport, such as health care, service organisations, and at church. This data and research method enabled Hamm-Kerwin et al. (2009) to gain a richer understanding of their participants’ pathways into sport volunteering, and suggest it would be beneficial for other scholars to employ qualitative tools. Identifying the gap in literature about sport volunteers’ pathways into voluntary activities is relevant for the current study as this has not been addressed for women’s international sport organisations.
Engaging in voluntary activities

Engaging in voluntary activities – motivations

The growth of research into sport volunteerism clearly shows why and how the sport industry has become increasingly dependent on volunteers. Scholars, therefore, indicate that understanding volunteers’ motivations is imperative for sport managers in order to utilise appropriate recruitment and retention strategies (Bang & Chelladurai, 2009; Bang & Ross, 2009; Fairley, Kellett, & Green, 2007; Grammatikopoulos, Koustelios, & Tsigilis, 2006; Pauline & Pauline, 2009), which is also evident in the growth of empirical literature on sport volunteers’ motivations (Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011).

The purpose of this section is to present empirical work about sports volunteers’ motivations from various voluntary settings. This is aligned with MacLean and Hamm’s (2007) suggestion that there is a need to explore motivations by examining different contexts of sport. For instance, existing literature is concerned with volunteers’ motives to participate in mega-sport events (large scale) (Bang & Chelladurai, 2009; Bang & Ross, 2009; Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998; Pauline & Pauline, 2009), small-scale events and specific sports settings (Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Long & Goldenberg, 2010; Strigas & Jackson, 2003), coaching (Bouchet & Lehe, 2010; Busser & Carruthers, 2010; Eley & Kirk, 2002), general community sport settings (Doherty, 2005; Doherty & Carron, 2003; Hamm-Kerwin, Misener, & Doherty, 2009), travelling events (Fairley, Kellett & Green, 2007; Jarvis & Blank, 2011), and organisational settings (Inglis, 1994; Searle, 1989). The next section presents volunteers’ motivations based on the various volunteering settings.

Engaging in voluntary activities – motivations in mega-events

A large volume of sport motivational research concentrates on mega-sporting events. Roche (1994, p. 1) noted that this reflects academic scholars’ interests in mega-events being “short-term events with long-term consequences”. Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam’s (1998) research on the 1998 Canadian Women’s Curling Championship is referred to as a
pioneering study for sport motivational research because it was one of the first studies to specifically focusing on sport (Love, Hardin, Koo, & Morse, 2011). This empirical study conducted by Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998) adapted the non-sport 28-scale quantitative motivational scale from Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) and applied it to a major sporting event. Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998) called their scale the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (SEVMS) and proposed that there are four motivational dimensions that existed in sporting events:

**Purposive** – relating to the desire to do something good and contribute to the community

**Solidarity** – relating to social interaction, group interaction, and networking

**External traditions** – relating to family traditions, and use of free time that can be seen being influenced by external factors

**Commitments** – linking external expectations and personal skills with commitment

The results from the SEVMS revealed that Canadian participants were mostly motivated to volunteer because of their purposive factors. These altruistic values suggested that individuals’ interests were centred on helping and contributing to society. Solidarity was identified as the next important motive as the participants were interested in building interpersonal contacts with individuals who had common interests. The other two factors, external traditions and commitments, were rated the lowest. Work by Grammatikopoulos, Koustelios, and Tsigilis (2006), Khoo and Engelhorn (2011), and Twynam, Farrell, and Johnston (2002) supported the findings and the reliability of the SEVMS as a tool. Han (2007) referred to Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam’s (1998) work as a ‘cornerstone’ for mega-sport event research. Yet Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998) suggested that volunteers are also motivated by actively being involved in a particular event because of its prestige, but this was not mentioned in the SEVMS (Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Jarvis & Blank, 2011). Motives based on prestige were consistent with earlier work by Andrew (1996) whose volunteers engaged in service at large-scale events in Australia and revealed being motivated by enjoyment of being involved and being part of the event.
Bang and Chelladurai (2009), criticised Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam’s (1998) research for focusing on national-level events, and, therefore, they developed and validated an alternative 26-item scale. This combined six factors and was called the Volunteer Motivations Scale for International Sporting Events (VMS-ISE). The scholars aimed to extend models developed by Clary, Snyder, and Ridge (1998) (Volunteer Function Inventory), Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998), and Johnston, Twynam, and Farrell (1999). Bang and Chelladurai (2009) asserted that sporting events may tap into a unique motivation which stem from involvement within international events. The VMS-ISE, therefore, focused on the following motivations: expression of values, patriotism, interpersonal contacts, career orientation, personal growth, and extrinsic rewards. The scholars validated the scale by investigating the motivations of 509 Korean volunteers from the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup and Asian Games in 2002. The responses from the questionnaires revealed that volunteers were mostly motivated by the values of helping others. The second most important motive was patriotism because the volunteers engaged in an activity at an international event where they could represent their country. Building interpersonal contacts and gaining practical experience for career orientation were the next two motives identified, respectively. The two least important motives were personal growth (focusing on feelings of self-worth) and extrinsic rewards. The VMS-ISE added to the field on mega-event motivations by introducing the factor of patriotism, and Bang and Chelladurai’s (2009) findings indicated that patriotism was a strong motivational factor. However, the scholars acknowledged that the scale was limiting because it did not address individuals who volunteer in activities based on merely loving the sport.

Bang and Ross (2009) addressed this limitation as they tested the VMS-ISE on 254 volunteers from the 2004 Twin Cities Marathon in Minneapolis.¹ Bang and Ross (2009) added the ‘love of sport’ as a factor and also adapted the term (or dimension) ‘community involvement’ from Matsuoka and Chelladurai (2001) to replace patriotism. Community involvement was used to refer to an individual’s motivation based on regional tribalism

¹ The authors used Bang and Chelladurai’s work on VMS-ISE which was previously presented at a conference in 2003.
which was a component of a fan’s identification with a sport team. They described this as a person’s strong attachment to a city or region which is then translated through their local team. The term was adapted because Bang and Ross (2009) conducted a national study. This research revealed similar findings to that of Bang and Chelladurai (2009), as Bang and Ross’s (2009) marathon volunteers indicated being motivated by (from most important to least important) expression of values, love of sport, interpersonal contacts, personal growth, community involvement, career orientation, and extrinsic rewards. Not only was ‘love for sport’ filling the gap from Bang and Chelladurai’s (2009) scale, but it also added to the body of knowledge as the research participants revealed being strongly motivated by their love for the sport. In addition, based on this work, the scholars proposed that smaller sporting event volunteers are likely to have the same motivations as mega-event volunteers because “people whose focus is on fulfilling a desire for belongingness to sport related events, they will often volunteer for the event regardless of size” (Bang & Ross, 2009, p. 70).

Downward, Lumsdon, and Ralston (2005) and Hoye, Cuskelley, Taylor, and Darcy (2008) noted that research on sport volunteers typically uses scales or utilises other quantitative measures. For instance, Pauline and Pauline (2009) used a quantitative assessment, developed by Strigas and Jackson (2003), to examine volunteerism with 289 participants from the 2005 Indianapolis Tennis Tournament. Similar to other scales, the respondents revealed that purposive factors were the most important motives for volunteering and the least important was material gain. Quantitative tools are beneficial because they enable researchers to investigate a large number of participants; however, such techniques do not facilitate probing or generate rich data to understand why people have particular motives for volunteering in mega-events.

It is notable that Downward, Lumsdon, and Ralston (2005) are the only researchers to report the gender differences within mega-sport events. Despite scholars acknowledging the number of female and male participants (Bang & Chelladurai, 2009; Bang & Ross, 2009), Downward, Lumsdon, and Ralston’s (2005) work focused on identifying the differences between the genders. Utilising questionnaires to gain an insight about crew
volunteering at the Commonwealth Games, Downward, Lumsdon, and Ralston (2005) found that the women in their study were more likely to volunteer in education and with children, whilst men were more likely to volunteer in the actual sport. It was suggested that this is linked to the male participants having longer sport histories than the female. Downward, Lumsdon, and Ralston (2005) also found that women exhibited a strong desire to enhance personal development to increase confidence and have more experiences, whilst also enhancing their curriculum vitae (CV), employment prospects, and skills. Yet, according to Pauline and Pauline (2009), volunteer motivations are not always different due to gender as the scholars reported that their findings on the women’s tennis tournament did not show a significant difference for male and female volunteers.

The existing literature shows gaps within understandings of the motivations and experiences of sport volunteers’. The methods employed have predominantly been quantitative, which limits what they can reveal, especially about how volunteering is linked with lifestyles. The studies are also cross-sectional, and, while they provide a snap shot of volunteers’ motivations, they give little insight into motivations over time. In the context of the current research, it is also notable that few studies have probed gender differences in motivations.

**Engaging in voluntary activities – motivations in small scale and sport specific**

The motivational scale that Pauline and Pauline (2009) applied to mega-sport settings was originally developed by Strigas and Jackson (2003) who developed theirs for smaller scale contexts. The authors suggested that sport organisations need to re-evaluate the existing knowledge regarding sport volunteering as volunteer motives continue to be viewed as egotistical, purposive, leisure, external influences, and interested in material gains. Strigas and Jackson (2003), therefore, utilised the work of Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) and Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998) to develop a sport-related list of volunteer motivations. The authors aimed to identify primary motives of sport volunteers related to their demographic profiles. They validated the list through a pilot study with 60
participants at a marathon event in Florida, USA. The scholars found that their participants acknowledged the most important items as “volunteering creates a better society” and “I wanted to help make the event a success” (p. 117). The next important motive identified was “it is fun to volunteer in a marathon event” (p. 117). The least important motive was “I wanted to gain some practical experience toward paid employment” (p. 117).

Khoo and Englehorn (2011, 2007) and Schuyler (2008) showed that gender differences exist in volunteer motivations in small sport event settings. Schuyler (2008), for instance, noted that one factor differed between female sport volunteers compared to male participants: males were more likely to identify volunteering as leisure. However, Schuyler (2008) did not find any other differences in the following factors: purposive, egoistic, material, and external factors. Kim, Zhang, and Connaughton (2010) suggested that there were minimal motivational differences between women and men in youth sport settings and, therefore, suggested that organisations could employ similar recruitment techniques. However, in research on the Paralympics, Khoo and Englehorn (2007) revealed that women were motivated based on family and traditions. Moreover, in more recent work, Khoo and Englehorn (2011) found that women volunteers identified two important purposive motives: wanting to feel part of the community and wanting to create a better society. These were different from males, who highlighted their primary motive for involvement was the sport and the prestige of the event.

Two studies in small-scale sport settings by Burgham and Downward (2005) and Long and Goldenberg (2010) developed questionnaires specific to their studies. From their questionnaires, Burgham and Downward (2005) concluded that volunteers in the UK associated their voluntary participation within their family lifestyles and personal identities. For example, women from the study were strongly motivated by having been a swimmer or by their children engaging in swimming. Coyne and Coyne (2001) also addressed women’s motivations to volunteer in sport-specific settings, but did not find significant differences as their participants identified loving golf, like their male counterparts. This was also consistent with research about Special Olympic volunteers in the USA by Long and Goldenberg (2010). They highlighted that both male and female volunteers reported
serving because their children participated in the event, but their findings were not presented based on gender. According to Strigas and Jackson (2003), this is common within the sport volunteering literature. It is apparent that there is more attention in gender difference in small-event volunteering research, which suggests that women’s volunteering activities are more closely linked to family situations. This confirms the value of the current study which extends this examination of women as sport volunteers through its study of individuals operating on the international stage.

**Engaging in voluntary activities – motivations in community settings**

Motives based on family involvement and past sport participation are prominent in research that focuses on community settings (Doherty & Carron, 2003; Hamm-Kerwin, Misener, & Doherty, 2009) and volunteer coaches (Bouchet & Lehe, 2010; Busser & Carruthers, 2010; Eley & Kirk, 2002). Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, and Darcy (2006) pointed out that community-based volunteer positions are hard to fill. Bouchet and Lehe (2010) and Busser and Carruthers (2010) found that over half of their participants volunteered as coaches because their children played the sport, soccer (football), in both cases. Busser and Carruthers (2010) also addressed other key factors that motivated individuals to volunteer, such as volunteers having previously participated in sport at an organised level. They also found that men had more experience in coaching than female participants, which they suggested was because women were more interested in gaining experience. In addition, over half of the research participants (57%) previously engaged in some voluntary activities whilst a third reported at least participating in informal voluntary activities.

Doherty (2005) utilised data from the Canadian National Survey of Giving to examine community sport volunteers. She concluded that community sport volunteers were motivated to volunteer to support the cause in which they believe, use their skills to help in community activities or benefit others that they know, and explore their personal strengths. Similarly, Nichols (2005) used the data from the 2002 Sport England survey and found that many volunteers were motivated by their children’s participation in sport. Nichols (2005) also revealed three main motives identified for stalwarts in sport: they wanted to
improve/help people, they had a desire to continue involvement in sport after playing, and they thought it would give them the chance to learn new skills. In more recent research, and one of the few sport studies to utilise interview data, Hamm-Kerwin, Misener, and Doherty (2009) explored the common factors of older Canadian adults volunteering in community sport. The authors revealed four themes that explained the participants’ reasons for volunteering: structural factors, cultural factors, cognitive factors, and situational factors. Two themes in line with the current study were cultural factors (including interest in ‘giving back’; feelings of obligation; valuing volunteering; and history of family or tradition of volunteering) and situational factors (including marital status, employment, socio-economic status, and awareness of opportunities). (Other themes such as the importance of health and the need to stay active for older volunteers were also evident but are not as significant in the context of the current study). Sport volunteering in the community and coaching settings received limited attention within this thesis because of the volunteering contexts are outside of the scope of the current study. However, they are addressed in order to highlight why people engage in volunteer activities at these levels, and it shows the main emphases in sport volunteer research to date.

**Engaging in voluntary activities – motivations in organisational and board settings**

An individual’s motives to volunteer within sport organisations are significant for the current study, yet existing literature in volunteering is under-developed (Cuskelley, McIntyre, & Boag, 1998; Doherty, 1998; Doherty & Carron, 2003). By exploring volunteer motives in governing bodies, sport organisations, community sport organisations, and sport-specific organisations together, as done by Hwang (2010), the understanding of motivations within sport organisations in sport is not being advanced. It could be assumed that participants may have different motives for involvement within these different organisational settings because activities and aims are much different among the cultures. For instance, as previously suggested, community sport volunteers may engage in activities because their children participate (Doherty, 2005). Kim, Chelladurai, and Trail (2007) investigated an American Youth Soccer Organisation and found that people volunteer
because of components of empowerment, which is different from the community sport volunteer. It could be assumed that non-governmental, non-profit, and governing bodies may elicit a different calibre of volunteers because of the nature of the organisations.

Inglis (1994) and Searle (1989) advanced our understanding of diversity in volunteer experience through their research in board members’ motivations to serve. Searle (1989) was interested in recreational board members and developed a 16-item scale based on needs theory, social exchange theory, and roles that could identify volunteers’ motivations and needs. Searle (1989) revealed that the four important factors identified as motivations for volunteering on boards were growth, responsibility, contribution, and recognition. Inglis (1994) sought to advance his study by adding a social interaction construct to the scale by investigating Canadian amateur provincial sport organisations. Thirty-one male and female Executive Directors, volunteer board Presidents, and volunteer board members participated in the study and identified similar motivations found in Searle’s (1989) research. Below are factors found in the study along with example responses used in both studies:

**Growth** – “the opportunity to learn new skills”

**Responsibility** – “the opportunity to satisfy my ambition for a greater role in provincial sport”

**Contribution** – “the opportunity to respond to expressed public sport needs”

**Recognition** – “the perception of others that my contribution is important”

In order to address social interaction in the scale, Inglis (1994) added **relations** – “the opportunity to work with others” – as she asserted that there is increased recognition and understanding for people in organisational settings. Inglis (1994) also argued that this dimension was important because she predicted that the representation of women on boards will increase.

The results from Inglis’ (1994) work showed that Executive Directors are more motivated by growth, responsibility, and recognition than voluntary board members. In this study,
men were over-represented among Executive Directors and women were under-represented, whereas among voluntary board members the opposite was the case: women were over-represented as board members. Individuals in board member roles were motivated to volunteer in sport because they ‘wanted to do something for the sport’ and ‘give back to the sport’, and these participants were typically women. Inglis, therefore, suggested that personal growth, recognition for work, and responsibility are de-emphasised by voluntary board members. It was not clear, however, if this is due to gender or roles within the organisations. Shibli et al.’s (1999) findings from volunteers in sport organisational settings in the UK were different from those of Inglis (1994) and Searle (1989). Shibli et al. (1999) found that participants were motivated by fulfilling their own personal needs and interests. The scholars suggested that strong altruistic motives overpower individuals’ interests in meeting their own needs such as skill building, CV enhancing, or networking.

Doherty and Carron (2003) aimed to understand the experiences of volunteers in amateur sport organisations by investigating cohesion in voluntary sport executive committees. They suggested that cohesion within the committees is a significant factor because it represents unity, togetherness, concordance, and harmony. Based on the abovementioned study by Inglis (1994), Doherty and Carron (2003) questioned if women valued social connectedness in board environments in different ways from men. Doherty and Carron (2003) found that there were no significant differences in perceptions of committee cohesion based on gender. Further, the scholars found that task cohesion was stronger than social cohesion, which predicted volunteer satisfaction and committee effectiveness. Their participants suggested that they worked hardest when they enjoyed the particular task.

Based on the abovementioned literature, motivations can differ widely between volunteers in mega-events, small-scale and sport-specific settings, and community environments compared to organisational settings. However, one motive that has not been discussed yet, but is mentioned in the literature from each of the settings, is the importance of volunteers’ sport identities.
Sport identity is very powerful. Scholars have found that such identities lead people to engage in voluntary activities (Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Green & Chalip, 2008; Safai et al., 2007). For example, Harvey and Lévesque (2005) found that 86.4% of their volunteer coaches engaged in voluntary activities because of their connection with the sport from when they participated. Bouchet and Lehe (2010) and Busser and Carruthers (2010) identified similar findings as their participants noted that their past sport experiences influenced them to volunteer in sport. Coyne and Coyne’s (2001) and MacLean and Hamm’s (2007) respondents reported that their participants volunteered because of their ‘love for golf’. MacLean and Hamm (2007) even highlighted that their participants’ golf identity is reported as part of their pride. Green and Chalip (2008) summarised these findings by suggesting that people volunteer within their sport because of their strong attachment. Pauline and Pauline (2009) referred to this attachment as people having a sense of belonging and being part of the team. Sport identity and love for one’s sport are important factors to understand voluntary involvement as Harvey and Lévesque (2005, p. 34) stated that, “these results indicate that participation in a sport is a strong prediction of volunteerism later in life”.

Sport identity is discussed here in relation to motivation, but also referred to in other sections, indicating the interlinked nature of different dimensions of volunteering. Overall, it is helpful to note that sport volunteers’ motivations differ based on the volunteers, the settings for volunteering, and individuals’ personal interests.

**Engaging in voluntary activities – volunteer commitment levels**

Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998) and Strigas and Jackson (2003) pointed out that managers of sport volunteers should be aware of the changes in their volunteers’ commitment to their service. Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998) continued to suggest that this commitment is linked to the satisfaction, motivation, and actual experiences which could be understood in a similar way to consumer behaviour. They proposed that an individual’s satisfaction results in a comparison between rewards and costs of an experience, and they asserted that volunteers continue to serve if they are satisfied with the
experience but cease their service if they are dissatisfied. Love et al. (2011) agreed as they suggested that volunteers’ commitment intentions and intensities are related to satisfaction. This is significant for volunteers because they freely choose to give their time. According to Hwang (2010), satisfaction is a key determinant of the future behaviour as it affects the likelihood of whether an individual will continue to volunteer.

It is important for sport managers to understand motivation, satisfaction, and commitment because it is their duty to plan, organise, coordinate, and execute activities based on why individuals initially got involved (motivation) and to keep them coming back (satisfaction and commitment to voluntary activity) (Costa & Chalip, 2006; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004). Such understanding leads researchers and sport managers to investigate the patterns of volunteering in order for sport organisations and tasks to run smoothly. To do this, the voluntary settings and nature of volunteering needs to be addressed. For instance, managers need to know how to recruit event volunteers whose service is episodic compared to coaches whose voluntary service is seasonal. According to Costa and Chalip (2006), understanding the differences in commitment levels is important for scholars and practitioners so they can predict turnover, tenure, absenteeism, and performance in work settings, as well as properly addressing the differences in changing commitment levels. However, this is a difficult task as Cuskelly and Boag (2001) and Iwasaki and Havitz (2004) noted that minimal sport research has been directed at clarifying individuals’ volunteering commitment patterns and intentions to remain.

The existing research on commitment and sport voluntary service draws on organisational commitment literature and focuses on attitudinal commitment and behavioural commitment (Cuskelly, Harrington, & Stebbins, 2003). According to Costa and Chalip (2006), attitudinal commitment is a function of an individual’s attitudes towards their voluntary activity. Behavioural commitment focuses on consistent participation within voluntary activities (Costa & Chalip, 2006). Cuskelly and Boag (2001) and Hoye (2007) examined the short-term influences of organisational commitment and perceived committee functioning to predict committee member turnover. Cuskelly and Boag (2001) noted that behavioural commitments are situationally constrained, and authors highlighted that there
are minimal performance expectations for volunteers. They came to this conclusion by comparing volunteers to paid workers. Through the conceptualisation of attitudinal commitments, Cuskelly and Boag (2001) highlighted the intense positive orientation towards a voluntary activity or any organisation. Using workplace literature, Cuskelly and Boag (2001) described the process of attitudinal commitment as an individual adopting organisational goals as his or her own, identifying affectively with the tasks and missions of the organisation, and strongly valuing membership. Hoye (2007) related this to organisational commitment, which Cuskelly and Boag (2001) suggested could be characterised as a sense of affective attachment to a sport organisation. This attachment leads to intensive organisational involvement resulting in volunteers internalising their organisation’s goals. Since behavioural commitment is more likely to be situationally constrained, the attitudinal component of commitment was expected to have a greater impact on the commitment levels of volunteers. Therefore, to measure commitment levels, Cuskelly and Boag (2001) surveyed the participants during three different occasions. Commitment was only reported in relation to sport volunteers’ turnover behaviour because it was assumed that this commitment would predict organisational patterns, specifically turnover. However, the scholars found it difficult to explain turnover behaviour and suggested that people’s commitment to voluntary organisations was stronger than perceived commitment during the time of turnover.

Further, existing research is often intertwined with motivational literature which makes it difficult to isolate understanding of commitment, as in many cases, volunteers’ motivations overlap with their commitment to the organisation. For example, scholars such as Maclean and Hamm (2007) investigated motivations, commitments, and intentions to remain as volunteers at large-scale golfing events. The research participants indicated that they were mostly motivated by egoistic factors (wanting to provide the volunteer with the excitement which they crave or wanting to improve skills and abilities) and purposive factors (volunteering creates a better society or wanting to put back in the community) whilst they identified being committed because of golf pride, community growth, love for the sport, and their voluntary role. Yet, when asked about their intention to remain, 80% of the respondents suggested they intended on remaining a volunteer because volunteering is
rewarding, due to retirement they have free time, and community initiatives are important to support. This suggests that these volunteers were driven by their golf interests, and their egotistical interests motivated them to engage but their love for the game kept them coming back to their voluntary activity.

Sport volunteers’ commitments to their tasks have been explored at various levels. Coyne and Coyne (2001) referred to people who volunteered in golf sporting events more than once as ‘veteran’ volunteers because they knew what to expect, which first time volunteers did not. The scholars found that volunteers were committed for reasons beyond the event such as they received a volunteer package (free round of golf, free visitor’s pass, meal per day, opportunity to buy sportswear at discounted prices, invitation to sponsor’s gift to volunteer), but also addressed the required obligations (requirement to purchase $40 uniform and minimum of working three one-half days). Rather, veteran volunteers acknowledged being committed to their voluntary service because of the good supervision (which was identified as important by female volunteers), interesting people, camaraderie, and community support. This suggested that the positive experiences are what strengthened the ‘veteran’ volunteers’ commitment to the event, and therefore, if they would have experienced poor supervision or a negative environment, it would have been unlikely that they would have been committed to the event.

Khoo and Englehorn (2011) explored the commitment levels of Special Olympic volunteers and found that the longer volunteers participated in the event, the more likely their commitment levels would be strengthened. The majority of the participants in this study served for the Special Olympics more than five times. These volunteers identified returning to the event because they felt their skills were needed and they had the experience to provide the service. The participants, therefore, suggested that they remained committed as long as (1) they continued to be needed and (2) they felt they were making a contribution to the success of the event.

Cuskelly (1995), Cuskelly, Harrington, and Stebbins (2003), and Cuskelly, McIntyre, and Boag (1998) investigated sport volunteers’ commitment to organisational settings.
Cuskelly (1995) explored the relationship between committee functions and organisational commitment with 159 Australian volunteers from community-based sport organisations. He found that the participants who identified the organisation as being cohesive, receptive to new ideas, and open to various processes to decision making and able to handle conflict between members, reported having higher levels of commitment. Cuskelly (1995) suggested that voluntary sport organisations should develop and maintain a welcoming environment so members have a clear understanding of organisational goals, adequate opportunities to use skills and experiences, and equitable input to decision-making, allowing volunteers to strengthen their commitment. Cuskelly, McIntyre, and Boag’s (1998) later work was consistent with these findings as the scholars explored the development of organisational commitment among volunteers in relation to organisational factors and personal characteristics. Through the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), the respondents reported that individual variables (age, hours volunteered per week, and tenure in organisation) had a major impact, but, more importantly, it showed that volunteers were committed to organisations that had a strong, positive environment in which volunteers’ service was truly valued (Cuskelly, McIntyre, & Boag, 1998).

Cuskelly, Harrington, and Stebbins (2003) extended their understanding of sport administrators’ commitment levels by exploring the dynamics of changing volunteer motivations over time. The scholars viewed commitment as an attitude that is capable of fluctuating based on participants’ evaluation of their experience. The scholars asserted that to understand commitment is to recognise a significant part of the volunteer’s motivation. In order to identify the differences in levels of commitment, OCQs were completed by 205 respondents from 52 Australian sport organisations on three different occasions: first at the start of a new season for that sport, second at the end of the season, and third with the commencement of the season in year subsequent to the first season. The respondents were initially categorised as either career volunteers (i.e., people who wanted to help, loved sport, felt a sense of attachment to sport, interested in developing sport, wanted to learn and share knowledge, had something to offer, or felt could do the job) or marginal volunteers (people who wanted to give back to sport, put back into sport, felt there was a lack of
others, believed that everyone should have a turn, or were coerced). The authors further explained that marginal volunteers engaged in activities because of a sense of obligation whilst career volunteers were more committed. The results indicated that the levels of organisational commitment changed over time in relation to individuals being referred to as career or marginal volunteers, and the authors concluded that the changes were due to volunteers re-evaluating their relationships with their voluntary service. Consequently, this resulted in changes within their voluntary patterns that were different from the participants’ initial reasons for volunteering.

As previously suggested, community-based volunteers engage in roles like coaching, event planning, and administrator roles (Donnelly & Harvey, 2011). Their time demands range from seasonal coaches to episodic-based events to those continuously involved for administration. Safai et al. (2007) suggested that assessing the time differences in community sports is complex because time fluctuates throughout the year, and, therefore, gauging volunteers’ commitment levels is hard, as volunteers’ hours change from month to month depending on the activity or period within the sporting season. Misener, Doherty, and Hamm-Kerwin (2010) highlighted that sport organisations struggle to retain volunteers because of the range of motives, satisfaction requirements, and commitments of volunteering. Therefore, the literature suggests that managers need to focus on developing retention strategies (Cuskelley, 2004; Doherty, 1998; Nichols, Taylor, James, King, Holmes, & Garrett, 2003).

Kim, Chelladurai, and Trail (2007) constructed retention models for sport organisations utilising four variables from the sport psychology discipline. The variables of the model offer significant ways to understand volunteers and their commitment to their sport organisation. The first variable is person-task fit, which is based on “knowledge, skills, and abilities of an individual or the needs of an individual and the requirement of a job or task” also “the fit between the needs, desires, and preferences of an individual” (Kim, Chelladurai, & Trail, 2007, p. 153). The second variable is called person-organisational fit, and it focuses on the content of what a person does and not on the context of the task (Kim, Chelladurai, & Trail, 2007). This fit is based on how an organisation’s goals fit with the
volunteer’s goals. The third variable is called managerial treatment and is based on defining and clarifying volunteers’ jobs, facilitating their work accomplishments and recognising and rewarding individuals’ performance. The fourth variable addresses empowerment as a function of psychological experience of power, the effect of shared valued goals, and perceived control over the work environment. They proposed that empowerment could predict job enrichment and be intrinsically motivating. These variables come from the discipline of psychology, and they offer useful concepts to understand someone’s commitment levels. For instance, person-task fit is concerned with what volunteers personally bring to organisations to help enhance projects and tasks. Previous research has shown that volunteers remain when they feel needed (Khoo & Englehorn, 2011). Kim, Chelladurai, and Trail (2007) suggested that if volunteers are satisfied with their work then they are more likely to be committed to the volunteering, which is aligned with earlier work presented by Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998) and Love et al. (2011) who also suggested satisfaction brings volunteers back to their service. Other links can be drawn from these variables from psychology, showing the significance of work from other sport volunteering disciplines.

As in other areas of research into volunteerism, the majority of scholars utilise quantitative tools (e.g., surveys) to obtain data on the commitments of their participants (Costa & Chalip, 2006; Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Hoye, 2007; MacLean & Hamm, 2007; Safai et al., 2007). Despite these tools being beneficial in pointing out a variety of commitments, the questionnaires can only identify minimal changes in commitment levels and individuals’ reasons for the changes. This is significant because the intensity of commitment levels fluctuate for a wide range of reasons, such as changes in work, family responsibilities, or recreational or leisure interests and preferences. This is not always addressed through quantitative questionnaires, and it would be beneficial for scholars to utilise qualitative tools to gain a fuller understanding of changes in volunteers’ commitments. For example, in qualitative research on the changing commitment levels of older adult volunteers, Hamm-Kerwin, Misener, and Doherty (2009) found that their Canadian participants’ changes in commitment levels are based on situational factors, such as health, family, and awareness. Although many of the participants indicated wanting to
be involved at greater levels, they referred to health as an important factor which enable them to engage in voluntary activity. Through qualitative methods, external factors such as family, traditions, and paid work are addressed as these have a large impact on volunteers’ service (Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998).

**Shared experiences**

One aspect of sport volunteering that has not been discussed is volunteers who share experiences and goals. The scope of the current study focuses on these individuals who volunteer with others who share interests in women’s disadvantages in sport and physical activity as inequalities within male dominated structures. These interests and concerns may be the primary motives that drove these individuals to volunteer, and the positive impact of shared experiences may have led them to develop high levels of commitment.

Women’s experiences of disadvantage in sport drive many individuals to volunteer in sport settings with high commitment levels as individuals are motivated by personal experiences. Women’s limited experiences within male-dominated sport organisations have been of concern for volunteers and researchers. For instance, scholars like Bryson (1987) and Whitson and Macintosh (1989) explored the issue of the under-representation of women in paid and unpaid voluntary sport organisations. The abovementioned scholars used their work to show that patriarchal values embedded in society are also evident in the institution of sport in Westernised nations. Hall, Cullen, and Slack (1989) were concerned with how these patriarchal values are maintained, and they addressed the processes and dynamics of the organisational structures. Research that focuses on women’s disadvantages in sport structures is growing, subsequently from scholars beginning to employ feminist perspectives (Birrell, 1988; Fasting, 1987; Hargreaves, 1994; Lenskyj, 1994; Theberge, 1988). Such focuses include discriminatory issues in organisational settings like cultures and processes (Ely & Meyerson, 2000; Pfister, 2010); limited traditional thinking (Claringbould & Knoppers, 2007; Hovden, 2000; Ottesen, Skirstad, Pfister, & Habermann, 2010; Pfister, 2010); uneven qualifications required for women but not men (Henry *et al.*, 2004; Hovden, 2004; Knoppers & Anthonissen, 2008; Pfister, 2010); negative impacts on
personal relationships (Pfister & Radtke, 2009); and male in-group or old-boy networks (Knoppers & Anthonissen, 2008; Shaw, Cunningham & Fink, 2006).

In order to address many of these issues from a volunteer perspective, individuals work within women-based organisations. These organisations are significant in bringing women together to address common causes. However, Lenskyj (1990) and Stromquist (1988) suggested that women also encounter obstacles of working with one another as well as understanding their sources of their oppression. In contrast, Blinde, Taub, and Han (1994) suggested that, through sport settings such as women’s organisations, women interact with other individuals with shared problems and pressures in environments where it is easier for them to relate with women who share common sources of frustration. In addition, the authors continued by suggesting that women need empowering experiences at a group level which puts them in better positions to facilitate the advancement at the societal level. Brackenridge (1994) concurred and stated that women’s groups have the power to set their own agendas showing that women can do it for themselves. Moreover, according to Kluka (2008), women’s sport organisations are responsible for advocating for the inclusion of women in and through sport. Women’s voluntary sport organisations encourage female involvement in sport structures whilst enabling women to focus on gender-specific issues. These women-based sport organisations are typically maintained by volunteer efforts aimed at addressing common causes and interests, and in national sport settings, focused on advancing women’s sport (Clarke & Humberstone, 1997; Hall, 1994; Theberge, 1983). Volunteers’ efforts within these women’s organisations, as members, may be strengthened by common experiences; this is one of the issues explored in the current thesis to understand women’s experiences within women-based, issue-oriented sport organisations.

**Engaging in voluntary activities – triad of work**

The last section addresses women’s disadvantages and questions of commitment levels in relation to balancing work and life. Recently this has been increasingly addressed as the strain of paid work and private life greatly impact sport volunteers’ involvement. Nichols et al. (2005) noted that, in the UK, sport volunteers reported being under pressure because of the ‘time squeeze’. These scholars referred to the time squeeze as the increased number
of hours that people are expected to work in paid settings, which negatively impacts their time for voluntary service. Doherty’s (2005) and Taylor et al.’s (2003) findings showed through survey research in Canada that participants lack of time to volunteer is a primary reason for not participating in unpaid work. Donnelly and Harvey (2011) highlighted that employment and family demands conflict with volunteers’ time because they both require a large investment. In the UK, research by Nichols et al. (2005) identified people in higher socio-economic classes with children as the ones who encountered the most strain because it is suggested that paid work demands are higher for this class, where dual-earner families with two full-time workers are most common, than for other classes. Doherty (2005) and Taylor et al. (2003) suggested that these personal constraints are reasons why individuals do not volunteer or even drop out. Both women and men have to consider how employment, children, or even marriage will affect their leisure pursuits. Research indicates that women encounter more challenges when attempting to engage in voluntary work, and therefore, the primary focus on balancing these spheres in the literature has been more interested in female volunteers.

Much of the literature concerned with volunteers’ time has focused on women’s ability to balance their paid work, voluntary work, and family obligations (Henry et al., 2004; McKay, 1999; Pfister, 2010). Scholars such as Claringbould and Knoppers (2007), Hovden (2000), and Pfister and Radtke (2009) clearly illustrated that women in sport organisational settings in Westernised countries make sacrifices in their private lives to work in a voluntary capacity as they addressed topics such as relationship strains, choosing to wait to start families, not progressing in positions, impact of employment status, and, overall, men being privileged. In general, female participants from the abovementioned research found that men had more time and flexibility within the sport organisations, and suggested that males’ involvement with domestic roles would need to become more normalised for them to have a better understanding of balancing employment, domestic responsibilities, and voluntary service (Henry et al., 2004; McKay, 1999; Pfister, 2010).
Summary

This chapter has had two primary focuses: (1) to address how scholars make sense of volunteering through their application of a range of paradigms to volunteerism, and (2) to investigate how sport volunteering has been studied and what data has been presented. The chapter explores the nature of volunteering through the four core characteristics: structure (informal settings, formal settings, and civic participation), free choice, payment (no remuneration or paid expenses), and benefiting others. In relation to the current study, it highlighted that the typical context for sport volunteering is in formal settings, which in the current study are international women’s sports organisations in which the volunteers have freely chosen to work in order to advance girls and women in sport.

The literature review addresses volunteer paradigms as an attempt to make sense of volunteering. The applications of volunteerism are explored by focusing on the civil society and activism paradigm, the unpaid work and non-profit paradigm, and the serious leisure paradigm. Rochester (2006) suggested that these voluntary paradigms overlap forming hybrid perspectives and this was adopted for the current research for two reasons. First, the empirical research from the sport literature illustrated utilising concepts from the three volunteering paradigms. Second, and more relevant for the current study, the women’s organisations represent settings that are service-oriented and are interested in helping the wider community (on an international level). Since IAPESGW and WSI aim to advance girls and women in sport and physical activity, the volunteers are concerned with addressing social issues about the under-representation of girls and women in sport as well as women’s disadvantages within the same settings. Further, the voluntary activities are undertaken in organisational settings that have received non-governmental organisation (NGO) status. This suggests that the organisations produce constitutions, leadership structures, and defined roles. In other words, it assumed that these organisations have a professional structure. A further implication suggests that volunteering should be understood from a hybrid perspective because their service is expected to be an activity which individuals engaged in during leisure time, in environments that require special
skills, knowledge, and experience. According to Stebbins (1996), volunteers’ service as a serious leisure activity is rooted in something that the volunteer is interested in where he or she has high levels of commitment. It is assumed that the volunteers in the current study are highly committed to their service with IAPESGW and WSI.

The second half of Chapter Two examines how volunteers are studied from a sport volunteering perspective, and it reviews the work that has been done in the sport volunteerism field. Specifically, this section identifies profiles for sport volunteers constructed from existing literature, which provide evidence of the privileging of males’ positions over females in the sport voluntary sector. Moreover, the profiles do not distinguish between volunteers’ backgrounds and characteristics of males and females. The section also describes the variety of roles, settings, and entrances into sport volunteering. Such variety begins to illustrate the complexity in the sport volunteering field, which stems from the traditional volunteering research. The sport volunteering literature further shows the complexity within the field by addressing existing literature on sport volunteering motivations and commitment levels. The diverse literature shows research in various settings and develops between motivations and commitments. This complicates the understanding of sport volunteers. This section illustrates how sport volunteering has been complicated as it has drawn from a complex understanding of traditional volunteerism. However, the complexity that is evident in traditional voluntary settings is also identified in sport research. Therefore, the next chapter seeks to develop an appropriate and systematic approach for the current study.
CHAPTER 3
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The study of volunteerism spans beyond the contours of just sociology, psychology, economic, or political disciplines (Hustinx, Cnaan, & Handy, 2010). This is illustrated in Chapter Two which reviewed the volunteer literature and illustrated the complexity of studying volunteerism. Moreover, the sport volunteer literature is also explored to identify the variety of perspectives and research methods used to examine sport volunteers. However, the chapter pointed out that many of these perspectives and data collecting tools are based on scholars adopting approaches to suit relatively narrow research objectives. Moreover, many of the data collecting tools utilised quantitative approaches in order to investigate a large group of respondents. Consequently, these frameworks and quantitative research methods fragment the sport volunteering field because scholars are only focusing on a subset of volunteering; thus masking the complexities of volunteerism.

Considering the complexity of the field and the existing limitations within the research on sport volunteers, the function of this chapter is to explore how sport volunteers might be investigated from a holistic perspective based on their lives, motives, and voluntary service. There is only one proposed sport volunteering framework that attempts to explore volunteerism from a holistic perspective (Baum & Lockstone, 2007), but this caters to mega-sporting event volunteers and is geared more towards the management of volunteers than the volunteers themselves. Therefore, it is not the most appropriate for the current study on women working in a voluntary capacity over very extended time periods for international women’s sport organisations.

This study therefore adapted a non-sport, holistic conceptual framework, developed by Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) called Collective and Reflexive Styles of Volunteering (SOV) to explicate how the participants are studied. The framework considers individuals’ styles of volunteering, levels of voluntary activities, and the multidimensional nature of volunteering (such as experiences, backgrounds, and interests) (Hustinx & Lammertyn,
2003). A holistic investigation into volunteerism is significant for the current study because interactions can be explored at both individual and group levels. The SOV is used to develop such holistic understanding of women’s contribution and experiences as sport volunteers in WSI and IAPESGW by highlighting the link between the multiple dimensions in the women’s lives intertwined with their voluntary service. This chapter begins with an overview of the SOV to explain the concepts of the whole model. Then the six dimensions are presented independently to define the dimensions and the Collective and Reflexive models within them. The chapter concludes with a summary to explain how the framework is utilised in the current study.

**Overview of conceptual framework: Collective and Reflexive Styles of Volunteering (SOV) framework**

In 2003, Hustinx and Lammertyn developed the SOV in response to their wide-ranging analysis of volunteer literature where they identified radical changes within the volunteering field. The review primarily focused on volunteering literature from Europe and some literature from North America, and was representative of the volunteering nature in a majority of Westernised societies. It found, for example, that scholars’ findings suggest that volunteering is moving away from traditional forms of volunteering. Therefore, Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) suggested that volunteering is becoming less institutionalised and based on lifelong volunteering patterns, and instead is increasingly self-organised, taking place in short-term or episodic volunteering patterns (Beck, 1997). Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) also highlighted the growth in literature that focuses on volunteers’ increased interest in personal agendas and needs as motivations, instead of the traditionally recognised motives of service-oriented and obligation to the community. This is consistent with Stebbins’ (1996) work, as he asserted that self-interestedness is a primary motivator for volunteers, despite the presence of altruism. Additionally Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) pointed out that scholars increased their interest in volunteering engagements in service that focuses on ‘trendy’ or ‘hot’ issues, which in some cases,
motivates or builds commitment factors that keep people engaged in their voluntary activities.

The current study utilises the SOV to develop an understanding about volunteers based on their different styles of volunteering, links to volunteer involvement, and the impact life situations have on voluntary service.

The SOV addresses the current condition of volunteering through a lens of sociological modernisation to give an impetus for more fundamental research. An underpinning concept for the SOV from the sociological perspective was that volunteerism needs to be studied within a wider social context (Wilson, 2000). This enables the researcher to investigate the impact of various structures (both external and internal) that construct, de-construct, and re-construct behaviour. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) incorporated Beck’s (1994) advanced stages of social evolution of modernity and reflexive modernisation into the SOV framework, utilising Beck’s twofold concept:

1. **Structural reflexivity** – self-undermining and self-transforming – where the guiding ideas and core institutional responses of first modernity no longer seem self-evident

2. **Self-reflexivity** – individual reflection of changing institutional conditions which involves shift from collectivity to autonomous, self-monitoring of individuality.

Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) asserted that these concepts coexist between different sources (collective and reflexive) of biographical determination. The first concept focuses on the collectively defined social structures of society and the latter addresses personal and self-reflective structures. The SOV incorporates these collective and reflexive features into models of the framework, aiming to assess how social (collective) structures and individual (reflexive) structures influence volunteering behaviours. This enabled Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) to identify the objective (structural-behavioural) and subjective (motivational-attitudinal) levels of analysis within both the collective and reflexive models.
Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) used the work of Beher (2000) to suggest that the objective (structural-behavioural) context of volunteering refers to how individuals reflect on social structures, institutions, and organisational settings in which they volunteer in relation to their life situation. The subjective (motivational-attitudinal) perspectives, on the other hand, identify the changing relationship between volunteers and their commitment, motivation, attitudes, and cultural value orientation. Based on these differences between the collective and reflexive models and between objective and subjective dimensions, the scholars constructed the SOV from four central principles of present-day volunteering, which applies to sport volunteerism: the styles of volunteering (long-term, short-term, and episodic), multilevel (local, national, and international), multiform (e.g., in sport coaching and administrator), and multidimensional nature of volunteering (self-interestedness, altruism, and purposive) (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003). These factors are based on the underpinning concept that people are situated within heteronomous (social) structures and autonomous (self-guiding) endeavours, which means their voluntary activities are understood based on their social situations and personal interests. Moreover, Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) stressed the importance of recognising how volunteers' involvement in voluntary organisations changes over time and, therefore, proposed studying volunteerism along a continuum.

The SOV framework

Drawing on the work of Jakob (1993) and Rommel, Opdebeeck, Lammertyn, and Bouverne-De Bie (1997), Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) constructed the SOV framework, which consists of the following six dimensions: (1) biographical frame of reference, (2) the motivational structure, (3) the course and intensity of commitment, (4) the organisational environment, (5) the choice of (field of) activity, and (6) relation to paid work(er). Each of these dimensions is identified within the SOV framework (see Table 3.1 for whole framework). Further, the discussion within each dimension is divided by the collective model and the reflexive model. The sections that follow are divided further to examine the objective (structural-behavioural) perspectives and the subjective (motivational-attitudinal)
perspectives whilst simplifying the complex framework. Following each of the subsections, the key points of the dimensions are presented.
Table 3.1 Overview of Collective and Reflexive Styles of Volunteering

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collective styles of volunteering</th>
<th>Reflexive styles of volunteering</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objective:</strong> Structural-behavioral</td>
<td><strong>Objective:</strong> Structural-behavioral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subjective:</strong> Motivational-attitudinal</td>
<td><strong>Subjective:</strong> Motivational-attitudinal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Biographical frame of reference</strong></td>
<td><strong>Motivational structure</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Standard, collective biography</td>
<td>- Coordinating religious and ideological meaning systems</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Biographical continuity</td>
<td>- Obvious sense of duty and responsibility to community or collectivity</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Ascribed group membership</td>
<td>- Tool for biographical stability and identity affirmation</td>
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<td>- Collective prescribed code of conduct</td>
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<td><strong>Collective identity</strong></td>
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### Table 3.1 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizational environment</th>
<th>Collective styles of volunteering</th>
<th>Reflexive styles of volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objective:</strong> Structural-behavioral</td>
<td><strong>Subjective:</strong> Motivational-attitudinal</td>
<td><strong>Objective:</strong> Structural-behavioral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchical, socially or ideologically segmented organizational society</td>
<td>Strong organizational attachment</td>
<td>Tertiary and non-profit organizations, decentralized initiatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong leadership core</td>
<td>Overlapping involvements</td>
<td>Decoupling of membership and volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tight coupling between formal group membership and volunteering</td>
<td>Socialization and integration through involvement</td>
<td>New volunteer-centered institutional structures and forms of recruitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associational volunteering</td>
<td>Service is understood as loyalty</td>
<td>Program volunteering</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Choice of (field of) activity</th>
<th>Collective styles of volunteering</th>
<th>Reflexive styles of volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objective:</strong> Structural-behavioral</td>
<td><strong>Subjective:</strong> Motivational-attitudinal</td>
<td><strong>Objective:</strong> Structural-behavioral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion/exclusion based on universalization of a common culture and way of living</td>
<td>Group-based politics</td>
<td>Local disintegration amid global integration: globalized elective networks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiated and supervised by others</td>
<td>Bounding, parochial solidarity</td>
<td>Interaction between local action and global concerns</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reproduction of traditional gender patterns</td>
<td>Idealism</td>
<td>Pragmatism, focused activism</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Wide-ranging, multi-purposive community involvement</td>
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<tr>
<th>Relation to paid work(er)</th>
<th>Collective styles of volunteering</th>
<th>Reflexive styles of volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objective:</strong> Structural-behavioral</td>
<td><strong>Subjective:</strong> Motivational-attitudinal</td>
<td><strong>Objective:</strong> Structural-behavioral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paid work centered society</td>
<td>“well-meaning amateur”: good intentions and common sense</td>
<td>Extended meaning of work: volunteering part of “triad of work”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional authority</td>
<td></td>
<td>Professionalisation of voluntary sector and volunteerism</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ancillary volunteer position</td>
<td></td>
<td>Corporate volunteerism</td>
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</tbody>
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Biographical frame of reference

The dimension of biographical frame of reference focuses on processes used to understand the sources of volunteering behaviours and attitudes. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004), the fundamental assumption about working in voluntary organisations, such as IAPESGW and WSI, is that volunteering is embedded in a person’s own reality. The dimension, therefore, suggests that an individual needs to be situated in the field of tension between his or her social roots and self-determined actions. The description below begins with the collective perspective of volunteering and shifts to the reflexive perspective. These models are useful to gain an insight into volunteers’ behaviours and attitudes for the women in the current study.

Biographical frame of reference in the collective volunteering model

The biographical frame of reference in the collective volunteering model coheres with specific volunteer dispositions. Based on the objective perspective, collective forms of volunteering refer to long-term and continuous participation, enabling biographical continuity. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) referred to these patterns of volunteering as standard and stable. The objective concept identifies volunteer service being initiated, stipulated, and supervised by groups. This means that volunteer membership corresponds with the choice of field as volunteers collectively define identities and roles. The subjective perspective within the collective model for the biographical frame of reference refers to volunteer service being “strongly intermingled with the construction and affirmation of group-based identity” (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003, p. 172), and this enables volunteers to share strong feelings of belonging to a collective “we” (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003, p. 172). Consequently, due to such collective identity, personal aspirations are pushed to the side, or subordinated, so the collective goals can be achieved. Collective volunteers are heavily involved with organisational goals and volunteer roles are viewed as the core. Volunteer actions illustrate their dedication to the organisational values and goals. Based on the biographical frame of reference, Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) identified that volunteers embrace the commitment to the common good and are willing to perform unlimited and diffuse sets of activities to ensure the maintenance of the organisation (Hustinx & Lammertyn,
The biographical frame of reference in the collective model represents volunteers’ effort and the socially predetermined and stable modes that ensure sustainability for voluntary organisations (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003, 2004).

**Biographical frame of reference in the reflexive volunteering model**

In contrast to the collective model, volunteerism within the reflexive model, from the objective perspective, represents individuated forms of volunteering and commitment, which is based on self-constructed biographies. From the objective perspective, Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) identified volunteers’ constructed worldviews and experiences as the principle frame of reference. Individuals’ decisions to engage in a particular activity and the length and course of action are, therefore, based on personal considerations and personal interests. Subsequently, this fragments individuals’ volunteering biographies as behaviours tend to represent incidents or episodes rather than long-term participation because volunteers are phased in separate and limited sequences with highly individualised biographies (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003, 2004).

Based on the subjective perspective, volunteering involvement is self-induced. This means that volunteers are responsible for the self-monitoring of their own volunteer behaviours throughout their life course. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003, 2004) drew on the psychological concept of biographical match. This identifies the intensity in the interaction between an individual’s biographical conditions and his or her volunteering experiences, and the biographical match is, therefore, viewed as guiding personal volunteering decisions. This interaction enables volunteers to engage in new opportunities, and, as a result, it can increase the intensity of the relationship between the volunteer and the tasks. However, due to behaviours being based on experiences of personal interests, which may constantly change, the biographical match increases the unpredictability of one’s volunteer trajectories (see Table 3.2 for an overview of the biographical frame of reference).

The biographical frame of reference in the current study explores the women’s backgrounds to gain an understanding about how their experiences and knowledge influenced their volunteering participation.
Motivational structure

The dimension of motivational structure focuses on why individuals are interested in specific voluntary activities. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004), this dimension is concerned with how volunteers identify the importance of recognition, satisfaction, and self-development. It addresses the social and personal interests which leads an individual to volunteer. The description below begins with the collective perspective of volunteering and shifts to the reflexive perspective. These models are useful for the current research because they identify the research participants’ motivations for volunteering in IAPESGW and WSI.

Motivational structure in the collective volunteering model

The motivational structure from the objective perspective highlights volunteers’ community commitment, which is embedded in the traditional stereotype of volunteering. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003), voluntary service is often
rooted in religious traditions of benevolence and altruism or influenced by ideological or value systems from family structures, society, or other influential actors. Objectively, collective volunteers are perceived as developing clearly defined roles, positions, and identities within the community and in volunteer groups. Subjectively, Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) suggested that the primary motivator for collective volunteers is based on working in a voluntary capacity as a sense of duty or feeling responsible to serve the community. Through collective volunteering, volunteers devote a large amount of time and service to communities where they build, sustain, and reinforce their collective identities. Subjectively, the motivational structure can be used as a tool to build biographical stability and identity affirmation as collective motives foster collective identities (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003).

**Motivational structure in the reflexive volunteering model**

Conversely, the motivational structure from the objective perspective focuses on how individuals’ interactions are intensified based on the biographical conditions and volunteers’ past experiences. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) stated that the motivations of reflexive volunteers are the outcomes of their personal experiences which cause biographical discontinuity based on unintended life crises and choices of biographical re-orientation. Based on the subjective concept, Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003, p. 173) stated that “the self-reflexive biographical quest becomes the driving force for primarily self-centered volunteer attitudes”. This suggests that reflexive volunteering does not support the traditional pursuits of volunteering of solidarity and altruism because reflexive volunteers are viewed as being motivated by self-realisation and personal goals. In addition, reflexive volunteers personally gain from service as they develop skills needed to cope with uncertainty or life crises (see Table 3.3 for an overview of the motivational structure).

The motivational structure in the current study explores the collective and individual motivations that led to the women’s voluntary service with IAPESGW and WSI.
Table 3.3 Overview of Motivational structure dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collective styles of volunteering</th>
<th>Reflexive styles of volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective: Structural-behavioral</td>
<td>Objective: Structural-behavioral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective: Motivational-attitudinal</td>
<td>Subjective: Motivational-attitudinal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Coordinating religious and ideological meaning systems</td>
<td>• Obvious sense of duty and responsibility to community or collectivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Clearly defined positions and roles in community of relevance</td>
<td>• Tool for biographical stability and identity affirmation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Intensive interaction between biographical conditions and volunteer experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Biographical discontinuities in terms of crises and active re-orientations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Self-centered motivations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Tool for coping with biographical uncertainty and for active self-realization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• “solidarity” or “altruistic” individualism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Course and intensity of commitment

The dimension of course and intensity of commitment focuses on styles and intensity of volunteers’ involvement in a specific voluntary activity. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004), this dimension is concerned with volunteers’ degree of loyalty, devotion, and the preferences. Therefore, this dimension enables for the prediction of women’s patterns of voluntary work within IAPESGW and WSI. The description below begins with the collective perspective of volunteering and shifts to the reflexive perspective. These models are useful because they identify the participants’ patterns of voluntary work in international women-based sport organisations.

Course and intensity of commitment in the collective volunteering model

The course and intensity of commitment from the objective perspective is based on the stereotypes of traditional volunteering, i.e., long-term, unconditional, and requirement
of regular commitment (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003). Collective volunteers’ commitment is strengthened as they develop strong group-based identities essentially, resulting in volunteering patterns that are continuous and predictable. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003), collective volunteers usually engage in lifelong efforts, which are intensive because they are closely associated with service, group affiliation, identity, and the strong sense of duty towards the community or group. Collective volunteers view their involvement as the core of an organisation’s voluntary activities. From the subjective perspective, collective volunteers acknowledge that their personal goals and interests are subordinate to the collective pursuits of the organisation. With such acceptance, collective volunteers’ service is “all-embracing, very intensive involvement that is relatively independent of specific problems or beneficiaries” (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003, p. 174). This illustrates that volunteers are committed to the common good of the community or group (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003).

Course and intensity of commitment in the reflexive volunteering model

On the other hand, in the reflexive model, the intensity of commitment from an objective perspective identifies volunteer activity as unpredictable through its life course as reflexive volunteers’ activities reflect irregular and incidental voluntary commitments. Reflexive volunteers’ participation is often phased in as it does not follow a particular sequence. In addition, it represents individualised biographical relevance. Reflexive volunteers’ commitment levels change as their service is dynamic, which is based on individuals’ involvement with frequent entries and withdrawals from tasks. The subjective perspective emphasises that reflexive volunteers need flexibility and mobility. This allows them to shift their activities and organisational involvement to their own “biographical whims” (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003, p. 175) as they are identified as preferring successive ad hoc or project-based arrangements that are limited in time. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) asserted that the duration and intensity of reflexive volunteers needs to be adaptable to the preferences and possibilities of the volunteers because of their attraction to ephemeral and loose involvements (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003) (see Table 3.4 for an overview of the course and intensity of commitment).
The course and intensity of commitment dimension in the current study explores the intensity and longevity of the women’s voluntary service within IAPESGW and WSI.

Table 3.4 Overview of Course and intensity of commitment dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collective styles of volunteering</th>
<th>Reflexive styles of volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective: Structural-behavioral</td>
<td>Subjective: Motivational-attitudinal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unpredictable life course is basis for short term and irregular involvement</td>
<td>Unconditional, self-evident commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensive participation</td>
<td>All-embracing, total devotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core involvement</td>
<td>Dynamic involvement: frequent entries and withdrawals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flexibility and mobility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ephemeral or loose involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective: Structural-behavioral</td>
<td>Subjective: Motivational-attitudinal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predictable life course is basis for long term and regular involvement</td>
<td>Conditional commitment, depending on biographical needs and conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Preference for sequential, project-based arrangements</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Organisational environment

The dimension of organisational environment focuses on the connection volunteers have with the organisational settings, cultures, structures, and experiences. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004), this dimension is concerned with volunteers’ perceived levels of bureaucracy and the value volunteers place on the mission and goals of the organisation. The model, therefore, suggests that international women’s sport organisations may offer something unique to volunteers that is not available in other settings. The description below begins with the collective perspective of volunteering.
and shifts to the reflexive perspective. These models are useful for the current study because they identify volunteers’ perceptions and knowledge of international organisations.

**Organisational environment in the collective volunteering model**

Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) suggested that collective volunteerism thrives on highly structured, membership-based, and socially or ideologically defined organisational environments. Organisational cultures from the objective perspective are maintained by a strong group of core leaders who coordinate volunteers’ involvement. These environments represent exclusive membership standards and distinguish the members from the non-members. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) identified this action as collective volunteers developing a tight coupling (or link) between the formal group membership and the volunteers themselves. Therefore, the power structures represent hierarchal systems and this enables organisations to reward volunteers for their long-term participation. When addressing the organisational environment from a subjective perspective, Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) stated that focus should be on the strong attachment volunteers have to the organisation. This attachment is developed and strengthened through social involvement which creates a strong loyalty that individuals have for volunteer settings and activities. In addition, these environments are important for socialisation. Through this process, volunteers strengthen their identities with the values and goals of the organisation.

**Organisational environment in the reflexive volunteering model**

In contrast to the collective model, the reflexive model from an objective perspective addresses the growth of tertiary organisations (non-democratically, structured professional organisations) that are membership-based and driven by volunteers’ shared identities (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003). However, Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) highlighted that voluntary organisations are increasingly hiring more paid staff. These paid staff typically have specialised roles that focus on supervision, and, consequently, this is creating more professionalised environments within voluntary organisations. Yet there is also a growth in informal organisations that have no clear power structures and are interested in project-oriented objectives. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) suggested
that these volunteers do not belong to a group for the sake of belonging; rather, their service is significant as their participation is typically aligned with their interests. From a subjective perspective, these organisations are highly de-centralised. Reflexive volunteers are directed at tailoring activities for their private interests instead of the organisation’s overall goals. This means that these organisations use volunteer-centred initiatives, shifting the organisational roles from being the central focus, to the organisation simply being the enabling structure that mediates between the volunteers and their project (see Table 3.5 for an overview of the organisational environment).

The organisational environment dimension in the current study investigates women’s accounts, attachments, and links to IAPESGW and WSI.

**Table 3.5 Overview of Organisational environment dimension**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collective styles of volunteering</th>
<th>Reflexive styles of volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective: Structural-behavioral</td>
<td>Objective: Structural-behavioral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective: Motivational-attitudinal</td>
<td>Subjective: Motivational-attitudinal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Hierarchical, socially or ideologically segmented organizational society</td>
<td>• Strong organizational attachment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Strong leadership core</td>
<td>• Overlapping involvements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Tight coupling between formal group membership and volunteering</td>
<td>• Socialization and integration through involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Associational volunteering</td>
<td>• Service is understood as loyalty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strong dedication to organization’s values and goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Tertiary and non-profit organizations, decentralized initiatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Decoupling of membership and volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• New volunteer-centered institutional structures and forms of recruitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Program volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Weak organizational attachment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Vicarious commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• De-localized commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Functionally oriented attitudes: focus on activities offered, not on organization within which they are performed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Choice of (field of) activity

The dimension of choice of (field of) activity focuses on the type of volunteer work chosen by individuals. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004), such choice in service is determined by individuals’ focused objectives, but demands can rapidly change due to unpredictable life situations. Therefore, this dimension suggests that links need to be identified within a person’s biographical history to understand why he or she chooses to volunteer within an organisation like IAPESGW and WSI. The description below begins with the collective perspective of volunteering and shifts to the reflexive perspective. These models are useful because they indicate the types of experiences, identities, and roles that may guide the women into service with IAPESGW and WSI.

Choice of (field of) activity in the collective volunteering model

The choice of activity from the objective concept in the collective volunteering model readdresses the stereotypical understanding for the purpose of volunteering. Some stereotypes suggest that people volunteer because of their shared cultures representing strong universal morals and standards. In addition, strong identities are developed based on inclusion (where everyone belongs within the organisation) and exclusion (where a particular group is excluded from society and the organisational aim is to address the social issue). Moreover, volunteer action is not considered as being dependent on the individual; rather, it is initiated or supervised by someone else. The subjective perspective describes the selection of an activity or field focusing on the group-based politics (shared ideologies, religious convictions, and collective identities) as these collective identities drive volunteers to carry out activities for the community. Collective volunteers operate in multi-purposive settings, and they are likely to engage in an extensive amount of activities. These activities correspond with collectively defined identities and roles.
Choice of (field of) activity in the reflexive volunteering model

On the other hand, through the objective perspective of choice of activities, it has been identified that there is an increased interest in individualisation on a global level. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) suggested that reflexive volunteers are becoming less interested in local issues and are, instead, developing more interests in interactions between local and global concerns. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003, p. 178) identified this as a result of the increasing globalization of social and ecological problems, the rapid expansion of international organizations with branches in countries worldwide, the creation of virtual volunteer communities over the Internet, and the increased volunteer mobility through the institutionalization of volunteer exchange programs, have widened the scope of volunteer efforts beyond place- and group-based boundaries and have led to an intensified interconnection between local volunteer action and global concerns.

Reflexive volunteers are, therefore, identifying a sense of belonging on a self-selected basis of shared interests, regardless of the location. The subjective perspective addressed the privatised and self-induced forms of solidarity that are inspired by lifestyle and identity politics. However, the collective identities that are produced due to solidarity are replaced by individual volunteers’ perceptions of sameness or shared life experiences. Thus reflexive volunteers participate in activities based on preferences that lead them to create new themes and fields of action as their preferences and needs dictate the type of activities to be performed. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) suggested that despite activism aiming to help the advancement of others, reflexive volunteers’ work is based on personal reflection about the need to address social issues, and therefore, they engage in, what Hustinx and Lammertyn refer to as ‘focused activism’ (see Table 3.6 for an overview of the choice of (field of) activity).

The choice of (field of) activity dimension in the current study explores the women’s interests and involvement within IAPESGW and WSI.
Table 3.6 Overview of Choice of (field of) activity dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collective styles of volunteering</th>
<th>Reflexive styles of volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective: Structural-behavioural</td>
<td>Objective: Structural-behavioural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective: Motivational-attitudinal</td>
<td>Subjective: Motivational-attitudinal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Inclusion/exclusion based on universalization of a common culture and way of living</td>
<td>• Local disintegration amid global integration: globalized elective networks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Initiated and supervised by others</td>
<td>• Interaction between local action and global concerns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reproduction of traditional gender patterns</td>
<td>• Lifestyle and identity politics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Daily feelings of solidarity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Pragmatism, focused activism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Preference for personal, one-to-one service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Post-materialistic value pattern</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Relation to paid work(er)**

The dimension called relation to paid work(er) focuses on paid work being prioritised in society over unpaid voluntary work. The dimension suggests that volunteering should be explored in relation to paid work and unpaid settings. The description below begins with the collective perspective of volunteering and shifts to the reflexive perspective. These models are useful for the current research because they address the connection between paid work and unpaid work.

**Relation to paid work(er) in the collective volunteering model**

The objective perspective suggests that traditional volunteerism is rooted in institutions such as churches and associational life, with a ‘do-gooder’ image. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003), volunteers’ roles are marginalised in comparison to
paid work. Based on the subjective perspective, volunteers are considered amateur and assumed that their service is specifically based on ‘doing good’.

**Relation to paid work(er) in the reflexive volunteering model**

In contrast, the objective perspective suggests that reflexive volunteers are closely related to the idea of a ‘new work society’, meaning that work should be understood as going beyond the contours of paid work. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003), therefore, suggested there is a blurring of boundaries between the changing labour market and concepts like the triad of work (the way in which paid employment, volunteer work, and self-initiated activities complement each other). The subjective perspective implies that reflexive volunteers are overlapping paid and unpaid work. Consequently, this is causing a rapid increase in the idea of corporate volunteering because of the overlaps between the expertise and experience of the private and non-profit sector.

**Addition to the dimension of relation to paid work(er)**

Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) recognised that individuals’ overlapping spheres impact their volunteer involvement; however, the scholars only discussed the impacts of paid and unpaid work as complementing one another. Therefore, this study adopts two of Stebbins’ (2004a) concepts (occupational devotee and spirit of professional work) from the serious leisure paradigm to enhance the SOV framework. Stebbins indicated that paid work and voluntary activities do more than complement each other; rather, they form a person’s actions, lifestyles, motivations, and social relations (Stebbins, 2004a). Below the concepts are defined:

**Occupational devotion** – A strong, positive attachment to a form of self-enhancing work, where the sense of achievement is high and the core activity (set of basic tasks) is endowed with such intense appeal that the line between work and leisure is virtually erased (Stebbins, 2004a, p. ix).

**Spirit of professional work** – denotes the distinctive set of shared values, attitudes, and expectations that form around a given type of professional work (Stebbins, 2000, p. 1)
The occupational devotion concept emphasises a person’s behaviour and interests in employment settings, which are carried over into other aspects of his or her life. Stebbins (2004a) suggested that devotees are deeply fulfilled from their work as they realise the unique combination between success, achievement, freedom of action, individual personality, and activity which forms their job’s core activities. In addition, he noted that the only difference between a devotee’s work and those involved in serious leisure is that the devotee gets paid for his or her efforts. Stebbins (2004a) described devotees as individuals being intensely in love with an activity that is fulfilled in leisure and work settings. Ashton (2011) supported this idea of love for an activity existing within both spheres. He conducted qualitative research with higher education game design students to explore how they positioned themselves in relation to professional work and how they negotiate work and non-work boundaries. The author referred to the participants’ personal interests being aligned with their paid work as the ‘labour of love’. One technical recruiter of Electronic Arts (EA) illustrated this love in his description of the employees they recruit: “we all love games, we all love playing games, we all love talking about games, we want you to talk about games, we want you to talk about how passionate you are about games” (Ashton, 2011, p. 16). Ashton linked this to Stebbins’ (2009) deep self-fulfilment in work which helps identify occupational devotion. Ashton (2011, p. 16), therefore, concluded that the construction and representation of employment in gaming is “a lot less like a job”. This is consistent with research by Podjed and Muršič (2008) who confirmed that occupational devotees’ strong attachment is so intense that their professions are blurred with their membership in other groups and activities.

The spirit of professional work concept focuses on the extension of paid work in unpaid settings and is concerned with how people spend their extra time, or leisure time, engaging in their interest linked to their paid work. These people are influenced by their professions and often suggest that they have limited leisure time. Their volunteer roles are referred to as extraprofessional as they are even willing to engage in them during retirement and unemployment.

It is assumed that the addition of these two concepts will assist in explaining who the volunteers are and why they volunteer. Stebbins’ (2004a) concepts are used to gain a
deeper sense of why the participants are dedicated to IAPESGW and WSI (see Table 3.7 for an overview of the relation to paid work(er)).

The relation to paid work(er) dimension in the current study examines how the women balance their paid work with their unpaid paid work.

Table 3.7 Overview of Relation to paid work(er) dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collective styles of volunteering</th>
<th>Reflexive styles of volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective: Structural-behavioural</td>
<td>Subjective: Motivational-attitudinal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paid work centred society</td>
<td>“well-meaning amateur”: good intentions and common sense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional authority</td>
<td>Extended meaning of work: volunteering part of “triad of work”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ancillary volunteer position</td>
<td>Professionalisation of voluntary sector and volunteerism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate volunteerism</td>
<td>Occupational devotee and spirit of professional work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Summary**

The analytical framework that is utilised in this study blends the collective and reflexive ingredients of volunteerism to propose a way to study women as volunteers in international women’s sport organisations. Despite this section being compartmentalised to explain the SOV framework, the key component is that the framework is fluid with overlaps and interactions between and within the dimensions and the models. In effect, this chapter has, therefore, artificially simplified the complex interplay between the multiple dimensions of volunteering to allow each component to be considered. Since the purpose of the chapter was to clearly explain each dimension, the chapter is very descriptive because the model is complex.
The SOV provides the basis of the conceptual framework adopted for the current study, in which it is used to develop a holistic understanding of women’s contribution and experiences as sport volunteers in WSI and IAPESGW. The framework’s six dimensions (biographical frame of reference, motivational structure, course and intensity of commitment, organisational environment, choice of (field of) activity, and relation to paid work(er)) set the parameters to enable a greater understanding from a holistic perspective about the women’s voluntary service in the organisations. Acknowledging that there is potential overlap within this framework as the dimensions are intertwined, the primary function of each is:

- The biographical frame of reference explores the relationship between the women’s roots to volunteering and their personal experiences. In addition, the dimensions are utilised to develop an overview about the research participants.
- The motivational structure explores the women’s development of volunteer values that leads them to volunteer within IAPESGW and WSI.
- The course and intensity of commitment explores the changing commitment levels of women’s voluntary service within international women’s sport organisations.
- The organisational environment investigates women’s attachments and perceptions of IAPESGW and WSI.
- The choice of (field of) activity explores the women’s interests and involvement within IAPESGW and WSI.
- The relation to paid work(er) examines the interplay between paid work and volunteering.

Together, these components provide a basis for tracking volunteers using multiple dimensions which may result in a holistic understanding about the research participants. The following chapter examines in more detail the philosophy, methodology and methods of the study.
Chapter Two presents ways that scholars make sense of volunteering. The sport volunteering literature is used to illustrate how general volunteering concepts are applied to the volunteering field in sport studies and to illuminate the sport volunteering situation. In addition, it reveals the limited amount of research on women sport volunteers. Chapter Three presents the SOV to identify the framework that is utilised to study leaders from IAPESGW and WSI. The purpose of Chapter Four is to present the philosophical assumptions and methodology which combined guides the research methods.

The aim of the research is:

- To construct a holistic understanding about female participants’ contributions and experiences as sport volunteers in international women’s sport organisations.

The research objectives are:

1. to explore the personal biographies of women who volunteer in international women’s sport organisations;
2. to examine the women’s experiences of volunteering within IAPESGW and WSI;
3. to examine the interaction of the research participants’ volunteer experiences with their wider lifestyles across the lifespan; and
4. to contribute to the study of research into sport volunteering by applying and evaluating a multi-method qualitative approach that contextualises volunteering within individuals’ wider lifestyles.

The chapter begins by discussing the philosophical positions (ontology and epistemology) and the qualitative methodology approach used to inform the research. The chapter concludes by presenting the methods for the current study.
Ontological stance

Byers (2009) was the first scholar to adopt a critical realist ontological position for her sport volunteering research. Although she focused on voluntary sport organisations, she suggested that critical realism can also be applied to gain a holistic understanding about sport volunteers. Therefore, the ontological approach – theory of being – for this study is critical realism as it addresses claims about social reality (e.g., what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up, and how do these units interact between each other) (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Jackson, 1999). The critical realist perspective offers multicausal, contingency-based approaches for capturing individuals’ ‘social reality’ (Steinmetz, 1998). According to Tsang and Kwann (1999), it focuses on the contingent relationship between structures and agents. Al-Amoudi and Willmott (2011) asserted that critical realism is insistent on establishing and sustaining a clear concept of the reality of being; therefore, it has been applied to the current study.

Byers (2009) and Byers and Thurston (2011) drew on the six assumptions about critical realism offered by Marsh (1999) to gain some understanding of the social structural context that impacts people. These assumptions are that it

1. accepts that there is a reality external to individuals;
2. contains superficial structures and deep structures that are not easily and/or directly observable;
3. considers causal power of objects and structures through causal statements;
4. addresses actors’ discursive knowledge regarding reality which has a construction effect on outcomes of social interrelations;
5. understands how structures, such as culture, ideologies, and institutional practices, enable and constrain everyday social activities rather than determine outcomes; and
6. utilises reflexive agents to identify how structures are constructed, deconstructed, and reconstructed.
These assumptions are applied to the current study. The first and second assumptions identify influences on sport volunteers being a complex social phenomenon because they include external factors (relationships, events, and interactions) and different levels within structures. Social phenomena is a result of the interaction between structure and agents, and therefore, the current phenomenon of women’s voluntary work in IAPESGW and WSI cannot be studied by focusing on the agents alone (Byers, 2009). The third, fourth, and fifth assumptions are concerned with the impacts that different relationships, interpretations, and structures have on the volunteers’ understanding of reality. Byers (2009, pp. 105-106) suggested that in her research these three assumptions are “directly illustrated by formal procedures and policies within an organisation, but also by job descriptions, reporting templates and hierarchical reporting relationships”. However, she highlighted that this represents superficial structures, and therefore, she asserted that more attention needs to be placed on the underlying deep structures which volunteers accept and utilise as control mechanisms (this is linked to the sixth assumption). For the current study, through the use of the SOV, such factors draw out the participants’ reflection (assumption 6) to understand how they constructed their understanding for reality.

The SOV is utilised to investigate the differing ways women volunteer for IAPESGW and WSI. The SOV framework and the critical realist ontological position are both concerned with multidimensional factors to gain an understanding of sport volunteers. Similar to the SOV, critical realism considers reality from a multidimensional and multi-causal perspective as it offers a new insight about sport volunteers (Byers & Thurston, 2011). According to Byers and Thurston (2011), this occurs on a continuum between the logical positivistic school of thought and the relativistic interpretivism school of thought (see Figure 4.1 for illustration). This enables the critical realist perspective to adopt elements from both schools and to “offer a more balanced perspective” (Byers & Thurston, 2011, p.4). According to Bechara and Van de Ven (2011, p. 348), critical realism presupposes a “mind-independent and stratified reality” consisting of underlying structures and mechanisms which determine how things come to behave.
Figure 4.1 shows positivism and interpretivism as opposite ends of the continuum. Positivism uses grand theories to predict reality, and the cause-effect relations are a primary concern (Jackson, 1999; Schwandt, 1990). Research from a positivistic perspective utilises experimental research and aims to prove natural existence and human behaviour as a natural pattern of activity (Jackson, 1999). In contrast, interpretivism explains the world based on the influences of external factors by focusing on socially constructed and shared meanings (Crotty, 1998; Jackson, 1999). It examines “how people make sense of their lives, how they define their situation, and how their sense of self develops in interaction with others” (Jackson, 1999, p. 9). Therefore, individuals create and re-create meanings for their social world which can be observed from behaviours.

Critical realism draws from both positions, and researchers may lean towards one approach (logical or relativistic) more than the other, and this is evident through the understanding of closed and open systems of reality (Bhaskar, 1978; Sayer, 1992). Bhasker (1978) draws heavily from positivism to suggest that research should be replicable and environments need to be controlled to identify the cause-and-effect of
reality. In this instance, he used critical realism as a stratified ontology that consists of the three strata real, actual, and empirical (stages of scientific discovery), despite denying their possible generalisability (Bechara & Van de Ven, 2011).

In contrast, critical realists from the social sciences argue that factors in the social world cannot be controlled, and therefore, these need to be understood by investigating the various factors that influence the relationships between agents and objects (Sayer, 1992; Tsang & Kwan, 1999). These open systems identify the affects that objects have on fundamental mechanisms of reality (Sayer, 1992; Tsang & Kwan, 1999). Sayer (1992) suggested that the causes for open systems are due to (1) the configuration of social systems modified by human action, which violates extrinsic condition (change from social agents); and (2) people’s (limited) learning and self-change capacity, which violates intrinsic conditions (change in natural objects).

Based on Marsh’s (1999) third assumption (considers causal power of objects and structures through causal statements), Byers (2009) and Tsang and Kwan (1999) were also concerned with the causal power of objects and structures. Causal concerns refer to links drawn between objects and their relationships. Bhaskar (1978) argued that social structures do not exist independent from the agents and the activities. Instead, the causal entities focus on the relationship between the subject and object rather than one identity (Bhaskar, 1978; Fleetwood, 2005). Therefore, critical realism rejects positivists’ view that the world is human-centred because it confuses conjunction of events with causality. According to Bechara and Van de Ven (2011), this confusion causes epistemic fallacy (reducing what can be known as reality). Byers (2009) suggested that the causal power is often identified by individuals through causal statements. Steinmetz (1998) suggested that the acceptance of unobservable causal entities assists in capturing the specific social reality. However, relationships and social phenomena is not always understood based on individuals’ statements, and, therefore, researchers need to question individuals’ reasons, motives, and assumptions. Bechara and Van de Ven (2011, p. 356) suggested that this can also be done by identifying the “unobservable generative mechanism underlying the observable regularity of events and relationships”.

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Aiming to develop a holistic understanding of voluntary sport organisations, Byers and Thurston (2011) drew on the first and second assumptions from Marsh (1999) and Tsoukas (1996) to identify four levels of ontology: material, ideal, artefactual and social (see Figure 4.2 for modified illustrations). These levels relate to the depth of reality from the superficial (material) to the deeply embedded (social). Reed (2005, p. 1639) asserted that recognising different layers is valuable because critical realism reaches a “deeper level of social and organizational reality, not readily available to direct observation or description”. Byers and Thurston (2011) concurred and emphasised the importance for critical realists to investigate the multiple levels in order to understand reality from a holistic perspective. Yet Byers (2009) cautioned researchers to consider that an individual’s knowledge of any reality is limited because of the background and education, which is consistent with Sayers’ (1992) second reason for open systems.
The levels in Figure 4.2 illustrate and construct the realities of the women who volunteer in IAPESGW and WSI. The material reality, the first level, is the most superficial since it looks at what exists. Fleetwood (2005) identified it as what would exist independently regardless of what people do, say, or think. However, Byers and Thurston (2011) adapted it to focus on an organisational context and applied it to something tangible, such as ‘the number of people in an organisation’. The current study follows Byers and Thurston’s (2011) adapted levels and examines the number of dedicated and committed women who volunteer in IAPESGW and WSI. The next stage focuses on the ideal reality, which addresses on conceptual entities of reality such as language, ideas, beliefs, and meanings (Fleetwood, 2005). Byers and Thurston (2011) utilised the ideal level in their research to focus on the realities of ‘organisational norms, values, and cultures’. Through the use of SOV, the volunteers’ perceptions are drawn out to show why they chose to volunteer. The artefactual reality refers to the material and ideals used to understand reality by showing how they are complicated by human actors; the materials and ideals are shaped by people’s perceptions and
interpretations (Byers & Thurston, 2011; Fleetwood, 2005). Byers and Thurston (2011) used an example of descriptors of organisations as ‘bad atmospheres’. These descriptors are used in this study, but they will be based on what the participants say, rather than organisational documents. The final, and deepest, level addresses the social reality, specifically the practices, states of affairs, and social structures (Fleetwood, 2005). Byers and Thurston (2011) focused on the organisations’ management and class, which are often taken-for-granted in organisational settings because they are common knowledge. Berger and Luckmann (1966) referred to this as being constructed as common sense. In the current study, the main concern is how the women understand balancing their paid work with their unpaid work, opportunity to access sport and education, and ability to challenge gender inequalities.

Critical realism utilises the relations between empirical, social, and personal interactions that mutually affect a phenomenon or problem. Therefore, by employing a holistic framework, like the SOV, the natural objects addressed by critical realists are identified through the collective model, and human action (influencing the women’s behaviours) is pointed out through the reflexive model. The participants of the current study are, therefore, able to identify their own understanding for their being and the social structures related to the four levels of reality.

Epistemological stance

According to Fleetwood (2005), what we think of the world (ontology) influences what we think can be known (epistemology). Therefore, the study utilises an epistemological stance – theory of knowledge – aligned with the ontological stance. According to Guba (1990) and Hammersley (2001), social constructionism is compatible with critical realism and can be used to understand knowledge production as it draws on the same defining underpinnings (Byers, 2009). However, Barkin (2003) asserted that social constructionism is not necessarily realist; instead, it is compatible with the worldview of realism. Therefore, as social constructionism is aligned with critical realism, it is adopted for the epistemological position for this research to justify: what can be regarded as knowledge, what can be known, and what criteria are needed to satisfy knowledge rather than beliefs (Blaikie, 1993).
Berger and Luckmann (1966) began constructing their understanding of social constructionism with the premise that people take reality and knowledge for granted, and therefore, it is the job of sociologists to identify differences between multiple realities to obtain maxim clarity. Social constructionists are, therefore, concerned with the processes of how individuals socially construct reality, since societies only exist because of the members within them (Houston, 2001; Lincoln, 1990). Thus, reality and knowledge development are social processes because the world is intersubjective, meaning individuals construct and share common knowledge with others through interaction and communication. However, subcultures exist within society because one group of people may hold differing meanings and values, and thus see aspects of the world in a dissimilar way to another group (Houston, 2001). In addition, Berger and Luckmann (1966) pointed out that, when people change group relations, this subsequently changes their realities, producing multiple identities and rationales. With multiple group memberships, the understanding of reality and knowledge becomes more complex as there are different types of interaction, different languages, and new social structures. Weick (1979, p. 164) proposed that “reality is selectively perceived, rearranged, cognitively, and negotiated interpersonally”, and Berger and Luckmann (1966) asserted that it is the task of researchers to understand a person’s reality and knowledge.

Berger and Luckmann (1966) suggested that reality should be studied through objective and subjective realities. Objective reality is concerned with institutionalisation of roles (gender roles), language (wife or mother), and tradition (sport is for men). However, Berger and Luckmann (1966) highlighted that these exist only in relation to people who designate and perpetuate certain values and ways of knowing objective reality. Further, based on objectifications, societies establish procedures that are internalised by members. In contrast, subjective reality focuses on a person’s identity which develops from social processes. Berger and Luckmann (1966) suggested that people are aware of their identity when they see themselves in a subjectively meaningful coherence related to objective societies. Moreover, people carry their own values, beliefs, bias, heuristics, and stereotypes (Ritti, 1998). Therefore, individuals have the power to alter their subjective meanings they give to identity. This may result in disrupting the processes and procedures established in society.
Critical realism and social constructionism have the same set of assumptions and are philosophical stances. Barkin’s (2003) research was concerned with politics, but he suggested that the philosophical stance can be applied in other disciplines and types of research, such as the current study. Barkin (2003) asserted that social constructionism should be perceived as an opportunity to provide a corrective assumption of how individuals identify knowledge. It is concerned with the world based on people’s experiences and as the byproduct from social processes, interactions and relationships (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). Berger and Luckmann (1966) suggested that researchers need to strive to recognise and embrace individuals’ perceptions and interpretations (phenomenon) that are not present (unconscious) which will, in turn, enable the researcher to understand everyday experiences and knowledge from the differing degrees of closeness and remoteness, both spatially and temporally. This approach allows for the investigation of how meanings, conventions, morals, and practices are reproduced and transformed (Cromby & Nightingale, 1999). Researchers from this philosophical position are drawing attention to how human experiences are mediated by numerous contexts (history, culture, social, location, and time), which directly influences environmental conditions (Byers, 2009).

Utilising social construction as an epistemology encourages the attainment of multiple ‘knowledges’ to understand a phenomena or an event (Crotty, 1998; Guba, 1990). Guba (1990) suggested that social constructionism unlocks the way people construct their understanding about what is going on around them. This enables the women in this study to identify their individual perceptions and understanding of their volunteering activities in IAPESGW and WSI.

**Qualitative methodology**

Identifying the research philosophy (ontological and epistemological positions) is vital because it helps develop the foundation for the qualitative methodological approach and research methods (Crotty, 1998). Methodology is used in research to answer how a person knows the world and gains knowledge in it (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Particularly, the methodology is the strategy, plan of action, or process used to identify
how the research design is devised from a perspective to direct the research choices and methods (Crotty, 1998). A qualitative methodology is employed because it is directed at understanding the social world. Qualitative methodologies include a variety of methods, procedures, and research designs. Research methods are the techniques and procedures used to gather and analyse data (Crotty, 1998). These basic elements shape the way qualitative researchers view the world and their research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). A qualitative methodological approach is employed because it offers a way of exploring and understanding the meanings that individuals and groups ascribe to social or human problems (Creswell, 2009). Researchers, therefore, utilise research methods (e.g., observation studies, in-depth interviews, and ethnographic studies) to identify social relationships and interpretations. Qualitative methods aim to answer detailed questions that describe, explain, and define concepts, meanings, experiences, social relationships, and socially constructed beliefs through their own interpretations, perceptions, and identities (Berg, 1995).

Based on the understanding that reality of everyday life is a privileged position (Berger & Luckmann, 1966), researchers using critical realism and social constructionism are interested in a subjective (qualitative) methodological stance in order to understand a specific phenomenon. Critical realism identifies people having different realities, and social constructionism highlights that knowledge production may be dissimilar for people because of their own realities. The qualitative methodology enables the researcher to understand why and how the research participants construct, de-construct, and reconstruct their knowledge. However, as suggested by Stablein (1996), this does not mean that anything goes because participants may find that they are constrained by their own processes of perceptions, memories, and interpretations. The participants draw on personal experiences, which carry different meanings from others in the same social groups (Martin, 1992). The research philosophy is concerned with individuals’ reflections on their own experiences to identify how they constructed their understanding for their reality and their knowledge whilst addressing its multifaceted and multilayered nature (Byers, 2009; Byers & Thurston, 2011; Steinmetz, 1998; Tsang & Kwan, 1999). According to Zhuang (2011, p. 108), social constructionists “demand the inquiry to be conducted in a natural setting that aims to capture a holistic understating”. These methods elicit human feelings and provide insight into social processes, actions, and consequences to understand how people make sense of their own
The chosen research methods for this study are intended to gain a holistic understanding of participants and their experiences in IAPESGW and WSI.

**Reflexivity**

“We all look at the world from our own special cave” (Friedrichs, 1981, p. 218). This opening quote refers to the research participants as well as the researcher who too constructs her own reality and knowledge. Therefore, a researcher needs to be aware of her own understandings, interpretations, perceptions, and intentions. This is referred to as the concept of reflexivity, which is in line with the current researches’ philosophical and methodological positions. Researchers should recognise that all data are based on several levels of interpretation and reflection (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009), and a researcher’s human role impacts the research process (Dupuis, 1999). Since researchers are part of the social world, they bring biases, worldviews, and interpretations to the process (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Preissle, 2006), which consequently defines the research (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). This is significant in the current study since I had to be aware that I could push my own bias on the participants, which Creswell (2003) asserted can affect the outcomes. Dupuis (1999, p. 44) suggested that the researchers’ human ‘selves’ “subsequently shape our products; our failure to recognize and account for the role our emotions and personal experiences play in our research endeavours; and our specific data collection and writing styles”. Despite traditional scholars urging scientific researchers to be anonymous, impersonal, detached, impartial, and objective, qualitative researchers cannot separate themselves from the process. Corbin and Strauss (2008) asserted that researchers may even experience shared feelings (sadness, anger, and happiness) to their participants, which often occurs on an unconscious level. Researchers become woven into all aspects of the research process (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Therefore, critical realists/social constructionist researchers are required to “put him- or herself into the research” whilst being sensitive by identifying “relevant issues, events, and happenings in the data” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 32). Finlay (2002) discussed this as the researcher and the participants co-constructing the research. This process is illustrated in Figure 4.3.
According to Calás and Smircich (1992) and Guba and Lincoln (1994), reflexivity addresses similar issues to the research philosophy for the production of knowledge. This was illustrated by Keso, Lehtimäki, and Pietiläinen (2009) who focused on the issues of decision making based on the reflexivity of qualitative research by social constructionists. Keso, Lehtimäki, and Pietiläinen’s (2009) issues are presented in Table 4.1 (additional information for this study is in italics):
Table 4.1 Reflexivity of qualitative research by social constructionists

| Purpose (aim) of the research | Deconstructing taken-for-granted, making visible relations of power/knowledge  
|                              | Identifying changed constructions and reconstructions generating holistic perspective for women sport volunteers |
| Definition of knowledge       | Situational, temporal, and legitimised accounts  
|                              | Shared understandings of the societies/realities |
| Researcher-Material interaction | Scientific discourses construct both the researcher and the material |
| Role of values in research    | Under constant power/knowledge |
| Evaluation criteria for research | Novelty of interpretations and argumentation, questioning researchers own standpoint and expectations of society  
|                              | Richness of interpretations and identifiable constructions of knowledge |
| Role of researcher            | Empowerer/learner |


Keso, Lehtimäki, and Pietiläinen (2009, p. 56) suggested that the social constructionist researcher is referred to as an empowerer because the researcher “explores the taken-for-granted, questions the self-evident, and examines herself as the participant in knowledge production process” (reflexive process). Therefore, the researcher’s interest is fuelled by the social processes of everyday activities linked to their own realities and knowledges. Finlay (2002, p. 532) pointed out that reflexivity is valuable because it enables a researcher to:

- examine the impact of the position, perspective, and presence of the researcher;
- promote rich insight through examining personal responses and interpersonal dynamics;
- empower others by opening up a more radical consciousness;
- evaluate the research process, method, and outcomes; and
- enable public scrutiny of integrity of the research through offering a methodological log of research decisions.

To maximise the use of reflexivity, Gluck and Patai (1991) encouraged researchers to perform personal analyses before the research process to understand their own assumptions, beliefs, and worldviews. Lynch (2000) and Woolgar (1988) referred to
this as constitutive reflexivity and interpretive reflexive, respectively. This exercise was completed early in the PhD process to identify my own reality and interest in the study. Such exercise enables researchers to understand themselves, their subjectivity, and their interpretations, and encourages researchers to situate themselves in their own study. Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011, p. 225) stated that “highly reflexive researchers will be acutely aware of the ways in which their selectivity, perception, background and inductive processes and paradigms shape the research”. In addition, as suggested by Calás and Smircich (1992) and Flick (2002), reflexivity constantly assesses knowledge development throughout the research process.

**Research focus**

The aim of this research is to develop a holistic understanding about an exceptional group of women and their relationships with volunteering with IAPESGW and WSI. A multidimensional approach is employed to explore the research participants’ backgrounds (education, childhood interests, and volunteering history), motivations to volunteer, commitment to the organisation, perceptions of organisational cultures, choice of activities, and relation to paid work. This multidimensional approach highlights significant reasons why, how, and to what extent individuals get involved with IAPESGW and WSI. According to Byers (2009, p. 120), “it is important to the interpretation of meaning to understand, for example, a person’s educational and ideological background, experiences in life generally, work-related or professional influences, given the potential influence of such factors on an individual’s worldview”. In the current study, this is addressed by pinpointing the participants’ movement in and through different social groups and engaging in various social interactions.

**Research methods**

There are a range of approaches that can be employed to gather data. These techniques are aligned with the research philosophy and methodology. According to Byers (2009, p. 120), “the epistemology requires the researcher to evaluate both existence and the
nature of such structure and the process of their reproduction”. Therefore, in the current study, archival research was used to evaluate the existence, structure, and reproduction of IAPESGW and WSI, in order to provide the context within which the research participants’ accounts of their volunteer experiences could be considered.

**Archival research**

The archives from IAPESGW and WSI were examined to learn about the foundations and cultures of the organisations. As Corti (2007, p. 37) noted, “archived research materials can prove to be a significant part of our cultural heritage as well as contemporary research”. The archives utilised for the current study were historical documents (i.e., minutes, newsletters, announcements, personal letters, and emailed business letters) to gain insight about why IAPESGW and WSI were established or emerged, respectively (Blair & Milligan, 2007). The organisational archives were in the forms of primary and secondary documents. The majority of the archives analysed were primary sources; these are important for research because they provide the most “direct outcomes of historical events or experiences” (Moses & Knutsen, 2007, p. 120), and primary documents offers more authenticity, credibility, representativeness, and meaning than secondary sources (Bryman, 2004). The primary sources were minutes, personal letters, and emails. The secondary sources were more accessible within the public domain (Bryman, 2004; Walter, 2005). However, secondary sources are not as trustworthy as primary sources because information can be used selectively for numerous reasons (Thomassen, 2001). These secondary documents used were newsletters, press articles, journal articles, book chapters, and books.

The research focused on the first ten years of IAPESGW’s archives and the first five years of WSI’s archives. These differences were due to the technological opportunities in the eras when the organisations were established. Since IAPESGW was established in 1949, their primary source for communication was through postal mail and at the quadrennial congresses. This meant IAPESGW members had relatively limited interaction. Using postal mail is a significantly slower process than faxing or emailing, which WSI was able to incorporate in the 1990s. In more recent years, technological advances were beneficial to both international organisations because they offered quicker ways to communicate.
The archives were obtained from archival libraries in the USA and from participants’ personal libraries in the USA and the UK. IAPESGW had more organisational documents stored at archival libraries than WSI. This is due to the age of the organisations. IAPESGW’s documents were stored at university libraries in Germany, England, and the USA, because former leaders donated their documents to be archived at the institution where they taught. Leaders of WSI, on the other hand, were still in leadership roles and were still in their professions.

To access these IAPESGW documents, the secretary (during the time of data collection) in the UK was contacted and shared the historical documents that she had. I also travelled to Smith College and Springfield College (in the USA) and did a month of archival research about the association, and surprisingly found WSI archives at Smith.

In order to obtain data from WSI, past and present leaders were contacted to see if they kept any of their WSI documents. Two former WSI secretaries were contacted, as many documents went through them or even came from them. One former secretary was organised as her WSI documents were ordered by date in three large binders. The other secretary’s information was not as organised as her work was intermeshed in stacks of documents involving her profession and other voluntary organisations. In addition, she sent parts of her WSI documents to a university library (Smith College) to be archived and the rest were in personal storage. The library only had them in boxes labelled by year and sections with WSI, but there was no formal list of archives that went along with the information. According to Gilliland and McKemmish (2004) and Iacovino (2004), this is common as personal archives are typically uncared for and stored in a room or placed in a box without any order.

There are several challenges when conducting archival research. One challenge is the way in which the documents are stored. In the current research, archives were found to be stored in boxes, in rooms that were not temperature controlled, and where the ink on the documents was faded. This was especially noticeable on faxes (facsimiles) (particularly from the WSI). A second challenge is poor penmanship, subsequently meaning information is lost because of lack of legibility (Walter, 2005). A third challenge is a result of the increased use of technology. Although online databases
widen the scope of information available to the researcher (Merriam, 2009), leaders within IAPESGW and WSI did not efficiently engage in the systems for storing their documents. Merriam (2009) suggested that organisational documents may be lost or deleted. This is evident in the current research as these organisations did not always save hard copies of documents that were posted on their websites.

One of the initial aims in this research was to look at the organisational changes within IAPESGW and WSI, and the archives were expected to offer significant insight into the organisations. However, due to the gaps in the archives, the limited sources, and the abovementioned issues, it was evident that the archives would be best used to develop descriptive case studies about the organisations (presented in Chapter Five). According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011, p. 209), this descriptive approach enables the events and situations to speak from themselves, instead of being “largely interpreted, evaluated, or judged”. They are used in this study to discuss real situations, enabling readers to understand the organisations more clearly (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Case studies are a “process of inquiry about the case and the product of that inquiry” (Stake, 2005, p. 444), and they are made up of many variables which investigate interactions between people, events, and other factors (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). These descriptive studies are concerned with rich and vivid descriptions of events relevant to the case as events are blended to tell a chronological narrative (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). The cases in this research were referred to as instrumental case studies because they aimed to provide insight into an issue (Stake, 2005), and therefore, they have a supportive role. In order to complete these case studies, the archives were examined and scrutinised in depth (Stake, 2005). Reliability and validity checks were conducted through (1) internal validity, where different parts of the documents and cases were used to ensure agreement, patterns, and explanations; (2) external validity where interviewees discussed information from the archives; and (3) an attempt to avoid biases through reflexivity and members checks.

The archives were analysed through inductive content analysis. The data analysis involved consolidating, reducing, and interpreting the overwhelming amount of data collected through the archival research. The focus of the analysis was to understand why and how IAPESGW and WSI were established. Inductive content analysis was conducted through the development of open codes, creation of categories, and
abstraction of themes (Elo & Kyngas, 2008). Recurring themes and patterns emerged that related to why IAPESGW and WSI were established. Events, settings, styles, images, meanings, and nuances were used to note possible emerging themes (Altheide, 1987). The information was placed in a timeline format, which was consistent with Merriam’s (2009) suggestion of conducting content analysis in sequential order. Basic coding and cataloguing system were developed and placed in a template in Microsoft Excel. This timeline format assisted with the organisation of data. The years were on the x-axis and the codes and categories were on the y-axis. As the archives were obtained, they were simultaneously coded and categorised. The intention was to use the raw data to capture relevant content characteristics of each document (Merriam, 2009).

**Primary research with the women leaders**

It was evident that the study required primary research to be conducted with an appropriate group of research participants, using a method that could elicit rich data about the women’s contributions and experiences as sport volunteers. The approach chosen was a variant of the life history approach, applied through interviews with women who were recognised as significant actors within the development of each organisation.

**Life history interviews**

All people have a story to tell about how they constructed their own understanding about their life. According to Plummer (2001, p. 18), “at the heart of personal document research is the life story [which is] an account of one person’s life in his or her own words”. Through life history techniques, research participants are situated at the centre of inquiry where they can use their own voice to share life experiences, perceptions, and interpretations of the world.

The life history technique is not only used to “explain, describe, and reflect upon a life, making sense of a person’s life” (Hatch & Wisniewski, 1995, p. 115), but it is also significant because it is concerned with the impact of political and social ideologies. Life histories are closely aligned with critical realism and social constructionism, as the
personal stories draw on people’s realities and knowledge through their causal statements that provide explanations of social relationships and interactions aligned with experiences, feelings, thoughts, and intentions (Berg, 1995). A life history interview is "the story a person chooses to tell about the life he has lived, told as completely and honestly as possible, what is remembered of it, and what the teller wants others to know of it, usually as a result of a guided interview by another" (Atkinson, 1998, p. 8). Yet, the qualitative method encourages probing to construct a deeper understanding about the participants. In order words, life histories examine more than just dates in history; rather, the stories provide a historical record for a group that might otherwise be “hidden from history” (Perks & Thomson, 1998, p. 1). Giving voice to these hidden stories highlights experiences of oppression, power relations, and opportunities, which for this study shaped the women’s perceptions of why they were involved with IAPESGW and WSI. This research method encourages participants to discuss the processes that led to their positions during the time of the interview.

Short life history interviews were employed in the current study. They focused on one aspect of the participants’ lives, which enables for the development of a holistic understanding of what led to their unpaid service within IAPESGW and WSI (Plummer, 2001). The collective model of the SOV addresses the narrow focus from the life history, and collective views and actions that are drawn out. Short life histories were used over topical life documents because topical life documents do not “aim to grasp the fullness of a person’s life, but confronts a particular issue” (Plummer, 2001, p. 26). In addition, long life histories were not used because they typically focus on one or two participants by analysing personal documents, interviewing other people about their understanding and much more. Although this would also provide a holistic understanding about the volunteer, it is beyond the scope of current study.

**Interview guide and pilot testing**

An interview guide is an important component for interview-based research methods to guide the development of a person’s life story. It was developed from the existing literature, archives, and the research philosophy. The interview guide had one overarching question – ‘Tell me the story of what led you to serve on IAPESGW or
WSI’ – and several themes listed that were significant to develop a holistic perspective (see Appendix B).

The interview guide was tested using two strategies. First, convenience pilot tests were conducted on portions of it with three PhD colleagues. This allowed for the questions, the flow, and the interview style to be critiqued. There were no significant changes made to the guide but, instead, suggestions were given about making the interview approach stronger. Second, three full pilot interviews (two by telephone and one face-to-face) were conducted with women who held leadership positions within national sport organisations in the UK (see Appendix C for list). These interviews highlighted topics that were not considered. For instance, one participant suggested that she was not interested in women’s issues; rather, she was a sport volunteer because of her passion for sport. Although this was not something that was identified as coming up in an interview with women from women-based organisations, it was a topic that needed to be addressed. In other words, the full pilot studies illustrated the importance of listening to all responses so motives, interests, definitions, and experiences could be further discussed when it was felt that they were not given enough attention. Both sets of pilot interviews provided critiques of aspects of the interview.

**Participants**

The participants were all women. At the time of the interviews, their roles were former leaders, current leaders, or highly active members who were interested in a leadership role in either IAPESGW or WSI. It is intriguing that these women are and continue to be trailblazers in the advancement of women’s sport as many of them played pivotal roles in the development of the Women’s International Sport Movement. In addition, these participants are world-renowned in their disciplines and continue to travel to numerous international conferences to present research, which is often concerned with girls and women in sport, physical education, and physical activity.

Twenty-three women from different nations were identified through public and private historical archives, web pages, and word-of-mouth. Sixteen expressed interest, but only fifteen fit the research criteria and were available to participate in the study. The female participants represented Germany, Holland, Hong Kong, Iran, Norway, Switzerland, the
United Kingdom, the United States of America, and Venezuela. All the participants, except one, were professors in a university setting in disciplines such as physical education, sport sociology, sport and exercise science, and sport management. The majority of the participants developed their interests and passions in sport through their own experiences. The one not in an academic profession worked part-time in information technology (IT). These women constructed their understanding for sport reality as they were raised before and during the women’s movement in times when women’s sport was not encouraged, and when women’s social roles were much different (i.e., limited) compared to the twenty-first century in Westernised cultures.

**Gaining access to the women sport leaders**

Prior to contacting the leaders, Research Ethics Approval was sought from the Brunel University School of Sport and Education Research Ethics Committee (see Appendix D). Written approval was given in May 2008, and participants were contacted shortly after.

With the understanding that gaining access to the participants could be difficult, one person (the president of each organisation) from each organisation was identified as the gatekeeper. It was hoped that the gatekeeper would assist with providing access to the female leaders (Wolff, 2004). Through a gatekeeper, access to participants was made easy and efficiently as they personally knew the past, current, and potential future leaders. In addition, the presidents of both organisations had “an element of self-interest with their willingness to open one or more doors” (Merkens, 2004, p. 166) because they agreed that the work the women did for the organisations and women’s sport is invaluable.

The presidents were contacted through letters via email which asked them to accept the gate-keeping role (see Appendix E). They both accepted and began making suggestions and additions to the list of names of potential participants. The gatekeepers followed the research criteria for leaders within international women’s sport organisations, and this resulted in a broad range of participants with similarities and differences.
The proposed participants were contacted through an email letter (see Appendix F). This letter explained the importance of their knowledge about the topic. Once the participants showed interest, interviews were scheduled. These interviews took place in numerous international locations: two women were interviewed in England, seven women were interviewed in China [during the 2008 International Conference on Science, Education, and Medicine in Sport (ICSEMIS)], one woman was interviewed in Denmark, and three women were interviewed in the United States. Due to high cost of travelling, arrangements were made to attend the ICSEMIS to interview as many of the women identified were attending the ICSEMIS. There were, however, two participants who were not available to meet face-to-face, and this led to one email interview and one phone interview. This was the last resort since face-to-face interviews yield the richest data (Yow, 1994).

The interview locations were negotiated between the researcher and the participant. This enables both people to feel comfortable and attempts to provide an environment where both individuals can be themselves and open. Numerous places and times were chosen. For instance, one interview in China was during breakfast. Other participants in China chose to meet in a hotel bar, café, and coffee shop. A disadvantage to these meeting locations was that people interrupted for business or personal matters and there was often a lot of background noise (e.g., conversations, dishes clanging, or music). These situations were not damaging to the interview process; instead, they were just slight interruptions that may have disrupted the participants’ thought processes. Lastly, there were participants who wanted silence and privacy when discussing their lives and chose to meet in hotel rooms in China, their homes in the UK, and offices in the UK, Denmark, and the USA. Interruptions during these interviews were due to mobile and landline phones ringing.

**The interviews with the women sport leaders**

The interviews ranged from 45 minutes to 3.5 hours. The majority of the interviews ended up following the same structure. One interview stood out from the others as it lasted a full day: the interview started at a coffee shop, a break was taken to stop at an animal shelter, and it ended at a golf course over lunch. In each interview, the aim of the study was explained to the participants, and they were then given time to ask
questions. After all questions were answered, the participants were then asked to read and sign the informed consent (see Appendix G). Appendix G also presents the confidentiality clause that all the research participants signed to say that their full names could be used in the study.

At the start of the interview, the overarching question was asked: What led you to serve on [IAPESGW] or [WSI]? The women’s response behaviours varied: some women began speaking for forty-five minutes whilst others spoke for five minutes; and some sat and thought for a few seconds whilst others knew exactly what they wanted to say. Some respondents started off by discussing the wider context of their lives and explained their life experiences starting at their childhood, which linked to experiences throughout their lives. Other interviewees focused on their entrance into the women’s sport organisations. Such focused responses indicated that the women wanted to make sure they answered the specific question in the way they thought I wanted it answered. It also may have had something to do with English not being everyone’s first language, and it may have been difficult to develop explanations. Language is a process of social construction (Steier, 1995), and this may have been a limitation within the interviews.

The participants also discussed negative and positive experiences which led to their interests in women’s sport organisations. They also addressed the importance of their public and private lives and how factors impacted their organisational involvement. In some instances, these topics were probed to obtain a deeper understanding. As suggested from the life history literature, notes were taken during the interviews so I would not disrupt the participants’ train of thought (Anderson & Jack, 1991). At the end of each interview, participants were thanked for their participation, and it was suggested that if any other ideas came up after leaving, they could write, call, or email additional information.

Within two weeks of the interview, the transcripts were sent to the participants. They were invited to change or clarify anything that may be misunderstood (see Appendix H). They were also given the opportunity to delete anything that they wished not to be published. This enabled them to see what they said and make sure it represented them, and also to give them time to reflect on the interview.
Data analysis

Following suggestions from such researchers as Yow (1994), the interviews were immediately transcribed verbatim. This deliberate transcribing process meant that the interview process was on-going, and this was conducted in an attempt to maintain contact with the participants as the interviews were fresh on their minds. However, this process was not as successful when interviewing the women in China as this was a shorter period of time and interviews were transcribed after returning home. However, for the other interviews, this was significant as interviews could be studied and reflected on before the next interview.

The transcripts provided a permanent written record (O’Connell & Kowal, 2004). Producing full transcripts, instead of partial or selective transcripts, was beneficial because several significant factors were revealed. Full transcripts revealed information, which selective transcripts may have omitted because the information was viewed as providing irrelevant detail regarding reasons why women volunteer on international women’s sport organisations. The full transcripts showed unexpected detail about the participants’ professional lives which were connected to their experiences within the organisations.

Across-case and within-case thematic analysis was used to investigate themes based on the six dimensions of the SOV (Ayers, Kavanaugh, & Knafl, 2003; Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003). Thematic analysis was used to identify, analyse, and report patterns within the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Ayers, Kavanaugh, and Knafl (2003) and Braun and Clarke (2006) suggested that the first stage of data analysis is for the researcher to immerse her/himself in the data by reading all the transcripts at least once. In the current research, after the interviews were transcribed, they were re-read to make editorial corrections and to become more familiar with the interviews. Immersion continued by reading the transcripts and allocating codes to significant statements, phrases, sentences, or paragraphs that discussed stories, experiences, and feelings. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), this is the second stage utilised to generate initial codes. This open coding identified data that was interesting and may help answer the research question. Initially the words of the participants were used to develop
codes; however, this generated too many codes to manage. Therefore, after the fifth interview was coded, the codes were examined to develop conceptual (analytical) codes based on the SOV, the literature, and the philosophical framework. Braun and Clarke’s (2006) second and third stages of data analysis were merged together as themes and codes were sought at the same time. Although the themes captured broader information than codes, the themes were the first step to capture data in relation with the research question (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Therefore, it became more useful to closely adapt Ayers, Kavanaugh, and Knafl’s (2003) analytical strategies of coding. The modified process is presented in Table 4.2.
Table 4.2 Within- and Across-Case Analytic Strategies for Life Histories for Women Leaders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Analytic Focus</th>
<th>Product</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immersion in each interview</td>
<td>Within each case</td>
<td>Gained sense of lived experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison of significant statements, experiences, stories</td>
<td>Across cases</td>
<td>Identification of common statements, phrases, paragraphs linked together through codes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reconnection of significant statements to interviews</td>
<td>Within and across all cases</td>
<td>Confirming codes used in studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intuiting, critical reflection</td>
<td>Within and across all cases</td>
<td>Identifying and defining themes; linking to the SOV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free writing</td>
<td>Within and across all cases</td>
<td>Answer questions about the women’s lives and their experiences in international women’s sport organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organize categories of significant statements by themes</td>
<td>Set of significant statements</td>
<td>Locating themes in the SOV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Return analysis to participants (Done as Step 2)</td>
<td>Within all cases</td>
<td>Member checks; develop certainty about participants and interests</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


There were 437 pages of transcripts, which were coded by hand and then transferred into a qualitative software program for computer-assistance. QSR N-vivo8 (Sage ©) “supports the process of search for and organizing data” (Ohlbrecht, 2004, p. 379). N-vivo8 was like a filing cabinet to help organise the findings. The benefit of using N-vivo8 was that it made the comparison of codes and the identification of discrepancies logical and less complicated. With the use of N-vivo, the coding process was made more efficient than the traditional qualitative research process of “photocopying, cutting, highlighting, and filing interviews and coding by hand” (Bringer, Johnston, & Brackenridge, 2004, p. 248). Following this stage, the coded transcripts were put to the side for a few weeks, and then re-coded by hand to see if there was consistency within the previous coding system. Three transcripts were also sent to one PhD supervisor to code in order to measure agreement; this is a form of inter-rater reliability check (Tinsley & Weiss, 2000). There was full agreement on each of the codes.
As the codes were being placed within the themes, they were also situated in the SOV in order to develop interpretations and reflections on the meanings constructed by the participants (Corbin & Strauss, 2007; Merriam, 2009; Richards, 2005). This enabled for the identification of commonalities and differences between the participants within the dimensions of the framework. The themes were then reviewed and refined by reading all the extracts in the transcript codes. This made it possible to identify if the sufficient data were being used in the most significant place (as there were many overlaps within the SOV). Therefore, N-vivo8 was used in this study to manage transcripts and codes (called nodes within the program) (Bringer, Johnston, & Brackenridge, 2004).

Although the last stage was to return the transcripts to the participants, this was done in this research shortly after completing the transcription process. This allowed for participants to have time to correct, edit, add, or delete parts of the interview (see Appendix I for an example of a transcript and Appendix H for a Transcript Correction Form). This is referred to as member checking to determine credibility. In order to eliminate disconfirming evidence, member checking is used to obtain feedback and conclusions from participants within the study (Maxwell, 2009; Merriam, 2009; Miller & Crabtree, 2005). This feedback can also resolve the researcher’s misinterpretations (Maxwell, 2009). It gives the researcher the opportunity to identify his or her own biases as the concept of reflexivity is used.

**Establishment of data dependability**

Quantitative researchers aim to show validity and reliability in their studies. In contrast, qualitative researchers aim to establish credibility within their research. Credibility is a form of internal validation that refers to trustworthiness or good measurement of the findings (Bernard, 2000; Bickman & Rog, 2009). Bickman and Rog (2009) suggested that credibility is determined by (1) the research design supporting definitive conclusions and desired recommendations; (2) who judges it; and (3) the methods used to reflect in the paradigm and the research question. The current research follows each of these suggestions: there are defining conclusions (shown in Chapter Five), the philosophical discussion identifies how the research should be (and is) judged, and the
research methods reflect the research position. There are multiple types of techniques to establish credibility in qualitative research, such as prolonged engagement, triangulation, peer debriefing, negative case analysis, and member checks. For the current research, member checks were used to assist with establishing credibility (which was previously discussed).

Specifically for life history research, Plummer (1983) suggested three ways to establish dependability (he refers to it as validity): (1) by comparing written and official records to identify divergence and similarities as a way of imposing accuracy checks on life histories; (2) by checking the accuracy of life histories through interviews with other participants in order to see if there is accuracy within their stories; and (3) by identifying the life history relationship in the wider society. In the current study, some dates were mixed up with some participants. This was addressed by identifying what was going on in society, and this allowed for the stories to be corrected. For instance, one participant attributed to the development of the WSI being catalysed following the death of a young gymnast due to eating disorders. Although this was an important reason to her, other interviewees did not refer to it. In the current study, it was a struggle for some participants to recall critical and accurate dates and experiences, and this proves to be a weakness of the research method. Therefore, the accuracy of stories and dates need to be and were confirmed by other participants and literature from the wider society.

**Summary**

The philosophical position consisted of critical realism as the ontological stance and social constructionism for the epistemological stance to address how the women construct their knowledge about reality. These stances are compatible with one another as they are concerned with changing realities and knowledge based on human interaction, external influences, and personal experiences. The subjective qualitative stance is in line with the philosophy of the study and guided the choice of utilising life history interviews. Throughout the chapter, the research methods, data collection and data analysis were described in detail. The links between the SOV framework, philosophical position, and data analyses were also illuminated in this chapter. The next chapter presents and discusses the research based on the SOV framework.
Chapter Five and Chapter Six report the findings of the research into the relationship and experiences of women’s volunteering activities in IAPESGW and WSI. The SOV is utilised in Chapter Five and Chapter Six to guide the reporting of the findings from the research participants. The SOV is valuable for the current study because it provides a holistic framework to explore volunteerism in sport through the dimensions of: biographical frame of reference, organisational environment, motivation, commitment, choice of activity, and relation to paid work. The framework indicates that each dimension is impacted by the other dimensions.

Although the SOV is useful to examine volunteers from a holistic perspective, the application of the SOV needed to be adapted during and through the process of data analysis for this specific case of the women in the study. For instance, information that fit into the collective or reflexive models could not be separated because participants acknowledged that their reality, which was constructed in society, was adjusted to fit their personal experiences. Therefore, the data will not be presented based on the two models within the dimensions.

In addition, the adaption of the framework includes distinguishing between the statuses of the different SOV dimensions. The biographical frame of reference and the organisational environment dimensions were found to fulfil more fundamental purposes compared to the other dimensions. The biographical dimension for this study is therefore used to provide a detailed analysis of the personal experiences and orientations the research participants brought to their volunteering experiences and activities. The purpose of the organisational dimension is to provide an analysis of the environment within which their volunteering took place. Together these two
dimensions provide the fundamental information from which the participants’ developed their enduring and intense level of voluntary activity.

The biographical frame of reference dimension is utilised in this research to introduce the women by highlighting their nationalities and ethnicities, previous sport experiences, education levels, and voluntary activities. The first half of this chapter explores the women’s backgrounds to understand how they constructed their realities, identities, and knowledge about sport and physical education, gender issues, and volunteering. This section covers numerous topics to develop a profile for these women as sport volunteers. This is significant in order to construct an understanding about the women as sport volunteers. These women are essential for IAPESGW and WSI, and it is valuable to understand their accounts of the international women’s sport organisations before moving forward. Therefore, the purpose of the second half of this chapter is to report the women’s perceptions of the organisations along with information from the organisational archives. The research participants and the organisational environment need to be identified in order to conduct any further investigation into the women’s relationships with volunteering. This section, therefore, begins by identifying how the organisational environment dimension was utilised. Then IAPESGW and WSI are examined separately and the analysis of the archival material is presented to give the background information. The section then reviews the women’s narratives about the organisations.

Although there is inevitable potential for overlap among the dimensions, an effort is made to establish the context of the women’s volunteering relationship with IAPESGW and WSI through the biographical frame of reference and organisational environment dimension. This allows the reader to become familiar with the lifestyle and organisational contexts before investigating the research participants’ detailed volunteering experiences within the organisations. Chapter Six then focuses more closely on the women’s involvement with IAPESGW and WSI, noting the participants’ initial motivations for joining the organisations, their changing commitment levels, and how their voluntary service relates to their paid work and wider lifestyle.

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2 The archival research references will be presented in Appendix J, which is a separate bibliography in a technical appendix explaining the location of the document, how the document was referenced, and a short description about the document.
Getting to know the women leaders: Biographical frame of reference for the research participants

The dimension of biographical frame of reference addresses how the women in this study constructed their volunteer behaviours and attitudes. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004), this dimension is concerned with the fundamental assumption that volunteering is embedded in a person’s own reality. Therefore, this section focuses on the way in which the research participants situate themselves between social roots and their own self-determined actions (see Table 3.2).

The dimension of a biographical frame of reference offers a starting point for studying the research participants. The details obtained from the interviews are about the women’s nationalities, ethnicities, sport backgrounds, education pathways, professions, volunteering histories, and development of gendered concerns. This information about the fifteen women is presented in Tables 5.1 and 5.2, which represent the women’s membership in IAPESGW and WSI, respectively. From left to right, the first column lists the participants’ names, which they agreed to use. This is significant for two reasons. First, maintaining anonymity is difficult because these women have unique, identifiable experiences and research topics within (and outside) the women’s sport field. Second, and possibly more important, many of these women played pivotal roles in the advancement of women’s sport through a voluntary capacity and many of their stories (or journeys) have never been documented. Therefore, by using their names, this thesis highlights these particular women’s journeys, contributions, and experiences within IAPESGW and WSI. In the same column as their names, the participants’ nationalities are presented to show the diverse geographic representation: Asia, Australia, Europe, and North and South America. This demonstrates that the women were collectively working together with different perspectives on sport and physical education, gender issues, and ways to improve women’s situations. For instance, sport in the USA follows more of a competitive ethos than in many other Westernised countries, which follow more of an amateur ethos (non-professional approach) (Baker, 2004). In addition, in the twentieth century, women’s sport in the USA gained more attention and observed changes earlier than many other Westernised countries because of Title IX legislation (Birrell & Theberge, 1994; Hargreaves, 1994). This illustrates
that these participants’ perceptions are influenced by social/cultural values, norms and practices from their own opportunities, experiences, and interactions. Further, these women lived through different time periods as their ages ranged between 30 years old to 80 years old during the time of the interview (the majority being in their 50s and 60s).

The second column points out that all the women participated in sport, and the majority played sport at a competitive level. Indeed, they indicated participating in sport their whole lives, and this led them to develop a sport identity. This column is, therefore, situated next to the participants’ names because, in many interviews, sport was a primary topic for the women. In addition, the tables show that the women played a variety of sports, and many were in female group-based environments, such as basketball, netball, softball, volleyball, and field hockey. Yet the women that participated in individualised sports (e.g., track and field, gymnastics, and swimming) also identified being in groups with other girls, although they ultimately competed for themselves. This shows that the majority of women had early experiences of female sport environments.

The third and fourth columns present the women’s education and employment histories by highlighting their qualifications and their statuses within their professions. Consistent with Doherty’s (2005) findings on volunteers in executive positions, the participants in this study are highly educated. For instance, all fifteen have Bachelor’s degrees – twelve women have one Bachelor’s degree, two women have two Bachelor’s degrees, and one woman has three Bachelor’s degrees. In addition, twelve women have Master’s degrees – ten women have one Master’s degree and two women have two. Finally, twelve women have doctorate degrees – nine women have one doctorate degree, two women have two or a second higher level doctorate degree, and one woman has three. The tables also show that the women have reached positions of Full Professorships, Heads of their Departments and Schools, and even have titles like Professor of Emerita. These two columns illustrate the women’s interests in education and present their professional accomplishments.

The fifth column addresses the women’s volunteering attitudes and behaviours. Each box begins by highlighting the values the women reported obtaining from their parents. This is important because children’s socialisation processes begin to construct morals
and values through child-parent interactions. The column also points out the volunteer history was recalled as being significant. In their interviews, the women highlighted experiences within a variety of organisations where they volunteered, which linked, or they felt led them to serve on IAPESGW or WSI. It is also notable and illustrated that these women have held distinguished leadership positions within other bodies (i.e., male-dominated, decision-making organisations).

The sixth column presents what the women identified as key experiences of gender disadvantages. This column provides a list of disadvantages with summary descriptions that outline the women’s experiences. The information is based on memorable (personal and observed) experiences of inequality. The space is left blank if the women reported that there had been no incidents that were memorable (or stood out during the interview) in their life.

Columns seven, eight, and nine address the women’s involvement with IAPESGW and WSI. These columns identify how the women got involved with the organisations and their pathways into their leadership positions, information which Chapter Two highlights as greatly under-researched. The tables show that some women recalled searching for an organisation that embodied their interests and values, whilst other women remembered being mentored or invited to join. The data showed that more women were asked to join and lead within the organisation than those who were searching for such environment. The order of the columns within the tables support Doherty (2005), Jarvis and Blank (2011), and MacLean and Hamm (2007) who suggested that pathways into sport volunteering are continuous, and, therefore, sport identity, personal backgrounds, and knowledge of reality are presented first in Table 5.1 and Table 5.2. This highlights that the women began to develop an interest and willingness to participate in international women’s sport organisations. Therefore, the seventh column addresses where and how the women got involved, whilst considering how they constructed their understanding and knowledge for their need to participate with the organisations. The eighth column presents information about the women’s work in IAPESGW or WSI despite not being a member. This illustrates the women’s involvement and support for the cause of advancing women’s sport regardless of the setting. The final (9th) column represents the women’s roles in their organisations during the interviews in 2008 and then their positions within the organisations in 2011.
(the final writing stage of the thesis). This column illustrates the movement within the leadership structures. Tables 5.1 and 5.2 are presented on the next few pages.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Ethnicity-Nationality</th>
<th>Sport (* indicates main sport)</th>
<th>Education qualifications</th>
<th>Employment history – highest level</th>
<th>Parents values linked to volunteering values</th>
<th>Volunteering history – highest position held</th>
<th>Memorable experiences of gender disadvantages</th>
<th>Entrance into IAPESGW</th>
<th>Details of involvement with WSI</th>
<th>Role: during interview</th>
<th>Role: during submission</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tansin Benn</td>
<td>White-British</td>
<td>*Dance, gymnastics, ballet, non-competitive interests, International judge and coach at top level</td>
<td>Bachelor, Master, Doctorate</td>
<td>University Professor in School of Education</td>
<td>Love, respect, be an achiever (perfectionist)</td>
<td>Women’s artistic gymnastics coach, international judge, British Gymnastics Association Technical Committee, ICSP – representative, ICSSPE – Executive Board, National Subject Association for PE, IWG – representative</td>
<td>None of own, identified disadvantaging treatment of Muslim women</td>
<td>Invited as a dancer in early adulthood, but made no links to Assoc.; research guided her to find IAPESGW and get involved with IAPESGW; was asked to take editor post</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Vice President</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lynn Embry</td>
<td>White-Australian</td>
<td>*Softball, Badminton, basketball, netball, swimming, University - Intervarsity</td>
<td>Dip PE trained secondary teacher’s certification, B.Ed. Physical Education, M.Ed. Physical Education, M.Ed. Classroom observation, PhD. Physical Education</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer in Sports Science and Sport Management</td>
<td>Work hard, always do your best</td>
<td>ACHPER – President Special Interest Group for Women in Sport – WA representative, Australian Sports Medicine Federation – Secretary, WA governmental lobby group for women’s sport Women’s Sport Working Group, WACAE – Chairwoman, WA WSF – inaugural President, WA Branch of ACHPER – Vice President (lifetime member)</td>
<td>Met Margaret (mentor) at Women in Sport Conference and was invited to Congress and to take editor role</td>
<td>Paying member</td>
<td>Member</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1 International Association of Physical Education for Girls and Women Research Participants’ Profiles
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Ethnicity-Nationality</th>
<th>Sport (* indicates main sport)</th>
<th>Highest Level</th>
<th>Education qualifications</th>
<th>Employment history – highest level</th>
<th>Parent values linked to volunteering values</th>
<th>Volunteering history – highest position held</th>
<th>Memorable experiences of gender disadvantages</th>
<th>Entrance into IAPESGW</th>
<th>Details of involvement with WSI</th>
<th>Role: during interview during submission</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maryam Koushkie Jahromi</td>
<td>Persian-Iranian</td>
<td>Basketball, swimming</td>
<td>Recreation (mostly due to cultural and religious values)</td>
<td>B.Ed. Physical Education M.Ed. General Physical Education with a concentration in Exercise Physiology PhD. Exercise Physiology (no majors in sport sociology)</td>
<td>Assistant Professor of Physical Education/ Head of the Physical Education Department</td>
<td>Helping others, be kind to others, patience, Muslim values</td>
<td>National Sport Science Organisation in Iran Sport Physiology Organisation</td>
<td>Observed the misunderstanding and lack of knowledge of Muslim women in sport and physical education</td>
<td>Sought out IAPESGW because of own interests, gave paper at congress, and invited by Tansin to get more involved with IAPESGW for Muslim women</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Active member with a significant role at Oman study week Board members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susi-Käthi Jost</td>
<td>White-Swiss</td>
<td>*Volleyball, Skiing alpine, skiing, track and field National university skiing team</td>
<td>B.S. Information Technology (before it was a true major in Europe)</td>
<td>Part-time work in information technology</td>
<td></td>
<td>Christian ethics, care for others, do not judge others by stereotypes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Treated as being inferior to male members of mixed gendered organisations</td>
<td>Invited to IAPESGW Congress by Margaret (mentor) through European Working Group; was asked to take position</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Vice President Active member</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.1 International Association of Physical Education for Girls and Women Research Participants’ Profiles (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Ethnicity-Nationality</th>
<th>Sport (*) indicates main sport</th>
<th>Education qualifications</th>
<th>Employment history – highest level</th>
<th>Parents values linked to volunteering values</th>
<th>Volunteering history – highest position held</th>
<th>Memorable experiences of gender disadvantages</th>
<th>Entrance into IAPESGW</th>
<th>Details of involvement with WSI</th>
<th>Role: during interview during submission</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Darlene Kluka</td>
<td>White-American</td>
<td>*Volleyball, field hockey, fencing</td>
<td>B.A. Health and Physical Education and a minor in German language</td>
<td>University Professor and Coordinator of Sport Management Programs</td>
<td>Work hard, honesty, operate out of love and gratitude, fairness and equality</td>
<td>1st AIAW National Championship Basketball Committee – student representative Women’s Recreation Association – student representative Affiliated National Coaches Council – Chair NAGWS – President Board of Governors Representative ICHPER•SD – 1st Director of the Commission USA Volleyball – Vice President USOC – Deputy Delegate for AAHPERD</td>
<td>Career related (sexism, no promotion); No formal sport opportunities for girls as a child</td>
<td>Learned about organisation at AAPHERD convention from members who also invited to join congresses; Invited to take a leadership position for Board of Consultants by Margaret after years of membership</td>
<td>Paying member</td>
<td>President Past President</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mee Lee Leung</td>
<td>Chinese-Hongkongese</td>
<td>*Basketball, volleyball, track and field</td>
<td>B.Ed. Physical Education</td>
<td>University Professor and Head of Physical Education Department</td>
<td>Sports Federation Olympic Committee Hong Kong China Olympic Committee of Hong Kong-Secretary General Asian Bowling Federation – Secretary and Treasurer A number of governmental committees: Olympic committees, and subcommittees Centre of Olympic studies Hong Kong – Director IWG</td>
<td>Invited to give paper at Congress</td>
<td></td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Member</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* indicates main sport

Highest Level

Bachelor
Master
Doctorate

Parents values linked to volunteering values
Volunteering history – highest position held
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Ethnicity-Nationality</th>
<th>Sport (*) indicates main sport</th>
<th>Education qualifications</th>
<th>Employment history – highest level</th>
<th>Parents values linked to volunteering values</th>
<th>Memorable experiences of gender disadvantages</th>
<th>Entrance into IAPESGW</th>
<th>Details of involvement with WSI</th>
<th>Role: during interview</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Rosa Lopez de D’ Amico   | Latin American-Venezuelan | *Gymnastics  
International  
athlete,  
judge, and coach | B.Ed. English  
B.Ed. Physical Education  
M.Ed. English Literature  
Ed. D. Sport Management | University Professor | Honesty, support others, open home to others | Commented that researcher treated all Latin Americans the same in research; language barrier | Darlene invited to be member and invited to stand for post (mentored) | None | Board member |
| Gertrud Pfister            | White-German  
Lives in Denmark | Skiing, tennis, hiking, canoeing  
Recreational  
Education, Latin, and History  
PhD. Ancient history  
PhD Social sciences  
Post-doctoral Habilitation in Sociology of Sport | University Professor/Head of University Institute of Sport | Catholic ethics  
Women’s Research in Sport Sciences (informal working group) – founder  
German Sports Science – Member of Executive Board  
International Society for the History of Physical Education and Sport – President  
Berlin Sport Federation  
ISSA – President  
Gymnastics Federation – Vice President | Submitted a book for Dorothy Ainsworth contest at IAPESGW, won the award, and was invited to join the board | Prior to interview, paying member and friends with many women on Executive Committee. After interview, member of WSI board and now paying member of IAPESGW | Chair of Consultants Committee for IAPESGW  
Advisory board for WSI |
| Margaret Talbot            | White-British | B.Ed Physical Education  
M.Ed. Physical Education  
PhD. Physical Education and Social Sciences | Former University Professor and Head of Sport  
Currently Freelance Consultant in Sport and Physical Education (Principal at Margaret Talbot Consulting) | Make a contribution  
EWS – President  
ICSSPE – President  
IPC – Chair of Education Committee | Observation of women’s treatment in male dominated sport organisations; elimination of single-sex physical education classes | Invited to give paper at a Congress, and then invited by Pat Bowen – West to stand for Executive Board (mentored) | Paying member | Past President  
Honourable Life Member |
## Table 5.2 WomenSport International Research Participants’ Profiles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Sport (* indicates main sport)</th>
<th>Education (main subject)</th>
<th>Employment history – highest level</th>
<th>Parents values linked to volunteering values</th>
<th>Memorable experiences of gender disadvantage</th>
<th>Entrance into WSI</th>
<th>Details of involvement with IAPESGW</th>
<th>Role: during interview</th>
<th>Details of involvement with IAPESGW</th>
<th>Role: during interview</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Johanna Adriaanse</td>
<td>*Field hockey, soccer</td>
<td>B.Ed. Physical Education</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer in School of Leisure, Sport and Tourism</td>
<td>Religious and social conscience, help others around the world, work before play, honesty</td>
<td>Experienced numerous defining moments as a child and young adult</td>
<td>Invited to a session about WSI by Carole Oglesby; showed interest in leadership position and was invited by Carole to stand for board</td>
<td>Attended past Congresses and considered taking leadership position</td>
<td>Paying member</td>
<td>Member-at-large</td>
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<tr>
<td>White - Dutch</td>
<td>Dutch field hockey team</td>
<td>B.S. Sport Psychology</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lives in Australia</td>
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<td>M.Ed. Physical Education</td>
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<td>Gender and Governance in Australian Sporting Organisations</td>
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</table>
| Celia Brackenridge | *Lacrosse, track and field, swimming, field hockey, and cricket | Certificate of Education in physical education | Former University Professor | Honesty, energy, humour, passion for sport | Media interviews for lacrosse were taken as a joke | Wanting to start WISC to break away from IAPESGW, whilst interest was developing for WSI and she was invited to be a founding member of WSI | Paying member | Member-
<p>| White - British    | Captain of English lacrosse and British lacrosse | B.Ed PE (first person get a first in PE in Britain) | Currently: Professorial Research Fellow in School of Sport and Education | Lacrosse Association, Executive Committee subcommittees: publicity, finance – Chair WSF (UK)- inaugural Chair WISC – Founder UNICEF and IOC- contract researcher |                                             |                  |                                    |                      |                                    |                       |
|                    |                                | M.Ed. Physical Education |                                    |                                             |                                             |                  |                                    |                      |                                    |                       |
|                    |                                | PhD. Gender Relations and Sexual Exploitation in Sport |                                    |                                             |                                             |                  |                                    |                      |                                    |                       |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Sport (*) indicates main sport</th>
<th>Education (main subject)</th>
<th>Employment history – highest level</th>
<th>Parents values linked to volunteering values</th>
<th>Memorable experiences of gender disadvantage</th>
<th>Entrance into WSI</th>
<th>Details of involvement with IAPESGW</th>
<th>Role: during interview during submission</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Barbara Drinkwater</strong></td>
<td>White-American</td>
<td>*Basketball, baseball, badminton, synchronised swimming, field hockey, volleyball</td>
<td>Neighbourhood sports/intramural</td>
<td>University Professor/ retired as Research Physiologist in the Department of Medicine</td>
<td>Hard work, help others, better yourself whenever you have a chance</td>
<td>Not having formal opportunities to play sport, until university; being told by a woman (boss) that it is not appropriate for women to play sport; observed unequal studies to compared to women and men</td>
<td>Founding member</td>
<td>Presented at past Congresses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kari Fasting</strong></td>
<td>White-Norwegian</td>
<td>*Track and field, gymnastics</td>
<td>Norwegian track and field team</td>
<td>University Professor in Sport and Physical Education, Department of Social Sciences Honorary Professor of School of Sport and Education</td>
<td>Christian ethics Informal advocacy group (ad-hoc) Norwegian Track and Field Association Norwegian Olympic committee and Confederation of Sport in Norway EWS ISSA – President Norwegian Society of Sport Research – President</td>
<td>Career-related (not being promoted); women athletes could participate in limited athletic events</td>
<td>Founding member</td>
<td>Paying member Presented at past Congresses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>Education (main subject)</td>
<td>Employment history – highest level</td>
<td>Parents values linked to volunteering values</td>
<td>Volunteering history – highest position held</td>
<td>Memorable experiences of gender disadvantage</td>
<td>Entrance into WSI</td>
<td>Details of involvement with IAPESGW</td>
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<tr>
<td>Carole Oglesby</td>
<td>*Softball</td>
<td>B.Ed. Physical Education</td>
<td>Former University Professor of Emeritus in Sport psychology Currently: University Professor and Chairperson in Kinesiology</td>
<td>Honesty, importance of being physically active, religious ethics</td>
<td>AIAW – 1st President NAGWS- President National Women’s Conference in Houston- organised torch relay from Seneca Falls to Houston World Universidad Games – Women’s representative USOC- House of Delegates USOC - Sport Psychology Registry IWG</td>
<td>Reading “science books” during undergrad to find that they did not tell the truth about women in sport</td>
<td>One of the original members and was invited to be officer</td>
<td>Presented past Congresses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christine Shelton</td>
<td>*Tennis</td>
<td>B.Ed. Physical Education</td>
<td>University Professor in the Exercise and Sport Studies Department</td>
<td>Have fun, love what you do, strong Christian ethics</td>
<td>Peace Corps (Venezuela) NAGWS – Executive Director AIAW – University representative WSF – President ICHPER•SD – Director for Latin American Project IAPESGW – vice president IWG – representative of Americas</td>
<td>Viewed racial discrimination during high school; experienced class discrimination; victim of Title IX threats</td>
<td>After leaving IAPESGW leadership, invited to leadership position on WSI</td>
<td>Former vice president</td>
</tr>
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Tables 5.1 and 5.2 provided an overview of information about the women. The remainder of this section presents the qualitative data from the women to develop a fuller, richer picture about the participants, with direct quotations presented in italics. The account begins by presenting the women’s sport experiences and how they developed their sporting identities. Next it addresses the women’s educational and volunteer experiences, opportunities, and interests. This then leads to the women identifying disadvantages within sport and education that led to their interests in challenging inequalities in sport. This discussion cannot move forward without recognising the women’s interests, involvement, and knowledge of, or the lack of knowledge of, the feminist perspectives and where they saw sport fitting into the bigger picture. Therefore, the section concludes with a discussion about feminism in the women’s lives.

**Importance of sport**

Sport was a central component of the women’s identities and had been from an early age. Twelve women participated in sport at a competitive level and all fifteen women engaged in some level of physical activity. These early sport identities had long-term effects as they assisted in constructing and impacting many decisions made throughout the women’s lives, such as choosing to study physical education or to volunteer in sport. Their sport identities were constructed within a variety of sports, and the women reported participating at a wide range of levels, from recreational to the elite level of their times (internationally). Tables 5.1 and 5.2 provided an overview of the sports in which the women participated. The interviews provided detailed accounts of the women’s reported experiences of sport, and, therefore, the purpose of this section is to present the women’s accounts of their sport participation.

The participants’ past sport engagement ranged from non-competitive to competitive and organised to unorganised. For instance, Barbara was born in the early twentieth century in the USA when girls’ participation in sport was strongly discouraged but boys’ sport was common or mainstream. She recalled not having opportunities to play organised sport in her youth, and, therefore, she only played at a recreational level. She played badminton in her backyard and pick-up baseball games with her friends where she often played first base because she was tall. Her first opportunity to play organised
sport was when she began working on her Bachelor’s degree, and her university offered intramural sports (recreational but on a competitive basis). She was so interested in sport that she participated in as many activities as she could: synchronised swimming, field hockey, and volleyball. In the late 1940s and early 1950s, this was the extent of organised opportunities available to Barbara.

Four other participants (Johanna, Darlene, Carole, and Maryam) also noted having fewer opportunities to participate in sport than boys. Despite the differences in time periods in the USA, Darlene’s experiences in the late 1950s and early 1960s were similar to Barbara’s as Darlene was not able to play organised sports until she went to university in 1968, and at this time they were just beginning intercollegiate athletics ... so we started out playing in white shirts with navy shorts and pinnies. Darlene illustrated the low status of women’s sport by recounting how at the end of most athletic seasons in typical American sports, athletes were awarded with a token (varsity letter) to show they played a university sport. Darlene explained that she and other women did not receive this at the time, but finally did 30 years later. The university ... brought back any woman who had played from the 1950s and on in some form of intercollegiate athletics, and after 30 years for playing four years of volleyball, I got my varsity letter. This was a significant moment for Darlene as she could see and be part of women’s sport advancing.

Other participants had limited access to sport during their childhoods. Johanna always loved football and wanted to play organised football as a child, but there were no girl’s teams in the Netherlands in the 1960s. During the interview, she spent a lot of time reflecting on her childhood and discussing the fact that boys could play organised football whilst girls could not. Therefore, because she loved the game, she chose to stay after school as often as she could to play pick-up games in the schoolyard with her male classmates and her brothers. However, what was different between Johanna’s experience from Barbara’s and Darlene’s experiences was that Johanna did have the opportunity to play some organised sports as a child, and she chose to play field hockey. Johanna felt it was similar to football which is why she chose it over other acceptable female sports that were offered.
The majority of participants who had access to organised sport explained that they felt sport was great during their childhoods, which strengthened their sport identities. Some of the women’s sport paths took them from local to national to international levels. Johanna, Kari, Celia, Rosa, and Mee Lee followed their sport paths to play at the most elite level (international) in the 1970s and 1980s. Some of the women were even part of teams that won medals at World Cups. Therefore, beyond sport being a central part of the participants’ lifestyles and identity from an early age, it was also an area of strong participation and achievement that was formally recognised.

Gertrud and Tansin were the only two participants who did not show interest in competitive sport and participated at a recreational level. In fact, Tansin identified never being interested in the competitive nature of sport, and looking back she stated the games, hockey sticks on the legs, violence, hated it! Instead, she was inspired by the movement of the body, and, therefore, she was involved with gymnastics and dance, mostly at a non-competitive level. Tansin did, however, indicate that because of her body awareness, she proved to be talented in sport during physical education classes. Gertrud had a very similar outlook on sport as she suggested that she

... never aspired to be in the Olympics or whatever, so I did my sport and I loved it ... in the spring, in the morning we would go and find the last snow in the mountains and then we would go sailing in the afternoons at the lake near us, and we would bike to the lake and swim. So I love to do this, but I never aspired to be competitive or go to the Olympics.

The women in this study highlighted the variation of their sporting opportunities, experiences, and interests. Some of the women in this study appeared to be relatively advantaged within sport compared to their female peers because they had some opportunities to participate. Carole recalled playing softball in the ‘50s when most girls were being degraded for participating in sport. Carole’s parents supported her and would tell her 'yeah go do it, that’s great', followed me around throughout California. Overall, these findings highlight that all the interviewees had access to sport at some level, which enabled them to construct substantial sporting identities.
From sport to educational choices

The women followed a direct path from high school to university. The majority of women’s interests in sport and their developing sporting identities led many of them to pursue a degree in a related subject. This means the women went from a personal interest from participation in sport and physical activity to an intellectual journey focusing on sport. Table 5.1 and 5.2 provided an overview of the educational backgrounds and qualifications of the women. The purpose of this section is to present the women’s accounts of their educational experiences.

Sport was such an important aspect in the women’s lives that fourteen of the fifteen women decided to take a degree in a sport-related subject. Celia explained that in those days [1960s-1970s] sport meant PE; there was only one route in a career if you were keen on sport and that was to be a PE teacher. Nowadays you can do all kinds of things ... even coaching was not a profession. This was echoed by other participants (Barbara, Carole, Darlene, Tansin, Margaret, and Lynn) who recalled having to put themselves forward to study PE. This was not always a straightforward choice as Celia remembered being called in to see her school principal during A-levels and being told that she was a big disappointment to the school because I was choosing to go to phys ed college instead of going to university. At the time, physical education was not viewed as being academic, and, due to Celia’s success as a student, she was capable of going to university to study a more academic-focused degree. But her response to the criticism was ‘tough, I’m going to phys ed college’. She [the principal] was very disappointed [because] it was seen as a lesser thing to do. After completing her Certificate of Education at Bedford College of Physical Education, Celia went to the University of Cambridge where her main areas of study were educational psychology, neuroanatomy, educational sociology, and physical education. Her dissertation topic was physical education, and she explained that when completing her degree she got a 1st, which was the best degree you could get. I was the first person in Britain to get a first in physical education. Yet as she remembers choosing this path and having good results, she explained that such choices were not encouraged. In Venezuela, Rosa had a similar experience, but it was her mother who did not want her to study physical education because of the poor status of PE. Therefore, Rosa initially studied English, to satisfy
her mother, and then a year after starting the first degree she added physical education to her curriculum as a second major.

The women’s accounts of their educational choices highlighted women’s situations and options of that time. The majority of women who were born between the 1920s and late 1950s noted that their adult options were limited: *I could get married, I could be a secretary, I could become a nurse, or I could become a teacher. That was it!* (Barbara) Due to the sport situation in the USA, studying physical education was becoming acceptable for women at an earlier time than for many of the participants from other Westernised societies. Moreover, physical education was a gateway for many of these women to continue to be involved in sport, but from an academic perspective. Many of the women continued as they advanced their capabilities through postgraduate degrees outside of physical education such as pedagogy, psychology, motor learning, and history. However, some women continued to study PE, but at a more intense level. It was evident that sport and physical education were important components in these women’s lives.

Thus far, this section points out that the women not only developed their sport identity through their enjoyment as participants, but they also developed an intellectual relationship with sport. This personal interest prepared the women for their professional careers, as fourteen of the women worked in academia and one woman worked in IT on a part-time basis. Overall, this section reports how the women’s developed interests in sport and physical activity sparked their intellectual interests in sport.

**Volunteering history**

The women participated in a range of volunteering activities. The majority of their service was in sport settings. Tables 5.1 and 5.2 presented the women’s volunteer history, representing a variety of sport organisations that ranged from national to international, and varied between male-dominated to female-focused settings. The tables also show that the research participants occupied positions of power and leadership. This section examines how, when, and why these women began to volunteer in sport, and therefore, this section is concerned with the ‘when’ the women
began volunteering, and it concludes by identifying some of the interviewees volunteering constraints.

The participants highlighted their earliest involvement to volunteering activities. In the UK, sport is based on voluntary labour, and Celia remembered that she

... joined a club when I was fourteen, so fairly quickly I got into understanding how clubs work ... one day someone asked if I would come along and just take the minutes and help out. So I said ‘sure, I’ll come’ it was a meeting in London. And within a couple of years, I found I’m chairing the Publicity Committee.

She suggested that her lack of knowledge about volunteering led her to unconsciously learn about volunteering in sport. Carole and Christine also began volunteering around the age of fourteen during high school in the USA which offered opportunities to join general clubs. Both Carole and Christine recalled having the opportunity to take leadership roles in all the clubs in high school, such as student body, state student government, school newspaper, and other high school-based organisations. Celia, Carole, and Christine had opportunities from the age of 14 to be in positions of power and to volunteer alongside of other people with the same interests.

Susi-Käthi, Darlene, and Rosa began volunteering whilst in university. Both Susi-Käthi and Darlene felt that student-run organisations were marvellous (Darlene) because they provided students with experiences of leadership. Rosa’s doctoral supervisor stressed the importance of getting involved with a professional organisation based on voluntary service, and, because her supervisor was a founding member of the International Society for Comparative Physical Education and Sport (ISCPES), she recruited Rosa to help with conferences and attend meetings. Getting involved with professional associations that were based on volunteer service was common when the women attended university. Barbara, Celia, Darlene, Lynn, and Christine, for example, suggested that they did not previously know about the organisations, which they joined (e.g., IAPESGW), but they knew that they had something to do with their academic major: physical education and sport.

On the other hand, Gertrud, Johanna, Tansin, Maryam, and Kari recalled getting involved in voluntary organisations later in life. Johanna was in her profession and was
interested in the gender issues in sport and, therefore, began to get involved in both formal and informal organisations. Tansin was a volunteer gymnastic coach and international judge, but she did not get involved with organisational structures until her research guided her to focus on Muslim women. In addition, the research participants for this study were more likely to have a role model or be mentored into volunteering. Tansin explained that people like Margaret in my profession ... I respect because of what they do, a lot of it in voluntary time; I suppose those who I admire the most are those who have given the most for nothing, like Gudrun [Doll-Tepper]. Likewise, Darlene revealed observing Karen Johnson, representing USA volleyball, when Karen Johnson was serving on a panel of people who were discussing volleyball, and Darlene was impressed by Karen Johnson’s leadership position. I said to myself, gosh, I didn’t know her at all but it was volleyball. This would really be cool, if I could be like Karen Johnson, be a leader ... [therefore] if I saw something that would say volunteer for whatever, I would volunteer to be on a committee. The women explained how they learned about volunteering and illustrated that they enjoyed their service.

However, the women also explained learning early that volunteering wasn’t all a barrel of laughs (Celia) as the women did encounter various constraints. Carole, for example, discussed a social concern that she had to consider when she was President of Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), the women’s collegiate athletic organisation, in 1969-1971 because it was problematic for a person’s career to do that job because it was still controversial whether women should go in this direction, especially professional women; there were some women who thought it would be the end of sport, the way we do sport. The women’s service in women-based organisation was viewed as threatening or challenging male-dominated organisations and even social norms. Due to the social constructions of women’s sport being inappropriate or masculine, women’s participation and promotion of sport was not acceptable and could be damaging.

The participants also discussed that they had to learn how to work with different groups of people, particularly with groups of women. Celia and Christine discussed needing to learn about working with women who have different viewpoints. Celia, for example, stated that working with different types of feminists gave her a migraine as there were particular committee procedures, and as a volunteer you learn that. Likewise,
Christine described the situation: *when you get to working with women’s issues and causes, you suddenly have this broad spectrum of people who are very different from you, women who you don’t even like, but you have to stick together under some umbrella.* These experiences were based on service within national organisational bodies and were referred to as being similar to a ‘culture shock’ as they had to learn to deal with women’s differences.

Along with learning to deal with differences, one volunteer constraint addressed by the majority of participants was lack of time. Lynn explained that because of the large time demand, as a volunteer, there were incidences when she did not get to do as much as she initially anticipated or wanted. Lynn explained that as she looked back on her work with Federation Internationale d’Education Physique (FIEP), she wished that she would have done more, and, therefore, she continued (after leaving the board) to write reports for the Bulletin and maintained her friendships with other members. Celia understood this time demand starting when she participated on the international lacrosse team, served on the board, and had a job. She illustrated that volunteering was time demanding:

*I can remember one year keeping track of how many hours I spent travelling to meetings compared with how many hours I spent playing the game, and it was something like seven or eight to one; every hour I spent on the field. I was spending seven or eight hours either travelling or in committee meetings. So that was an interesting moment because then I realised what support system there is underneath the playing of the sport and all of that is hidden; it’s a bit like an ice berg, you see the top, you see the game, but you don’t always see this massive voluntary labour going on underneath.*

Celia recalled realising at a young age that sport volunteering was very time-consuming. Yet, she continued to volunteer since 1964, suggesting that there is something that keeps her interested in voluntary work. This is similar with the other sport volunteers in this study, and it will be furthered explored in the next chapter.
Developing an understanding of the need for advocacy and activism

The women learned through their experiences within sport and on their career-paths that girls and women in sport and physical education were not taken seriously. Indeed, these women identified with their sport and with physical education, so when they experienced significant disadvantages in their lives, it fuelled their future interests in advocating equality. The women recounted several personal and observed experiences of gendered constraints in sport and physical activity (see Tables 5.1 and 5.2). The purpose of this section is to highlight these stories to show how the women developed their concern for advancing girls and women in sport and physical education. The section is divided in four sections: experiences in sport, experiences in education, experiences in workplace, and presence of feminist consciousness.

Experiences in sport

Some participants identified disadvantages experienced within sport. Johanna specifically wrote down defining (memorable) moments in her life surrounding sport that played a large part in the construction her activist identity. She recalled that some moments started from a very young age between the late 1950s and late 1960s in informal settings when she was playing football in the schoolyard. For example, one day she was waiting to play football with the boys, and one boy told her that she could not be there, and that, instead, she should go home to play with her dollies. That day Johanna remembered being chosen as the third person for a team, which was important because it showed the boy that told her to go home, and herself, that the other boys wanted her there and respected her as a player. Another defining moment in her life was when she went sailing with a group of 12 males (this setting was more formal than the schoolyard).

I love sailing, and in Holland you need to do a diploma in swimming because there is so much water around it, that is a government initiative in sport ... my father bought this little sailing boat for us [Johanna and her sister] and that sparked the interest in sailing. And then I went ocean sailing when I was about, I think 18, and it was on a ketch, which is a boat that has two masts. We sailed
from the north of Holland to Norway and Sweden and we were with a crew of 12. As we were going to Norway across the North Sea we could almost see Kristiansand on the Southern part of Norway and that was our destination for the time. It was totally still on the water, and all of a sudden this enormous storm came up and we had all the sails up so it was havoc and, we had the front sail up and it tore, the whole sail tore immediately. It went underneath the boat and someone had to retrieve that and get it out. Without saying too much, apart from the skipper, I was probably the one who was the most experienced sailor much more than the other people, as I told you I have been sailing since I had the diploma B in swimming, so that was when I was 10 years old and every summer we were out on the boat and so on. So I said I will go and pick up the sail. You had to go across and it was storming sea and someone had to go to the front of the boat and pick up that sail and then the skipper said to me ‘no, you can’t go there you are a girl’ and then he sent one of the boys to do it. I said ‘Look I’m by far the most experienced, he properly doesn’t know how to get it off’. In any case there was no discussion about it, I wasn’t allowed to go.

A third defining moment that Johanna shared was in a structured situation when she was in her early 20s and representing Holland’s national field hockey team. At this time, the men’s and women’s field hockey teams were both playing their World Cups in Holland. Johanna remembered that the men were staying in the Hilton Hotel in Amsterdam. Now that was top of the range, five-star, beautiful! The women’s team was accommodated in student accommodation. The women’s team won their World Cup whilst the men lost. This indicated that the women’s team was good, but because women’s sport endeavours were not taken seriously, they were obviously treated inferior to male sports. Johanna described the differences in accommodations as an example of unequal treatment. Reflecting on these defining moments, Johanna explained that you always remember, not so much the moment it actually happened but later you remember that things were not quite right. She continued by stating that:

I suppose that [these experiences] sort of shaped your thinking and formed your life and you think, why am I really involved in women’s sport? Well I think because of those individual experiences where you think things are not quite right! These experiences, I think, have sparked my interest in women’s sport.
Johanna explained that she did not understand these experiences until she reflected on them. This was similar for Celia as she also recognised that she wanted to challenge gender inequalities based on her own experiences. She explained that when she was the captain of both the English and British Lacrosse teams in the 1970s, she found that media interviews were treated like a joke because [women's] lacrosse is seen as a minority sport and it was always seen as a novelty, so the piece in the press would always start with the red Indian theme$^3$ or something. It was never treated seriously. Celia was aware that male sports were not treated the same and could acknowledge that the media treated them differently.

Barbara encountered situations where she was told that it was not acceptable for her to participate in sport in the 1950s. This was after she got a taste of participating in organised sport through intramurals at university and coached girls’ basketball as her first job. Yet when she took her first academic post in Nebraska, she was told that she could not participate in basketball or referee volleyball at a recreational level during her free-time. *I got called into the office of [her boss] and she said ‘Barbara it is totally inappropriate for a member of my department to be competing in sport’. I said ‘What?’ ‘It is inappropriate for young women to engage in competitive sport’. This wasn’t the 1800s this was in the 1950s, 1952 in fact.* Her boss continued by saying *‘So I understand that you are also officiating’, and I said ‘Yeah I am’. ‘And so that is inappropriate because you are encouraging this activity’. So I said, ‘Well I am not going to stop’ and she said ‘Well that is not going to help your career at all’. I said ‘I am sure it is not going to’. That was the last year I spent at University of Nebraska.* Barbara used this example to explain that it is women as much as men that kept women down. If you go back and look into the history of women as athletes there are an awful lot of women that should be embarrassed. Barbara continued to learn that some women did not approve of females in sport especially at competitive levels, and this angered her as she said *play days don’t, intramurals don’t, it is the competition that really pushes you to become a better athlete.*

$^3$ Red Indian theme where the press focused on the origin of the game of Lacrosse to make it sound interesting instead of recognising the seriousness of women’s Lacrosse
Another memorable experience Barbara shared was from the 1960s when she was involved with the Division for Girls' and Women's Sports (DGWS). She was the Chair of the Basketball Committee. When analysing the game, Barbara realised that there were two factors limiting women in basketball. First, there were lines on the court that girls could not cross which restricted their movements. However, most of the girls that played basketball also played field hockey, where players run for 30 minutes without any breaks (time outs). Second, on defence in basketball, players could only hold their hands up and not touch or grab the ball from the offense. Barbara felt that the fact that you have it [the ball] doesn’t mean you are going to keep it, guard it. As Chair of the Basketball Committee, she wanted to address these limitations and aimed to increase the pace of the game, and therefore, Barbara proposed that the person with the best cardiovascular could roam as a rover and the players could grab the ball out of their opponents hands. She was called in front of the DGWS committee who said to her ‘Barbara, for a woman to grab the ball from another woman is very unlady-like’. I said ‘Well I’m sorry, but we [the Basketball Committee] think that is quite appropriate because it speeds the game up, makes the game more competitive’. Barbara was in a position of power and these rules were changed and stuck with women’s basketball in the USA, but these experiences were valuable for her as they illustrated that women struggled to understand where women’s sport fit in society and with social norms.

Barbara’s experiences were indeed different to other participants in other countries and during different time periods as the perceptions, interests, and acceptance of girls and women’s sport and physical activity were changing. However, unlike Johanna’s and Celia’s experiences, Barbara was in more of a position to challenge discrimination as she was in a position of power to change rules, particularly in basketball.

Experiences in education

The interviewees also identified key experiences and interactions in their pathways leading up to their careers and in their professions that sparked their interests to advocate gender equity. Carole (from the USA) and Rosa (from Venezuela) referred to developing their interests during their undergraduate studies. They found that what was being said about women and their abilities in sport was not accurate. Carole explained that, when she was in university in the late 1950s and early 1960s she was
... reading the “science books” about PE and the human bodies of men and women and stuff like that. There was all this crap in there about women can’t do this and can’t do this and this was supposedly science; I had just been out seeing 50 or 60 women who were doing all these things the weekend before; playing softball and basketball and volleyball and track and all that stuff. I mean when people are trying to fill your head with stuff and you have eyeball experience the day before that says that stuff they are telling you is bull, if you are me … I’m not going to pass on a lie this garbage that is being passed along about women and their capabilities, that is a lie! I was going to say it was a lie and nobody was going to stop me from saying it was a lie!

Darlene (from the USA) acknowledged that in the late 1960s and early 1970s her professors and lecturers, who were in the middle of the women’s sport movement, provided her with leadership opportunities in volunteering settings as well as taught her about women’s situations in sport. Therefore, some participants identified the inequalities in sport and physical education through academic books and educators.

**Experiences in the workplace**

The participants also revealed that within their professions they learned about gender inequalities through observation or personal experiences. Barbara, for example, was working at the Institute of Environmental Stress in California, USA, in the 1960s where studies were being conducted to learn about the general population’s fitness levels. She realised that studies on men were being conducted on individuals in shape whilst studies on women used women who were unfit and not the ones already in shape like the men in similar studies. She knew that this was not valid and insisted that women of equivalent fitness levels to the men be tested for credible research.

Other participants noted personal experiences which were memorable in the workplace. Lynn and Johanna pointed out that they found the treatment of women PE teachers to be unfair in Australia. Lynn realised that women PE teachers were paid less than men, and therefore, when she realised this, she joined the union and lobbied to get equal rights for women teachers. Johanna encountered barriers when she took time off to have children.
and found that when she was ready to return to work in the 1980s, her position was not available, and her institution would not offer her part-time work.

Christine from the USA became a victim of harassment and abuse after filing a Title IX suit in 1973 because her basketball players had to *practice on a top floor that was over concrete and when we went to championships we would be on wooden floors*. We had asked if we could use this [the school’s] wooden floor gym. *We were told absolutely no because the boys were going to the championship*, implying that the boy’s tournament was more important than the girl’s tournament. Christine was passionate about offering her players the opportunity to play basketball and to provide access and the needed resources. However, filing a Title IX suit one year after the legislation was passed made Christine’s life miserable. *It was a pretty nasty year*. I mean they’d find lots of ways to harass you: *egg your car, slice your tires, call your name over the intercom as being late*. Yet what Christine got from that experience was *we went on notice saying that you gotta do some things differently*. That was important because she found that her peers in similar situations were not speaking up and challenging this sort of treatment. In Christine’s case, her initial attempts to address gender inequality in accordance with Title IX provoked a hostile response which made her views much stronger. Many of the women noted that they began to construct their understanding for the need to challenge gender issues through their sport, education, and professional experiences.

**Presence of feminist consciousness**

Thus far, this section illustrates that the participants experienced their own frustrations within sport, physical education, and professions. This was reflective of the wider feminist movements of the times, although these women’s relationships with feminism varied markedly. Carole was the only participant who reported growing up with feminist values as she identified her mother as a feminist. Other participants described how they came to learn about feminism as they were able to link the perspectives to their personal experiences, whilst a few participants revealed that they do not in fact identify with feminist perspectives.
Carole constructed her understanding of gender equality from her experiences within her family as she described women in her family, particularly her mother, to be *very adamant about women having a role that included their family and women’s responsibility, but it didn’t stop there; we weren’t supposed to be only existing inside the living room or the kitchen or in a home.* Carole grew up with the knowledge that women were just as important as men, they have a view and they may have a mission, a life mission that is broader, that is in the public realm. Coming from a traditional two-parent heterosexual home, she thought it was also important to explain how her father felt about raising a daughter in the 1940s to view herself and other females as being equal to men. *I think my father started out as a rather traditional man, but he was married to my mother and he chose my mother and she was very feminist oriented, although we didn’t have those words at the time.* Carole reported that her mother wanted women to have as many opportunities as possible. For instance, Carole was encouraged in sport because her parents both played sport. What was remarkable for Carole was that her mother played sport when people in power were trying to eradicate women’s sport in the USA:

*So the lore of our family was both my mom and my dad were both top athletes and they thought it was great to be an athlete. In 1930 or ’34 or something like that, my mom played on the state basketball team, she played in the state finals for high school basketball. During that time, National Association for Girls and Women in Sport (NAGWS), the girls and women’s sport part of The American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance (AAHPERD), worked with the women’s movement in the US in the late 1920s and the 30s to actually squash competitive sport for women. So my mum was lucky enough to play high school basketball in Oklahoma before the squash took place. It was kind of like the lore of our family, the tale of her game. They were playing in front of crowds of probably 10,000 people and it was a hot ticket for the girls’ basketball high school championship in Oklahoma. Girls’ basketball persisted even after the squashing.*

Carole had a positive example, and she was encouraged to play, which is a type of support that some of the participants in this study revealed that they did not have. Due to her background and interests, Carole constructed *this consciousness that it was*
important for us to merge the general women’s issues and the sport resources to one another. That it could be so effective if we just were in actual collaboration. Carole realised that there were not many other women who saw the value in merging the feminist movement into sport. She highlighted how feminists viewed women’s sport as teaching discriminatory beliefs because sport was created for and by men whilst sportswomen were not always aware or did not always agree with the feminist movements.

Other participants did not access feminist values at a young age. For instance, in the late 1970s when Celia was in her late 20s, she began reading feminist literature and sociology, at the same time, the scales fell from my eyes and I began to see things in a different way. Celia reflected back on her life, not only her sport career, but the way that she, and her sport, were treated as if it was a joke and

... it made sense when I started to read the theory, so I had this practical experience playing sport and not getting recognition for the publicity that we deserved. Then when I started to read about feminism, ‘ah ha’ the big moment, the ‘ah ha’ moment, eureka, it suddenly began to make sense to me. This is a part of a wider system of inequality that’s going on in sports.

As she continued to read, she learned about the things that she missed. Celia highlighted in a detailed explanation:

I am haunted by my own history; I started in this kind of field very late. I started my activism late, my political awareness came late, my theoretical understanding came late, my research career came late, and I’ve always been trying to catch-up. What I’m passionate about for the next generation of leaders is that they understand where their history has come from. So they don’t find themselves in the trap that I did where they have to keep looking back and catching up. I want them to be aware now ... I went sailing through my sports career, not a thought for anyone on either side of me, totally selfish, totally privileged, and it wasn’t until I got towards the end of it and I started to see what was going on around me, and I thought, oh my god you know I’ve been so selfish, so arrogant. I don’t want that to happen for the next generation, I want
them to be politicised now, that is why I want students to go through courses of sociology and sport. I want them to understand gender issues and gender inequalities, homophobia and all those sorts of things, but a lot of young women think that was passé, equal opportunities was something we earned that years ago, but I am afraid there is still a fight to be fought. So politicising young women in sport for me is a passion; it’s very very important…. I would like to think that one can be an elite performer in sport and at the same time have a social conscience, but maybe I am expecting too much of people, ’cause I couldn’t do it, I didn’t do it. Myself at that stage is full of big regrets. I missed Che Guevara, I missed the Chicago student riots, I missed the anti-Vietnam protests, I missed the birth of feminism. I was just too busy preparing for the next game. I didn’t notice all that stuff going on and I really really regret that and I felt quite embarrassed about that. I went through college from 1968: 1968 is the most exciting year in the history of student politics. Did I notice? No! Didn’t know a thing. 10 years before I realised what had gone on in 1968, you know a very turbulent time in student politics, race riots, civil riots, feminist’s riots, all of that, it was the most exciting time if you look in history books and I hadn’t got a clue.

Celia’s belated understanding of gender issues left her having a sense of guilt and disgust with herself. This was consistent with Gertrud as she too revealed getting involved with women’s issues late in life. Like Celia, Gertrud felt as if she slept through the phase of this [feminist] movement. However, she also argued that addressing social issues has always taken longer in sport. Gertrud recalled not beginning to address these topics until she obtained a job where her boss asked her to write about the history of women in physical education and sport for a sport reader. I found really there was nothing, nearly nothing [already written] and there were a lot of sources and it was so interesting to work on it (Gertrud). She wondered why there was such limited information, and from there she developed an increased interest in women’s sport and physical education history. This led her to join IAPESGW because the association was a place where people could discuss topics focused on girls and women.
There were a few women during the interviews who did not see themselves as feminists; Rosa insisted she was more of a womanist than a feminist. Darlene also suggested that I did not personally see myself so much as a feminist ... I’ve seen myself as a human being who is trying to make conditions better for girls and boys through sport. She suggested that due to the message of transforming the institution of sport to be more equitable for all people globally, she feels that there are times when she is not the right messenger. [Instead] it may be some man who is going to carry the message who is the right messenger because the other men won’t listen to a woman. I have always tried to be more concerned with the message rather than me being the messenger because many times I might not be the right messenger, in my opinion. Despite agreeing with overarching values of feminisms, some participants were not interested in the labels or did not agree with all the concepts.

Beyond the differences in time periods, social/cultural values and norms, and experiences, these women came to these organisations with different worldviews. This is evident throughout the previous section as only one woman had had the feminist foundations needed to consider women’s experiences in sport and society in sport based on gender discrimination. Other research participants searched to find ways to deal with their frustrations, and eventually many of the women began to learn and embrace feminism. This explains their situations and positions within sport and their professions as it all began to make sense. Celia referred to it as the ‘ah ha’ moment, as it was a relief to know that other women had these same experiences, struggles, questions, and interests. There were also a few women who did not agree with the feminist label, despite knowing and understanding feminist theories. These women used their own concepts, perspectives, and worldviews to realise and illustrate that sport is gendered. It is significant that all these women work collectively to advance the structure of sport and women’s positions within the institution. In addition, these collective interests have constructed the research participants’ advocacy identities.

The research participants as sport volunteers

The biographical frame of reference introduces the women in the study through the exploration of their backgrounds, and it identifies how the research participants
constructed their knowledge about sport and physical education, gender issues, and voluntary activities. This information places volunteers who work within IAPESGW and WSI into context. This section developed a profile about these women as sport volunteers, which has been done by other researchers but typically by combining female and male participants (Doherty, 2005; Nichols & Padmore, 2005). Yet this thesis is unique in its examination of women who have volunteered in a leadership capacity in international women’s sport organisations. It became obvious throughout this section that these women have a number of specific characteristics which may distinguish them from other female sport volunteers.

The profile developed in this section indicates that all the participants had previous history within sport, and this assisted in the construction of their identities, supporting the work of Bouchet and Lehe (2010), Busser and Carruthers (2010), and Harvey and Lévesque (2005). This existing work simply focuses on whether participants ever engaged in sport, whilst the current study shows that the women are former athletes and some even participated at an international level. Moreover, all the women expressed enjoying their childhood sport and this had an impact on the construction of their sport identities. Harvey and Lévesque (2005) asserted that, for this reason, childhood sport participation is a strong indicator of future sport volunteering. The women also suggested that their sport identity is developed through their participation in group-based settings, as some women played group-based sports (e.g., basketball or volleyball) and others credited service to women’s voluntary organisations.

The women in this study were distinguished in their education and employment experiences. Doherty (2005) and Nichols et al. (2005) suggested that education could predict voluntary activities as well as volunteering roles. The women in the current study are highly educated and are (or have been) in successful professional roles, supporting Coleman (2002) and Harvey and Lévesque (2005). In addition, the women came to occupy the highest roles within voluntary organisations (both male-dominated and woman-centred). This supports Doherty’s (2005) research which suggests that these high-level voluntary roles are likely to be attained because such sport volunteers are well established in their professions.
The profile also illustrates that the majority of women had previous volunteer experience before engaging with IAPESGW or WSI. This suggests that previous voluntary work impacts future service, which is consistent with Busser and Carruthers (2010), Harvey and Lévesque (2005), and Jarvis and Blank (2011). Some of the women indicated that their childhood voluntary activities were significant and even impacted their future work, which Eley and Kirk (2002) suggested is because volunteering at a young age prepares an individual for volunteering later in life.

The final characteristic developed for this profile is the research participants’ memorable disadvantaging experiences that sparked or impacted interests in women’s international sport organisations. The majority of the women were able to identify some experiences that sparked or strengthened their interest in such organisations, supporting Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam’s (1998) suggestion that unique experiences tend to motivate people to volunteer. Women’s memorable experiences guided them to an organisation where they could work to advance opportunities for girls and women in a field in which they enjoyed (sport and physical education). The women indicated that having different perspectives were acceptable, as some women identified with feminist values from a young age, others discovered feminism later in life, and some rejected the labels.

The profile developed for the research participants represent former athletes who had a sport/physical activity identity; women who were highly educated and are in high status roles within their professions; individuals who constructed values for volunteering at a young age and have previous volunteer involvement; and people who are guided by memorable experiences of disadvantage that led them to learn or put them in positions to gain increased knowledge about gender disadvantage.

The women’s sporting identities, their interests and experiences within their education, volunteering experience, gained knowledge about disadvantages, and their link to the feminist movement were all factors in line with the women’s voluntary service in women-based organisations. It is against this background that the women got involved with volunteering activities, within IAPESGW and WSI, which are vehicles for change. The section that follows presents the information needed to understand IAPESGW and WSI within the organisational environment.
Getting to know IAPESGW and WSI:
Organisational environment

The dimension of organisational environment addresses how IAPESGW and WSI were established along with the research participants’ accounts of the organisations in the twenty-first century. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004), this dimension is concerned with volunteers’ perceptions of the organisations and their perceived value (see Table 3.1). The organisations’ archives are presented in this section prior to the participants’ perceptions of the organisations in order to (1) provide a general overview about IAPESGW and WSI which may provide insights into the rationale, process and effort needed to establish a women’s international sport organisations; and (2) complement the life history data. The archives are significant because they preserve IAPESGW’s and WSI’s records and histories, and illustrate the organisations’ structures and cultures.

As suggested in Chapter Four, archives can be used to highlight an organisation’s culture. Further, this assists with understanding why and how outsiders view an organisational setting in a particular way. Then, since experiences and personal perceptions of an environment may differ for individuals, the life history interviews are used to further understand how the participants constructed their own perceptions of the settings. The use of these two tools together places the organisation into the context as an appropriate setting for volunteering activities.

In the proceeding section, the development of both IAPESGW and WSI is presented, and it will become evident that their histories of the way they were established are very different. For example, the WSI emerged out of IAPESGW in a response of being unhappy with the association’s approach to change. Organisational archives are used to explain the organisations’ histories in their infancy years. Due to IAPESGW being established in 1949, communication amongst members and with other organisations was slower in their founding years than when WSI emerged in 1993. Therefore, information about IAPESGW is reported from 1949-1959 and information about WSI from 1993-1998.
The history of IAPESGW is based on the following types of archives: meeting reports, speeches, congress programs, questionnaires, the constitution, newsletters, annual reports, and correspondence between leaders, between leaders and members, and between the association and other organisations. Information presented about WSI utilises the following archives: information sheet, newsletters, briefing notes, organisational summaries, organisational reports, and correspondence between leaders, between leaders and members, and between the organisation and other organisations. In addition, three research participants from WSI are also founding members, so, when appropriate, their accounts of the development of WSI will be presented after each appropriate archival topic.

This section presents the archival information about IAPESGW in *establishing the origin of IAPESGW* and then the participant narratives are presented in *IAPESGW as an environment for volunteers*. Since three research participants were founders of WSI, some of their narratives will be interwoven with the archival topics in the *establishing the origin section of WSI* and the others will be in the *WSI as an environment for volunteering*. Similar to the profile section, the narrative quotes are italicised and the quotes from the archives are in quotation marks. Following this section, the research participants’ accounts of exclusionary practices within IAPESGW and WSI are presented. This section summarises where the women’s sport organisations are situated along with general sport organisations. The chapter concludes with a discussion about the SOV and how the dimensions are used in this study.

**Establishing the origin of IAPESGW: The first global forum for female physical educators**

The International Association of Physical Education and Sport for Girls and Women (IAPESGW) was conceived as a notion prior to World War II by an American female physical educator’s group called National Association for Physical Education of College Women (NAPECW). Collectively, they were interested in what women were doing in sport and physical education in other countries. This was significant in the late 1930s because women physical educators were disenfranchised and not taken seriously in the field, and, due to the social stereotypes constructed about women, particularly in PE in the early twentieth century, female physical educators found that they had limited
or no opportunities to participate and exert influence in their profession (Archive 1, 1957).

The treatment of women and their inferior positions in society were particularly noticeable at male-dominated conferences as female physical educators were not considered to have the knowledge or skills needed to present like their male counterparts (Brenner, Tomkiewicz, & Schein, 1989). Male-dominated societies constructed females as being unsuitable contributors at conferences, which consequently meant women could not partake in the planning of conferences, thus rendering them invisible in the power relations. Instead, women were invited to conferences as demonstrators or co-presenters to their male colleagues, and the work presented was often not representative of women as it either compared women with men or did not take women’s needs into account (Archive 1, 1957). As a result, within the disciplines of physical education and sport, females were afforded low status roles whilst privileging the male discipline of physical education.

Dorothy Ainsworth was a physical education professor at Smith College who felt strongly about women’s situations, in society and in the field, and therefore, she spearheaded the development of IAPESGW in the late 1940s. She pioneered the professional field of women’s physical education because she believed the field was about enabling women to live richer, more abundant lives where they would be more equipped to address daily issues (Peterson, 1975). She perceived the construction of women’s treatment in physical education as being limiting, marginalising, and sexist (Archive 1, 1957). In an attempt to grow the idea of having the first international meeting focusing on women’s sport and physical education, Ainsworth either met with female physical educators from different countries to discuss a potential meeting or sent questionnaires to physical education teachers (and countries Educational Ministries) to learn about their support of the idea. Ainsworth was reassured through her communications with these women that there was interest in an international meeting.

In her travels, Ainsworth met Madame Agnete Bertram of Copenhagen who also played a key role in the first meeting (Archive 1, 1957). Bertram was interested in this conception of an international meeting focusing on females’ sport and physical education, and she offered to host the meeting at her university (Archive 1, 1957).
Together, Ainsworth and Bertram organised the first international meeting (which was referred to as a Congress) so that women could come together to discuss teaching strategies from their own countries, present women-focused work and papers on philosophies and methods from a woman’s perspective, and discuss shared problems of female physical educators (Archive 2, 1948; Hall & Pfister, 1999).

In 1949, this meeting drew 237 participants from 24 countries who were interested in women’s physical education, sport, health, and recreation at a global level (Archive 3, 1950). This international meeting was unlike any other since women’s meetings during this time period typically focused on ways to prepare girls for their future domestic roles identified by society, rather than on providing professional development (Archive 1, 1957). In addition, this meeting allowed only women to give talks, presentations, and demonstrations (Hall & Pfister, 1999). Ainsworth explained in her powerful message during the opening speech:

We believe that the idea of an International Congress on Physical Education for Girls and Women is a new one. Heretofore women have taken part in courses, in demonstrations, in competitions and in meetings on more general topics, but never before, to my knowledge, have women met as an international group to discuss the problems particular and peculiar to physical education for women … we are indeed happy to bring together the ideas from these many countries (Archive 4, 1949, paragraph 1).

The twin purposes of this meeting were “to bring together women from many countries who have similar interests” and “to exchange ideas concerning health, physical education, and recreation of girls and women” (Archive 5, 1949, p. 1). These women were, therefore, interested in networking and supporting one another whilst exchanging knowledge with other individuals who were interested in gender issues that girls and women encounter in physical education and sport. Delegates were given new opportunities to address concerns about girls and women, and attendees reported that they found the meeting a huge success. In a letter to Ainsworth, one delegate stated that “I feel that the members of the association may well be proud of the fact that this was their project and their idea, and then, having had the idea that it actually came off” (Archive 6, 1949). Delegates also felt that the group accepted all methods of physical
education from different countries and recognised the different needs and interests (Archive 8, 1957). Ainsworth expressed this in her review about the Congress in the organisational newsletter where she stated that the delegates did not

\[\ldots\text{come with the idea of competing one with the other. We are eager to have variety at the congresses and to see how nations have evolved their various policies and programs. We believe that policies and programs for women can be greatly furthered through these meetings both by women, teachers, and by administrators of Executive Board (Archive 8, 1957, p. 1).}\]

Due to the delegates’ feelings that the Congress was a success and wanting to come together again for another meeting, it was agreed at the end of the Congress that a Continuing Committee would be formed which would be made up of one delegate from each country and Ainsworth who would be the head. The committee’s role would be to carry on the work of the group (Archive 2, 1950). The development of this committee was the start of giving structure to the association. This suggests that the group adopted a loose structure in the early years.

**Developing an organisation for future discussions on women’s issues**

The mission and values developed at the first meeting were maintained through the Continuing Committee. The purpose of the committee was to organise the next Congress and to prepare a newsletter, which served as the only line of communication to keep delegates updated on information about the latest developments in physical education in member countries (Archive 2, 1950; Archive 7, 1949). Delegates helped generate the content for the newsletter by sending news, updates, stories about physical education and sport in their countries, announcements about new books, summer school courses, teacher and student exchange opportunities, and news from international male-dominated organisations (Archive 9, 1950; Archive 11, 1954). Ainsworth also used the newsletters to propose associational-wide studies and results (Archives 11, 1954; Archive 12, 1954).
The second international Congress took place in Paris in 1953 and it was a significant meeting because the delegates expressed interest in making this group into an official association. The delegates voted to name the group the International Association of Physical Education and Sport for Girls and Women, and they were also interested in developing an Executive Committee, with members who represent different nations, and the committee would be made up of a President, Vice-President, Committee members, and a Council of Representatives (Archive 13, 1953; Archive 14, 1953). This 1953 congress marks the year that IAPESGW officially became an association. The first leaders on the Executive Committee were President - Dorothy Ainsworth (USA); two Vice Presidents - Marie Therese Eyquem (France) and Gilda Romero Brest (Argentina); Executive Board members - Kathleen M. Gordon (Australia), Doris Plewes (Canada), Mrs Agnete Bertram (Denmark), Muriel Webster (England), Mrs Sigridur Valgerirsdottir (Iceland), and Isabelle Nel (Union of South Africa). Despite these identified roles, as an association, the members have the power to determine how the organisation runs, whilst the Executive Board carries out the membership’s wishes. Although the association initially adopted a loose structure with the construction of the Continuation Committee, IAPESGW’s Executive Board began formally identifying the membership’s role, and this enabled members to stay updated on the association through the Council of Representatives.

In 1953, the Executive Committee decided that there would not be “an intricate constitution,” and this enabled the leadership of the association to focus on promoting the profession of physical education and sport, which was their primary interest (Archive 15, 1953). The committee instead developed some structure for IAPESGW, by creating a list of ‘purposes’ for the membership approval (the list can be found in Appendix K).

IAPESGW grew from 237 Congress delegates from 24 countries in 1949 to 425 delegates representing 65 countries in 1957 at the London Congress. This prompted the Executive Committee to re-analyse their loose structure and realised it was not the most suitable for the size of the association or the number of countries represented as this had nearly doubled since the 1953 congress (Archive 17, 1957; Hall & Pfister, 1999). Despite the leaders’ early resistance to the stereotypical male structures of an organisation (e.g., hierarchy), IAPESGW developed a constitution that identified more
formalised hierarchal power structures, roles, and processes of the organisation. Ainsworth explained the need to formalise to the members of the association in a newsletter (Archives, 16, 1959, p.1):

The question of a constitution—heretofore, we have had a statement of our purpose rather than a constitution. We have tried to have a very flexible organization so that we would not have to spend long hours in discussion on organization, but with growth and greater stability of our association, it is the opinion of the Executive Committee that some mild form of constitution is needed. More detailed constitution (but flexible) will be presented to the representatives either before or during the London Congress. Three members of the Executive Committee will prepare a constitution and submit it to you for your opinion and vote.

Ainsworth concluded by showing the power of the membership within IAPESGW, as they were given the opportunity to approve an updated constitution before it could be implemented. The IAPESGW began to move away from the loose structures on the organisational environment continuum to a more formal structure.

In addition, it was evident within the archives that there were other critical topics/decisions that were presented to the membership between 1949 and 1959, which included:

1. Whether IAPESGW needed to continue to be identified as a women’s sport organisation (Archive 19, 1957).

2. If men could participate in Congresses and meetings. This was addressed by Ainsworth who suggested that men could be no more than silent observers at Congresses, which would allow them to take part in informal conversations. The leaders felt this would encourage men to be involved in the association and gender issues (Archive 18, 1949; Archive 19, 1957; Archive 20, 1958).

The Executive Board members (and the membership) were aware that IAPESGW was established as a response to gender exclusion, but members and even one Executive Board member questioned the role of a women’s-only organisation. IAPESGW
maintained its restriction to male involvement in order to provide the members with the space needed to build a sisterhood, and this has continued.

**Establishing international partnerships and exerting influence**

The initial leadership of IAPESGW wanted to get the association in a position where it could make a substantial impact for girls and women in physical education and sport. In 1950, Ainsworth was aware that in order for the association to make a positive impact on society, IAPESGW had to network with influential male-dominated organisations, such as the World Health Organization (WHO), World Confederation Organization of Teaching Profession (WCOTP), and the Bureau of International Education. These were well known and had influence in addressing health and education. However, due to the association’s calibre, Ainsworth feared that IAPESGW’s status was not high enough to gain membership in these powerful organisations (Archive 21, 1953).

Ainsworth was aware that IAPESGW was more likely to gain membership with United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) because an affiliation between them and the association was more natural as the organisations had vastly similar aims. Ainsworth urged the Executive Committee and membership to consider the possibility of building strong links with UNESCO because they could help IAPESGW with worthy projects and could assist in advancing the association and providing more sources of information and exchange opportunities (Archive 25, 1958).

In order to develop this affiliation, IAPESGW invited members of UNESCO to congresses and participated in data collection in an UNESCO international study focusing on competitive sport around the world (Archive, 21, 1953). However, this was not IAPESGW’s main interest as it was more concerned with addressing gaps between sports activities and other disciplines in schools that privileged certain individuals in sport and physical education over others (Archive, 21, 1953). It was also interested in investigating negative aspects of sport (i.e., abuse in sport or the professional biases which created social problems, inequalities, and discrimination) (Archive 21, 1953; Archive 23, 1953). Despite these differences, it was understood that, in order for the association to develop any affiliation with UNESCO, IAPESGW needed to join in this research partnership (Archive 23, 1953).
Although the association conducted research with UNESCO, IAPESGW struggled to gain organisational membership. In 1958, Ainsworth asked members of the association to visit their national UNESCO representative to lobby for their support by highlighting (1) the association’s uniqueness as the only all-women's organisation in physical education with membership open to all countries in the world; (2) the association’s work on an educational basis through presentations, discussions, and articles on all types of physical education; and (3) their exchange programs for teachers and students (Archive 25, 1958). Despite their uniqueness of being a professional organisation serving girls and women in physical education and sport, IAPESGW was still not granted UNESCO membership.

Ainsworth and the other Executive Committee members recognised the value of networking with large, male-dominated, decision-making organisations because such affiliations could catalyse the advancement of women's opportunities in physical education and sport. Therefore, when a new major international organisation, the International Council for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (ICHPER), was established in the late 1950s, IAPESGW decided to apply for membership (Archive 26, 1959). The association was successful in obtaining organisational membership (Archive 26, 1959).

In addition, the Executive Committee leaders were aware of being able to influence power structures from the inside, and these women aimed to obtain positions in male-dominated organisations. Marie Eyquem, the IAPESGW’s Vice-President, was successful in representing IAPESGW at the International Congress on Sociology (ICS), and three of IAPESGW’s Executive Committee members were appointed to work with the WCOTP (Archive 27, 1954). This was significant because the WCOTP was already a member of UNESCO and had close connections with the ICHPER (Archive 28, 1959). Ainsworth played a vital role in the development of these networks, and her efforts, along with the Executive Committee members, indicated that the IAPESGW leadership had core responsibilities to build the association. Further, through such increased representation, people outside of the IAPESGW began learning about the association.
Subsequent development of IAPESGW

The maturing of IAPESGW and the change in leadership has had noticeable impacts on the association’s original work. When Dorothy Ainsworth retired in the 1961, she was credited for (1) guiding IAPESGW’s growth and development, (2) developing the infrastructure, and (3) using personal time and resources to develop an extensive network of women in PE (Hall & Pfister, 1999). The president who came into term directly after Ainsworth was described as being too busy for the role because of her own political activities in her own country (Hall & Pfister, 1999). IAPESGW’s second president did not develop a newsletter for the first three years, and, when she did, it was in English and French and focused on her activities promoting IAPESGW (Hall & Pfister, 1999). However, she did host a successful congress. The organisation’s third president did not produce any newsletters, subsequently meaning the membership did not have communication between the congresses in 1965 to 1981 (Hall & Pfister, 1999). Instead this leadership was interested in hosting successful congresses (1965-1981). In addition, when planning to host a congress in South Africa in 1975, during Apartheid, the president suggested that the group was not political, and therefore, it was appropriate to host this congress there (Hall & Pfister, 1999). However, the Congress organiser had political intentions as she pointed out that this was the first time that IAPESGW would “sit together round a table with a group of white and non-white members” (Hall & Pfister, 1999, p. 20).

In 1981, under the new leadership, a new constitution was developed mandating the Executive Committee to produce at least one annual review for the members (Hall & Pfister, 1999). The new leadership aimed to bring feminist orientation and identified that women were qualified for leadership positions in male-dominated organisations, such as the ICSSPE, ICHPER, ICSP, ISCPES, or FIEP (Hall & Pfister, 1999). Yet this was not transferred throughout the association, and when the leadership completed an evaluation for the organisation in 1989, Hall and Pfister (1999) pointed out that it was evident that the association had changed since its inception. Going into the 1990s, IAPESGW had been remarkably stable, but it no longer had the same credibility or the
loyal members as it did during inception (Hall & Pfister, 1999). At this time, IAPESGW had competition with newly developing international and national proactive, political sport organisations (Hall & Pfister, 1999). In addition, Hall and Pfister (1999) concluded that IAPESGW was limited because members were from elite classes and educational backgrounds, trained in PE colleges and universities.

**IAPESGW as an environment for volunteering**

The archives reveal the founders’ accounts of why and how IAPESGW was established, the way the organisation’s structures were developed, and the roles the leaders played to build the association. This information illustrates how the founders and early leaders envisioned the organisation being run and demonstrated the values it should embody. However, through an organisation’s lifespan, and the different sources of influence, these original ideas are not always sustained as previously mentioned. Therefore, the purpose of this section is to explore how the research participants perceived IAPESGW, identified structural issues, and highlighted their experiences within associational-wide projects. Nine interviewees were members of IAPESGW, and their volunteering histories are presented in Table 5.1. This table illustrates that the leaders’ locations are geographically diverse. The participants’ volunteering involvement was also diverse, and this shows the importance of volunteering for these women.

**Perceptions of IAPESGW**

During the interviews, the research participants discussed their perceptions of IAPESGW and how they felt about the association. Darlene, for example, has been a member of the association since she was in undergraduate school in the late 1960s, and she recognised IAPESGW as the longest standing organisation in the world [which focuses] specifically on girls and women in sport and physical education. However, Gertrud, who joined in mid-1980s whilst in her profession when she was researching and writing about physical education, found that IAPESGW especially focused on physical education and physical education teachers; and it brought many physical education teachers to the conference [referring to the IAPESGW congresses]. This was
echoed by WSI leader Christine, (former IAPESGW leader who joined as an undergraduate student) who stated that IAPESGW continued to be more of a physical education organisation than a sport organisation. However, Susi-Käthi (whose experiences developed from other memberships in women’s organisations and who has been a member of IAPESGW for over twenty years) pointed out that this has changed: At the beginning it was really just physical education and dance.... Now it’s really sport and it’s also leadership and sport administration and forming leadership, not only within physical education, now it is actually sport science and all parts, including sport management, [short pause] that has changed. Based on these narratives, it is evident that the way that IAPESGW has been described has slightly changed.

The research participants also described the association as a place where women could come together to network. Tansin described IAPESGW as an international network with people of like minds. This was important for her because she was interested in working on gender issues on a global level with other women with varied perspectives. Referring to her time with IAPESGW, Darlene said that you would be amazed on what you can accomplish when you have a network and you have people who have passion and are dedicated to a cause: it just amazes me! Christine also highlighted the significance of these networks as she discussed her initial feelings when she joined the IAPESGW: I felt strongly that the IAPESGW link with ICSSPE created opportunities for our members to get on other organisations that were more specialised. I could see in the European model of ICSSPE and the ICHPER connections. But Gertrud pointed out that this expectation is only an idea: not only to be a network but also to make a change. Gertrud referred to the large amount of work needed that goes beyond simply networking within and outside the organisation.

Structural issues in IAPESGW

IAPESGW’s organisational structure has evolved since it was first established in 1949. By the twenty-first century, the association had a detailed constitution, defined roles, and new tasks to advance women in physical education and sport. However, a valuable observation from one research participant was that she felt the membership (and leadership) did not know the history of the association. Further research participants
discussed structural issues in which they encountered (some re-occurring), and therefore, the next section addresses research participants’ experiences of bureaucracy when dealing with the constitution, maintaining an organisational identity of being single-sex, changes within the leadership, and association-wide projects.

**Changes in leadership**

The IAPESGW structure has also been affected by the changes in leadership as new leaders brought new ideas, work ethics, and personal agendas. Many of the research participants experienced changes in the association’s leadership, such as Susi-Käthi, who has been a member and volunteered under Patricia Bowen-West, Margaret, and Darlene. Susi-Käthi was, therefore, able to highlight the changes that she observed within the association:

> At the beginning, it [an IAPESGW meeting] was really just about running the conferences, that has changed, but focus [of the association] has also changed. I think when Margaret took over, meetings were not just meet and prepare the next conference, it was a look at how the future should look, which way we wanted to go, and [whether] we needed to change the constitution. It [focus and concerns of an organisation] changes and that is with any international organisation, they change very slowly because you meet once a year, it takes a lot of time to change, and we have realised that we have to change because society is changing.

Susi-Käthi recalled activities in which she engaged and explained how they were spearheaded by Margaret.

Focusing primarily on the leadership, Darlene agreed with Susi-Käthi that leadership shaped the organisation, as she acknowledged that when she became the President of IAPESGW, she felt it needed some heavy duty work on its infrastructure so we could bring the thing up to the twenty-first century. She did this by developing a new strategic plan, hosting the first Skype conference call for an international women’s sport organisation, establishing collaborative work with businesses for both sponsorships and research, getting the association more financially stable, becoming more
professionalised through the development of an updated website and defined roles, and getting younger women involved. Christine, from WSI, summarised her observation of changes in the association based on the leadership: … when Margaret was in office, she was very PE oriented. Then you see the shift from that leader to now [Darlene] Kluka which is getting more into sport [whilst] staying with the PE, but you see the shift to more sport administration and sport management. This illustrates that leaders have influential roles, as Darlene, Gertrud, Lynn, and Susi-Käthi highlighted that people within leadership roles are in positions to guide the organisation or congresses. It appears that the defined leadership roles of IAPESGW maintained their core duties of running the association, and this has enabled new leaders to choose the direction of association during their term.

Lynn shared her frustration about an IAPESGW leader who was planning the Melbourne Congress. Lynn stated that it seemed like a one-woman show. It was [the organiser’s] show and she did not invite assistance from anyone. She did a fantastic job of raising sponsorship and getting delegates, and it was a hugely successful Congress. However, to bring a congress to her home country, Australia, and to not feel part of the development of the event for the association disappointed Lynn and other Australian women as they wanted to have input. Instead it seemed as if the organiser kept the work to herself. This indicated that although members’ roles were formally identified as having power in the constitution, realistically they had limited opportunities for input and the leaders held the power. The findings suggest that the research participants learned about IAPESGW, and the leadership through observations and personal experiences.

**Bureaucracy of the constitution**

The research participants entered an organisation that was previously established. These women stayed in the organisation over time and had experiences in other organisations that led them to be interested in making changes. However, it was found that, in many cases, making changes was hard because of the structure of the association. Based on interview data, it became evident that to understand the pace of change within IAPESGW, three factors have to be addressed: first, changes have to be made based on the structures set out in the constitution; second, individuals’
geographical locations have to be considered; and third, people have to have access to technological resources. Margaret pointed out that, when she first began serving on IAPESGW, in the 1990s, any change to the association was slow because the constitution was cached in such terms that it had to be approved in a particular way by the majority of the membership. It was an old-fashioned constitution. However, Margaret observed the association evolving as

... the old constitution had things like mail which should be delivered within six months. It was all about surface mail but people were then beginning to be much more into email. That is always the tension with an international organisation because not everybody has access to email and not even fax. So it is really important not to disenfranchise people by saying everybody has to have it this way, but the way in which we work now, it is very difficult not to do that.

Margaret explained that through the use of technology, changes within the association had become more stream-lined. Lynn highlighted that these technological advances were beneficial because people in leadership roles (particularly the president of the association) can have a larger impact in a shorter period of time.

Margaret also highlighted that the process of change was slow because all decisions have to go through the Council of Representatives. This means that due to their meetings only taking place once within the cycle it took four years to make changes and in some cases longer because of the lead up to the congress and beyond. In other cases, it was because of the geographical location and where a person was situated within her society. Although Margaret positively referred to the technological advances, she also highlighted that international organisations had the ability to disenfranchise individuals. Some IAPESGW members are disadvantaged because they live in developing countries or may be in locations in developed countries where they cannot access the communication resources needed (1) to adequately fulfil the Council of Representatives role or (2) to even have access to the group to be able to obtain a leadership role. In addition, it appears that changes were made to the association that continue to inadvertently disenfranchise women. IAPESGW started with a loose structure; however, the narratives suggested that the association has moved along the
organisational environment continuum to the complete opposite end and may have even become over-structured.

**Association-wide projects**

The archives highlighted Dorothy Ainsworth’s interest in association-wide projects to develop networks, conduct international studies, and keep the members connected. However, as the leadership changed, and volunteers became less familiar with the history and the significance of these projects was not always understood. Gertrud, who conducted an historical analysis of the association in the 1990s, knew about such history and was interested in developing a project. However, during the interview, she expressed her frustration with the association in the late 1990s when she had attempted to establish an association-wide project:

... you know these topics, one could assume or hope, there is this connection between the research and the practice.... I had a large leadership project in Germany and here in Denmark; we interviewed leaders and women and drop-out or whatever, I tried to get more out of people in IAPESGW by doing similar research in their countries and maybe develop some best practices or whatever, this did not function so well, but outside IAPESGW I found people that translated the questionnaire and did similar research in these countries.

Gertrud had similar ideas as Ainsworth; however, Gertrud did not have the same support as Ainsworth.

Tansin (who also had access to organisational archives) and Margaret led a ‘study week’ in Oman that focused on developing a clear understanding about Muslim women in the sport and physical education community (as well as in society). This study week was sparked by Tansin’s academic research (PhD) as well as by Muslim women reaching out to the association asking for their help after the 2001 Congress. Maryam participated in the study week, and she explained that that week was very important for many women. Fourteen women and one man from fourteen different countries came together. She continued by explaining that this week helped her to have new suggestions and new ideas for improving a relationship, getting new ideas from other
... IAPESGW worked to fit into the world scene so they [Muslim women] could work through the association to get their voices heard somewhere else, somewhere else, and somewhere else ... if they sat in Iran and tried to do it or Oman or Denmark as a Muslim woman or Birmingham ... they have to know its collectively through associations like this [the IAPESGW] because of its official links.

Tansin illustrated that this project was significant for Muslim women and also highlighted that the association offered a collective, supporting environment which these Muslim women needed to address their own challenges and ambiguities about women’s participation in sport, physical education, and generally in society. Tansin’s experience illustrated that volunteer activities within IAPESGW were based on the association as she linked it to the work in Oman. However, Gertrud had a very different experience, as she found that when she reached out, she did not get the support from the associational members. This shows that the participants may be situated in different places along the organisational environment continuum.

Maintaining single-sex organisations

The participants also discussed the issues of changing the single-sex organisation, allowing men to fulfil positions of power. Margaret explained that during the 1999 Smith College 50-year anniversary Conference, the Executive Committee led discussions on whether the association needed to continue to be single-sex because we were supposed to be promoting equity. We knew that there were men who were interested in gender relations and who were very committed to equity (Margaret). Drawing on personal experiences and observations of women continuing to be treated as if they were invisible in international sport organisations and federations, IAPESGW decided it was not time in 1999 to bring men into leadership positions of the
association. Gertrud supported the association’s decision as her research in the twenty-first century on women in roles of power in organisational settings showed that there was a lack of women leaders everywhere, but in order then to change something ... this is very difficult internationally. She continued to explain the significance of IAPESGW as she stated I think that it is still necessary to define or find a place ... men and women are doing very different things in the area of sport in all countries and I believe that different sports have different values and different benefits. The research participants illustrated that IAPESGW has looked for ways to continue to advance as they considered male members and leaders. However, the leaders believed that women-centred environments continue to be needed as they are in positions which enable them to bring women’s issues to decision makers.

**Overview of IAPESGW as an environment to volunteer**

The archives and the narratives highlight that IAPESGW is the longest-standing international association that brings likeminded individuals together to discuss issues in sport and physical education. The archives point out that since IAPESGW’s inception, the association has provided an environment where members can develop personal friendships and professional networks, and this has been maintained. In addition, the associational structure has evolved from a Continuing Committee to having a strong structure, which potentially is now over-structured because it has slowed the processes of change. The archives and the personal accounts illustrated the powerful influence the leadership has had on the association as they often guide it in the direction of their own interests. The narratives confirmed that the association continues to successfully run congresses every four years and delegates still provide positive feedback.

**Establishing the origin of WSI: An action-oriented women’s sport organisation**

WomenSport International (WSI) has emerged as a response to IAPESGW’s slow approach to change. The frustration of some members of IAPESGW evolved as they
felt the association was not proactively working to advance girls’ and women’s sport and physical activity. These women criticised IAPESGW’s approach to advance females in physical activity because it did not reflect the positive changes in Westernised societies towards gender equality; rather, it mirrored what they thought were the values and strategies of the founding members. These frustrated women were ultimately the founders of WSI who had very different social opportunities in their professions and in leisure activities than the founders of IAPESGW. For instance, the WSI founders lived through the second wave of feminism, saw an increase in women’s events in the Olympics, and identified increased opportunities for women in employment. Therefore, these women wanted an organisation that represented the needs of women in the late twentieth century whilst continuing to strive to make positive changes for women (Brackenridge, 2001). They were interested in using feminist philosophies as the underpinning values for the organisation to discuss gender inequalities and to show how societal inequalities were also prevalent in sport (Brackenridge, 2001). By establishing a new organisation, women could highlight and discuss issues that were often considered taboo or inappropriate, such as sexual harassment in sport (Brackenridge, 2001). During the early 1990s, these were the tough issues within sport that were neglected or ignored (Brackenridge, 2001). However, such issues may not have been appropriate to discuss within IAPESGW due to “fear that a more critical activist agenda might jeopardise relationships with local and internationally based benefactors” (George, 2004, p. 8) as well as with their current members. WSI, being a new organisation, therefore, filled this political gap and would take an approach to engage in a more fearless style of political negotiation (George, 2004). These founding women all came from Westernised societies where the changes in their political culture were becoming more tolerant of critical voices. WSI wanted to do more than educate and build awareness; they wanted to create networks that would bring individuals and organisations together to collectively address gender issues (Brackenridge, 1994).

There were five women who established WSI: Celia Brackenridge, Libby Darlison, Barbara Drinkwater, Kari Fasting, and Marion Lay.

**Celia Brackenridge** was a professor in higher education and her research interests revolved around sexual harassment and abuse in sport.
Libby Darlison worked in higher education and taught sociology and behavioural sciences, but moved to consultancy work in social policy and change.

Barbara Drinkwater was a researcher whose interests revolved around the response of women to exercise as mediated by environmental factors and ageing.

Kari Fasting was a professor in higher education and her research interests revolved around sexual harassment and abuse in sport.

Marion Lay was a consultancy worker and adjunct professor, and she was heavily involved with Canadian voluntary sport organisations.

In a letter to individuals who supported the establishment of WSI, the founders stated:

For years there has been agitation for a truly international organization which is both issue and action oriented and which has credibility and sufficient influence to bring about change for women and girls at all levels of involvement of sport and physical activity (Archive 29, 1994).

These women wanted to establish an organisation that aimed to be issue based and action oriented (Archive 33, 1993). The founders wanted to construct the organisational identity to focus on tackling issues that were viewed as radical in that era, such as anorexia, bone density loss, sexual abuse, and inequitable social structures. In a handout produced by the organisation, the founders highlighted that many of these issues were causes for the lack of substantive change in and through women’s sport around the world. Further, information on the handout stated:

In all societies, participation by women in sport and physical activity is either formally prohibited or subject to a range of proscriptive gender based formal and informal rules. Sport is controlled entirely by men: the International Olympic Committee (IOC) has 97 members, 6 of which are women.... In some cultures women are formally excluded from sport and physical activity, in others, permission is needed from a husband, father, or significant male (Archive 34, 1994).
Moreover, in a letter to Celia Brackenridge, Barbara Drinkwater explained:

Women's problems are not unique to one country. Problems include lack of access to facilities and funding, underrepresentation on decision-making bodies, coaching and administration, and restrictive gender-based stereotyping, or physical and psychological consequences of inappropriate nutrition and training. The problems are consequences of social and cultural practices in society. Situations are multivariate and can be explored from many perspectives: physiologically, sociologically, psychologically, economically, or in terms of social justice and democratic rights. We need to increase the number of researchers, academics and sport activists by attempting to create a better deal for girls and women. Change is slow and haphazard (Archive 33, 1993).

The founders envisioned WSI being a credible research-based organisation that could be used as a vehicle to transform the male-centred power structures in sport and the existing sport culture (Archive 29, 1994; Archive 31, 1997; Archive 32, 1994). The founders’ mission of developing an organisation that produced transformative changes required WSI leaders to demonstrate expertise as they sought to network with a range of organisations and individuals, and therefore, wanted to recruit members who were policy researchers, physical educators, sociologists, coaches, athletes, or works in sport medicine and sport governance (Archive 36, 1994).

In the establishment of WSI, the founders also wanted to assist women who may be struggling against insurmountable odds, such as lack of resources, discriminatory attitudes and practices, and who had little or no opportunity to develop their own skills (Archive 35, 1995). The founders anticipated the organisation to be a place where women could gain a sense of solidarity and could make “all the hard work and frustration worthwhile” (Archive 35, 1995).

**Involvement with the development of WSI**

Since the research participants, Barbara, Celia, and Kari, played a key role in the emergence of WSI, they commented on the process of developing the organisation, and therefore, this section presents their memories of the process. Kari reported that the
interest in splitting away from IAPESGW started to materialise in 1989 when a group of delegates met to discuss IAPESGW’s slow/liberal approach to change. Referring to a meeting one night after the Congress sessions, Kari stated that I was surprised so many people participated, I think it was 10 to 12 at night … it was kind of packed. These women debated about IAPESGW and the direction it was currently going and Kari suggested that many of the members wanted to split away. However, they decided that right now, we are not going to make another organisation because we don’t want to split up. We should join the leadership of the organisation [IAPESGW] and maybe try to change it from inside. Kari explained that they did not split away at that time, but none of the women, to her knowledge, took leadership positions on IAPESGW’s Executive Committee. It was not until the next Congress in 1993 when the research participants recalled the ideas of needing a new organisation really developing.

Celia recounted agreeing to be the closing speaker at the Melbourne Congress in 1993, but looking back at that time, she realised that she continued to be frustrated with IAPESGW:

*I was a member, and it [IAPESGW] certainly was not dealing with what I’d call the tough issues: eating disorders, sexual abuse, doping. It was a nice place to go to meet women from other countries who are interested in promoting women and girl’s physical education. We had some nice conferences, but I didn’t feel it had a cutting edge; I was always impatient for change.*

Therefore, in her closing speech she recalled *I had a pretty hard go at them.* The title of her closing speech was

‘Don’t just do something, stand there’; in other words, don’t just do dance displays and gym displays, sit and think for awhile, what are we about. So I went back and got the original Women’s Movement agenda, you know, equal rights, abortion on demand, equal pay, looked at the things they were fighting for and compared them to IAPESGW and you know, they are not doing anything like that. They weren’t buying into the Women’s Movement at all! They were kind of denying it. They weren’t actually shunning it, but they were doing their own little thing in this little bubble. And you can’t do that, none of us live in a
bubble village. We have to help each other. We have to reach out in whatever way we can to make things better; well that is what I think.

At this same Congress, Barbara realised also that the association was not doing as much as it could:

I was in Australia at one of the four year meetings of IAPESGW and I sat and listened [laughing] and listened, and then I had lunch with Marion Sloan and I think Kari was with me, but I remember saying to Marion, IAPESGW is irrelevant to women these days, it is just irrelevant. Every four years is a conference and all these people come together and talk but nothing is done. Nothing concrete is done to improve women’s opportunities to participate. I don’t know what any of these people did back home; the organisation itself seems to be focused entirely on this one conference. I said we need an action-oriented organisation. And so Kari, Celia, Libby Darlison and I decided to start one which became WSI.

Thinking of developing a new organisation, Celia stated if you look back at the history of any volunteer movement, you will find a split between those who are happy to stay where they are and those who want to push on and do things more politically, more quickly, and more actively. That happens all the time; it happens in Greenpeace! She continued by pointing out that the WSI founders wanted to do the things that IAPESGW was not doing. There was no point in reproducing things they were doing perfectly fine, and most of us are members of both and continue to be members of both. It is not that we want to obliterate them. WSI leaders decided early on that they would not have a big conference because there are so many conferences on women and sport, so you have IOC, IWG, IAPESGW, European Women and Sport and also other women and sport conferences. We wanted to help women in other countries in sport (Celia). The research participants’ accounts of the establishment of WSI echoed the archival findings and provided detail about this process.
Constructing the research-based women-centred sport organisation

In order to establish a smoothly running organisation, the leaders spent the first full year (1993) formalising the organisation. It was not until 1994 that WSI was officially launched at the Brighton Conference (Women and Sport: Challenge of Change in England) (Brackenridge, 2001). The founders felt this was the best time to introduce a new international organisation to women who were already concerned with gender issues in sport and physical activity. WSI was introduced as an umbrella sport organisation that would act as an advocacy group, lobby key decision-making bodies for women’s issues, and promote research to meet current demands in sport and physical activity (Archive 29, 1994; Archive 32, 1994; Archive 33, 1993).

In 1993, the founding members proposed a structure for the organisational committee that would be made up of five members with one being identified as the Executive Director – Libby Darlison. The members of the committee were expected to be familiar with aims and objectives (see Appendix L), be accessible, and be able to work with governmental/non-governmental and international/national sport bodies (Archival 33, 1993). However, based on the meeting notes in 1994, the organisation’s committee focused on developing a planning strategy to establish new committees, a constitution, and funding and finance (Archival, 40, 1994). These archives suggested that a constitution was the primary topic to be discussed at the meeting. By the end of 1994, a constitution was developed which identified the Executive Board and their roles (President, Vice President, Treasurer, and two members), organisational processes and procedures, and funding outlets for sponsorships and membership fees.

During this same Executive Board meeting, the leaders discussed the ways in which WSI could be research based and action oriented. The archives illustrated that the founders did this by establishing three task forces: Female Athlete Triad, Sexual Harassment in Sport, and Masters Athletes (Archive 35, 1995; Archive 38, 1995). The tasks forces were ad hoc conventions that were established for the purpose of dealing with specific issues and comprised of members (Archive 32, 1994). The task forces
were made up of five to six members who were geographically spread, and it was the chair’s responsibility to recruit members (Archives 46, 1994). At the 1995 Executive Board meeting, the leaders discussed the duties of the task forces; for instance, sexual harassment task force duties were to confirm the membership, produce brochures, develop position statements, and lobby for improved practices; or for a newer task force such as physical activity, its duty was to confirm the membership, review the literature, research positive benefits, review and collate current research, develop position papers, distribute information packages, and produce brochures (Archive 38, 1995). The task forces were significant because the leaders of WSI could envision their idea being an action-oriented organisation being put into practice.

The organisation’s primary aim was to move women’s sport forward. However, members still encountered essential topics that would affect their organisational identities as they did not want to be identified as being exclusive (Archive 44, 1994). They addressed the following topics:

1. Whether WSI could be identified as a women’s organisation since the founders wanted to appoint men to be on the Executive Board (Archive 46, 1994).
2. How WSI would represent diverse cultures, socio-economic classes, and political conditions as some members admitted not knowing how to approach such diverse issues (Archive 48, 1995; Archive 49, 1995). Brackenridge asserted that the lack of diversity was visible if they only looked at the task forces which were made up of white, middle-class women from the northern hemisphere (Archive 45, 1995). She urged for more of a black dimension (Archive 45, 1995; Archive 49, 1995).

Like IAPESGW, WSI wanted to challenge the gender disadvantages in sport structures, but it did not intend or envision becoming an exclusive organisation themselves. The leaders envisioned WSI being a pre-eminent international organisation that used transformative approaches and worked towards positive change through lobbying and challenging status quo (Archive 30, 1994; Archive 41, 1994; Archive 42, 1994; Archive 43, 1994). Transformative changes to the institution of sport would be the only way to produce substantial differences (Archive 44, 1994). WSI aimed to create positive change for women and girls ‘in and through sport and physical activity’ at all levels of
involvement (Archive 45, 1995) (see Appendix L for proposed list of processes towards change).

**Utilising a loose structure**

Barbara, Celia, and Kari explained in detail about WSI’s initial organisational structures. Barbara explained that there were only five people in the organisation in 1993. The founders were utilising a loose, flat structure with Libby Darlison as the Executive Director, which was consistent with feminist values. Barbara recounted how she and Libby Darlison came up with a logo and stationery, and they choose to use purple on the promotional materials. *It is such a reality!* So she [Libby] could write a letter on WSI stationery, with our logo, as the Executive Director of WSI, out of her home. But nobody knew that. *They could envision this office and this small store if they wanted to* (Barbara). However, Celia explained that in the first few years, WSI leaders were criticised and accused of being non-democratic because we were self-appointed and that was the trouble when you set up a new organisation; you can’t run an election because you don’t have any members yet. Despite these criticisms, they became more democratic and structured as they learned that it was difficult for an international organisation to have a totally flat structure (Kari) because it could not deal with the growth of membership as it grew to more than 300 members by the end of 1994, the year that WSI was officially launched. This explains why the organisation had to move to the structured end of the continuum in the organisational environment dimension.

WSI was a woman-centred organisation that was interested in being inclusive and letting males undertake leadership positions. However, the founders strategically selected which men would be appropriate for a position of power because they wanted someone with the same values, and no hidden agendas. This was evident in Kari’s description: *… from the beginning, we had male members, men as members. We had Bruce Kidd at one period as a member of the board and Don Sabo at one time. However, Kari pointed out that currently we don’t have any members on the board [because] there was no one there for us to nominate, and we, of course, who are active in the nominations couldn’t think of anyone. We have had Bruce Kidd and Don Sabo on our board because of course they are feminist. [However] it is not important that*
every man is a feminist. These narratives highlighted the roles the leaders fulfilled to establish a strong, credible, research-based organisation.

Developing sport and non-sport alliances

The founders’ interests in constructing a women’s organisation with feminist values left WSI being identified as a feminist organisation by outsiders (Archive 40, 1994). Although this was not an issue for the founders, they quickly learned that feminist labels could negatively brand an organisation, consequently jeopardising networking, membership, funding, and affiliation opportunities. Leaders of WSI believed that forging alliances with sport and non-sport organisations would be helpful in devising innovative and effective strategies for social change (Archive 50, 1996). This was significant because WSI leaders acknowledged that sportswomen traditionally did not network with women’s organisations outside of the sport field (Archive 50, 1996). WSI leaders, therefore, attended a range of conferences to learn about the women’s organisations whose focus was not on sport and physical activity. In discussion with conference delegates at the UN Platform for Action in Beijing, WSI leaders learned that women from developing countries were more concerned with immediate life-threatening issues, such as poverty, violence, economic restriction, and literacy (Archive 53, 1995). Consequently these delegates viewed sport as a luxury and also suggested gender issues in sport as being trivial issue, having little relevance to these women’s lives (Archive 48, 1995; Archive 51, 1994). WSI representatives, however, aimed to show individuals the link with the issues they described with the positive impact of sport and physical activity (e.g., physical wellbeing, disease prevention, and good health) (Archive 54, 1996).

WSI leaders also sought networks with other sport organisations, such as IAPESGW, the IOC, and the International Working Group on Women and Sport (IWG). For instance, WSI and IAPESGW conducted joint presentations at international conferences, such as the pre-Olympic Congress in 1996 (Archive 38, 1995; Archive 55, 1996; Archive 56, 1996). WSI worked with the IWG to actively distributed copies of the Brighton Declaration. WSI also led discussions with the IOC about (1) adopting the Brighton Declaration and (2) establishing a Women's Commission within the IOC (Archive 39, 1995).
WSI leaders struggled to gain access to male-dominated organisations. Oglesby emphasised the importance of gaining leadership roles in these organisations (Archive 58, 1996). In support of this, Libby Darlison stated, “If there is one thing that history has taught us, is that as long as women are not a part of the decision making process, in any field, we cannot expect our interests to be taken into account” (Archive 59, 1996, p. 1). WSI leaders knew that having a role with key decision-making bodies (such as the IOC, Commonwealth Games Federation, and various governments) was a primary way to improve opportunities for women who have no access to participation or who were actively prevented from participating or progressing in sport or physical activities (Archive 58, 1996).

**WSI’s growth through leadership and networks**

Barbara, Celia, and Kari knew the significance of networking. Celia focused on networking when she first began to develop interest in a new international women’s organisation called Women’s International Sport Coalition (WISC). She envisioned an organisation that would be an umbrella organisation to bring women’s groups together. Although this was an idea before WSI, Celia carried the networks into WSI.

* I knew there were various people out there and various organisations who were doing bits of that work but not in a coordinated way. Darlene Kluka had always been important; she’d been in NAGWS, and she had been in the States with similar interests, but I didn’t know her very well. Libby Darlison in Australia was much more radical; she critiqued the Australian sport system, which was important because Australia was seen as a paragon of virtue and has been one of the more progressive countries. There were people like Helen Lenskyj and Sandi Kirby [pause] in Canada, there were lots of people in Canada doing similar things through CAAWS, which was kind of a Canadian Women’s Sports Foundation, Promotion Plus which was Vancouver-based women’s sports foundation. These were mainly voluntary organizations but with a little bit of government input. And then of course there was US WSF, which by this time was based in New York. Now the WSF in the US had an annual conference.
By identifying other women doing the same work (nationally and internationally), Celia hoped to build a coalition. Her interest in these networks was maintained as she worked to grow these links and others within WSI.

**WSI as an environment for volunteering**

The organisational archives are used to explain why and how WSI was established, the way the organisation’s structure was developed, and the leaders’ roles in building the organisation. Although the three of the six research participants are founding members, their accounts are also provided when appropriate. The purpose is to explore the research participants’ (both new leaders and founding leaders) perceptions of WSI, the development of the constitution, the significance of the task forces, and the WSI’s movement forward in the modern era. The six interviewees who were members of WSI and their volunteering histories are presented in Table 5.2. The table illustrates the diversity in the women’s volunteering history. It also indicates that volunteering is significant for these women.

**Perceptions of WSI**

During the interviews, Johanna, Christine, and Carole described their views of WSI whilst narratives from Barbara, Celia, and Kari were based on their views when looking back and analysing the organisation. Johanna joined WSI in the twenty-first century and viewed it as *a bit more cutting edge* [than IAPESGW]. *They* [WSI founders] *were more brave in tackling controversial issues such as sexual harassment, homophobia, and the female athlete triad. WSI looked at some contentious issues and wanted to do something about it so they were more actively involved.* Christine was always a member but got more involved after completing her leadership duties with IAPESGW, and she suggested that WSI was based on actively engaging within research, so that meant *to be on one of the commissions, to do research, or it means to be in dialogue with the leaders about other areas that you would like to see.* This suggests that volunteering with WSI was based on the program end of the organisational continuum.
Johanna also suggested that membership within WSI fulfilled her interest in being part of a network of highly committed and similar thinking people [which] is the most exciting thing for me: to be part of people all over the world who think about similar challenges and want to advance women in sport. In addition, Carole highlighted that these networks enable members to be part of what she referred to as a bully pulpit (a visible public position where issues can be brought to the forefront) and where members can get some earlier access to information that other people might not get. This was how the founders wanted to construct the understanding of WSI.

The archives did not clearly identify how the organisation would work. Upon reflection, Celia realised WSI was a virtual organisation. Christine agreed and described: WSI is not a membership organisation that ever has its members come face to face, so it is always electronic or virtual. Celia made sure to clarify that it was not a fictional organisation: it exists, but it is virtual to the extent we don’t have premises or a paid secretary general or anything like that: I mean it is underneath it, it’s a set of ideas and individuals who do things with WSI, off their own backs. Therefore, when executive board members attended the same conference, we would say, ‘Oh, we better have a meeting because someone else has paid to get us here’. We couldn’t call a meeting and travel to London and all meet. We just didn’t have those resources and we still don’t. The founders did not develop WSI stating that it would be virtual, but upon reflection, and realising members were working from different geographical locations, the women could positively say it was a virtual organisation.

**Development of a constitution**

WSI started off with a flat leadership structure but, as members entered the organisation, they did not understand the purpose of such structure. Carole, who entered the organisation a year after WSI was established, described the structure as being an informality about the [organisational] statutes and how business was being done. When first joining the organisation, she recalled

... the initial WSI documents were theoretical. ... For example, it took into account that the main body that would be controlling WSI action would be a kind meeting yearly, annual, meetings of the membership; you know the whole
construct would be that there would be at least a couple of hundred or a couple of thousand at some point at meetings where business would be done and in a way that never happened. Here we are 12 years or so, 15 years down the road. So when I came in as the president (at that time, Libby Darlison was the secretary general), the idea was that some more order and some more formality about the procedures would occur. Libby and I created a constitution, taking into account the present reality, present at that time, rather than having theoretical statutes that seemed to address what WSI would be sometime down the road, 'Let’s have a constitution and bylaws that reflects the present reality'.

Carole’s description further explained why WSI needed to move from the loosely structured end of the continuum to be more structured. Kari explained that the structure enabled her to identify the roles and procedures within the organisation as they were clearly defined in the constitution. She continued by illustrating that in the early years, meetings would take place at conferences in someone’s hotel room. There were rarely more than three of the five Executive Board members that could attend. Yet moving forward, as the organisation has become more formal, Kari revealed that now meetings were more formal and she had to begin to prepare a proper agenda and proper minutes from the meetings. It wasn’t like that at first, sometimes we used to [hand] write the minutes. We were developing, but there was a lot of work in the beginning. Kari illustrated through her experiences within the organisation that it was becoming more structured, simply by addressing the meeting notes.

**Significance of organisational task forces**

WSI leaders were heavily involved with the task forces. The founders argued that, through the development of strong research-based task forces, WSI would be constructing their identity as being a credible organisation. Due to the purpose of the task forces, WSI was guided to focus on specific issues. Kari explained the differences between a task force and a committee: *for a non-English speaker ... I learned that the difference between a task force and a committee is that a task force is for a certain amount of time to work on a special problem or something, but a committee is always there.* Celia further explained this as *loose aggregations of scientific interests.* Celia’s task force reflected her research: *so mine was on Sexual Harassment and we printed a*
leaflet and we had a report on the web. WSI aimed to tackle what the founders referred to as tough issues through their task forces.

Beyond constructing the organisational identity, Carole indicated that these task forces were significant to increase membership. Carole explained how Barbara was viewed as a legend in the exercise physiology world. Barbara Drinkwater was directing this [WSI] to the exercise science community and she is sort of one of those people for the women in exercise science: 'Where Barbara Drinkwater leads, I will go'. Carole continued to suggest that, for the first couple of years, the organisation had about 300 members and Carole implied that of the 300 members, 250 of the members were from exercise physiology, and these individuals were probably more interested in working with Barbara the Female Athlete Triad than the organisation.

**Moving WSI into the modern era**

Some of the changes to WSI stemmed from their interest to recruit new younger members. In 2005, after joining the board, Johanna felt that the WSI pamphlets were very boring... I can't call it anything else. It was just plain writing and folded in half and had a purple colour. She suggested to the board that we need something a little bit more contemporary and a little more attractive; it was also called a ‘feminist organisation’ in the tagline. This had to come off in my opinion because you won’t attract the younger generation because the younger generations may associate it [feminism] with hairy armpits. Johanna, therefore, suggested that WSI rebrand itself, not totally change because the purpose is still the same, but rebrand the image. She proposed adopting a new tagline, the global voice of research and putting images on the new brochures to make it look nice and attractive. However she wanted to keep the history and that is why I included [pictures of] the founders. Johanna recalled a lot of debate about this as Kari and Carole did not want to profile the leadership because they felt this structure did not support feminist values, by reason of the flat structure. However, Johanna argued that

*I think you should profile the people that are involved and give them a little biography and state a background who they are and what they stand for. If I want to belong to an organisation, I want to see what they stand for, what they...*
do, and who the other people are, give it that personal touch so then, I put profiles of all our executive members on our website and that is what I wanted to say; I do not feel we have been so successful in attracting young people but that is how I feel will help, we have to market and promote it better.

Johanna admitted that this did not increase younger women’s entrance into WSI, but she attributed it to WSI’s lack of business approach. Barbara agreed with this as she suggested the major players within the organisation were not wired to think from a business perspective, and she attributed it to their *failing is we are not pushy* [laughing].

**Overview of WSI as an environment to volunteer**

WSI’s archives and the participants’ narratives describe the emergence of WSI as a response to IAPESGW’s slow approach to change. The archives highlighted the founders’ interests in wanting to tackle tough issues and be more political than IAPESGW. This identity is maintained, and newer members described the organisation in this manner. In addition, the archives and narratives emphasised that the organisation would be research-based and action-oriented. Overall, the founders were interested in developing a credible organisation. They believed this could be done through the task forces since these were based on research and action. These task forces proved to be successful; the archives and interview responses implied that the task forces guided the direction of the organisation.

**Research participants’ accounts of exclusionary practices within international women’s sport organisations**

The archives provide minimal information about issues of diversity or inclusion as it appears that neither organisation wanted to be exclusive. For IAPESGW, diversity and inclusion concerns revolve around getting representation of women from as many countries as possible. For instance, Hall and Pfister (1999) highlighted that all five continents were represented at the first congress, but “many parts of the world were not” represented (p. 20, correspondence between Dorothy Ainsworth and the Office of Military Government for Germany). Although they published newsletters in multiple languages in the first decade, the archives suggest that the purpose of the multiple
languages was to gain the interests of larger organisations (e.g., UNESCO) for networking opportunities. WSI, on the other hand, has more archival information about diversity, as it was previously mentioned that leaders were concerned with the task forces being homogenous in 1995. Two years after this comment in a letter to Barbara about the progress of WSI, Carole wrote that “there needs to be a louder voice of women of color” (Archive 63, 1997), meaning the women were aware of the lack of diversity within the organisation and WSI resembled an exclusive organisation. WSI archives also reveal the founders’ reactions to Hall (1994) and Hargreaves (1994) criticisms to WSI and IAPESGW as both organisations appeared to outsiders as being exclusive, made up of a homogenous group of women, and utilising a liberal approach that would not be transformative enough to advance girls and women in sport and physical activity. Celia wrote a letter to Hall and Hargreaves to address their criticisms in the literature and their general comments about WSI, stating that “we accept that we may be imperfect, but right now it is the closest we have got to an organisation which might genuinely transform sport” (Archive 43, 1994). It was evident that although the organisations did not want to be exclusive, based on the archives in the infancy years, both organisations paid more attention on setting up and locating the individuals who would be best suited to help them grow. The purpose of this section is to address the research participants’ views about the organisations based on the international circle of women sport volunteers and language being used as a barrier.

**Exclusive international circle**

One critique in line with criticisms of male sport organisations is the one that focuses on the development of strong networks of men, referred to the ‘old boy’s network’, who have “built-in advantage for recruitment, hiring, training, and promotion” (McKay, 1997, p. 56). In the context of IAPESGW and WSI, the participants identified a small group of women who fulfilled multiple roles in numerous organisations. For instance, after examining multiple organisations, Christine asserted that there are many of the same individuals within the numerous women’s organisations. When referring to one person in particular, she stated she’s with ICHPER, she’s with IAPESGW, she’s with ICSSPE, so it is really the same thing ... they are connected with all the same organisations. Darlene focused on this small group of women and suggested they maintain their close link because they stay in positions for a long time. Darlene
highlighted that people who have aspired to be in the international circle ... have made it in the international circle, and I think it is time now that we begin to bring in some other people to the international circle. Darlene and Christine are referring to the same women undertaking roles in both male-dominated organisations and women-focused organisations.

With specific focus on IAPESGW and WSI, this small circle of women represents those who are dedicated to advancing women’s sport. According to Gertrud, this causes both organisations to have exactly the same problem, that they are run by a few dedicated women. Darlene supported this as she stated, It takes every person, not just dedicated in their heart, but dedicated in their actions. And that takes a lot of energy to be able to do that. Some people have the energy, other people don’t have the energy. These few dedicated women in the international circle have shown that they are willing to utilise personal resources, are reliable, and are willing to fight for the advancement of gender issues in sport. However, their roles are not being replenished as they are not passing the torch.

**Language barriers**

Language has proven to be a barrier for international organisations. Over 30 years after Ainsworth’s retirement, when the association changed the languages used on documents, Darlene acknowledged that the best way to make the IAPESGW inclusive was for the association to translate all documents into as many languages as possible. This was important as Tansin realised that language is a great barrier to communication. But in physical activity it doesn’t have to be, so maybe there are more visual ways in which we might communicate as physical education and sport is about the movement of the body. During the interview, Tansin came up with an idea: I think it would sell itself best if there was some kind of video presentation where people from all over the world spoke about it, ’cause then you can see them and hear them which means so much more than what is on the literature. That is a good idea; I’m going to jot that one down. The women in the study are aware that there are different ways to get around the language barrier, as shown by Tansin; however, time, resources, and funds are reasons identified for limiting their quest to be inclusive.
Rosa (Venezuela) and Maryam (Iran) explained how language was a barrier for them and for people in their countries, which they both felt IAPESGW and WSI needed to consider. Referring to people in Latin America, Rosa stated that many people in the area of PE don’t speak English, and she insisted that there are language barriers [in IAPESGW], and we have to translate at least a journal that has the abstract in several languages, the abstract, not the whole journal and then in the congress; they need to provide some sort of translation to several languages. She continued by explaining that the biggest problem they, Spanish-speaking members, have is language. Rosa used an example of attending congresses where they may give us the book but I have to pay for that to be translated. She continued to address whether the congresses provide the translation [during sessions] into Spanish. She questioned would people pay lots of money to go to a congress and not understand a single word, no! Rosa recognised that IAPESGW is starting to be conscious that we have to provide translation. These feelings of exclusion to the association were echoed by Maryam who stated that because our language is not English, it is Persian, we (Iranians) have shortcomings in our relationship with other societies and we [IAPESGW] must be active in these matters. Rosa and Maryam were able to see that IAPESGW cannot grow without considering how to make sure everyone (congress delegates and associational members and leaders) understands what is going on at congresses and within the organisation.

Rosa criticised IAPESGW, and other international organisations, for not representing everybody as she felt that the association recruited people of the same age, similar background, similar socioeconomic status and employment because they don’t want to sacrifice anything to understand the ‘other’. She believed that, as an international organisation, it needs to represent more differences so socioeconomic status, cultures, background; all that you need in order to represent the minority; otherwise you’re reproducing what you are.

Further, Johanna showed similar feelings as she suggested WSI’s problem is that the leaders do not know how to reach women from diverse geographic locations. She stated that the President suggested three people, but they were all again from Europe. She very much wanted some diversity but didn’t know anyone suitable from Africa and Asia. So I suggested one from Africa, one from Asia. Rosa stated that international organisations pretend that people come to us and adapt to us, but we don’t adapt to
them. This suggests that there are issues of exclusion within the organisations as they are not fully welcoming to unilingual, non-native English speakers. This was further illustrated by Christine from the USA who volunteered in Venezuela and then worked with Spanish-speaking individuals in voluntary organisations where she observed people being disadvantaged during meetings because of language. Based on experiences with both IAPESGW and WSI, she stated that *even if you are bilingual and English is your second language, it is not a friendly place because if you hesitate for one minute, someone is going to cut you off or not understand what you are saying. It is very very hard!* In addition, she suggested that the organisations only think about the people and cultures sitting around the decision-making table. *So if there are not Muslim women at the table, we don’t think about them, if not an African women at the table, we don’t think about them ... you know white women have to speak up for those countries but we can’t speak for them.* Interestingly this was previously acknowledged focusing on what happened in male-dominated organisations when women are not at the table. As the women are addressing exclusionary practices based on gender, they are subsequently creating their own groups within the organisations. These language barriers identified by the members suggested that the organisations needed to look at the inside to identify their own exclusionary practices, which are embedded in their organisational cultures.

**Voluntary international women’s sport organisations**

This section focuses on the development of IAPESGW and WSI. Archival research and life history interviews are utilised to explain why the organisations were established, how they were constructed, and what the processes of maintaining and building the organisations are. The interviews illustrate the women’s perceptions of the organisations during the time of the interview. However, since three of the WSI participants are also founding members, they were able to provide information about the process of setting up WSI.

The archives highlight that the founders of both organisations had similar interests when developing women-based sport organisations – both wanted to address controversial topics of the time. For instance, IAPESGW first wanted to start a women’s group
whose focus was on physical education and sport. This group was interested in collectively engaging with women from different countries about physical education. The founders of IAPESGW also wanted to address gaps between sport activities and other disciplines in schools where some individuals were privileged in sport and physical education over others. In addition, they were concerned with abuse in sport and social problems and inequalities in sport. Over forty years later, WSI founders were interested in issues like eating disorders, sexual abuse, and doping in sport. Although these topics differ between organisations, they were viewed as being controversial during the eras when the organisations were being developed. Yet when comparing the organisations in the twenty-first century, the research participants described IAPESGW and WSI as organisations with different approaches. IAPESGW was presented as the oldest women-led organisation that has successfully brought women together to discuss issues in sport and physical education. WSI was described as a research-based, action-oriented organisation whose leaders and members were interested in tackling tough issues in the era.

It became evident that these international sport organisations provide women with opportunities and experiences that are different from male-dominated organisations. For instance, the women did not have to endure incidences of unequal gendered qualifications, unfair recruitment and selection practices, organisational cultures privileging males, expectations to obtain stereotypical female roles (Claringbould & Knoppers, 2007; Pfister & Radtke, 2009), harassment (Pfister & Radtke, 2009; McKay, 1999), and factors limiting progression (Claringbould & Knoppers, 2007; Henry et al., 2004; Hovden, 2004; McKay, 1997; Pfister, 2010). Yet these organisations were women-centred and aimed at offering women experiences of networking, leadership roles, and interactions with other individuals with similar interests. Hargreaves (1994) referred to women’s organisations as a ‘luxury’ because they offer members opportunities to bond in a place free of gender discrimination.

The participants also highlighted the importance of networking opportunities. Brackenridge (1992, p. 13) asserted that women’s sport organisations need to network with “any and all groups who are willing to work with them” so they can develop “partnerships with previously unlikely or unknown allies”. She even suggested that both organisations need to pursue all paths towards power and influence to establish
networks with government and nongovernment organisations and other sport groups. From interviews with women playing different roles in the Women’s International Sports Movement, Hargreaves (2000, p. 229) found that Carole Oglesby referred to connections made in and with women’s groups as “the global women’s sport advocacy community” where people could address gender issues in sport and physical activity by “speaking as one”. This also shows that women volunteers from voluntary international women’s sport organisations are just as significant as sport volunteers who work in other settings. In accordance to Bang and Chelladurai (2009), the women’s service in IAPESGW and WSI represent the ‘lynchpin’ linking the organisations to gender issues in sport and physical activity.

Yet some participants identified exclusionary practices within the organisations based on a small group of women who are represented in numerous organisations. It was suggested by one participant that these women staying in roles for long periods of time inhibit other women from getting involved. In addition, three participants focused on language as a barrier for women whose first language is not English. Such situations suggest that, although the organisations were established to address gendered exclusion in sport structures, exclusionary practices also exist from within the organisations because of language and networking with women who are already known, speak English, have access to technology, and whom other leaders are comfortable with. This may have happened because the founders were searching for women who had similar interests in establishing an organisation like IAPESGW or WSI. These founders were all from Westernised countries and in higher education. As the organisation had to become more organised, the women found themselves developing structures that suited the early members and founders whilst making English the organisational language, not always translating documents to other languages, and relying on individuals with specific qualifications. Therefore, beyond Hall’s (1994) and Hargreaves’ (1994) critiques as outsiders, some of the research participants identified exclusionary practices within the organisations.

The organisational structures started off as very similar as they both utilised loose structures, but this changed over time. This represented the early stages of many grassroots voluntary sport organisations, and has been referred to as ‘kitchen table structures’ (Kikulis, Slack, & Hinings, 1992). The research participants from
IAPESGW and WSI highlighted their organisational processes becoming more professional as the organisational membership grew. The women found that to maintain, they needed to gain funding. This was consistent with other voluntary non-profit organisations, as scholars noted the changes in non-profit organisations needing to have a constitution, defined roles, and an accurate membership count (Lyons, 2001; Saul, 2004).

IAPESGW and WSI also prove to be similar to other sport organisations in that they fit into four of the five characteristics identified by Robinson (2011). First, the leadership in both organisations are responsible to report to the voting membership. In addition, as IAPESGW is an association where the membership ultimately makes the decisions, the IAPESGW members appear to be more actively engaged than WSI. Second, and aligned with the first, the membership establishes the governing body, and, for these organisations, it is through the election of board members. Third, the board is made up of a small group of elected leaders. Fourth, both organisations are guided by their constitutions. The findings suggest that IAPESGW’s constitution has a stronger (over-structured) impact than WSI’s because changes to the association have to go through the membership. Due to the nature of these organisations, the fifth characteristic, organisation as part of country’s sport system, does not apply to this research.

Collective and Reflexive Styles of Volunteering (SOV) framework applied to current study

Throughout the data analysis process, the SOV was adapted to ensure the most accurate representation of the empirical data of the female participants’ accounts of their volunteering relationships with IAPESGW and WSI. Initially, the study utilised the SOV framework proposed by Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003). However, the dimensions and the meanings behind the terminology within this framework required refinement in order to emphasise the participants’ actions and thoughts about their own volunteer work. In addition, although Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) suggestion that volunteers should be studied along a continuum is valuable, it has traditionally been neglected. Thus, within this study, the continuum is highlighted as being significant for the biographical frame of reference and organisational dimensions because the women
illustrated changes within their own backgrounds, service, professions, and private lives. Subsequently, locating volunteers and identifying their movement along a continuum enabled a greater understanding about the women sport volunteers, which further impacted their entrance into sport volunteering and their changing nature of service. This chapter focused on two of the SOV dimensions (biographical frame of reference and organisational environment) which were identified for this study as the foundation needed to develop a fuller understanding of the research participants’ relationships with their volunteering activity in IAPESGW and WSI. The section presents the ways in which the SOV is utilised in the biographical frame of reference and organisational environment for the current study.

The biographical frame of reference dimension is adapted to represent the research participants’ backgrounds linked to their service in international women’s sport organisations. This is refined from Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) biographical dimension, which focused on developing an understanding about specific volunteer dispositions that would be linked to the other SOV dimensions (see Table 5.3). For instance, Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) specifically focused on an individual’s volunteer service and interests in a particular volunteering setting which was based on collective and individualistic perspectives. However, in this study, the life history interviews elicited a large amount of data that provided detailed information about the research participants’ backgrounds and links to sport and physical education. Therefore, instead of simply focusing on volunteering based on the time of the interview, the biographical frame of reference dimension is utilised to point out how the women constructed their understanding for their service within international women’s sport organisations. This is addressed by examining the participants’ sport backgrounds, educational histories, volunteering histories, and concerns with gender issues in sport and physical activity. Moreover, for the purpose of the current study, themes that emerged were guided by Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) dimensions to explain how the concepts are used and understood (see Table 5.3). For instance, the way in which the women constructed their ‘standard collective biographies’, ‘self-constructed identities’, ‘collective identities’, and ‘self-identity’ are all examined in their sport participation and educational background. This is further investigated to identify how the women developed their concern with gender issues in sport and physical activity. Overall, the findings illustrated that sport and physical activity are
central components for these women. The concepts that are linked more closely to volunteering addressed the women’s volunteer patterns and their pathways into volunteering (specifically into IAPESGW and WSI) through ‘biographical continuity’, ‘biographical discontinuity’ ‘ascribed group membership’, and ‘elective group membership’. The other concepts are closely linked to the women’s interests in gender issues in sport and physical activity and identified how the women linked their concerns with gender issues to their personal identities (biographical match). Table 5.3 presents the SOV concepts along with short descriptions of the meanings. The final column presents the themes that emerged within the concepts whilst analysing the data.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collective styles of volunteering</th>
<th>Reflexive Styles of volunteering</th>
<th>The study</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Objective</strong></td>
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<td>Standard, collective biography</td>
<td>Stable or standard patterns of volunteering</td>
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<td>Biographical continuity</td>
<td>Long-term, continuous forms of volunteering</td>
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<td>Ascribed group membership</td>
<td>Volunteer membership attributing to group membership</td>
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<td>Collective prescribed code of conduct</td>
<td>Volunteer work initiated, stipulated, and supervised by groups</td>
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<td><strong>Subjective</strong></td>
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<td>Collective identity</td>
<td>Volunteer service intermingled with construction and affirmation of group-based identity where people share feelings of togetherness</td>
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<td>Self-evident subordination to collective goal-setting</td>
<td>Volunteers embrace commitment to common goal and willingness to perform diffuse sets of activities to ensure maintenance of organisation whilst pushing their own agendas to the side</td>
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<td>Avowal of group belonging</td>
<td>Identifying dedication to organisational goals, and volunteering roles. View of being core members of organisation</td>
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<td>Heteronomous monitoring</td>
<td>Volunteers’ effort and socially predetermined and stable modes that ensure sustainability for voluntary organisations</td>
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</table>

Table 5.3 Main themes emerging from the SOV application for biographical frame of reference

The findings illustrate that the women’s roles in each of these domains are changing, and subsequently these changes spark or impact the women's work with IAPESGW and WSI. Figure 5.1 illustrates the continuum within the biographical frame of reference, representing the changes in which the participants underwent to serve on international women’s organisations. The columns are labelled by the SOV, but the themes presented in Figure 5.1 represent how the labels are defined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Biographical frame of reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Collective styles of volunteering</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard, collective biography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biographical continuity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ascribed group membership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collective prescribed code of conduct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collective identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-evident subordination to collective goal-setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avowal of group belongings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heteronomous monitoring</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 5.1 Continuum of biographical frame of reference*

Through the refinement of the sixteen concepts and the recognition that all aspects of volunteering need to be identified along a continuum, the biographical frame of reference offers a way to obtain richer information about the foundation of the women as sport volunteers than what would have been obtained from utilising Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) proposed framework. The life history interviews are useful with the continuum because they identify incidences when the women’s behaviours or attitudes towards sport, education, and gender issues changed. This was particularly significant as the women describe their growing concerns for gender issues in sport, physical activity, and even society (e.g., paid work). The themes for the biographical frame of reference enable these factors to be highlighted.

The organisational environment dimension is also addressed within this chapter. This dimension is adapted to represent IAPESGW’s and WSI’s organisational environments in which the research participants chose to volunteer. This dimension was refined from
Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) suggestion by focusing more on the actual setting and how it came about (see Table 5.4). Volunteers’ roles within these settings are also addressed; however, these are based on the processes used to establish the organisations. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) were more concerned with volunteers and their particular style of volunteering, such as being engaged in voluntary organisations that are highly structured versus a voluntary organisation without structure. The scholars also addressed volunteers’ attachment to the organisation. Although these are all significant, it is valuable to have a fundamental understanding about the setting in which the women’s volunteer service was based on. In addition, it is useful to identify the participants’ accounts of IAPESGW and WSI based on how they are in the twenty-first century. Through such fundamental knowledge about the organisations and the women’s constructed accounts of them, the research participants’ service and relationships can be better understood based on the other four dimensions in the SOV.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Study themes:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchical, socially or ideologically organisational society</td>
<td>Structured vs. unstructured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong leadership core</td>
<td>Leadership represent the core of the organisation vs. undefined roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tight coupling between formal group membership and volunteering</td>
<td>Formal volunteer roles from membership vs. limited volunteer roles from membership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associational volunteering</td>
<td>Associational-based volunteering vs. program-based volunteers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5.4 Main themes emerging from the SOV application for organisational environment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The SOV</th>
<th>The Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collective styles of volunteering</td>
<td>Hustinx and Lammertyn’s defined focus for:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Hustinx and Lammertyn’s defined focus for:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchical, socially or ideologically organisational society</td>
<td>Reflexive Styles of volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong leadership core</td>
<td>Tertiary and non-profit segmented organisations, decentralized initiatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tight coupling between formal group membership and volunteering</td>
<td>Non-democratically structures professional organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associatesational volunteering</td>
<td>Study themes:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program volunteering</td>
<td>Non-clear power structure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Study themes:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjective</th>
<th>Strong organisational attachment</th>
<th>Weak organisational attachment</th>
<th>High centralised</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Devotion to the organisational goals and missions</td>
<td><strong>Volunteers’ descriptions of organisations</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overlapping involvements/ Socialisation and integration through involvement Service is understood as loyalty</td>
<td>Closely-linked roles/ environments which teach participants about organisational culture and values Attachment develops and strengths through social involvement</td>
<td>De-localized commitment Vicarious commitment</td>
<td><strong>Volunteers’ experiences of leadership within IAPESGW and WSI</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong dedication to organisation’s values and goals</td>
<td>Volunteers strengthen their identities with organisational values and goals</td>
<td>Functionally oriented attitudes: focus on activities offered, not on organisation within which they are performed</td>
<td>Organisational activities tailored for volunteers’ private interests</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.4 presents the objective about the organisations as suitable environments to volunteer by focusing on its structure, the leadership roles, memberships’ voluntary roles, and service as associational based or project based. The subjective addresses the participants’ accounts of the organisations by focusing on descriptions, experiences, and accounts of growth and change. The outlined black box in the subjective column indicates the significant themes that emerged from the participants’ perceptions of the organisations.

The archives and the interviews point out the changes in the organisational environment and women’s perceptions of the organisations and their experiences. Figure 5.2 illustrates the continuum within the organisational environment, representing the organisational change based on archives and narratives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational environment</th>
<th>Collective styles of volunteering</th>
<th>Reflexive Styles of volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objective</strong></td>
<td>Hierarchical, socially or ideologically organisational society</td>
<td>Tertiary and non-profit segmented organisations, decentralized initiatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong leadership core</td>
<td></td>
<td>Decoupling of membership and volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tight coupling between formal group membership and volunteering</td>
<td></td>
<td>New volunteer-centred institutional structures and forms of recruitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associational volunteering</td>
<td></td>
<td>Program volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective</td>
<td>Strong organisational attachment</td>
<td>Weak organisational attachment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong dedication to organisation’s values and goals</td>
<td></td>
<td>Functionally oriented attitudes: focus on activities offered, not on organisation within which they are performed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 5.2 Continuum of organisational environment**

The continuum in Figure 5.2 was useful to illustrate how the organisations changed over time. Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) framework provides a useful starting point;
however, since this was not a longitudinal study, the participants did not identify changes in the organisations over a period of time. Instead, combining the archival data with the interviews enables for the identification of the changes from the archives compared to the participant accounts.

**Summary**

The purpose of this chapter is to present what the reader needs to know about the volunteers’ wider lifestyles and life histories, and the features of each organisational context to further understand their specific experiences of their voluntary activity. Focusing on the biographical frame of reference and organisational environment dimensions provides the fundamental information needed to explore the female participants’ volunteer relationships with IAPESGW and WSI. The first half of the chapter focuses on the women’s accounts of their biographies. This enables for profile development for these leaders of international women’s sport organisations. The profile is developed by drawing on the women’s sport, educational, professional, and volunteer histories. This profile is valuable because this is the first study to specifically focus on women sport volunteers in IAPESGW and WSI. Moreover, it is useful because it provides insight into why and how the women constructed their concerns for gender issues in sport and physical activity.

The second half of the chapter uses organisational archives and women’s accounts to describe organisational environments as an environment to volunteer. Through these descriptions, it was evident that both organisations were concerned with advancing girls and women in sport and physical activity. However, it also appears that the women in the different organisations are interested in addressing these concerns through different approaches and volunteering behaviours. The SOV provides a useful starting point to analyse the life history interviews and organisational archives; however, to make more use of the data, the framework is refined to present a fuller picture of the interviewees and the organisations. The next chapter begins to investigate the research participants’ volunteering relationships with the organisations by specifically exploring the women’s motivations to join IAPESGW and WSI and how they chose such activity. It also
examines the women’s changing commitment levels and the impacts of balancing unpaid voluntary service, paid work, and personal lives.
CHAPTER 6
CONTRIBUTIONS AND EXPERIENCES AS SPORT VOLUNTEERS

Chapter Five presented the context in which the participants’ voluntary activity with IAPESGW and WSI took place through the women’s personal context (biographies) and organisational contexts. It also initiated an analysis of what the environments offered the volunteers. Chapter Six delves more deeply into the interview data to provide a more analytical examination of why women got involved with IAPESGW and WSI, and how participants’ volunteer relationships were developed, strengthened, and maintained over time. This chapter addresses the four remaining dimensions of the SOV – motivation, choice of activity, commitment, and relation to paid work – that are aspects of the volunteering experience occurring within the context established through the other two dimensions.

The SOV continues to be developed through the data analysis process. The original version separated the four dimensions so that

- the motivation dimension was concerned with understanding what motivated the research participants to volunteer;
- the choice of activity dimension was concerned with the participants’ interests and involvement within the international women’s sport organisations;
- the course and intensity of commitment dimension was concerned with the changes in volunteering commitments;
- and the relation to paid work focused on how paid employment, volunteer work, and self-initiated activities complement one another (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003).

Utilising these dimensions separately or in combination with just one or two others is consistent with research on sport volunteering (Cuskelley, Harrington, & Stebbins, 2003; Johnston, Twynam, & Farrell, 1999; MacLean & Hamm, 2007). However, in this study, it became evident that there was continual overlap amongst the dimensions. Consequently, the identification of participants’ experiences or narratives in each
dimension is complex. For instance, during the examination of the participants’ motives to volunteer in IAPESGW and WSI, interviewees also referred to why they chose the specific activity and organisation (choice of activity). Therefore, these two dimensions – motivations and choice of activity – are merged to present the participants’ responses regarding their motives and choices to volunteer in international women’s sport organisations. In addition, there are also strong links between the course and intensity of commitment, the motivational structure, and the choice of activity. Through these linked dimensions and the women’s core involvement, the findings presented the women’s large investment of time, energy, and resources required to volunteer. However, the framework is not clear in highlighting under what circumstances these women were able to volunteer. Moreover, the final dimension in the original framework, relation to paid work, focused on the male-constructed activities of work. This does not acknowledge the socially defined responsibilities of the domestic work dimension, meaning it does not consider sacrifices in domestic spheres. Instead, it suggests that volunteering is more prominent for men or possibly for non-working women, and therefore, the relation to the paid work dimension cannot be addressed on the same level as the other remaining three dimensions – motivation, choice of activity, and intensity of commitment – because it does not accurately show the magnitude of work, self-sacrifice, and interests. The relation to paid work (lifestyle) dimension will be presented separately in order to construct an understanding of what circumstances these women volunteer for IAPESGW and WSI.

This chapter begins by focusing on the motivation and choice dimensions. The section presents a discussion about the pair of dimensions and how they are utilised together. The section then applies the research participants’ narratives to the paired dimensions. Information about the commitment dimension is included when overlaps emerged. The participant narratives are applied to the overlapping three dimensions.
Motivational structure and choice of volunteering for IAPESGW and WSI

The dimension of motivational structure focuses on why research participants volunteer within international women’s sport organisations. Chapter Five informs us that the women have sport experiences and interests in gender, and we are now seeing how that translates into their volunteering activity. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004), the motivational dimension highlighted the value volunteers assign to recognition, satisfaction, and self-development from inside their voluntary organisation. This dimension addresses the women’s social and personal interests to further understand the significance of their volunteer participation. Table 6.1 presents Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) concepts within this dimension and how they were identified for the current study.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Table 6.1 Overview of Motivational structure dimension</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The SOV – motivational structure</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Collective styles of volunteering</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinating religious and ideological meaning systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clearly defined positions and roles in community of relevance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tool for biographical stability and identity affirmation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.1 presents and defines the eight concepts of the motivational structure of the SOV. The concepts were further defined for this study to link the participants and their service in IAPESGW and WSI.

Aligned with the motivation to volunteer is the dimension of choice of activity (international women’s sport organisations), which is concerned with the type of voluntary work the research participants chose (IAPESGW or WSI). According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004), this choice is determined by individuals’ interests, and this dimension is closely linked to a person’s biographical history, which guides their motivations. Table 6.2 presents Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) concepts in the choice of field dimension as well as how the concepts are defined for the current study.

Table 6.2 presents and conceptualises the eleven concepts of choice of (field of) activity for the SOV. The concepts are further defined to suit the participants of this study. Thus, the tables are valuable to highlight how closely participants’ choice to be involved within international women’s sport organisations and their motives to engage in such voluntary activities are intertwined. The merged concepts are presented (see Table 6.3) based on the definitions conceptualised for this study (the sixth column in Tables 6.1 and 6.2).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>The SOV – choice of activity (voluntary organisation)</th>
<th>The Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collective styles of volunteering</td>
<td>Hustinx and Lammertyn’s defined focus for:</td>
<td>Hustinx and Lammertyn’s defined focus for:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Reflexive styles of volunteering</td>
<td>Defined for study:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion/exclusion based on universalization of a common culture and way of living/ Reproduction of traditional gender patterns</td>
<td>Constructing identification of strong identity based on inclusion of group or social, person, cultural exclusion; feelings of belonging; association with bonding place/ volunteering based on traditional structures and environments</td>
<td>Local disintegration amid global integration: globalized elective networks/ Interaction between local action and global concerns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiated and supervised by others</td>
<td>Entry into voluntary activities initiated by others</td>
<td>Entrance into IAPESGW and WSI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective</td>
<td>Group-based politics</td>
<td>Group-based politics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lifestyle and identity politics</td>
<td>Cultures, feelings of belonging are increasingly self-selected on basis of shared interests; political cleavage based on cultural issues and quality of life</td>
<td>Group identity within IAPESGW and WSI; shared interests and political cleavage within organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily feelings of solidarity</td>
<td>Individuals perceptions of sameness or shared life experiences and problems</td>
<td>Recognising identity in collective environments or identifying personal perspectives in line with others in IAPESGW and WSI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contained/confined to group association/ feelings of unity</td>
<td>Daily feelings of solidarity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bounding, parochial solidarity</td>
<td>Individuals perceptions of sameness or shared life experiences and problems</td>
<td>Recognising identity in collective environments or identifying personal perspectives in line with others in IAPESGW and WSI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour based on ideals</td>
<td>Pragmatism, focused activism</td>
<td>Concrete, practical nature of volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wide-ranging, multi-purposive community involvement</td>
<td>Ranging interests and volunteering roles in organisation and activities</td>
<td>Preference for personal, one-to-one service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preference for personal, one-to-one service</td>
<td>Concrete, practical nature of volunteering</td>
<td>Personal interests/ guiding service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary interests in IAPESGW/WSI or personal agenda</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivational structure</th>
<th>Choice of international women’s sport organisations</th>
<th>Focus for section</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Influences from society, religion, family, personal experiences in sport, education profession leading to service within IAPESGW and WSI</td>
<td>Volunteering with IAPESGW and WSI because concerned with global issues affecting girls and women in sport, physical education, and physical activity/ Challenging gender norms</td>
<td>Volunteering for IAPESGW and WSI based on community interests: 1. Developing interests and shared identities 2. Developing global interests and concerns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group based identity within IAPESGW and WSI; shared interests and political cleavage within organisation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recognising identity in collective environments or identify personal perspectives in line with others in IAPESGW and WSI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ideals of voluntary service in IAPESGW and WSI vs. tangible and concrete views of service</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteering based on IAPESGW and WSI needing a particular roles/special expertise or knowledge or sporadically when volunteers feel needed</td>
<td>Volunteering with IAPESGW and WSI because concerned with global issues affecting girls and women in sport, physical education, and physical activity/ Challenging gender norms</td>
<td>Reason for volunteering in IAPESGW or WSI related to organisational need of: specific roles, special expertise, knowledge, and own need of sporadic entrances and exits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Entrance into IAPESGW and WSI</td>
<td>1. Entrance into organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group based identity within IAPESGW and WSI; shared interests and political cleavage within organisation</td>
<td>2. Shared interests and political cleavage vs. identification politics and lifestyle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recognising identity in collective environments or identifying personal perspectives in line with others in IAPESGW and WSI</td>
<td>3. Agreeing with ideals of voluntary service and tangible or concrete views of volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ideals of voluntary service in IAPESGW and WSI vs. tangible and concrete views of service</td>
<td>Collective and personal volunteer motives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary interests in IAPESGW and WSI or personal agenda</td>
<td>4. Construct and reconstruct identity through volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ideals of voluntary service in IAPESGW and WSI vs. tangible and concrete views of service</td>
<td>5. Willingness to engage in multiple roles and activities for volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary interests in IAPESGW and WSI or personal agenda</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.3 illustrates how the motivational structure and the choice of activity dimensions are merged to identify the significant topics. The purpose of this section is
to present the women’s narratives of what motivates them to volunteer and why they chose IAPESGW or WSI. This section begins by addressing volunteering for IAPESGW and WSI for community-based interests, and then moves to focus on reasons for volunteering in IAPESGW and WSI. The section concludes by presenting collective and personal motives to volunteer.

**Links to voluntary service within IAPESGW and WSI based on community interests**

This section draws on the fundamental information gained from the biographical frame of reference dimension to provide insight into the impact of communal and global interests in issues of volunteering within IAPESGW and WSI. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003), communal values are traditionally influenced by religious traditions, social and cultural ideologies, family value systems, and other influential actors (e.g., teachers and friends). In addition, the authors identified that there are often links between individuals’ communal roots and their global interests. Therefore, communal values linked to volunteering and concerns with global issues are explored to construct an understanding about the influence these factors had on the research participants.

This first half of this section begins with a discussion about the community-based outlets, addressing communal values learned in church, in school, and through family. The section that follows focuses on how the interviewees developed interests in global issues for girls and women in sport and physical education. This section concludes with a short discussion comparing the women’s communal values and global interests to the existing sport volunteering literature.

**Lifelong influences to volunteer from community-based outlets and actors**

The interview data previously presented in Chapter Five (see Tables 5.1 and 5.2) reveals that all of the women linked some values developed early in their life to their
Religious outlets (church and school) are identified as significant institutions for the development of communal values. Nine participants from IAPESGW and WSI referred to their values being constructed through religious roots. Two IAPESGW leaders (Gertrud and Susi-Käthi) and four WSI leaders (Barbara, Christine, Carole, and Kari) discussed attending Catholic and Christian churches and being raised by parents with strong Christian ethics. These women identified the institutions of family and church constructing and strengthening their understanding to help others. Gertrud stated that my father was also Catholic, my mother was very religious, and she illustrated learning about communal/religious values through her parents. Susi-Käthi, on the other hand, explained that her family did not attend church on a regular basis, but it was through her own participation in a small church group, called [translated in English] the Young Church, that enabled her to embody the religious values to help others. These women discussed developing their communal understanding in church and family settings.

In addition, two WSI leaders, Celia and Johanna, discussed developing communal values in religious-based school settings. Johanna recounted her experiences where she learned the value of giving to others: Every Monday morning ... they encouraged you to donate a little bit of money for what was called missionary [English translation]. I remember all my brothers and sisters, we always brought 10 cents; my parents gave us this to give to the missionary that was for work overseas and developing countries. Crediting her religious school background, Celia stated, I had a Christian foundation, and every morning we had a reading from the Bible and we had an address from the headmistress, and we had to sit in silence and listen to this, and all of the messages that were coming across were about achievement and service, achievement and service. Although Celia and Johanna’s development of religious values were not in church or solely through their family, both women reflected on how these values began being developed in their educational institutions.

Maryam, IAPESGW member, linked the construction of her values to her Muslim religion which was embedded in her family upbringing as she implied that her religion taught her to help others. She watched her parents practice these values as she
explained that her father insisted in helping other people. She also asserted that, due to his occupation as a teacher, he was interested in helping others in their studies. She described her mother as being kind and patient and said these traits were known throughout the community. Maryam was one of the four participants who linked their voluntary service to her family.

WSI leader, Barbara, assumed that it [helping others] was part of life because she observed her mother working as a nurse, one uncle volunteered as the chief of the community rescue, and the other uncle volunteered as the chief of the fire department. Barbara noted that each of these individuals helped others in the community, and she believed that she learned these values through a sort of osmosis. IAPESGW leaders Darlene and Margaret indicated having similar upbringings as they also observed their parents helping others, and teaching them that they should treat everyone equally. Finally, Rosa (IAPESGW) was the only participant to refer to learning about voluntary values from her wider culture, Latin American, as she stated: I have done volunteer work all my life. I think it is a family issue. In Latin America we do volunteer work; I would say we are, culturally speaking, a helping culture.

The women developed their foundations for volunteering from an early age as they referred to religion, the process of socialisation, and culture all as motives to volunteer for communal values. This illustrates the interaction between their service and biographical conditions linked to the women’s influence from social institutions, which they experienced early in their lives.

The research participants illustrated the importance of helping others and referred to their service in IAPESGW and WSI being aligned with their interests to make sport for other girls and women better than in the past. Kari stated that all the women, regardless of organisation, wanted to work for women and sport. Other research participants echoed this by stating: I will do it as long as I feel it does benefit some people (Tansin); and we try to make people’s life better, to improve; I feel myself that in this connection, in this network we try to help others (Rosa). Mee Lee (IAPESGW) concurred and explained her vision of girls and women in sport:
For women’s sports, I think every woman should be given equal opportunity to participate in their sport of her own choice and that is why women’s sport is so important because, not to talk about equality, but they have to be given opportunity to participate in sport of their choice. They have the right!

The research participants illustrated their desire to help. Maryam explained that she felt that this service was her, and the other leaders’, duty to do something for women. Maryam implied that it is their duty because the women are in positions where they can help girls and women. However, Maryam was the only research participant to refer to their helping efforts as a duty. Moreover, referring to it as a duty is an interesting way to address their service because the majority of members and leaders of these organisations were women who live in societies that construct expectations for women to have more communal (altruistic) motives for voluntary activities than men since social stereotypes link women to caregiver responsibilities (Bittman et al., 2003; Nesteruk & Price, 2011; Rake & Lewis, 2009). Specifically in sport volunteering settings, Khoo and Englehorn’s (2011) research on Special Olympics supported the expectation that women volunteer for altruistic reasons as they found that females were interested in volunteering because they wanted to be part of the community or wanted to create a better society. Although the research participants from the current study do not address communal motives stemming from such social gender norms, their actions and recognition of volunteering are based on communal values and supports existing literature that suggests people are motivated to volunteer in sport because of altruistic factors.

Altruistic (purposive) factors have been identified as being significant motives for sport volunteers, despite the settings ranging from community, national and international sporting events, or organisational (Bang & Chelladurai, 2009; Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998; Johnston, Twynam, & Farrell, 1999). Kim, Zhang, and Connaughton (2010) referred to altruistic factors as ‘values’ and found that they were the strongest voluntary motive for their volunteers in two international youth-based events and two local and national youth sport organisations (Korean and American). They also suggested that altruistic values are significant for sport volunteers who participate in voluntary activities in an episodic manner. The data from the current study supports these altruistic values as the research participants identified being motivated to serve in
a leadership capacity on IAPESGW and WSI as a way to help better sport and physical activity for girls and women.

The sport literature focuses on altruistic factors more than religious values. Although British sport was identified as being underpinned in nineteenth century by religious beliefs (Polley, 2011), sport and religion have been identified as being blended in Westernised sport ideology (Meyer, 2011). Some sport organisations are motivated by religion (Houlihan, 2011), yet there appears to be a gap in the literature that addresses sport volunteers being motivated to volunteer because of religious roots. The existing literature that is accessible (e.g., Lasby and McIver (2004)) utilises reports that link arts, culture, and recreation. Although these authors highlighted that 26% of Canadian volunteers were motivated by wanting to fulfil religious obligations or beliefs, the report was not specific to sport. Since the current study uses a holistic framework, it is possible to address the impact of religious influences or motives aligned with voluntary service in sport, particularly in international women’s sport organisations. Within the sport volunteering literature, there also appears to be a gap in the literature about cultural motivations for volunteering. The data from the current study is consistent with Hamm-Kerwin, Misener, and Doherty (2009) as they also found their participants’ cultures having a significant impact on their sport volunteering. However, there is minimal existing work to compare the cultural motivational findings within the sport field, suggesting that more research could be undertaken on sport volunteers’ roots to volunteering in religion and culture.

**Developing interests for volunteering at a global level - Leading to IAPESGW and WSI**

IAPESGW and WSI are different from other women’s sport organisations as they represent girls and women on an international level. Throughout the interviews, the participants illustrated their volunteering efforts shifting from national settings to international environments. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003), volunteers may acknowledge their interests in global issues when reflecting on their own experiences and interests, as well as on the development of new opportunities. Through participation with IAPESGW and WSI, the research participants showed their interests in helping women on a global level. Johanna strongly believed in the cause of WSI, and
she would like to give opportunities [in sport and physical activity] to all women and girls all over the world. Barbara, from WSI, concurred and also stated that I don’t think you want to be a member unless you want to make a difference internationally. Thus the purpose of this section is to explain how the research participants’ developed global interests to advance girls and women in sport.

The research participants identified a range of reasons why they began to develop an interest in volunteering at a global level, such as family background, personal experiences, and travels. These factors led to interests in global topics and agendas. The participants recalled getting involved because they were invited to international conferences to give papers, were mentored on significance of topics, or were not simply happy with existing male power structures. Each of these topics is explored in this section.

Darlene and Johanna identified the construction of their interests for global issues stemming from personal backgrounds and experience. Darlene, for example, was a first generation American whose parents were from the Czech Republic and Slovakia. She stated, I had always been interested in international kinds of things because I spoke Czech before I spoke English. She also learned German at an early age, and, therefore, she suggested that learning these different languages sparking her interest in global issues. Johanna linked the development of global concerns to her early life in Holland and then her relocation to Australia and Italy. Johanna stated, I found it very interesting and I found all these global things interesting.... I have always found international global perspective interesting. Johanna linked her personal experiences to the development of international concern as she found the more she travelled and learned about a culture, the more she wanted to be involved with voluntary activities at a global level. Darlene and Johanna were the only two participants who suggested developing foundations for international relations from personal family backgrounds and experiences.

Celia was heavily involved with WSF (UK) as she was the inaugural president. She spearheaded the growth of this advocacy organisation in Britain. However, after retiring from there due to an illness, she found that her volunteering [interests] began moving to a more global scale because I had colleagues that I met at conferences who
were interested in the same issues as I was, and my research interests were moving more and more to harassment and abuse issues at this stage. As she moved to a more global arena, Celia realised that the topics that interested her and her colleagues were not being addressed through international voluntary sport organisations. Lynn’s entrance into global issues was similar to Celia as Lynn began to realise that my involvement with professional associations was following a similar path to my teaching/work, that is, from local to national to international ... having been involved at a national level with both women and sport and HPER, it seemed logical to try my hand at [an] international level. Lynn and Celia wanted to network with other people who had similar interests and who wanted to address the same types of problems from a global perspective.

Other participants identified conducting studies in their home countries that were relevant to share at international conferences. Barbara and Margaret recalled being invited to give papers at an IAPESGW congress. Barbara recounted on her first experience of an international commitment when she went to Bali for IAPESGW’s Congress in 1989. Although she enjoyed the experience, Barbara asserted that if she was not invited there, she was sure she would have developed an international interest through another avenue. Margaret was invited to this same Congress because she was doing quite a lot of research on the distributional data mainly about the inequalities of access of women in sport, of women to sport, and that had come from earlier interests in different behaviours between girls and boys. She described the experience being

... fantastic! Flying out on the day of the Royal wedding between Charles and Diana to first of all Rio, where we had a pre-Congress seminar, which was absolutely super, where I saw some of the best dance that I have ever seen, with very very mixed race and young people in Rio, high schools in Rio, beautiful young people, absolutely stunning, with tremendous mixture of influences from, obviously Afro-Caribbean, voodoo dance, from Indian dance from the indigenous people of Brazil, from Portuguese background, it was just very very exciting and of course Rio is an exciting city, so all of that was terrific. And then we went to Buenos Aires by way of Iguassu Zoo Falls, which is one of the biggest waterfalls in the world, and that’s in Paraguay and so we had 36 hours in Paraguay to do a walk around the Iguassu Falls, I think one of the greatest

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thrills I had was an armadillo running across my feet [giggling] ... I can remember a plenary presentation by Helen Elkington, who is one of our leading lecturers in swimming in the UK, very interesting character. None of her AV would work, and so she stood up in front of about 700 people, with a little doll, with hinges at the joints, and explained what she meant about synchronized swimming, and she held that audience in the palm of her hand for an hour using this very simple method, she had prepared meticulously video tapes, but of course it was very early days of video tapes and they just weren’t compatible and I just thought that was amazing. So that is how I got involved.

Margaret went on to discuss learning about the political situation in Buenos Aires, seeing first-hand how girls were treated in physical education in different parts of the world. This intrigued her and further sparked her global interests.

Three participants identified learning the significance of women’s sports and physical activity at a global level from mentors. Darlene and Susi-Käthi met women who served within IAPESGW and were asked why they were not members. Darlene attended an IAPESGW social in the USA at an Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance (AAPHERD) convention where a woman called Muriel Sloan, invited Darlene to attend an IAPESGW congress. Darlene did and found that this was a way to network and stay up-to-date about women’s sport and physical education issues around the world. However, taking a role within international organisations did not appear to be of interest until a mentor/colleague/friend contacted her:

Doris Corbett called me one day and she says, ‘Darlene would you like to help me start this up?’ And I think the official title was director or coordinator of the International Council for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, Sport, and Dance [ICPER•SD] so my first experience at the international level in a leadership position was with ICHPER•SD was first Director of the Commission.

After serving as Director of the Commission, Darlene was then ready to address more gender-related issues on a global scale. Christine’s experience was different from Susi-Käthi and Darlene as she volunteered for the Peace Corps (an American volunteer program that works to assist others outside the USA in social and economic
Once Christine was no longer serving for the Peace Corps, her mentor invited her to get involved with ICHPER•SD, which had a mixed gendered focus. Yet it was the people that she worked with that helped develop her interests in gender issues. Christine explained,

... it was the international peace, that this is an international organisation. Lynn Van Dien was part of it, she was a person that I knew, very involved with ICHPER•SD, Carole was involved ... and we were working on an UN document at the time and ICHPER was the organisation we were using to develop a women and sport organisation.

Lee Morrison encouraged Christine to stay involved with international voluntary service, whilst Carole mentored her into a national organisation focusing on gender issues.

Two participants got involved with international women’s sport organisations because they were not happy with the existing (male-dominated) structures. Carole and Kari experienced disadvantages within male-dominated organisations at a global level that sparked their interests. Carole was appointed to work with the World University Games and found that it was being run like a big honcho group for the Olympics. She explained how her interest to fight disadvantages in sport was changing. My mission in a sense just got translated from a national level to an international level and from a sport only focus to trying to make women’s sport a women’s movement kind of connection. Kari’s interest was developed during her service on the Executive Board of the Norwegian Track and Field Association. Of course I was there, but I was not particularly interested in women’s issues, yet I remember I asked why we didn’t have any statistics about membership of women and men and why men get four national teams and women only get two. It was Kari’s acknowledgement of differences between the sexes within the association that led her to propose the establishment of a working group for girls and women in sport. Through this, Kari went to women’s sport conferences and got involved with the European Working Group on Women and Sport (EWS) which led to international networking opportunities with people like Celia, Gertrud, and Barbara.
The women had various reasons for the development of their interests in volunteering at a global level. The existing sport volunteering literature that focuses on individuals’ motives to volunteer on a global level is significant as Bang and Chelladurai (2009) developed an international motivational scale and introduced the motive of patriotism to the sport field. Fairley, Kellett, and Green (2007) and Jarvis and Blank (2011) addressed factors of tourism being linked to voluntary service in sport. These studies enhanced the sport volunteering field; however, the current study does not fully support these findings. Bang and Chelladurai (2009) investigated sport volunteers at the FIFA World Cup and found their participants were interested in volunteering on an international level to help others, as the most important factor, and because of patriotic motives. Although all the women in the current study were interested in volunteering on a global level, consistent with Bang and Chelladurai’s (2009) first motive, none of the women suggested being motivated by patriotism.

The findings of the current study are significantly different from others because IAPESGW and WSI are different from other (women’s) sport organisations. In addition, this is the first study that investigates women leaders in international sport organisations who are successful in creating international forums to discuss gender issues in sport with individuals from different parts of the world (Hargreaves, 1994). In addition, Hargreaves highlighted that, due to the increase in globalisation, all countries are affected and influenced by other countries. Therefore, the research participants all found that they were being exposed to international environments through family, research, conferences, mentors, or even their own service in an organisation which is consistent with Hargreaves comment about globalisation. This “global interconnectedness has led to new levels of global interdependence – growth of international, supranational, and transnational organizations, institutions, and movements – implying a shift away from society and nation state to world society” (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 461). The research participants indicated a number of ways through which they developed interests and began to participate in international settings aiming to address gender and sport issues.
Motivations and reasons for choosing to volunteer in IAPESGW and WSI

This section focuses on the research participants’ motivations and reasons for choosing to volunteer within IAPESGW and WSI. The section begins by presenting the data that explain the women’s pathways of entry into IAPESGW and WSI. It then moves to present the data to illustrate the participants’ development of shared interests and political identities. The data in this section will be presented based on the organisations because of the differences in organisational histories and cultures.

The volunteering environments are different for IAPESGW and WSI. Volunteers entering IAPESGW were entering a previously established organisation with a long stable history. In contrast, WSI emerged out of IAPESGW, and three of the six research participants were founding members, meaning they had constructed the organisational identity and the organisational structures. Due to the differences in organisations, the entrances are presented separately.

Entrance into IAPESGW

IAPESGW is the oldest international women’s sport organisation, and, for a long time, it was the only international women’s sport organisation. All fifteen of the research participants identified having some participation with the association, whether it was giving a keynote address, presenting a paper, attending a congress, signing up for membership, or fulfilling a leadership position. The women’s pathways into the association are significant since they assist in explaining their decisions to volunteer within these organisations. This section focuses on the research participants that were active members and leaders of IAPESGW at the time of the interview. The nine research participants explained their pathways into IAPESGW and into a leadership position which is presented in Table 6.4.
Table 6.4 Pathways into IAPESGW

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Entrance into IAPESGW</th>
<th>Entrance into leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tansin</td>
<td>Approached because of research</td>
<td>Asked to take editor role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lynn</td>
<td>Invited to congress when co-presenting with Margaret at EWS conference</td>
<td>Asked to take editor role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryam</td>
<td>Approached because personal interest in sport, religion, and culture</td>
<td>After presenting paper at congress, invited to help with the ‘study week’ in Oman and then asked to stand for position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susi-Käthi</td>
<td>Mentored by Margaret through EWS</td>
<td>Invited to be a member of Executive Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Darlene</td>
<td>Mentored/invited by Muriel Sloan to attend congress</td>
<td>After years of being a member, invited to stand for Committee of Consultants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mee-lee</td>
<td>Invited to give paper at congress by Darlene</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rosa</td>
<td>Invited to congress by Margaret</td>
<td>Invited to be a member of Executive Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gertrud</td>
<td>Won Ainsworth award for a book</td>
<td>Invited to take role in Committee of Consultants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Margaret</td>
<td>Invited to give paper</td>
<td>Invited to stand for Executive Committee</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.4 shows the various ways women entered IAPESGW: two of the research participants approached the organisation, two women were invited to give papers, two women were invited to the congress whilst at other congresses, two were mentored/invited to join, and one person won the Dorothy Ainsworth Book Award. Based on these women’s pathways into the organisation, it cannot be determined the most successful process to increase membership in the organisation. Table 6.4 also presents the women’s pathways to leadership. Six women were invited to stand for a position so the membership could vote them in, and two women were asked because the role needed to be filled. This suggests that entry into leadership positions for all the women was initiated by someone else, which supports the collective styles of volunteering. This is significant since it suggests that these women’s leadership positions were sparked by someone else who believed they may be a good leader. The next section presents one narrative for each of the five pathways into IAPESGW.

Tansin and Maryam approached IAPESGW. Tansin’s story was different from most because she was invited to an IAPESGW Congress in 1973 to perform as a dancer (when she was in her twenties). During this time, she attended the congress only as a demonstrator and no one had told her about the association. It was not until she began conducting research that was aligned with the association that she realised her own history with IAPESGW. Her entrance, motivation, and dedication came from what she
viewed as having many coincidences: (1) she went to a previous congress as a dancer; (2) she started conducting research on Muslim women in physical education and sport; and (3) she learned that IAPESGW was hosting a Congress in 2001 in Egypt, which is a Muslim country where Tansin wanted to present her work on Muslim women in physical education.

Mee Lee and Margaret were the two participants who were invited to give papers at an IAPESGW Congress. Mee Lee explained that she got involved with the Association through a friend, Darlene Kluka; I think you have heard about her. So that was about 10 years ago. Mee Lee recounted being invited to her first congress and then continued to attend some of those meetings; I attend those conferences, and I presented papers, and mostly on women’s sports: the participation of women in major games, retired female athletes, and conditions of retired athletes, etc. She indicated that, after she was invited once, she continued to be involved with IAPESGW, which was the same as Margaret.

Lynn and Rosa were invited to a Congress when participating in different conferences. Lynn explained that

when Margaret Talbot and I were co-presenters/facilitators at the Women in Sport Conference in Singapore in early 2001, Margaret gave me a thorough update on the forthcoming IAPESGW Congress in Alexandria [Egypt] and the pre-Congress in Athens [Greece] and in the process indicated that she did not have an Editor for The Bulletin. I thought about it for a little while and then told Margaret that I’d give it a go, provided I had some assistance with the mail out. I was looking forward to the Congress to find out more about ‘my job’.

Margaret realised Lynn would be a good editor for the newsletter and invited her to take the role whilst becoming knowledgeable about the association. Further, Lynn may have been invited because she had special expertise that could help the association.

Susi-Käthi and Darlene recalled having mentors who taught them about the organisations and invited them to a Congress. Susi-Käthi also filled in a role on the EWS and met Margaret, who was the president of the working group. This exposure
was Susi-Käthi’s first experience working with women and sport. By working with Margaret, Susi-Käthi learned more about IAPESGW. Susi-Käthi referred to Margaret as her mentor for her international involvement with women’s sport and physical education as Margaret invited Susi-Käthi to an IAPESGW Congress. From there, Susi-Käthi developed her interest in women’s sport from a global level.

Gertrud was interested in IAPESGW because it supported work about co-education, and IAPESGW had always had an award called the Dorothy Ainsworth Award. She knew that they would support her book, and she planned on attending the Congress in 1986; however, she could not attend, but I sent in my book about co-education anyway. I got the Dorothy Ainsworth Award and I wasn’t even there! She was thrilled that they would still choose her book for the award. She got more involved with IAPESGW and

... participated in many, not all, but many IAPESGW conferences and the first one I participated in, I think it, was in Bali [in 1989] and this was really a huge experience and this was very very organised and Bali was of course, very very exotic and some of my friends were there and I met a lot of women there and yes, it was, I think, the start.

Gertrud was pleased that IAPESGW credited her for the quality of her book, and she wanted to stay involved with the association. This was significant as it developed Gertrud’s interest and work with the association.

The IAPESGW research participants illustrated their pathways into the association. Many of the women recalled their entrance being significant. The next section looks at WSI participants’ entrances into the organisation.

**Entrance into WSI**

WSI emerged out of IAPESGW and three of the research participants (Barbara, Celia, and Kari) were founders of the organisation. Therefore, they did not have a pathway into the organisation, instead, developed the processes needed to make WSI work, which is presented in the organisational environment section in Chapter Five. This
section, therefore, focuses on Carole, Johanna, and Christine’s pathways into WSI (see Table 6.5).

### Table 6.5 Pathways into WSI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Entrance into WSI</th>
<th>Entrance into leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Johanna</td>
<td>Approached</td>
<td>Approached/invited to stand for member-at-large</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carole</td>
<td>Invited to join</td>
<td>Asked to stand for President</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christine</td>
<td>Approached</td>
<td>Approached Advisory Board</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5 illustrates that Johanna and Christine both approached WSI. Christine indicated that she was a member when WSI first launched because she agreed with their mission and values. However, at that time in 1994, she was still the Vice President of IAPESGW, and, when her term ended there, she got more involved with WSI.

Johanna was searching for an organisation that focused on women’s issues at an international level and explored WSI and IAPESGW. She described her process of choosing which to join:

> I met Carole Oglesby at a conference, and WSI, they had a sort of get-together for people who were interested in WomenSport International and Carole Ogelsby said to me ‘wouldn’t you like to come along’ and that is where I met Kari.

Then when asked how she chose between IAPESGW and WSI, she stated,

> ... first I thought should I do both ... it was in Edmonton, I remember during IAPESGW Conference that we also had the board meeting of WSI and elections and the same for IAPESGW, and so then I thought I need to talk to Kari as the WSI president, oh the incoming president, and to Margaret Talbot who was the president of IAPESGW to say that I have been approached by both and wanted to see if it would be a conflict of interest to be in both and to see, and to ask a bit more about the organisation and so on. I had a talk with both of them and then it was very clear I really should choose between one over the other. I thought to myself that would be best in any case. Both organisations felt very strongly that it would be a conflict of interest if I would be in both. Then I choose WSI ... I felt that was closer to what I believe a women sport organisation should be.
As Johanna began developing an interest in gender issues in sport on a global level, she learned about IAPESGW and WSI. However, as she stated, it was significant for her to be in an organisation that was aligned with her interests. Johanna explained that this was a tough decision as she truly wanted to be involved with both.

Carole, on the other hand, was invited into WSI as she is known for her work in advancing women’s sport. As WSI was looking to become more professionalised, Carole was invited to be president of WSI; I got affirmed by elections a couple of times. Carole was invited because of her knowledge and (expert) skills in organisational structure of women’s organisations, as she stated in Chapter Five that she had experience writing constitutions, which WSI did not have when she entered.

The participants from WSI appeared to initiate their entrance into the organisation. However, due to Carole’s background, the leaders of WSI identified her assistance being useful to move the organisation forward.

Due to the small number of participants from both organisations, the interviewees’ pathways into IAPESGW and WSI cannot be compared. Instead, it is appropriate to highlight that the members of both organisations exhibit various routes into the organisations. The data suggest that service or leadership roles were initiated by others within the organisations.

The findings cannot be directly compared to traditional literature because existing research focuses on community sports (Doherty, 2005; Harvey & Lévesque, 2005). For instance, Harvey and Lévesque (2005) concluded the most common pathway in sport volunteering in Canada (52%) was because people were parents of children or their partners participated in sport. Their findings that were more comparable to this study was that individuals approached sport associations (19.3%), were approached (17.6%), were asked by friends (4.7%), were asked by people outside of the association (3.4%), and were nominated or elected to their positions (3.0%). Despite differences in settings (community versus professional organisations), what was consistent between this research and other sport volunteering research that addresses pathways is that the majority of volunteers in sport acknowledge being recruited or asked by a friend (Coyne
The findings from the current study support the suggestion by Doherty (2005), Jarvis and Blank (2011), and MacLean and Hamm (2007) that pathways into volunteering are continuous processes. For instance, Tansin pointed out that she attended an IAPESGW congress as a demonstrator when she was in her early twenties whilst still in education, and when she reflected on this when she was older, she was disheartened that no one pulled her to the side to explain the mission or the purpose of IAPESGW. However, at this time in her life, she may not have been ready to join an association that focused on gender issues in sport and physical education. She may have needed more time to construct these interests. Further, this research supports the abovementioned authors’ suggestion that entry is a continuous process because individuals are continuously constructing and reconstructing their identities, interests, and knowledge based on social interactions, experiences, and exposure to new influential concepts. The SOV highlights these continuous processes volunteers go through.

**Linking course and intensity of commitment to motivational structure and choice of activity**

The dimensions of motivational structure and choice of activity have been the primary focus thus far as they addressed reasons the research participants were motivated to choose to volunteer in IAPESGW and WSI. As the research participants developed their interests in the international women’s sport organisations through experiences and exposure, they were also developing their motivation to choose to volunteer whilst building or developing their commitment to the organisation and their volunteering tasks.

The dimension of course and intensity of commitment focuses on the volunteering styles and intensity of volunteers’ involvement in IAPESGW and WSI. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004), this dimension focuses on volunteers’ loyalty, devotion, and volunteer preferences. This dimension is useful because it predicts and follows volunteers’ patterns of service within IAPESGW and WSI. Table 6.6 illustrates
Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) concepts within this dimension, and it shows how they were defined in the current study.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>The SOV – course and intensity of commitment</th>
<th>The Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collective styles of volunteering</td>
<td>Hustinx and Lammertyn’s defined focus for: Reflexive Styles of volunteering</td>
<td>Hustinx and Lammertyn’s defined focus for:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Predictable life course is basis for long term and regular involvement</td>
<td>Unpredictable life course is basis for short term and irregular, incidental involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensive participation</td>
<td>Volunteering based on stereotypes of long-term commitment levels and volunteers’ commitment is strengthened as they develop strong group-based identities and volunteer patterns are continuous and predictable</td>
<td>Volunteering patterns are change because social environments are unpredictable and can be linked to unpredictability and discontinuity from volunteers biography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core involvement</td>
<td>Volunteers engage in lifelong efforts because they are closely associated with service, group affiliation, identity, and the strong sense of duty towards community or group</td>
<td>Dynamic involvement: frequent entries and withdrawals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective</td>
<td>Volunteers serve for common good reaching beyond singularity of particular initiative and are considered the core because of such natural and total devotion</td>
<td>Flexibility and mobility/ Ephemeral or loose involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unconditional, self-evident commitment results in all-embracing, total devotion</td>
<td>Volunteers’ personal goals and interest subordinated for collective pursuits of organisation and involvement relatively independent of specific problems or beneficiaries</td>
<td>Conditional commitment, depending on biographical needs and conditions and identifying preference for sequential, project-based arrangements</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.6 presents and defines the eight concepts of the course and intensities of commitment within the SOV. These concepts are further defined to identify when, why, and how the women’s commitment to IAPESGW and WSI increased, decreased, or remained stable. The way in which the concepts from the commitment dimension are added to the overlapping motivational and choice dimensions are presented in Table 6.7.

### Table 6.7 Overlapping of Commitment, Motivational, and Choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivational structure</th>
<th>Choice of international women’s sport organisations</th>
<th>Course and intensity of commitment</th>
<th>Focus for section</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteering based on IAPESGW and WSI needing particular roles/special expertise or knowledge or sporadically when volunteers feel needed</td>
<td>Group based identity within IAPESGW and WSI; shared interests and political cleavage within organisation</td>
<td>Volunteering patterns in IAPESGW and WSI consistent with long-term patterns or sporadic and interrupted</td>
<td>Reason for volunteering in IAPESGW or WSI related to organisational need of: specific roles, special expertise, knowledge, and own need of sporadic entrances and exits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteering for IAPESGW and WSI for collective interests or personally motivated/ Constructing and strengthening own or collective identities through IAPESGW and WSI</td>
<td>Ideals of voluntary service in IAPESGW and WSI vs. tangible and concrete views of service</td>
<td>Volunteers’ commitment to IAPESGW and WSI closely associated with collective affiliation and sense of duty which volunteers may or may not allow to be interrupted due to outside obligations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary interests in IAPESGW and WSI or personal agenda</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ideals of voluntary service in IAPESGW and WSI vs. tangible and concrete views of service</td>
<td></td>
<td>1. Shared interests and political cleavage vs. identification politics and lifestyle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary interests in IAPESGW and WSI or personal agenda</td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Agreeing with ideals of voluntary service and tangible or concrete views of volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Collective and personal volunteer motives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Construct and reconstruct identity through volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4. Willingness to engage in multiple roles and activities for volunteering</td>
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Table 6.7 illustrates how the course and intensity of commitment dimension is linked to the motivational structure and the choice of activity. The next section uses these three linked dimensions to address the interviewees shared interests, group-based identities, and group affiliations.
Shared interests and sport and politics within IAPESGW and WSI

IAPESGW and WSI were known for engaging in different types of activities (i.e., IAPESGW hosted congresses and WSI worked through task forces). This enables the volunteers to construct different types of motivations to choose to join and to continue to work within the organisation. The next section discusses volunteers’ work with IAPESGW revolving around group-based identities because the primary task of the association is to bring women together in group-based environments where individuals have the opportunity to interact, share common interests and experiences, and develop significant networks. In contrast, WSI’s work revolves around group affiliation and identity affirmation, and the organisation is known for their credible research and key leaders and members from numerous sport disciplines. Therefore, IAPESGW and WSI are discussed separately as their environments for volunteering differ.

IAPESGW: Group-based identities

The research participants identified being motivated to join IAPESGW because they could develop significant group-based identities. IAPESGW offers an environment where women can construct, reconstruct, or maintain such identities since the Association brings members together every four years for congresses. Although the association maintains communication through newsletters, congresses continue to be identified as their primary task. The leaders of the Executive Committee also meet at least once a year where they work on the things needed to sustain the organisation (e.g., funds, future direction, membership drives, constitution, and future congress). The leaders keep in touch between these meeting and congresses.

Interviewees from IAPESGW identified being motivated to participate in congresses where they perceived they would have shared interests, experiences, identities, solidarity, and common goals with other members. The research participants discussed attending the quadrennial congresses where they had positive experiences that create and strengthen their commitment. Darlene, for example, recalled attending the Lahti, Finland, Congress where she befriended three women from different age cohorts representing South Africa, Japan, and the USA. She described how they spent the
whole week together bonding, and, by the end of the Congress, the women wanted to share their experiences with the other delegates. We managed to kind of spread the enthusiasm of look at the age difference we had and we can all be working together toward the same thing but using different knowledge and experiences and etc. And that was a big! Susi-Käthi also expressed the significance of these experiences and connections as she said they were incredible. She even contemplated when she would leave: you have to think of once it is finished; you can’t do it until you’re 90! Her identity within the organisation was so strong that she illustrated not being able to let go, questioning when she would exit, which she considered was after reaching her retiring age.

The research participants explained that they chose to participate in IAPESGW because they had feelings of unity. The research participants valued the membership being made up of women who were interested in addressing and advancing girls and women in sport and physical education. They learned about their own identities and inequalities in sport and PE outside of the association and brought them to IAPESGW. For instance, Darlene shared an upsetting example of learning about gender discrimination in the field of PE. She was expected to exchange sexual favours with a male colleague for resources to teach her PE classes. Further, because she was teaching women’s PE, coached women’s sport, and was a woman herself, she was given sporadic working hours to teach and coach her sports teams, meaning she was spending long hours at school whilst her male colleagues were not. This led her to leave the field that she loved and pursue a degree in a different area. Tansin, on the other hand, learned from observation, communication, and research that her female Muslim students were not provided with the resources needed to be able to participate in physical education. This led Tansin to learn more about their cultural needs. Darlene and Tansin had very different experiences, but both women illustrated experiences within PE that were disadvantageous to women in the field. Bringing these experiences and problems to IAPESGW in congress settings enabled the women to share and learn about others who had similar experiences.

During the Oman ‘study week’ about Muslim women, Tansin met a delegate who was a former member of IAPESGW. Through discussion with this delegate, Tansin learned and agreed with the woman’s motives to choose to come back to IAPESGW. The
former member expressed to Tansin that, after attending the ‘study week’, she re-constructed her understanding about IAPESGW. Tansin explained that IAPESGW’s group-based identity is about the spirit of the people, it is the network, it is the interaction, it is the collective solidarity of support. The woman explained to Tansin that her organisation MUST belong to the IAPESGW! Tansin used this example to highlight that

... there is something about collectivity and the power and strength of that, and they can only be experienced in situations of togetherness and that is hard to explain to anybody else. So, I think they will benefit from the network, but they have to meet it, they have to come out, and want to meet it.

The IAPESGW research participants illustrated the significance of working alongside one another. All of the participants recounted stories about IAPESGW that discussed the significance of solidarity developed in IAPESGW settings.

Leaders also identified being motivated by knowing that IAPESGW addresses political issues, despite stereotypes that the association was apolitical. Yet, IAPESGW participants explained building their group-based identities during political situations. Margaret provided two lengthy but informative examples of politics being intertwined with sport organisational settings. First, Margaret pointed out that different cultures, religious groups, and ethnicities have not always been able to attend congresses because of the political setting of congress locations. For instance, during the Bali Congress in 1989, Indonesia was an Islamic country and would not allow the Israelis in, and this was seen as a real difficulty. This was also the case with other women as Margaret explained there had been a South African contingent attending congresses, and during the Warwick Congress in 1985, there was one black South African delegate that the group had to leave behind [because] the South Africans would not let her out [of the country], so the whites and the Cape coloureds arrived, but the blacks didn’t. Margaret explained that we tried really hard to change the constitution, and I was very much involved as a board member in this; we had to demonstrate that it wasn’t about representing groups coming from countries but individuals. Margaret continued to explain that this was during the time of Apartheid, and there was a lot of discussion about changing the constitution. Margaret pointed out that an American member just
could not understand this South African issues at all because it was so near to Apartheid, and, of course, we in Britain were operating with a legal agreement, which the whole Commonwealth agreed, that we would not have any former relationships with any delegation or team from South Africa as part of sanctions. The American leader just did not understand at all [and she] just went on and on and on about it, and I thought it was a very good example of the lack of the world consciousness of some Americans, and particularly this person from the southern part of the United States, white woman not very politically conscious. Margaret realised that working with this group of women meant that people came to IAPESGW with their own perspectives, experiences, and ideas about the world. But she was amazed that a Japanese leader was the one to get it across to the American leader as she explained that it was the Commonwealth which was against it. Now for a Japanese woman to understand that, I thought it was remarkable, and it was a very interesting insight into people’s differences of worldviews, if they had a worldview, so those sorts of experiences for me were really really important because I began to understand I had a lot to learn about how people thought, of how people took discussion, and how people viewed international work. It just hooked me! Margaret described developing her motivation to get more involved during these unexpected experiences with women who have different worldviews.

The second example of a political situation that strengthened the women’s group-based identities, particularly for Margaret, revolved around the 2001 9/11 terrorists’ attacks. IAPESGW was planning to host a congress in Alexandria, Egypt, shortly after the attacks, and Margaret explained that

9/11 happened and the world stood still for a while, nobody knew what Bush was going to do, least of all Bush. And everyone thought he was going to do saturation bombing or something like that, and people said ‘Do we call this off, do we call this off?’ I thought, ‘If we call it off, they won, the terrorists have won’. The Egyptians were actually pretty cool about the whole thing until 2 weeks out, and we decided to stand firm and do what we could and see what happened…. So as time went on, and the thank heaven for email, email was read full heartedly; we had email from all of our American members saying, ‘We don’t understand what is going on’, they were hurt, they were wounded,
they were in pain, they were obviously grieving, there were people from all the Islamic countries emailing me saying tell them, our American sisters, this is not Islam, this is disgraceful, this doesn’t represent what Islam is, they were grieving and in pain, and if anything, good came out of it, it was that exchange it was just remarkable…. in the end, we got one Australian because the Australian academics just couldn’t get insurance to fly during that time, it was the same for Japan, so we got one Japanese, and the Europeans almost all came, there were maybe a handful six or so cancellations, mainly under the pressure from their families. We got one American by way of Zambia because she was supervising a Zambian student and she was actually in Zambia so she came and we got one Canadian who is actually Jewish and that was very brave that she came anyway. And the Africans didn’t know what all the fuss was about because they were used to dealing with uncertainty and so on and so on, and the one South American who had register did arrive…. It very very successful conference and a very joyous conference, but it was high stress, very high stress. So when people say politics and sport don’t mix, or when people say NGOs don’t get caught in politics, yes they do, and we knew that!

Both of these explanations illustrated Margaret’s examples of differing political situations that constructed her identity with IAPESGW. In her example about 9/11, she explained that the women emailed her, to contact other delegates, to apologise and to explain their cultures. The women showed their vulnerability to one another, through technology, which enabled the association to grow stronger. Margaret planned to step down before the 2001 Congress; however, she felt that due to this unexpected crisis, the association needed her. Both examples show IAPESGW members working together to try to help members, which may be a motivation to get involved as it illustrates IAPESGW’s membership working to help each other.

Research participants highlighted their motives to choose IAPESGW based on group identity. Further, constructing group identity positively impacted the women’s commitment as they identified developing memorable and significant experiences at congresses whilst having the opportunity to communicate with likeminded members. In addition, these identities and commitment levels were strengthened as members recognised the collective solidarity and support from within. This was also translated
into the organisation’s willingness to address political situations. It is evident that all the women came together from different cultures and situations to work on the same issues in sport and PE.

**WSI: Group affiliation and identity affirmation**

WSI emerged from IAPESGW, and the founding leaders wanted to create an organisation that was different from IAPESGW. They decided early that they would not host conferences; therefore, WSI does not bring their membership face-to-face in group settings. Instead, the WSI leaders attend conferences where they can promote the organisation (i.e., First World Conference on Women’s Sport held in Brighton in 1994 where WSI was launched). In addition, WSI and the USA Department of State jointly led a research (exchange) tour for women in sport science. It started with a one-day meeting the day before the ACSM conference in Saint Louis in 2002. Carole explained that this came about because of her numerous contacts from her work with national women’s sport organisations and being known for her work with the women’s sport movement. She was contacted by the USA State Department because they...

... had a lot of money that was supposed to be ear-marked for women and they didn’t have anything going on. So they said ‘can you guys help us out?’ We said ‘yeah, we can spend some money for you’. [smiling] So the State Department actually organised an exchange tour with the idea that we would bring in sportswomen - scientists and sportswomen - advocates for a tour ... there were about, I’d say about 10 women that came from other countries and to some extent they didn’t really have personal money to spend on these kinds of things, from certain countries the state could pay for them. I myself, I was travelling a lot. I had enough frequent flyer miles, for about 5 I would say, at that time, 25,000 * 5, I probably had 150,000 frequent flyer miles with United. So I just gave it to people. [There were people from Africa, South America, and Europe]. We got a couple other people to donate frequent flyer miles. So all of this was paid for, anyway, through the State Department because it was a State Department-organised event, a woman sitting in Johannesburg, South Africa, or a woman sitting in Lima, Peru, realised that it would be a big boon for her
career to have this line on her vita, so it was worth it for these people to be on the State Department USA tour, be a USA consultant.

Although WSI did not want to host conferences of their own, they used other conferences as outlets to promote the organisation and also had an opportunity to jointly host an international research tour.

The research participants acknowledged being motivated to establish or join WSI because they could be affiliated with a research-based, action-oriented organisation whose mission was to advance girls and women in sport and physical activity. According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003), this close association reinforces collective efforts to volunteer and leads to lifelong volunteering. Christine explained that she felt honoured to serve on WSI because their work was stimulating, and feels *enlivened by the work I do with these other women. They are just remarkable!* Christine continued to say she has *great admiration for the leaders* of WSI. In addition, Barbara pointed out that due to the high calibre of volunteers within WSI, such as Kari and Celia, *when we say we want this organisation to be based on solid research on women and sport, we actually mean it.* Kari also realised this as she discussed actively promoting the WSI:

*"I am a quite visible person in the field of sport sciences and I am invited to speak at conferences, and when I go [to these conferences] I always take brochures. I try, sometimes it doesn’t fit in the speech, but I try to always mention WomenSport International [during the speech]."

The narratives indicate that the women were motivated and developed a commitment for the cause of the organisation because the women were affiliated with this particular group of women.

Christine identified choosing to work with WSI because it *opens a door and creates a safe space where people could come* to work with one another. She continued to explain that *it is kind of a networking web that we got going, rather than a large group.* Kari echoed Christine and stated that *its networking, through networking contribution of knowledge, and changing experiences* (Kari). The participants also recognised that
WSI provides opportunities for women to network with powerful international decision-making organisations, such as IOC, ICSSPE, and UNICEF. For instance, Barbara was invited to an IOC round table discussion to discuss the issue of the female athlete triad before the 1996 Olympic Games. The female athlete triad is a combination of disordered eating, amenorrhea, and osteoporosis, and Barbara was a leading researcher on this issue at that time. A man called Arne Ljungqvist, who represented the IAAF, was interested in Barbara’s work and the work of WSI. He asked her if WSI would be interested in joining/running the campaign to eliminate sex testing at international events. The WSI leaders agreed as they understood that the science behind the tests was not reliable and was harming many female athletes who were women but may have had a chromosomal abnormality that showed up on these tests (Barbara). They understood that these test had the potential to ruin lives, and they knew of one woman who committed suicide when being told she could not compete. They were successful in doing away with the mandatory sex testing. Ljungqvist and Barbara developed a professional relationship, and he helped Barbara become a member of the IOC Medical Scientific Committee. In this role she was able to push the IOC to recognise the dangers of severe dieting to the young athlete, male or female, and getting the triad up on the table, so a lot of that nobody knows. Well now, suddenly, we are concerned about this! Barbara pointed out that it was the IOC’s role to make sure the athletes are protected, and, therefore, she was able to bring Celia on board because her research was on sexual harassment in sport. Barbara explained that it all sort of ties together, because of my relationship with Arne, and the fact that the IOC Medical Commission also had a section on women and sport and they were going to have a conference on sexual harassment, I was able to say you got to include Celia Brackenridge and Kari Fasting, so they are now part of that. WSI situated Barbara and Celia in positions where they could network with the IOC. This close association led to intensive participation.

It was also motivating for women to see themselves grow and develop through volunteering service. WSI has a challenging environment but enables participants to identify changes in themselves. Celia stated she learned through my volunteer work and through my academic work to be a bit more tactical and not such a bull in a china shop, you know. There are ways to getting to where you want to get, and there are probably several ways, and some ways are more advised then others. So I think I have
gone through a time where I was seen as a screaming heretic in the 80s and no one wanted to talk to me. Celia reflected on her early volunteering posts and identified the strategies she utilised to challenge discriminatory structure compared to during the time of the interview with her work in WSI, which aimed to be research-based. Now she can say, I’ve done the scientific job and I’ve published and I’ve got credibility in research, I’m not just a ranting heretic any longer (well, I hope I’m not). She knew in order for WSI to be accepted in mainstream academy and to research the people who have had to deal with inequality, WSI had to produce credible research. Celia highlighted constructing her understanding of how to successfully challenge gender discrimination in sport, and WSI was an environment that supported her approach. In addition, Kari found that she could have more of an impact with WSI, as she reflected on her time as president of ISSA and when she was a member of the Executive Board of ICSSPE. She explained that her roles within WSI are different from ISSA because in ISSA she had little influence in relation to gender questions in general but that is not the same as organisations that work to try to get better support for women and more fairness of all and more safety and more equality and trying to get rid of discrimination. Other members shared these experiences and problems of exclusion. The research participants identified wanting to make a significant impact on gender issues, and, therefore, they found influential roles in the inclusive environment of WSI to be valuable. The common culture within the organisation increased the women’s commitment to the cause and the organisation.

WSI also offers space for their members’ common identities and interests to be affirmed. Johanna explained that being a member, you are part of a network of highly committed and similar-thinking people and it is exciting for me to be part of people all over the world who think about similar challenges and want to advance women in sport. These women explained the importance of working with individuals who have the same concerns and interests as themselves and, in many cases, share experiences or perceptions of sameness within sport and physical activity. For instance, Celia explained that her commitment to advancing women’s sport came from learning about girls’ limited sport opportunities and access. As she, and the majority of research participants in this study, recalled, she had an amazing life of sport and was resentful that everyone did not have the same experiences as her. Therefore, Celia was committed to fight for changes and equality and better opportunities for girls. The
WSI setting affirmed that there were gender issues in sport, and also, supported the participants’ interests in advocating the advancement of females’ positions in the field.

Moreover, all of the research participants attended IAPESGW congresses and shared collective identities and interests as physical educators. For instance Celia valued PE and noted that she remained a member of IAPESGW because *I’m committed to women in sport: the fact that I want somebody to push harder on certain issues, doesn’t mean to say I’m not a supporter of IAPESGW. At heart, if you cut me open you will find physical education written through my being*. The women maintained their membership with IAPESGW because they valued the cause and had shared identities, leaving them to engage in lifelong efforts in these organisations.

The WSI founders established an organisation which they wanted to be more political than IAPESGW. WSI was developed with feminist values and the founders wanted to construct a radical organisational culture; ultimately wanting to speed up the pace of change. Celia explained the political underpinning in her research that she took with her to WSI, which was one of the major task forces on sexual harassment.

*I was in a way exemplifying my politics, my personal politics were being illustrated through my research agenda because someone had to look after, not only women’s interests, but they had to particularly look after children and abused women’s interest in sport. Sport is not just this nice little island of virtues. It is as sexist, racist, and homophobic as any other institution in society and a lot of people were not prepared to acknowledge that and therefore nothing changed. And I was determined that things would change.*

Celia continues to explain that the work that comes out of WSI is *much more political, with a small ‘p’.*

WSI interviewees acknowledged that their motives to participate with the organisation stemmed from group affiliation. Leaders and members are motivated by group affiliation because it offers networks and opportunities to serve in positions of influential organisations. Moreover, interviewees acknowledged the significance of being affiliated with other leaders. These women also have the opportunity to be
politically engaged with sport as they are addressing tough issues. Through this group affiliation, close association with service, social environments, and unexpected situations, the research participants identified strengthening their commitment to the organisations.

The research participants identified being motivated through group-based identities as the women from both organisations identified developing shared identities. Although this is presented as IAPESGW being group-based and WSI’s being based on affiliation, both organisations offer environments where likeminded individuals can communicate about advancing women’s sport. The findings of the current study support Cuskelly (2004) who asserted that some sport volunteers associate their service with identity and loyalty to a voluntary organisation or the social relationships initiated and maintained within the organisation. Moreover, the participants’ interests and dedication to the cause support researchers who have found that sport volunteers are motivated by their love and dedication. For instance, Coyne and Coyne (2001) found that participants were mostly motivated by their love for the cause: golf. In their study, it is a single activity, whilst, in the current study, the women have a deeply embedded interest in women’s issues in sport and physical activity. Specifically, the WSI leaders suggested interweaving their academic research with their organisational activities (e.g., sexual harassment [Celia and Kari], female athlete triad [Barbara], and coaching [Christine]). Yet, this is also consistent with some of the IAPESGW members who have brought their research to IAPESGW (e.g., Maryam and Tansin’s work on Muslim women in PE, Gertrud’s research and books on women’s sport history, and Margaret’s and Darlene’s work on policy and organisational research). This illustrates that much of their professional activities overlap with their voluntary interests and service, and this is explored further in the section on relation to paid work.

Interviewees described how bringing likeminded people together through networks’ opened lines of communication within IAPESGW and WSI as well as outside the organisations. The participants’ approaches to networking supports Shelton’s (2001) explanation that the development of these international networks are done through strategic planning, declarations of principles that include women’s rights in sport, and a call for international action at the governmental level. Both organisations proved to be interested and aware that politics cannot be removed from sport. However, based on the
data, WSI leaders appear to more actively engaged in the politics in sport, as much of their research is political. Further, supporting Tinkler (2000), these networks enable women to influence the structures from inside and bring other members into influential channels of power, as Barbara showed. Overall, the research participants concurred with Brackenridge (1995, p. 9), who stated that networking serves the “purpose of giving mutual support, offering a forum for the exchange of ideas, skills, good practices, and information, receiving or giving advice and learning from others in similar situations, and sharing of resources”. The research participants were motivated and chose to volunteer in IAPESGW and WSI as they were able to strengthen their identities with likeminded members.
Course and intensity of commitment linked to motivational structure

The previous section addresses the links between motivational structures, choice of activity, and intensity of commitment to explore why the women joined and maintained membership within IAPESGW and WSI. The purpose of this section is to further explore the women’s involvement in the international women’s sport organisations by focusing on the women’s core involvement and reasons for changing commitment levels. Therefore, to address these topics, the section draws from the dimensions of motivational structure and the course and intensity of commitment. Table 6.8 shows the relationship used to guide this section.

Table 6.8 Motivational structure and Course and intensity of commitment combined

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<th>Motivational structure</th>
<th>Course and intensity of commitment</th>
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| Volunteering based on IAPESGW and WSI needing particular roles/special expertise or knowledge or sporadically when volunteers feel needed | • Volunteers’ commitment to IAPESGW and WSI closely associated with collective affiliation and sense of duty which volunteers may or may not allow to be interrupted due to outside obligations  
• Volunteers’ interests and connection with organisational cause is so strong that volunteers view selves as core vs. volunteers needing flexibility for loose involvement | IAPESGW and WSI’s leadership roles represent core involvement |
| Influences from society, religion, family, personal experiences in sport, education profession leading to service within IAPESGW and WSI | • Volunteering patterns in IAPESGW and WSI consistent with long-term patterns or sporadic and interrupted  
• Volunteers’ commitment to IAPESGW and WSI closely associated with collective affiliation and sense of duty which volunteers may or may not allow to be interrupted due to outside obligations  
• Volunteers’ interests and connection with organisational cause is so strong that volunteers view selves as core vs. volunteers needing flexibility for loose involvement | Reasons for changing commitment levels |

Table 6.8 illustrates the combination of the motivational and commitment dimension. The purpose of this section is to identify the research participants’ contributions within the organisations and changing commitment levels. First, the focus is on women
fulfilling core roles, and the second focus is on addressing the women’s reasons for changing levels of involvement.

**Volunteers’ contribution to IAPESGW and WSI through core involvement**

The research participants were heavily involved with the running and maintenance of IAPESGW and WSI. According to Pearce (1993), voluntary organisations rely on individuals who are devoted to the organisation and are identified as the core members. Safai (2005) referred to the sport volunteers in community-based sports as the lifeblood of organisations because they are the focal group that sustains IAPESGW and WSI. The women in this study are no different as their roles represented the core activities within WSI and IAPESGW. The purpose of this section is to identify the women’s core involvement within IAPESGW and WSI. The section starts by highlighting the differences between WSI and IAPESGW’s involvement and then concludes by identifying why the interviewees undertake core responsibilities.

**Core involvement in IAPESGW and WSI**

The research participants from IAPESGW joined a voluntary organisation that was established and has been maintained for over sixty years. In contrast, WSI emerged forty-four years later and was formed by three of the women interviewed. Therefore, the women’s roles within the organisations are very different. IAPESGW leaders aim to maintain the organisational culture whilst advancing it in the twenty-first century. WSI research participants have been setting up the organisation whilst constructing and reconstructing the identity over the last two decades. Such topics that were covered as core roles for WSI include breaking away to start a new organisation, developing a leadership structure, adopting a constitution, advertising at conferences, and organising membership drives. These founding members were in leadership positions for over half of the first decade, and two continue to maintain influential roles in the organisation.
IAPESGW interviewees discussed needing to maintain the organisation’s solid, well-known and respected tradition. Margaret recounted an instance when she was involved with addressing the potential for the tradition of the woman-centred, woman-led organisation to be threatened. She explained that the president at the time, Patricia Bowen-West, had to confront the Lahti, Finland, Congress organiser about the direction of the plans. Margaret and Patricia Bowen-West learned that the male-dominated Finnish Society of Research of Physical Education kind of hijacked the whole congress and they put in all plenary male speakers, without consultation. Margaret and Patricia Bowen-West had to convey to this Finnish IAPESGW congress organiser that this would not be acceptable for the association. Margaret explained that the association leadership would have to advise our members not to attend, if the plans did not change:

Pat and I had had this conversation and she said ‘we can’t say that’, and I said, ‘we got to say that because they won’t take us seriously unless we do’. We did and then she [the organiser] sort of sat up straight ... and she said, ‘We’ve already asked these people’ and I said, ‘Okay, well you either un-ask them or you match them with female keynote speakers. We cannot accept the male-dominated speaking line-up; it is just not appropriate and our members would be furious with us if their membership dues are helping to pay all this and their conference fees.

Due to their roles in the Executive Committee, Margaret and Patricia Bowen-West were expected to guard the association’s traditions. This was illustrated during the meeting with the organiser, which took place in the middle of a glass atrium of a hotel, where Margaret found herself, Patricia Bowen-West, and the organiser meeting on one side of this mezzanine floor and half of IAPESGW [members] ... on the other side of this vast space and they were almost using binoculars, almost, to see what was happening because they knew there was all these problems going on. The membership was interested in this situation because whatever came from this meeting would ultimately affect them. Further, Margaret and Patricia Bowen-West were in leadership positions where they were obligated to deal with such situations for the whole of the association. Margaret identified this as an instance where the membership expected her, as a core leader, to address and solve the problem since having more male than female plenary speakers would mean going against the association’s values.
During the interview, Tansin explained the development and commitment needed for her Editor position within IAPESGW. She stated that *I've had a lot to do with keeping IAPESGW together in terms of paperwork and communication.* Tansin’s predecessor, Lynn, increased the significance of this role as she suggested that the IAPESGW Editor take part in the Executive Board meetings. This enabled the association’s Editor to be aware of and up-to-date on what was going on in the association. When Tansin took over the role, she feared that members were not getting the information, either because of poor post or because the Council of Representatives were not getting newsletters and annual reports translated to the proper languages and sent to members. Tansin, therefore, took it upon herself to develop a strong relationship with the representatives to encourage them to update the members in their countries. Tansin’s role was significant for the association to make sure members were getting communication between the congresses. Both Tansin and Margaret identified their experiences reaching beyond their own interests to serve for the common good for the association. These women showed devotion to the organisational goals and missions.

The women from both membership indicated that the organisations depended on them to complete activities that were compulsory for the sustainability of the organisation. These significant activities included the development of the organisational newsletters and annual review (Tansin), creating documents in multiple languages so more members stay updated and involved (Darlene, Rosa, and Tansin), running congresses and conference sessions (Barbara, Carole, Christine, Gertrud, and Margaret), and developing networks with national women’s organisations where newsletters and journals can be exchanged (Darlene).

The participants identified their understanding that choosing to fulfil executive roles meant that it would be demanding and require a lot of attention. However, the interviewees indicated that this was what they wanted because they wanted active roles. For instance, Johanna (WSI) stated, *when I am on a board, I like to contribute; I don’t like being on a board and not doing anything. I like to make a positive contribution.* Lynn (IAPESGW) echoed these feelings as she stated that
... when I was a member of an organisation I usually liked to do more than read newsletters and journals. At the time I couldn’t see the point in just paying a fee and sitting back. Yes, as an office bearer I grew to understand the hugely important role of membership numbers but for me personally I thought I should do more. It really is like the old cliché ‘you only get out of it, what you put in’.

The women in this study felt strongly about the cause, and, therefore, they wanted to be actively engaged in the work within the organisations. The research participants were not the kind of women to just sign up and pay membership fees; instead, they wanted to contribute, and for this reason, their involvement represents the organisation’s core that sustains them. These women were devoted to advancing girls and women in sport.

The study by Cuskelley, Harrington, and Stebbins (2003) is the sole study that is closely related to the current study in this context. These authors illustrated that that commitment in organisational settings are important constructs to understand career volunteers, since these people are the ones who are highly committed to the organisation. This is consistent with the current study as these women are dedicated to their voluntary organisation’s missions. Their devotion to the organisation and the organisational work is aligned with career volunteers. Other sport volunteering studies investigate commitment levels based on how roles and number of hours worked contribute to identifying volunteering patterns (e.g., Hoye, 2007; MacLean & Hamm, 2007). However, specific roles were not significant for this study, and the women did not discuss the number of hours in which they engaged in voluntary service.

**Relation to paid work in IAPESGW and WSI**

A main finding that has emerged from analysis so far is that the women’s intensity of commitment level of activities and motivations are dependent on their ability to accommodate such high levels of voluntary activity within their lifestyles. Specifically, this context of their paid work facilitates their volunteering conditions becoming highly significant. Equally dependent is the extent in which their domestic and family circumstances can also accommodate to this level of volunteering. The purpose of this section is to use the relation to paid work dimension to address what conditions are
required for these women to be able to do what they do: volunteer for IAPESGW and WSI. What conditions do the women have to deal with?

According to Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004), volunteer service should be explored in relation to paid work. This dimension addresses how the participants manage their careers with voluntary work in IAPESGW and WSI. Table 6.9 illustrates Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) concepts within this dimension and how they were defined in the current study.
### Table 6.9 Overview of Relation to paid work(er) dimension

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<th>Objective</th>
<th>Collective styles of volunteering</th>
<th>Reflexive styles of volunteering</th>
<th>The Study Defined for study:</th>
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<td><strong>Objective</strong></td>
<td><strong>Paid work centred society</strong></td>
<td>Volunteering in traditional society that prioritises paid work over unpaid work</td>
<td><strong>Extended meaning of work: volunteering part of “triad of work”</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Professional authority</strong></td>
<td>Advancement of professional regime has widened between professional experts and unqualified volunteers</td>
<td><strong>Professionalisation of voluntary sector and volunteerism</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Ancillary volunteer position</strong></td>
<td>Volunteers are in supporting positions and saddled with auxiliary tasks</td>
<td><strong>Corporate volunteerism</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Subjective</strong></td>
<td><strong>“well-meaning amateur”: good intentions and common sense</strong></td>
<td>Volunteers reinforce the ‘do-gooder’ image and are involved in an amateurish type of activity which defines the volunteers roles as marginal</td>
<td><strong>Professional volunteers/Occupational devotee and spirit of professional work</strong></td>
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Volunteers identified relationships with service in IAPESGW and WSI

The professionalisation of IAPESGW and WSI and volunteers’ role (addressed in Chapter 5)

Volunteers’ roles in IAPESGW and WSI being supportive or mirroring professional settings (addressed in Chapter 5 and motivation/choice section)

Volunteers’ service in IAPESGW and WSI based on image of doing good and amateurish type of involvement vs. carrying paid work interests into IAPESGW and WSI and working as a career volunteer
Table 6.9 presents and defines the eight concepts of ‘relation to paid work(er)’ of the SOV. These concepts were further refined to highlight how the research participants’ link to paid settings and unpaid settings. This section starts by addressing volunteering that is related to work. However, since women’s socially constructed roles in society revolve around domestic responsibilities, the section will conclude by addressing what conditions are needed to enable women to volunteer, focusing more on the participants’ lifestyles.

**The relation of volunteer work to paid work**

Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) highlighted that Western societies place more value on paid work and less on voluntary work. However, the authors asserted that paid work and unpaid work complement each other, as evident in the current study. Specifically, the women in academic settings, who reached high status roles, illustrated linking their research to their involvement with women’s organisations. These academic women were in positions where they had flexibility in research, time, and working hours. Mee Lee explained that *working as a professor in higher education probably gives me some advantage [to serve in such organisations]; ... academics are more outspoken, they have more knowledge, and they have new ideas; they are more informed.* In addition, when examining unpaid work settings, participants stated that these settings should also be flexible because WSI and IAPESGW leaders acknowledged having no clear location. Barbara highlighted that WSI does not *have an office. The office happens to be wherever everybody is. Kari being president [the office is] her university.* This is convenient as the women can work on organisational activities whilst in their employment settings. However, this is a common practice in male-dominated sport organisations as sport volunteers are expected to be able to participate in conference calls during work hours (Claringbould & Knoppers, 2007; Hovden, 2000; Ottesen et al., 2010). As Mee Lee highlighted, working in academia, particularly as a professor, is significant when striving to obtain a demanding volunteer leadership position. The purpose of this section is to explore the relationship between paid work and unpaid voluntary settings.
Barbara expressed that *all of us are busy with our careers!* All these women have high status and demanding roles, and thus they have to find avenues where they can link their professional work with their voluntary service. Through their professional academic roles, these women identified significant topics that can impact women’s sport. Below are four examples of interviewees’ development of research topics from paid work that were taken into IAPESGW and WSI.

Maryam (IAPESGW) was searching online and found information about IAPESGW:

*It was very interesting for me because I was interested in studying culture and religion and its effect on women and sport. And that is why I chose the subject and the study about that, women and sport in Islam and Iran.... I am Muslim and I know that many Muslims have problems for participating in international situations; they are shortcomings in my country. [It is important] for [Iranian women to] introduce our sports to other Muslim countries, which may be useful for them to use our experiences about having different facilities for women in our country.*

Tansin (IAPESGW) recounted when she was the

*Head of Physical Education and they [Muslim students] knocked on my door and said ‘excuse me, we can’t participate in your sessions because we are Muslim’, and I didn’t understand it so they came in and sat down with me and I decided to make that something that I needed to do something about. So my PhD was based upon their life experiences.... I came to understand the cultural differences and needs and made changes inside the institution that would facilitate participation. It was not only in physical education; we had no Halal meals, there was no prayer room, and all sort of things that might add up to institutional racism.*
Barbara (WSI) worked

... with some distance runners and they had been telling me they were having problems with their periods. And when I got up here [moved from California to Washington], I started thinking about that, well if they are not having their periods and their oestrogen started dropping off, I wonder if they are losing bone because that is what happens with menopause, since that happened to be the age which I was approaching. So I went over and talked to Charlie Chestnut, a doctor over at University of Washington Medical School, who was in radiology and bone density. We did a study together, and it was the first study to come out showing that amenorrhea athletes had a significantly lower vertebral bone mass when they menstruate.... So that was basically the start of it. I can remember going to conferences saying please ‘Look at what I did, tell me what is wrong with this protocol. How can women so active be losing bone?’ It turns out the activity does not override the loss of oestrogen. It just doesn’t.

Celia (WSI) recounted how she began studying harassment in sport:

I got involved in the Women’s Sport Foundation UK (WSF UK) from Lacrosse: I moved into WSF (UK) as a volunteer that was looking at discrimination, straight up and down sex discrimination in sport, actually. Discrimination is very linked to harassment; harassment is very linked to abuse; they are all part of a continuum. And I realised when I started to move along that continuum there was no research at that far end, at that most shocking end, and the way to get discrimination tackled was to first go in and look at abuse, then everyone says this is shocking and terrible, then you say if abuse is terrible then harassment is terrible, then you say if harassment is terrible then discrimination is terrible and we got to do something to make it change.... Well I had never been abused or anything - lots of people do research on stuff they personally experienced - I had a fantastic childhood in sports.... So I was resentful when I found out that kids were not having that experience. They were either denied it or they were in sports being oppressed in some way. I felt that it was deeply unfair because all of the good things that I had had, and they were not being allowed to access them or there was a kind of double standard
going on, that they were in sports but having a tough time and having to keep quiet because the only way to succeed is by keeping your mouth shut and the more that I looked at it, the more horrific it became. Even I was shocked in the early years at what I started to uncover, and people were saying “Oh, you know, there isn’t abuse in sport or it is just a one off,” that was the first. Well, unfortunately, you can see all those files [points to whole shelf of ring binders] and it isn’t a one-off, there are hundreds and hundreds and hundreds of cases. And they keep coming, you know, so that is how I started it.

These research areas were significant for the women, their respective organisations, and women in sport. For instance, Tansin’s research was linked to the ‘study week’ in Oman that she helped established through IAPESGW. Similarly, Maryam was heavily involved during this ‘study week’ as her personal interests and experiences were shared with other women. Through the study week, Maryam met other women with whom she could network, get new ideas, and help increase the Muslim contingency of IAPESGW. Barbara and Celia used their research areas to develop and led task forces within WSI (see Chapter Five).

These women illustrated how they were able to devote the time and energy required in their volunteer settings because they linked their professional research to their organisational involvement. Celia referred to herself, and the other participants, as career academics, but we are also career volunteers. It’s a rather all encompassing thing;... for me it all merges into one.

The research participants were passionate about their research areas and the work conducted within the organisations. Therefore, Celia and the other participants’ devotion to their careers (research) show strong links between their paid work and unpaid work. Celia described all of my volunteering stuff and all my academic stuff really meshed together. This is consistent with Margaret who stated, my volunteering and my activism have always been intertwined just as my research has always been intertwined. Moreover, Gertrud recalled that since she was 38, when she became a professor, her career was closely combined working with the [women’s] organisations. These participants illustrated that their professional careers and voluntary careers are intertwined, and the research participants are devoted to advancing gender issues in sport and physical education.
Gertrud stated that *I’m willing to volunteer, I see it also as part of my work; I don’t see it as volunteering because I get paid from my university and part of my work description is to do research and the other part is to make my research known or to bring the results into practice.* This was echoed by Celia who explained *I don’t think of myself as a volunteer. To me it is all form of work, that doesn’t mean it’s nasty; that’s just what I have to do. I feel it is my destiny. It’s not this is work; this is volunteering; this is just what I have to do and to that extent. Both of these women view their work with the international women’s organisations and their research as the core activities to advance the sport. Despite Gertrud not perceiving her service with IAPESGW as volunteering, she acknowledged that when paid work demands increase, such as course loads, her commitment to IAPESGW may decrease. Gertrud continued to explain that volunteering within international women’s sport organisations ultimately *depends on spare time*, but she feels as if she never has enough time.

One consequence of these women’s unpaid work having activities, values, attitudes, and expectations that closely aligned with their paid work (spirit of professional work) is that the women always appear to be working. Tansin, Rosa, and Gertrud explained that they have been identified by others and themselves as *workaholics*. Gertrud continued to express that *it is fun to work; I love it!* Other participants, (Barbara, Carole, Celia, Darlene, Rosa, Lynn, Kari, Mee Lee, and Margaret) described their actions and dedication being consistent with characteristics of a workaholic. Gertrud, Barbara, Carole, Darlene, and Tansin also highlighted that their interests in the gender issues in sport and physical activity greatly influenced their choice to spend their extra time engaging in the activities that were extensions of their paid work.

The research participants’ roles and identities resembled ‘occupational devotees’ as these people have strong links to their activities within their paid work settings. Stebbins (2004a) suggested that occupational devotees need activities that are ‘profound’ and required substantial skills, knowledge, experiences, or a combination of these, which these women have. More specifically, academic positions give volunteers some reasonable control over their time in their occupation (Stebbins, 2004a). Moreover, these findings concur with Stebbins (2000) suggestion that professionals, similar to the ones in this study who volunteer within women’s sport
organisations, require knowledge as a means of earning a living and who have distinguished reputations in their professions. These women have a ‘taste for the work’ in which they engage and have the opportunities to be creative and innovative through their research (Stebbins, 2004a).

By extending their professional work into their voluntary work, the research participants express a spirit of professional work as their extra time is used to engage in their professional and personal interests (Stebbins, 2000). Despite these women openly identifying their enjoyment of being a workaholic, Stebbins (2004a) noted that such terminology has a negative connotation and, therefore, refers to workaholics as ‘occupational devotees’. Based on Stebbins’ (2004a) concept, the research participants in this study allow their passion for advocating women’s sport to drive them to work long hours and extend their professional interests into their leisure activities.

**Ways of managing paid and unpaid work**

The participants suggested that they are able to manage their paid work and unpaid work when they have institutional support. Tansin highlighted that her institution supports her travels and service with IAPESGW, and can financially support her each year with £750 for international conferences. Although this was not enough to cover all costs, it did lift some of her financial burden. Christine recalled when she was starting a business and I had no money, no institutional support, and I think to do these organisational things, you need an institution’s support. Financially this took a toll on Christine as she suggested that institutional support could have helped with paying for her voluntary services: You can’t go into this without financial support; I don’t think you can. I am very different now that I have a salary and I can support myself compared to when I started and had no money.

Gertrud and Lynn focused on their institutions agreeing to get involved with their service. For instance, when Lynn was the IAPESGW Editor, the Head of School agreed that I could use the school photocopier to produce the bi-annual newsletter as long as I provided the paper. Postage was covered via some funds I had accumulated from per diem payments at overseas conferences and travel assistance from IAPESGW. However, Lynn’s commitment to IAPESGW as editor
ended when she retired: *When I retired I no longer had access to a photocopier and the cost of commercial printing was quite expensive!* Upon reflection, Lynn realised that her level of commitment to voluntary organisations was often an *issue of convenience.* Gertrud pointed out that institutions benefit from supporting these activities. She explained that hosting a conference offers *a lot of visibility for me and for my institution, and [therefore] my institute supported me, and they want to have,* [pause] *any institute wants to have this international image and contact so this fits very well.* The majority of participants indicated they received the same level of support as long as they were meeting all their employment requirements. Barbara asserted that her institution did not provide her with any funding and also *didn’t have a clue what I was doing* [volunteering with an international organisation]. *The only thing they were concerned about was bringing in enough research funds to keep my lab going.* The women’s professional environments played a pivotal part by enabling the women to volunteer. In some cases, the women identified the significance of obtaining organisational financial support whilst others enjoyed having the flexibility as long as they were meeting the job responsibilities.

### Reasons for changing intensity levels in volunteer participation

Sport volunteers’ commitment may change during their posts. According to Cuskelley and Boag (2001, p. 66) there are a variety of reasons for such changes, such as “changes in work or family responsibilities, changing recreational interests and preferences and a feeling of having taken one’s turn”. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) suggested social environments are unpredictable, which could lead to discontinuity within volunteering patterns, personal obligations outside of the organisation, or increased demands, on other responsibilities (e.g., an unexpected life crisis) can all have significant impacts on volunteering service. Barbara suggested that *it is just a matter of deciding your priorities and they change depending on the demand at the time.* For instance, at one point Margaret had to leave the Executive Board of IAPESGW because she was *trying to finish my PhD, I was doing a whole range of things and a lot of European work, so I had to stop something, so I just did one term on the Executive Board.*

However, in many cases choosing to prioritise is not always an option. Darlene described a situation where she was promised her ‘dream job’ where she could teach, conduct research, and
lead IAPESGW, but after two years in the academic post, she lost this position. She recounted the situation:

*My entire life changed, not just my career, my life has changed.... So that set my life on a different path and all this time I am the IAPESGW President, where I thought I was going to have support from them for the four year period of time. That is the only reason that I wound up taking it, because the Dean told me, go ahead and take the presidency because we will support you.*

Darlene finished out her term as president and took a role that entailed less responsibility.

In Christine’s case, her family was her first priority, and, when her mother got ill, she had to reduce her volunteer activities. She explained that she kept volunteering but with reduced involvement:

*You are catching me at the beginning of a recovery, of a really hard two or three years! [I was taking] care of my mum and when that came down [slight pause for thought] it just, I don’t know, you probably understand this, maybe people don’t put their family first. My family, who has always supported me, suddenly needed me; there was no question and I had to let things go. The people that worked with me [in a voluntary capacity] were not used to that, but you had to say, right now, I can’t do it and that is very hard for me to say.*

Shifting her responsibilities to her family (i.e., taking care of her mother) was an unforeseen situation. Other research participants, such as Barbara, also recalled when family obligations interrupted their volunteering patterns.

The participants showed that changes in volunteering service may be planned or due to unpredictable situations (such as a job or family situations). Darlene, Christine, and Barbara all presented examples of their voluntary service being reduced because of unexpected life changes, and this supports Cuskeley and Boag’s (2001) findings that suggest that unexpected life changing
situations impact an individual’s volunteering service. However, Cuskelly and Boag (2001) were focusing on participants who ceased volunteering because of such changes. Burgham and Downward (2005) examined the impact of changing responsibilities of parents and found that children and socio-economic conditions can also impact an individual’s volunteer behaviours. These findings illustrate the variety of reasons intensity levels change.

Balancing paid work, voluntary work, and private lives

Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) suggested that individuals’ paid work, voluntary work, and choices in their private lives complement one another. This section also addresses the women’s domestic domain. However, as shown in the previous section, research participants’ devotion to their research and voluntary work encompasses a large amount of their time. Bianchi (2006, p. 113) questioned if someone’s devotion to their profession can really be balanced when it “spills over into all aspects of life, to crowd out time with family, to limit the pursuit of anything but work”. The purpose of this section is to explore how the research participants balance their paid work, unpaid work, and private lives.

Carole did not believe that individuals can lead a balanced life when serving in a women’s organisation and working as an academic. She began by suggesting that once a person commits herself to an academic life, she is taking on a large amount of responsibility. *I don’t think you can live a balanced life.… I don’t think people that have some kind of mission, like I had and all the women I was dealing with in women’s sport…. You are consumed to a very very high degree by this thing.*

Carole’s stance was not widely accepted by the other participants. Kari, Maryam, Rosa, Susi-Käthi, and Tansin discussed juggling marriage, work, and voluntary service. Kari, Rosa, and Tansin each highlighted that their partner’s work in the same type of work or were retired. For instance, in both Tansin’s and Rosa’s relationships, they were international gymnastic coaches and judges at the same time as their husbands. Tansin’s and Rosa’s husbands were also in academia. Tansin discussed how she saw marriages fail because both husband and wife were coaches, and couples could not cope with the expectations from volunteering. Tansin and her
husband, therefore, constructed their understanding for their work combined with their marriage as a life of togetherness inside our working life, which I think is great! Rosa echoed this as she stated that when we’re together we’re dedicated to each other…. We are very conservative, quiet stay-at-home so maybe that time we spend together is high quality…. The key has been to allow each other to grow; it means sacrifice. Kari’s husband is a retired academic who travels with her to conferences. Living abroad (he’s an American living in Norway), he prefers to just spend time with her, even if they are not communicating but just doing their own work. To balance her paid work with her relationship, Kari revealed that

I work from home a lot, and I have the possibility to do that because of the flexibility in my job…. Sometimes it is difficult to get a whole day but if I teach in the morning, I can go home at 12.

This is a balancing strategy that Kari has found works for her and her partner, which illustrates an exceptional degree of flexibility. Moreover, each of the married participants suggested that her husband can relate to her activities because he too was in academia and/or volunteered. These husbands were able to offer the needed support for the women’s voluntary work, paid work, and domestic work.

Maryam and Susi-Käthi were also married, but their husbands worked in different professional disciplines. However, both women were able to balance their marriages with paid work, unpaid work, and their private lives. For instance, Susi-Käthi discussed how she and her husband realised that it is not possible to both have careers because you then end up at one end and the other at the other end of Switzerland, and, therefore, she chose to work part-time. She believed that this gives you much better life balance, if you have what I call three legs: one is your partnership, your work, and then you volunteer. So if one or two of the three don’t work then you always have the others, so that makes it much easier.

Maryam discussed balancing her marriage in relation to raising a child. She explained that her mother helped care for her son during the day whilst Maryam was doing her PhD. However, after she graduated, Maryam, her husband, and her son moved away from her family support. In
order to balance raising a family and having a career, Maryam and her husband develop[ed] a program for when my son is in the home, one of us must be at home with him. For example, if he goes to school from morning to 1 pm, I try to go back home and give him food. If my husband is at home, he can do that. Maryam pointed out that she has to get as much work done as possible at work because she does all the housework (cooking and cleaning) when she returns home. To complete her volunteering responsibilities whilst with her family, she gives her son some work that will take one or two hours. She also found it productive to work during the last hour of the night or the earlier morning, when my husband and my son are asleep. She did, however, suggest that this was hard and identified that she loses sleep with such an agenda. Mee Lee also indicated that, in order to balance raising her children and getting her voluntary work completed, she goes into her office early in the morning. However, unlike Maryam, Mee Lee has fulltime maids who do the laundry and all the cleaning. These maids also watched her children when they were younger; however, as they are older and in university, this is not an activity in which she is concerned. Johanna, Rosa, and Celia were the only other participants who discussed having or raising children. Their descriptions of ways to balance were similar to Mee Lee and Maryam. However, Johanna and Rosa suggested that they did not get too involved with international voluntary roles until their children were a bit older. Johanna said she was able to balance raising three children, work in a paid setting, and volunteer because she chose to work part-time. Maintaining a balanced lifestyle was important for her as she suggested that she merges work and personal life with the family and also with volunteering. Other participants, like Susi-Käthi and Tansin decided with their husbands that they did not want children, and Tansin acknowledged that her life would be much different if she did have children. Susi-Käthi said it was either children or a profession, and she was more interested in a profession.

In addition, both Susi-Käthi and Tansin highlighted that they sustain their marriages with their partners by discussing taking on a demanding voluntary role. This was not done to get their approval, but to gain an understanding about how the husbands felt about the situation. Tansin described how her husband dealt with her interest in going to Oman for the ‘study week’: He did come with me to Oman and I wanted to be with him. We talked about it before I applied and I would not have wanted to be away for three months without him because he is my best friend.
Such discussion and participation could be viewed as a strategy to enable the women to balance their paid work, unpaid work, and private lives.

Although some women tried hard to live balanced lives, there were also sacrifices. Gertrud, Johanna, Carole, and Christine touched on the sacrifices that came along with dedicating their lives to women’s sport issues, volunteering, and paid work. Gertrud found that she met several partners who did not accept her work. However, now she has met someone who accepts her interests and activities, and is also involved with volunteering. Therefore, he understands and accepts her interests and dedication; however, he currently lives in America and she lives in Denmark. Gertrud is fine with this as she suggested that she did not think I could have done in my professional life and in my volunteer life what I did with a family or children. Johanna, on the other hand, revealed that her marriage broke up and I think probably that volunteer work and actually being involved in women’s sport, it was not a cause, but it may have contributed. Christine had a similar experience as she said her husband hated her voluntary service and dedication to the cause. Christine believed that he failed to understand the cause and the reasons why she was so heavily involved.

Carole reflected on her life and can now identify the sacrifices she made to dedicate herself to the advancement of girls and women in physical education and sport. She explained in a lengthy description:

*One of the things I had to get sort of sober about over the last 20 years of my life is to see that no matter what you say, you can’t do it all. Something is going to suffer. I think I have always put my career and these organisations, first, they were like mistresses in a sense I would say. My family always supported me and I was fortunate enough not to have my mother or father or my extended family say ‘Carole you are ignoring us, what about us, we want you more’. You got to give up some of these things. The intimate relationships in my life, I always had these people [those interested in relationships], I was in relationships with these people and I would say we are almost like co-dependent. They encouraged me; they said ‘this is great, the things you are doing is important, they are important to all of us so keep on doing and going’. I got into my 50s.... I had done a
A lot of reflection back on certain choices and realising there were costs and there were things that I and people and relationships that I sacrificed not against other people’s will but with their support to speak, but it definitely had impacts on family and relationships with intimate partners so to speak. I am not sure I would do anything different now, but I think I have a lot more awareness now of what the sacrifices and the cost were on behalf of myself and other people…. I keep a relatively healthy lifestyle but I am a healthy person so I have had a whole lifetime of tremendous energy and it is really only now that there are times when I think, oh no, I don’t think I have it in me to fly to Australia for a meeting next week; I don’t know, I have to think about it. I never even thought about it before: I just jumped on the plane, and I was gone! So I think there is a relational toll, I think there is a physical toll, there’s financial toll. I put a lot of my own personal money into travel, direct donations, but it has been more of my time and energy that I have given and my expertise that I have given and again, no regrets and I am glad I did it, but at the time, I think, I wasn’t always completely aware of how much the cost might be. So I don’t have children, there are things that I don’t have and I’m right with my choices, I’m good with my choices, but they were choices.

Carole’s quote discussed numerous significant topics that sum up the relation to paid work dimension. First, Carole discussed how she chose to make her professional work and voluntary work primary aspects in her life. She referred to them as her ‘mistresses’, illustrating that they were mysterious and luxurious and took over her time that others would have to spend with families. In Carole’s explanation, she addressed where voluntary activities in women’s sport organisations fit into the women’s lives. Carole pointed out that upon reflection she realised that intimate relationships only worked if her partner supported her work as a co-dependent, yet this was a sacrifice which she and some other participants have made in their lives to continue their paid work and voluntary work.

Carole stated earlier that she did not believe a person could be as dedicated as she was and lead a balanced life because paid and unpaid work and family obligations all take tolls. For Carole, and for some other participants like Gertrud, Darlene, Johanna, and Christine, there are relational tolls (i.e., relationships did not work and some ended in divorce), physical tolls (i.e., not being
able to travel as easily before), and financial tolls (i.e., using own funds to travel and attend meetings and conferences) that greatly impact the women’s involvement. Therefore, the women within this research chose where they wanted their volunteering service to fit in their lives by considering life choices like whether to start a family, what type of employment and research to attain, and how much time and effort can be given to IAPESGW and WSI.

These findings are consistent with other sport volunteering studies. Claringbould and Knoppers (2007) found in their research that women considered their roles within leadership settings when deciding about planning to have a family. The findings of the current study also concur with other sport research that highlights people getting divorced and making other sacrifices to volunteer in sport (Henry et al., 2004; Knoppers & Anthonissen, 2008; McKay, 1997; Pfister & Radtke, 2009). Existing literature often focuses on the constraints of volunteering. This study also identifies ways that the research participants lead balanced lives with a partner and kids. Although they made sacrifices, such as sleep, the participants did suggest that working in academia and volunteering in women’s organisations whilst having a family can be done.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter is to utilise the interview data to provide a detailed and analytical examination of the women’s experiences and contributions in IAPESGW and WSI. The chapter began by discussing how Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) SOV model is further adapted to deal with the complexity of the framework.

The first section focuses on the motivational structure and choice of activity dimensions. This section examines the impact of communal values for the research participants and their service in IAPESGW and WSI to predict length of voluntary service. It further highlights how women construct their understanding for helping others through religious settings (i.e., church and school), family socialisation, and cultural settings. Some participants identified constructing the understanding of helping others as common knowledge in their childhood and suggested that they carried it into their adult life. This section also investigates the development of the
interviewees’ interests in global issues. It emerged from the data that these reasons ranged from developing interests in family structures, through education, and personal experiences. This section concludes with separate discussions on the research participants’ pathways into IAPESGW and WSI. The findings from IAPESGW indicated that women entered through different routes; specifically, they approached the association, were mentored in, invited in, and won an association-wide award. In contrast, three of the study participants from WSI helped form the organisation in 1993 because they were dissatisfied with IAPESGW. The research participants that entered WSI whilst it was being established were either invited in by a facilitating member or approached the organisation. Whereas the women in WSI all had a hand in assisting in the early developments of WSI, IAPESGW had a pre-existing stable environment through which the women could volunteer. The sample size was not large enough to generalise about different pathways into IAPESGW and WSI; however, a significant number of women indicated the value of the influence of another person.

The second section is concerned with the course and intensity of commitment, motivational structure, and choice of activity dimensions. This section focused on women’s shared interests in sport and in gender issues to identify why the research participants chose to volunteer. The section was divided based on the organisations (IAPESGW and WSI) where the participants were leaders because of the differences in organisational functions. IAPESGW’s main task is to bring the membership together by hosting a congress every four years. The research participants identified this as an opportunity where they developed solidarity, networked, and had memorable experiences with other members that strengthened their commitment to the organisation. It was through this group-based setting that the women further developed shared interests. In contrast, WSI set out to form a credible research organisation with members and leaders who were interested in research. In fact, some of the women were leading researchers in their areas. The findings suggested that, due to the calibre of these individuals and the organisation’s action-oriented approach, leaders joined WSI to be affiliated or associated with the organisation. As women had opportunities to network with influential organisations and leading researchers, and to engage in research-based task forces, the research participants indicated that this strengthened their commitment to the organisation.
The third section was concerned predominately with commitment and motivations by focusing on women’s contributions to IAPESGW and WSI. This section focused on the research participants’ core involvement within the organisations. The findings indicate that the women were extremely involved in volunteering within the organisations. This section illustrates the women engaging in a range of tasks (e.g., overseeing congress organisers’ work to maintain organisational values and to further develop roles). The findings also suggested that the participants indicated wanting to be in positions where they could significantly contribute to the organisation.

Chapter Six concludes with conceptualising on the last SOV dimension – relation to paid work. This section focuses on how the research participants’ devotion to their organisations was so strong that the women brought their professional research into the IAPESGW and WSI. Consequently, this was the pivotal finding section since it explained that the women could not volunteer to the degree they did without it being facilitated by their professional careers. There was a strong interaction between the women’s paid and unpaid work. The findings suggest that the women’s commitment to women in sport drove them professionally since the women were driven to advance in their careers to reach the highest levels. In addition, the women took their knowledge obtained in professional settings to their volunteer work and, likewise, took their knowledge from volunteering into their profession. The second half of the section focuses on the enormous investment the women made: emotional, intellectual, time, energy, and practical resources. This section extends the SOV model to address volunteering in relation to paid work, volunteer work, and domestic work. The findings indicated that women made major sacrifices to participate in volunteering activities: choosing not to start a family, living apart from a partner, or choosing to work part-time to balance work, volunteering, and family. These types of sacrifices were not considered in the original SOV, but, in the current research, they were significant factors. The women illustrated that it was under extreme conditions that they could volunteer in IAPESGW and WSI as the women’s domestic and family circumstances have to accommodate the level of volunteering through which these women participated.

In conclusion, the chapter showed the women’s emotional link to the organisations as they were dedicated to the cause that was shared from within. Chapter Six illustrates what the women tried
to do, what they did do, and the enormous amount of effort that went into this so they could advance girls and women in sport and physical activity. However, could this work be achieved without their strong relation to paid work? This raises the question if volunteering at this level is pure in the end.
CHAPTER 7
GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Women as sport volunteers: the phenomenon addressed in this thesis. This study was conducted with the prior knowledge that (1) sport volunteering is significant for the operation of sport, and (2) sport volunteers are the backbone of sport. The growing empirical literature on sport volunteerism illustrates the value of volunteers in sport. The thesis was developed to understand an extreme example of sport volunteering – the long-term and intensive contributions and experiences of women leaders within IAPESGW and WSI. Previous literature on sport volunteering has mainly focused separately on components of volunteering including sport volunteer activities, demands on time, pathways into sport volunteering, motivations in multiple types of sport settings, changing commitment levels, developed sport identities, or balancing sport voluntary service with employment commitments and domestic responsibilities (Doherty, 2005; Green & Chalip, 2004; Wang, 2004). Studying these factors separately has provided important insights into each but also means that researchers have developed a fragmented understanding about the overall experiences of sport volunteers. In addition, the separate study of different elements has inevitably limited understanding of how they interact with and affect each other. Therefore, this study adapted the approach adopted by the SOV to gain a holistic understanding about a significant case of volunteers in a sport landscape. By doing so, it also illustrated how this could improve understanding of the categories. The study was successful in

1. contributing new empirical data, and
2. drawing on the wider academic study of volunteering to develop a conceptual framework for the study of sport volunteering that can be applied beyond this case study.

This study aimed to construct an understanding about the research participants’ relationships with their voluntary roles in IAPESGW and WSI.
The aim of the research is:

- To construct a holistic understanding about female participants’ contributions and experiences as sport volunteers in international women’s sport organisations

The research objectives are:

1. to explore the personal biographies of women who volunteer in international women’s sport organisations;
2. to examine the women’s experiences of volunteering within IAPESGW and WSI;
3. to examine the interaction of the research participants’ volunteer experiences with their wider lifestyles across the lifespan; and
4. to contribute to the study of research into sport volunteering by applying and evaluating a multi-method qualitative approach that contextualises volunteering within individuals’ wider lifestyles.

The contributions of the study to sport volunteering research

This section reviews the two main contributions to knowledge from the study. First, the section addresses the contribution made by the study’s substantive findings. Second, the section will examine the contribution made by of the methodological approach, especially the use of the SOV framework. It will start by assessing what each of the dimensions could contribute to the current study. Then the section will reflect on how the SOV was adapted to research women volunteers of IAPESGW and WSI.

The first substantive contribution of the study focuses on the findings about the research participants. These women were a select group of individuals who have been highly committed to advancing women’s sport and physical activity through their participation in IAPESGW and WSI, two organisations that have been advocating, promoting, and facilitating the advancement of girls and women in sport and physical activity settings across the globe. The older organisation, IAPESGW, was for many years the only international women’s sport and physical
education organisation. The findings highlighted the success of IAPESGW’s congresses every four years where members and leaders came together face-to-face to share interests, experiences, and problems. The current study pointed out, however, that there were women who wanted to take a more research-based, action-oriented approach, leading to WSI emerging out of IAPESGW with the aim of developing research-based task forces and lobbying with influential sport organisations to advance women’s sport. This thesis investigated volunteer service within these two different organisational contexts, making it better able to identify the dominant themes in the experiences of sport volunteers involved in the leadership of the international women and sport movement. Two significant points emerged concerning the participants in relation to understanding their volunteer involvement with IAPESGW and WSI:

1. a driving force for the women’s involvement was their individual experiences and long-term commitment to advance women in sport, and
2. the demands of undertaking such a significant challenge within the male-dominated sport environment meant that the women involved needed to give significant priority to their volunteering within their overall lifestyle.

The women constructed their sporting and physical activity identities at a young age. The data showed that the majority of women’s pathways in education and their professions were guided by their interests in sport and physical activity as many of the women undertook a degree in the Physical Education. This intellectual journey led these women to work in academia. In addition, the data suggested that the majority of participants shared experiences of gender-based disadvantages that later led to the women’s involvement in challenging male sport structures. The interpretation is that the women who volunteer in IAPESGW and/or WSI were deeply engaged in sport and physical education for women through diverse experiences and in a number of ways, which included personal, emotional, intellectual, experiential, and political. The findings demonstrated the magnitude of the women’s involvement within these organisations as well as the women’s passion for advancing females in sport. Moreover, this was the driving force for them in their careers. The data illustrated the interaction between the women’s paid work and unpaid work, and further suggested that these women would not have been able to
participate in these organisations at such an intense level without holding the professional roles which allowed them to do so.

The research illustrated that working in these organisations was a large investment. The participants identified utilising emotional, intellectual, time, energy, and practical resources to volunteer. Therefore, it is important to identify how lifestyle conditions influenced or impacted the women’s voluntary service within IAPESGW and WSI. The interviewees suggested that they were able to volunteer because of the conditions of their relationships and family. In addition, the types of paid work they undertook were important because they were compatible with the volunteering activity and in some respects supported and reinforced it. These extreme circumstances appeared to be needed within individuals’ lifestyles to have the time, energy, and resources to enable them to volunteer in IAPESGW and WSI at the level at which they did.

The findings illustrated that the research participants were in privileged positions. For instance they had opportunities to develop interests in sport and physical activity from a young age, possibly putting them in positions where they could identify and construct an understanding for gender inequalities. In addition the research participants represented an elite group of women who were well educated and in high status roles within their careers in the relatively flexible academic domain where they could focus their activities and research around their personal passions. This study was the first of its kind to research this group of women from IAPESGW and WSI. The knowledge gained about them provides a greater understanding about the people who volunteer to such extreme levels.

The second substantive contribution of the study lies in its critical application and development of an appropriate methodological approach that can address the need that has been identified above, for a holistic examination of sport volunteering that locates it within the context of individuals’ lifestyles. Adopting the Collective and Reflexive Styles of Volunteer (SOV) framework proved to be a valuable starting point, despite it being developed for non-sport settings, because it offered a holistic perspective that the majority of sport volunteering scholars have not utilised. In addition, the level of knowledge and understanding that could be generated through the SOV was greatly enhanced by combining it with a qualitative research design,
including a life history research approach. This extended both the scope and the depth of the contextual material obtained.

The methodological aspects of this study were therefore significant because, when used together, they highlighted the obvious contributions that each of the six dimensions of the framework made in helping to draw out aspects of volunteers’ experiences that have been underplayed in other studies. The SOV framework therefore provided the overall wide perspective required to construct a holistic picture about the participants, and addressed a range of topics through the dimensions. However, for this study, it was significant that the SOV was coupled with in-depth interviews and the life history method because the qualitative method gave depth and detail to the participants’ explanations. In other words, the SOV does not in itself guarantee detail (that comes from in-depth interviews) and does not in itself look at how people’s interests and volunteering service develop over time (this came from the combination of the SOV and the life history approach). For instance, through the application of the life history research method in the current study, the data uncovered the research participants’ backgrounds and their understanding of reality. Utilising the life history method within the different lenses enables researchers to gain insight on wider perspectives of individuals’ backgrounds. This was done in the current study by getting the participants to recall and divulge their own life histories within interview settings. Therefore, this research method does not limit the researcher to only understand links that research participants make between aspects of their current lives and their volunteering service, but, instead, it enables the researcher to draw links between how the participants constructed their own identities and interests. For example, through the biographical frame of reference and the application of the life history approach, scholars can construct a better understanding about how research participants view their own activities and the world around them. This was significant in each of the dimensions of the SOV as the researcher is able to prompt or clarify statements by the participants to gain a fuller understanding about their stories. Therefore, the purpose of this section is to (i) demonstrate the significance of this multi-method qualitative approach; (ii) identify the key findings and aspects within each dimension; and (iii) show how the knowledge created about each dimension contributes to the sport volunteering research field.
The biographical frame of reference dimension of the SOV

The focus of the original biographical frame of reference was to gain insight about the sources of volunteer behaviours and attitudes. This suggests that the activity of volunteering relates to and is influenced by other aspects of an individual’s life. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) discussed such an idea by suggesting that volunteering is embedded in a person’s reality, which is formed from what an individual is exposed to and his or her experiences. Therefore, the biographical lens can be used to examine a person’s history and to identify significant information that may be linked to current volunteering experiences.

Applying this lens and qualitative research method to the sport volunteering field distinguishes it from existing sport volunteer studies. For instance, scholars such as Coleman (2002), Doherty (2005), and Nichols and Padmore (2005) examined sport volunteers’ discriminant characteristics like gender, age, and education. These scholars used such characteristics to put forward reasons why particular people were in their positions and to identify the roles in certain types of volunteers could potentially hold. The authors highlighted specific findings that suggested that there are typically more male volunteers in sport than female volunteers (Doherty, 2005; Nichols & Padmore, 2005). Scholars like Downward and Ralston (2005) and Nichols and Shepherd (2006) used equivalent findings to explain that people within such a characteristic (e.g., gender) were in more influential positions (e.g., chairpersons, treasurer, and senior coaching) because sport reflects the gendered social norms constructed in society. In addition, Downward, Lumsdon, and Ralston (2005) concluded that the women volunteers from their research on the Commonwealth Games were more likely to volunteer in settings focused on education and/or with children, again reflecting societal expectations of gendered behaviour.

These types of studies have been valuable for the field and for practitioners to gain more insight into sport volunteers. However, they are limited because existing scholars did not show evidence of trying to unpack the experiences associated with volunteers’ discriminant characteristics. Instead their studies only interpreted their findings based on generalised characteristics. While scholars such as Doherty (2005), Harvey, Donnelly, and Lévesque (2005), and Nichols and Padmore (2005) were particularly interested in building profiles which can identify sport...
volunteers’ age, education, and labour market status, instead of unpacking these, many of the abovementioned scholars used the information at a descriptive level before drawing implications about the participants’ life patterns (e.g., where and how sport volunteering fits into the participants’ life patterns of education, employment, and family). For instance, Doherty (2005) suggested that fewer people volunteer or hold influential roles before the age of 35 because, before this time, people are often striving to establish themselves academically and within their careers. Nichols and Padmore (2005) supported this as they concluded that people in the 45+ age range engage in more volunteering activities and hold higher roles within club sport settings than younger individuals. It was suggested that this was due to the traditional life cycle of school, work, and family. While the data in these studies identified relationships between these characteristics and volunteer behaviour, it did not provide direct evidence of the explanations the authors put forward, or allow the complexity and diversity in volunteer experiences to be demonstrated.

These studies provided a good starting point to understand sport volunteers. Now, in order to advance the field, researchers have to do more than only make basic connections between individuals’ characteristics and their volunteering behaviour. When the implications of individuals’ characteristics are taken for granted, this means scholars are not unpacking individuals’ experiences of gender, age, education, and so on; instead, scholars are making assumptions about the implications of these factors. In contrast, participants in the current study revealed ways in which their own direct experience of contexts like sport and education, and their observations and readings, enabled them to construct their specific understandings about gender, particularly being a woman. For instance, in the interviews, the women were able to explain how they experienced gender and gender disadvantages. These experiences taught them how women’s roles and characteristics were defined by society and allowed them to define their roles and characteristics for themselves.

The biographical frame of reference dimension within the framework of the SOV is different from other approaches addressing volunteers’ wider lifestyles. The framework accepts a fuller approach to study sport volunteers and supports methodologies that can provide in-depth detail. This lens is particularly valuable because it allows researchers to obtain detailed individual
accounts that make explicit the links between volunteer activities and the influence of other aspects on an individual’s lifestyle. It focuses on volunteers’ biographies which impact individuals’ (future) decisions to volunteer in a particular setting. This may be valuable information to provide fuller insight about sport volunteers to scholars and practitioners.

Utilising this lens was significant in the current study. First, by focusing on the participants’ biographies through a retrospective life history research method, it enabled for the identification of consistent themes (or interests) among the participants. One significant theme was that all the women were interested and participated in sports and physical activities at a variety of levels. In fact, the women explained and illustrated how sport was a long-term aspect of their lives. This is an example of the type of information that can be obtained by combining the biographical frame of reference with the life history approach because the parameters of the lens can be extended to include the participants’ backgrounds. Second, through the use of this lens and the life history interviews, the women explained the major role that sport had in their lives, even playing a part in their choices in education, professional work, and volunteering activities. In other words, during the interviews, many of the women recalled sport being quite dominant in shaping their wider lifestyles as many of them were in professions of education that are aligned with sport.

The biographical frame of reference was a substantial lens for this study because it addressed the women’s identity development. During the life history interviews, the women explained how they maintained their sporting identity and interests, and many of the women even discussed such an identity leading them to their positions in both their paid and unpaid work. Previous researchers have acknowledged the power of sport identity for future volunteering participation (Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Green & Chalip, 2008; MacLean & Hamm, 2007), and, with the qualitative method and the biographical frame of reference, its development and maintenance were tracked and linked to volunteering activities.

Overall, the biographical frame of reference lens has proved to be significant for the sport volunteering field. First, the lens is valuable for the field because, when combined with the life history approach, it allows more than just investigating participants’ current (at the time of research) volunteer service. It emphasises examining volunteers’ biographies to further
understand their current positions. It appears that it is uncommon for researchers in the field to get such information about participants or to develop such links. The parameters of the biographical frame of reference lens also include how individuals get involved with volunteering, where volunteering has and does fit into their lives, and how identities are linked with volunteering environments. This lens does not automatically address these topics; rather, it the qualitative research method as applied to the lens that probes for such information. Whilst scholars are still learning about sport volunteers and this lens is new to the field, it is suggested from this study that, to get its best value, researchers should apply a qualitative research method to obtain rich data. In fact, through the life history method, the participants recalled connected links to significant situations in their lives where they had developed their identities and interests. The women were able to point out how their past experiences were influenced by what they felt was important for their lives. In summary, the way in which this lens was used in the current study highlights the significant value of the lens that can be applied to the field.

The motivational structure dimension of the SOV

In Hustinx and Lammertyn’s original SOV, the dimension for the motivational structure was intended to gain insight into why individuals volunteer in specific activities and focused on participants’ current (at the time of the study) motives to volunteer. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) suggested that it was important to gain an understanding about how and why individuals obtained recognition, satisfaction, and self-development within their volunteering settings. The authors were interested in learning about how participants identified their volunteering roles and whether their volunteering activity was based on a sense of duty. In other words, the lens of motivational structure addresses participants’ current volunteering activities and attempts to identify the motives that led participants to engage in such activity.

In order to construct a fuller understanding about volunteers’ motives, Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) suggested that scholars should draw on the biographical frame of reference dimension. Despite each dimension being able to stand alone, this illustrates that more can be revealed about research participants when drawing on two or more dimensions together. In this study, the life
history interviews played a major role in bringing this information out to highlight the aspects of research participants’ backgrounds that are linked to volunteer motivations. This means that the focus was not only on the current activity, but also addressed how identities developed throughout their lives, some aspects of which could also be revealed in the biographical frame of reference. Such strong links appear to be absent in the existing literature. Instead scholars such as Bouchet and Lehe (2010), Busser and Carruthers (2010), and Doherty (2005) have accepted their participants’ statements that they volunteer as coaches because their children play the sport. It could be suggested that, since these scholars were focusing on one particular event, this was enough information about why people volunteered. However, there is more that can be known and understood about the research participants’ motives to engage in volunteering activities. For instance, Bouchet and Lehe (2010) could have also focused on observations made by the participants, such as, were the participants interested in coaching and sport prior to their current involvement through their children.

The motivational structure dimension can provide extensive insight into why people are motivated to volunteer in a particular situation. This was evident in the current study as the women explained being motivated by the missions and purposes of IAPESGW and WSI. In addition, through the SOV, it was suggested that links can be drawn between participants’ biographies and their current volunteering activities. Therefore, the current study highlighted the role that the participants’ sporting identities played in their service with IAPESGW and WSI. It was important to be able to utilise the information from the biographical frame of reference lens because it pointed out that the women constructed their love for sport over a number of years and this was valuable to understand and link to the women’s service with IAPESGW and WSI. The information obtained from the biographical frame of reference was used to illustrate that the majority of women discussed enjoying their sport careers and not wanting other girls and women to be deprived of such experiences. Therefore, they developed a passion to advocate (volunteer) for gender equity within sport and physical activity. Some women explained strengthening these interests through personal and observed experiences of discrimination. Although it was anticipated that these women would have such stories because of the time periods during which they grew up, it was better understood when the situation could be linked to the women’s experiences guiding them to advocate (volunteer) for gender issues in sport. Some women
appeared to be more interested in addressing gender issues at the highest levels (e.g., IOC), whilst other participants were interested in a gender issues that impacted or limited a specific group of women (e.g., limitations due to religion).

The current study illustrates the value that the motivational lens can have in the sport volunteering field when accompanied by a qualitative research method. Through the lens and methods, it moves beyond drawing deductive conclusions from quantitative measures as in the SEVMS by Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998). It adds more to the scholars’ understanding than simply highlighting motives for a particular activity being due to motives of purposive, solidarity, external traditions, and commitment. Yet these measures like the SEVMS have been significant for many sport researchers as Han (2007) referred to it as the ‘cornerstone’, particularly for motivational research in mega-sport event research. Bang and Chelladurai (2009) and Bang and Ross (2009) built on this by adding such motivations as international involvement and love for the sport. Understanding motives from these studies are valuable, but the information provided is limited because such research typically utilises scales or other quantitative measures (Downward, Lumsdon, & Ralston, 2005; Hoye et al., 2008).

In addition, survey research that focuses on motivations to volunteer in sport has reported findings that may be dated as some researchers are still reporting women’s voluntary service being based on women wanting to enhance their CV, employment prospects, and skills (Downward, Lumsdon, & Ralston, 2005). In fact these types of findings continue to be consistent with earlier work outside the of the sport field by Daniels (1989) where women’s volunteer work was considered unimportant and referred to as invisible work. Daniels’ (1989) research suggested that women volunteer to build their employment opportunities. Although this is what the participants reported (Downward, Lumsdon, & Ralston, 2005), there is also evidence that many women may have moved beyond volunteering solely for these purposes. In fact, in the current study, the women showed that they had a vast amount of experience in male-dominated professional organisations where many held influential roles. In addition, the majority of the women reached the highest positions in their departments and obtained numerous academic credentials along the way. This means that the women in the current study did not volunteer to increase their career opportunities, as suggested by other researchers; instead, they volunteered
because they were interested in the cause and the organisations, and often invested their professional skills in these. Further women are advancing in society, and their motivations to volunteer are not as cut-and-dry as the existing research makes it seem to be. The current study is more aligned with the work of Pauline and Pauline (2009) who found that there were no differences in volunteer motivations based on gender. Instead, volunteers engage in the activity for a variety of reasons, most commonly because they are interested in the settings and/or the work.

This study produced some different insights into motivations compared to other research. In addressing with the differences in volunteer motivations, the work by Doherty and Carron (2003) concluded that social connectedness was not a significant motive for women participants; however, in the current study, participants from IAPESGW discussed personal relationships being very important for the membership. Participants used words and phrases like ‘life-time friends’, ‘solidarity’, and ‘connections’ to explain some of the reasons they are motivated to participate with IAPESGW. In comparison, when looking at the interviews with WSI, it appeared that Doherty and Carron’s (2003) findings on task cohesion were more important than on social cohesion. The differences between these two organisations and the members’ motives may be better understood by taking account of the activities of the organisations: IAPESGW hosts the quadrennial congresses where members meet face-to-face whilst WSI works on task forces and projects and members do not see each other.

The current study challenges the findings about gender differences in motivations to volunteer by Khoo and Englehorn (2007) and Schuyler (2008) who concluded that males are more likely to volunteer as leisure. These findings differ because the majority of women in the current study did not refer to their service as work or volunteering. Many of the women suggested that they engaged in such work during their leisure time and enjoyed what they did. Therefore, the current study suggests that volunteering is part of their leisure activities. In addition, Khoo and Englehorn (2007) suggested from their research on the Paralympics that women’s voluntary service in sport is motivated by family, but this does not hold true for the women in the current study. In fact, many of the participants suggested that their family lifestyles accommodated their paid and unpaid work (as discussed further below).
Overall, the motivation lens can contribute to the field by enhancing the way we look at volunteer motivations. During the interviews, connections were made to the participants’ biographies, and the information gathered was able to be expanded on. Therefore, the motivation lens and the method suggest that scholars should not just ask about motives based on the activity, but also examine a person’s background that is linked to the particular activity.

The course and intensity of commitment dimension of the SOV

The original course and intensity of commitment dimension was intended to highlight styles of volunteering and changing intensity levels of volunteers’ involvement. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) asserted that volunteers’ styles and commitment to volunteering activities varied, and therefore, the scholars were concerned with loyalty, devotion, and preferences of volunteering activities. The course and intensity of commitment lens is useful because it can help identify varied patterns and changing commitment levels that affect volunteers’ service within their sport volunteering activities.

By identifying participants’ course and intensity of commitment, sport managers can better predict volunteers’ patterns of service and continued service. In fact, it is important for sport volunteer researchers to understand the different patterns of service, particularly because many sport scholars have drawn from the general volunteering field. This is an important component of the field to consider as scholars like Donnelly and Harvey (2011), Hwang (2010), and Strigas and Jackson (2003) have argued that sport volunteers’ commitment is different from general volunteers. This makes it necessary for researchers in the field to begin to really separate sport volunteers from other types. According to Bang and Chelladurai (2009), this needs to be done because existing literature does not capture the significance of sport volunteering. Safai et al. (2007) explained one reason for this happening is because national statistics do not distinguish sport as a volunteering field of its own. Yet this is surprising because scholars such as Donnelly and Harvey (2011) were able to show that sport volunteering is the single largest category of volunteering. In addition, the differences need to be identified because the way in which sport
volunteers engage in activities and utilise their time varies in time commitment, patterns, and obligations. For instance, the demand on sporting volunteer activities can range from being episodic (events), seasonal (community sport), or continuous/long-term (organisational settings) (Cuskelly, Harrington, & Stebbins, 2003; Green & Chalip, 1998; Pauline & Pauline, 2009). The course and intensity of commitment lens can therefore be utilised in the field to increase understanding of the patterns of sport voluntary service.

The lens can be further utilised to add to the existing literature about sport volunteers’ commitment levels. The majority of studies that address commitment levels of volunteers, like Cuskelly and Boag (2001), Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998), Hoye (2007), and MacLean and Hamm (2007), focuses on volunteer commitment being linked to satisfaction and motivations. This means that the way the dimension of commitment is used in the SOV can neatly fit into what existing researchers are doing. This is due to Hustinx and Lammertyn’s (2003) suggestion that the dimensions of the SOV overlap and, in fact, impact one another, and the abovementioned literature highlighted how each of these concepts influences the other concepts. For example, if people are unhappy with an organisational setting, their motivation to engage in unpaid work may change which often also means their commitment level will be reduced. However, this type of information does not always stand out in studies that utilise quantitative measures.

Within this lens, changes in the participants’ commitment levels due to the wider reasons why someone could not serve as much could be identified. For example, in the current study, one participant discussed her commitment level to IAPESGW changing because it was during a time when she was finishing her doctorate degree, her mother-in-law was ill, and she was serving on other committees. She formally stepped away from IAPESGW, but she would help behind the scenes when the IAPESGW president needed her. This type of information was available because life history methods were utilised. In this particular interview, the conversation was not focused on changing commitment levels; rather, as the participant was speaking, she was explaining her involvement with IAPESGW and recounted when she was more involved compared to when she was less involved with the organisation. The commitment lens provided the parameters to address whether or not a person’s commitment changed, similar to the work by
Cuskelly, Harrington, and Stebbins (2003), but these scholars did not learn why the commitment levels changed. They did not use measures to ask about constraints with the family or paid work.

The course and intensity of commitment lens and life history methods were valuable when used together in the current study because “changes in work or family responsibilities, changing recreational interests and preferences and a feeling of having taken one’s turn” (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001, p. 66) could all be addressed. The women’s changing patterns of volunteering were highlighted within this lens. Many of the participants explained how they were extremely committed to volunteering because they wanted to advance women in sport. In fact, they described their service being a more central part of their lives than the conventional view that describes volunteering as a residual activity that is ‘fitted in’. The women are able to do this because of their professional environments where their paid work overlapped with their unpaid work. Many of the work addressed the distance between geographic locations, and highlighted the benefit of working from their offices. Despite their extreme commitment level, however, unpredictable life crisis did affect the amount of time the women could dedicate to the organisations. For instance, two participants recollected the changes in their service when their mothers became ill and needed their help. They explained how their commitment levels to IAPESGW and WSI changed because their family was a high priority. This suggested that the participants’ overall high levels of commitment reflected the fact that they had far fewer ‘family’ constraints than most women of their age; however, at times family demands did increase, and had a noticeable effect on their commitment.

The commitment lens highlighted when and how the women’s volunteering commitment increased. During the interviews, many of the women highlighted the importance of shared interests through group-based identities and group affiliation. Being surrounded by other people with the same goals and interests was valuable for the women within the study because they felt a connection to the other members. In some cases, the participants discussed these connections being so strong that they felt their membership with the organisation was the only place they would have these connections. In addition, the women described their roles within the organisations as being core or significant for the running of the organisation. They described their work for the organisations (writing newsletters, organising congresses, creating documents
in multiple languages, developing networks with national and international organisations, and so on) being fundamental for IAPESGW and WSI. This suggested that the larger roles the women had, the more likely they would be committed to the organisation because they were actively involved. Overall, the commitment lens is significant for the field because it provides the parameters to address volunteers changing commitment levels. In addition, the current study supported previous research that indicated sport volunteers can be better understood when a person’s motivations and satisfaction are also examined.

The Organisational Environment dimension of the SOV

The original organisational environment dimension focused on organisational settings, cultures, structures, and perceptions (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003). Utilising the organisational lens in the sport volunteering field enables scholars to examine a wide array of elements in sport volunteering settings. For instance, the lens was used in this setting to examine the foundations of the voluntary organisations (through archives) as well as the participants’ perceptions of the environments (through interview data). This means scholars can utilise the dimension to draw on what is known about a voluntary setting by those outside (e.g. identity and foundation) and the views and experiences of the volunteers who are inside. These two concepts are significant because personal perceptions about a voluntary setting may differ from the pre-determined identity of an organisation or voluntary activity.

In existing voluntary sport research, participants are typically studied within specific settings, which are identified and outlined by scholars. These settings include mega-events (Bang & Chelladurai, 2009; Bang & Ross, 2009; Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998; Jarvis & Blank, 2011; Love, Hardin, Koo, & Morse, 2011), small scale sports (Burgham & Downward, 2005; Khoo & Englehorn, 2011; Long & Goldenberg, 2010; Schuyler, 2008; Strigas & Jackson, 2003); community settings (Bouchet & Lehe, 2010; Busser & Carruthers, 2010; Doherty & Carron, 2003; Hamm-Kerwin, Misener, & Doherty, 2009), and organisational settings (Cuskelley, McIntyre, & Boag, 1998; Doherty, 1998; Inglis, 1994; Kim, Chelladurai, & Trail, 2007; Searle, 1989; Shibli et al., 1999). In the abovementioned studies, the scholars clearly
identified their understanding of the voluntary settings, yet they did not question how the participants identified or defined the voluntary activities. Instead they chose the setting, described it, and researched the people in the particular setting. What is being suggested is that the existing research in the field does not seem to address the way that their research participants classify their voluntary service, but if they did, researchers may learn more about the people involved.

The organisational dimension is therefore significant in addressing how the organisational context may influence the particular activity and volunteers’ perceptions of their service. Unlike other studies in the sport voluntary field, the current study does not take the voluntary setting for granted, but instead aimed to identify the foundation of the voluntary setting aligned with the participants’ perceptions of the voluntary activity. Investigating WSI and IAPESGW within this lens in the current research was valuable. Scholars like Hargreaves (1994) and Hall (1994) argued that there were similarities between IAPESGW and WSI. Yet there was limited research to support such suggestion. Through the examination of archives and interviewing participants, similarities between organisations and members could be highlighted.

In addition, Hargreaves (1994) and Hall (1994) identified both IAPESGW and WSI as excluding people who were not white, upper-class, and highly educated. The interviews provided insight into these critiques as some participants described exclusionary practices occurring within the organisations. Despite the majority of the participants coming from privileged backgrounds, some women explained that they felt they were excluded because they were not part of the inner circle of women or because English was not their first language. The archives did not suggest any exclusionary practices as they suggested that the organisations were considering the needs of individuals from various countries and backgrounds. Further, the existing literature did not reveal what was taking place within the organisations. Therefore, the participants’ perspectives were critical in order to identify these exclusionary practices.

The organisational dimension is a significant contribution to the sport volunteering field as it suggests giving more detailed attention to volunteering settings than has been previously been done. For instance, Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998) studied volunteers’ motivations at the
1998 Canadian Women’s Curling Championships. The scholars referred to voluntary setting as a mega-sporting event. The scholars utilised ‘The 28-item Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale’ to examine their participants from this mega-sporting event. However, the scholars did not focus on the volunteering activity; rather, their interest was more about the volunteers’ motivations and satisfaction. Due to such focus, the scholars were particularly interested in motives that were purposive, solidarity, external traditions, and commitments, and this was not about the settings being a mega-sporting event. Other scholars such as Bouchet and Lehe (2010) focused on voluntary activities within community settings, such as soccer coaches. Such research is common, and there have only been a few scholars that have sought to define volunteering roles like Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998) where the scholars questioned their participants’ socially identified role of coaching. Therefore, the use of the organisational lens is significant because it is providing information that may be lost or under-addressed in current studies.

The organisational environment lens enables researchers to gain an understanding about how their participants feel and define a particular voluntary activity at various levels, forms, and patterns. The current study illustrated the benefit of understanding the organisational culture or foundation of the organisations. Such information is important to know the background or the original purpose of an environment. It was then useful to understand how the participants perceived the settings. This informed us that some participants were not involved because of the historical settings, that the environments were defined in different ways, and that there were contradictions in the way that the participants viewed the organisations. This lens will be useful to the field because it addresses both the backgrounds of settings and members’ perceptions. It was obvious in this study that these are not always the same, and sport managers can use such information to understand what, why, and how volunteers view their service and settings.

**The choice of (field of) activity dimension of the SOV**

The choice of field dimension focused on the chosen volunteering activity. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) suggested that scholars should focus on volunteers’ lifestyle to better
understand how and why certain activities were chosen over others. This indicates that it would be beneficial to understand the other dimensions of the SOV to enable researchers to identify why volunteers chose to volunteer in a particular environment. Such understanding can provide significant links for the researcher to draw on to understand their choice in activity. It is helpful to recognise the significance of the participants’ biographies, motivations, and recognition of volunteering settings to then have a better understanding of why they chose a particular activity and setting. Otherwise, the SOV framework does not realise its full potential for increasing our understanding of the participants’ decisions to volunteer.

The choice of activity dimension can be useful for the sport volunteering field because it encourages scholars to examine participants’ lifelong influences to volunteer and the pathways into sport volunteering. Although Doherty (2005) suggested that understanding volunteers’ entry into sport volunteering is significant because sport volunteering is different from other types of volunteering, there are only a few studies which have addressed pathways and lifelong commitment in sport. For instance researchers such as Harvey and Lévesque (2005) have shown this in their work on community sport: that the most common entry into sport volunteering at the grassroots level is through parents or partners. In other settings, such as sporting events or organisational settings, Coyne and Coyne (2001) and Haski-Leventhal and Cnaan (2009) suggested that people are recruited through mentors, friends, and colleagues. The current study was consistent with these as the majority of women indicated that they were mentored in by friends and colleagues. However, what was significant about highlighting these participants’ approach was that the women could explain the process. Some women described it as not being sure of what they were getting into whilst there were very few who searched for an organisation that would meet their personal interests and their professional needs. More detailed information was obtained as the women’s pathways and processes were able to be tracked.

The choice of field dimension is closely aligned with Jarvis and Blank’s (2011) and MacLean and Hamm’s (2007) suggestions that pathways into voluntary activities are continuous processes. Jarvis and Blank (2011) concluded this in their research on mega-sporting events where they learned that the majority of their participants had previously volunteered. Similarly, half of Harvey and Lévesque’s (2005) participants volunteered when they were younger. Both of these
studies illustrated how previous volunteering experience played a role in the participants’ volunteering activities at the time of the interview. In addition, the participants from those studies also showed how they volunteered throughout their lives, which built on their lifelong commitment for service. In the current study, the majority of the women explained that they constructed volunteering values at a young age. The women shared stories about how they were influenced by religion through church and school settings. Some participants also referred to being influenced by family members who volunteered and helped others. Such detail in the construction of volunteering values illustrated that their current participation with IAPESGW and WSI was much bigger than their current service. Understanding pathways and lifelong commitments to volunteering is obviously important for scholars in the field, but it has been under-researched or generalised to suggest most sport volunteers follow the same pathways.

The choice of activity lens was also valuable for the current study because Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) suggested investigating volunteers’ service on a regional, national, and international level. The framework provided the suggestion that the differences in levels may be important, but life history approach also lends itself to question why participants moved from or to voluntary services at different levels. For the current study, since IAPESGW and WSI were international organisations, each of the participants explained how she progressed to volunteer on an international level. The majority of women recalled volunteering at least on a national level before moving to an international setting, and many of the women described this process in doing so. This illustrates that the women were interested and aware of gender issues at different levels and constructed a concern for people beyond their own country. Therefore, the choice of activity lens is valuable because it can link sport volunteers’ interests and activities to various levels. Participants can be prompted by researchers about each setting and decision to construct a holistic picture about how individuals got to their current positions.

The choice of activity dimension lens is valuable for the field because it allows the researcher to construct a holistic picture about why individuals are involved in a particular setting. First, this lens emphasises how individuals get involved with volunteering through their learned values. Second, through this lens scholars can focus on participants’ movement from local to national to international settings; currently, it appears that there is no research that focuses or addresses such
movement in sport volunteering. Third, researchers can focus on the current voluntary setting to understand how that activity was chosen. Gaining this type of insight benefits both researchers and sport managers as it can help with the recruitment of new members and leaders. It can be used by practitioners to help with targeting certain types of people when seeking to fulfil specific positions. Scholars such as Bang and Chelladurai (2009) and Fairley, Kellett, and Green (2007) focused on sport managers needing to know volunteers’ motivations, but, through this lens, it becomes clear that sport managers need to understand why and how people choose particular activities.

The relation to paid work dimension of the SOV

Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) were initially interested in how volunteers balanced their paid work with their unpaid (volunteering) work. They argued that society has traditionally constructed the belief that paid work is prioritised over unpaid work. Yet they noticed that it has been more common for volunteers to blur or overlap their paid and unpaid obligations as a contemporary style of volunteering. Understanding how volunteers blur such responsibilities is valuable because sport volunteers have reported finding that they have a limited amount of available time, and, therefore, they have to find ways to balance these different spheres in their lives (Doherty, 2005; Henry et al., 2004; Nichols et al., 2005; Pfister, 2010; Taylor et al., 2003). Therefore, the relation to paid work lens allows researchers to address the time constraints of their volunteers, and, when it is accompanied with the qualitative methods, the various roles that are demanding on a person’s time can be examined in great detail.

The relation to paid work lens added value for the current study because many participants discussed linking their professional work and interests with their volunteering activities. In fact, many of the participants suggested that their paid work was highly significant in facilitating their volunteering conditions. However, using the lens as it was initially intended did not address all contexts that the women had to consider balancing. Therefore, through the current study, it become evident that the relation to paid work dimension needed to be extended to include domestic work and family circumstances. The original dimension can therefore be interpreted as
being developed with more consideration for the socially defined roles for men because emphasis was placed on paid and unpaid work whilst making domestic work invisible. In the current study, domestic and family obligations had to be accommodating, and the women had to identify the circumstances required so they could volunteer in extreme conditions.

The relation to paid work lens was therefore adapted as it did not appear to be fully appropriate for male and female sport volunteers in its original form. With the adaptations, the lens may be more beneficial to advance the sport volunteering field because it offers researchers different perspectives to address more spheres than just paid and unpaid work. When existing research addresses these spheres, it often utilises surveys to report that sport volunteers feel pressured because of the time squeeze (Nichols et al., 2005), experience conflicting demands from employment and family (Donnelly & Harvey, 2011), and are affected by personal constraints that leads people to not volunteer or drop out (Doherty, 2005; Taylor et al., 2003). There has also been a recent increase in literature that addresses whether (male) sport volunteers find their competing roles impacting their sport voluntary service. Conclusions are drawn from these quantitative studies, but they are often limited in scope. For example, Nichols et al. (2005) concluded from their survey method that people in higher socio-economic classes with children endure more strain because paid work demands are higher for this class. Further, what is interesting to highlight is that there is earlier literature that has addressed this as an issue for women because they are expected to balance paid work, unpaid work, and domestic work (Henry et al., 2004; McKay, 1999; Pfister, 2010). This suggests that, for many years, men did not have to consider balancing these spheres, an issue that needed attention in sport volunteering. In addition, typically the research that did focus on women as sport volunteers considered the participants’ profession, volunteering, and domestic roles, and these studies often emphasised women’s sacrifices or disadvantages within the volunteering settings. For instance, Henry et al. (2004), McKay (1999), and Pfister (2010) stressed women’s relationship strains, constraints on the family, and discriminatory treatment in volunteering sport organisations. Many of these conclusions focus on the negative impacts of balancing these spheres instead of addressing the way women are able to balance all their roles. Unlike the studies on general sport volunteers, the abovementioned scholars utilised qualitative methods which made it more likely that scholars
could obtain detailed information about each participant than from survey methods. These scholars enabled their participants’ voices to come through in their studies.

The relation to paid work lens is not completely different from other approaches, but combines and extends them. Unlike many studies on general sport volunteers, the women were able to elaborate on how they balance their competing roles. The women provided detail in their explanations on topics that suggested that they chose to accommodate their lifestyles to volunteer by not starting a family, living apart from a partner, or working a part-time job. The research participants clearly illustrated that their enormous amount of service on IAPESGW and WSI was possible because of their lifestyles. For instance, the majority of women were in professional roles where they could build strong links between their paid work and their unpaid work. This was typically through the women’s academic research that focused on gender issues in sport and physical activity. In other words, it was significant that the women engaged in professional and personal interests during their employment and leisure time. In many of the cases, the women were able to merge these interests because of their academic positions which gave them a reasonable amount of control. In fact, the findings showed that the women’s professional positions played a pivotal part in enabling the women to volunteer in an extreme manner. The participants described their professional roles being important because some institutions provided financial support for volunteering and some also offered flexible hours for voluntary work or for family as long as the women were meeting their job responsibilities. Yet the most significant finding from this lens was that the women balanced their competing responsibilities and were able to make their lifestyles accommodating for their voluntary service. Some women reflected on how they felt they would not have been able to do as much in their professions or in their voluntary work if they had a family or a partner, or were in a different professional environment. Some participants were direct in their statements about choosing not to have children whilst other women did not realise the impact of their decisions to focus on their professional work and mission to advocate gender issues in sport until later in life. Yet either way, the women illustrated that their ability to volunteer in the way that they did was dependent on their lifestyles.
Overall, the relation to paid work dimension is significant for the sport volunteering field. Previous researchers have already concluded that many of their research participants from Westernised countries feel they have a limited amount of time to volunteer. Now to advance this understanding, scholars can turn their attention to understand the competing demands and address how the participants balance these roles. The relation to paid work dimension can draw out aspects of volunteers’ experiences that have been underplayed in other studies and advance our understanding about sport volunteers and their coping mechanisms for volunteering. It can also be used by sport managers to be sensitive of volunteers’ demands and help address issues of recruitment and retention.

The use of the SOV within the current study makes a substantial contribution to the study of sport volunteering. The qualitative approach used allowed the participants to fully express themselves and explain why they volunteer. The depth of information provided in the life history interviews enabled the participants to explain their life situations. The women illustrated that volunteering is much more complex than in research that utilises methods like questionnaires. Therefore the quality of the data obtained through qualitative research methods justified the development of this innovative methodological approach. This approach enabled a holistic examination of sport volunteers as it highlighted that the different dimensions are interwoven, interlinked, overlapping, and interacting with each other, and therefore, the information gained from each one is important to the understanding of all others.

**Holistic framework developed for study on women volunteers**

The previous section highlighted the SOV framework being a helpful starting point for the current study. The framework utilised multiple dimensions which allowed for the development of a holistic perspective that gives good insight into the complexity of volunteering. As previously highlighted, the six dimensions had a significant amount of interaction, which is illustrated in Figure 7.1.
Figure 7.1 suggests that the interrelationship of the separate dimensions is complex and fluid. This was evident during data analysis as the process proved to be intricate, and highlighted that the SOV required some development. For instance, the dimensions for the current study could not all be identified at the same level. In particular, the biographical frame of reference and organisational environment dimensions were recognised as providing the fundamental context to understand the participants’ voluntary activities in IAPESGW and WSI:

- The biographical dimension had special status within the framework because it was concerned with who the women were, by addressing their identity development, and their growth in interests to the cause. Through this dimension, the development of the women’s passion to advance sport and physical activity was explained, which was a significant point to understand the women’s interests in the organisations.
- Similarly, the organisational dimension was distinct from the other dimensions because it provided the environment within which the women could participate in their voluntary
activities, and thus framed other aspects of the SOV. Moreover, applying the SOV in a flexible manner was necessary to illustrate the changes and growth of the organisations to at the time of the interview.

Understanding the different status and significance of these two dimensions within the model compared to the others was valuable to further explore women’s experiences and contributions to international women’s sport organisations since they (1) present information about who the women were and how they constructed their understanding of the significance of their voluntary service; and (2) provide a basic appreciation about the international women’s sport organisations. By understanding the positioning of these two dimensions in relation to others, it then became possible to further investigate the women’s experiences of their voluntary service in IAPESGW and WSI.

Having established this context, the next level of data analysis focused on the remaining four dimensions – motivational structure, course and intensity of commitment, choice of (field of) activity, and relation to paid work(er). This phase of analysis highlighted the interrelationships between the different elements, and, although it had been anticipated that the four would overlap, it was found that the overlaps were more significant than initially expected. The application of the SOV therefore continued to evolve to generate a better understanding about the research participants from IAPESGW and WSI. The narratives indicated that women’s activity choices and motivations to volunteer were intertwined with their commitment to the organisation. However, for the current research, it appeared that the women’s relation to paid work was especially significant for their women’s volunteering participation. In addition, although the original SOV did not present information about domestic influence, it was evident through the research participants’ narratives that the women had to consider and acknowledge how their personal lives have to accommodate for their service within IAPESGW and WSI. Therefore, the SOV was further adapted to develop a combined category which merged the relation to paid work (employment sphere) with the women’s private lives (domestic sphere), and this new emerging dimension was called ‘lifestyle’. The illustration of the changes made to the levels and overlaps of the dimensions are presented in Figure 7.2a.
Figure 7.2a Adapted SOV Framework
Figure 7.2a illustrates the understanding of the volunteers’ service within the international women’s sport organisations beginning with the biographical frame of reference. The arrow indicates that, in the women’s voluntary service, these experiences were then applied within the context of the international women’s sport organisations. The organisations provided a fluid framework, within which the women’s volunteer motivations, commitment, and choice were dynamic and interacted with their overall lifestyle. Therefore these overlapping circles fit into the lifestyle circle, indicating that the elements of the women’s volunteering activities (motives, choices, and commitment) sit within their lifestyles. Further, the lifestyle circle is within the organisation dimension as this provides the context and conditions within which women volunteered at the levels which they did in IAPESGW and WSI. This illustration shows the variation of the roles attributed to the different dimensions and also tension between the relationships between them. Figure 7.2b provides more detail by highlighting the purposes of the dimensions.
Biographical frame of reference

- Sport
- Education
- Volunteering experiences
- Memorable experiences of gendered disadvantage in sport
- Position in relation feminism

Organisational environment

- Structure
- Core involvement
- Formal roles

Lifestyles

- Employment sphere
- Domestic sphere
- Leisure sphere

Figure 7.2b Adapted SOV Framework with description
This adapted model is a significant contribution to the literature because it offers new ways to study sport volunteers. Profiles in existing research focus on who is currently volunteering, and they often leave readers to their own interpretations. As an alternative model, the SOV considers the scope of understanding sport volunteering. For instance, Burgham and Downward (2005) found that people volunteer in community sport because their children play the sport or because they used to play the sport. However, such research does not develop a deeper understanding of why sport is significant or why it is important for them to be involved with their children in sport. In the current research, large amounts of volunteering have been linked back to the participants’ childhoods and their participation in sport and various physical activities.

The use of the modified SOV points out the significance of revealing more about why individuals choose to engage in volunteer activities. The data obtained in relation to the biographical dimension illustrated that the way volunteers construct their identities, understand their need to serve, and present their interests in the organisational cause can be highlighted. The adapted SOV, therefore, suggests that sport volunteers should not only be studied based on their voluntary activity; rather, volunteering should be studied as part of the person’s life.

Reflections on the parameters of the study

The research focused on women who volunteered within IAPESGW and WSI, and it utilised a substantial amount of primary and secondary research to inform this. The design of the study and the practicalities of undertaking the data collection, have a number of implications for the knowledge generated.

Two limitations arise from the scale of the work undertaken, which was substantial but not completely comprehensive:

1. The thesis was concerned with the women’s voluntary activities within their organisations, and, as part of the study, a range of relevant contextual information about each organisation was examined. It was not the purpose of the study to foreground analysis of the organisations themselves, rather to focus on the individual experiences of the key actors within them. There is therefore
scope for a fuller analysis of the development of the international women in sport organisations and the role the volunteers played in them. This would also include examination of some new types of activities – for example, WSI’s activities are decentralised and the participants engage in numerous initiatives, such as WSI’s 2011 collaboration with ACSM to develop a statement on the Transgendered Athlete (WSI, 2011).

2. The interviewees were a unique group of women who dedicated their lives to advancing women’s sport. They were identified as potential participants for the study through existing literature and the organisations’ presidents, and this approach generated a rich, international sample of high-profile individuals, very experienced in international sport policy circles. There were nonetheless some women who would have been significant to interview but were not accessed, which is consistent with Stephens (2007), who identified this as a barrier when interviewing elites. An attempt was made to make contact with three of the women, i.e., Chiyo Matsumoto from IAPESGW, Libby Darlinson from WSI, and Ann Hall from IAPESGW and WSI. Unfortunately, due to personal reasons and time constraints, these women were not available to participate. These women played significant roles in IAPESGW and WSI as well as within the Women’s International Sport Movement, and they could have potentially provided perspectives that may have expanded on the findings from the current interviewees.

In addition to these two considerations about the scope of the study, there were also some more specific issues encountered in the application of the research design and process:

3. The research participants’ representativeness of the range of viewpoints among the membership of their organisations (and to a lesser extent, among the full leadership – see point 2 above) was not ascertained. Arguably, the WSI research participants accurately represented the membership – white and well-known researchers in sport and gender-based disciplines. In comparison, it is not fully acknowledged if the IAPESGW participants accurately represented the membership because of the diversity of interviewees. One of Darlene’s (the
gatekeeper) goals whilst she was president of IAPESGW was to increase the
diversity with the association and also in leadership positions; therefore, she
may have identified some of the leaders based on the direction in which she was
taking the organisation.

4. The interviewees were all elite academically and within their professions.
Interviewing these women took planning and research prior to the interviews.
Yet the elite status went beyond the women’s high status positions in their
careers and voluntary settings; as Stephens (2007) and Zuckerman (1996)
highlighted, elite status is also based on passion for knowledge and prestige.
Since these women are so knowledgeable about topics discussed during the
interviews, there were times when it felt as if the women were lecturing about
the subject. Stephens (2007) referred to this as a lecturer/student relationship
where the interviewee goes on for a lengthy period of time about a topic that is
outside the realm of the interview to get a point across. This occurred frequently
during the interview process and, at times, before the interviews. Despite some
difficulties of interviewing up, most of the feedback was similar to Zuckerman’s
(1996) experience where she received positive support.

5. Finally, all research designs possess inherent limitations. For this study,
although the life history interviews were thoroughly planned, the use of short
life histories led to meeting with participants only one time. This approach
enabled for the construction of a holistic understanding about the participants’
relationships with volunteering in IAPESGW and WSI. However, it did not
allow for further in-depth follow-up from all the participants. Some participants
stayed in contact, but it was not consistent with all the women, as they lead very
busy lives.

**Recommendations from the research**

The findings of the study allow a number of recommendations to be made for future
policy, practice, and research relating to women’s leadership in voluntary sport
organisations. The findings illustrated that, in order to fully understand sport
volunteers, scholars need to study them from a holistic perspective. This thesis focused on women who volunteered for IAPESGW and WSI, and the interviewees highlighted significant factors needed to volunteer at the high levels in international involvement. Below are some recommendations needed to increase women’s participation in sport volunteering. More specifically from this research, these are recommendations that women’s organisations may consider in order to be representative of a diverse group of members.

**Recommendations for policy and practice**

1. If the institution of ‘sport’ wants more women to be able to take senior voluntary roles, it still has to address the traditional socially defined barriers for women – their domestic/family constraints and the difficulty to balance or combine paid work with voluntary activity. The problem is compounded if they are doing both, i.e., have a family and are working, as most women do not obtain jobs that directly support their voluntary activity to that extent that the women in this research did. This study suggested that it was only when women did not have competing demands from paid work/family, but instead could make volunteering an integrated, central part of their lives, that they could take such roles. These constraints still need to be overcome for the majority of women who do not have these favourable circumstances.

2. Women’s organisations need to be aware of issues of inclusion through diversity. Leaders of women’s organisations need to be aware of the diversity the membership and the diversity of the leadership. In addition, it is significant for women’s organisations to define diversity as it may be in geographic location, access to resources, professions, and skills. However, this study highlighted that it is difficult for women’s organisations to create inclusive environments because of limited funding, limited technology, and the inability for women to accommodate their lifestyles for extreme volunteering. In addition, this study highlighted that IAPESGW and WSI struggled to be representative of a diverse group of women based on numerous factors.
3. However, inclusion is not automatically achieved by having a diverse membership and/or leadership because exclusionary practices may still exist within the operations of the organisation despite diversity of the membership. The study gave examples of how even the very highly educated, confident, professionally experienced women who took part in this research could be excluded by internal organisational practices – for example, in meetings, those who did not speak English as their first language were unable to participate in discussions as fully as those who did. Language constraints are also likely to limit influence in other ways – for example, making women less likely to chair meetings and to be able to exert equal influence on organisations’ agendas and policies.

4. Leaders and members of women’s sport organisations should consider the image and missions of their organisations in order to gain the interest of younger cohorts of women. In addition, it is significant for the organisations to research different political situations and social norms in different countries.

**Recommendations for future research**

Current sport volunteering literature does not fully deal with the complexity of sport volunteering (Baum & Lockstone, 2007). Since this study applied a non-sport framework to a sport setting, useful insights were gained from the framework. However, the application of the framework has only been applied to the current study and further work from the framework is needed in a variety of sport contexts (e.g., mega-sporting events, community sport, and organisational settings) to test and to fully explore the ability to produce a holistic understanding of sport volunteers. In addition, since the sport literature suggests that more men volunteer than women, the framework could be applied to men to gain a deeper understanding about how men balance children, family, and paid work with their voluntary service.

A second recommendation stems from the research participants not referring to their service as volunteering. When conceptualising their positions and ability to volunteer at such high levels in comparison to the other sport volunteers, there is some similarity
between the passion that guided the voluntary work of this group and many other sport volunteers. For example, the commitment and enormous investment that these women give to their cause at the international level has strong parallels in the situations of community-level sport volunteers, such as sport coaches who attend every practice, schedule matches, transport players, use their own petrol to drive to matches, and provide emotional as well as practical support for their teams. In a similar vein, the UK Graduate Prospects (2009) has an extensive list of over 20 activities regularly performed by sport club administrators that are essential to sustainable club structures which ensure athletes’ opportunities to participate. Therefore, it is apparent that the range of responsibilities are not dissimilar from those required of the women in the current study operating in international contexts when compared to other levels of sport volunteers. This suggests that researchers should question how and why sport coach volunteers and sports club administrators are able to invest (volunteer) a large amount of time. Such questions therefore lead us to better understand how sport volunteering is studied or how we see the scope of volunteering. The overall lesson from this study is that scholars could benefit from looking more closely at volunteering in sport, and not view it as separate and contained, but as an integrated part of person’s life. This means we should examine more closely how central volunteering is to a person’s identity and lifestyle.

A third recommendation for future research based on the current study focuses on IAPESGW and WSI. It would be valuable to conduct an in-depth study on IAPESGW and WSI by focusing on organisational changes, how leadership has affected the organisations, and how social movements have impacted the organisations (or lack of influence). The contextualist approach would be significant to better understand their long-term processes, for it considers the historical contexts of the organisation and the contextual and processual nature of change (Girginov & Sandanski, 2008). In addition, the findings indicated that both organisations are based on the membership, and, therefore, this study offers a starting point for further investigation. More can be known about the organisations if more focus is placed on the membership, their service, and their interests from IAPESGW and WSI. Further, under the Anita White Foundation, out of Chichester University, a project was developed to collect archives from key women from the International Women’s Sport Movement. This suggests that many of
the archives concerned about these organisations from the leading women would be at one location and accessible.

The final recommendation is to study the differences between male-dominated international sport organisations and these women-based international sport organisations. This is significant because some processes within the women’s organisations reflect those in the men’s organisations. For instance, the findings from the current study indicated that there are exclusionary practices within the organisations because of small exclusive international circles of women and language barriers. Previous research highlighted the ‘old boys’ network’ that kept women out of the positions of power within the male-dominated organisations. Moreover, the interviewees did not discuss organisational strategies to accommodate leaders’ or members’ lifestyles, such as childcare or discussing best times for conference calls or meetings. Instead the research participants described similar structures to male-dominated organisations such as conference calls are scheduled during work hours or women sacrificed having families to participate in extreme volunteering. This raises important questions about the extent to which the international organisations have brought benefits to women who do not have access to the supportive conditions that the ‘extreme’ volunteers in this study experienced.

**Concluding summary**

This research was undertaken to investigate women’s volunteer experiences within IAPESGW and WSI. Throughout the research process, the aim and objectives guided the research in the development of a framework that would produce a holistic understanding of the research participants. The critical realist and social constructionist positions aimed to understand how the participants developed their understanding for reality and knowledge. Since the women came from different backgrounds, geographic locations, and eras, it was expected that they bring their diverse individual worldviews to the research process. From this it has been possible to construct an approach for developing a holistic understanding of their volunteering activities, motivations, choices, and commitments.
The over-arching finding of the study was that the women’s volunteering was ‘extreme’ – for many, so integrated within their wider lifestyle that they found it difficult and in some cases impossible to separate it out. In particular, it became evident that the level of intense commitment they had shown over an extended period of volunteering service was especially dependent on their ability to support it through their paid work roles. Without this type of work environment and the extent to which domestic and family circumstances can be accommodated, it would be challenging for these women to assume the intense level of volunteering that they undertook within IAPESGW and WSI.

The SOV offered a significant approach to study sport volunteers and suggests there is much to be gained from the use of holistic frameworks of this type, which may enable us to develop a more rigorous approach to how sport volunteering is studied and address the scope of the complex field of sport volunteerism. The application of the SOV within the current study strongly suggested that scholars should not approach volunteering in sport as self-contained, but recognise that it can be a central and defining element of an individual’s life and identity.
Reference List


Han, K., (2007). *Motivation and commitment of volunteers in a marathon running event*. Dissertation from The Department of Sport Management, The Florida State University College of Education.


Schuyler, B., (2008). An examination of the motivations of sporting event volunteers within Intercollegiate Athletics at Clemson University. Graduate School of Clemson University.


Appendices
### Appendix A:

**Differences and Similarities between Volunteerism and Activism**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Differences</th>
<th><strong>Volunteerism</strong> – associated with voluntary associations and non-profit organisations</th>
<th><strong>Activism</strong> – associated with social movements</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Described as</strong></td>
<td>Preventative and short-term</td>
<td>Palliative and long-term solutions to social problems</td>
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<td><strong>Targets</strong></td>
<td>People</td>
<td>Structures</td>
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<td><strong>Care about</strong></td>
<td>Solutions dependent on personal feelings and personal ability to donate money, space, and time</td>
<td>Solutions built into official institutions</td>
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<td><strong>People tend to</strong></td>
<td>Maintain their service</td>
<td>Change over time</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Activities include</strong></td>
<td>Mopping up activity, dealing with unfortunate social externalities, helps run organisations or groups once established</td>
<td>Barricades, marches, demonstrations, boycotts, strikes, sign petitions, occupies buildings, fights to create and secure funding for shelters, counselling services, and health centres</td>
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### Similarities

*Most activist are volunteers … Collective action intended for collective good … both are forms of altruism*

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<tr>
<th><strong>Concepts</strong></th>
<th>Voluntary concepts are forms of service closely linked to social activism</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Activities</strong></td>
<td>Both could be interpreted as one or the other depending on social context and the motives and interests of volunteers … volunteering is about the personal and activism is about political undermines when the boundary between personal and the political become blurred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Misleading claims</strong></td>
<td>About volunteerism and activism that volunteering is all about service motivated by compassion and activism is all about advocacy motivated justice</td>
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Appendix B:
Interview Guide and Interview Themes

What led you to serve on IAPESGW/WSI?

General Background
1. What in your life has led to your commitment to [IAPESGW/WSI]?
   a. Sport
      i. Leadership positions held
   b. Family
   c. Values

Involvement within the NGO
1. Please explain your involvement with [IAPESGW/WSI]?
   a. How got involved?
   b. Roles held
      i. Leadership responsibilities
2. Why is your involvement important?
   a. To you
   b. To the organization
   c. Key issues being addressed

Careers, education, and skills
1. How, if at all, is your career linked to your service on [IAPESGW/WSI]?
   a. Professional life
   b. Transferable skills developed
      i. Leadership skills

Women in sport
1. How have you developed your views on the importance of women having access to
   sport participation, resources, and education?
   a. What are your views and beliefs?

Inequalities in society
1. If you’ve experienced gender discrimination, how has it contributed to your decision to
   serve on [IAPESGW/WSI]?
   a. How has it affected your decision to continue to serve?
2. How have your observations of gender discrimination contributed to your decision to
   serve on [IAPESGW/WSI]?

Advocacy
1. What is it about yourself that gets you involved in social change through [IAPESGW/WSI]?
   a. Strategies to redress inequalities
Appendix C:
List of pilot study participants

1. Women’s Sport and Fitness Foundation (formally Women’s Sport Foundation UK)
   a. Sue Tibbals – history of working with equality for women
   b. CEO (paid position)
   c. Phone interview

2. British Triathlon
   a. Sarah Springman
   b. President/volunteer from Switzerland
   c. Phone interview

3. British Rowing Association
   a. Anna-Marie Phelps
   b. Top woman in rowing association
   c. Face-to-face interview
Appendix D:
Brunel University Ethical Approval
Appendix E:

Letter to Presidents of IAPESGW and WSI for gatekeeper role
Dear Dr. Darlene Kluka,

I am currently a research student working under the supervision of Professor Celia Brackenridge. For my research, I am interviewing leaders from international women-led sport NGOs to learn about their life stories to gain a better understanding of why women choose to volunteer their time to these organizations. The method I am using is oral history research.

I am doing an in-depth study on the International Association of Physical Education and Sport for Girls and Women and the women who do or have held leadership positions within the organization. I wanted to know if you would help me contact women from IAPESGW to see if they are interested in participating in my study.

Since I will be attending the 2008 International Convention on Science, Education, Medicine and Sport, I am planning on conducting interviews during this time. I think this may be a convenient time for many women to meet with me from around the world. I wanted to know if you would provide a list of women from WSI that will be attending this convention.

I hope to hear from you soon. Thank you very much for your time.

Yours sincerely,

Christina M Gipson

Christina Gipson
Doctoral student
Brunel University
Dear Dr. Kari Fasting,

I am currently a research student working under the supervision of Professor Celia Brackenridge. For my research, I am interviewing leaders from international women-led sport NGOs to learn about their life stories to gain a better understanding of why women choose to volunteer their time to these organizations. The method I am using is oral history research.

I am doing an in-depth study on WomenSport International and the women who do or have held leadership positions within the organization. I wanted to know if you would help me contact women from WSI to see if they are interested in participating in my study.

Since I will be attending the 2008 International Convention on Science, Education, Medicine and Sport, I am planning on conducting interviews during this time. I think this may be a convenient time for many women to meet with me from around the world. I wanted to know if you would provide a list of women from WSI that will be attending this convention.

I hope to hear from you soon. Thank you very much for your time.

Yours sincerely,

Christina M Gipson

Christina Gipson
Doctoral student
Brunel University
Appendix F:

Email letter to IAPESGW and WSI participants
Dear Professor Gertrud Pfister:

I am currently a research student working on my PhD at Brunel University, working under the supervision of Professor Celia Brackenridge. For my research, I am interviewing leaders from international women-led sport organizations to learn about their life stories. I am conducting oral history research to learn about women’s life experiences in relation to their service on NGOs as there is a lack of research on this at present. I believe this information is important for the NGOs because it will provide a better understanding of how to recruit young women to take on such service roles. Therefore, I would like to invite you to share your experiences that have led to your participation on IAPESGW.

The interview location will be negotiated to suit you. My schedule is very flexible. I am attending the 2008 International Convention on Science, Education, Medicine, and Sport in Guangzhou and hope to conduct some interviews there. If requested, more information will be sent about themes that will be discussed. Kindly let me know if you are interested in participating in this study.

Thank you for your time thus far. I look forward to learning more about you. You can reach me by calling my telephone: (44+) (0)751 502 7260 or emailing me at Christina.Gipson@Brunel.ac.uk.

Yours Sincerely,

Christina M Gipson

Christina M. Gipson
Brunel Doctoral Student
Dear Dr. Oglesby:

I am currently working on my PhD at Brunel University under the supervision of Professor Celia Brackenridge. For my research, I am interviewing leaders from international women-led sport organizations to learn about their life stories. I am conducting oral history research to learn about women’s life experiences in relation to their service on NGOs as there is a lack of research on this at present. I believe this information is important for the NGOs because it will provide a better understanding of how to recruit young women to take on such service roles. Therefore, I would like to invite you to share your experiences that have led to your participation on WSI.

The interview location will be negotiated to suit you. My schedule is very flexible. I am attending the 2008 International Convention on Science, Education, Medicine, and Sport in Guangzhou and hope to conduct some interviews there. If requested, more information will be sent about themes that will be discussed. Kindly let me know if you are interested in participating in this study.

Thank you for your time thus far. I look forward to learning more about you. You can reach me by calling my telephone: (+44) (0)751 502 7260 or emailing me at Christina.Gipson@Brunel.ac.uk.

Yours Sincerely,

Christina M. Gipson

Christina M. Gipson
Brunel Doctoral Student
Appendix G:  
Informed Consent

STATEMENT OF INFORMED CONSENT

Life Stories of Female Athletes: Understanding why women serve on international women-led sport NGOs

INTRODUCTION

The School of Sport and Education at the Brunel University supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research. The following information is provided for you to decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You may refuse to sign this form and not participate in this study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time. If you do withdraw from this study, it will not affect your relationship with the researcher or Brunel University.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to gain an understanding of why women choose to volunteer their time on international women-led sport non-governmental organizations (NGOs).

PROCEDURES

Participants must sign an informed consent to take part in the study. As a participant, you and the researcher will find an agreed date, time, and location to conduct an interview in the form of an oral history. The researcher will allow you to explain your life in detail leading to your participation on (IAPESGW/WSI).

The interview should take between 45 minutes and 2 hours, depending on your availability and interest. The interview will be tape-recorded then transcribed. The written transcription will then be sent back to you, following the interview, so you may edit, correct, delete or add material. Following the interview, the researcher may contact you to clarify or gather more information.

RISKS

You will be asked to remember thoughts and feelings from your past experiences. These experiences may be unpleasant memories which may cause distress. Certain questions or themes may also stimulate memories or experiences that you have sought to forget.

BENEFITS

The study may empower you to discuss your own views and experiences. Through the identification of common experiences, other women may be better able to understand the roles and values associated with volunteer work on women’s sport NGOs. Also, this study may help the organizations engage in successful succession planning.
PARTICIPANT CONFIDENTIALITY

You will have the option to be identified or stay anonymous. If you choose to be identified, you can request for certain information to stay confidential. However, if you choose to stay anonymous, then the data gathered will not be presented in a way that identifies you. These interviews will be anonymized using a coding system where names will be removed and replaced with a code.

All hardcopies of data will be kept in a secured locked location under the direction of the Christina Gipson. Electronic files will be kept in a password protected file with a code rather than names. This data will be kept for five years. By signing this form, you give permission for the use and disclosure of your information for purposes of this study at any time in the future.

REFUSAL TO SIGN CONSENT AND AUTHORIZATION

You are not required to sign this consent form and you may refuse to do so without any penalty.

CANCELLING THIS CONSENT AND AUTHORIZATION

You may withdraw your consent to participate in this study at any time. You also have the right to cancel your permission to use and disclose information collected by submitting your request in writing to: Christina M. Gipson at Christina.gipson@brunel.ac.uk. If you cancel permission to use your information, your data will be removed from the database, and the researcher will stop collecting additional information.

QUESTIONS ABOUT PARTICIPATION

Questions about procedures should be directed to the researcher(s) listed at the end of this consent form.
PARTICIPANT CERTIFICATION

I have read this Consent form. I have had the opportunity to ask, and I have received answers to, any questions I had regarding the study. I understand that if I have any additional questions about my rights as a research participant, I may call (44) 0751 502 7260 or write Christina Gipson at Christina.Gipson@brunel.ac.uk or at the School of Sport and Education Department, Brunel University, Uxbridge, Middlesex, UB8 3PH, United Kingdom.

I agree to take part in this study as a research participant. By my signing, I affirm that I am at least 18 years old and that I have received a copy of this Consent form.

__________________________________________________         ______________
Type/Print Participant’s Name                                   Date

_____________________________________________________
Participant’s Signature

Researcher Contact Information

Christina Gipson                        Celia Brackenridge
Principal Investigator                  Faculty Supervisor
School of Sport and Education           School of Sport and Education
Brunel University                       Brunel University
Uxbridge, Middlesex UB8 3PH              Uxbridge, Middlesex UB8 3PH
Christina.Gipson@Brunel.ac.uk           Celia.brackenridge@brunel.ac.uk
(44) 0751 502 7260
CONFIDENTIAL CLAUSE
Please check/tick either confidential clause or anonymous clause.

______ I agree to be identified by name in an oral tape, transcript, digital reproduced medium, or with reference to any information contained in this interview, but request that matters pertaining to careers, education, personal skills, women in sport, inequalities, advocacy, leadership, or involvement with the NGO:

… be kept confidential until September 2014. This particular information will not appear in the research copy of the transcript and the original audio tape will not be available for research use. Hard copies of data will be kept in a secured locked location under the direction of the researcher. Electronic files will be kept in a password protected file with codes rather than names.

Interviewer signature: __________________________________________ Date: __________

Interviewee signature: __________________________________________ Date: __________

ANONYMOUS CLAUSE
______ I wish to remain anonymous in any oral tape, transcript, digitally reproduced medium, or with reference to any information contained in this interview, that is used for research. I understand that the transcript will be available for research use and identified by a tracking code. I understand that hard copies of data will be kept in a secured locked location under the direction of the researcher. Electronic files will be kept in a password protected file with codes rather than names.

Interviewer signature: __________________________________________ Date: __________

Interviewee signature: __________________________________________ Date: __________

Interviewee Address: __________________________________________

Interview Phone number: _______________________________________
## Appendix H:
### Correction form

**TRANSCRIPTION CORRECTION SHEET**

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Appendix I:
Example transcripts –

First
International Association of Physical Education and Sport for Girls and Women

Second
WomenSport International
CG: I would like you to tell me your story of what led you to become a member of IAPESGW.

MK: I am Ph.D of sport physiology. One day when I was searching in the internet, I found a website about congress in women and sport. It was very interesting for me because I was interested in studying culture and religion and its effect on women and sport. And that is why I chose the subject and studied about that, women and sport in Islam and Iran. I had a lecture for this subject for Congress on women in sport in Edmonton, about 2005 and it was interesting, there were many audience during my presentation and it was many debate during my session and many people were interested in knowing about Muslim woman. At that time I knew Tansin Benn. she offered me to be a member of IAPESGW and she gave many suggestions about doing much more research and doing much more things about women and sport for my country and international events. And after that I was connected with Tansin through email and then during a study week in Oman, I was invited by Tansin and Margaret and during that week it was very important, the study week for many women, that was about 14 women and 1 men from different countries, from 14 countries. It was a very important data and very important stimulant for beginning research for doing much more about women and sport and it was very important for my country and not just for me because women and sport in my country is in the process of progress. We have progress in our country but we need to have international relationship. That is study week helped me to have new suggestions and new ideas for improving a relationship, getting new idea from other countries for women and sport and improving women and sport participation. That was all, after that, I came here and continued my study and presenting with Tansin.

CG: And you said you had a lot of progress for women and sport in your country, can you tell me more about that progress?

MK: Before our revolution, before Islamic revolution, we had mixed clubs our government was not Islamic, but most people in Iran are Muslim and they must be covered. And they cannot participate in situations like a sport or gymnasium we don’t covered head and body. Before revolution, government was not Islamic and just a little woman could participate or take part in sport fields. Many families did not allow their
daughter to participate in these situations. And just about a little people, women participated in these matters and they grow to international championships and events. So we had international relationship and there were some women who could participate in international championships. After revolutions, step by step, we tried to do something for women in sport. First of all, we separated women and men gymnasiums. For example, we didn’t have enough facilities specialized for women so we broke their time up using gymnasiums and clubs, one day for women and one day for men. After that, we tried to build new gymnasium especially for women, to have more opportunities to participate in activities every day and doing sport. That was about our facilities that grow step by step. About women and sport organizations, at the beginning of our revolution, we had opposition from both men and women. Most of managers were men, and that women tried to organize women sport separately from men because they wanted to try more about themselves, and step by step we tried more and more and grow our organizational level of woman management to high level, we have the deputy, woman deputy for governing woman in sport. In every organization, for example, in science and in ministry of science and education and ministry of training and teaching, we have some ministry and organizations. We have men and women for organizing sport matters. They work beside each other, but one of them is for man and one of them is for women. And we have many women who work in physical education organizations in all cities, especially just for women, and so we have all of sport for women in our country, every sport that you think, soccer, gymnastic, basketball, volleyball. And it was women that wanted, tried, and may have got it and had progresses that they have step by step.

CG: Well, I want to kind of pull back and ask a couple questions and IAPESGW and where you first started sorry I just went on there. I guess first, when you first presented your paper and you said a lot of people were interested and brought up a lot of conversation, was the conversation only about the audience wanting to know more about Muslim women or was there more debate about anything, can you tell me a bit more about this debate?

MK: Most of the debate was about the situation about Muslim women they are dressed, why they can’t take their dress, for example, and about women situation in Iran. How
they can participate in a sport with cover situation body. Most of them was about that I
that.

CG: How did you feel when people asked you these kinds of questions?

MK: I like to tell about myself and my opinion. It opened a new way for me to think
about new problems to think about new views and to study much more about that.

CG: What new problems did you think about?

MK: One of the problems was that some of the Muslim women are not covered and
some of them are covered so there are many views so I studied more about the
philosophy of covering for women in Islam and I understood that covering is a problem
for many Muslim women in the world and there must be solution for both of covered
and uncovered women.

CG: Have you begun that research?

MK: Yes, of course. I have research in my university to know the ideal opinion and
know barriers and facilitators of women participation in sport. And then I will reflect
and do something about that, of course if I can. And I will extend this research to all of
my country I hope in 2 years.

CG: When you gave your first speech at IAPESGW congress, was that your first time
ever presenting your research or work on women in sport about Islam and Iran?

MK: Yes that was my first.
CO: Oh good question. This was probably nothing that we ever were able to answer very well. The primary benefit, I think WSI has done a lot of good things, especially with the two task forces also we’ve been able to be a voice about a couple of policy issues with the Olympic committee. I am sure you know about the sexual harassment one, but also the transgendered athlete was greatly influenced by both Barbara and a women who Barbara brought into WSI a woman called Patricia Sangenis who is a surgeon and also a public relations a media personality in Argentina. Patricia is probably from a cohort of the sport science, women sport science world just behind Barbara as an age cohort. Patricia thinks Barbara 'hung the moon' as so many people do. She now is the president of the women’s Commission for the Sport Medical Commission of the IOC. So I think there’s been action and what a person who pays their membership dues can say realistically, is I contributed to positive change because I became part of the bully pulpit that WSI, [that is the number one benefit]. So that’s probably one of the larger benefits, but it is intangible, certainly. [The second benefit is] We have a website that has a lot of information, so that would be a benefit, however, it is not only, we don’t have a members only section, we talked about that, and essentially someday we may go to that so that there would be special information that would go to people who are members. I think a third potential benefit, I’m saying the website so you’d be more, maybe because the newsletters we put out and Barbara was the newsletter editor and she was quite assiduous about doing that for about the first three or four years. Once the website got to be more, well put together, and that is another story. Do you know about the money for the website?

CO: Okay that was at the end of phase one. The website is so much improved and so much better vehicle, I think that is why the newsletters faded, while the newsletter had only gone out to members, now we have a website that is theoretically open to the world. In a sense members lost a special benefit but more people got the general benefit. Let me see if I can’t finish about what are the benefits of the membership, then talk about the website. So you get to be part of the bully pulpit. You get some early access to information that other people might not get, especially conferences I think.
We have been reasonably successful about maintaining a core mission around empirical support for advocacy. Another benefit, I thought I had three, this would be the fourth, we’ve been reasonably successful in a limited way at giving opportunities to women researchers to present internationally or in meetings and forums that they might have not have been recognized well enough to get on the program on their own, but as a part of a WSI program and a WSI reputation in these scientific communities, so if there is an international event and they set aside a forum on women we decide who is going to be on that panel. So that inner core of people have tried to bring in new exciting people’s voices as far as possible and they have had a limited success and there are not as many events and you’re not going to have one or two panels even at the scientific congress there are only going to be one or two panels that are designated to WSI. In an event that we have had researchers and this has happened. When the games were in Athens and Greek people were on the team of who was deciding what posters and what presentations would be accepted, one of our members who is part of the Greek group that was being a judge, so that is another way where WSI women were being influential. They could use their own bully pulpit on behalf to speak of people that emerged through the organization.

The website, let me just mention and you may get to more of this as you look through archives, but one of the founding members was Marion Lay, Marion is a Canadian and she’s very highly placed in the Canadian Olympic framework and so when Vancouver got 2012 I think it is, Marion was put in charge of the legacy, the 2012 legacy so she had a pretty darn large budget to do with what she wanted. Marion resigned, she didn’t actually, I don’t think she functioned as an executive board member. Once I was gone, she was gone and I think I came on board within a year or 18 months of the forming, so she really did not serve WSI as an executive per say. But during the time of the conference in Montreal, the one before Kumamoto, the IWG conference in Montreal, we had a couple of meetings in Canada, and Marion sort of got revved up to hook up with WSI again. And she said what can I do, and it just emerged...we were actually negotiating with a Canadian woman to be the webmaster and this is a woman that was close to Marion and Marion has committed something like $5,000 a year to pay for the budget from the 2012 budget to pay for the WSI website.
CG: Well the question that I normally start with is what led you to serve on WSI, but instead I am going to ask you, how did you get so involved with women and sport advocacy?

CO: Well, I was saying that I had some Washington, DC connections. (looking in a book), 1976 I think 75-85 was the UN Decade of Women. So there was a very very active women’s committee doing advocacy in DC it was of national advocacy. So the women’s commission, there was a big commission, like a big national commission, but they also identified task force groups that would focus on particular issues. One of the task forces was on educational equity and that was ‘76 so Title IX would have been passed, but really not going anywhere yet. In ‘72 it was passed and ‘75 was when it went into first enforcement. But I was actually, ‘71-‘74, I was a professor at UMass and one of the women at UMass at that time, was on their gymnastics team and they won the national championship, and I was the first president of AIAW and that would be how I got involved with women and sport. I was the first president of AIAW, precursor to NCAA. So Betsy East was her name, the gymnast, her mother was Catherine East, she was a staff person that was assigned to the National Commission on the International Women’s Year. She is referred to sometimes as the godmother of the women’s movement in the US, Catherine this is, Betsy is her daughter is the gymnast. Catherine had a sense that nobody else did in the Women’s Movement at that time, that spent was really important, this is critical. When she had some role in picking people to be on these various taskforces related to this commission, she got me on the educational equity committee. So (showing book) sporting chance for women, I had a tremendous amount to do with writing this, giving them data about the situation of women and sport at the time. In ‘78 (I was president of NAGWS at that time) and Catherine was detailed to the National Women Conference in Houston Catherine Betsy and I cooked up the torch relay so this became, (the torch relay) became one of the most symbolic aspects of the Houston conference. So this book describes NAGWS, me and Betsy taking the idea of running a torch 50 miles a day from Seneca Falls to Houston and it actually symbolized, well you know, there is all kinds of talk what concerning symbolizes but perhaps the strength of women; through the rain, up hills, down hills, pregnant, whatever, and so that was a pretty exciting thing to be a part of, I am trying, there is a picture in here, this was in Houston, so the torch was arriving (explain the picture). These were both events that were not focused on sport, I mean IAPESGW all,
there’s been a lot of international women’s sport events and for that matter, national women’s sport history for hundreds years, but there was no penetration before into the general women’s movement, in our country until this time. So I guess what I am trying to describe is I had this consciousness that it was important for us to merge the general women’s issues and the sport resources to one another. That it could be so effective if we just were in actual collaboration, so that, first I was at UMass for those three years, then in ‘75 I went to Temple University in Philadelphia (I was there until 2001; I retired from Temple in 2001). So being in Philadelphia I was an hours train ride from the UN headquarters so I became kind of caught in the wheel on the international women’s stuff in relation to the UN and every year they have ACSW meeting on this stuff. Its an international event and they didn’t do anything with sport. But Libby and I,( I mean I think one of the things that was a synergy between the two of us was that we both had this idea that we have to get this merger taking place), so Libby and I worked really really hard to get the language into the Beijing Platform for Action. You may know about that already, there are three places where, sport appeared in the PFA. One of the things that I learned from this experience that really helped out when it came to the Beijing Platform for Action was the Houston where California. We did the torch relay and the planning for that took at least a year before the Houston event in ‘78. At the same time that we were planning the torch relay, there were 50 state conferences going on where the platform that was going to be approved in Houston was being drawn up. We were at none of those meetings. I mean I went to one that was in Delaware because it happened to be close to me, (the one in PA was clear over on the western border near Pittsburg), so I went to the one in Delaware, not as a representative or anything but as an ordinary woman. But that aside, state by state, they ratified a platform, but when it came to Houston and we wanted to put, now we are top billing, sport and PA is top billing because of the torch relay, we wanted to get a plank that said sport and physical activity is important to women and the powers that be (for reasons that I fully understand now) couldn’t let us in because we didn’t go through the 50 state process. They were not action from the floor, you had to go through the steps to get on the platform, so there is nothing. Although we are talked about as an important part of the Houston event, we are not in the platform of action for this event. So when it came to the time when we are looking at what’s going to happen in Beijing in 1995, we started in 1992 or 93 and made sure there was sport language that made it through the various processes. Anyway, I am giving away more detail than you want in this kind of
situation, but I had an experience as a national athlete in competition that most people didn’t have and I thought it was the best thing in my life. So to be a PE major in college and read that ‘competition wasn’t good for girls and women;’ I just thought that was bull and I was going to do something about that because at that moment, the torch that was passed on to me. So basically, that is kind of it. It has been a very simple core issue all the way through to take this value of physical activity and competence and the use of one’s own whole being (including the body) as part of the self-statement to the world. The importance of that, I wanted to always take it to a larger and larger level and so the international was just a natural kind of growth from my personal experience to the national level involvement with women sport in the US because of my AIAW presidency, I was appointed by NAGWS to be the women’s representative from the AAHPERD to the World University Games Movement. Do you know about the World University Games? Okay, there is an event that is exactly parallel to the Olympic Games and instead of Olympiads they call them the Universidad and there are winter and summer games, it is exactly like, and actually it has become now a part of the Olympic Movement. When I was a representative which was ‘72-92, I was the US women’s representative to the US body that was in charge of the World University Games competition for the US. But that put me into the international world. And about half way through my time there, the US Olympic committee took over the World University Games competition. So we in the university community were still sort of the selectors and the people who did the connecting to International Federation for University of Sport. FISU is the body that is comparable to the IOC so it’s the big honcho group for the Universidad where the IOC is the big honcho group for the Olympic Games. And like I said before, my mission in a sense just got translated from a national level to an international level and from a sport only focus to trying to make women’s sport a women’s movement kind of connection.

CG: You keep saying that you were ‘put’ in these different positions, did you actively seek to get on the committees or was it, for me I have been at the right place at the right time, but for you?

CO: Well my philosophy about that, there are three parts to it, one is the right place at the right time and that is good to acknowledge a little bit of god’s grace to being shed the second is confidence that you have what it takes to perform certain tasks that are
critical, and the third thing would be actively going for certain things. In some instances I was appointed like the, I never really had the sense that I was going after things. If we take for example before I was president of AIAW, I was commissioner of Championships, I was the second commission of championships for the CIAW, it was the precursor, we had invitational championships instead of a national selection process which the AIAW was, there was an invitational thing championships that were invitations, so I was the second commissioner of championships, it was problematic for a person’s career to do that job because this now we are talking 1969 to 1971. It was still controversial whether women should go in this direction and especially professional women, there were some women who thought it would be the end of sport, the way we do sport. The IAPESGW philosophy, you know for all, so I was appointed to the commission but I said yes to it and that was something took a little bit of courage but it also took a little bit of competence so when it came time for some identification for a slot for the presidency for AIAW I was asked to run, so I did and I was elected so the CIAW was an appointment; AIAW was an election. It was an appointment to the World University Games kind of thing and that lasted 20 years. I was invited to be president of WSI, I got a affirmed by elections a couple of times. There are not a lot of people that have been knocking at the door because basically you are trying out for an opportunity to 'turn over your life to these organizations', so there is a lot of cost involved. It’s been very rewarding to me in a personal satisfaction sense, I mean I wouldn’t have done anything different, but I don’t think, there is not a thing where there is a big concrete reward process going on it is mostly that you have an access to meet certain goals that you have, achieve certain objectives.

CG: What were some of the cost you are talking about?

CO: Well, I think if I go all the way back to high school, I was one of those people who was going to 'do it all'. I was in the band, I was in student government, I was in GAA, and I belong to my church and I belonged to this and I belong to that. Because I read fast, I don’t think I have this 'out of this world IQ' but my comprehension was good that was partly genes from my mom and dad and partly being at the right place at the right time back in the mid-west, so I can do things fast, so I was involved in everything. One of the things I had to get sort of sober about over the last 20 years of my life, is to see that no matter what you say, you can’t do at all. Something is going to suffer. I think I
have always put my career and these organizations, first, they were like mistresses in a sense I would say. My family always supported me and so I never had, I was fortunate enough not to have my mother or father or my extended family say ‘Carole you are ignoring us, what about us, we want you more. You got to give up some of these things’. The intimate relationships in my life, I always had these people, I was in relationships with these people and I would say we are almost like codependent. They encouraged, they said this is great the things you are doing is important, they are important to all of us so keep on doing and going. I got into my 50s when, actually I started, I have always been interested in psychology, so I did a second doctorate from the time I 50 to 60 in counseling and part of my interest in studying counseling and psychotherapy because I was doing my own psychotherapy at the time and I had done a lot of reflection back on certain choices and realizing there were costs and there were things that I and people and relationships that I sacrificed not against other people’s will but with their support to speak but it definitely had impacts on family and relationships with intimate partners so to speak. I am not sure I would do anything different now, but I think I have a lot more awareness now of what the sacrifices and the cost were on behalf of myself and other people. You know there are just kind of, I think that I am also very fortunate genetic-wise and I keep a relatively healthy lifestyle but I am a healthy person so I have had a whole lifetime of tremendous energy and it is really only now that there are time when I think, oh no, I don’t think I have it in me to fly to Australia for a meeting next week, I don’t know, I have to think about it, I never even thought about it before, I just jumped on the plane and I was gone. So I think there is a relational toll, I think there is a physical toll, there’s financial toll, I put a lot of my own personal money into travel, direct donations, but it has been more of my time and energy that I have given and my expertise that I have given and again, no regrets and I am glad I did it, but at the time I think, I wasn’t always completely aware of how much the cost might be. So I don’t have children, there are things that I don’t have and I’m right with my choices, I’m good with my choices, but they were choices.
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<td>Dorothy Ainsworth, letter reporting 2nd Congress outcomes, such as Association name, International Association of Physical Education and Sport for Girls and Women, and development of Executive Board with leaders, 1953</td>
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<td>Executive Board, letter to the Congress Delegates explaining the purpose of IAPESGW and the proposed structure, 1953</td>
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<td>Executive Board proposed constitution presented at the Congress where Delegates could vote on content, 1957</td>
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<td>Dorothy Ainsworth, in letter to Miss Pribitzer suggesting that men can only attend the Congress as silent observers, 1949</td>
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<td>Box: 24 Folder: Organizations: IAPESGW Correspondence-Webster, Muriel</td>
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<td>Box: 20 Folder: Organizations: IAPESGW-Congress-1953-Reports &amp; Speeches by D.S.A.</td>
<td>Report from the 1953 Executive Board Meeting. One topic discussed was affiliations with established organizations</td>
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<td>Executive Board sent a letter to all the members of the Council of Representatives asking them to lobby their national UNESCO representatives, 1958</td>
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<td>Dorothy Ainsworth, letter to Council of Representatives informing them about the</td>
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<td>Executive Board, sent a letter to the delegates about PE and sport resolutions</td>
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<td>endorsed sending them to UNESCO and WHO. Also the letter addressed Executive Board</td>
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<td>members attending and representing the association at international conferences,</td>
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<td>Box: 25 Folder: Organizations: IAPESGW-newsletter (1956-1964)</td>
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<td>IAPESGW changed the name of the newsletters to <em>The Review</em> in 1958. Within the</td>
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<td>1959 <em>The Review</em> Vol. 2 Number 1, Ainsworth submitted an article that highlighted</td>
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<td>the leaderships newly appointed roles on established WCOTP</td>
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<td>Celia Brackenridge, Letter to supporters of WISC and information sheet for WSI, 1994</td>
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<td>Libby Darlison, Letter to Sue Baker Finch to ask how she would rate overall international strategy, 1994</td>
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<td>Libby Darlison, Letter to Celia Brackenridge about letter that Celia sent to Anita that said WSI wanted to be represented as an inclusive organization which works with other governmental and non-governmental groups. Libby wanted to make sure that WSI was being represented as taking a transformative role, 1994</td>
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<td>Brunel University</td>
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<td>Celia Brackenridge, Letter to Ann Hall and Jennifer Hargreaves about their negative critiques about WSI, 1994</td>
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<td>Kari Fasting, Letter to Executive Committee about affiliations with other organizations and changing WSI’s words within the mission and aims to become more appealing for working relationships, 1995</td>
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<td>Brunel University</td>
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<td>Executive Board Minutes in a form letter March 29, 1994</td>
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<td>47 Brunel University</td>
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<td>Ann Hall, letter to Libby Darlison suggesting criticizing WSI, 1995</td>
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<td>48 Brunel University</td>
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<td>Libby Darlison, Letter to Executive Committee about the 4th UN World Conference on Women, 1995</td>
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<td>Celia Brackenridge, letter to Libby about needing to make task forces more diverse, 1995</td>
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<td>50 Brunel University</td>
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<td>Libby Darlison, Letter in the <em>Starting Line</em> Volume 3.2 from the Executive Vice-President about future collaborations, 1996</td>
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<td>51 Brunel University</td>
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<td>Libby Darlison, Letter/application to Ms. Kristen Timothy for the acceptance of WSI at the 4th UN World Conference on Women, 1994</td>
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<td>52 Brunel University</td>
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<td>WSI, letter to Letter to Dr. Kidane of IOC about WSI’s participation in 4th UN Conference, 1995</td>
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<td>53 Brunel University</td>
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<td>Libby Darlison, Letter in the <em>Starting Line</em> Volume 2.2 from the Executive Vice-President about reasons for participation in non-sporting conferences, 1995</td>
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<td>54 Brunel University</td>
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<td><em>Starting Line</em> Volume 3.2 in the Around the Globe section, there is a list of all the non-sporting conferences that WSI Executive Committee has attended and their actions at these conferences, 1996</td>
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<td>55 Brunel University</td>
<td>Office of Celia Brackenridge</td>
<td>Binder 1</td>
<td>Libby Darlison, Letter in the <em>Starting Line</em> Volume 3.1 from the Executive Vice-President about organizational activities and conference attendance as well as future collaborations, 1996</td>
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<td>56 Brunel University</td>
<td>Office of Celia Brackenridge</td>
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<td>Libby Darlison, report to IWG about what WSI has achieved in the last year, 1996</td>
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<td>57 California State University</td>
<td>Office of Carole Oglesby</td>
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<td>Libby Darlison, Letter to Executive Board about WSI representation at IWG meeting and IAPESGW’s interest in also being represented, 1998</td>
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<td>58 California State University</td>
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<td>Carole Oglesby, letter to Libby Darlison about WSI’s position with IOC, 1996</td>
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<td>59 Brunel University</td>
<td>Office of Celia Brackenridge</td>
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<td>Libby Darlison, Letter in the <em>Starting Line</em> Volume 2.3 from the Executive Vice-President about NGOs and importance of WSI to gain insider status to advance women’s sport and physical activity, 1996</td>
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<td>60 Brunel University</td>
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<td>Celia Brackenridge, Letter to inform the Executive Committee that Bruce Kidd and Kari have taken part to get the IOC to cover a women's quota, 1995</td>
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<td>Barbara Drinkwater, Letter to Celia Brackenridge supporting a reverse decision by the IOC, 1996</td>
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<td>62 Brunel University</td>
<td>Office of Celia Brackenridge</td>
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<td>Libby Darlison, Letter to Executive Board about work with IOC that has paid off for opportunities for future work, 1995</td>
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</table>
Appendix K:

IAPESGW’s identified purposes in 1953:

1. To bring women in the fields of Sport, Dance, and Physical Education from all nations together and allow them to see, compare, and discuss their work so they know what is done elsewhere;

2. To develop international support for physical education for girls and women;

3. To raise the standard of quality and amount of work through the congresses, and that the interests of citizens be aroused as to the necessity of this work for all children, youth and adults;

4. To extend the information and inspiration received at international meetings to the years between meetings through correspondence and newsletters;

5. To organize a third international congress on physical education and sport for girls and women within the next four or five years;

6. To make clear that we do not endorse one system or method of physical education. Through meetings, we offer the opportunity for all to see and hear of different types and kinds of work, believing each nation must choose that form of physical education best adapted to its situation; and

7. To retain identity as a separate organization, but to cooperate where when it might be helpful and useful.

IAPESGW (Archive 16, 1953)
Appendix L:  
WSI mission, aims, and proposed processes for change in 1994

Mission statement:
WSI is an organization dedicated to bringing about positive change for girls and women in sport and physical activity at all levels of involvement.

Aims and objectives:
1. To encourage networking and communication between member groups and countries;
2. To serve as an advocacy group promoting equal opportunity for girls and women in sports;
3. To promote strategic research into problems and issues relating to the female athlete;
4. To identify issues of importance to girls and women in sport and PA and recommend or when appropriate, design strategies for change; and
5. To lobby specific sports governmental bodies in order to promote girls and women's administration and decision making.

WSI’s proposed processes for change:
1. Development of an international inventory of the status quo with respect to the participation and position of girls and women sport and physical activity in as many countries as possible;
2. Establishment of a database of best practice programs and individuals with expertise which could all be accessed by members or organizations;
3. Publication of a newsletter, called the Starting Line, to keep members in touch with what was happening in women’s sport and physical activity in other parts of the world;
4. Development of cooperative working relationships with national organizations and international sport governmental bodies (IOC, Commonwealth Games...
Federation (CGF), international sports fed and non-sporting bodies, UN, UNESCO);

5. Documentation and promotion of the benefits of regular physical activity in the lives of girls and women working with key organizations;

6. Development of commissioning research projects;

7. Development of protocols for behavior for use by coaches and sport officials; and

8. Attendance at international conferences and meetings, presenting papers and promoting issues to do with girls and women in sport and physical activity at international forums.

(Archive 32, 1994)