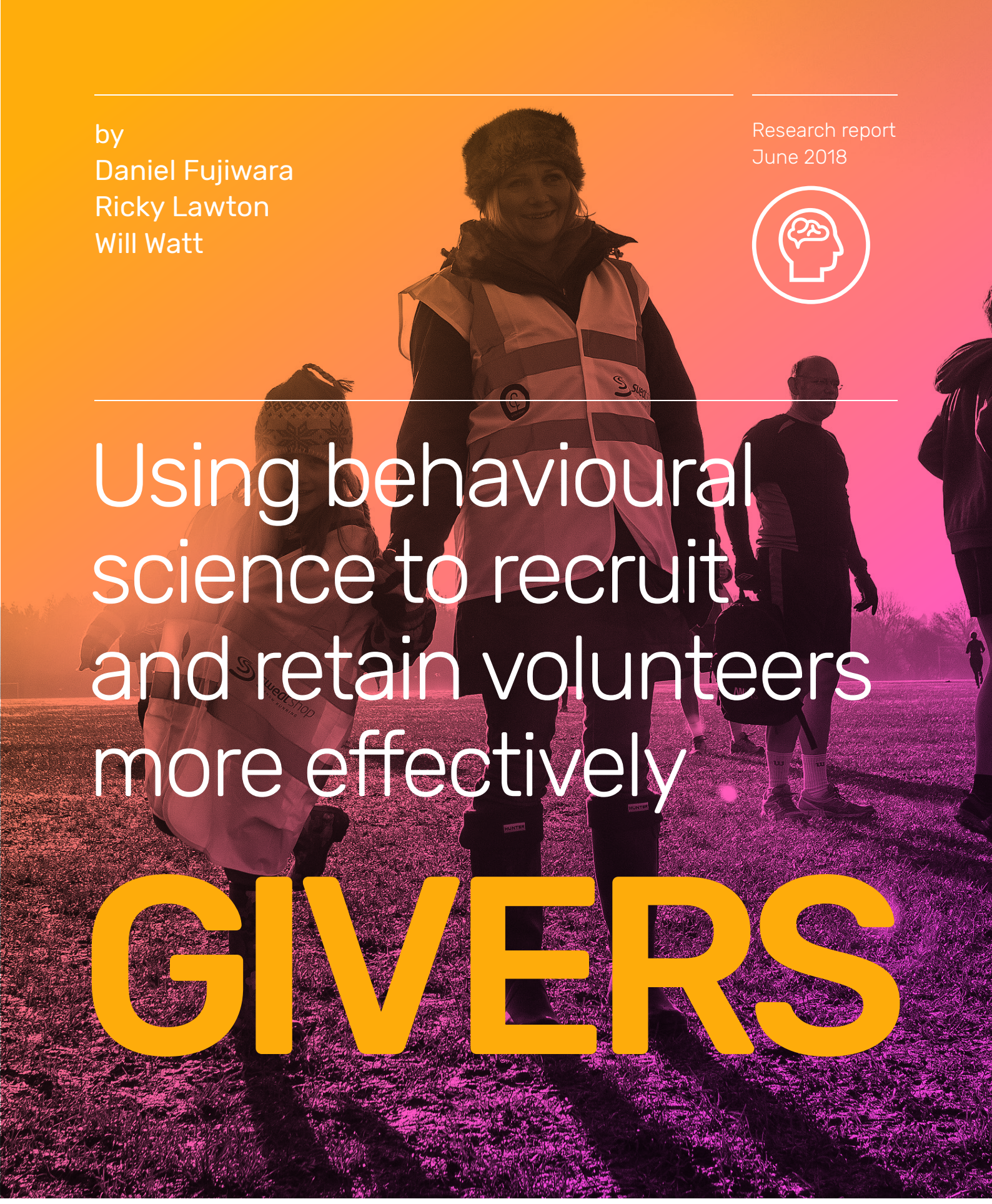
by
Daniel Fujiwara
Ricky Lawton
Will Watt

Research report
June 2018



Using behavioural science to recruit and retain volunteers more effectively

GIVERS

SPORT+ RECREATION ALLIANCE

Introduction

A summary of the key findings from this full report was first presented by sport volunteering charity Join In in May 2016 under the heading of *Making Time*. The work was commissioned by the Join In Trust who, in October 2016, handed the baton to the Sport and Recreation Alliance in order to continue building on the legacy of putting volunteers into grassroots sport.

The Sport and Recreation Alliance is pleased to now make this report available to the sector. The Alliance has worked with two of the authors of the original *Making Time* report, Ricky Lawton and Will Watt, now part of Jump Projects Ltd, over the last 12 months to make the full set of detailed findings ready for publication. This report shares practical insights into the behavioural science behind recruiting and retaining volunteers more effectively.

The Alliance will use these findings to continue providing support to grassroots sport and recreation across the UK through various resources. Please visit the volunteer section of the Sport and Recreation Alliance website for more information.

CONTENTS

Tables and Figures

Executive summary

SPORT+ RECREATION ALLIANCE

Executive summary

This report develops the first evidence based guide for organisations working with volunteers. It explores the benefits associated with volunteering, both in the wider community and to volunteers themselves. It also investigates the reasons and motivations that volunteers give for volunteering, and the barriers and obstacles that prevent organisations from attracting more volunteers. In addition, it reveals the messaging techniques that can help recruit, retain and realise the benefits from volunteers.

In the report you will find a comprehensive and detailed overview of the voluntary sector in the UK, with robust primary and secondary research on people's actual experiences of volunteering. This research addresses volunteering in general terms, and with reference to a specific case study of sport volunteering – the largest volunteering sector in the UK – comparing the reasons, motivations, and benefits associated with each sector.

Volunteering plays an incredibly important role in UK society. Almost one quarter of all adults volunteer at some point each year. In 2013, NCVO (the National Council for Voluntary Organisations) calculated the benefits of volunteering to be in excess of £23bn to the UK economy annually, and would require the equivalent of around 1.3 million full-time workers to replace. As we explain in the full report (see page 12 for more detail), the national sport volunteering charity, Join In, alongside of Lord Gus O'Donnell, Chair, Pro Bono Economics, and Andrew Haldane, the Chief Economist at the Bank of England, presented two pieces of work in 2014 that valued volunteers at between £50-£200bn to the UK economy in terms of the value of their time and the wellbeing that results.

These new values factored in the large and varied benefits for people who volunteer, both in terms of their health and their wellbeing. Self-worth, socialising and the feeling of doing something useful are just a few of the factors which are related to this improvement in wellbeing.

Although data has been collected for many years on volunteering rates in the UK, to date this evidence has not been collected together nor analysed with a focus on how and why people volunteer, or the benefits that are associated with their volunteering. This report makes use of previous research, data collected at the national level, as well as the findings of a specially commissioned online survey of the UK population. Uniquely, we combine all of this evidence on volunteering with recent insights from behavioural science.

We know that there are clear differences in whether people volunteer depending on the region they come from (more people volunteer in rural areas than in urban), their socio-economic background (more volunteers come from the well-educated middle class than poorer backgrounds), ethnic background (more white people volunteer than people from other backgrounds), and age group (middle-aged people are less likely to volunteer).

At a high level, there's nothing new about this information on the 'who' of volunteering. Where the research in this report – and the GIVERS framework that results – breaks new ground is in its ability to help us dig deeper into the barriers and motivations, and the messages that can be used to address these audiences successfully; particularly in sport volunteering.

Benefits to volunteers and reasons for volunteering

The findings set out in this report draw on analysis of two types of evidence: existing data from national household surveys in the UK; and original research in the form of an online survey of volunteers and non-volunteers in the UK. First, we perform **comprehensive analysis of UK national data and reviews of literature in this field.** We use the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS), Taking Part, and Community Life datasets. We identify a number of benefits that those who volunteer gain from their involvement in volunteering. While our research does not allow us to identify causal links between the improvements in wellbeing and volunteering, there are strong associations which are supported by the literature. **Volunteering is good for us because it brings purpose to our lives.** This is particularly the case for older people and the unemployed. Employer-supported volunteering is found to be associated with higher staff engagement which we know leads to higher productivity.

Our research and the existing literature show that **people who have a high level of wellbeing are more likely to show altruistic behaviour and volunteer**, and vice versa. This leads to a virtuous circle, with 'happier' people becoming volunteers, improving their wellbeing further, and volunteering more. There is therefore a clear reason to encourage more people to volunteer, especially those with lower wellbeing. However, there is also a level of volunteering which has a negative impact on wellbeing. When too much time is spent on voluntary work, people can start to feel worse.

While many people join the volunteer workforce every year, there are others who decide to stop. The main reasons for stopping volunteering are **lack of time and changes in circumstances.** Other reasons include not having the right skills (particularly in sport volunteering), not feeling rewarded for one's efforts, lacking confidence, and feeling that others should do more.

Influencing volunteering

To consider how to influence volunteering we need to understand why people volunteer and what the barriers are. There are many reasons for volunteering. **Some want to help others, give something back to a good cause and improve their local area.** Others find volunteering is a **good way of spending their time** and feel they can **broaden their horizons.** The reasons for volunteering differ between age groups, socio-economic background, gender, education and health.

There are considerable barriers to volunteering. **Lack of time, interest or health issues** are among the most common barriers. When considering how to increase the number of volunteers, we found that it is important to make it easy for volunteers to get started. In sport, and in general volunteering, people are **more likely to volunteer if they have a friend with them**. There are also prejudices which keep people from volunteering, such as the perceived need to be fit to volunteer – particularly in sport – or to have specific skills.

Volunteers in sport

We conducted a large online survey with sport volunteers, general volunteers and non-volunteers in the UK to explore the differences between these different types of volunteering. We discovered that, on average, **sport volunteers spend more time volunteering**, and they have done so for more years.

People who volunteer (both sport and general volunteering) do so **because they enjoy it** and **they have the time** to do so. Some also felt that they could **improve their physical health, spend time with their children**, and **reduce stress levels**.

General volunteers, however, mainly do it for their own **personal self-improvement** and to contribute to **societal causes**. There are also differences in motivations between the generations: **younger people feel they can broaden their life experiences** while **older volunteers feel a sense of personal achievement.**

Word of mouth is an important source of information about volunteering opportunities in sport, while community events, notice boards and online are also key information sources for sport and general volunteering.

People say that they would increase their volunteering in sport **if they had more time, it was easier to do so** (including on the way home from work or online), and **if the personal health and wellbeing benefits were proven.** Other reasons preventing people from volunteering are that they don't consider themselves to be fit enough, feel they don't have the necessary skills, or simply have not been asked.

In our survey we also explore reasons why people stop volunteering (in sport and in general). While sport is the biggest volunteering sector nationally in the UK, sport volunteers are also more likely to have reduced or stopped their volunteering activities in the past 12 months. Apart from lack of time, **negative experiences with the internal organisation of sport clubs, bureaucracy, and lack of recognition** are clear reasons why people stop volunteering in sport. More generally, old age and health issues commonly lead to the decision to stop volunteering.

Overall sport volunteers had a more positive experience than other types of volunteers. Our analysis shows a positive association between volunteering, wellbeing and health. Sport volunteering leads to a greater sense of happiness and of a worthwhile contribution than general volunteering.

A behavioural model of volunteering

Behavioural science shows that individuals commonly make decisions in 'non-rational' ways, altering decisions based on the way that the choices are framed, susceptibility to social norms, and loss aversion. Behavioural experiments have shed light on how people actually behave as compared to the rational decision model used in economics. We use a dual process method of behaviour in the report. Our 'System 2' minds are responsible for rational decision making while System 1 thinking operates on a more primal level, making automatic decisions influenced by a range of contextual factors.

People will base their decisions on whether to carry on volunteering on **the experience they had when doing it** in a System 1 manner. A useful concept is the 'peak-end' effect, which can be applied to a wide range of decisions, from restaurant meals to sport volunteering. For instance, memories of a meal are based on a highlight during the meal (such as an exceptional main course) and at end of the experience (a free brandy, for example). These could be negative or positive experiences. A positive experience during and at the end of volunteering, which makes people feel good about themselves, plays an important role in

whether they come back to volunteer.

System 2 is driven by intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. Intrinsic motivators for volunteering include **the wish to help others, personal growth, learning new skills and finding friends.** Some people feel that they have a **duty to society.** Extrinsic motivators would include rewards, being well-regarded by peers, gaining social status and personally benefitting from the voluntary work.

By combining these motivators with a welfarist approach – which understands that individuals seek to **improve their wellbeing or welfare** – and our insights from both the volunteering survey and literature review, we develop a fuller understanding of what drives people's decision to volunteer and help out. Using these insights, we create a **strategy to increase the amount of volunteers, maximise the time they spend volunteering, and provide lessons in how to reward and retain volunteers.**

Volunteering makes us happier because it allows us to help others. At first glance this connects with the intrinsic motivators described. But it also relates to extrinsic motivators. One example is the **wish of people to be rewarded for their volunteering**.

To this understanding of extrinsic and intrinsic human needs, we add the System 1 drivers for decision making – those which are quick, immediate, unthought-out and dependent on the context in which they are taken. System 1 type drivers are well set out in the UK Government's MINDSPACE report. This report provides important elements which inform our understanding of the motivations and drivers of volunteering, such as social norms set by others in a similar context to us, the default option (i.e. are we opting in or out of a choice), our emotional associations with a particular situation and commitments we make in front of others.

Combining System 2 and System 1 motivators with the results of our work on volunteering has led us to develop a powerful set of **guidelines and principles to 'recruit, retain and reward' volunteers.**

GIVERS: Growth, Impact, Voice, Experience, Recognition, Social

Bringing these insights together leads to the six-step GIVERS framework. This is the first evidence-based framework to have been developed with the aim of helping organisations recruit, retain and realise volunteers' potential.

GIVERS addresses the reasons people give for why they volunteer, what barriers they perceive to volunteering and why they stop. Crucially, this report positions these original insights into the wider framework of the System 2 (intrinsic and extrinsic motivators) and System 1 (behavioural decision making) model. This leads to a holistic approach addressing the human needs for wellbeing and welfare.

GIVERS can provide a manual for organisations to make sure they treat their volunteers well, recognise them for who they are and increase volunteering, while improving their wellbeing at the same time.

G - Growth: reflects the wish people have to grow as a person, build their skills and widen their horizons

I - Impact: reflects the wish of volunteers to see the difference they have made to people's lives

V - Voice: recognises the fact that people react to how messages they receive are framed and presented

E - Experiences: recognises that people's time is scarce and that their need for easy enrolment and flexibility are recognised

R - Recognition: acknowledges the extrinsic motivators and the wish to be rewarded, even if it's just by a simple thank you

S - Social: takes into consideration that people are social beings who enjoy being with friends.

GIVERS in practice

This report is published to help others working in the voluntary sector analyse and hopefully benefit from this research. However, as a tool to recruit and retain volunteers, GIVERS goes far beyond a purely academic application. Indeed, it has already been proven in the real world to deliver tangible results.

The GIVERS principles were first in evidence at the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games with the 70,000 Games Makers. The sport volunteering charity Join In was created to harness the spirit created from these volunteers and put them into community sport. These principles came to life through national campaigns developed with BBC Sports Personality of the Year, The National Lottery and ITV. The charity also won two BT Sports Industry Awards.

In other words, the evidence in this report is not merely theoretical; it works in practice too, and it is designed to enable everyone to maximise how they recruit, manage and retain volunteers. (You can find more detail on the practical application of GIVERS on page 84 of the full report.)

Conclusion

This report demonstrates the associations between volunteering, health and wellbeing through exhaustive analysis of national population datasets in the UK and original research in the form of a large online survey of volunteers and non-volunteers in the UK. It finds that **volunteering is significantly associated with improved wellbeing, better mental health, and better general health.** Formal volunteering, in particular through organised groups and clubs, is associated with higher wellbeing on a number of measures.

Of the different types of volunteering that people do in the UK, the results suggest that **volunteering in sport in particular is significantly associated with greater wellbeing.** This is not the case for other types of volunteering like arts and heritage.

The challenge is to engage those who we know are more likely to volunteer, while encouraging those groups who typically volunteer less. Despite the large numbers of individuals who volunteer in sport in the UK, and the clear benefits of sport volunteering, we have identified **large gaps in the data available on sport volunteers in the UK,** why people volunteer, and the reasons that stop people from volunteering in sport and other types of volunteering.

We combined behavioural insights with original research to develop the GIVERS framework – Growth, Impact, Voice, Experience, Recognition, Social – to support those working with volunteers to **recruit** more volunteers, **retain** those they have and **realise** their potential.

We believe that these insights can help inform high-level decision making in the voluntary sector. The insights provided in this report can be used to help recruit, manage and retain one of our most valuable national resources – our volunteers. Together, we can help increase the benefits that volunteering provides, both to society and to the health and wellbeing of volunteers themselves.

Chapter 1
Evidence on volunteering

SPORT+ RECREATION ALLIANCE

Background: The value of volunteering and Join In

Join In was set up in 2012 with a Government grant and support from founding partner BT to promote volunteering in sport and deliver a visible volunteering legacy from the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games. Until October 2016, Join In's innovative approach, committed team and hardworking Patron, Eddie Izzard, built partnerships and campaigns with Big Lottery Fund, Lloyds, Intersport, ITV and BBC. This hard work helped recruit and retain over 100,000 volunteers a year for grassroots sport.

Throughout these four years, Join In undertook different tranches of primary research into 'who' volunteers, 'why' and 'what' volunteers are needed by the clubs, groups and sporting organisations across the UK.

In 2013 Join In conducted research with the clubs on their database (a sample of 110 responses) in part to validate the need for a website that matched willing volunteers with sport clubs. The research found that 77% of clubs say they need more volunteers but 2 out of 3 clubs never advertise externally to recruit new volunteers. The research also looked briefly at what type of help clubs actually needed - general helpers (65%), experienced coaches (58%) and fundraisers (53%) were the most sought after.

Join In refined this research with founding partner BT in 2014 with the 'Mind the skills gap' research to further investigate what volunteers skills were needed most by clubs and sport groups. This further confirmed the 2013 research. The number one skill needed was fundraising (63%); this was followed by coaching at (56%) but the next three priorities for clubs were marketing (41%), grant writing (39%) and web design (38%). What was extremely clear was that the needs of sport were not for 'sporty' skills – but for marketing and fundraising functions to help the club to grow.

It was also in 2014 that Join In undertook pioneering research into the economic value of volunteers. As explained above, Join In had recruited and retained over 100,000 volunteers into sport at a cost per volunteer that ranged from £76 in 2012 to £36 in 2013. This seemed like good value, given that these volunteers run sport clubs and groups where adults and children alike get active, healthier and meet new people.

In 2014, what no-one seemed to be able to calculate was the true social value of volunteers. The current valuations were based on the 'cost replacement' model that imagined the cost if Government had to pay volunteers a minimum wage. While logical, this didn't seem to tell the whole story of the impact of a volunteer in sport – the people playing as a result, the clubs as community assets, the social connections created – none of these impacts was counted.

Join In set out, working with primary research from 2,647 volunteers, non-volunteers and lapsed volunteers, to better understand the motivations, impacts and value of volunteers in sport alongside the people who benefit from the volunteering and played sport.

Join In used third party methodologies like New Philanthropy Capital's Emotional Wellbeing

Framework and the Revised Sense of Community Index to measure the impacts on the individual and the community from volunteering in sport. And the impacts were staggeringly positive:

- Volunteering in sport seemed to generate significant increases in wellbeing scores – almost 2.5 times higher than non-volunteers;
- These increased wellbeing scores for the volunteer were generated by higher self-esteem, sense of purpose, and pride alongside less anxiety and worry;
- The effects seem to increase with the more volunteering people did and endure beyond when they stop volunteering;
- Each volunteer in sport creates capacity for 8.5 people to play sport – with all the wellbeing benefits of playing sport that result;
- Volunteers were also much higher in feeling trust, influence and being part of their community.

Join In was then able to use the very latest social impact and economics of wellbeing analysis, working alongside of leading economic and social impact consultancy Simetrica and the Department of Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS), to establish that each volunteer in sport was generating at least £16,032 a year in economic benefits to themselves and their community.

The result of this research was *Hidden Diamonds: Uncovering the true value of sports volunteers*, published in 2014. The 3.2 million volunteers in sport across the UK were generating £53bn of economic value – a staggering figure that Join In was concerned would be ridiculed. It was then that Lord Gus O'Donnell sent Join In a speech by Andrew Haldane, Chief Economist at the Bank of England, from a month earlier in 2014 on the social value of volunteering as a whole sector. Andrew Haldane said volunteering was "big business" and a "hidden jewel" with a social value of £100bn to £200bn. This fitted, almost exactly, with the Join In valuation of sport at £53bn (which is approximately 20% of all volunteering).

Given this enormous value to the nation, the next logical step was to work out how Join In could use the very latest behavioural science to make sure everyone was able to recruit and retain as many volunteers as possible. And this is when Join In began working with Simetrica on this GIVERS report.

The pioneering *Hidden Diamonds: Uncovering the true value of sports volunteers* has also proved to be very influential in the development of the Government's sport strategy, *Sporting Future*, published in December 2015, and also with Sport England's strategy *Towards an Active Nation*, which put a much greater focus and investment (£30m) into volunteering in sport.

The research in this report will hopefully be a very useful tool that will help maximise the impact of this welcome investment in an area of huge economic value – volunteering both in sport and beyond.

Volunteering in society

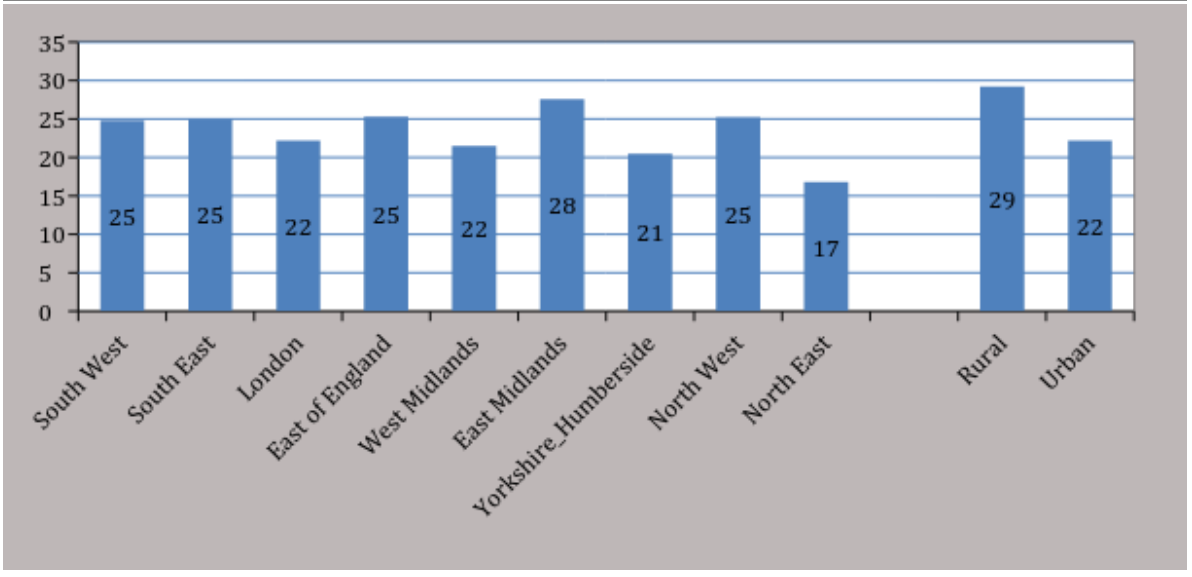
Volunteering plays a crucial role in civic society in the United Kingdom (UK). The National Council for Voluntary Organisations (NCVO) estimates that 1.3 million full-time workers would be required to replace the number of people who volunteered once a month in 2010/11, costing £23.1 billion to the UK economy (NCVO 2013).

We outline the trends in volunteering in the UK using statistics from the Taking Part survey which is administered by the Department for Culture Media and Sport (DCMS), and supplemented by statistics from the NCVO and the UK Voluntary Sector Workforce Almanac 2013.

Volunteering is a broad activity and is defined by the DCMS as: "offering one's time for free. This could be organising or helping to run an event, campaigning, conservation, raising money, providing transport or driving, taking part in a sponsored event, coaching, tuition or mentoring for no expense" (DCMS, 2015 p. 62).

Within this, there is *formal* and *informal* volunteering. Formal volunteering is done through groups, clubs or organisations and is typically easier to measure; informal volunteering can be through any arrangement and so is often much harder to capture.

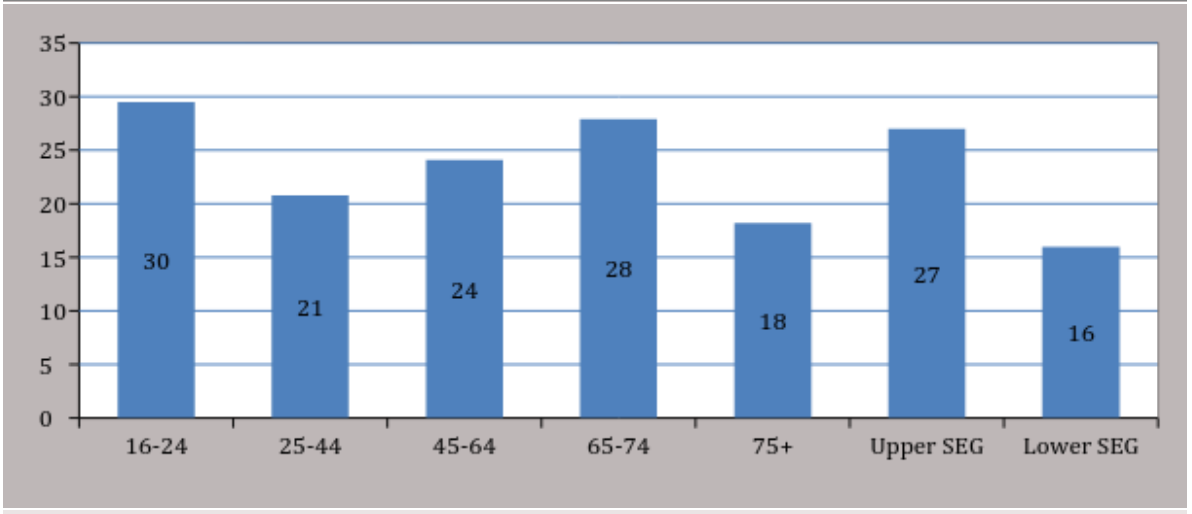
Table 1: Adults (%) who volunteered by region (Taking Part 2014-15)



The 2014-15 Taking Part statistical release shows that nearly a quarter of adults (23.6%) report having volunteered in the last 12 months in England (DCMS 2015). The proportion is higher for adults living in rural areas (29.2%) than urban areas (22.2%). The highest proportion of adult volunteers is observed in the East Midlands (27.6%), followed by the East of England (25.3%), North West (25.2%), and South East (25.0%), while 22.2% of adults in London volunteered over the last year. The lowest proportion of volunteering adults (16.8%) is reported in the North East.

Research by the Third Sector Research Centre shows that most volunteering, charitable giving and civic participation is carried out by a 'civic core': a small subset of the population who tend to be middle-aged, well-educated, in managerial and professional occupations, actively practising their religion and to have lived in the same neighbourhood for at least 10 years (Mohan and Bulloch 2012). In Taking Part, the upper socio-economic group reported the highest levels of volunteering (36.5%) compared to 16.2% for the lowest socio-economic group. Volunteering is highest among the young (16-24) (29.5%) and those between 65-74 (27.9%). There is a negligible difference between the working (23.4%) and not working (23.9%) population in terms of volunteering. Adults with no disability volunteered almost as much as adults with disabilities (23.7% and 23.5% respectively).

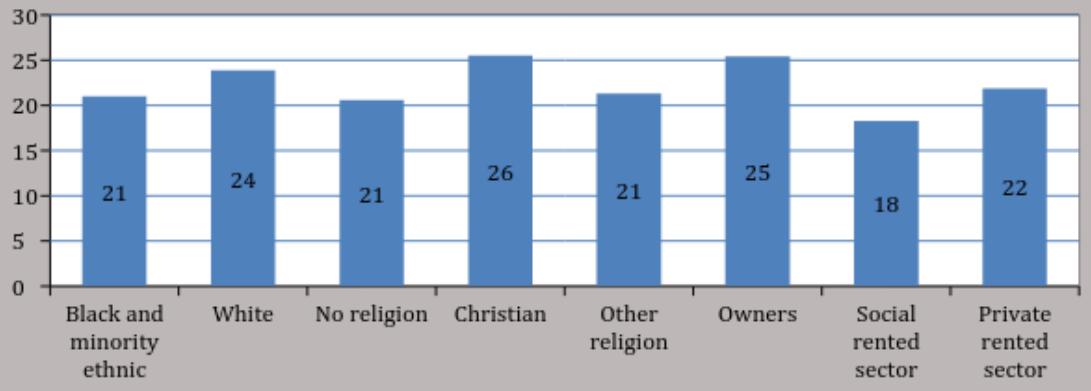
Table 2: Adults (%) who volunteered by age & socio-economic group (SEG) (Taking Part 2014-15)



Definitions of socio-economic groups and their classifications are available at http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20160105160709/http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/guide-method/classifications/current-standard-classifications/soc2010/soc2010-volume-3-ns-sec--rebased-on-soc2010--user-manual/index.html

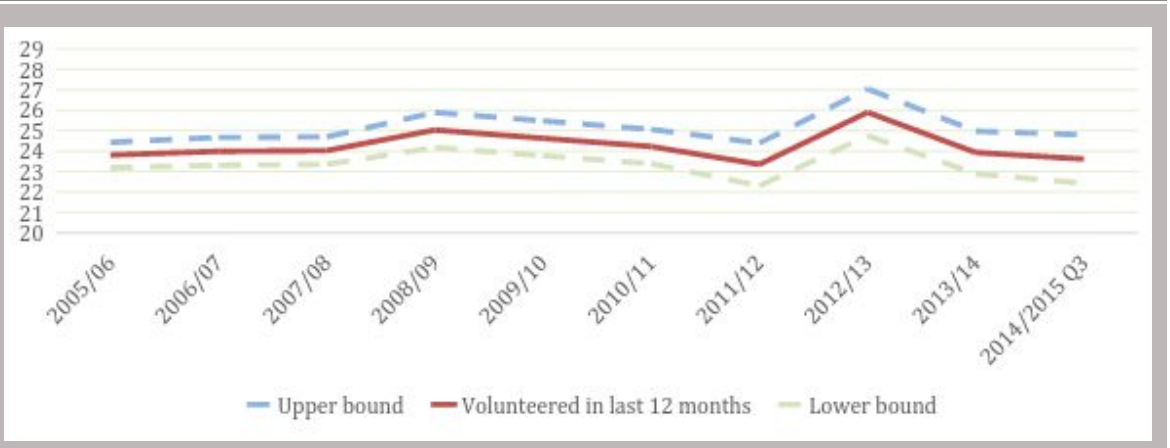
One in four homeowners reported having volunteered over the last year (25.4%), compared to 21.9% of private renters, and 18.3% in social housing. White adults reported slightly higher volunteering participation (23.9%) than other ethnic groups (21.0%). One in four Christians (25.5%) and 21.3% of those belonging to other religions reported that they have volunteered, compared to one in five adults who do not belong to any religion (20.6%). Within the volunteering population 38% have a degree or a higher level of qualification, 72% have at least A-levels or equivalent, and only 4% have no qualifications (Data source: Labour Force Survey).

Table 3: Adults (%) who volunteered by religion, ethnicity & housing status (Taking Part 2014-15)



In terms of trends over the past decade, volunteering participation has been around 24% of the population in England with a peak of 25.9% in 2012/2013, which was the year of the London Olympics. Since then levels of volunteering have dropped to 23.9% in 2013/2014 and 23.6% in 2014/2015 (DCMS 2015).

Table 3: Adults (%) who volunteered in the last 12 months (Taking Part 2014-15)



Source: (DCMS 2015). Confidence intervals range between +/-0.6 and +/-1.2 from 2005/06 onwards. No data are available for 2009/10. The upper and lower bounds show the 95% confidence interval.

Summary

Over the past decade the state of volunteering in the UK has stayed broadly steady, with around one quarter of the adult population having volunteered in the past 12 months. However, rates of volunteering reached a peak during the UK Olympics, when around 26% of the adult population reported that they had volunteered between 2012-2013. This shows that with the right motivation, more people can be encouraged to volunteer. Since then, however, the proportion of adults volunteering has dropped back to pre-Olympics levels. The challenge is to engage those that we know are more likely to volunteer, while encouraging those groups who typically volunteer less.

These findings support insights from the general literature that volunteers are more likely to be white, well-educated individuals from higher socio-economic groups (Mohan and Bulloch 2012). They are more likely to be actively practising their religion, but are just as likely to be working as not working, and as likely to be disabled as not disabled. These findings raise important questions about the kinds of factors that might motivate or prevent people from volunteering. The next step is to gain a greater understanding of the factors that drive volunteering in the UK.

Chapter 2
The benefits of volunteering

SPORT+ RECREATION ALLIANCE

The benefits of volunteering

The first key area of our research is to explore the benefits of volunteering to different stakeholders. This provides important evidence to inform policy making in volunteering and it can provide important information for use in messaging with potential volunteers. We explore the benefits of volunteering for the volunteers and for businesses that allow their staff to volunteer. This section draws on analysis of UK national data and reviews of literature in this field. We use the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS) and Taking Part datasets.

The BHPS[1] collects a range of demographic and lifestyle data from individuals and families. In this analysis we use biannual waves of the BHPS (8-18), making a total sample size of 83,951. Taking Part is a nationally representative database commissioned annually by the Department for Digital, Culture, Media and Sport along with partners at Arts Council England, Historic England and Sport England. The survey collects data on aspects of leisure, culture and sport in England, as well as an in-depth range of socio-demographic information on respondents. In this analysis we use five waves of Taking Part data (2005-2010), providing a total sample size of 98,560.

2.1.1. Volunteers

Volunteering is likely to be associated with a number of positive outcomes. In our assessment of the benefits of volunteering for volunteers our main focus is on people's wellbeing. By this we mean the broad concept of how one's life is going or one's quality of life (QoL) (we will use these terms interchangeably here). We use this to structure the analysis in order to understand, in a holistic sense, the ultimate benefits and value of voluntary work for volunteers. To achieve this, we must think about what is of ultimate or intrinsic importance to us as humans in a moral sense. That is, many things are important in our lives but ultimately the reason why they are important is because they have implications for an intrinsically important factor. QoL is a very strong candidate when we think of intrinsic value in our lives. In a behavioural sense it is hard to find examples where we act against the interests of our wellbeing and a significant part of the political, economic and philosophical discourse on policy evaluation centres around wellbeing. Wellbeing, defined in traditional economic terms as welfare, is the measure against which policies are assessed in the UK as set out in the HM Treasury Green Book guidance on policy evaluation.

Clearly voluntary work will lead to a wide range of positive outcomes for volunteers, including for example, improved health, social relationships, connectedness with the local community, a sense of purpose and responsibility and so on. Within this framework these are outcomes that are of instrumental value because they lead ultimately to improved wellbeing. We must also not forget that there are costs or dis-benefits associated with volunteering. These include the loss of time that could have been spent on other activities which includes work and leisure activities, reduced disposable income due to travel costs, and potential negative feelings experienced during voluntary work such as stress and fatigue. These costs will be magnified when the volunteering experience is a poor one (e.g. due to boring, unproductive tasks). Looking through the lens of wellbeing and QoL allows us to get a full picture of the benefits of volunteering, accounting for all of these positive and negative factors together because they

[1] The BHPS is an annual, nationally representative panel survey, which began in 1991, and is carried out by the Institute for Social and Economic Research.

are all instrumental to (i.e. drivers of) wellbeing.

Wellbeing can be measured in a variety of ways which can broadly be grouped into the following three categories:

(i) The Preference satisfaction account is based on the premise that we can infer wellbeing from people's choices because *"what is best for someone is what would best fulfil all of his desires"* (Parfit 1984, p. 494). Modern-day economic theory is based on this account of welfare.

(ii) Mental state accounts refer to people's subjective experiences of their own wellbeing, which is usually measured through self-reports in a survey. There is a large range of subjective wellbeing questions and these include happiness, emotions, life satisfaction, worthwhile/purpose in life, sadness, anxiety and goal attainment. Each tap into different theoretical concepts of wellbeing.

(iii) Objective list accounts of welfare are based on assumptions about basic human needs (Dolan et al. 2011). Welfare is measured in terms of a set of predetermined indicators such as mortality rates, health, and literacy rates.

These three measures of wellbeing – all are essentially trying to measure the same broad thing: human welfare – can give very divergent assessments of how a person's life is progressing and therefore will derive different estimates regarding the success of an intervention. For example, people may not always choose things that make them happy or more satisfied and items on an objective list account may not be things that people really desire or things that impact on self-reported wellbeing. There is no consensus on which wellbeing measure is 'right'; however, recent trends have seen economists and policy analysts increasingly using mental state accounts to assess and evaluate policies and to make policy decisions. Indeed, the UK National Wellbeing Programme[2] focuses on subjective wellbeing (SWB) measures.

Our focus here is also on SWB measures of wellbeing and how they relate to volunteering and voluntary work. By looking at SWB measures, rather than preference measures, we are looking at a more experiential level of wellbeing by assessing how outcomes and activities actually impact on people's wellbeing, rather than how people predict they will impact on their lives.

2.1.2. Literature review

We explore the literature linking volunteering and other forms of altruism, such as charitable giving, to higher wellbeing, focusing only on studies that allow a high level of confidence in terms of the ability to attribute causality to the findings. That is, we focus on studies that use methods to allow us to say with more confidence that there is a causal relationship from volunteering to wellbeing, rather than the other way around or due to some other third factor

[2] In 2010 the Prime Minister launched the National Wellbeing Programme to "start measuring our progress as a country, not just by how our economy is growing, but by how our lives are improving; not just by our standard of living, but by our quality of life".
https://www.gov.uk/government/collections/national-wellbeing

not related to volunteering.

SWB variables in these studies include life satisfaction (evaluative wellbeing[3]) and reduced anxiety and happiness (affective wellbeing[4]), as well as a sense of purpose or worthwhile (eudemonic wellbeing[5]). As noted by Fujiwara et al. (2013), evidence on volunteering and wellbeing is mixed, with some studies finding no relationship with wellbeing (Haller and Hadler 2006) and others finding a positive relationship (e.g. Greenfield and Marks 2004; Meier and Stutzer 2008). Konrath (2014) reviews research on the relationship between giving time (i.e. volunteering) and money (i.e. philanthropy) and givers' wellbeing. Most of this literature defines wellbeing hedonically, as happiness and other positive emotions, and as positive evaluations e.g. life satisfaction (Deci and Ryan 2008; Ryan et al. 2008).[6] The top-level findings from Konrath's review show that even giving a small amount of money can increase the happiness of givers (Aknin et al. 2012; Dunn et al. 2008). There is some evidence that giving too little or too much of one's time as a volunteer can both be problematic (Windsor et al. 2008). The effects of giving on happiness seem to be *immediate*. Based on experimental studies, the happiness effects of giving money provide positive effects that last up to one month (Tkach 2005) to 8 weeks later (Dunn et al. 2008). There are important gaps in the research around the longer-term benefits of altruistic acts. Although the effects of giving money and time will likely be larger when such giving is voluntary, there is evidence that even when people are asked to do it (e.g. in a laboratory or classroom setting), they still experience some increases in wellbeing (Dunn et al. 2008; Switzer et al. 1999; Tkach 2005).

Meier and Stutzer's (2004) study of the impact of not volunteering on life satisfaction in Germany assesses the impact of volunteering in a manner that provides for robust causal interpretation. They use the reunification between East and West in Germany to provide a natural experiment for an exogenous change in volunteering status. This allows the study to test the impacts of volunteering where people were 'forced' to stop volunteering irrespective of any underlying factor or personality trait that may jointly affect the probability of volunteering and life satisfaction. They find that losing the opportunity (or not being able to continue) to volunteer weekly or monthly leads to a 0.23 index point drop in life satisfaction on an 11-point scale, amounting to about a two per cent change in life satisfaction. Compared to other life events and circumstances in Meier and Stutzer's model, the negative effect of not being able to volunteer is similar to the effect of being divorced and about a third of the effect of being unemployed.

Binder and Freytag (2012) use data from six waves of the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS) applying matching estimators to estimate the causal impact of volunteering on happiness, taking into account personality traits (self-ratings along the Big Five personality dimensions of Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism and Openness) that could jointly determine volunteering behaviour and happiness. The study observes

[3] Evaluative wellbeing measures involve the individual stepping back and evaluating their life.
[4] Affective wellbeing measures how people feel in the moment.
[5] Eudemonic wellbeing refers to whether people feel that their lives have purpose (irrespective of how happy they may feel).
[6] In a recent meta-review Richards et al. (2013) analyse 40 experimental and cohort studies comparing the physical and mental health outcomes for a volunteering group (intervention) compared with a non-volunteering group (control). Cohort studies show volunteering has favourable effects on depression, life satisfaction and wellbeing but not on physical health. However, these findings were largely unconfirmed by experimental studies and there was insufficient evidence to demonstrate a consistent influence of volunteering type or intensity on outcomes.

differences in the SWB of those who change from no volunteering to volunteering at least monthly. The impact of starting to volunteer monthly or weekly on life satisfaction is calculated as 0.0947 on a scale of 1-7. This effect on life satisfaction increases to 0.1338 for those who continue to volunteer in the following two years. This leads the authors to conclude that the volunteering effort is subject to increasing returns in terms of wellbeing. An alternative suggestion is that it takes volunteers time to realise the benefits of volunteering.

The authors also find that the impact of volunteering on SWB is driven by reducing the unhappiness of the less happy, rather than adding anything to those who are already happy. The authors suggest that policy interventions should be designed to frame volunteering as decreasing the unhappiness of those who already have low levels of SWB. Finally, Binder and Freytag find differences in terms of personality traits: First, those with low extraversion and low neuroticism have significant SWB benefits from volunteering, while highly extravert individuals do not show significant benefits from volunteering. Second, people that score highly on the agreeable and conscientious scales exhibit impacts that are nearly twice as large for weekly volunteering as the whole sample.

Borgonovi (2008) examines the association between engaging in voluntary activity and levels of self-reported health and happiness. Drawing on US data on voluntary labour for religious groups and organisations and using two-stage least square regressions, the study finds that religious volunteering has a positive, causal influence on self-reported happiness but not on self-reported health.

Son and Wilson (2012) use two waves of panel data from the National Survey of Midlife in the United States to examine the relationship between volunteer work and three dimensions of wellbeing: positive mood, purpose, and sense of belonging to the community. Results show that volunteering enhances sense of purpose and belonging but not positive affect. Conversely, people who have greater hedonic, eudemonic, and social wellbeing are more likely to volunteer and, in the case of hedonic and eudemonic wellbeing, volunteer more hours.

In one notable study, Choi and Kim (2011) use the US Midlife Development study (MIDUS, 1995–1996 and MIDUS II, 2004–2006) to examine whether time volunteering and charitable donations nine years earlier had a positive direct effect on psychological wellbeing (measured as self-acceptance; positive relationships with other people; autonomy; environmental mastery; purpose in life; and personal growth) among individuals aged 55 and above. They found that a moderate amount (up to ten hours monthly) of time volunteering and any amount of charitable donations had a direct positive effect on psychological wellbeing nine years later. The findings also show a greater effect on psychological wellbeing of any amount of charitable donations than of any amount of time volunteering, although the extent of the effect of both time volunteering and charitable donations was small.

Dolan (2014) reports the findings from the American Time Use survey using questions on the pleasure and purpose respondents felt during specific activities performed the day before. Volunteering was among the highest rated activities recorded for both pleasure and purpose, with relatively more purpose than pleasure. Dolan's analysis explores the interaction of activities when performed with others, finding that volunteering is more pleasurable and purposeful when performed with other people.

Fujiwara et al. (2013) look at the effect of volunteering on life satisfaction using four waves of the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS). Fujiwara et al. estimate that not being able to volunteer equates to a 1.9% reduction in life satisfaction, comparable to findings from Meier and Stutzer (2004).

Mellor et al. (2008) investigate the relationship between volunteering and personal and neighbourhood wellbeing on a sample of 1,289 Australian adults. Analyses reveal that volunteers had a higher wellbeing than non-volunteers and that volunteering contributed additional variance in wellbeing even after psychosocial and personality factors were accounted for.

2.1.3. Methodology

This section will analyse the benefits to individuals of volunteering using the BHPS and Taking Part datasets. We look at SWB outcomes and also health outcomes since health is a significant driver of wellbeing.

We use multiple regression analysis to understand the relationships between volunteering and health and wellbeing outcomes. Regression allows us to understand the statistical relationships between two variables after controlling for the effects of other factors. A key issue that we face in this analysis is that any observed relationship between SWB and volunteering may be due to a host of factors aside from volunteering. For example, healthier or richer people may be more likely to volunteer and they will also have higher levels of wellbeing anyway (regardless of whether they volunteer) and so the observed relationship between SWB and volunteering in this case would in part be due to health and income rather than the effect to volunteering per se. This is an issue known as selection bias. Another potential problem is reverse causality, which means that the observed relationship between SWB and volunteering is because higher wellbeing causes people to volunteer rather than the other way around.

In order to nullify these effects as much as possible, multiple regression analysis is used to control for other factors that may be driving the observed relationships. We control for all of the main determinants of wellbeing and health in the models. This gives us a better idea of cause and effect, although we can only really make definitive causal statements through experiments and similar studies because it is very rare that we can control for all of the confounding factors in a study. The methods we use here come with these caveats, but they are the best available methods we can use given the nature of the data and they are used extensively in published academic research.

All of the main national datasets that include questions on health and wellbeing were explored and the following three datasets were found to have variables covering health and wellbeing outcomes as well as questions on volunteering:

- The British Household Panel Survey;
- Taking Part Survey; and

- Community Life Survey[7].

We use the data from these surveys to assess the association between volunteering and the following health and wellbeing outcomes:

- Life satisfaction (BHPS, Community Life);
- Happiness (Taking Part);
- Anxiety (Community Life);
- Sense of worthwhile (Community Life);
- Self-reported general health (BHPS, Taking Part, Community Life);
- Mental health – measured through the 12-item General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) (BHPS);
- A range of reported health conditions (BHPS).

The following regression model is used as the base for all of the analyses:

$$WB_{it} = \alpha + \beta_1 V_{it} + \beta_2 X_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \qquad (1)$$

Where WB_{it} is the measure of health or wellbeing for individual i at time t; V_{it} is the volunteering-related variable of interest; X_{it} is a vector of the other main determinants of health and wellbeing; and ε_{it} is the error term. In vector X_{it} we control for as many of the main determinants of health and subjective wellbeing as possible as set out in Fujiwara and Campbell (2011). These include household income, marital status, parental status, employment status, health, age, geographic region, education and housing status.

Equation (1) is run once for each health and wellbeing outcome (dependent variable) and for each health and wellbeing outcome the model is run once for each volunteering-related variable, giving us a total of 35 models. We do not include all of the volunteering-related variables together in one model due to the risk of multicollinearity, which would invalidate the results for individual variables and inflate standard errors.

All health and wellbeing models are run using ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis with fixed effects regression for panel data, which assumes that the error term is composed of time-variant and time-invariant elements. Where the dependent variable is a binary variable, this model is run using logit regression analysis.

The study also looks at the association between volunteering and general health and happiness outcomes in the Taking Part dataset by different socio-demographic groups. This is done by adding an interactive term to the base model in equation (1):

$$WB_{it} = \alpha + \beta_1 V_{it} + \beta_2 V_{it} \cdot D_{it} + \beta_3 X_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \qquad (2)$$

where D_{it} is the socio-demographic factor of interest and is interacted with the volunteering-related variables. The coefficient of interest here is β_2. Heterogeneous factors

[7] Community Life is an annual cross-sectional survey collected by the UK Cabinet Office since 2012 to look at the latest trends in areas such as volunteering, charitable giving, local action and networks and wellbeing.

include (variable D_{it} in equation (2)): (i) older groups (59+) compared to other age groups; (ii) people on lower incomes (under £10,000 per annum); and (iii) people who are not in employment (i.e. not in full-time employment, part-time employment, or self-employment).

2.1.4. Results

2.1.4.1. Summary statistics

We explored the different types of volunteering that people do in the UK through the Taking Part Survey. 24% (15,330) of people sampled had done some form of voluntary work during the previous 12 months.[8] These individuals were asked how much time they had spent on different types of volunteering in the past four weeks. 17% indicated that they had given some time to sport volunteering, 6% had volunteered in the arts, 5% in heritage sites, 1% in museums or galleries, and less than 1% in libraries and archives.

2.1.4.2. General volunteering

Appendix Table A2 shows the results of our core statistical model using fixed effects regression in the BHPS data. Because fixed effects regression uses only the within-person variation in volunteering, it allows for much better causal attribution in the results. The model requires panel data and, in the UK, the BHPS is the only panel dataset which includes volunteering variables. Although the variety of volunteering variables is low in the BHPS compared to other datasets (such as Community Life), these core models allow us to assess whether volunteering is associated with health and wellbeing under stricter modelling and statistical conditions, and hence if an association exists. It permits more confidence in our findings generally in this study when we move away from panel data, although we should note the caveats associated with all of the methods used here.

We find that even after controlling for a wide range of factors, including time-invariant factors (fixed effects) such as personality characteristics and preferences towards volunteering, volunteering is associated with improved wellbeing measured as life satisfaction and GHQ (lower GHQ scores represent better mental health), and better general health.

In terms of our key variable life satisfaction, to put these effects into perspective the associated impact of volunteering is roughly equal to the effect of living in a safe area and it is about one-seventh of the effect of full-time employment on life satisfaction. In respect of general health, the associated impact of volunteering is about half of the effect of full-time employment and for GHQ mental health scores, the associated impact of volunteering is considerably higher than the effect of full-time employment.

2.1.4.3. Volunteering type

Appendix Table A3 shows the results for type of volunteering, and health and wellbeing, looking at informal, formal and employment place volunteering. These models use the Community Life survey and hence we can look at a range of wellbeing measures.

We find that all types of volunteering (having volunteered in the past month) are strongly

[8] Note that the slight difference in results between the two surveys is likely to come from differences in survey wording: BHPS = “How often: do voluntary work”; TP = “During the last 12 months, have you done any voluntary work?”

correlated with higher levels of purpose and worthwhile (eudemonic wellbeing).

Interestingly none of the types of volunteering are statistically associated with reductions in anxiety.

Formal volunteering has the strongest associations with health and wellbeing. It is associated with higher levels of life satisfaction, happiness, purpose and general health. The association between formal volunteering and purpose is much higher than the equivalent associations between informal volunteering, and employment-based volunteering and purpose. We also find that informal volunteering is positively associated with general health, but to a much smaller degree than formal volunteering. Informal volunteering and employment-based volunteering are not statistically associated with any of the other wellbeing measures.

Since the different SWB measures are related to some extent (e.g. life satisfaction will be influenced by the extent to which life is purposeful), the results clearly show that the common finding in the literature of a positive association between volunteering (which will usually include all types of volunteering) and global measures of wellbeing, such as life satisfaction, is being driven to a large extent by the effect on purpose: first and foremost volunteering is important for our wellbeing because it brings a sense of purpose to our lives.

Focusing on the main volunteering variable, formal volunteering, we find that the positive association between formal volunteering and life satisfaction is about the same as the impact of full-time employment on life satisfaction, and that the association between formal volunteering and purpose is larger than the impact of full-time employment on sense of purpose, but smaller than the impact of being married on sense of purpose.

2.1.4.4. Volunteering sector and activity

With these results in mind, we now look at the models for different types of volunteering activity using cross-sectional regression models with the Taking Part and Community Life datasets.

Volunteering sector (Taking Part)

We look at volunteering generally, including volunteering in sport, in galleries, in the arts, in heritage sites, in libraries, and in archives. We look at the association between volunteering in these areas and happiness, which is the only wellbeing measure in the Taking Part survey (Appendix Table A4).

Out of the seven types of volunteering that we look at in Appendix Table A4, we find that only general volunteering and volunteering in sport have statistically significant associations with wellbeing (happiness). All other types of volunteering are positively associated with happiness, but not in a statistically significant way. This may, to some extent, be the result of small sample sizes for some of the models (e.g. volunteering in libraries and volunteering in archives). The results suggest that volunteering in sport is an important driver of wellbeing and the coefficient for sport volunteering is slightly larger than the coefficient for general volunteering. The regression coefficient represents the average change in the outcome of interest (e.g. happiness) for one unit of change in the predictor variable (e.g. whether the respondent volunteers in sport or does not, or each additional hour a person volunteers) while holding other factors like socio-demographic controls constant. However, the results cannot

be interpreted as meaning that the association between volunteering overall and happiness is being driven solely by sport volunteering, because sport volunteering is only one aspect of the overall volunteering variable, which will capture any type of volunteering, including those not included in the present list of types of volunteering.

We find that the positive association between volunteering in sport and happiness is equal to about a quarter of the impact of being married on happiness.

Volunteering activity (Community Life)

We look at the associations between life satisfaction and the following specific volunteering activities as set out in Appendix Table A5. Most of the volunteering activities are positively associated with life satisfaction, although only four out of the 11 activities are statistically significant. 'Keeping in touch with someone who has difficulty getting out and about (visiting in person, telephoning or e-mailing)'; 'Looking after a property or a pet for someone who is away'; and 'Babysitting or caring for children' are all positively associated with life satisfaction, whilst 'Giving advice' is negatively associated with life satisfaction.

2.1.4.5. Volunteering frequency

Where possible, we looked at frequency of volunteering and its link to health and wellbeing. Although the data did not allow us to explore this in much detail (few datasets contain data on frequency and even where they do, the frequency variable is coded using fairly arbitrary categories), using the BHPS dataset we found that with respect to health, there is a decreasing positive association with volunteering frequency (any type of volunteering). That is, more volunteering is associated with better health but at a decreasing rate. This suggests that there will be a point at which 'too much' volunteering is bad for health, but we cannot estimate this exact point from the data because of the structure of the volunteering frequency variable.

2.1.4.6. Heterogeneous effects of volunteering

Using the Taking Part dataset, we assess how the association between volunteering and health and wellbeing differs across the population by age, gender, income and employment status. We focus on general volunteering and volunteering in sport (the two types of volunteering that were statistically significant in Appendix Table A4).

For happiness, we find that for the general volunteering variable there is no statistical difference between genders and between the age categories 16-37 and 38-58. However, we find that the positive association between general volunteering and happiness is larger for (i) older groups (59+) compared to other age groups; (ii) people on lower incomes (under £10,000 per annum); and (iii) people who are not in employment (i.e. not in full time employment, part time employment, or self-employment) (Appendix Table A6).

For good health we find similar results. We find that the positive association between general volunteering and health is larger for (i) older groups (59+) compared to other age groups; and (ii) people who are not in employment (i.e. not in full-time employment, part-time employment, or self-employment) (Appendix Table A7).

2.1.4.7. Conclusion

We performed extensive analyses of large UK population datasets on volunteering, health and wellbeing. The results clearly support the common finding in the literature of a positive association between volunteering and global measures of wellbeing such as life satisfaction. In particular, all types of volunteering are strongly correlated with higher levels of purpose and worthwhile (eudemonic wellbeing). This suggests that first and foremost, volunteering is important for our wellbeing because it brings a sense of purpose to our lives.

Volunteering is associated with improved wellbeing measured as life satisfaction (about one-seventh of the effect of full-time employment), better general health (about half of the effect of full-time employment) and better GHQ mental health scores (considerably higher than the effect of full-time employment).

Formal volunteering has the strongest associations with health and wellbeing. The positive association between formal volunteering and life satisfaction is about the same as the impact of full-time employment on life satisfaction and the association between formal volunteering and purpose is larger than the impact of full-time employment.

Out of the seven types of volunteering that we look at we find that only general volunteering and volunteering in sport have statistically significant associations with wellbeing (happiness), equal to about a quarter of the impact of being married on happiness.

The results suggest that volunteering in sport is an important driver of wellbeing and the coefficient for sport volunteering is slightly larger than the coefficient for general volunteering. However, we note that sport volunteering is only one aspect of the overall volunteering variable.

The positive association between general volunteering and happiness or health is larger for older groups and people who are not in employment. The positive association between general volunteering and happiness is larger for people on lower incomes, but this finding is not repeated for health.

With respect to health, there is a decreasing positive association with volunteering frequency (any type of volunteering). That is, more volunteering is associated with better health but at a decreasing rate. This suggests that there will be a point at which too much volunteering is associated with worsening health, but we cannot estimate this exact point from the data because of the structure of the volunteering frequency variable.

Volunteering at work – businesses and staff volunteering

In the UK in 2007, three in 10 employees worked for an employer that had both a volunteering and a giving scheme, while one-fifth worked for an employer with either a giving or volunteering scheme (Low et al. 2007). Employees working for larger companies were more likely to work for an employer that had both a volunteering and a giving scheme. Where an employer-supported volunteering scheme was available, 29% of employees had participated in volunteering in the past year. Take-up of employer-supported giving schemes was higher, with 42% of employees making use of a giving scheme available to them. The key factors that would facilitate people taking part in both types of schemes were identified as paid time off, being able to choose the activity and gaining skills from taking part.

In this section we assess the benefits for businesses associated with employee volunteering. Here we look at business-related indicators such as those associated with productivity, company image and profitability as is standard in business performance analysis.

2.2.1. Literature review

We explore the literature on employee volunteering and business performance, touching on related issues such as corporate social responsibility (CSR) and philanthropy.

Rodell (2013) develops a survey of employed students in universities in the US Southeast. The study finds that employee volunteering can facilitate job performance, defined as job absorption measured with the six-item absorption scale (Rich et al. 2010). This suggests that employee volunteering can boost business performance and employee productivity. Basil et al. (2009) develop a telephone survey with 900 Canadian companies examining company support for employee volunteerism. They find that companies' corporate social responsibility efforts in encouraging employees to volunteer enhance employee morale.

Poor employee engagement has been found to be associated with decreased productivity and staff retention rates. According to the 2011 Gallup survey, 70% of American workers feel disengaged in their current positions, with 19% of the workforce feeling "actively disengaged."[9] Employee volunteering may help to improve employee engagement. YouGov conducted two surveys with over 500 managers and 1,000 other employees and found that 59% of managers within large organisations agree that volunteering keeps employees more engaged at work.[10]

The London Benchmarking Group reported that average staff participation in volunteering for their member firms was 24% in 2014 (London Benchmarking Group 2014). Gammon and Ellison (2010) find that volunteers are more engaged, enthusiastic and motivated, leading to higher productivity and reduced sick leave. Employee volunteering has also been found to be associated with improved employee attitudes towards their employer, with employee volunteers being twice as likely to rate corporate culture as very positive (56% v. 28%), more

[9] http://www.gallup.com/poll/181289/majority-employees-not-engaged-despite-gains-2014.aspx
[10] http://www.employeevolunteering.co.uk/assets/downloads/8.%20Vinspired%20IOD%20Report.pdf

likely to feel very loyal toward their company (52% v. 33%), and more likely to be very satisfied with their employer (51% v. 32%) (Collins and Haddad 2004). This has important knock on effects to firms' profitability. According to Wyatt (2009), companies in the USA with engaged employees experience 26% higher revenue per employee, 13% total higher total returns to shareholders, and a 50% higher market premium (Wyatt 2009).

For employees, volunteering can bring benefits to their own earnings and career progression. Nearly three quarters (72%) of employers agree or strongly agree that volunteering can have a positive effect on an individual's career progression, with nearly half (48%) of employers saying that job candidates with volunteering experience are more motivated than other candidates (Gammon and Ellison 2010). Volunteers also report improvements in work-based skills, leadership, communication, and teamwork (Collins and Haddad 2004). Gammon and Ellison (2010) also reported that 96% of managers thought volunteering enhanced skills.

Other areas of research have addressed the benefits that employees gain through employer-supported volunteering. Booth et al. (2009) explore the benefits from employer-supported volunteering on a nationally representative sample of volunteers in the USA (n = 3,658). Findings suggest that employer-supported volunteering benefits are positively correlated with hours volunteered by the employee. Volunteer hours are found to predict employee perceptions of skill acquisition, and such perceptions are positively correlated with perceptions of job success and employer recognition.

De Gilder et al. (2005) report on the internal effects of employee volunteering amongst employees of the Dutch ABN-AMRO bank. The study finds that socio-demographic characteristics of volunteer employees markedly differ from those of non-volunteers and community volunteers. Furthermore, the study found positive associations between employee volunteering and attitudes, and behaviour towards the organisation.

Hansen and Schrader (2005) performed a meta-review of the academic literature around corporate philanthropy within the field of CSR. The review finds that CSR has a positive influence on employee attraction, motivation, and retention, improved customer acquisition and retention, and a positive influence on stock price, return and revenues. Similarly, Heal (2005) has shown that CSR leads to improved employee productivity, efficiency gains, and improved brand value. Corporate philanthropy theory holds that firms obtain benefits from CSR activities including reputational enhancement, the ability to attract more highly qualified personnel, and ability to generate profits by differentiating their products (Siegel and Vitaliano 2007). Findings from the literature indicate that stakeholders, including employees, consumers, investors and legislators, have increased their expectations for CSR over the period 1997-2001 (Dawkins and Lewis 2003). Corporate contributions have been shown to affect a company's profitability, with corporate contributions estimated to account for some 0.32 per cent of the actual sales growth in consumer-focused industries, meaning that a $500,000 rise in charitable giving would increase sales by $3 million, gross profit by $1.32 million, and net income by $791,500 (Lev et al. 2010),[11] while prospective employees have been shown to consider the firm's social performance in their decision to join a company (Backhaus et al. 2002).

[11] We note that Seifert et al. (Seifert et al. 2003, 2004) reported no significant association between corporate giving and profitability, regardless of the measures applied for both philanthropy and financial performance.

Analysis

2.3.1. Benefits of workplace volunteering

We explored the BHPS data to estimate the benefits of workplace volunteering empirically. The key variable that is related to company performance that we could look at in the available data was absenteeism. We analysed those individuals who were off work in the last week due to sickness or injury. We applied logistic regression analysis to calculate the likelihood that those who had volunteered in the last 12 months are more or less likely to have been off work due to illness or sickness in the last week. This method allows us to understand the extent to which volunteering is associated with absenteeism.

The result of our unconditional logit show that volunteering is associated with a 0.02% reduction in absenteeism. Since the Health and Safety Executive have estimated the total cost to the UK economy of absenteeism at £8.7bn, this reduction represents a benefit of £17.4m.

2.3.2. Reasons for workplace volunteering

We explored the Community Life dataset to understand the reasons that people give for employee volunteering or for having stopped volunteering. We were interested in understanding whether work commitments (for instance, hours of work, high pressure jobs) have an impact on whether people volunteer or not.

Appendix Table A8 shows the stated reasons for participating in employee volunteering using a subsample of responses from individuals who indicated that they had been involved in employee volunteering in the past 12 months within the Community Life dataset. The top three motivations for employee volunteering were: 'I wanted to improve things/help people' (18.37%); 'because the cause was really important to me' (11.7%); and 'to provide a chance to use my existing skills' (9.61%).

Appendix Table A9 shows the stated reasons for stopping participation in employee volunteering. The top three reasons were: 'not enough time due to changing home/work circumstances' (37.6%); 'it was a one-off activity or event' (12.74%); and 'not enough time – getting involved took up too much time' (8.92%).

We also test whether some professions volunteer more than others. We used Standard Occupation Category codes (SOC 2010) within the Community Life survey. SOC codes provide occupational information at different levels of detail: from major groups to specific job roles. Due to the limitations of sample size within the Community Life survey we restricted analysis to eight major occupational groups. We were unable to include employment-related variables like job satisfaction and hours worked because these variables were not available in the Community Life dataset, or suffered from considerable sample size issues. However, we were able to include a variable on number of employees at the place of work. Appendix Table A10 sets out the proportions of people who do general volunteering (in their personal time) and employee volunteering by SOC category.

Appendix Table A11 sets out the results of analysis that looks at the extent to which being in these job categories is associated with volunteering in the past 12 months after controlling for

a range of other factors.

We find that being employed in managerial positions, professional and associate professional/technical occupations, administrative and secretarial workers, caring and leisure, and sales and customer service occupations is a significant driver of volunteering, both for general volunteering and employer volunteering. This is compared to working in elementary occupations. Working in skilled trades occupations and process, plant and machine operatives is not a significant driver of volunteering. This suggests that volunteering, in both general and employer volunteering, is less likely from within manual and skilled occupations than professional and service sectors. These findings are consistent with the results on individuals in the previous section above.

2.3.3. Summary of benefits of volunteering

To recap our findings so far, extensive analysis of the existing UK data shows a positive association between volunteering and global measures of wellbeing, GHQ, and health. In particular, all types of volunteering are strongly correlated with higher levels of purpose and worthwhile, while the associations between volunteering, health and wellbeing are strongest for formal volunteering.

The positive association between general volunteering and happiness and health is larger for older groups and people who are not in employment, while the positive association between general volunteering and happiness is larger for people on lower incomes.

We find that volunteering in sport is an important driver of wellbeing and the coefficient for sport volunteering is slightly larger than the coefficient for general volunteering.

We also identify the benefits of employer volunteering. Our results show that volunteering is associated with a 0.02% reduction in absenteeism, leading to an estimated cost reduction to the UK economy of £17.4m.

In terms of employment sectors, we find that that volunteering, in both general and employer volunteering, is less likely from within manual and skilled occupations than professional and service sectors.

The most common motivations why people started employer volunteering were to improve things or help people, because the cause was important to them, and because it gave them the chance to use their existing skills.

The most common reasons why people stopped employer volunteering were that they had insufficient time due to changing home/work circumstances or because it took up too much time, and because it was a one-off activity or event.

The virtuous cycle of volunteering

In Part 2 we discussed and set out the evidence for the benefits of volunteering. We have looked at the benefits for health and ultimately for wellbeing. As we have argued above wellbeing is of intrinsic value to us and it is something we care about for its own sake, but there are questions around whether wellbeing in itself can foster further positive behaviours. The growing evidence in this area would strongly suggest that volunteering is a unique area in that there may be a self-fulfilling virtuous relationship – a 'virtuous cycle' – between volunteering and wellbeing, whereby (i) people who volunteer feel better in their general wellbeing; and (ii) because of this people then actually become more altruistic; and then (iii) volunteer more as a result. This will then lead onto more wellbeing and so on in a virtuous cycle.

Inferring causality from volunteering to wellbeing and back again is an issue that has been discussed by Thoits and Hewitt (2001) and Dolan et al. (2008). Thoits and Hewitt (2001) show that life satisfaction predicts increases in hours spent volunteering, such that happy people volunteer more. The authors conjecture that the relationship is bi-directional: those who are satisfied with their lives may be more motivated to behave in ways that help others by demonstrating citizenship behaviours and volunteerism. Brooks (2006, 2007) also argues in favour of this bi-directionality, citing correlational studies where charitable behaviour is positively associated with both happiness and good health. Brooks coins the term 'virtuous circle': individuals who are altruistic profit from their behaviour in terms of being more (economically) successful and happier and this in turn reinforces their altruistic behaviours, creating a socially beneficial upwards spiral.

Binder and Freytag (2013), however, note two complications of this relationship. First, altruistic behaviour, when understood as caregiving to family members, has been shown to depress subjective wellbeing considerably (Hirst 2005). This can be explained with the loss of self-determination involved in caring for family as opposed to voluntary altruistic acts towards strangers. The second complication arises out of the complex interactions altruism can show with factors that also influence wellbeing. One factor is personality traits. Another potentially confounding factor may be income. However, our analysis controls for a wide range of factors including income and the fixed effects models that we used with the BHPS data controls for underlying personality traits and we still find a strong positive association between volunteering and wellbeing.

2.4.1. Explaining the virtuous cycle of volunteering

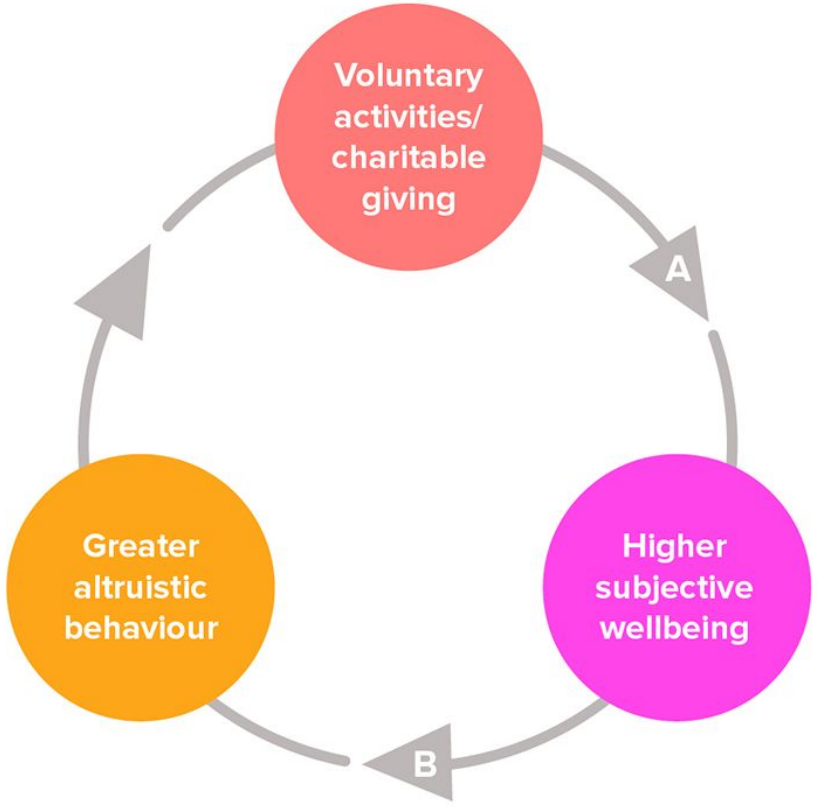


Figure 2.4 - Virtuous cycle of volunteering

A: Volunteering activities lead to increased wellbeing

We have presented a number of studies that demonstrate the important link between volunteering and wellbeing measured as SWB. Whilst experiments (whereby volunteering status is randomly assigned) are the best method of assessing cause and effect, they have not been conducted and are unlikely to be undertaken in the area of volunteering. But, a number of studies have used statistical strategies that provide a high degree of confidence in the findings. To recap, when assessing the relationship between volunteering and SWB we need to be wary that certain types of people will select into volunteering (selection bias) and that higher SWB may cause volunteering rather than the other way around. A number of studies (e.g. Stutzer and Frey 2004) have addressed these issues in robust ways by looking at trends in volunteering and SWB after controlling for other determinants of SWB and by assessing circumstances where volunteering status essentially became random due to policy changes. And our own analysis using fixed effects regression modelling also allows for a more robust causal interpretation. Although we cannot be sure of the exact magnitude or size of the impact of volunteering on SWB, these more robust studies are consistent in finding a positive effect of volunteering and hence we can assume given the current best possible evidence that volunteering leads to higher levels of wellbeing as indicated by arrow A in Figure 2.1.

B: Higher subjective wellbeing leads to more altruistic behaviour

Some consensus exists that there is an association between altruism and wellbeing (e.g.

Brooks 2006; Dolan et al. 2008; Post 2005). Anik et al. (2009) provide an extensive review of experimental research from adults, children and primates demonstrating that happier people give more and that giving causes increased happiness. These studies are outlined in Section 3.1.1. The authors conclude that these two relationships may operate in a circular fashion.

Lyubomirsky et al. (2005) review the literature on the benefits of positive affect, which implies that individuals with higher levels of happiness are better able to benefit and be successful in other life domains, including marriage, friendship, income, work performance, and health.

The characteristics related to positive affect include confidence; optimism and self-efficacy; sociability; increased activity and energy; prosocial behaviour; physical wellbeing; effective coping with challenge and stress; and originality and flexibility in people's thinking. Lyubomirsky et al. hypothesise that happy moods lead to helping through increases in positive thoughts and more favourable judgments of others, which encourage active involvement with goal pursuits. For example, by increasing liking for other people (Baron 1993; Griffitt 1970) and enhancing one's sense of advantageous resources and good fortune that should be shared equitably with others (Aderman 1972).[12]

Lyubomirsky et al. review experimental research that altruism may follow from happiness, as well as the reverse. They follow Thoits and Hewitt (2001) who showed that the causal connection between volunteer work and subjective wellbeing is bidirectional, such that those with high happiness and life satisfaction increased the hours they spent in volunteer activities over the course of the study.

Happy moods, in comparison with sad or neutral moods, have been shown in experimental research to promote behaviours such as contributing money to charity (Cunningham et al. 1980; Isen 1970), donating blood (O'Malley and Andrews 1983), and volunteering for experiments (Aderman 1972; Baron et al. 1990; Baron and Bronfen 1994; Isen and Levin 1972; Rosenhan et al. 1981). Rosenhan, Underwood, and Moore (1974) randomly primed primary school children to happy and sad moods through reminiscence of happy or sad events. Then the children were given the opportunity to give money that they had just been given to other students if they wished. Happy children gave more money away to classmates. Isen and Levin (1972) show that after experiencing positive events (such as receiving cookies, or finding a dime left in a payphone), participants are more likely to volunteer in reply to a student's request and help to pick up papers dropped in front of them. Replicating this effect in a different context, Aderman (1972) found that participants induced into a positive mood were more likely to help with a favour to the researcher during the experiment, and even promised to help by participating in a second experiment.

Short-term positive affect has been found to trigger greater liking and fondness for others. In one famous example, students were asked to conduct a simulated job interview. After the interview, those who had been previously induced into a positive mood rated the applicant

[12] Other factors driving the success of happier people include the expectation that helpfulness will evoke gratitude and appreciation (Clark and Waddell 1983; Cunningham 1988), and that those with higher positive affect may be more likely to recall the positive aspects of their past helping experiences (Clark and Isen 1982) and to view themselves as more generous people, as well as to feel more confident, efficacious, resource laden, in control, and optimistic about their ability to help (Clark and Isen 1982; Cunningham 1988; Taylor and Brown 1988).

higher on a number of job-related and personal dimensions and were more likely to "hire" them (Baron, 1987, 1993).

In the following section we review studies on wellbeing and altruism published since the Lyubomirsky et al. (2005) review. As noted by numerous commentators (Boenigk and Mayr 2015), the question of causality has been neglected. (Notable exceptions include Aknin et al. 2012; Meier and Stutzer 2008, see above). Konow and Earley (2008) apply a dictator game, where a proposer divides a fixed endowment between himself and a recipient. They find that individuals who reported higher happiness at the beginning of the game were more likely to give money to their partner.

Boenigk and Mayr (2015) use data from 6,906 charitable donors in the German Socio-Economic Panel 2009-10. They apply Cohen's path analysis to simultaneously explore the causal relationships between monetary giving and life satisfaction[13]. The authors determined the effect size of each causal path (happiness to volunteering and volunteering top happiness) (Cohen's d) controlling for income, education, religion, health, family, job and optimism, with additional validation through subsample analysis. The results of path analysis indicate that the causal direction from happiness to charitable giving is dominant, rather than the causal direction originating from charitable giving to happiness. In other words, happy people donate more, rather than people who donate becoming happier.

In sum, a range of studies, many of them experimental (using random assignment), indicate that higher wellbeing causally leads to more pro-social or altruistic behaviours. These behaviours include giving money, helping people, and contributing to social capital through personal relationships and conflict management These are traits and actions that are clearly aligned with giving time and volunteering and hence we expect that people with higher levels of wellbeing will as a consequence volunteer more.

Evidence supporting the virtuous cycle of volunteering

We have demonstrated a set of robust evidence and studies that in conjunction piece together the parts of the virtuous cycle jigsaw. Separate studies have shown that volunteering is likely to causally increase various measures of wellbeing and in turn increased wellbeing leads to more altruistic and pro-social behaviour and ultimately more volunteering. Therefore, there will be, we hypothesise, a virtuous ongoing cycle between volunteering and wellbeing which will benefit individuals, communities and society generally.

A number of studies have tested the idea of this virtuous cycle before. For example, Anik et al. (2009) test a number of stages in the hypothesized virtuous cycle of charitable giving. First, the authors prime a random sample of students to recollect and describe the last time they spent either twenty or one hundred dollars on themselves or someone else (an altruistic act). Respondents are then asked to report their happiness. Participants randomly assigned to recall a purchase made for others were significantly happier than participants assigned to recall a purchase made for themselves, suggesting that altruistic acts lead to greater

[13] The basic principle of Cohen's path analysis is that the estimated correlations between the latent constructs derived from path analysis should be as close as possible to their actual correlations (Callaghan et al. 2007; Cohen et al. 1993). The alternative model that is closest to these actual correlations represents the dominant causal path direction and thus is preferred to the alternative causal direction.

happiness. Next, each participant was given the opportunity to select the future spending behaviour they thought would make them happiest (five or twenty dollars to spend on themselves or others). Those who reported that they were happier were significantly more likely to spend on other people. In fact, happiness was found to be the only significant predictor of future spending choice. Participants made happier by recalling a previous purchase for someone else were significantly more likely to choose to give more in the future, supporting the hypothesis that pro-social spending and happiness fuel each other in a circular fashion.

This ongoing virtuous cycle in volunteering is arguably one of the very few policy areas where this can happen and so in this sense volunteering is quite unique and manifests itself as a hugely important area of policy. Having now discussed and understood the various benefits of volunteering for individuals and businesses, the next interesting question would be how we can get more people to volunteer given that rates of volunteering in the UK have stayed all but constant over the last few decades and this is the topic we shall cover in the rest of this paper.

Summary of the benefits of volunteering

Table 2.4 – Key findings	
Volunteering is associated with higher health and wellbeing, particularly for older and lower socio-economic groups, and the benefits of volunteering operate in a circular manner, encouraging further volunteering and better health and wellbeing	
Wellbeing	**Volunteering type**
Higher life satisfaction	Formal volunteering has the strongest associations with health & wellbeing.
Higher levels of purpose & worthwhile (eudemonic wellbeing)	General volunteering and volunteering in sport have significant associations with wellbeing.
	Sport volunteering has slightly larger effect magnitude than general volunteering
Health	**Older people**
Better general health	Benefits to happiness & health are larger for older groups
Better GHQ mental health scores	
Frequency of volunteering	**Lower income groups**
Volunteering is associated with better health but at a decreasing rate	Benefits to happiness and health are larger for people who are not in employment
	Benefits to happiness are larger for people on lower incomes
Virtuous cycle	**Employer volunteering**
Experimental studies show that charitable behaviour is positively associated with happiness and that happy people are more likely to be altruistic and hence volunteer more	Volunteering is less likely from within manual and skilled occupations than professional and service sectors
	Volunteering is associated with a 0.02% reduction in absenteeism

Chapter 3
Why people volunteer

Introduction – The drivers and barriers of volunteering

An extensive amount of data collection, surveys and research has been dedicated to assessing and understanding the drivers and barriers of volunteering. Here we review these studies and provide further new findings from our own research on the drivers and barriers of volunteering. This section provides the foundation for our discussion of how to increase and retain volunteers in Part Four of this report.

3.1.1. Drivers of volunteering

It is sometimes argued that altruism is the predominant motivation for volunteering (Andreoni 1990; Anik et al. 2009). Clary et al. (1998) propose that certain motives are essential for satisfaction and enjoyment to be derived from pro-social behaviours. For example, Nicols and King (1999) find that desire to help others was cited most frequently as the reason for volunteering. In an earlier study, Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) conducted interviews with around 250 volunteers to identify the motives contributing to people's decisions to volunteer and report that the most highly rated motive was altruism.

Other reasons for volunteering include some form of personal reward, such as feeling better about oneself, improving one's attitude to life, developing social relationships, or gaining educational experience and qualifications (Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen 1991). People may also volunteer to get career-related benefits (Clary and Snyder 1999; Peloza 2009). For example, volunteering at an organization of interest may help create valuable professional experience and networks, and lead to recognition from managers.

For many people, the motivation to volunteer is to engage in social participation and through a sense of civic participation, such as helping their neighbourhood or church, or engaging in political or mass media activity (Chambré 1987).

Wilson and Pimm (1996) assert that reasons for volunteering may also be as simple as the desire to wear a uniform which may give people a position of authority, such as volunteering for St. John Ambulance Brigade, or making use of the 'perks' provided through volunteering, such as attending free concerts and sporting events by being voluntary attendants.

We supplement this previous literature with analysis of volunteering using the UK Community Life Survey, a national cross-sectional dataset collected by the Cabinet Office since 2012 [14], and a YouGov survey commissioned in 2013. We analyse data for 2012-2014 from the Community Life Survey on volunteering and charitable giving, views about the local area, community cohesion and belonging, community empowerment and participation, influencing local decisions and local affairs, and subjective wellbeing, plus a wide range of socio-demographic variables (income, age, gender, marital status, education, employment, health status, religion, housing and environment, number of children, region, ethnicity, and

[14] https://www.gov.uk/government/collections/community-life-survey

social relations).

Appendix Table A12 shows the stated reasons for volunteering for men and women from the Community Life dataset. Men and women report the same top three motivations as (percentage men reporting/ percentage women reporting): wanting to improve things/help people (59%/56%); the cause was really important to me (38%/40%) and I had spare time to do it (34%/34%).

Appendix Table A13 shows the stated motivations for volunteering amongst the general population taken from a YouGov survey commissioned in July 2013 containing a sample size of 2,094 UK adults. The top three stated motivations for volunteering for males were: to help improve my local area (35%); if a friend asked me to help them (33%); and if the skills I have were needed (29%). Female responses differed with the top three being: if a friend asked me to help them (43%); to feel part of the community (36%); and to help disadvantaged people (35%).

Together these data demonstrate that people volunteer for a number of different types of reasons. Partly these are altruistic reasons related to the importance of a specific cause, the needs of a specific group of disadvantaged people, or a general desire to improve things and help people in society. But people are also motivated to volunteer because they have spare time in their lives. In this way volunteering can be seen both as an activity that fills a 'purpose gap' in people's lives, and as an outcome that is more likely when the activity is made easier to do. The YouGov poll also suggests that people volunteer more when they feel they are needed and that volunteering has a key social element, whether feeling part of a community or doing voluntary activities with friends.

Table 3.1 shows the main aims of volunteering for different population groups; these are the outcomes that people would like to achieve as a result of/during their voluntary work. For example, we find that for older age cohorts satisfaction from seeing the results of their voluntary work is the main aim for volunteering, whilst for younger cohorts meeting people and learning new skills are more important factors. There are important differences in terms of the aims of volunteering between different age groups, between the employed, unemployed and students, between people with different levels of education, and between males and females.

Table 3.1 – Aims and objectives for doing voluntary work by different population groups

Student (higher education)	**Older age**
chance to do things I'm good at	satisfaction from seeing the results
broadens my experience of life	
sense of personal achievement	**Younger age**
chance to learn new skills	meet people and make friends
chance to improve my employment opportunities	chance to learn new skills
	gives me the chance to get a recognised qualification
Unemployed people	gives me more confidence
gives me the chance to get a recognised qualification	
gives me more confidence	**Male**
chance to improve my employment	chance to do things I'm good at
	improves my physical health
Employed people	
improves my physical health	**Female**
	meet people and make friends
Education (degree and above)	enjoyment
chance to do things I'm good at	broadens my experience of life
broadens my experience of life	chance to learn new skills
sense of personal achievement	gives me more confidence
	chance to improve my employment
Education (upto degree level)	
meet people and make friends	**Poor health (health limiting condition)**
enjoyment	chance to do things I'm good at
gives me more confidence	gives me more confidence

3.1.2. Barriers to volunteering

Sundeen et al. (2007) compare the socio-demographic profile of 71,312 non-volunteers to volunteers in the US in 2001-2002. They study the types and frequencies of barriers to volunteering, organized in four main groups: scarce resources (time, health, child care, transportation, paid expenses), lack of interest in formal volunteering (nothing), social isolation (better information, employer), low skills congruence (skills and activity match), and other, controlling for a range of socio-demographic factors.[15] The results suggest that most common barriers to volunteering are lack of time (identified by 43% of non-volunteers), followed by lack of interest in formal volunteering (27%) and health issues (14%).

Certain demographic factors have been identified as important barriers to volunteering. Older people report barriers to volunteering in terms of competing time commitments and financial constraints, lack of confidence in their own abilities, fear of over-commitment, fear of age discrimination and poor physical or mental health (Cheek et al. 2015; Warburton et al. 2007). Older adults of lower socio-economic status and diverse ethnic backgrounds have reported feeling too burned out to volunteer. Other common barriers cited among older adults of lower socio-economic status and diverse ethnic backgrounds are having family responsibilities, not being asked, and not being aware of voluntary opportunities that would interest them (Martinez et al. 2011).

Studies that focus on the role of specific socio-demographic characteristics have been found to yield contradictory results. For example, while financial constraints are mentioned as a barrier by older adults of lower socio-economic status, they represent no concern for surgeons (Martinez et al. 2011; McGinigle et al. 2008).

An extensive literature exists on the barriers to and benefits from volunteering among people with mental health disabilities. Common barriers include a lack of clear image of volunteering, negative attitudes, low confidence, fears of over-commitment and loss of welfare benefits, over-formal selection procedures, delays in the recruitment process, and lack of access, resources, reimbursement of expenses, support and training (Farrell and Bryant 2009).

However, one study of note suggests that while depressive symptoms might act as a health barrier for middle-age adults to volunteer, they are a reason for older people to engage in voluntary activities as volunteering in later life improves mental health, delays functional decline and might compensate for role losses and attenuated social relations (Li and Ferraro 2006).

Certain personality traits have also been found to act as a barrier to volunteering. People who report higher social anxiety have a lower likelihood of volunteering and higher preference to donate money rather than volunteer their time (Handy and Cnaan 2007). However, the feeling of trust in and belonging to the local community enhances participation in volunteering (Lee and Brudney 2009). The likelihood of volunteering is also affected by one's networks,

[15] Personal resources (family income, level of education, employment status), social ties (family life – married/single, number of children, home ownership), cultural resources (ethnicity and the immigrant status related to it), mixed resources (place in the life cycle reflecting social prestige and power, age-related roles and problems, including the role of age and gender), and residential context (community size).

perceptions and role in society (Chambre and Einolf 2011; Warburton 2010). Furthermore, cultural background influences people's attitudes to volunteering (Randle and Dolnicar 2009). Predictors of volunteering differ among native-born and immigrant groups (Sundeen et al. 2009) and an implication might be that barriers would also differ among different cultures, ethnicities and community structures.

Barriers have also been identified in workplace volunteering. In one study, retired registered nurses in Kansas identified challenges such as time commitment and family care, or feeling too old for volunteering, in addition to the difficulty of finding nursing-specific volunteer opportunities, new technology and increased paper work required to volunteer, and a lack of respect for their knowledge (Cocca-Bates and Neal-Boylan 2011). Meanwhile, surgeons cite work and family obligations, being poorly informed of volunteer opportunities, and inconvenient times to volunteer as major barriers to volunteering in their sector, while the amount of paperwork, the employer's' organisational rules and financial constraints are not recognised as challenges (McGinigle et al. 2008).

People tend to volunteer mostly when the opportunity costs of volunteering, or the foregone sacrificed alternatives, are low and avoidable (Lee and Brudney 2009). Opportunity cost, following the HM Green Book definition[16], reflects the best alternative use that goods or services could be put to instead of their current use. It thus allows a comparison of the benefits created by the use of time spent volunteering against the benefits that could potentially be generated if the same time and resources were to be allocated to their best alternative uses.

Appendix Table A14 shows the barriers to volunteering within the Community Life dataset, split by gender. The top three barriers are (male proportion/female proportion): I have work commitments (54%/61%), I have to look after children/the home (38%/24%) and I do other things with my spare time (21%/29%).

Appendix Table A15 shows the stated reasons for not volunteering since 2012 provided by the London 2012 Games Makers. These are the responses of 659 respondents from a total sample of 3,288 within the dataset. The top three reasons stated for not volunteering since London 2012 are: not enough time due to changing work or home circumstances (57.1%), Other (19.7%) and not enough time due to increasing demand of involvement with an organisation (13.2%). Appendix Table A16 shows the stated reasons for stopping volunteering from our analysis of the Community Life dataset, split by gender. The top three reasons amongst males are: not enough time due to home/work circumstances (43%); it was a one-off activity or event (16.2%); and getting involved took up too much time (13.6%). Females reported the top reasons as: not enough time due to home/work circumstances (48%); health problems or old age (19.2%); and it was a one-off activity or event (13%).

[16]https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/220541/green_book_complete.pdf

3.1.3. Conclusion

The findings of previous surveys in the UK show that people volunteer overall because they want to improve things/help people, because they associate with the cause, and because they have spare time. Meanwhile, the most common barriers to volunteering, as expressed by those who do not currently volunteer, are lack of time, lack of interest, and health issues. Work and home commitments are the most commonly identified barriers to doing more volunteering among those who already volunteer, followed by a general doing of other things in one's spare time. People who stopped volunteering cite time constraints, due to work or home circumstances, or in some cases due to the increasing demand of involvement with a volunteering organisation.

Existing evidence suggests, therefore, that people are motivated to volunteer for a number of different types of reasons, both altruistic, personal, and to fill a 'purpose gap' in their lives. However, a lack of time and a variety of other commitments act as the most prevalent barriers to volunteering, and most common cause of ceasing voluntary activities.

Chapter 4
Volunteers in sport

SPORT+ RECREATION ALLIANCE

4.1.1. Research design

We conducted a large online survey with sport volunteers, general volunteers, and non-volunteers in the UK, where a volunteer is defined as someone who has volunteered in sport or other sectors in the past 12 months. Quotas were set for sport volunteering using a screener question at the beginning of the survey. UK population representative quotas were set by the panel provider (Toluna) for gender, age, and region.

The survey was divided into four sections. The first section contained background questions on respondents' personal interests, hobbies, things they do in their spare time, sources of news information, whether they play any sport, how often and what type of sport, using a modified list provided by the Taking Part survey. Section 2 divided respondents based on whether they had provided unpaid voluntary time or helped out in any sport activities, sport groups, sport clubs or sport organisations in the last 12 months (sport branch), had given time to other types of volunteering (other branch), or had not done any volunteering in the past 12 months. The sport and other volunteering branch were asked the same set of questions on volunteering frequency (once in the past 12 months – at least once a week), amount of volunteering (in minutes), duration of volunteering (less than a year – more than 7 years), the kind of organisation they give time to (formal, informal, mass participation event etc). Respondents in the sport and other branch were asked a set of multiple choice questions on the reasons they started volunteering, how they found out about volunteering, what would motivate them to volunteer more, whether they would like to volunteer more in sport volunteering, and the barriers that stop them (general and specific to sport volunteering). They were also asked if they had stopped or reduced any of their volunteering in the past 12 months, and if so the reasons why they stopped. They were then asked the reasons why they do not currently volunteer in sport (general and sport specific).

Non-volunteers were first asked if they had stopped or reduced any of their volunteering in the past 12 months, and if so the reasons why they stopped, the reasons why they do not currently volunteer in sport, and the factors that would motivate them to volunteer in the future.

We included the same response options throughout both survey branches to increase comparability of results across different types of volunteers and non-volunteers.

Section 3 asked respondents to select an alternative activity to volunteering that would be an equally valuable use of your time over a two-hour period each week. The response options all included a market value. This question was designed to identify an individual's willingness to accept (WTA) an alternative to volunteering by identifying the nearest market substitute. We also asked a set of questions on respondents' subjective wellbeing, in terms of life satisfaction, sense of worthwhile, happiness, and anxiety (on a 0-10 scale) as well as their satisfaction with volunteering. Section 4 asked a set of standard demographic questions.

4.1.2. Results

4.1.2.1. General results

The survey was tested on a pilot sample of 100 respondents. All responses were provided by the panel provider Toluna. The pilot test included cognitive follow-ups on key parts of the questionnaire mimicking the final survey.

The feedback received from respondents was mostly positive. More than three quarters (79%) of respondents found survey length okay or better. 94% found the survey difficulty okay or better and 94% found that the survey made sense or was simple to understand. Only a small minority (3%) indicated that some of the questions were sensitive. The majority (66%) found the questions on their motivations for volunteering relevant and 91% found the multiple-choice options relevant. These findings indicate that our pilot survey instruments were generally well received and the public did not find them difficult to understand. Only minor changes were deemed to be required at this stage, mostly aimed at shortening the survey and providing more targeted multiple-choice options.

The survey was run between Friday 22nd January 2016 and Tuesday 26th January 2016 using an online panel sample. We received 2,041 completed responses. Quotas were set by the panel provider for nationally (UK excluding Northern Ireland) representative proportions of gender, age, and region. The average time for completing the survey was 16:09 minutes, excluding responses that were below 3 minutes in length (n=14) labelled as 'speedster' responses). This gave a total of 2,027 completed responses. We provide a summary of the key socio-demographic variables in our survey sample in Appendix Table A17.

The survey included a screener question to set the proportion of respondents who had volunteered or helped out at sporting events, sport clubs, or sport organisations in the last 12 months at 40% of the sample. 39% answered positively to this question in our survey sample.

We divide analysis between those who had volunteered or helped out at sporting events, sport clubs, or sport organisations in the last 12 months (27%), those who had volunteered or helped out at other types of voluntary organisations (23%), and those who report that they had not volunteered in the last 12 months (50%) (Table 3.2). This suggests that there was some overstatement in the 40% who indicated that they are a sport volunteer in the screener question. This kind of overstatement can occur in online surveys, perhaps caused by the incentive structure, whereby respondents try to avoid being screened out of surveys early. Thankfully, this overstatement led to a 30:70 ratio of sport to other or no volunteering, which is within the range originally planned for the study.

Table 4.2 - Volunteering type (sport, general, or none) in the last 12 months		
Survey branch	**N**	**%**
Sport volunteering in the last 12 months	553	27.3
Other volunteering in the last 12 months	461	22.7
No volunteering in the last 12 months	1,013	50.0
Total	**2,027**	**100**

We explore the differences in frequency of volunteering between the sport volunteering and general volunteering branches of the survey. 25% of sport volunteers help out more than once a week, compared to only 19% of general volunteers. 31% of sport volunteers help out once a week, compared to 27% of general volunteers. In contrast, 51% of general volunteers help out once a month or less compared to 43% of sport volunteers. Across the two branches, 27 individuals indicated that they never volunteered. These individuals were removed from subsequent analysis (Appendix Table A18).

Respondents were also asked approximately how many hours they spend helping the group(s), club(s) or organisation(s) in an average month.[17] Sport volunteers on average volunteer more (11.9 hours per month on average) compared to general volunteers (9.8 hours per month). This difference was not statistically significant at the 95% level (t-test).

We also looked at how long the respondents have been involved in volunteering. 27% of volunteers in both the sport and general volunteering branch had volunteered for less than a year. More sport volunteers on average have been volunteering for 2-3 years (28%) compared to general volunteers (24%), while more general volunteers had been volunteering for 5 years or more (30%) than sport volunteers (25%) (Appendix Table A19).

It appears, therefore, that sport volunteers volunteer more often, but perhaps not for longer.

Respondents were asked what kind of volunteering organisation or activity they gave time to. Formal activities or organisations were the most commonly selected type of volunteering by all groups except the unemployed and retired, who were more likely to volunteer informally. Significantly more sport volunteers volunteer through formal activities or organisations (66% and 27% respectively) and through informal activity groups (35% and 14% respectively). Significantly more young people (those below 25) volunteered through formal activities or organisations (59%) than older people (those above 55) (33%) (Table 3.3).

[17] Respondents were asked to imagine an average month to correct for the 'Christmas effect' of the month preceding the survey, when individuals may have reduced or found their volunteering opportunities temporarily reduced due to public holidays.

Table 4.3 - Volunteering format								
	Branch A Sport	Branch B General	Age <25	Age >55	Full time employed	Part time employed	Un-employed	Retired
Formal activity, or organisation	66%*	27%*	59%*	33%*	57%*	40%*	4%	3%
Informal activity groups	35%*	14%*	34%*	18%*	30%*	28%	25%	14%
Mass-participation event	14%*	10%*	14%*	7%*	15%*	12%	8%	5%
Major sporting event (e.g. Rugby World Cup)	7%	N/A	5%	1%*	5%*	2%	2%	2%
Other (please specify)	7%*	32%*	3%*	36%*	10%*	2%	8%	45%*
	544	443	152	315	398	130	48	175

Note: Multiple responses were permitted for each individual. * signifies $p<0.05$ significant difference between branches (t-test). Options 'Small event (e.g. Local fundraising event)' and 'Training or mentoring' were not selected by any respondents in either branch.

4.1.2.2. Reasons and motivations

Respondents were asked the reasons for starting volunteering. The top two responses were the same across the sport and general volunteering branches: people volunteer because they really enjoy it (60% and 53% respectively), and have spare time to do it (42% and 44% respectively). Wanting to improve things or help people in the local community was in the top five most selected options across both branches, but with significantly more individuals in the general volunteering branch (35%) than the sport volunteering branch (20%) (Appendix Table A20).

Significantly more sport volunteers started volunteering because it improves their physical health (14% and 7% respectively), because their children/family are members of a club/organization (13% and 5% respectively), and because it makes them feel less stressed (12% compared to 7%). Sport volunteers were unsurprisingly more likely to select sport-related options were also more likely to start volunteering to grow the sport stars of the future (7% and 0.5% respectively), and because they were inspired by major sport events (6% and 1% respectively).

Significantly more general volunteers than sport volunteers indicated that they started volunteering because it broadens their experience of life (24% and 19% respectively), gives them a sense of personal achievement (30% and 18% respectively), makes them less selfish (22% and 14% respectively) and provides them with an opportunity to give back to an important cause or give back to something they love (26% and 11% respectively).

In sum, people start volunteering in sport for health, family, and personal wellbeing reasons, while general volunteers do it for their own personal self-improvement and to contribute to

societal causes.

We differentiate these results by key demographics of age (under 25s and over 55s), gender, and socio-economic status defined using UK demographic definitions of ABC1 class (lower middle class upwards).[18]

The top two most common reasons for starting sport volunteering among all groups were because they enjoy it and because they had spare time to do it. There were interesting differences in the other reasons given by different groups. For example, the third most common reason among the under 25s was because it broadens their experience of life (25%) while among the over 55s it was because it gave them a sense of personal achievement (27%). The third most common reasons for starting sport volunteering among higher socio-demographic ABC1 groups was to meet people and make friends (20%). Interestingly, among lower socio-economic groups the third most commonly selected reason was because they thought it would give them a chance to use their existing skills (26%), suggesting that those in low socio-economic groups have slightly different motivations related to their need to feel useful and perhaps apply skills that they do not usually apply in their work or personal life (Appendix Table A21).

Respondents were asked how they found out about opportunities to do unpaid voluntary work or help out. The top three sources of information on volunteering were the same across the sport and general volunteering branches: From someone else already involved in the group / word of mouth (36% and 37% respectively); from community events / notice boards (26% and 16% respectively); and online (e.g. on specific websites) (16% and 11% respectively) (Appendix Table A22). 36% of sport volunteers looked for opportunities in sport online and on social media, compared with only 21% of those who looked for general volunteer opportunities.

Significantly more sport volunteers than general volunteers indicated that they found out about volunteering opportunities through community events / notice boards; online (e.g. on specific websites) (16% sport and 11% general volunteering respectively); local newspapers (13% and 8% respectively); social media (11% and 6% respectively); employer's volunteering scheme (10% and 6% respectively); online through search engine (on mobile, laptop or desktop) (9% and 3% respectively); through a Doctor's surgery / Community Centre / Library (9% and 5% respectively); local TV or radio (8% and 3% respectively); and national newspapers (5% and 2% respectively).

More general volunteers than sport volunteers found out about volunteering opportunities through a volunteer bureau or centre (4% and 2% respectively). Across all branches local news and television was a more common source of information than national media.

The most common sources of information for sport volunteering among all groups were word of mouth and community events or notice boards. There were interesting differences in information sourced by different groups. For example, under 25s ranked online information higher (23%) than their older counterparts (1%), or, unsurprisingly, through school, college or university (23%). The over 55s ranked information acquired through playing or participating in the club or group higher (22%) than their younger counterparts (11%), emphasizing the

[18] http://www.abc1demographic.co.uk/

important differences in experience, educational contact, and technological access between the age groups. Gender and socio-economic groupings did not yield notable differences in information sources (Appendix Table A23).

We asked respondents who currently volunteer in sport what would encourage them to volunteer more. We also asked those who do not currently volunteer in sport (in the general and no volunteering branches of the survey) what would encourage them to volunteer in sport groups, clubs or organisations. Respondents from across all three branches ranked having more free time, having a friend already involved, if they could use existing skills, and if they could do it remotely in the top five factors that would encourage them to volunteer more. This suggests that making it easy to volunteer is the key to encouraging more sport volunteering (Appendix Table A24).

In terms of time and work motivations, significantly more sport volunteers than general volunteers indicated that they would volunteer more if they had more free time (46% and 31% respectively), if they could use their existing skills (21% and 15% respectively), and if it was on their way home from work or nearby (13% and 8% respectively).

In terms of social motivations, significantly more sport volunteers than general volunteers indicated that they would volunteer more if a friend was involved (28% and 19% respectively), if they thought it would help them to meet new people (13% and 5% respectively); and if they were able to share it with friends, e.g. on Facebook (6% and 1% respectively).

In terms of personal motivations, significantly more sport volunteers than general volunteers indicated that they would volunteer more if it were proven to make them happier and healthier (13% and 8% respectively).

Other reasons given in open-end text were that individuals would volunteer more if they had suitable skills, if their age or health permitted, and if they didn't have work or family commitments.

The most common motivation for volunteering more among all socio-demographic groups was the availability of more free time and having a friend already involved or who would volunteer with them. In most socio-demographic groupings the third most selected motivation was if they could use their existing skills. However, among the under 25s the option that they would volunteer more if it was on the way home from work or nearby was ranked third highest (20%), suggesting that younger potential volunteers should be targeted with arrangements that make it easier and more convenient for them to volunteer (Appendix Table A25).

4.1.2.3. Barriers to volunteering in sport clubs, or sport organisations

Participants in the general volunteering and non-volunteering branches were asked their reasons for not giving unpaid help to sport groups, clubs or organisations. Within the sport branch, only those who responded that they would or would maybe like to spend more time helping groups, clubs or organisations were asked this question (85%).

The top three barriers to doing more sport volunteering (among existing sport volunteers) are that they already give as much time as they can (47%), don't think they are fit enough (17%), or

that volunteering more would be too much commitment (16%). The top three barriers to volunteering in sport groups or organisations among those who currently volunteer in other fields are that they don't think they are fit enough (26%), are not interested in sport (25%), and that they lack the skills to help at a sport club (24%).

The top three barriers to volunteering in sport groups or organisations among those who do not currently volunteer are that they are not interested in sport (27%), don't think they are fit enough (24%), and that they lack the skills to help at a sport club (21%).

Significantly more sport volunteers than general volunteers indicated that they do not volunteer more in sport groups and organisations because volunteering more would be too much commitment (16% and 11% respectively); that they're already participating in sport (14% and 3% respectively); and that they think they will be out of pocket (6% and 3% respectively).

Significantly more general volunteers than sport volunteers indicated that they do not volunteer more in sport groups and organisations because they don't think they are fit enough (26% and 17% respectively); don't know enough about sport (22% and 11% respectively); lack the skills to help at a sport club (24% and 6% respectively); find sport clubs intimidating (9% and 5% respectively); are not interested in sport (26% and 7% respectively); or cite age or health barriers (2% and 0% respectively).

Significantly more of those who do not currently volunteer than volunteer in general activities do not volunteer in sport groups or organisations because they don't think they are fit enough (24%); no-one has asked them (16%); because they lack the skills to help at a sport club (21%); are not interested in sport (27%); because their children are not involved in sport (8%); or for other reasons like their age or health (5%) and lack of free time (2%) (Appendix Table A26).

In sum, not feeling fit enough is a common barrier to sport volunteering across all groups. Those who do not currently do any sport volunteering also feel that they lack the skills, while those who currently do volunteer in sport would not volunteer more because of commitment issues. Those who do not volunteer at all do not volunteer in sport because they or their children are not interested/involved in sport, because no one asked them, and due to their age or health.

In terms of barriers to volunteering more in sport, giving as much time as they can already and perceived lack of fitness were the highest ranked responses among all groups, suggesting that age, gender, and socio-economic status does not have an effect on the perceived fitness barrier. Commitment was ranked higher (second) on the list of barriers for the over 55s compared to the under 25s (ranked fifth). More males are already participating in sport (17%) than females (9%). C2DE groups ranked sport volunteering as something they would consider doing in the future more highly (19%, rank 2) than ABC1 groups (14%, rank 5) (Appendix Table A27). This suggests that females and lower socio-demographic groups should be target populations for recruiting sport volunteers in the future.

4.1.2.4. Barriers to volunteering: General

Participants in the general volunteering and non-volunteering branches were asked why they don't give unpaid help to sport groups, clubs or organisations. Within the sport (85%) and general volunteering branches (67%), only those who responded that they would or would maybe like to spend more time helping groups, clubs or organisations were asked this

question.

The top three barriers to doing more volunteering (among sport volunteers) are that they already give as much time to volunteering as they can (30%), they do other things in their spare time (27%), and they have work commitments (23%).

Among general volunteers and those who do not currently volunteer, doing other things in their spare time was the most often selected barrier to volunteering more or volunteering (34% and 33% respectively). General volunteers were most likely to cite work commitments (25%) and being involved in other activities (20%).

Significantly more sport volunteers than general volunteers indicated that they already give enough time to volunteering (30% and 15% respectively), and that they would not gain much from more volunteering (6% and 2% respectively).

Significantly more general volunteers than sport volunteers indicated that do other things with their spare time (34% and 27% respectively), that illness or disability prevents them (10% and 6% respectively), and that volunteering organisations are too bureaucratic or too much concerned about risk and liability (6% and 3% respectively).

Significantly more of those who do not currently volunteer indicated that they do not volunteer because they do other things with their spare time (33%); have an illness or disability prevents them (17%); have never thought about it (16%), cannot be bothered (14%); are nervous about meeting new people (9%); because volunteering doesn't seem fun or exciting (8%), or due to age or health condition (2.4%) or lack of free time (1.1%) (Appendix Table A28).

To summarise, the main general barriers to all volunteers are lack of time and other commitments. General volunteers and those who do not volunteer were more likely to cite illness or disability, and because volunteering is too bureaucratic/doesn't seem fun or exciting.

The most commonly selected general barriers among all socio-demographic groups were already giving enough time to volunteering, doing other things in their spare time, and being involved in other activities. Males and ABC1 groups were more likely to cite work commitments as a barrier (24%, rank 2; 27%, rank 3, respectively) than females (20%, rank 3) and non-ABC1 groups (17%, rank 4) (Appendix Table A29).

4.1.2.5. Reason stopped volunteering

We asked all participants whether they had recently stopped or reduced their volunteering in the last 12 months. For those who indicated that they currently do no volunteering, this question was asked at the beginning of the volunteering questions. For the sport and general volunteering branches it was asked at the end of this section. 32% of sport volunteers had recently reduced their volunteering, compared to 17% of general volunteers. 3% of non-volunteers had stopped volunteering in the past year (Table 3.4). Of those, 37% of general volunteers and 55% of non-volunteers had stopped volunteering in sport.

Table 3.4 - Recently stopped/reduced volunteering activities						
	Branch A Sport		Branch B General		Branch C None	
	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%
Recently stopped/reduced volunteering	176	32.4	75	16.9	29	2.9
Recently stopped/reduced sport volunteering			29	37.2	16	55.2

The top reasons for reducing or stopping volunteering in the last 12 months among all branches are health problems or old age (29% among sport volunteers; 37% among general volunteers; 24% among those who do not currently). Across all branches, the feeling that the individual had done their bit or it was someone else's turn to get involved was the third most commonly cited reason for stopping or reducing volunteering (19% among sport volunteers; 11% among general volunteers; 10% among those who do not currently).

Significantly more sport volunteers than general volunteers reduced or stopped their volunteering activities because the activity was linked to their school/college/university/job (28% and 7% respectively), because they felt the group/club/organisation was badly organised (18% and 4% respectively), because it was too bureaucratic or too much concerned about risk and liability (11% and 3% respectively), because they didn't feel rewarded for their efforts (11% and 1% respectively), or because their children/family aren't involved in sport (8% and 1% respectively).

Significantly more general volunteers than sport volunteers reduced or stopped their volunteering activities because they did not have enough time due to changing home/work circumstances (28% and 15% respectively) (Appendix Table A30).

These findings suggest that there is a delivery gap between people wanting to volunteer in sport, and the sport clubs themselves being badly organized, too bureaucratic, and not making their volunteers feel rewarded, while general volunteers are lost because of more general reasons like old age, natural attrition, or not having enough time.

The most common reason for stopping volunteering among under 25s was that the activity was linked to their school/college/university/job (29%, rank 1). In contrast, over 55s ranked this reason as fifth (8%). Males ranked health problems or old age higher (34%, rank 1) than females (21%, rank 2). C2DE groups ranked health problems or old age higher (39%, rank 1) than females (23%, rank 2). Feeling that one's volunteering efforts were not appreciated was ranked third among males (23%) but 11th among females (8%), suggesting that males are more in need of appreciation than females (Appendix Table A31).

4.1.2.6. Satisfaction with volunteering

We asked respondents in the sport and general volunteering how satisfied they were with their volunteering experience, on a scale of 0 to 10 where 0 is 'not at all satisfied' and 10 is 'completely satisfied'. Table 3.5 shows that average satisfaction with volunteering is on average higher among sport volunteers (8.0 index points on a scale of 0-10) compared to

general volunteers (7.8 index points). This is a statistically significant difference within 95% confidence levels (t-test, p= 0.01).

Sport volunteers on average have a significantly higher sense of worthwhile (7.8 points on a scale of 0-10) than general volunteers (7.5) and those who do no volunteering (6.7). Sport volunteers are on average significantly happier (7.6 points on a scale of 0-10) than general volunteers (7.1) and those who do no volunteering (6.6). However, they also report higher anxiety (5.3 points on a scale of 0-10) compared to general volunteers (4.5) and those who do no volunteering (4.3). This suggests that while sport volunteering is good for one's wellbeing, there may be some association with higher stress or anxiety.

Sport volunteers on average have higher life satisfaction (7.6 points on a scale of 0-10) than general volunteers (7.4), although this difference is not statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. Sport volunteers are significantly more satisfied with life than those who do no volunteering (6.7).

Sport volunteers have significantly higher levels of self-reported general health (2.3 points on a scale of 0-4) than general volunteers (1.9) and non-volunteers (1.7) (Table 3.5).

As we would expect, general volunteers on average are significantly more satisfied with life, have higher sense of worthwhile, higher levels of happiness, and better self-reported general health than non-volunteers.

In sum, sport volunteers are more satisfied with their experience of volunteering. However, it is important to note that we cannot attribute causality to say that sport volunteers have higher wellbeing because they are sport volunteers. It may be the case, for instance, that happier people are more likely to do sport volunteering.

Table 3.5 - Satisfaction with volunteering, subjective wellbeing, and general health

Variable	Branch A: Sport	Branch B: General	Branch C: None
Satisfaction with volunteering*	8.04*	7.75*	
Life satisfaction	7.56	7.35	6.70*
Sense of worthwhile	7.76*	7.50*	6.74*
Happiness	7.58*	7.14*	6.58*
Anxiety	5.31*	4.49*	4.34*
Positive affect balance	2.27	2.64	2.24*
General health (1-5)	2.34*	1.87*	1.73*
Total	544	437	1009

Legend: * p<0.05 significant difference between branches (t-test)

We also breakdown results for health, SWB and satisfaction with volunteering by gender, age,

and socio-economic (ABC1) differentiations. We find that satisfaction with volunteering is higher among older respondents (>55) than those from other age groups (Table 3.6). Older respondents are also on average happier, more satisfied, have a higher sense of worthwhile and are less anxious (note that this is across the whole sample, regardless of volunteering status). In the next section we explore the associations between volunteering and health and wellbeing.

Table 3.6 - Satisfaction with volunteering, subjective wellbeing, and general health

Variable	Male	Female	Young (<25)	Old (>55)	ABC1	Non-ABC1
Satisfaction with volunteering	7.88	7.94	7.88	8.30*	7.87	8.01
Life satisfaction	6.99	7.17	6.56*	7.46*	7.17	7.02
Sense of worthwhile	7.03*	7.33*	6.44*	7.49*	7.34*	7.08*
Happiness	6.97	6.99	6.41*	7.39*	7.11	6.90
Anxiety	4.60	4.68	5.69*	3.72*	4.98*	4.33*
Positive affect balance	2.37	2.31	0.73*	3.77*	2.12*	2.57*
General health (1-5)	1.93	1.93	2.19*	1.66*	2.22*	1.70*

*Legend: * p<0.05 significant difference (t-test). Note that age categories are tested against all other ages*

4.1.2.7. Volunteering, health, and wellbeing

Equation (1) is run once for each health and wellbeing outcome (dependent variable) and for each health and wellbeing outcome the model is run once for each volunteering-related variable, giving us a total of 30 models. We do not include all of the volunteering-related variables together in one model due to the risk of multicollinearity, which would invalidate the results for individual predictors and inflate standard errors.

All health and wellbeing models are run using ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis with fixed effects regression for panel data, which assumes that the error term is composed of time-variant and time-invariant elements. Where the dependent variable is a binary variable, this model is run using logit regression analysis.

We run the following models:

- Models 1-6: OLS regression for any type of volunteering and health and wellbeing
- Models 7-12: OLS regression for type of volunteering (sport vs general) and health and wellbeing
- Models 13-18: OLS regression for volunteering frequency and health and wellbeing

(once in the last year, to, more than once a week)

- Models 19-24: OLS regression for volunteering time (mins) and health and wellbeing
- Models 25-30: OLS regression for volunteering length (years) and health and wellbeing

First, we tested the associations between any type of volunteering and health and wellbeing. We find that volunteering is positively associated with life satisfaction (+0.6 on a scale of 0-10), sense of worthwhile (+0.7 on a scale of 0-10), happiness (+0.6 on a scale of 0-10), positive affect balance (PAB) (+0.4 on a scale of 0-10), and self-reported general health (+0.1 on a scale of 1-5). We find no significant association between volunteering and anxiety levels (Appendix Table A32). These results support our findings at the national level which confirm the positive association between volunteering and one's health and wellbeing.

Next, we compared the associations between sport and general volunteering on health and wellbeing. We restrict this regression analysis only to those who currently volunteer. Note that other volunteering is the reference group in this regression.

We find a significant positive association between sport volunteering and sense of worthwhile (+0.4 on a scale of 0-10), happiness (+0.4 on a scale of 0-10), and general health (+0.2 on a scale of 5) compared to general volunteering. This suggests that, all other factors equal, individuals get a greater sense of worthwhile and happiness from sport volunteering than general volunteering. However, we have to account for the possibility of reverse causality (whereby happier or healthier individuals select into sport volunteering compared to general volunteering), as well as the possibility of focusing bias in the survey instrument (Appendix Table A33). We note that the survey was sampled on 40% sport volunteers, so that the reference group of non-volunteers should not be seen as nationally representative to the UK. We also note the smaller sample sizes for these regressions (excluding non-volunteers) and the lower R2 values, which show that these models explain less of the self-reported wellbeing and health measures than the general volunteering model in Appendix Table A33.

We tested whether the frequency of volunteering had a significant association with their self-reported health and wellbeing. We found no significant association between volunteering frequency (once in the last year, to, more than once a week) and SWB. There was a positive association between volunteering frequency and general health (Appendix Table A34).

We found a significant association between volunteering time (in minutes) and sense of worthwhile (+0.007) and general health (+0.004). These results provide a figure for the marginal effect of each additional minute of volunteering on sense of worthwhile (+0.007) and general health (+0.004) respectively (Appendix Table A35).

We find a significant association between volunteering time (in years) and life satisfaction (+0.1 on a scale of 0-10), sense of worthwhile (+0.2 on a scale of 0-10), PAB (+0.2 on a scale of 0-10), and anxiety (-0.1 on a scale of 0-10) (Appendix Table A36). These results give the marginal effect of each additional year of volunteering on SWB.

Conclusion

We conducted a large online survey with sport volunteers, general volunteers, and non-volunteers in the UK, where a volunteer is defined as someone who has volunteered in sport or other sectors in the past 12 months.

The top two responses were the same across the sport and general volunteering branches: people volunteer because they really enjoy it, and have spare time to do it.

Sport volunteers are more likely to say they would volunteer more if they had more time: 46% of sport volunteers vs. 31% of volunteers overall, even though sport volunteers already volunteer more frequently and already give more time per week than the average volunteer.

While most hear about their opportunity via word of mouth, almost as many (36%) looked for opportunities in sport online and on social media, compared with only 21% of those who looked for general volunteer opportunities. Surprisingly only 15% of people who do volunteer found out through their club directly asking them, despite there being significant overlap between sport volunteers and participants.

Despite loving what they do, sport volunteers are far more likely than other volunteers to stop volunteering. 32% stopped or reduced their volunteering in the last year compared with 17% of general volunteers. Applied to the national level, this would be equivalent to 1.8m of the 5.6m people who help out. We have some clues as to why: 18% of those who dropped out or reduced their volunteering said they felt their club was badly organised, compared with 4% of volunteers in general. 19% felt it was someone else's turn to step in vs 11% of volunteers generally.

The top reasons for reducing or stopping volunteering in the last 12 months among all branches are health problems or old age and the feeling that they had done their bit or it was someone else's turn to get involved. Significantly more sport volunteers than general volunteers reduced or stopped their volunteering activities because they felt the group/club/organisation was badly organised, too bureaucratic or too much concerned about risk and liability, and because they didn't feel rewarded for their efforts.

In many cases the reasons and barriers to volunteering are the same when analysis is differentiated by key demographics of age (under 25s and over 55s), gender, and socio-economic status defined using UK demographic definitions of ABC1 socio-economic group. However, the survey also produces interesting insights. For example, the third most common reason among the under 25s was because it broadens their experience of life (25%) while among the over 55s it was because it gave them a sense of personal achievement (27%). The third most common reasons for starting sport volunteering among higher socio-demographic ABC1 groups was to meet people and make friends (20%). Interestingly, among lower socio-economic groups the third most commonly selected reasons was because they thought it would give them a chance to use their existing skills (26%), while the most common reason for stopping volunteering among under 25s was that the activity was linked to their school/college/university/job (29%).

Some people volunteer in sport to fill spare time: 42% cite this as a reason for volunteering. Others when asked say they don't volunteer because they don't have time. Time is both one of the biggest motivations but also one of the biggest barriers. Around a third of respondents said they do other things with their spare time, so clearly they are prioritising other things they enjoy. Although we know sport volunteers enjoy what they do, others are unlikely to realise just how much they could get from giving their time, and perhaps volunteering doesn't appeal as much as it could because of this.

Volunteers in sport are up to six times more likely to be motivated by the social benefits of volunteering (meet new people, make new friends, share experience with friends). 13% of sport volunteers would volunteer more if they thought it would help them to meet new people.

This suggests that more efforts should be put into rewarding and retaining volunteers. At the same time, our results show that sport volunteers are more satisfied with their experience of volunteering, and have higher self-reported levels of wellbeing in measures including life satisfaction, happiness, and sense of purpose. They also have higher levels of self-reported health than general and non-volunteers. These results all align with our findings from national population datasets in the UK (recall Chapter 2).

Regression analysis reveals that individuals get a greater sense of worthwhile and happiness from sport volunteering than general volunteering. We found no significant association between volunteering frequency and wellbeing, but a positive association between volunteering frequency and general health. We did find a significant association between volunteering time (the number of minutes an individual volunteers each week) and both sense of worthwhile and general health. We also find a significant association between volunteering time and life satisfaction, sense of worthwhile, anxiety, and PAB. This suggests that the more you volunteer each week, and the longer you volunteer for, the better the health and wellbeing associated with it.

In sum, volunteering is associated with higher self-reported health and wellbeing. These associations are stronger in many health and wellbeing measures for sport volunteers. Across all volunteers, the amount of volunteering and longevity of volunteering is a significant factor associated with wellbeing.

Chapter 5
A behavioural model of volunteering

SPORT+ RECREATION ALLIANCE

A behavioural model of volunteering to maximise the impact of volunteers

The evidence on the barriers and drivers of volunteering discussed above together with research findings from psychology and the behavioural sciences allow us to form a theoretical approach for understanding volunteering behaviour. This provides the foundation for thinking through and developing strategies and interventions aimed at increasing volunteering. As we have seen increased volunteering is associated with higher levels of wellbeing and in turn this will have a knock-on effect of more volunteering in a virtuous cycle. Thus, understanding how we can increase the number of volunteers and the amount of volunteering they do and how we can retain volunteers is key.

5.1.1. A behavioural model of volunteering

Over the past few decades there have been major advances in our understanding of why we do what we do. The widely held belief, propagated by traditional economists, that we make rational decisions, based on full information and always in our best interests has come into question. In the rational view of the world all decisions are seen to be the outcome of meticulous deliberation and planning based on perfect information about future outcomes, where contextual factors such as how information is presented does not play an important role. However, we now know that many decisions are not so 'rational' in this sense of the word and that a wide range of factors can explain why we do what we do.

Through countless (often simple) behavioural experiments how we actually behave has started to become a little clearer. Often these experiments look like a form of simple thought experiments and were initially tested on small student populations at universities, but we have found that on many occasions their results are generalizable to other populations and have been replicated in large sample settings with members of the public. For example, we now know that social norms (what others do and believe), the way that information is presented, by whom it is presented, and non-financial incentives all matter when people make decisions. These factors would traditionally get ignored in rational models of choice.

5.1.2. Dual process models of behaviour – How people really think and behave

A common framework for thinking about decision making has become what is known as a dual-process method, whereby we can think of decision making as two systems.

System 2 resembles the calculating machine proposed by the rational choice thinkers, which weighs up the costs and benefits of each option with full information and has the ability to ignore irrelevant contextual factors.

System 1 operates on a more 'primal' level, making automatic judgments below our immediate consciousness and can be influenced by a range of contextual factors.

System 1 and system 2 are not separate, but are inter-linked and as Haidt (2001) puts it system

2 ‘thinks it’s the Oval Office’ when actually at times it’s ‘the Press Office’. The key to understanding decision making is to understand how both System 1 and 2 operate in that particular scenario and setting. Decisions will be based on factors that affect both of our decision-making systems and we next look at how this applies to volunteering.

5.1.3. System 2 decision making in volunteering: Extrinsic and intrinsic motivators

A useful approach to organising the factors that influence our rational decision-making processes (i.e. those factors that would appeal to us when we sit back and take time to make a decision) is Kasser et al. (2007) model of extrinsic and intrinsic motivating factors.

Extrinsic motivation is when a choice or behaviour is undertaken in order to reap (i) financial and in-kind rewards, (ii) fame, and (iii) social status. These motivations are linked to the broad area of materialistic aims.

Intrinsic motivation is linked to factors such as (i) personal growth, (ii) friendships, social relationships and affiliation, and (iii) helping others. These are what we might traditionally consider to be non-materialistic aims.

Kasser’s model of behaviour is also often framed using the terms materialistic/non-materialistic. We note that some behaviours and factors overlap across the two categories: some behaviours may be for both intrinsic and extrinsic reasons. For example, people may volunteer to help others (intrinsic) and also for in-kind rewards and social status (extrinsic). And in some jobs the salary will likely motivate people (extrinsic), but also a job may be intrinsically motivating if it has opportunities for personal growth and for making a difference in people’s lives. Whilst other activities will be based much more on one type of motivator (e.g. buying expensive brand clothing). The key is to understand that there are many factors involved in a person’s decisions and this is certainly the case for volunteering.

This framework needs to be viewed within an over-riding theory of rational choice, and one key contender here in social science would be the welfarist paradigm. This states that rational individuals seek to maximize their wellbeing or welfare (we use the terms interchangeably here). Within this framework wellbeing is of ultimate value or importance to individuals and everything else is of instrumental value. That is music, social relationships, volunteering, playing football, education, income, good health and so on are important to people ultimately because they improve our wellbeing and quality of life.

Applying this to Kasser’s framework, a certain factor or issue is motivating precisely because it improves (impacts positively on) our wellbeing in some way. That is, intrinsic motivators like money and fame as well as extrinsic motivators like growth and friendship are all motivators precisely because they impact positively on our wellbeing. Therefore, Kasser’s approach gives us a useful way of thinking through how volunteering impacts on wellbeing, for example, volunteering is important for our wellbeing because it provides opportunities for personal growth, social status and so on, which are all of instrumental importance for our wellbeing.

As we have shown and discussed volunteering makes us happier and a large part of the reason for this will be because it satisfies many of the factors that motivate us (e.g.

volunteering provides opportunities for personal growth). Thus, volunteering, through its ability to help us satisfy many of our reasons for behaviour makes us happier – volunteering allows us to help people and this makes us happier which explains why it is a motivating factor. Of course there may be other factors behind why volunteering is associated with happiness outside of the intrinsic/extrinsic motivation framework – e.g. for some people it could simply just be a way of passing the time which is not related to any of the intrinsic or extrinsic motivators – but we believe that generally speaking the Kasser et al. framework is a highly relevant way of conceptualizing (rational) behaviour in volunteering.

At first glance volunteering seems to fit most naturally with intrinsic motivations (as a society we would probably like to think so at least), especially the desire to help others, but this type of framework highlights that volunteering is also driven by extrinsic motivating factors. We must recognise that people are driven to volunteer for selfish (i.e. extrinsic) reasons as well. And indeed, a large number of theories and studies entirely dismiss any altruistic motivation in volunteering, emphasizing instead the role of opportunities for social connections, social status, qualifications, and other rewards (Cnaan and Amrofell 1994; DellaVigna et al. 2009; Eckstein 2001). People may volunteer for some extrinsic reward such as being able to watch a sporting event for free as part of the volunteering experience (Giannoulakis et al. 2007) or for the chance to meet celebrities involved in the project. They may also do volunteering because it provides some type of social status within their local community if they are seen to be doing good and helping people. In this sense people could volunteer even if they don't have any altruistic interest in helping people per se (note that we must rule out financial reward or payment as an extrinsically motivating factor for volunteering because by definition if some task is undertaken in return for direct payment it ceases to be voluntary work anymore).

In terms of the rational reasons for volunteering we can use Kasser's model to suggest the following factors would be important. Within this overall framework we add some other factors that proved to be of importance in the literature reviews and in our analysis. Interestingly, as we have seen in our analysis motivating factors are likely to be different for different people.

Intrinsic motivators

i. **Helping others (altruism):** This is the most obvious of the motivating factors in relation to volunteering, but it is useful to state here as it does remind us that voluntary work should allow people to ultimately help others and for volunteers to know that. The more directly a volunteer can link his/her activity to the outcome of helping others the more likely this motivating factor will work. This may put into question the intrinsic appeal of voluntary activities that are not so directly linked to impacts on beneficiaries, such as collecting donations, completing financial accounts for a charity, and isolated projects like remote beach clean-up initiatives. Furthermore, a key factor here will be that people should be able to see the positive impacts of their work for others. This could be through directly observing the fruits of their labour or more indirectly by being thanked and acknowledged for their work by beneficiaries. For example, we know that 11% of sport volunteers stopped or reduced their volunteering in the last 12 months because they didn't feel rewarded for their efforts.

ii. **Personal growth:** Providing opportunities for people to train (informally or formally) as part of their voluntary work will allow them to develop new skills and grow. Many voluntary projects try to match skills to tasks but an alternative suggested by this hypothesis is a different approach whereby people are trained initially to provide the

service required during the voluntary work. An example of this would be for volunteers to undertake mediation training prior to their voluntary work and then to use their new skills to help solve conflicts and problems within the community. We know from UK datasets that nearly 20% of volunteers started volunteering because they thought it would give them a chance to learn new skills (Community Life), or to gain skills to use in future employment situations (YouGov).

One issue to be careful of here is not to confuse personal intrinsic growth aims with extrinsic aims related to personal growth. If people do volunteering to develop new skills in order so that they can progress in their career and earn more money, then this is more of an extrinsic motivator. But if people volunteer to develop new skills and experiences to grow as a person with no regard for any possible material benefits then this is an intrinsic motivator.

iii. **Friendships and affiliation:** Volunteering can create opportunities for people to socialise, make new friends and connect with their community and in this case volunteering may have a further intrinsic motivation for volunteers. Volunteers could make meaningful and long-lasting friendships with other volunteers, with members of the community and with the beneficiaries of their voluntary work. We find for example, that volunteers in sport are up to six times more likely to be motivated by the social benefits of volunteering (meet new people, make new friends, share experience with friends).

iv. **Duty:** We may view voluntary work as a duty we hold towards society. This can be related to the concept of civic participation which came up as a key factor in our analysis and in previous studies (e.g. Friedman 1998). Duty can be conceptualized in two ways. The first is that duty relates instrumentally to wellbeing. That is that by fulfilling our duty we improve our wellbeing by for example feeling a greater sense of purpose. This is a consequentialist approach to thinking about duty, which places weight on the consequences and outcomes to the individual of (fulfilling a) duty. However, duty as conceptualized more traditionally by deontologists, such as Kant, sees duty as an end rather than as a means to an end. In Kantian ethics and derivatives of it the fulfilment of a duty has its own intrinsic value regardless of the implications for wellbeing. These types of non-welfarist moral goods are often termed ‘constraints’. For consistency we use a welfarist view of duty here, which assumes that fulfilment of a duty to volunteer and help others improves our wellbeing just like any other extrinsic or intrinsic motivating factor. Indeed, recent theories on eudemonic wellbeing have been developed to accommodate within the welfarist paradigm issues such as purpose in life and so our approach is consistent with this trend. Wanting to improve things or help people was the most common reason for starting to volunteer in UK population surveys (Community Life). We find, in addition, that general volunteers are significantly more likely to start volunteering because it provides them with an opportunity to give back to an important cause or give back to something they love.

Extrinsic motivators

i. **Fame and social status:** clearly volunteering could be undertaken for status reasons. That is people may volunteer because of the positive signal it may give about their actions and character. Indeed, rightly or wrongly, at an organisational level this is one of the main critiques aimed at the motives people assume that private firms have for philanthropy and providing employee volunteering time (i.e. that it may be purely in

order to improve the image of the company). Although there are a number of people that like to keep their donation activities anonymous, the upshot is that for many people recognition of their voluntary work will increase their likelihood to volunteer. This could range from a simple verbal recognition of their voluntary work up to formal recognition through community plaques (Fisher and Ackerman 1998) and national awards like the BBC 'Big Thank You' to volunteers.

ii. **Personal reward:** a range of non-financial rewards are clearly important drivers of volunteering. Our research has shown that the chance to (i) get qualifications; (ii) learn new skills; and (iii) advance in one's career are key motivators for people to volunteer. Also as Wilson and Pimm (1996) claim, people can be motivated to volunteer because they get to watch a concert or sporting event for free as part of the voluntary work.

iii. **Low sacrifices:** Our evidence and the previous literature (e.g. Carlson et al., 2011) strongly suggest that people will be more likely to volunteer when their personal sacrifices (i.e. opportunity costs) are low or minimal. Lack of time is the number one cited barrier to volunteering in the UK.

iv. **Volunteers as beneficiaries:** People may volunteer because there are benefits that come back to themselves. This is known as impure altruism (as compared to pure altruism which is more about giving irrespective of the knock-on benefits later) (Andreoni 1989, 1990; Korenok et al. 2013). For example, helping out in the local community to improve the appearance of the area may make the area a nicer place to live for the volunteers and may help to increase local house prices; volunteers that help to clean up animal excrement may do so because it gets rid of the problem for them; and volunteering to be a community officer or part of a neighbourhood watch programme means that the volunteers also ultimately get to live in a safer place.

Acknowledging that volunteering can be motivated by *both* intrinsic and extrinsic factors permits a more holistic and realistic approach to understanding volunteering behaviour and in turn improves our ability to change that behaviour to get more people to volunteer. Social role theory (Grube and Piliavin 2000; Piliavin and Callero 1991) claims that motivation to volunteer arises from early external influences, including those of parents and society. And so the rationale for volunteering (i.e. extrinsic, intrinsic, or both) may be conditioned within us from an early age. In this sense we are not looking to change people's reasons for volunteering (this may be conditioned within us), but rather to understand the reasons and look to make volunteering more attractive in terms of these reasons. We, therefore, must recognise that the motivation for volunteering will differ among different people.

This is just one side of the 'decision making coin' because even with our best intentions we don't always behave in a 'rational' or calculated manner; we may know that volunteering has lots of intrinsic and extrinsic benefits, but there are likely to be many important contextual factors that influence our decisions. This is the area in which System 1 operates and it is the focus of our next discussion. Putting System 1 and 2 together will give us the best possible understanding of volunteering behaviour.

5.1.4. System 1 decision making and volunteering

Despite our best efforts we may not make choices about volunteering in line with our intentions as set out in the rational model. That is, even if a volunteering opportunity presents itself as one which would, say, provide plenty of opportunities to build friendships and grow personally we may not take up the opportunity. A rational response to this behaviour would be that the 'costs' exceeded the benefits of volunteering at that moment. This could include financial costs such as wages forgone or travel costs, but also non-financial costs such as the value of the activity forgone such as playing tennis or taking a holiday on that day instead. These would in total represent the opportunity costs involved in volunteering which would sway the decision in the rational sense.

However, this procedure may not reflect what actually happens in many contexts. Many decisions are not based on such in-depth and rational cost-benefit analysis on behalf of the individual and instead may be much more 'in the moment' and instantaneous relying on System 1. The key is to understand how we can also affect System 1 in terms of volunteering behaviour.

Work in the fields of cognitive psychology and decision science highlights the notion that in the decision-making process people may use a number of cognitive shortcuts, especially when the issues with which they are faced are unfamiliar and complex. These shortcuts or 'rules of thumb', which are used by individuals to simplify and speed up the decision-making process, are called heuristics. A growing body of evidence has led to a trend in the literature to highlight or list sets of factors and heuristics that we know from plentiful evidence should impact on behaviour in most circumstances playing on both System 1 and System 2 although mainly on System 1. The Cabinet Office's MINDSPACE report is an excellent example of a set of behavioural factors. Another example is the World Bank's "Mind, Behaviour and Society" report which looks at development policy through the lens of behavioural science.

Table 3.1 - MINDSPACE behavioural factors

Messenger	We are heavily influenced by who communicates information
Incentives	Our responses to incentives are shaped by predictable mental shortcuts such as strongly avoiding losses
Norms	We are strongly influenced by what others do
Defaults	We 'go with the flow' of pre-set options
Salience	Our attention is drawn to what is novel and seems relevant to us
Priming	Our acts are often influenced by sub-conscious cues
Affect	Our emotional associations can powerfully shape our actions
Commitments	We seek to be consistent with our public promises, and reciprocate acts
Ego	We act in ways that make us feel better about ourselves

Source: (Dolan et al. 2012)

MINDSPACE defines and describes the items as follows.

Messenger

The messenger effect is the finding that the source of information influences the importance we place on it. The reason being that we have to deal with countless different stimuli each day, meaning our brain takes shortcuts to minimise the cognitive effort required to make decisions. So, by relying on sources we feel we can trust, the brain needs to exert less effort. The messenger effect takes two forms: authority effects and peer effects.

i. Authority Effects - we place a greater emphasis on information from an authority figure or expert.

ii. Peer Effects - we place a greater emphasis on information from people we know, like and trust.

An example of the authority messenger effect is found in a review by Webb and Sheehan (2006). In this study they tested the impact on behaviour change when a health intervention was administered by both experts - a health educator or research assistant - versus non-experts - a facilitator or teacher. They found that the most persuasive messenger was the health educator, followed by the research assistant - both experts.

Messenger effects can have a positive or negative effect depending on what the objective behaviour is. An example of this, and of the peer messenger effect, is the finding of a 1,000% increase in teenage smoking if two peers smoke, versus a 26% increase if a parent does.

Incentives

Incentives are reasons for action. Financial or otherwise, they are the most used tool to try to influence behaviour. For example, a supermarket may discount prices to provide an incentive to buy a product. They work because they increase the attractiveness of a particular course of action, such as a pay rise as an incentive to take on additional work responsibilities.

In the standard economic framework, incentives work equally regardless of how they are presented. However, insights from the behavioural sciences reveal that, in fact, we do not respond as rationally. Or, put another way, the way in which an incentive is presented can have a substantial effect on our behaviour.

As an example, we know that people are ‘loss averse’ and respond more to losses than they do to gains. This has been demonstrated in a weight-loss study, which tested the effect of losses on behaviour. Two groups were randomly split. The first group deposited money into a bank account knowing they would only get the money back if they met weight-loss goals. The second group was a control, where no money was deposited. The results showed this acted as a powerful motivator, with significantly more weight-loss occurring in the first group.

We also know that we don’t make absolute judgements, we make relative judgements. This is widely used in discount marketing, where an offer price is shown relative to a pre-discount price. Similarly, we place a greater emphasis on price changes from free to a price versus one

price compared to a proportionate price rise (eg: free to 1p compared to 5p to 6p). An example comes from Washington, where a charge of 5p was added to plastic bags. The result has been a significant reduction in plastic bag consumption and over $10M in revenue.

A third finding is that we put money into different buckets, which we value relative to the overall size. This is known as mental accounting. An example would be that few people would be dissuaded from purchasing an expensive product like a £1,500 cooker if they knew another store offered it for £5 less, but would if a pint of milk was £5 more expensive in one store than another (see, for instance, Thaler (1985)).

Norms

Norms are the generally accepted behaviours within a context, which we typically adhere to. These may be explicit norms, such as being in a 'No Smoking' zone. Or implicit norms, like manners or dress code. The reason norms have such an effect on behaviour is, probably, evolutionary since behaving in alignment is socially advantageous.

Making people aware of norms has been shown to influence behaviour in experimental research. One large-scale study (n= 80,000) looked into the impact of norms on energy consumption (Allcott 2009). Letters were sent that that compared the recipient's household energy consumption with their neighbours'. This had a 2% reduction on energy usage, compared to the control group. Further, the researchers found that energy usage increased with the length of time from the previous letter, then dipped again when the next letter was delivered. The suggestion is that keeping people continuously aware of the norm is necessary to maintain behaviour change.

Defaults

Defaults are the pre-selected choice we are presented with. Many decisions in life have a default option, which we choose without making an active choice. One example would be rolling monthly payments where payment is taken regardless of whether a choice is made each month. The reason why they work is, again, to minimise the cognitive load on our brain when faced with a decision.

The best-known study on defaults comes from a comparison of organ donation rates across countries by Johnson and Goldstein (2003). In countries where organ donation requires citizens to 'opt-in', rates average less than 20%. However, in countries where the default option is participating in organ donation, rates average over 80%.

Salience

Salient factors are the novel and relevant information available when we make decisions. They influence our behaviour because we make many decisions automatically and in the moment. As the Nobel laureate Daniel Kahneman puts it, "what you see is all there is". So we rely on salient factors to simplify and codify the complicated array of stimuli that we come into contact with at every moment of every day. What is novel and relevant to us is given greater precedence over the mundane.

Salience can take many forms, including cues to tell us what to do. One study looks at the effect on repayment of different means of presenting information on credit card bills (Stewart 2009). In instances where a statement had a 2% minimum repayment, people repaid £99 of a

£435 bill on average. However, when there was no minimum payment, the average repayment was £175 on average. In this instance the salient information - the minimum repayment - reduced payments considerably.

Priming

Priming is the insight that contextual factors influence our choices, often in ways we may not be aware of. The reason being, as we have seen in the dual-process model, that many of our decisions are automatic and subconscious. So cues like smell, lighting and words can change behaviour. This is the least understood insight to date but has been shown to be an effective tool in a number of studies.

As an example, Dijksterhuis and Bargh (2001) researched the influence of words on behaviour. In an experiment they found that priming people with words associated with the elderly (e.g. wrinkles) resulted in participants walking slower when leaving the room and had worse memory of the room.

The same has been found with other primes, such as sights, smells and sounds. One study by North (1997) found that playing French music in a wine shop resulted in more French wine being purchased. And when German music was played, more German wine was purchased. The implication is that the context of the decision plays a significant role in explaining why we do what we do.

Affect

Affect is the act of experiencing emotions, which are far more effective than rational-only means of persuasion. The reason these work is linked to our System 1, or automatic system, of decision-making process. Since we make thousands of decisions each day, our emotions allow us to make quick and intuitive judgements. So, on a rational level we may not be aware of a threat but on an emotional level we may ‘sense’ something. Once we have made an emotional decision we tend to stick to it, which is known as the confirmation bias. If something is emotionally pleasurable then we will rationalise its benefits.

In many ways this is the foundation of branding, advertising and marketing. For instance, in trials of different direct mail advertising, researchers found that including a photo of an attractive, smiling female was worth the equivalent of a 25% price decrease (Karlan et al. 2010). And there are dozens of other applications of affect - such as emotional story-telling and testimonials.

Commitments

Commitments are pledges that we make to ourselves or others to behave in a certain way. This takes many forms. If we’ve committed to plans with a friend, we tend to follow through. Or if we’ve committed to meeting a deadline, we tend to follow through and meet it.

These are effective because of our tendency to procrastinate and delay what is painful or stressful. Behavioural science suggests this stems from hyperbolic discounting - a strong preference for a pleasant present even if it will have long-term negative consequences. So a commitment, in effect, provides us with a loss to avoid.

For instance, Ariely and Wertenbroch (2002) studied whether students would impose

commitments in order to motivate themselves to complete tasks to a deadline. Students were told they had to complete three essays in a term and then split into three classes. One class had students commit to a deadline, one had the teachers impose a deadline and one where there were no deadlines. Rationally, the students in the first class would set the date at the last possible opportunity in order to give themselves as much time as possible. Instead, they realised their tendency to procrastinate and spread out the self-imposed deadlines. However, when the essays were marked the group where deadlines were imposed by teachers performed better than others.

Ego

The ego effect is the finding that we act in ways that are pleasure seeking and pain avoiding. Our desire to be admired, respected and valued has a deep-rooted evolutionary purpose. By achieving social status we are displaying signals of genetic fitness. So, for example, a marathon runner may display their involvement on social networking sites to publicly demonstrate their good health, their concern for others and their self-control – all strong signals of genetic fitness.

Research has shown that male respondents donate more to charity when they are approached by more attractive female fundraisers, suggesting a desire to project a positive image to the opposite sex (Landry et al. 2005). The implication is that appeals to a person's ego will be more effective than rational persuasion alone.

The MINDSPACE framework sets out nine broad categories of behaviour change which capture many of the key drivers of our behaviour. However, this concise list will not capture everything and we will discuss further behavioural factors in Chapter 4 of this report when we explain approaches to increase volunteering using behavioural insights.

5.1.5. Experimental evidence on volunteering behaviour

In the context of the above discussion we review the existing behavioural science literature on volunteering. Although this research in volunteering is relatively new (more research can be found in the area of charitable giving) we do find that priming has an effect on volunteering. For example, (i) people who are primed to think about and describe the characteristics of a superhero are more likely to help others and volunteer their time (Nelson and Norton 2005); and (ii) in word tests and quizzes where the tasks are to unscramble sentences or do crosswords people primed with superhero-related words in the tasks are significantly more likely to help other people and volunteer their time. Participants with the superhero primes (treatment groups) volunteered for more than double the number of hours than the control group (with no primes). The priming effect has been found to have long term effects as those primed about superheroes were willing to give up more of their time for volunteering even 3 months later. The impact of the priming effect is larger if people are allowed to think about their own (favourite) superhero rather than being told about a specific one. (Nelson and Norton 2005).

Incentives also have an impact in that framing opportunities to contribute, volunteer and make a difference in terms of losses (if they don't participate nothing will change) is more effective than gains or positive framing (Lindenmaker, 2008). Also, recognition through the promise of a 'thank you plaque' for volunteers increases people's willingness to volunteer (Fisher and

Ackerman 1998).

Emphasising self-efficacy (i.e. the volunteer's belief in their ability to help others and make a difference) when promoting volunteering increases rates of volunteering through the ego effect (Lindenmaker, 2008).

We note that (as with many behavioural experiments) some studies may have small sample sizes, meaning that they may not be representative of the wider population, and few of them have been replicated, so the findings in some contexts may be one-offs. However, since they align with solid behavioural research and evidence from other fields, these are still very useful studies.

In later sections we develop this discussion further by adding suggestions on other ways that we can impact on volunteering behaviour based on all of the evidence and literature we have reviewed in this report.

5.1.6. The experience of volunteering

One area that has been the subject of a lot of research in behavioural science but does not explicitly feature in MINDSPACE is how people experience events. In volunteering, the experience of the activities will be important as it will be a key determinant of how well volunteers perform and how likely we are to retain them: if volunteering is a good experience it will make people enjoy it more and hence be more effective and more likely to come back and do it again.

We can improve the experience of volunteering in a number of ways (and we discuss this in more detail below), but one important aspect to touch on related to System 1 thinking here is how people recall an event. A key finding in the literature has been that our memories (and crucially) our subsequent decisions to do something again or not are based on two elements of our previous experiences: the 'peak' emotion and the 'end' emotion. This is known as the 'peak-end effect' and states that our memories of an experience are based on the most salient episode (the most intense subjective experience) and the end part of the experience (the final subjective experience). These could be negative or positive experiences.

For instance, whether you remember a meal in a restaurant favourably or unfavourably will depend to a large extent on the most intense moment and the final moments. So, if the waiter spilled soup on your leg and the bill took a long time to arrive (negative peak and end experiences) this may out-weigh even the best food and atmosphere and leave a negative memory of the event. Now, of course, this will be subjective and so if you don't care about the soup, you may remember the fantastic main course. Or, if you aren't in a rush then you may not care about the delay with the bill and other emotions will dominate the experience. What all of this means (and this is a consequence of the peak-end rule) is that people place very little weight on the duration of an event; an issue known as 'duration neglect' (Fredrickson and Kahneman 1993).

In order to improve retention of volunteers we need to maximise the positivity of volunteers' *memories* of their experience and not just the experiences themselves. In many cases it is the memories of the event that drives subsequent choices (i.e. the decision to volunteer again). Therefore, we need to make the most salient aspect and the end aspects of the activity as

positive as possible. Now, of course we cannot legislate for everything and even with our best intentions volunteers may have negative experiences, but we can certainly put in place mechanisms that will, all else equal, ensure that the memories of volunteering are as positive and favourable as possible. A positive peak experience could be to have a time during the work where volunteers can socialise and mix with other volunteers or to have a session where volunteers can pass on their specific knowledge to other volunteers and a positive end experience could be to make sure that each and every volunteer is thanked for his/her time at the end of the day. Another area could be to design the volunteering experience to make it as easy as possible through signposting, clear directions and rules and tips and help. As a practical example, a hospital found that they could reduce patient aggression towards staff by redesigning the layout to make it obvious what people had to do and where they had to be (Design Council 2011). Similarly, volunteers may become stressed (and remember this stress) if the experience and work are planned and directed poorly for volunteers.

Chapter 6
G.I.V.E.R.S.

Recruiting volunteers, retaining volunteers and realising the potential of volunteers

SPORT+ RECREATION ALLIANCE

Background

This section brings together all of our analysis and findings from the report in the format of a practical set of guidelines for volunteering policy. We develop a set of evidence-based factors that can help organisations to get more people volunteering and to retain and employ their volunteers more effectively. To recap:

There are rational and also somewhat less rational reasons for why we volunteer. The key to understanding our volunteering decisions is to acknowledge that people's motives for volunteering are both altruistic and selfish (or self-centred) (System 2) and that their decisions can ultimately be influenced by seemingly irrelevant or unimportant contextual factors (System 1). In this respect in order to maximise the number of people volunteering we need to present people with volunteering opportunities that capture and satisfy our underlying intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and to make people aware of these benefits all within the best possible choice architecture that 'nudges' people to volunteer. Choice architecture is the context in which people make decisions.

G.I.V.E.R.S.

GIVERS is our six step evidence-based approach to influencing volunteering behaviour. GIVERS will help organisations achieve the three Rs of volunteering: Recruit | Retain | Realise. That is Recruit more volunteers; Retain more volunteers and Realise the potential of volunteers by maximising their impact.

GIVERS stands for Growth, Impact, Voice, Experience, Recognition, Social. It covers both System 1 and System 2 motivators and behaviours (covering extrinsic and intrinsic factors). It is a simple guide or checklist for maximising volunteering. By following these recommendations organisations will maximise the intrinsic and extrinsic appeal of volunteering in the right choice architecture and this will allow organisations to increase numbers of volunteers and to retain volunteers better as well as making volunteering more enjoyable, which we believe will make time spent doing voluntary work more productive and effective.

Through **GIVERS** we can Recruit, Retain and Realise the potential of volunteers.

GIVERS is an evidence-based approach developed from core findings and evidence from behavioural science and our in-depth review, research and analysis of the volunteering literature and data. In Appendix Table A38 we set out the specific evidence (and references) that support each of the six elements of GIVERS.

Following GIVERS will make volunteering more attractive to people by:

i. Offering and providing opportunities for intrinsic and extrinsic benefits and rewards from volunteering;

ii. Nudging people to volunteer by making the choice architecture as favourable

as possible.

iii. Improving the experience of volunteering which will lead to increased retention and more effective volunteering.

Implementing GIVERS successfully is essentially about offering the right volunteering opportunities, making the volunteering experience great and informing people of the impacts and benefits of volunteering.

Implementing GIVERS in order to fully reap its benefits so that more people volunteer may require significant organisational change and a move away from the 'trusted' status quo. This is normal with any change in approach to thinking about human behaviour if improvements are desired. Organisations in the private and public sectors who have made the brave decision to move away from the status quo and base their strategies and interventions on how people actually behave have reaped the benefits through greater revenues and profits and more effective policies. The volunteering sector should be no different. GIVERS is the first evidence-based framework for better understanding why people volunteer and for making volunteering better.

G.I.V.E.R.S.	
Growth	Opportunities for personal growth and improved wellbeing as part of the volunteering experience and process will significantly increase the attractiveness of volunteering to people.
Impact	Volunteers want to see results to know that their work has made a difference for people, communities and society so make sure that voluntary work leads to tangible benefits for communities and that volunteers can clearly see this.
Voice	When recruiting volunteers the way that we frame the message and who that message comes from is important. Use various messaging techniques such as priming, incentives and norms to increase the number of volunteers.
Experience	Finding, enrolling and participating in volunteer programmes should be easy and hassle-free and volunteers should be given maximum flexibility to fit voluntary work around their busy lives in order to reduce opportunity costs (personal sacrifices). Make sure that the experiences (especially the peak and end experiences) are positive to maximise retention and impact of volunteers.
Recognition	Acknowledge that people may volunteer to be rewarded in non-financial ways (e.g. through qualifications and skill attainment and community benefits for themselves) and to improve their wellbeing and that they also need recognition of their good deeds, which could be through personal recognition (a thank you) or social recognition through a public 'thank you' and awards. Make volunteering rewarding and make sure that people know the rewards.
Social	Volunteering is an inherently social activity. Firstly, it is an opportunity for people to interact, socialise and make friends in their communities and so make sure to create these opportunities for volunteers. Secondly, many people feel a civic duty to help others and contribute to society and so it is important to provide meaningful roles to volunteers that align with their sense of duty.

G.I.V.E.R.S. in practice – award winning results

6.1.1. Applying GIVERS: suggested strategies, approaches and activities

Here we list some suggestions and strategies in line with the GIVERS principles. There will be many more strategies that could also be used within the GIVERS framework, but hopefully this section will clarify how GIVERS can be applied in practice and provide encouragement for the reader to think about other strategies that could be used when applying the GIVERS framework. The reader will have the best understanding of the type of volunteers being targeted which permits the chance to fine-tune and adapt GIVERS to the target audience.

Growth

- Provide training (formal or informal) and the opportunity for volunteers to learn new skills that will be valuable throughout their lives generally.
- Provide training and opportunities for volunteers to develop their current skills.
- Allow volunteers to apply current skills in new environments and settings.
- Provide challenging tasks that require problem solving and a sense of achievement when completed.
- Make volunteers feel like they have achieved something for themselves as well as for their local community.

Impact

- Connect and link voluntary work with direct or indirect benefits for people by showing how their work contributes to the community and society.
- Allow volunteers to be part of the consultation and decision-making processes with stakeholders.
- Provide opportunities for volunteers to interact and connect with beneficiaries and local communities.
- Give volunteers a voice during the evaluation of any volunteering projects. All too often impact reports and evaluations focus only on the stakeholders and beneficiaries.
- Allow volunteers the opportunity to provide suggestions for improving the effectiveness and impact of voluntary work.
- Seeing and understanding the impact and importance of their work for others will be a key experience and emotion that volunteers will take away with them and remember. Communicate the impact to volunteers during and after their volunteering.

Voice

- Ensure that the decision-making context and choice architecture are right for

volunteers.

- Use ‘nudges’ to ensure that those who want to volunteer do volunteer. This is usually at the decision-making stage (i.e. the sign-up stage), but can also be during the voluntary work itself. We provide some examples here (note that even if people know that they are being ‘nudged’ it is hard, if not impossible, for them to not be nudged so the right strategy can really work).

- **Messenger:** The ‘call to volunteer’ should come from a person rather than an anonymous call or message. And that person should be someone who is like us, who we trust and/or who is seen as an expert. For the purposes of volunteering an ‘expert’ could be someone who has volunteered before and knows all about it.

- **Incentives:** Losses loom much larger than gains. The impact on a person’s psyche of a loss is greater than the impact of an equivalent gain in absolute terms (e.g. the anguish of losing £100 is much greater than the joy of winning £100). This is known as loss aversion (Kahneman and Tversky 1982) and appears in many of our daily activities and decisions. The key is that any activity or outcome can be couched in terms of a loss or a gain. One example in volunteering would be that based on this evidence people would be more likely to volunteer if we frame the volunteering outcome as a loss (e.g. “without your voluntary work many homeless people will go without food tonight”) rather than as a gain (e.g. “if you volunteer many homeless people will get a meal tonight”).

  There will be many other ways in which volunteering can be framed as a loss (a benefit foregone). Another way to incentivise people is through the depiction of volunteering as a challenge. When recruiting teachers adverts that asked if people were “up for a challenge” were almost twice as effective as those emphasising the pro-social aspects of teaching (Behavioural Insights Team 2015). This type of messaging could easily be translated to the volunteering context. Adverts could be made to incorporate both the loss frame and the challenge frame in the same text (e.g. “Are you up for a challenge? Without your help many young people will continue to feel disenfranchised and marginalised from society”).

- **Norms:** People are more likely to volunteer if others are volunteering. If volunteering rates are generally high, knowledge of this may lead to a higher propensity to volunteer (e.g. 75% of people in your local area have volunteered before). This type of messaging has worked with great success in many policy areas such as environmentally-friendly behaviour and tax payments, but something that is unique to volunteering in this kind of situation is the free-rider problem. That is if people know that most others volunteer then this may backfire and they may feel that they do not need to help out (recall that one of the drivers of volunteering was that people felt that they had to do it because no one else would), but this is unlikely because there are many causes that people can sign up to and hence there will probably not be the feeling that there are ‘enough’ volunteers.

  Other norms-related approaches for volunteering could be to have people signal on social media when they have done some volunteering. One study found that when young people state that they have voted it increases the likelihood that their friends will also vote (Bond et al. 2012). This social norming message seems to be even stronger when the individual’s face is also shown (capturing elements of affect). Another method when searching for volunteers in face-to-face environments would be to approach people who are not on their own such that the presence of a friend, family

member or partner induces the individual to say 'yes' (they would look bad in front of others, especially if the others may have volunteered themselves).

Many other possibilities of using social norms will be available, but one key point to note is that social norms can work in both directions, such that messages about low attendance or compliance rates leads people to attend and comply less (i.e. negative social norms lead to negative behaviours). For example, posters in GP clinics asking people 'not to miss their appointments because so many others do which causes delays' were counter-productive and gave people licence to miss their own appointments (Hallsworth et al. 2015). Volunteering adverts should avoid references to volunteers being required because no one else is volunteering. This creates a negative social norm effect and also a negative signal (see reciprocity).

- **Defaults:** Changing the default position to one of giving rather than not giving has worked in numerous areas. When defaulted into giving, the number of organ donors and the number of staff members who give to charity from their salary significantly increase (Johnson and Goldstein 2004). The current status quo in volunteering is that it is natural and normal that people do not volunteer as it is with organ donations in many countries. This leads to a status quo bias. This can be eradicated somewhat by changing the default position to one of volunteering which could be implemented in the workplace context. For example, all new employees could have in their contracts that they will give three days per year to the company volunteering scheme, with the option to opt-out (as they do with pensions), which should increase volunteering.

- **Priming:** is a great way to get people to think about volunteering. Priming for volunteering is about getting people to think about helping others (or catching people when they are thinking about this) when they are making the decision to volunteer. Getting people to think about superheroes is one way that has clearly worked in the past and it could be used in a number of ways for example through references to or pictures of superheroes on PR documents. In the US, for example, charity donations and volunteers are often sought from the public at the start of a movie in cinemas. But the evidence on priming suggests that this elicitation should come at the end of a movie and it should be used mainly where the movie depicts or contains a superhero character. Another form of priming is included in Pfeffer and DeVoe's (2009) study which found that when people are primed to think about the value of their own time, volunteering decreases, whereas if they are primed to think about the value of other people's time, volunteering increases.

- **Affect:** People are more likely to volunteer when they are feeling happy or in a positive mood (recall the virtuous cycle of volunteering). For example, people who are told that they did well in a task or test are more likely to volunteer (when asked afterwards) (Weyant 1978) than those who do not get any feedback and as discussed above other ways of inducing positive moods increase people's propensity to be altruistic. There are many potential ways that this effect could be harnessed. For example, in the workplace high-performing employees could be asked whether they would like to volunteer in the coming year straight after they have received their glowing end-of-year review reports. And volunteering adverts could incorporate comedy and amusing elements to improve people's moods at the point of making decisions regarding volunteering.

- **Commitments:** People are much more likely to do or complete a project or activity once they have made a public commitment to do so. Firstly, commitment devices are useful when trying to ensure that volunteers who have signed up do actually turn up

on the day. Having people who have committed to an appointment (e.g. doctor's appointment) write down the day and time of the appointment in the presence of someone else leads to a significant increase in attendance rates compared to someone writing the appointment time for them or sending them an email or letter about it. This is because people have (even if only in a very small way) made a public commitment to attend. In a similar manner attendance rates could be boosted through written commitments to turn up at a certain time and day. Secondly, commitment devices can be used to boost the number of volunteers as well. People who state (commit) on social media that they are going to lose weight are far more successful at losing weight (Courtney et al. 2014). In a similar manner asking people to commit on social media to do some volunteering this year (e.g. as part of their new year's resolutions or their work plan) could increase volunteer rates.

Another form of pseudo commitment would be to first ask people what the main problems are in their local community (e.g. litter, anti-social behaviour, lack of services) and then to follow this question up by asking them whether they would like to volunteer. This may increase volunteer rates through a form of commitment (because people are telling you the local problems the next logical step would be to then think about the solutions to this and as part of these solutions people may commit to the idea of volunteering). This type of approach may also tap into the concept of cognitive dissonance, whereby people do not like to portray a conflicted or inconsistent image of oneself. In this case once someone has listed all of the problems they would seem very inconsistent if they then turned around and refused to volunteer to eradicate these problems.

- **Ego:** Making people feel good about themselves will make them more likely to act. A key tool here is to make people believe in their ability to affect outcomes and people's lives. That is to emphasise self-efficacy in volunteering, which is the volunteer's belief in their own ability to help others and make a difference, when promoting volunteering. This increases rates of volunteering (Eden and Kinnar 1991).

- **Reciprocity:** We tend to reciprocate good deeds. Stating that others in your local area are volunteering, but that we still need more volunteers (to avoid the free-rider problem) may lead to a social or community level of reciprocation where the individual feels the need to reciprocate this positive behaviour which positively impacts on all of us. This may also lead to a signalling effect whereby this information 'signals' that there are worthy causes to get involved in. Both of these mechanisms could lead to an increase in volunteers. Another important aspect of reciprocity here is that there is no better time to ask for a favour than when someone has just thanked you (Kube et al. 2012). This naturally leads to the possibility of increasing volunteers in the local area because once a beneficiary has thanked a volunteer it opens up the chance for the volunteer to ask the beneficiary to reciprocate by volunteering themselves next time. This type of strategy may lead to an increase in volunteers as well as a diversification in volunteers whereby more volunteers come from the local area bringing new ideas, experience and knowledge of the local community with them.

Experience (and Ease)

- Understand that volunteering comes with costs for the volunteer in terms of effort and the opportunity cost of time (the activities they forgo in order to volunteer).

- Allow volunteers maximum flexibility when deciding when and where to volunteer so that they can fit the voluntary work around their busy lives. This may mean exploring

novel ways for people to contribute such as doing voluntary work from their homes and contributing through online technology. For example, meetings could be undertaken through teleconferences and some forms of volunteering such as mediation services could also be undertaken over the phone or through teleconferencing.

- Make enrolment to voluntary work as simple and as quick as possible.
- Provide easy-to-understand guidelines and instructions for volunteers regarding the tasks.
- Make travel to sites easy and quick. For example, purchase travel tickets in advance for volunteers and have someone waiting when they arrive to greet them and guide them.
- On the day/during the project have clear sign posting and representatives whose job it is to guide and assist volunteers.
- Complexities and difficulties that may surface during a volunteering experience due to poor planning and management and other problems could be remembered as the peak emotion leading to a negative overall memory of the volunteering experience (even if the volunteer generally enjoyed the work) and hence low retention rates (peak-end effect).

Recognition

- Volunteering is rewarding and people should be informed of the capacity that volunteering has to change the quality of volunteers' lives for the better in terms of improved health and wellbeing.
- Financial rewards – in other words direct compensation such as payment (monetary or in vouchers etc.) - for voluntary work should be avoided.
- Non-financial rewards are key and these include short- and long-term rewards. If these types of rewards are relevant as part of the volunteering experience they should be highlighted to people when making volunteering choices.
- Short-term rewards are benefits that people experience during the voluntary work. This can be, for example, the opportunity to watch a sporting event or a concert during the voluntary work, or to visit another country and to travel. Short-term rewards will likely be recalled as peak positive experiences during the voluntary work and so have the potential to create positive overall memories of volunteering (the peak-end rule) leading on to better retention rates.
- Longer-term rewards relate to the potential for the volunteering work and the experience to have positive knock-on effects on other areas of people's lives after the project or activity has finished. This is usually closely related to the positive impact that volunteering can have on labour market outcomes later. This will include opportunities to gain qualifications and to use the volunteering experiences to improve career opportunities. These labour market related rewards are especially important for younger cohorts (including students), unemployed people and women. Qualifications (rewards) can include qualifications that improve labour market opportunities, but also may include certificates for completing a volunteering programme and the number of hours completed (e.g. gold/silver/bronze certificates to recognise the number of hours

of voluntary work completed).

- Other longer-term rewards relate to the concept of 'volunteers as beneficiaries' and the fact that people may volunteer for positive knock-on effects and results such as a more pleasant or safer place to live.

- Recognition of volunteers' contribution is also key. Most of the attention in any volunteering project is focused on the stakeholders and their needs (and rightly so), but this can be to the detriment of recognition of the volunteer's needs, contributions and achievements. Volunteers make huge sacrifices and contributions and this must be recognised within any project alongside the needs of the community and stakeholders. A simple but effective strategy is to ensure that all volunteers are thanked every time that they contribute. Preferably this should be in person and if possible the 'thank you' should come from the beneficiaries. This has the double benefit of recognising the volunteer's work and also allowing volunteers to see the benefit of their work for people (the impact principle). Secondly the timing of the 'thank you' and recognition is important because placing the 'thank you' at the end of the project will improve the memory of the volunteering experience for volunteers (peak-end effect) and should lead to better retention of volunteers.

- Other forms of recognition are also effective such as public announcements and recognition, awards ceremonies, and plaques dedicated to volunteers. These methods are doubly effective because they acknowledge the volunteer's contribution whilst also nurturing our extrinsic motivations for fame and social status.

Social

- Provide plentiful opportunities for volunteers to interact with other volunteers and stakeholders during and after the volunteering activity. This has the double benefit of also fostering the impact principle in that volunteers can get the opportunity to speak to stakeholders about how the work has benefited them.

- These opportunities should be created by ensuring that time is set aside during the activity for volunteers to meet and socialise with others. This could lead to better memories of the experience (and hence better retention) as this may be a peak positive experience that volunteers take away from the volunteering. And a great way to end a project is to have a party or celebration with the volunteers to celebrate the success and achievements. This will help to cement new relationships whilst also recognising their contribution (the reward & recognition principle).

- Social factors can also be reinforced by making people feel as part of a team. This can be through inclusion of volunteers in consultation and decision-making processes (which will also reinforce the impact principle) and also through more simple approaches such as providing uniforms for volunteers and giving names to volunteering teams.

- The social principle is also about recognising that people want to volunteer out of a principle of civic duty. Duty-based behaviour derives from strong personal ethical principles and may be unrelated to factors such as the reward & recognition principle and the growth principle and so the design and content of the volunteering experience for duty-based volunteers will be different and less reliant on extrinsic motivational factors. It is therefore important to know who the duty-based volunteers are.

6.1.2. The GIVERS principles in action: Explaining successful volunteering campaigns and projects through behavioural science

The GIVERS principles were in evidence at the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games and throughout Join In the London 2012 volunteering legacy campaign.

That work has seen national campaigns develop with BBC and ITV and involvement in two BT Sports Industry Awards being won. The evidence in this report is not merely theory - it clearly works in practice and can help everyone to maximise how they recruit, manage and retain volunteers.

6.1.3. London 2012 – Games Makers at the Olympics and Paralympics

Today, we can look back on the London Olympics and Paralympic Games in 2012 as a resounding success, and a moment of real national pride and unity. But without the 70,000 Games Makers, it would have been a very different story.

The principles behind the GIVERS framework were working behind the scenes to make sure there were over 240,000 applicants for those roles and that the 70,000 people selected were fully prepared and motivated to make a difference.

Growth

- Volunteering allowed people to be part of a swell of national and community pride connected to hosting the games.
- Volunteers were given full training before participating.
- They were able to boost their confidence and self-esteem as a consequence of participating.

Impact

- The Olympic and Paralympic Games were viewed as incredibly successful internationally and the role of Games Makers bringing about that success was continually mentioned.
- Games Makers had opportunities to interact and connect with the beneficiaries of their work
- A positive personal impact was felt by the majority of the Games Makers who were able to wear their uniforms as badges of honour.

Voice & message

- The Olympic and Paralympic Games were enormously high-profile, making it very easy to promote the volunteering programme.
- Since hosting an Olympic and Paralympic Games only comes around once every few decades, applicants were loss averse. This meant that London 2012 could challenge the audience by asking: “have you got what it takes?”, and motivate with the fear of missing out on the once in a lifetime opportunity.
- The name ‘Games Maker’ gave volunteers a clear identity and a powerful image.
- The rallying cry for Games Makers was delivered right from the top by Lord Coe.
- People valued the fact that London had won the right to host the Olympic and

Paralympic Games and felt that they needed to reciprocate by volunteering.

Experience (and Ease)

- The sign-up process involved a simple online application.
- Volunteers were given full training before participating.
- There was a structured team framework in which group leaders managed the volunteers.

Reward and recognition

- Games Makers were recognised and thanked formally in the opening and closing ceremonies, and less formally in the media.
- Games Makers and their important contribution were highly visible to the public.
- They were given medals to recognise their contribution to the Games.
- They were able to watch many of the sporting events and to meet the athletes.

Social

- Games Makers often worked in pairs or within groups, making volunteering a social activity.
- Many Games Makers interacted with people throughout the day.
- Many people felt that it was their civic duty to volunteer in such an important national event.
- Uniforms gave Games Makers a sense of identity and team spirit.

6.1.4. BBC Get Inspired and the #BigThankYou at BBC Sports Personality of The Year

As the Reward & Recognition principle in GIVERS demonstrates, thanking volunteers is key to their retention – and with 5.6m volunteers in sport in the UK, that's critical.

Join In partnered with BBC Get Inspired in 2014 to create the nation's biggest 'thank you' to sport volunteers at BBC Sports Personality of the Year. The UK's sporting heroes, past and present queued up at a golden phone box on the red carpet to say a big thank you to the people who make local sport happen – the volunteers. During the show, Eddie Izzard, then patron of Join In, asked the TV audience and everyone at the venue, to add their thanks and the response was enormous!

Since then the #BigThankYou hashtag has trended worldwide on Twitter up until the time of this report – beating the X Factor final on the same night in 2014, with no above the line spend.

6.1.5. I Am Team GB

Led by The National Lottery, ITV, Team GB and Join In, 'I Am Team GB' became the nation's biggest ever sports day on 27th August 2016. 972,000 people took part in 2,600 events

across the UK as part of the Team GB Rio 2016 homecoming campaign.

The Join In's team's experience in hosting a weekend of grassroots sport between the Olympic and Paralympic Games helped with the design and structure of the I Am Team GB campaign. The GIVERS principles were used to build a campaign to engage volunteer-run sports, clubs and groups to open their doors, encourage new members and grow their volunteer base:

Growth: "a fun day out for you and your family"

Impact: "be part of the nation's biggest sports day"

Voice: different voices were chosen by ITV for different audiences - both sporting and non-sporting voices.

Experience: an easy-to-use website was built where you could search by postcode for a free event near you, making the experience simple, relevant and timely.

Recognition: everyone who took part received emails thanking them and keeping them informed of the impact of their effort in creating the nation's biggest sports day in 2016.

Social: at all times 'I Am Team GB' was communicated as fun, free and community event. A social occasion for the nation.

The results spoke for themselves:

- Nearly 1 million people attended an event on the day
- Over 2,600 clubs opened their doors and hosted events on one day
- 52% of attendees were people who do not enjoy exercising in their spare time
- #IAmTeamGB was number one in the UK on Twitter and trended worldwide on the day
- 4.1 million people said they would do more sporting activity as a result of the campaign.

The I Am Team GB campaign has since won the Participation Event of the Year at the Sport Industry Awards, been nominated for Sports Event of the Year at The Drum UK Event Awards 2016, as well as The National Lottery being nominated for The Marketing Society Brand of the Year 2016, held in association with the campaign.

Conclusions

Conclusions

Volunteering plays an increasingly crucial role in civic society in the United Kingdom. Nearly a quarter of adults report having volunteered in the last 12 months in England. They do so for a number of reasons, but volunteering is clearly associated with improved health and wellbeing.

We have demonstrated the associations between volunteering, health and wellbeing through exhaustive analysis of national population datasets in the UK. We find that volunteering is significantly associated with improved wellbeing, better mental health, and better general health. Formal volunteering in particular is associated with wellbeing on a number of measures.

Of the different types of volunteering that people do in the UK, the results suggest that volunteering in sport is significantly associated with wellbeing, something which is not the case for other types of volunteering like arts and heritage (using the data available), while the coefficient for sport volunteering is slightly larger than the coefficient for general volunteering.

The challenge is to engage those that we know are more likely to volunteer, while encouraging those groups who typically volunteer less. Yet despite the large numbers of individuals who volunteer in sport in the UK, and the clear benefits of sport volunteering, we identified large gaps in the data available on sport volunteers in the UK, why they volunteer, and the reasons that people don't volunteer in sport and other types of volunteering

We performed original research using an online survey of over 2,000 sports, general and non-volunteers in the UK. This provides much needed insights on the drivers and barriers to volunteering in the UK, as well as confirming the wellbeing benefits associated with voluntary activities.

We have introduced behavioural insights based on decision-making frameworks which go beyond the standard economic approach of rationality to explore why people decide to start or stop volunteering, Intrinsic and extrinsic motivators drive some of these decisions. In addition, more people are also influenced by immediate factors such as the environment they are in when taking a decision and whether they are accompanied by friends. We used the MINDSPACE a tool developed by the Cabinet Office to put this work in context.

We combined the analysis described above to develop the GIVERS framework to support those working with volunteers to recruit more volunteers, retain those they have and realise their potential. GIVERS stands for Growth, Impact, Voice, Experience, Recognition, Social.

As we can see from the case studies on page 84, the evidence in this report is not merely theoretical; it works in practice too, and it's designed to enable everyone to maximise how they recruit, manage and retain volunteers. The practical application of GIVERS insights has helped win two BT Sports Industry Awards and with the help of BBC Get Inspired seen volunteering in sport trending globally Twitter! GIVERS has already engaged hundreds of thousands of members of the public and volunteer-led community groups across the UK.

Alongside practical results on the ground, we also believe that these findings can help to

inform high-level decision making in the voluntary sector. The insights provided in this report can be used to help recruitment, management and retaining of one of the most valuable resource the country has – its volunteers. Together, we can help to increase the benefits that volunteering provides, both to society and to the health and wellbeing of volunteers themselves.

Appendix

Appendix

Table A1. Descriptions of variables: BHPS and Taking Part	
Variable	**Description**
Fixed Effects regression (BHPS)	
Dependent variables	
General health	Self-reported general health: (1 = excellent/good; 0 = fair/poor/very poor
GHQ	General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) 36 item scale: 0= No health problems; 36= High health problems
Life satisfaction	Self-reported life satisfaction on 1-7 scale: 1 = not at all satisfied; 0 = very satisfied
Volunteering variables	
Volunteer	Voluntary work: 1 = at least once a year; 0= never/almost never (reference)
Control variables	
Male	Gender: 1 = male; 0 = female
Income	Log. annual household income
Age	Age of respondent as continuous variable
Age sq	Non-linear function of age
See friends	1= Meet people on most days, 0=Otherwise
N Children	Number of children as continuous variable
Married	Marital status: 1= Married, 0=Otherwise
Divorced	Marital status: 1= Separated, 0=Otherwise
Separated	Marital status: 1= Divorced, 0=Otherwise
Widowed	Marital status: 1= Widowed, 0=Otherwise
Single	Marital status: Reference group
Social Housing	1= Lives in social housing, 0=Otherwise
Safe Area	1= No vandalism/crime problems in area, 0=Otherwise
Degree	Education: 1 = Higher education qualification (degree or higher), 0=Otherwise
FT job	Employment status: 1= Full-time employed, 0=Otherwise
PT job	Employment status: 1= Part-time employed, 0=Otherwise
Retired	Employment status: 1= Retired, 0=Otherwise
Self-employed	Employment status: 1= Self-employed, 0=Otherwise
Study	Employment status: 1= Full-time student, 0=Otherwise
Long term sick	Employment status: 1= Long term sick, 0=Otherwise

Family care	Employment status: 1= Family care, 0=Otherwise
Other employ	Employment status: 1= Other employment status, 0=Otherwise
Unemployed	Employment status: Reference group
Taking Part	
Dependent variables	
Happy	Taken all things together how happy are you? (on a 1-10 scale)
General health	General health (self-reported) on a 5-point scale: 1= Poor, and 5= Excellent
Volunteering variables	
General vol	Any voluntary work in the last 12 months: 1 = yes; 0 = no
Vol in Sport	Hours of voluntary work in sports in the last 4 weeks: 1 >0; 0 = 0
Vol in Arts	Hours of voluntary work in arts in the last 4 weeks: 1 >0; 0 = 0
Vol in Gallery	Hours of voluntary work in a museum/gallery in the last 4 weeks: 1 >0; 0 = 0
Vol in Heritage	Hours of voluntary work on heritage in the last 4 weeks: 1 >0; 0 = 0
Vol in Library	Hours of voluntary work in a library the last 4 weeks: 1 >0; 0 = 0
Vol in Archives	Hours of voluntary work in archives in the last 4 weeks: 1 >0; 0 = 0
Male	Gender: 1= Male, 0=Otherwise
Age	Age of respondent as continuous variable
Age Squared	Non-linear function of age
BME	Ethnicity: 1= Black and Minority Ethnic, 0=white
Higher education	Education: 1 = Higher education qualification (degree or higher), 0=Otherwise
Income	Log. annual personal income
Married	Marital status: 1= Married, 0=Otherwise
Divorced	Marital status: 1= Divorced, 0=Otherwise
CoHabit	Marital status: 1= Cohabiting, 0=Otherwise
Widowed	Marital status: 1= Widowed, 0=Otherwise
Separated	Marital status: 1= Separated, 0=Otherwise
Single	Marital status: Reference group
Children	1= Has dependent children, 0=Otherwise
Religious	1= Religious, 0=Otherwise
Limiting Health	Illness or disability limits activities: 1 = yes; 0 = no
Social Housing	1= Lives in social housing, 0=Otherwise
NE	Region: 1= North East resident, 0=Otherwise
NW	Region: 1= North West resident, 0=Otherwise
York Humb	Region: 1= Yorkshire and Humber resident, 0=Otherwise
East Mid	Region: 1= East Midlands resident, 0=Otherwise
West Mid	Region: 1= West Midlands resident, 0=Otherwise

East Eng	Region: 1= East England resident, 0=Otherwise
SE	Region: 1= South East resident, 0=Otherwise
SW	Region: 1= South West resident, 0=Otherwise
London	Region: Reference group
Full time employed	Employment status: 1= Full-time employed, 0=Otherwise
Self employed	Employment status: 1= Self-employed, 0=Otherwise
Part time employed	Employment status: 1= Part-time employed, 0=Otherwise
Govt training	Employment status: 1= Government training scheme, 0=Otherwise
Inactive waiting for work	Employment status: 1= Inactive waiting for work, 0=Otherwise
Unpaid work	Employment status: 1= Unpaid work, 0=Otherwise
Student	Employment status: 1= Full-time student, 0=Otherwise
Family worker	Employment status: 1= Family worker, 0=Otherwise
Inactive ill	Employment status: 1= Inactive due to illness, 0=Otherwise
Retired	Employment status: 1= Retired, 0=Otherwise
Unemployed	Employment status: Reference group

Table A2. Fixed effects regression models for general health, GHQ and life satisfaction (BHPS)

	General Health	GHQ	Life Sat
Volunteering	0.168***	-0.276***	0.042***
Income	0.000	0.074*	-0.002
Age	0.065***	0.035*	0.002
Age sq	-0.001***	0	-0.000***
See friends	0.035	-0.147**	0.067***
N Children	0.021	-0.017	-0.021**
Married	0.078	0.378***	0.005
Divorced	0.013	0.541***	-0.219***
Separated	-0.014	2.157***	-0.352***
Widowed	-0.177	1.894***	-0.397***
Social Housing	0.143*	-0.207*	0.062**
Safe Area	0.133***	-0.187***	0.050***
Degree	0.198	-0.283	0
FT job	0.321***	-1.559***	0.286***
PT job	-0.07	-0.088	0.022

Retired	0.004	-1.417***	0.308***
Self-employed	0.377***	-1.522***	0.280***
Study	0.314***	-1.524***	0.370***
Long term sick	-1.383***	1.126***	-0.176***
Family care	-0.015	-0.947***	0.235***
Other employ	0.147	-1.536***	0.391***
Constant	-	22.504***	5.268***
Observations	32424	75332	75603
r2	-	0.014	0.014

Notes: *** < 1%; ** < 5%; * < 10% significance. Fixed effects models including individual and region fixed effects. Note, general health xtlogit model does not produce constant or r2 outputs.

Table A3. Association between type of volunteering and health and wellbeing (Community Life)

	Life satisfaction	Happiness	Anxiety	Purpose	General health
Any type of volunteering	0.086**	0.127***	0.007	0.298***	0.080***
Informal volunteering	0.041	0.052	0.095	0.239***	0.047***
Formal volunteering	0.206***	0.216***	-0.088	0.318***	0.109***
Employee volunteering	0.095	0.052	-0.197	0.236**	-0.011

Notes: Coefficients from regression models. All regression models control for a wide range of determinants of health and wellbeing as set out in Fujiwara and Campbell (2011). *** < 1%; ** < 5%; * < 10% significance. Heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors used.

Table A4. Volunteering activity and happiness (Taking Part)

	General vol	Vol in Sport	Vol in Arts	Vol in Gallery	Vol in Heritage	Vol in Library	Vol in Archives
Volunteering	0.111***	0.121*	0.138	0.271	0.067	0.076	0.008
Male	-0.092***	-0.035	-0.178	0.121	-0.117	-0.476	-0.169
Age	-0.056***	-0.086***	-0.071***	-0.016	-0.050**	-0.02	-0.008
Age Squared	0.001***	0.001***	0.001***	0	0.001**	0	0
BME	-0.138***	-0.091	-0.296	-0.829	-0.759**	-0.481	0.864
Higher education	-0.018	0.001	-0.018	-0.456*	-0.051	0.072	-0.708

Income bracket	0.022***	0.021*	0.008	0.062	0.012	0.022	0.065
Married	0.742***	0.486***	0.684***	0.679**	0.731***	0.548	0.35
Divorced	0.01	-0.094	0.342	1.109**	0.332	0.411	-2.566
CoHabit	0.577***	0.424***	0.473**	1.740***	0.423	0.417	0.513
Widowed	-0.247***	-0.713***	-0.259	-0.374	-0.199	0.157	-0.342
Separated	-0.260***	-0.604***	0.172	0.717	-0.333	2.522***	-1.643
Children	-0.083***	-0.066	0.006	-0.037	-0.11	0.152	-1.228
Religious	0.169***	0.200***	0.209*	0.145	0.137	0.172	0.778
Limiting Health	-0.545***	-0.278***	-0.581***	-0.392	-0.547***	-0.712	-0.315
Social Housing	-0.023	-0.01	-0.23	-1.358*	0.586	-0.896	-2.619
NE	0.085**	0.227	0.032	0.741	0.374	0.13	0.6
NW	0.071*	0.173	-0.091	0.733	-0.128	1.656**	0.552
York Humb	0.089**	0.187	0.295	0.52	-0.115	0.434	-0.075
East Mid	0.091**	0.212	0.314	0.586	0.051	0.502	-0.371
West Mid	0.097**	0.184	-0.076	0.686	0.27	0.981	-0.076
East Eng	0.064*	0.126	0.016	0.537	0.224	-0.098	0.593
SE	0.023	0.017	-0.003	0.069	-0.228	0.558	-0.495
SW	0.085**	0.066	0.003	0.632	0.131	-1.077	0.247
Full time employed	0.395***	0.313	0.351	-0.42	0.522	0.679	-0.082
Self employed	0.448***	0.442*	0.301	-0.078	0.59	1.343	-0.857
Part time employed	0.446***	0.338	0.174	-0.711	0.39	0.509	-1.924
Govt training	0.219	-0.847	-0.895*	.	-1.682**	0.071	.
Inactive waiting for work	0.365***	0.435	0.147	-0.672	1.09	1.342	.
Unpaid work	0.235	-1.166	0.002	.	0.618	0.631	.
Student	0.569***	0.406	0.157	-1.164	0.733	2.592**	0.048
Family worker	0.254***	0.318	0.457	0.207	0.79	0.502	1.794
Inactive ill	-0.504***	-0.113	0.011	-1.482**	-0.879	0.57	0.358
Retired	0.608***	0.431	0.661*	0.196	0.986	1.118	-0.315
Constant	7.004***	7.688***	7.554***	6.235***	6.796***	5.709***	6.516
Observations	32255	2591	892	179	651	107	77
r2	0.105	0.08	0.107	0.326	0.204	0.389	0.395

Notes: *** < 1%; ** < 5%; * < 10% significance. Heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors used.

Table A5. Regression results for volunteering activities and life satisfaction

Volunteering activity	Association with life satisfaction
Keeping in touch with someone who has difficulty getting out and about (visiting in person, telephoning or e-mailing)	(+ve)**
Doing shopping, collecting pension or paying bills	(+ve)
Sitting with or providing personal care (e.g. washing, dressing) for someone who is sick or frail	(-ve)
Writing letters or filling in forms	(+ve)
Looking after a property or a pet for someone who is away	(+ve)**
Cooking, cleaning, laundry, gardening or other routine household jobs	(-ve)
Decorating, or doing any kind of home or car repairs	(-ve)
Baby sitting or caring for children	(+ve)*
Giving advice	(-ve)**
Transporting or escorting someone (for example to a hospital or on an outing)	(+ve)
Representing someone (for example talking to a council department or to a doctor)	(+ve)

Notes: Coefficients from regression models shown as positive (+ve) or negative (-ve) associations with wellbeing. All regression models control for a wide range of determinants of wellbeing as set out in Fujiwara and Campbell (2011). *** < 1%; ** < 5%; * < 10% significance. Heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors used.

Table A6. Heterogenous effects of general volunteering for happiness

Age		Gender		Income		Employment status	
Volunteer (16-37)	0.094	Volunteer (F)	0.115	Income (£0-£10,000)	0.192	Unemployed (Not FT/PT/SE)	0.316
Volunteer (38-58)	0.094	Volunteer (M)	0.115	Income (£10,000+)	0.076	Employed (FT/PT/SE)	0.02
Volunteer (59+)	0.234						

Notes: Coefficients from regression models. All regression models control for a wide range of determinants of wellbeing as set out in Fujiwara and Campbell (2011). Heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors used. Analysis is conducted using interactive variable models. Results show the cumulative impact adding together interaction terms that are statistically significant.

Table A7. Heterogenous effects of general volunteering for health

Age		Gender		Income		Employment status	
Volunteer (16-37)	0	Volunteer (F)	0.058	Income (£0-£10,000)	0.073	Unemployed (Not FT/PT/SE)	0.14
Volunteer (38-58)	0	Volunteer (M)	0.058	Income (£10,000+)	0.073	Employed (FT/PT/SE)	0.026
Volunteer (59+)	0.128						

Notes: Coefficients from regression models. All regression models control for a wide range of determinants of wellbeing as set out in Fujiwara and Campbell (2011). Heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors used. Analysis is conducted using interactive variable models. Results show the cumulative impact adding together interaction terms that are statistically significant.

Table A8. Reasons for employee volunteering

	% Yes
Why started volunteering: I wanted to improve things/help people	18.4
Why started volunteering: The cause was really important to me	11.7
Why started volunteering: I thought it would give me a chance to use my existing skills	9.6
Why started volunteering: It was connected with the needs of my family/friends	8.2
Why started volunteering: It's part of my philosophy of life to help people	7.5
Why started volunteering: I felt there was a need in my community	7.3
Why started volunteering: I thought it would give me a chance to learn new skill	7.1
Why started volunteering: I had spare time to do it	6.7
Why started volunteering: I wanted to meet people/make friends	6.5
Why started volunteering: My friends/family did it	6.0
Why started volunteering: It's part of my religious belief to help people	4.0
Why started volunteering: It helps me get on in my career	3.4
Why started volunteering: I felt there was no one else to do it	2.4
Why started volunteering: It gave me a chance to get a recognised qualification	0.9
Why started volunteering: None of these	0.3

Table A9. Reasons for stopping employee volunteering

	%
Not enough time due to changing home/work circumstances	8.3
It was a one-off activity or event	2.8
Not enough time - getting involved took up too much	2.0
Moved away from area	1.7
Other	1.3
Due to health problems or old age	1.0
Group/club/organisation wasn't relevant to me	1.0
Lost interest	0.8
Activity linked to my school/college/university/job	0.7
Group/club/organisation finished/closed	0.6
Didn't get asked to do the things I'd like to	0.6
Got involved in another activity instead	0.4
Felt the group/club/organisation was badly organise	0.4
Felt my efforts weren't always appreciated	0.3
Felt I had done my bit my bit/ someone else's turn to get	0.1
It was too bureaucratic/ too much concern about risk	0.1

Table A10. Standard Occupation Category Descriptive Statistics

	General volunteering	Employer volunteering
SOC 2010 Major Groups	%	%
Managers, Directors and Senior Official	11.63	13.98
Professional Occupations	17.72	23.59
Associate Professional and Technical Occupations	13.4	18.5
Administrative and Secretarial Occupations	13.68	14.41
Skilled Trades Occupations	9.33	3.39
Caring, Leisure and Other Service Occupations	9.49	9.18
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	7.82	9.46
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	6.66	3.25
Elementary Occupations	10.26	4.24

Table A11. Standard Occupation Category (SOC) codes & volunteering in the last 12 months (reference elementary occupations)

	General volunteering in last 12 months	Employee volunteering in last 12 months
	Coefficient	Coefficient
Managers, Directors and Senior Official	0.644***	1.308***
Professional Occupations	0.823***	1.089***
Associate Professional and Technical Oc	0.690***	1.249***
Administrative and Secretarial Occupati	0.397***	1.200***
Skilled Trades Occupations	0.03	0.267
Caring, Leisure and Other Service Occup	0.496***	1.060***
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	0.331***	1.192***
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	-0.16	0.26
male	-0.048	0.038
age	-0.013***	-0.038***
Ethnic group: White	0.228**	-0.06
hhincome	0.000**	0.000***
high_educ	0.403***	0.294***
limithealth	-0.171***	-0.354***
married	-0.115	0.028
separated	-0.025	0.241
divorced	0.083	0.456**
widowed	-0.259**	-0.817**
nchild	0.126***	-0.119**
carer	0.233***	0.172
NE	-0.290***	-0.164
NW	-0.091	0.214
York_hmb	-0.013	0.02
E_mid	0.189*	0.580***
W_mid	-0.023	0.353**
E_Eng	0.008	0.023
SW	0.219**	0.176
sharedownership	0.185	-0.398

rent	-0.259***	-0.079
rentother	0.182	-0.19
trust	0.219***	0.172
talk_neigh	0.609***	0.039
Crime and Disorder Index	-0.023**	0.026
Num employees	0.051	0.342***
Constant	0.640***	-3.117***
Observations	8855	8855

Notes: Significant at the *p<.10; **p<.05; ***p<.01 level. Reference group: (i) for gender ref = female; (ii) for ethnicity ref = other ethnicities; (iii) for education ref = all qualifications under Degree; (iv) for marital status ref = single; (v) for carer ref = no caring responsibilities; (vi) for region ref = London; (vii) for housing ref = mortgage or homeowner; (viii) for occupation ref = elementary occupations. Note, religious variable excluded due to lower sample size. Sample is restricted to England and those aged 16 and over. Heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors.

Table A12. Reasons for volunteering (CL)

Reason for volunteering	Male %	Female %	Overall %
I wanted to improve things/help people	58.6	56.1	57.2
I wanted to meet people/make friends*	27.3	30.9	29.4
The cause was really important to me	38	40.4	39.3
My friends/family did it	20.4	19.8	20
It was connected with the needs of my family/friends*	21.5	28.6	25.6
I felt there was a need in my community	26.1	26.7	26.4
I thought it would give me a chance to learn new skills	20.1	18.1	18.9
I thought it would give me a chance to use my existing skills*	30.6	25.4	27.6
It helps me get on in my career	6.8	7.8	7.4
It`s part of my religious belief to help people*	14.1	18.8	16.8
It`s part of my philosophy of life to help people*	26.9	24.3	25.4
It gave me a chance to get a recognised qualification	2.4	1.8	2.1
I had spare time to do it	34.5	34.1	34.3
I felt there was no one else to do it	10.9	9.6	10.1
None of these	1.9	1.3	1.5

Table A13. Motivations for volunteering (YouGov)

Which, if any, of the following would motivate you to volunteer in your local area? (Please select all the apply)	Total	Male	Female
To make friends	28%	21%	34%
To increase my confidence	16%	13%	20%
To gain skills to use in future employment situations	20%	18%	22%
To help disadvantaged people	32%	28%	35%
If the skills I have were needed	32%	29%	34%
To help improve my local area	35%	35%	34%
To be part of a team with great camaraderie	19%	17%	20%
To feel part of the community	31%	25%	36%
To get a prize / reward	8%	9%	8%
If a friend asked me to help them	38%	33%	43%
To inspire the next generation of sporting stars	8%	9%	7%
None of these	25%	28%	21%

Table A14. Barriers to volunteering- Descriptive Statistics (CL)

Barrier variable	Male %	Female %	Overall %
I have work commitment*	53.8	61.5	56.5
I have to look after children/ the home*	37.9	24.3	32.2
I have to look after someone elderly or ill	10.6	7.8	9.4
I have to study	9.9	8.4	9.3
I do other things with my spare time*	20.9	29.1	24.4
I'm not the right age	3.6	4.6	4
I don't know any groups that need help	13.1	11.1	12.3
I haven't heard about opportunities to help	15.5	14.8	15.2
I'm new to the area	6.6	8.2	7.3
I've never thought about it*	6	8.6	7.1
I have an illness or disability that prevents me	11.2	9.8	10.6
It's not my responsibility*	0	0.1	0.3
Other: Lack of transport	0	0.1	0.3
Other: No opportunities have attracted me	0.1	0.1	0.1

Other: I am too busy/ don't have time	0.5	0.2	0.6
Other: I don't know how to get involved	0	0	0.1
Other: I am too lazy/ can't be bothered	0	0.3	0.1
Other: Overall	4	3	3.6

Table A15.Reasons for not volunteering since London 2012

Reason	Response Percentage	Response Count
Not enough time due to changing home or work circumstances	57.1%	376
Wasn't relevant any more	1.7%	11
Health problems or old age	6.1%	40
Moved away from the area	5.3%	35
It took up too much time	5.6%	37
Lost interest	1.7%	11
Not enough time due to increasing time demands of involvement with an organisation	13.2%	87
An organisation I was working with had to close	0.3%	2
Saw it as a one-off event or activity	11.5%	76
Didn't get asked to do the things I like to do	9.0%	59
I felt the organisation was badly organised	0.8%	5
I felt my efforts weren't always appreciated	1.7%	11
I found myself out of pocket	8.5%	56
Too much concern about risk and liability	0.3%	2
It was too bureaucratic	1.2%	8
Other (please specify)	19.7%	130
answered question		*659*
skipped question		*2629*

Table A16. Reasons for stopping volunteering (CL)

Reason stopped volunteering	Male %	Female %	Overall %
Not enough time - due to changing home/work circumstances	43	48	45.8
Not enough time - getting involved took up too much time	13.6	12	12.7
Group/club/organisation finished/closed*	8.3	4.9	6.4

Moved away from area*	13	8.9	10.7
Due to health problems or old age	15	19.2	17.3
Group/club/organisation wasn't relevant to me anymore	4.9	5.1	5
Lost interest	6.5	4.8	5.5
It was a one-off activity or event	16.2	13	14.4
Felt I had done my bit/ someone else's turn to get involved	5.1	3.4	4.1
Got involved in another activity instead	2	1.5	1.7
Didn't get asked to do the things I'd like to	3.6	2.3	2.9
Felt the group/club/organisation was badly organised*	3	0.9	1.8
Felt my efforts weren't always appreciated	3.4	2.8	3
It was too bureaucratic/ too much concern about risk and liability	2.2	1.5	1.8
Activity linked to my school/college/university/job I have now left	4.9	4.3	4.6
Other	6.5	7.5	7.1

Table A17. Sociodemographic variables

	Overall		Sports volunteering branch		General volunteering branch		No volunteering branch	
Variable	**N**	**Mean**	**N**	**Mean**	**N**	**Mean**	**N**	**Mean**
Sports volunteering	2001	0.27	-	-	-	-	-	-
General volunteering	2001	0.22	-	-	-	-	-	-
No volunteering	2001	0.51	-	-	-	-	-	-
Volunteering frequency	955	4.33	538	4.47	417	4.15	-	-
Volunteering time (mins)	988	11.01	544	11.93	444	9.87	-	-
Volunteering length (years)	988	2.65	544	2.58	444	2.74	-	-
Male	2001	0.48	544	0.62	444	0.35	1013	0.46
Age	2001	47.18	544	39.40	444	48.94	1013	50.59
Age2	2001	2492.35	544	1784.34	444	2683.87	1013	2788.63
Num children	2001	0.44	544	0.72	444	0.41	1013	0.30
Health limited	1842	0.33	501	0.27	396	0.35	945	0.35
Religious	1916	0.27	514	0.37	426	0.35	976	0.19
Log income	2001	1.48	544	1.61	444	1.49	1013	1.41
Degree & above	2001	0.37	544	0.47	444	0.40	1013	0.30
Carer	2001	0.04	544	0.03	444	0.05	1013	0.04
Unemployed	2001	0.06	544	0.04	444	0.06	1013	0.07
Student	2001	0.05	544	0.08	444	0.05	1013	0.03
Retired	2001	0.23	544	0.08	444	0.29	1013	0.28
Self employed	2001	0.07	544	0.10	444	0.07	1013	0.06
Part-time	2001	0.12	544	0.12	444	0.15	1013	0.10

Unable to work	2001	0.06	544	0.01	444	0.05	1013	0.08
Not seeking	2001	0.02	544	0.01	444	0.03	1013	0.02
House: Other	2001	0.17	544	0.10	444	0.14	1013	0.21
Private rent	2001	0.62	544	0.66	444	0.64	1013	0.59
Local authority rent	2001	0.18	544	0.20	444	0.19	1013	0.16
Town	2001	0.46	544	0.40	444	0.40	1013	0.51
Village	2001	0.19	544	0.15	444	0.21	1013	0.21
Hamlet	2001	0.03	544	0.03	444	0.03	1013	0.03
Widow	2001	0.03	544	0.01	444	0.05	1013	0.03
Cohabiting	2001	0.10	544	0.07	444	0.09	1013	0.12
Single	2001	0.28	544	0.34	444	0.26	1013	0.25
Divorce	2001	0.09	544	0.04	444	0.08	1013	0.11
Civil partnership	2001	0.01	544	0.02	444	0.01	1013	0.01
Separated	2001	0.02	544	0.02	444	0.01	1013	0.02
Former civil partnership	2001	0.01	544	0.00	444	0.01	1013	0.01
See friends often	2001	0.69	544	0.85	444	0.74	1013	0.59
London	2001	0.06	544	0.10	444	0.07	1013	0.04
Eastengland	2001	0.11	544	0.12	444	0.12	1013	0.10
Eastmid	2001	0.07	544	0.06	444	0.08	1013	0.08
Northeast	2001	0.03	544	0.02	444	0.03	1013	0.04
Northwest	2001	0.10	544	0.11	444	0.11	1013	0.09
Scotland	2001	0.07	544	0.07	444	0.07	1013	0.07
Southwest	2001	0.10	544	0.09	444	0.11	1013	0.11
Wales	2001	0.03	544	0.03	444	0.03	1013	0.02
Westmidlands	2001	0.05	544	0.04	444	0.06	1013	0.06
Yorkhumber	2001	0.09	544	0.08	444	0.09	1013	0.10

Table A.18. Volunteering frequency

	Branch A Sports		Branch B General	
Volunteering frequency	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Never	9	1.7	18	4.2
Once in the last year	20	3.7	31	7.1
Twice in the last year	33	6.0	32	7.4
A few times in the last year	60	11.0	57	13.1
At least once a month	122	22.3	99	22.8
Once a week	169	30.9	114	26.3
More than once a week	134	24.5	83	19.1
Total	**547**	**100**	**434**	**100**

Table A.19. Length of time volunteering

	Branch A Sports		Branch B General	
Length of time volunteering	**N.**	**%**	**N.**	**%**
Less than a year	164	26.9	121	27.3
2-3 years	170	27.9	106	23.9
3-5 years	125	20.5	82	18.5
5-7 years	47	7.7	35	7.9
More than 7 years	103	16.9	99	22.4
Total	**609**	**100**	**443**	**100**

Table A20. Reasons for starting volunteering

	Branch A Sports			Branch B General		
Reason started volunteering	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**
I really enjoy it*	327	60.1%	1	233	52.6%	1
I had spare time to do it	228	41.9%	2	194	43.8%	2
I thought it would give me a chance to use my existing skills	114	21.0%	3	112	25.3%	6
I wanted to improve things/help people in my community*	107	19.7%	4	153	34.5%	3
It makes me feel needed	102	18.8%	5	101	22.8%	8
It broadens my experience of life*	101	18.6%	6	105	23.7%	7
I wanted to meet people/make friends	100	18.4%	7	90	20.3%	10
It improves my wellbeing and quality of life	98	18.0%	8	77	17.4%	12
It gives me a sense of personal achievement*	96	17.6%	9	132	29.8%	4
It gives me a chance to do things I'm good at	93	17.1%	10	85	19.1%	11
It offers escape from my normal routine	85	15.6%	11	72	16.3%	13
I thought it would give me a chance to learn new skills	84	15.4%	12	63	14.2%	14
It makes me feel less selfish as a person*	78	14.3%	13	99	22.3%	9
It improves my physical health*	76	14.0%	14	31	7.0%	22
It sets a good example to my children if I help out	74	13.6%	15	55	12.4%	16

It was connected with the needs of my family/friends	73	13.4%	16	52	11.7%	17
My children/family are members of a club/organisation*	70	12.9%	17	22	5.0%	24
I felt there was no one else to do it	65	11.9%	18	37	8.4%	20
It makes me feel less stressed*	64	11.8%	19	33	7.4%	21
To stay or keep active	63	11.6%	20	39	8.8%	19
I'd like to be part of a group	62	11.4%	21	52	11.7%	17
The cause was really important to me / to give back to something I love*	60	11.0%	22	113	25.5%	5
It gives me more confidence	56	10.3%	23	63	14.2%	14
To grow the sport stars of the future*	38	7.0%	24	2	0.5%	28
Major sport events inspire me to help local clubs /organisations*	35	6.4%	25	5	1.1%	27
It helps me get on in my career / find a job / improve my employment prospects	28	5.1%	26	25	5.6%	23
It gives me the chance to get a recognised qualification	19	3.5%	27	8	1.8%	26
Other*	9	1.7%	28	19	4.3%	25
Total	**544**			**443**		

Note: Multiple responses were permitted for each individual. Legend: * p<0.05 significant difference between branches (t-test)

Table A21. Reasons for starting volunteering: Age, gender, and socioeconomic differentiations

Reason started	<25 years old			>55 years old			Male			Female			ABC1			Other		
	N	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**
I wanted to improve things/help people in my community	21	21.65	5	21	19.09	7	66	19.7	4	41	19.62	6	56	18.48	5	42	21.43	4
I wanted to meet people/make friends	19	19.59	6	18	16.36	12	65	19.4	5	35	16.75	10	60	19.8	3	35	17.86	9
The cause was really important to me / to give back to something I love	11	11.34	18	17	15.45	15	36	10.75	20	24	11.48	19	30	9.9	22	25	12.76	18
It was connected with the needs of my family/friends	10	10.31	19	8	7.27	19	35	10.45	21	38	18.18	8	40	13.2	16	24	12.24	20
I thought it would give me a chance to learn new skills	22	22.68	4	8	7.27	19	53	15.82	11	31	14.83	14	45	14.85	14	29	14.8	14
I thought it would give me a chance to use my existing skills	19	19.59	6	24	21.82	6	70	20.9	3	44	21.05	3	57	18.81	4	50	25.51	3
It helps me get on in my career / find a job / improve my employment	9	9.28	20	1	0.91	27	13	3.88	26	15	7.18	24	15	4.95	26	11	5.61	26

prospects																		
I had spare time to do it	50	51.55	2	46	41.82	2	138	41.19	2	90	43.06	2	123	40.59	2	84	42.86	2
I felt there was no one else to do it	12	12.37	16	10	9.09	17	38	11.34	19	27	12.92	18	36	11.88	19	23	11.73	21
To stay or keep active	9	9.28	20	18	16.36	12	42	12.54	16	21	10.05	23	31	10.23	21	27	13.78	15
To grow the sport stars of the future	9	9.28	20	7	6.36	22	26	7.76	25	12	5.74	25	19	6.27	25	15	7.65	24
My children/family are members of a club/organisation	4	4.12	26	18	16.36	12	39	11.64	18	31	14.83	14	47	15.51	11	22	11.22	22
It sets a good example to my children if I help out	5	5.15	24	9	8.18	18	45	13.43	14	29	13.88	16	46	15.18	12	27	13.78	15
Major sport events inspire me to help local clubs /organisations	4	4.12	26	1	0.91	27	28	8.36	24	7	3.35	26	21	6.93	24	13	6.63	25
I'd like to be part of a group	9	9.28	20	8	7.27	19	34	10.15	22	28	13.4	17	33	10.89	20	25	12.76	18
It gives me a chance to do things I'm good at	16	16.49	9	20	18.18	11	58	17.31	8	35	16.75	10	50	16.5	10	36	18.37	8
It makes me feel less selfish as a person	12	12.37	16	13	11.82	16	43	12.84	15	35	16.75	10	41	13.53	15	32	16.33	12
I really enjoy it	51	52.58	1	72	65.45	1	208	62.09	1	119	56.94	1	180	59.41	1	119	60.71	1
It broadens my experience of life	24	24.74	3	21	19.09	7	58	17.31	8	43	20.57	4	54	17.82	6	35	17.86	9
It gives me a sense of personal achievement	15	15.46	13	30	27.27	3	54	16.12	10	42	20.1	5	54	17.82	6	34	17.35	11
It offers escape from my normal routine	13	13.4	15	21	19.09	7	52	15.52	12	33	15.79	13	46	15.18	12	37	18.88	6
It gives me the chance to get a recognised qualification	5	5.15	24	2	1.82	26	12	3.58	27	7	3.35	26	9	2.97	27	8	4.08	27
It gives me more confidence	15	15.46	13	6	5.45	23	32	9.55	23	24	11.48	19	22	7.26	23	27	13.78	15
It makes me feel needed	16	16.49	9	28	25.45	4	63	18.81	6	39	18.66	7	52	17.16	9	42	21.43	4
It makes me feel less stressed	16	16.49	9	6	5.45	23	41	12.24	17	23	11	22	39	12.87	17	19	9.69	23
It improves my physical health	16	16.49	9	21	19.09	7	52	15.52	12	24	11.48	19	38	12.54	18	32	16.33	12
It improves my wellbeing and quality of life	17	17.53	8	26	23.64	5	61	18.21	7	37	17.7	9	54	17.82	6	37	18.88	6
Other (please specify)	0			6	5.45	23	3	0.9	28	6	2.87	28	4	1.32	28	5	2.55	28
Total	**97**			**110**			**335**	**100**		**209**	**100**		**303**	**100**		**196**	**100**	

Note: Multiple responses were permitted for each individual.

Table A22. Information source for volunteering

	Branch A Sports			Branch B General		
Information source for volunteering	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**
From someone else already involved in the group / by word of mouth	196	36.0%	1	163	36.8%	1
Community events / notice board*	142	26.1%	2	71	16.0%	2
Online (e.g. on specific websites)*	87	16.0%	3	50	11.3%	6
Through playing/participating in the club or group	83	15.3%	4	51	11.5%	5
Local newspaper*	72	13.2%	5	36	8.1%	7
School, college, university	67	12.3%	6	55	12.4%	3
Social media*	61	11.2%	7	28	6.3%	9
Employer's volunteering scheme*	54	9.9%	8	25	5.6%	10
Proactively enquiring	48	8.8%	9	36	8.1%	7
Online through search engine (on mobile, laptop or desktop)*	47	8.6%	10	15	3.4%	13
Doctor's surgery / Community Centre / Library*	46	8.5%	11	22	5.0%	11
Local TV or radio*	44	8.1%	12	13	2.9%	14
Promotional events/volunteer fair*	41	7.5%	13	13	2.9%	14
National newspaper*	27	5.0%	14	7	1.6%	16
Other*	18	3.3%	15	51	11.6%	4
Volunteer bureau or centre*	11	2.0%	16	19	4.3%	12
National TV or radio	5	0.9%	17	7	1.6%	16
Total	**544**			**443**		

Note: Multiple responses were permitted for each individual. Legend: * p<0.05 significant difference between branches (t-test)

Table A23. Information source for volunteering: Age, gender, and socioeconomic differentiations

	<25 years old			>55 years old			Male			Female			ABC1			Other		
Variable	**N**	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**
Through playing/participating in the club or group	11	11.34	9	24	21.82	2	52	15.52	4	31	15	3	47	15.51	3	29	14.8	4
From someone else already involved in the group / by word of mouth	29	29.9	1	44	40	1	114	34.03	1	82	39	1	107	35.31	1	75	38.27	1
Online through search engine (on mobile, laptop or desktop)	14	14.43	6	1	0.91	14	28	8.36	13	19	9	7	29	9.57	12	14	7.14	8
School, college, university	22	22.68	3	9	8.18	5	38	11.34	8	29	14	5	35	11.55	7	22	11.22	5
Doctor's surgery / Community Centre / Library	11	11.34	9	2	1.82	12	33	9.85	9	13	6	10	32	10.56	8	11	5.61	12
Promotional events/volunteer fair	12	12.37	7	3	2.73	11	29	8.66	12	12	6	12	23	7.59	13	14	7.14	8
Local newspaper	12	12.37	7	12	10.91	4	52	15.52	4	20	10	6	43	14.19	5	22	11.22	5
National newspaper	7	7.22	13	1	0.91	14	16	4.78	14	11	5	13	18	5.94	14	7	3.57	15
Local TV or radio	10	10.31	11	1	0.91	14	31	9.25	11	13	6	10	31	10.23	10	11	5.61	12
National TV or radio	0	0	17	0	0	17	4	1.19	17	1	0	17	4	1.32	17	1	0.51	17
Volunteer bureau or centre	1	1.03	15	2	1.82	12	8	2.39	16	3	1	16	9	2.97	15	2	1.02	16
Employer's volunteering scheme	9	9.28	12	4	3.64	10	43	12.84	6	11	5	13	41	13.53	6	12	6.12	11
Community events / notice board	25	25.77	2	15	13.64	3	87	25.97	2	55	26	2	79	26.07	2	50	25.51	2
Social media	15	15.46	5	7	6.36	7	43	12.84	6	18	9	8	32	10.56	8	22	11.22	5
Proactively enquiring	6	6.19	14	5	4.55	9	32	9.55	10	16	8	9	30	9.9	11	14	7.14	8
Online (e.g. on specific websites)	22	22.68	3	7	6.36	7	56	16.72	3	31	15	3	44	14.52	4	33	16.84	3
Other (please specify)	1	1.03	15	9	8.18	5	10	2.99	15	8	4	15	5	1.65	16	10	5.1	14
	97		17	110		17	3			209			303			196		

Table A24. Motivations to volunteer more in sports groups, clubs or organisations

	Branch A Sports			Branch B General			Branch C None		
	N.	**%**	**Rank**	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**
I would volunteer more if I had more free time (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	249	45.8%	1	138	31.2%	1	279	27.5%	1
I would volunteer more if a friend was already involved/would volunteer with me (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	152	27.9%	2	82	18.5%	2	161	15.9%	3
I would volunteer more if I could use my existing skills (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	115	21.1%	3	67	15.1%	4	25	2.5%	16
I would volunteer more if I could do it remotely (*sport/general)	88	16.2%	4	51	11.5%	5	128	12.6%	4
I would volunteer more if it was on the way home from work/near me (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	70	12.9%	5	39	8.8%	9	61	6.0%	8
I would volunteer more if I thought it would help me to meet new people (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	69	12.7%	6	24	5.4%	13	92	9.1%	5
I would volunteer more if it was proven to make me happier and healthier (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	68	12.5%	7	34	7.7%	10	8	0.8%	17
I would volunteer more if it was on a specific project with clear objectives and end date (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	61	11.2%	8	43	9.7%	7	48	4.7%	11
I would volunteer more if it helped me gain skills or get a job (*sport/general)	60	11.0%	9	34	7.7%	10	84	8.3%	6
I would volunteer more if it gave me confidence and made me feel better about myself(*sport/none)	59	10.8%	10	45	10.2%	6	26	2.6%	14
I would volunteer more if more people of my age in my area were also doing it(*sport/none)	52	9.6%	11	41	9.3%	8	55	5.4%	9
I would volunteer more if i understood the health benefits more clearly(*sport/none)	37	6.8%	12	27	6.1%	12	37	3.6%	13
I would volunteer more if I was able to share it with my friends, e.g. on	30	5.5%	13	6	1.4%	19	3	0.3%	18

Facebook to my friends (*sport/general) (*sport/none)									
I would volunteer more if the time I gave got me discounts in sports and other shops(*sport/none)	26	4.8%	14	11	2.5%	16	39	3.8%	12
I would volunteer more if my employer encouraged me(*sport/none)	24	4.4%	15	17	3.8%	14	26	2.6%	14
Other reason(*sport/none)	17	3.1%	16	15	3.4%	15	81	8.0%	7
I would volunteer more if I was encouraged by a sports star	15	2.8%	17	8	1.8%	18	0	0.0%	19
I would volunteer more if a sports star explained it	0	0.0%	18	0	0.0%	21	0	0.0%	19
Other reason: I would volunteer more if I had suiTable Askills (*sport/general)	0	0.0%	18	9	2.0%	17	0	0.0%	19
Other reason: I would volunteer more if my age/health permitted (*sport/general)	0	0.0%	18	4	0.9%	20	52	5.1%	10
Other reason: I would volunteer more if I didn't have work/family commitments	0	0.0%	18	0	0.0%	21	0	0.0%	19
None of the above (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	0	0.0%	18	68	15.3%	3	189	18.7%	2
	544			**443**			**1013**		

Note: Multiple responses were permitted for each individual. Legend: * p<0.05 significant difference between branches (t-test)

Table A25. Motivations to volunteer more in sports groups, clubs or organisations: Age, gender, and socioeconomic differentiations

	<25 years old			>55 years old			Male			Female			ABC1			Other		
	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank
I would volunteer more if a friend was already involved/would volunteer with me	35	36.08	2	14	12.73	3	101	30.15	2	51	24.4	2	85	28.05	2	57	29.08	2
I would volunteer more if it was on the way home from work/near me	19	19.59	3	5	4.55	9	40	11.94	7	30	14.35	5	38	12.54	7	23	11.73	7
I would volunteer	18	18.56	4	2	1.82	12	40	11.94	7	20	9.57	9	32	10.56	10	24	12.24	5

more if it helped me gain skills or get a job																		
I would volunteer more if I was able to share it with my friends, e.g. on Facebook to my friends	9	9.28	10	2	1.82	12	21	6.27	13	9	4.31	14	19	6.27	13	11	5.61	13
I would volunteer more if a sports star explained it	0	0	17	0	0	16	0	0	17	0	0	17						
I would volunteer more if I was encouraged by a sports star	2	2.06	16	3	2.73	10	10	2.99	16	5	2.39	16	7	2.31	16	8	4.08	16
I would volunteer more if it was proven to make me happier and healthier	10	10.31	8	7	6.36	7	41	12.24	6	27	12.92	7	41	13.53	5	23	11.73	7
I would volunteer more if I thought it would help me to meet new people	12	12.37	7	2	1.82	12	49	14.63	5	20	9.57	9	37	12.21	8	29	14.8	4
I would volunteer more if the time I gave got me discounts in sports and other shops	8	8.25	13	3	2.73	10	13	3.88	15	13	6.22	12	10	3.3	15	11	5.61	13
I would volunteer more if my employer encouraged me	4	4.12	15	1	0.91	15	15	4.48	14	9	4.31	14	14	4.62	14	9	4.59	15
I would volunteer more if I could use my existing skills	18	18.56	4	19	17.27	2	80	23.88	3	35	16.75	3	69	22.77	3	40	20.41	3
I would volunteer more if I could do it remotely	16	16.49	6	11	10	5	55	16.42	4	33	15.79	4	58	19.14	4	23	11.73	7
I would volunteer more if more people of my age in my area were also doing it	10	10.31	8	8	7.27	6	33	9.85	10	19	9.09	11	34	11.22	9	13	6.63	11
I would volunteer more if it gave me confidence and made me feel better about myself	9	9.28	10	7	6.36	7	30	8.96	11	29	13.88	6	30	9.9	11	24	12.24	5
I would volunteer more if i understood the health benefits more clearly	6	6.19	14	0	0	16	25	7.46	12	12	5.74	13	24	7.92	12	12	6.12	12
I would volunteer more if it was on a specific project with clear objectives and end date	9	9.28	10	12	10.91	4	37	11.04	9	24	11.48	8	39	12.87	6	20	10.2	10

I would volunteer more if I had more free time	44	45.36	1	57	51.82	1	157	46.87	1	92	44.02	1	141	46.53	1	82	41.84	1
Total	**97**		**17**	**110**		**16**	**335**		**17**	**209**		**17**	**303**			**196**		

Table A26. Barriers to sports volunteering

	Branch A Sports			Branch B General			Branch C None		
Barrier to sports volunteering	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**
I already give as much time as I can (*sport/none)	217	46.9%	1	105	23.7%	4	28	2.8%	15
I don't think I am fit enough (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	80	17.3%	2	115	26.0%	1	239	23.6%	2
I feel it would be too much commitment (*sport/general)	75	16.2%	3	47	10.6%	7	183	18.1%	4
It's something I'd consider doing in the future(*sport/none)	71	15.3%	4	25	5.6%	12	108	10.7%	7
I'm already participating in sports (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	65	14.0%	5	11	2.5%	15	23	2.3%	18
I don't know enough about sport (*sport/general)	49	10.6%	6	96	21.7%	5	141	13.9%	6
No-one has asked me(*sport/none)	46	9.9%	7	54	12.2%	6	165	16.3%	5
I haven't heard about opportunities help/ I couldn't find opportunities	38	8.2%	8	39	8.8%	9	84	8.3%	8
I'm not aware that sports clubs are run by volunteers or need volunteers	35	7.6%	9	38	8.6%	10	56	5.5%	10
I think I'll be out of pocket (*sport/general)	29	6.3%	10	15	3.4%	14	47	4.6%	13
I lack the skills to help at a sports club (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	29	6.3%	10	108	24.4%	3	216	21.3%	3
I find sports clubs intimidating (*sport/general)	24	5.2%	12	40	9.0%	8	40	3.9%	14
I'm not interested in sport (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	23	5.0%	13	112	25.3%	2	269	26.6%	1
My children/family aren't involved in sport(*sport/none)	21	4.5%	14	28	6.3%	11	76	7.5%	9
Sports clubs only need volunteers to coach(*sport/none)	15	3.2%	15	7	1.6%	17	11	1.1%	20
Sport is a weekend activity and I want to keep weekends free for family	13	2.8%	16	21	4.7%	13	50	4.9%	12
Other	9	1.9%	17	7	1.6%	17	26	2.6%	16

None of the above	1	0.2%	18	3	0.7%	19	7	0.7%	21
Other barrier: Lack of free time(*sport/none)	0	0.0%	19	3	0.7%	19	25	2.5%	17
Other barrier: Age/health (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	0	0.0%	19	10	2.3%	16	55	5.4%	11
Other barrier: Work/family commitments(*sport/none)	0	0.0%	19	1	0.2%	21	12	1.2%	19
Total	**463**			**443**			**1013**		

Note: Multiple responses were permitted for each individual. Legend: * p<0.05 significant difference between branches (t-test)

Table A27. Barriers to sports volunteering: Age, gender, and socioeconomic differentiations

Barriers: Sport	<25 years old			>55 years old			Male			Female			ABC1			Other		
Answer Options	**N**	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**	**N**	**%**	**Rank**
No-one has asked me	11	12.5	6	7	9.09	6	28	9.59	7	18	10.53	6	24	9.06	8	16	9.88	6
I find sports clubs intimidating	7	7.95	11	0	0	18	16	5.48	10	8	4.68	13	17	6.42	10	6	3.7	14
I'm not interested in sport	9	10.23	8	1	1.3	14	15	5.14	11	8	4.68	13	14	5.28	13	8	4.94	12
I think I'll be out of pocket	6	6.82	12	2	2.6	13	15	5.14	11	14	8.19	9	15	5.66	11	13	8.02	8
I don't think I am fit enough	17	19.32	2	10	12.99	3	50	17.12	2	30	17.54	2	46	17.36	2	29	17.9	3
I don't know enough about sport	13	14.77	4	5	6.49	9	29	9.93	6	20	11.7	5	28	10.57	6	15	9.26	7
I lack the skills to help at a sports club	3	3.41	13	8	10.39	5	14	4.79	13	15	8.77	7	15	5.66	11	10	6.17	10
Sports clubs only need volunteers to coach	3	3.41	13	3	3.9	11	10	3.42	16	5	2.92	15	8	3.02	16	5	3.09	15
I haven't heard about opportunities help/ I couldn't find opportunities	9	10.23	8	5	6.49	9	28	9.59	7	10	5.85	11	26	9.81	7	10	6.17	10
I'm not aware that sports clubs are run by volunteers or need volunteers	11	12.5	6	1	1.3	14	23	7.88	9	12	7.02	10	22	8.3	9	12	7.41	9
My children/family aren't involved in sport	3	3.41	13	3	3.9	11	12	4.11	14	9	5.26	12	12	4.53	14	8	4.94	12

I feel it would be too much commitment	12	13.64	5	11	14.29	2	48	16.44	4	27	15.79	3	41	15.47	3	27	16.67	4
I'm already participating in sports	9	10.23	8	6	7.79	7	50	17.12	2	15	8.77	7	37	13.96	4	22	13.58	5
It's something I'd consider doing in the future	15	17.05	3	10	12.99	3	44	15.07	5	27	15.79	3	36	13.58	5	30	18.52	2
Sport is a weekend activity and I want to keep weekends free for family	3	3.41	13	1	1.3	14	11	3.77	15	2	1.17	17	10	3.77	15	3	1.85	17
I already give as much time as I can	41	46.59	1	32	41.56	1	137	46.92	1	80	46.78	1	123	46.42	1	76	46.91	1
Other	0	0	17	6	7.79	7	5	1.71	17	4	2.34	16	5	1.89	17	4	2.47	16
None of the above	0	0	17	1	1.3	14	1	0.34	18	0	0	18	0	0	17	1	0.62	18
Other barrier: Lack of free time	0	0	17	0	0	18	0	0	19	0	0	18	0	0	17	0	0	19
Other barrier: Age/health	0	0	17	0	0	18	0	0	19	0	0	18	0	0	17	0	0	19
Other barrier: Work/family commitments	0	0	17	0	0	18	0	0	19	0	0	18	0	0	17	0	0	19
Total	**88**		**17**	**77**		**18**	**0**		**19**	**0**		**18**	**265**			**162**		

Note: Multiple responses were permitted for each individual.

Table A28. Barriers to volunteering: General

	Branch A Sports		Branch B General			Branch C None			
Barrier to volunteering: General	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**
I already give enough time to volunteering (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	139.0	30.0%	1	49.0	16.4%	4	8.0	0.8%	21
I do other things with my spare time (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	123.0	26.6%	2	101.0	33.9%	1	334.0	33.0%	1
I have work commitments (*sport/none)	106.0	22.9%	3	74.0	24.8%	2	158.0	15.6%	4
I am involved in other activities instead(*sport/none)	100.0	21.6%	4	59.0	19.8%	3	75.0	7.4%	9
I have to look after children/the home(*sport/none)	66.0	14.3%	5	39.0	13.1%	5	73.0	7.2%	10
I have never thought about it(*sport/none)	50.0	10.8%	6	22.0	7.4%	10	166.0	16.4%	3
I don't know anyone else doing it	32.0	6.9%	7	16.0	5.4%	13	78.0	7.7%	8

I have to look after someone who is elderly or ill	30.0	6.5%	8	25.0	8.4%	8	42.0	4.1%	12
I have an illness or disability that I feel prevents me from getting involved (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	29.0	6.3%	9	31.0	10.4%	6	172.0	17.0%	2
I feel that my efforts won't be appreciated(*sport/none)	28.0	6.0%	10	15.0	5.0%	15	27.0	2.7%	17
I don't think I'd gain much from volunteering (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	27.0	5.8%	11	6.0	2.0%	18	20.0	2.0%	19
Frankly, I can't be bothered! (*sport/none)	26.0	5.6%	12	8.0	2.7%	17	139.0	13.7%	5
I'm nervous about meeting new people(*sport/none)	25.0	5.4%	13	26.0	8.7%	7	93.0	9.2%	6
I don't think they do the things I'd like to	23.0	5.0%	14	13.0	4.4%	16	50.0	4.9%	11
I feel that voluntary groups/clubs/organisations are badly organised(*sport/none)	20.0	4.3%	15	20.0	6.7%	11	6.0	0.6%	23
I'm new to the area	18.0	3.9%	16	16.0	5.4%	13	29.0	2.9%	16
I feel that volunteering organisations are too bureaucratic/ too much concern about risk and liability (*sport/general)	14.0	3.0%	17	18.0	6.0%	12	35.0	3.5%	13
It is not my responsibility	11.0	2.4%	18	3.0	1.0%	19	33.0	3.3%	14
Volunteering doesn't seem exciting or fun to me (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	8.0	1.7%	19	1.0	0.3%	20	81.0	8.0%	7
Other	7.0	1.5%	20	24.0	8.1%	9	33.0	3.3%	14
None of the above	5.0	1.1%	21	0.0	0.0%	21	6.0	0.6%	23
Other barrier: Lack of free time(*sport/none)	0.0	0.0%	22	0.0	0.0%	21	11.0	1.1%	20
Other barrier: Age/health (*sport/none)	0.0	0.0%	22	0.0	0.0%	21	24.0	2.4%	18
Other barrier: Work/family commitments	0.0	0.0%	22	0.0	0.0%	21	7.0	0.7%	22
	463			298			1013		

Note: Multiple responses were permitted for each individual. Legend: * p<0.05 significant difference between branches (t-test)

Table A29. Barriers to volunteering: General: Age, gender, and socioeconomic differentiations

Barriers: general	<25 years old			>55 years old			Male			Female			ABC1			Other		
	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank
I have work commitments	14	15.91	4	15	19.48	4	71	24.32	2	35	20.47	3	71	26.79	2	27	16.67	4
I have to look after children/the home	7	7.95	10	5	6.49	6	43	14.73	5	23	13.45	5	43	16.23	5	22	13.58	5
I have to look after someone who is elderly or ill	4	4.55	15	2	2.6	11	20	6.85	8	10	5.85	9	14	5.28	11	16	9.88	7
I do other things with my spare time	18	20.45	3	29	37.66	1	71	24.32	2	52	30.41	1	71	26.79	2	43	26.54	2
I'm new to the area	5	5.68	14	0	0	18	13	4.45	14	5	2.92	15	14	5.28	11	4	2.47	17
I have never thought about it	9	10.23	5	4	5.19	7	29	9.93	6	21	12.28	6	26	9.81	6	22	13.58	5
I have an illness or disability that I feel prevents me from getting involved	8	9.09	7	3	3.9	9	12	4.11	15	17	9.94	7	11	4.15	16	13	8.02	8
It is not my responsibility	2	2.27	18	0	0	18	11	3.77	16	0	0	21	9	3.4	17	2	1.23	20
I don't know anyone else doing it	9	10.23	5	3	3.9	9	18	6.16	10	14	8.19	8	20	7.55	7	12	7.41	9
I am involved in other activities instead	24	27.27	2	16	20.78	3	66	22.6	4	34	19.88	4	59	22.26	4	30	18.52	3
I don't think they do the things I'd like to	7	7.95	10	1	1.3	13	17	5.82	12	6	3.51	14	13	4.91	13	9	5.56	13
I feel that voluntary groups/clubs/organisations are badly organised	4	4.55	15	2	2.6	11	10	3.42	17	10	5.85	9	13	4.91	13	7	4.32	14
I feel that my efforts won't be appreciated	7	7.95	10	4	5.19	7	23	7.88	7	5	2.92	15	19	7.17	8	6	3.7	15
I feel that volunteering organisations are too bureaucratic/ too much concern about risk and liability	4	4.55	15	1	1.3	13	10	3.42	17	4	2.34	17	7	2.64	18	5	3.09	16
I'm nervous about meeting new people	8	9.09	7	1	1.3	13	15	5.14	13	10	5.85	9	12	4.53	15	12	7.41	9
I don't think I'd gain much from volunteering	8	9.09	7	0	0	18	19	6.51	9	8	4.68	12	16	6.04	9	10	6.17	11
Volunteering doesn't seem	2	2.27	18	0	0	18	6	2.05	19	2	1.17	20	5	1.89	19	3	1.85	19

exciting or fun to me																		
Frankly, I can't be bothered!	7	7.95	10	1	1.3	13	18	6.16	10	8	4.68	12	15	5.66	10	10	6.17	11
I already give enough time to volunteering	29	32.95	1	26	33.77	2	96	32.88	1	43	25.15	2	76	28.68	1	51	31.48	1
Other	1	1.14	20	6	7.79	5	3	1.03	20	4	2.34	17	2	0.75	20	4	2.47	17
None of the above	0	0	21	1	1.3	13	2	0.68	21	3	1.75	19	2	0.75	20	2	1.23	20
Other barrier: Lack of free time	0	0	21	0	0	18	0	0	22	0	0	21	0	0	22	0	0	22
Other barrier: Age/health	0	0	21	0	0	18	0	0	22	0	0	21	0	0	22	0	0	22
Other barrier: Work/family commitments	0	0	21	0	0	18	0	0	22	0	0	21	0	0	22	0	0	22
Total	**77**		**21**	**88**		**18**	**292**		**22**	**171**		**21**	**265**		**22**	**162**		

Table A30. Reasons for stopping or reducing level of volunteering

	Branch A Sports			Branch B General			Branch C None		
Reason for stopping or reducing level of volunteering	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**	**N.**	**%**	**Rank**
Due to health problems or old age	50	28.4%	1	28	37.3%	1	7	24.1%	1
Activity linked to my school/college/university/job (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	49	27.8%	2	5	6.7%	9	1	3.4%	13
Felt I had done my bit/ someone else's turn to get involved	33	18.8%	3	8	10.7%	5	3	10.3%	3
Felt the group/club/organisation was badly organised (*sport/general)	32	18.2%	4	3	4.0%	14	0	0.0%	18
Felt my efforts weren't always appreciated	30	17.0%	5	6	8.0%	8	1	3.4%	13
Got involved in another activity instead	28	15.9%	6	7	9.3%	6	2	6.9%	6
Not enough time - due to changing home/work circumstances (*sport/general)	27	15.3%	7	21	28.0%	2	2	6.9%	6
Moved away from area	20	11.4%	8	10	13.3%	3	2	6.9%	6
Group/club/organisation wasn't relevant to me anymore	20	11.4%	8	3	4.0%	14	0	0.0%	18

It was too bureaucratic/ too much concern about risk and liability (*sport/general)	19	10.8%	10	2	2.7%	18	0	0.0%	18
I wasn't rewarded for my efforts (*sport/general)	19	10.8%	10	1	1.3%	21	2	6.9%	6
Group/club/organisation finished/closed	18	10.2%	12	3	4.0%	14	2	6.9%	6
It was a one-off activity or event	18	10.2%	12	5	6.7%	9	3	10.3%	3
I'm already participating in sports elsewhere	16	9.1%	14	2	2.7%	18	1	3.4%	13
Not enough time – getting involved took up too much time	16	9.1%	14	10	13.3%	3	6	20.7%	2
My children/family aren't involved in sport (*sport/general)	14	8.0%	16	1	1.3%	21	1	3.4%	13
I'm not interested in sport	13	7.4%	17	7	9.3%	6	1	3.4%	13
I found the sports club intimidating	8	4.5%	18	0	0.0%	23	0	0.0%	18
I found myself out of pocket	8	4.5%	18	4	5.3%	12	3	10.3%	3
I don't think I am fit enough/sporty enough	5	2.8%	20	4	5.3%	12	0	0.0%	18
I didn't get asked to do the things I'd like to	5	2.8%	20	3	4.0%	14	0	0.0%	18
Volunteers were badly organised and managed	3	1.7%	22	2	2.7%	18	2	6.9%	6
Other (please specify) (*sport/general) (*sport/none)	1	0.6%	23	5	6.7%	9	2	6.9%	6
Total	**176**			**75**			**29**		

Note: Multiple responses were permitted for each individual. Legend: * p<0.05 significant difference between branches (t-test)

Table A31. Reasons for stopping or reducing level of volunteering: Age, gender, and socioeconomic differentiations

	<25 years old			>55 years old			Male			Female			ABC1			Other		
	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank	N	%	Rank
I found the sports club intimidating	3	6.12	15	0	0	12	3	2.91	20	5	6.85	15	6	5.77	17	1	1.75	20
I'm not	3	6.12	15	0	0	12	8	7.77	15	5	6.85	15	7	6.73	15	5	8.77	11

interested in sport																		
I found myself out of pocket	2	4.08	17	0	0	12	6	5.83	18	2	2.74	19	4	3.85	19	3	5.26	17
I don't think I am fit enough/sporty enough	1	2.04	21	0	0	12	4	3.88	19	1	1.37	21	3	2.88	21	2	3.51	19
My children/family aren't involved in sport	4	8.16	12	1	7.69	5	7	6.8	16	7	9.59	9	8	7.69	14	5	8.77	11
I'm already participating in sports elsewhere	2	4.08	17	1	7.69	5	14	13.59	7	2	2.74	19	11	10.58	13	3	5.26	17
Not enough time - due to changing home/work circumstances	8	16.33	3	2	15.38	2	11	10.68	13	16	21.92	2	15	14.42	7	7	12.28	8
Not enough time – getting involved took up too much time	5	10.2	9	2	15.38	2	7	6.8	16	9	12.33	7	5	4.81	18	8	14.04	7
Group/club/organisation finished/closed	5	10.2	9	0	0	12	12	11.65	11	6	8.22	11	12	11.54	11	6	10.53	10
Moved away from area	6	12.24	6	1	7.69	5	10	9.71	14	10	13.7	6	12	11.54	11	5	8.77	11
Due to health problems or old age	10	20.41	2	4	30.77	1	35	33.98	1	15	20.55	3	24	23.08	2	22	38.6	1
Group/club/organisation wasn't relevant to me anymore	5	10.2	9	0	0	12	14	13.59	7	6	8.22	11	15	14.42	7	5	8.77	11
It was a one-off activity or event	4	8.16	12	1	7.69	5	13	12.62	9	5	6.85	15	7	6.73	15	9	15.79	4
Felt I had done my bit/ someone else's turn to get involved	8	16.33	3	2	15.38	2	18	17.48	6	15	20.55	3	21	20.19	3	11	19.3	3
Got involved in another activity instead	6	12.24	6	1	7.69	5	19	18.45	5	9	12.33	7	20	19.23	4	7	12.28	8
I didn't get asked to do the things I'd like to	2	4.08	17	0	0	12	2	1.94	21	3	4.11	18	4	3.85	19	1	1.75	20
Felt the group/club/organisation was badly organised	8	16.33	3	0	0	12	21	20.39	4	11	15.07	5	19	18.27	6	9	15.79	4
Felt my efforts weren't always appreciated	2	4.08	17	1	7.69	5	24	23.3	3	6	8.22	11	20	19.23	4	9	15.79	4
It was too bureaucratic/ too much concern about risk and liability	6	12.24	6	0	0	12	13	12.62	9	6	8.22	11	13	12.5	9	5	8.77	11
Activity linked to my	14	28.5	1	1	7.69	5	26	25.2	2	23	31.51	1	31	29.81	1	12	21.05	2

school/college/ university/job		7						4										
I wasn't rewarded for my efforts	4	8.16	12	0	0	12	12	11.65	11	7	9.59	9	13	12.5	9	5	8.77	11
Volunteers were badly organised and managed	1	2.04	21	0	0	12	2	1.94	21	1	1.37	21	1	0.96	22	1	1.75	20
Other (please specify)	0	0	23	0	0	12	0	0	23	1	1.37	21	1	0.96	22	0	0	23
Total	**49**		**23**	**13**		**12**	**103.00%**		**23**	**73**		**#N/A**	**104**		**#N/A**	**57**		**23**

Table A32. Associations between any type of volunteering and health and wellbeing

	Life satisfaction	Sense of worthwhile	Happiness	Anxiety	PAB	General health
	b	b	b	b	b	b
Volunteer	0.612***	0.716***	0.579***	0.204	0.375*	0.106**
Male	-0.230**	-0.351***	-0.091	-0.172	0.08	-0.093*
Age	-0.034	-0.005	-0.028	-0.032	0.004	-0.025**
Age2	0.001***	0.000*	0.001**	0	0.001	0
Num children	0.174***	0.248***	0.196***	0.237**	-0.041	0.082***
Health limited	-0.567***	-0.441***	-0.612***	0.695***	-1.307***	
Religious	0.103	0.199*	0.147	0.516***	-0.37	0.039
Log income	0.047	0.059	0.087	-0.181	0.268	0.035
Degree & above	0.076	0.025	0.022	-0.149	0.172	0.177***
Carer	0.143	0.261	0.186	-0.111	0.297	-0.124
Unemployed	-1.023***	-1.046***	-0.929***	0.522	-1.450***	-0.289***
Student	-0.012	-0.333	-0.014	-0.207	0.193	-0.304**
Retired	-0.29	-0.525***	-0.373*	-0.209	-0.164	-0.315***
Self employed	-0.386*	-0.299	-0.456**	-0.083	-0.373	-0.043
Part-time	-0.314**	-0.202	-0.279	-0.26	-0.019	-0.199**
Unable to work	-1.602***	-1.400***	-1.675***	0.49	-2.165***	-1.335***
Not seeking	-0.906**	-0.783**	-0.931**	0.311	-1.242	-0.297*
House: Other	0.375	0.404	0.555	0.088	0.467	0.031
Private rent	0.399	0.318	0.581*	0.474	0.107	0.223
Local authority rent	0.363	0.414	0.421	0.26	0.161	0.11
Town	0.038	0.022	-0.185	-0.06	-0.125	-0.119**
Village	0.057	0.017	-0.112	-0.024	-0.088	-0.057
Hamlet	0.178	0.334	0.025	-0.188	0.213	-0.087
Widow	-0.582*	-0.448	-1.023***	-0.212	-0.81	-0.124
Cohabiting	0.078	0.081	0.134	-0.158	0.292	-0.036
Single	-0.561***	-0.476***	-0.479***	0.254	-0.733**	0.02
Divorce	-0.816***	-0.938***	-0.803***	-0.11	-0.693*	-0.101
Civil partnership	-0.256	-0.406	0.078	0.418	-0.34	0.03

Separated	-0.618	-0.667*	-0.075	0.519	-0.594	-0.028
Former civil partnership	-0.454	0.509	0.371	-0.386	0.757	-0.028
See friends often	0.870***	0.949***	0.912***	-0.538***	1.450***	0.212***
London	0.226	0.083	0.276	0.553*	-0.277	0.105
Eastengland	0.151	0.146	0.15	-0.208	0.358	0
Eastmid	-0.039	-0.163	0.054	0.009	0.045	0.158*
Northeast	-0.017	-0.059	0.016	0.102	-0.086	0.078
Northwest	0.027	0.121	0.268	0.117	0.151	-0.066
Scotland	0.525**	0.469**	0.694***	-0.169	0.863*	0.055
Southwest	0.319*	0.313*	0.475***	-0.533**	1.008***	0.045
Wales	0.163	0.249	0.233	-0.486	0.719	0.015
Westmidlands	0.572***	0.347	0.773***	-0.121	0.893**	-0.06
Yorkhumber	0.343**	0.414**	0.488***	-0.31	0.798**	-0.015
Constant	6.222***	5.522***	5.588***	6.448***	-0.86	2.508***
Observations	1777	1777	1777	1777	1777	1904
r2	0.215	0.226	0.214	0.119	0.166	0.213

Notes: *** < 1%; ** < 5%; * < 10% significance. Heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors used. Legend: (i) for male ref = female; (ii) for Limiting health ref = other; (iii) Religious ref = not religious; (iv) Educated to degree or above ref = other; (v) for employment ref = full time employed; (vi) for housing ref = homeownwer; (vii) for conurbation ref = city; for marital status ref = married; (viii) for region ref – Southeast.

Table A33. Associations between type of volunteering and health and wellbeing

	Life satisfaction	Sense of worthwhile	Happiness	Anxiety	PAB	General health
	b	b	b	b	b	b
Sports volunteer	0.208	0.365***	0.439***	0.357	0.082	0.171**
Male	-0.164	-0.407***	-0.127	-0.172	0.046	-0.096
Age	-0.006	0.004	0.018	-0.005	0.023	-0.031*
Age2	0	0	0	0	0.001	0
Num children	0.160*	0.198**	0.166*	0.284**	-0.118	0.112***
Health limited	-0.393**	-0.319**	-0.316*	0.758***	-1.074***	0.059
Religious	0.201	0.181	0.229	0.372*	-0.143	-0.039
Log income	-0.031	-0.081	0.003	-0.109	0.112	0.108
Degree & above	-0.034	-0.091	-0.041	0.012	-0.053	-0.088
Carer	0.164	-0.024	0.227	-0.773	1	-0.095
Unemployed	-1.079***	-1.284***	-0.683	1.276**	-1.959**	-0.216
Student	0.03	-0.537	0.281	0.102	0.179	-0.400***
Retired	-0.13	-0.514**	-0.002	-0.715	0.713	0.013
Self employed	-0.234	-0.307	-0.063	0.148	-0.211	-0.137
Part-time	-0.296	-0.367*	-0.21	0.062	-0.272	-1.305***
Unable to work	-1.691***	-0.801*	-1.265**	0.693	-1.958*	-0.426**
Not seeking	-0.026	-0.693*	-0.189	0.032	-0.221	-0.107
House: Other	-0.299	-0.105	0.092	0.336	-0.244	0.129

Private rent	-0.114	-0.208	0.38	0.454	-0.075	-0.041
Local authority rent	-0.317	-0.273	-0.087	0.307	-0.393	-0.136*
Town	-0.054	0.006	-0.300*	-0.332	0.032	-0.04
Village	-0.135	-0.16	-0.341	0.062	-0.403	-0.427**
Hamlet	0.447	0.422	0.244	-0.933*	1.178	-0.595***
Widow	-1.088***	-1.033***	-1.239**	-0.308	-0.931	-0.086
Cohabiting	0.27	0.273	0.333	-0.747*	1.080*	-0.009
Single	-0.16	-0.136	-0.068	0.102	-0.17	-0.167
Divorce	-0.669***	-0.910***	-0.687**	-0.417	-0.27	-0.194
Civil partnership	-0.478	-0.634	-0.07	0.066	-0.136	-0.244
Separated	-0.237	-0.527	0.067	0.099	-0.032	-0.331
Former civil partnership	-1.628	0.938	-0.091	2.785**	-2.876***	0.317***
See friends often	0.581***	0.748***	0.693***	-0.046	0.739*	0.008
London	-0.084	-0.098	0.112	0.588	-0.477	0.072
Eastengland	-0.029	-0.031	-0.049	0.083	-0.132	0.184
Eastmid	-0.171	-0.049	0.138	0.069	0.069	-0.045
Northeast	0.23	0.096	0.194	-0.109	0.303	-0.117
Northwest	-0.046	0.09	0.129	-0.07	0.199	0.102
Scotland	0.297	0.213	0.524*	-0.587	1.111*	-0.117
Southwest	0.28	0.352*	0.566**	-0.524	1.089**	-0.185
Wales	-0.092	0.261	0.157	-0.269	0.427	-0.335**
Westmidlands	0.225	0.136	0.278	0.34	-0.062	-0.034
Yorkhumber	0.325	0.357	0.567**	-0.249	0.816	2.762***
Constant	6.905***	6.740***	5.356***	5.280***	0.076	931
Observations	862	862	862	862	862	0.214
r2	0.156	0.175	0.16	0.165	0.176	

Notes: *** < 1%; ** < 5%; * < 10% significance. Heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors used. Legend: (i) for male ref = female; (ii) for Limiting health ref = other; (iii) Religious ref = not religious; (iv) Educated to degree or above ref = other; (v) for employment ref = full time employed; (vi) for housing ref = homeowner; (vii) for conurbation ref = city; for marital status ref = married; (viii) for region ref – Southeast.

Table A34. Associations between volunteering frequency and health and wellbeing (once in the last year, to, more than once a week)

	Life satisfaction	Sense of worthwhile	Happiness	Anxiety	PAB	General health
	b	b	b	b	b	b
Volunteer frequency	0.027	0.072	0.025	0.131	-0.106	0.056**
Male	-0.126	-0.359***	-0.052	-0.118	0.065	-0.061
Age	0	0.009	0.023	-0.014	0.037	-0.031*
Age2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Num children	0.206***	0.257***	0.224***	0.278**	-0.054	0.109**
Health limited	-0.469***	-0.365**	-0.388**	0.789***	-1.177***	0.053

Religious	0.19	0.16	0.194	0.312	-0.119	-0.023
Log income	-0.008	-0.065	-0.007	-0.004	-0.003	0.114
Degree & above	0.015	-0.056	0.002	-0.06	0.062	-0.149
Carer	0.029	-0.183	0.2	-0.928	1.128	-0.084
Unemployed	-0.954**	-1.232***	-0.664	1.321**	-1.986**	-0.207
Student	0.152	-0.446	0.372	0.056	0.316	-0.419***
Retired	-0.222	-0.625**	-0.139	-0.883*	0.744	0.022
Self employed	-0.142	-0.26	0.025	0.03	-0.004	-0.144
Part-time	-0.158	-0.263	-0.116	-0.018	-0.098	-1.366***
Unable to work	-1.669***	-0.893*	-1.327**	0.532	-1.858*	-0.564***
Not seeking	0.004	-0.701*	-0.297	-0.339	0.042	-0.135
House: Other	-0.258	-0.089	0.087	0.347	-0.26	0.154
Private rent	-0.052	-0.175	0.401	0.525	-0.124	-0.005
Local authority rent	-0.241	-0.21	-0.062	0.45	-0.513	-0.125
Town	-0.015	0.047	-0.307*	-0.265	-0.042	-0.029
Village	0.006	-0.06	-0.272	0.103	-0.375	-0.432**
Hamlet	0.26	0.352	0.062	-1.009*	1.071	0.287***
Widow	0.604***	0.749***	0.734***	-0.01	0.744*	-0.009
Cohabiting	-1.116***	-0.919**	-1.129**	-0.117	-1.011	-0.082
Single	0.193	0.22	0.167	-0.645	0.812	-0.023
Divorce	-0.147	-0.094	-0.075	0.143	-0.219	-0.168
Civil partnership	-0.760***	-0.985***	-0.777**	-0.282	-0.495	-0.226
Separated	-0.505	-0.671	-0.104	0.024	-0.128	-0.227
Former civil partnership	-0.222	-0.468	0.111	0.184	-0.073	-0.316
See friends often	-4.095***	-0.212	-2.087***	1.692**	-3.778***	2.626***
London	-0.132	-0.157	0.005	0.558	-0.553	0.067
Eastengland	-0.031	-0.043	-0.132	0.004	-0.136	0.163
Eastmid	-0.239	-0.105	0.019	0.049	-0.03	-0.04
Northeast	0.277	0.164	0.169	-0.051	0.22	-0.118
Northwest	-0.121	0.038	0.004	-0.122	0.126	0.123
Scotland	0.42	0.245	0.597*	-0.662	1.260*	-0.137
Southwest	0.247	0.306	0.501**	-0.67	1.171**	-0.205
Wales	-0.129	0.217	0.08	-0.335	0.415	-0.382**
Westmidlands	0.195	0.069	0.195	0.233	-0.038	-0.043
Yorkhumber	0.298	0.354	0.461*	-0.169	0.63	-0.613***
Constant	6.564***	6.365***	5.385***	4.897***	0.488	901
Observations	834	834	834	834	834	0.212
r2	0.169	0.173	0.159	0.169	0.183	

Notes: *** < 1%; ** < 5%; * < 10% significance. Heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors used. Legend: (i) for male ref = female; (ii) for Limiting health ref = other; (iii) Religious ref = not religious; (iv) Educated to degree or above ref = other; (v) for employment ref = full time employed; (vi) for housing ref = homeownwer; (vii) for conurbation ref = city; for marital status ref = married; (viii) for region ref – Southeast.

Table A35. Associations between volunteering time (mins) and health and wellbeing

	Life satisfaction	Sense of worthwhile	Happiness	Anxiety	PAB	General health
	b	b	b	b	b	b
Volunteering time (mins)	0.004	0.007***	0.002	0	0.002	0.004***
Male	-0.137	-0.362***	-0.045	-0.098	0.053	-0.076
Age	-0.006	0.003	0.015	-0.007	0.023	-0.031**
Age2	0	0	0	0	0.001	0
Num children	0.163**	0.203**	0.174**	0.291**	-0.117	0.114***
Health limited	-0.397**	-0.328**	-0.308*	0.771***	-1.078***	0.067
Religious	0.212	0.201	0.236*	0.373*	-0.137	-0.032
Log income	-0.024	-0.068	0.016	-0.099	0.115	0.108
Degree & above	-0.033	-0.09	-0.035	0.018	-0.053	-0.121
Carer	0.115	-0.113	0.151	-0.826	0.977	-0.118
Unemployed	-1.115***	-1.348***	-0.760*	1.213**	-1.973**	-0.221
Student	0.025	-0.546	0.26	0.082	0.178	-0.456***
Retired	-0.2	-0.639***	-0.123	-0.805*	0.682	0.008
Self employed	-0.248	-0.334	-0.084	0.134	-0.218	-0.173
Part-time	-0.339	-0.444**	-0.272	0.021	-0.292	-1.395***
Unable to work	-1.793***	-0.984**	-1.445**	0.558	-2.003*	-0.487**
Not seeking	-0.1	-0.823**	-0.339	-0.088	-0.251	-0.116
House: Other	-0.295	-0.1	0.124	0.369	-0.245	0.132
Private rent	-0.101	-0.185	0.412	0.482	-0.07	-0.049
Local authority rent	-0.317	-0.274	-0.073	0.322	-0.395	-0.137*
Town	-0.051	0.011	-0.283*	-0.314	0.032	-0.042
Village	-0.133	-0.156	-0.343	0.059	-0.402	-0.461**
Hamlet	0.4	0.332	0.221	-0.929*	1.15	0.322***
Widow	0.588***	0.757***	0.722***	-0.017	0.740*	0.009
Cohabiting	-1.118***	-1.088***	-1.296**	-0.352	-0.944	-0.102
Single	0.249	0.238	0.278	-0.795*	1.073*	-0.029
Divorce	-0.179	-0.171	-0.091	0.089	-0.179	-0.183
Civil partnership	-0.689***	-0.948***	-0.703**	-0.423	-0.281	-0.244
Separated	-0.529	-0.731	-0.111	0.054	-0.165	-0.349
Former civil partnership	-0.348	-0.745*	0.054	0.156	-0.102	-0.387
See friends often	-1.721	0.775	-0.29	2.623**	-2.912***	2.857***
London	-0.087	-0.1	0.082	0.557	-0.475	0.08
Eastengland	-0.028	-0.026	-0.065	0.064	-0.129	0.152
Eastmid	-0.212	-0.124	0.077	0.028	0.05	-0.055
Northeast	0.22	0.078	0.167	-0.133	0.299	-0.117
Northwest	-0.054	0.077	0.098	-0.098	0.197	0.113
Scotland	0.303	0.225	0.517	-0.599	1.116*	-0.122

Southwest	0.268	0.332	0.518**	-0.569	1.087**	-0.195
Wales	-0.102	0.242	0.132	-0.291	0.423	-0.353**
Westmidlands	0.208	0.108	0.226	0.293	-0.067	-0.034
Yorkhumber	0.323	0.354	0.541**	-0.275	0.817	-0.615***
Constant	7.017***	6.931***	5.640***	5.525***	0.115	931
Observations	862	862	862	862	862	0.215
r2	0.156	0.174	0.151	0.163	0.176	

Notes: *** < 1%; ** < 5%; * < 10% significance. Heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors used. Legend: (i) for male ref = female; (ii) for Limiting health ref = other; (iii) Religious ref = not religious; (iv) Educated to degree or above ref = other; (v) for employment ref = full time employed; (vi) for housing ref = homeownwer; (vii) for conurbation ref = city; for marital status ref = married; (viii) for region ref – Southeast.

Table A36. Associations between volunteering length (years) and health and wellbeing

	Life satisfaction	Sense of worthwhile	Happiness	Anxiety	PAB	General health
	b	b	b	b	b	b
Volunteer years	0.089*	0.175***	0.057	-0.145*	0.202*	0.009
Male	-0.114	-0.318**	-0.031	-0.109	0.078	-0.06
Age	-0.009	-0.002	0.014	-0.005	0.019	-0.032**
Age2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Num children	0.161*	0.200**	0.173**	0.296**	-0.124	0.116***
Health limited	-0.372**	-0.278*	-0.292*	0.748***	-1.040***	
Religious	0.206	0.191	0.233	0.366*	-0.133	0.058
Log income	-0.03	-0.079	0.012	-0.092	0.105	-0.033
Degree & above	-0.047	-0.117	-0.044	0.045	-0.089	0.11
Carer	0.177	0.008	0.189	-0.898	1.087	-0.108
Unemployed	-1.071***	-1.261***	-0.732*	1.141*	-1.873**	-0.113
Student	0.034	-0.527	0.267	0.057	0.209	-0.225
Retired	-0.127	-0.496**	-0.077	-0.895**	0.818	-0.433***
Self employed	-0.25	-0.338	-0.086	0.148	-0.233	0.013
Part-time	-0.316	-0.400**	-0.258	0.014	-0.272	-0.152
Unable to work	-1.750***	-0.899*	-1.418**	0.526	-1.944*	-1.357***
Not seeking	-0.045	-0.715*	-0.304	-0.172	-0.132	-0.478**
House: Other	-0.253	-0.018	0.151	0.325	-0.175	-0.096
Private rent	-0.073	-0.129	0.43	0.44	-0.01	0.137
Local authority rent	-0.277	-0.196	-0.048	0.272	-0.32	-0.04
Town	-0.054	0.004	-0.285*	-0.297	0.012	-0.131*
Village	-0.132	-0.153	-0.342	0.05	-0.392	-0.045
Hamlet	0.457	0.442	0.255	-0.942*	1.197	-0.416**
Widow	-1.132***	-1.116***	-1.305**	-0.321	-0.984	-0.613***

Cohabiting	0.221	0.183	0.261	-0.761*	1.021*	-0.11
Single	-0.189	-0.192	-0.098	0.124	-0.222	-0.018
Divorce	-0.654**	-0.878***	-0.681**	-0.453	-0.228	-0.164
Civil partnership	-0.502	-0.678	-0.095	0.082	-0.177	-0.198
Separated	-0.215	-0.492	0.131	0.178	-0.047	-0.223
Former civil partnership	-1.686	0.844	-0.267	2.564**	-2.831***	-0.39
See friends often	0.583***	0.748***	0.719***	0.007	0.712*	0.332***
London	-0.082	-0.089	0.086	0.522	-0.436	-0.004
Eastengland	-0.03	-0.029	-0.066	0.045	-0.111	0.069
Eastmid	-0.174	-0.049	0.101	-0.006	0.107	0.171
Northeast	0.226	0.091	0.171	-0.15	0.321	-0.057
Northwest	-0.055	0.075	0.098	-0.11	0.208	-0.126
Scotland	0.291	0.201	0.51	-0.6	1.109*	0.098
Southwest	0.224	0.247	0.491**	-0.52	1.011*	-0.138
Wales	-0.11	0.228	0.127	-0.282	0.409	-0.195
Westmidlands	0.16	0.016	0.196	0.353	-0.156	-0.365**
Yorkhumber	0.32	0.349	0.540**	-0.291	0.831*	-0.046
Constant	6.926***	6.751***	5.580***	5.724***	-0.143	2.868***
Observations	862	862	862	862	862	931
r2	0.157	0.182	0.152	0.166	0.18	0.209

Notes: *** < 1%; ** < 5%; * < 10% significance. Heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors used. Legend: (i) for male ref = female; (ii) for Limiting health ref = other; (iii) Religious ref = not religious; (iv) Educated to degree or above ref = other; (v) for employment ref = full time employed; (vi) for housing ref = homeownwer; (vii) for conurbation ref = city; for marital status ref = married; (viii) for region ref – Southeast.

Table A37. Factors associated with willingness to pay (WTP)

	Current volunteers		Total sample	
	b	se	b	se
Volunteer frequency	0.186	0.528	-	-
Volunteer time	0.03	0.063	-	-
Volunteer time2	0	0	-	-
Volunteer years	-0.577	0.532	-	-
Volunteer type: formal	-0.822	1.519	-	-
Sports volunteer	-	-	1.747	1.151
Other volunteer	0.917	1.603	1.412	1.19
Male	1.128	1.438	1.838*	0.955
Age	-0.272	0.304	-0.109	0.215
Age2	0.003	0.004	0.001	0.002
Num children	-0.015	0.852	0.401	0.598
Health limited	0.095	1.535	-0.092	1.068
Religious	-0.666	1.427	1.961*	1.062

Log income	-0.913	1.271	1.004	0.918
Degree & above	-1.71	1.402	-1.24	0.968
Carer	-8.315**	4.133	-5.836**	2.273
Unemployed	-2.54	3.32	-2.257	1.967
Student	-1.84	2.801	-2.366	1.938
Retired	-6.501**	3.269	-3.091	2.13
Self employed	-0.869	2.615	-1.751	1.861
Part-time	-1.108	2.216	-0.326	1.59
Unable to work	-8.136**	3.372	-1.831	2.139
Not seeking	-10.140***	2.61	-1.853	3.696
House: Other	1.945	3.384	-2.878	2.587
Private rent	3.715	3.035	-1.651	2.456
Local authority rent	1.531	3.211	-1.82	2.494
Widow	-0.89	5.214	-1.051	3.101
Cohabiting	-3.53	2.323	-3.544**	1.407
Single	-5.292***	1.881	-3.473***	1.276
Divorce	-2.197	3.413	-3.701**	1.713
Civil partnership	-2.783	3.69	-1.873	3.544
Separated	-2.502	4.941	-4.154	2.995
Town	-11.705**	4.58	4.907	7.003
Village	-0.497	1.547	0.147	1.049
Hamlet	-0.793	2.077	-0.142	1.341
Former civil partnership	-5.841*	3.382	-1.055	2.956
See friends often	5.386***	1.627	3.079***	0.989
London	2.157	2.639	1.569	1.872
Eastengland	-1.865	2.309	0.341	1.71
Eastmid	-3.385	2.94	-2.564	1.76
Northeast	-3.369	5.025	-0.912	2.911
Northwest	-3.364	2.152	-0.702	1.507
Scotland	-1.012	2.922	-1.75	1.909
Southwest	-6.329***	2.153	-2.085	1.511
Wales	0.903	4.032	3.453	2.961
Westmidlands	0.385	3.733	-0.437	2.122
Yorkhumber	-3.025	2.599	-0.672	1.727
Constant	19.717**	8.737	12.730**	5.664
Observations	643		1255	
r2	0.098		0.067	

Table A38. GIVERS Supporting Evidence

GIVERS	Supporting evidence
Growth	**Well-being and life satisfaction** There is a positive relationship between wellbeing and volunteering (e.g. Greenfield and Marks, 2004; Meier and Stutzer, 2008; Switzer et al., 1999; Binder and Freytag, 2012). Volunteering is associated with improved life satisfaction and GHQ (Simetrica 2016). All types of volunteering are associated with purpose in life and a feeling of worthwhile (Simetrica 2016). Evidence from the "natural experiment" of German Unification shows that missing the opportunity to volunteer reduces life satisfaction (Meier and Stutzer, 2004) Fujiwara (2013) also shows that not being able to volunteer reduces life satisfaction. The positive effects on wellbeing are immediate and can last for a long time (Tkach, 2005; Dunn et al., 2008; Choi and Kim, 2011) There is an optimum of time to be given through volunteering. Giving too little or too much can have negative impact on wellbeing. (Windsor, 2008) There is a link between the length of volunteering and feeling worthwhile, general health, wellbeing and life satisfaction. However, no such link is observed for the frequency of volunteering. (Simetrica 2016). **Motivation to work and use of skills** Volunteering can increase job performance (Rodell, 2011). Studies on employee volunteering show that volunteering enhances motivation to work, and leads to an improvement in leadership and other skills (Gallup Survey, 2011; Low et al., 2007; London Benchmarking Group, 2014; Collins and Haddad, 2004; Gammon and Ellison, 2010; Collins and Haddad, 2004). It is also associated with employees' perception of skill acquisition, job success and employer recognition (Booth et al., 2009). A U.S. study links employee volunteering to higher revenue per employee (Wyatt, 2009). Adults surveyed in 2013 volunteer because their skills were needed (32%), which gives them a chance to use their existing skills (YouGov survey 2013; Simetrica 2016). People say they volunteer in sports because it improves their health and makes them feel less stressed. People volunteer in general and for sports because it broadens their experience of life (mainly the under 25s) and gives a sense of personal achievement (mainly the over 55s) (Simetrica 2016).
Impact	Desire to help others is cited most frequently as the reason for volunteering by survey participants (Nicols and King, 1999; Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen, 1991). Adult want to improve their local area (males 35%), help friends (33% male, 43% female) and disadvantaged people (female: 35%) or feel part of the community (female 36%) (YouGov, 2013). People cite wanting to improve things and helping other people as reasons for volunteering (Simetrica, 2016).
Voice	Mindspace study shows that we are influenced by who communicates the relevant information to us (Cabinet Office, 2010). Pfeffer and DeVoe (2008) show that when people are primed to think about other people's time rather than their own they are more likely to volunteer.
Ease	Lack of time (43%) and not knowing how to get involved (21.7%) are frequently mentioned as barriers to volunteering (Sundeen et al., 2007; Simetrica, 2016). Poor organisation, bureaucracy involved (18% in sports), and lack of time (28% in general volunteering) are among reasons given for stopping volunteering efforts (Simetrica, 2016). In order to encourage people to volunteer, opportunity cost of volunteering should be kept low (Carlson et al., 2011). Making information more accessible and allowing for flexible, low commitment volunteering options (e.g. remote work) would encourage people to volunteer more (Simetrica, 2016).

Recognition	Studies show that social connections and social status (e.g. being seen to do good or having a position of authority) are important drivers for volunteering, along with receipts of rewards such as free concert tickets (Cnaan and Amrofell, 1994; Wilson and Pimm, 1996; Eckstein 2001, DellaVigna et al. 2009). Volunteering could also lead to recognition from managers and other career rewards (Clary and Snyder, 1992; Peloza et al., 2009). Volunteers cite feeling needed (up to 21%), receiving recognised qualifications (up to 25%), boosting their confidence (15%), and having a sense of personal achievement (up to 27%) as reasons for starting volunteering. They say they would volunteer more if they could gain skills (10%) or get a job (11%), feel better about themselves (10.8%) or receive discounts as a result of volunteering (4.8%). Not feeling appreciated or rewarded is cited as a reason not volunteering more than usual and also for having stopped volunteering (Simetrica 2016).
Social	**Interact with others** ● People are motivated to volunteer to engage in social participation and through a sense of civic participation Chambre 1987 and Friedman et al 1988 (P.56) ● Intrinsic motivation is linked to friendships, social relationships and affiliation (Kasser et al. 2007: p 135-137). ● Social connections drive volunteering rather than pure altruism (Eckstein 2001, DellaVigna, List & Malmedier ref) p 136 ● The Community Live Survey shows that people volunteer to meet others (P 57) ● The Simetrica volunteering survey showed that people start volunteering to make friends and be part of a group and that they volunteer more if a friend was involved, meet new people, share with friends, people my age in the area were also doing it (P 84 85). However, some are also nervous about meeting new people. (p 100) **External influences and duty** ● External influences drive volunteering Grube and Piliavin 2000, Piliavin and Callero 1992 (P 138) ● Duty and civic participation is an intrinsic motivator (Friedman et al 1998) and as a having an intrinsic value in its own right (Kant) p 137 **Sense of belonging** ● Feeling of trust in and belonging to the local community enhances participation in volunteering Young-joo Lee and Brudney 2009 (P 60) ● Son and Wilson (2012) positive mood, purpose, sense of belonging to the community (P 18) ● A reason to start is help people, connection to family etc. Community Life Survey (P.43 -44) ● A reason to stop volunteering in sport can be that children or the family aren't involved in sport (P 109)

References

References

Aderman, D. (1972). Elation, depression, and helping behavior. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *24*(1), 91.

Aknin, L. B., Hamlin, J. K., & Dunn, E. W. (2012). Giving Leads to Happiness in Young Children. *PLoS ONE*, *7*(6), e39211. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039211

Allcott, H. (2009). Real time pricing and electricity markets. *Harvard University*, *7*.

Andreoni, J. (1989). Giving with impure altruism: applications to charity and Ricardian equivalence. *The Journal of Political Economy*, 1447–1458.

Andreoni, J. (1990). Impure Altruism and Donations to Public Goods: A Theory of Warm-Glow Giving. *The Economic Journal*, *100*(401), 464–477. doi:10.2307/2234133

Anik, L., Aknin, L. B., Norton, M. I., & Dunn, E. W. (2009). Feeling good about giving: The benefits (and costs) of self-interested charitable behavior. *Harvard Business School Marketing Unit Working Paper*, (10-012).

Arceneaux, K. (2005). Using Cluster Randomized Field Experiments to Study Voting Behavior. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, *601*(1), 169–179. doi:10.1177/0002716205277804

Ariely, D., & Wertenbroch, K. (2002). Procrastination, deadlines, and performance: Self-control by precommitment. *Psychological science*, *13*(3), 219–224.

Backhaus, K. B., Stone, B. A., & Heiner, K. (2002). Exploring The Relationship Between Corporate Social Performance and Employer Attractiveness. *Business Society*, *41*(3), 292–318. doi:10.1177/0007650302041003003

Baron, J. (1993). Heuristics and biases in equity judgments: A utilitarian approach. *Psychological perspectives on justice: Theory and applications*, 109–137.

Baron, R. A., & Bronfen, M. I. (1994). A Whiff of Reality: Empirical Evidence Concerning the Effects of Pleasant Fragrances on Work-Related Behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *24*(13), 1179–1203.

Baron, R. A., Fortin, S. P., Frei, R. L., Hauver, L. A., & Shack, M. L. (1990). Reducing organizational conflict: The role of socially-induced positive affect. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, *1*(2), 133–152.

Basil, D. Z., Runte, M. S., Easwaramoorthy, M., & Barr, C. (2009). Company support for employee volunteering: A national survey of companies in Canada. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *85*(2), 387–398.

Bateman, I. J., Carson, R. T., Day, B., Hanemann, M., Hanley, N., Hett, T., et al. (2002). *Economic Valuation with Stated Preference Techniques: A Manual*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Behavioural Insights Team. (2015). *Behavioural Insights and the Somerset Challenge* (p. 43). London, UK: BITC. http://38r8om2xjhhl25mw24492dir.wpengine.netdna-cdn.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/07/Somerset-Challenge-Report1.pdf

Binder, M., & Freytag, A. (2012). *Volunteering, happiness and public policy* (No. 2012,013). Jena economic research papers. http://www.econstor.eu/handle/10419/56894. Accessed 15 June 2015

Binder, M., & Freytag, A. (2013). Volunteering, subjective well-being and public policy. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *34*, 97–119. doi:10.1016/j.joep.2012.11.008

Boenigk, S., & Mayr, M. L. (2015). The Happiness of Giving: Evidence from the German Socioeconomic Panel That Happier People Are More Generous. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 1–22. doi:10.1007/s10902-015-9672-2

Bond, R. M., Fariss, C. J., Jones, J. J., Kramer, A. D., Marlow, C., Settle, J. E., & Fowler, J. H. (2012). A 61-million-person experiment in social influence and political mobilization. *Nature*, *489*(7415), 295–298.

Booth, J. E., Park, K. W., & Glomb, T. M. (2009). Employer-supported volunteering benefits: gift exchange among employers, employees, and volunteer organizations. *Human Resource Management*, *48*(2), 227.

Borgonovi, F. (2008). Doing well by doing good. The relationship between formal volunteering and self-reported health and happiness. *Social Science & Medicine*, *66*(11), 2321–2334. doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2008.01.011

Brooks, A. C. (2006). *Who Really Cares: The Surprising Truth About Compassionate Conservatism - America's Charity Divide - Who Gives, Who Do*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Brooks, A. C. (2007). Does giving make us prosperous? *Journal of Economics and Finance*, *31*(3), 403–411. doi:10.1007/BF02885730

Chambré, S. M. (1987). *Good deeds in old age*. Lexington Books.

Chambre, S. M., & Einolf, C. J. (2011). Who Volunteers? Constructing a Hybrid Theory. *Baruch College Center for Nonprofit Strategy and Management Working Papers*. https://works.bepress.com/christopher_einolf/11/. Accessed 24 May 2016

Cheek, C., Piercy, K. W., & Grainger, S. (2015). Leaving home how older adults prepare for intensive volunteering. *Journal of Applied Gerontology*, *34*(2), 181–198.

Choi, N. G., & Kim, J. (2011). The effect of time volunteering and charitable donations in later life on psychological wellbeing. *Ageing & Society*, *31*(04), 590–610. doi:10.1017/S0144686X10001224

Clark, M. S., & Isen, A. M. (1982). Toward understanding the relationship between feeling states and social behavior. *Cognitive social psychology*, *73*, 108.

Clark, M. S., & Waddell, B. A. (1983). Effects of moods on thoughts about helping, attraction and information acquisition. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 31–35.

Clary, E. G., & Snyder, M. (1999). The Motivations to Volunteer Theoretical and Practical Considerations. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *8*(5), 156–159. doi:10.1111/1467-8721.00037

Clary, E. G., Snyder, M., Ridge, R. D., Copeland, J., Stukas, A. A., Haugen, J., & Miene, P. (1998). Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: a functional approach. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *74*(6), 1516.

Cnaan, R. A., & Amrofell, L. (1994). Mapping volunteer activity. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *23*(4), 335–351.

Cnaan, R. A., & Goldberg-Glen, R. S. (1991). Measuring Motivation to Volunteer in Human Services. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, *27*(3), 269–284. doi:10.1177/0021886391273003

Cocca-Bates, K. C., & Neal-Boylan, L. (2011). Retired RNs: Perceptions of Volunteering. *Geriatric Nursing*, *32*(2), 96–105. doi:10.1016/j.gerinurse.2010.11.003

Collins, P., & Haddad, M. (2004). *Giving Something Back: Business, volunteering and healthy communities* (p. 40). London, UK: Social Market Foundation. http://www.smf.co.uk/wp-content/uploads/2004/09/Publication-Giving-Something-Back-Business-volunteering-and-healthy-communities.pdf

Courtney, M. R., Spivey, C., & Daniel, K. M. (2014). Helping patients make better decisions: how to apply behavioral economics in clinical practice. *Patient preference and adherence*, *8*, 1503–1512. doi:10.2147/PPA.S71224

Cunningham, M. R. (1988). Does happiness mean friendliness? Induced mood and heterosexual self-disclosure. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *14*(2), 283–297.

Cunningham, M. R., Steinberg, J., & Grev, R. (1980). Wanting to and having to help: Separate motivations for positive mood and guilt-induced helping. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *38*(2), 181.

Dawkins, J., & Lewis, S. (2003). CSR in Stakeholder Expectations: And Their Implication for Company Strategy. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *44*(2-3), 185–193. doi:10.1023/A:1023399732720

DCMS. (2015). Taking Part 2014/15 Quarter 3 Statistical Release. https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/taking-part-201415-quarter-3-statistical-release

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008). Self-determination theory: A macrotheory of human motivation, development, and health. *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie canadienne*, *49*(3), 182.

DellaVigna, S., List, J. A., & Malmendier, U. (2009). *Testing for Altruism and Social Pressure in Charitable Giving* (Working Paper No. 15629). National Bureau of Economic Research. http://www.nber.org/papers/w15629. Accessed 24 May 2016

Design Council. (2011). Reducing violence and aggression in A&E'. *Design Council*.

Dijksterhuis, A., & Bargh, J. A. (2001). The perception-behavior expressway: Automatic effects of social perception on social behavior. *Advances in experimental social psychology*, *33*, 1–40.

Dolan, P. (2014). *Happiness by Design: Finding Pleasure and Purpose in Everyday Life*. London, UK: Penguin Books.

Dolan, P., Fujiwara, D., & Metcalfe, R. (2011). *A Step towards Valuing Utility the Marginal and Cardinal Way* (CEP Discussion Paper No. 1062). Centre for Economic Performance, LSE. http://ideas.repec.org/p/cep/cepdps/dp1062.html. Accessed 21 May 2014

Dolan, P., Hallsworth, M., Halpern, D., King, D., Metcalfe, R., & Vlaev, I. (2012). Influencing behaviour: The mindspace way. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *33*(1), 264–277.

Dolan, P., Peasgood, T., & White, M. (2008). Do we really know what makes us happy? A review of the economic literature on the factors associated with subjective well-being. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *29*(1), 94–122. doi:10.1016/j.joep.2007.09.001

Dunn, E. W., Aknin, L. B., & Norton, M. I. (2008). Spending money on others promotes happiness. *Science*, *319*(5870), 1687–1688.

Eckstein, S. (2001). Community as gift-giving: Collectivistic roots of volunteerism. *American Sociological Review*, 829–851.

Eden, D., & Kinnar, J. (1991). Modeling Galatea: Boosting self-efficacy to increase volunteering. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *76*(6), 770–780. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.76.6.770

Farrell, C., & Bryant, W. (2009). Voluntary work for adults with mental health problems: a route to inclusion? A review of the literature. *The British Journal of Occupational Therapy*, *72*(4), 163–173.

Fisher, R. J., & Ackerman, D. (1998). The effects of recognition and group need on volunteerism: A social norm perspective. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *25*(3), 262–275.

Fredrickson, B. L., & Kahneman, D. (1993). Duration neglect in retrospective evaluations of affective episodes. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *65*(1), 45.

Friedman, W. (1998). Volunteerism and the decline of violent crime. *The Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology (1973-)*, *88*(4), 1453–1474.

Fujiwara, D., & Campbell, R. (2011). *Valuation Techniques for Social Cost-Benefit Analysis: Stated Preference, Revealed Preference and Subjective Well-Being Approaches. A Discussion of the Current Issues* (pp. 1–76). London, UK: HM Treasury. https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/209107/greenbook_valuationtechniques.pdf. Accessed 13 April 2013

Fujiwara, D., Oroyemi, P., & McKinnon, E. (2013). *Wellbeing and Civil Society: Estimating the Value of Volunteering Using Subjective Wellbeing Data* (Working Paper No. 112) (p. 26). London, UK: Department for Work and Pensions. https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/wellbeing-and-civil-society-estimating-the-value-of-volunteering-using-subjective-wellbeing-data-wp112. Accessed 2 July 2014

Gammon, A., & Ellison, G. (2010). *Volunteering is the Business: Employers' and employees' attitudes to workplace based volunteering* (p. 38). London, UK: YouGov. https://vinspired.com/media/W1siZiIsIjIwMTQvMDMvMTEvMTcvMjcvMDQvMjEyLzA2XzA3XzQ0Xzc4N19Wb2x1bnRlZXJpbmdfaXNfdGhlX0J1c2luZXNzX0ZJTkFMLnBkZiJdXQ

Giannoulakis, C., Wang, C.-H., & Gray, D. (2007). Measuring Volunteer Motivation in Mega-Sporting Events. *Event Management*, *11*(4), 191–200. doi:10.3727/152599508785899884

Gilder, D. de, Schuyt, T. N. M., & Breedijk, M. (2005). Effects of an Employee Volunteering Program on the Work Force: The ABN-AMRO Case. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *61*(2), 143–152. doi:10.1007/s10551-005-7101-x

Greenfield, E. A., & Marks, N. F. (2004). Formal Volunteering as a Protective Factor for Older Adults' Psychological Well-Being. *The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences*, *59*(5), S258–S264. doi:10.1093/geronb/59.5.S258

Griffitt, W. (1970). Environmental effects on interpersonal affective behavior: Ambient effective temperature and attraction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *15*(3), 240–244. doi:10.1037/h0029432

Grube, J. A., & Piliavin, J. A. (2000). Role Identity, Organizational Experiences, and Volunteer Performance. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *26*(9), 1108–1119. doi:10.1177/01461672002611007

Haidt, J. (2001). The emotional dog and its rational tail: a social intuitionist approach to moral judgment. *Psychological review*, *108*(4), 814.

Haller, M., & Hadler, M. (2006). How Social Relations and Structures can Produce Happiness and Unhappiness: An International Comparative Analysis. *Social Indicators Research*, *75*(2), 169–216. doi:10.1007/s11205-004-6297-y

Hallsworth, M., Berry, D., Sanders, M., Sallis, A., King, D., Vlaev, I., & Darzi, A. (2015). Stating Appointment Costs in SMS Reminders Reduces Missed Hospital Appointments: Findings from Two Randomised Controlled Trials. *PLOS ONE*, *10*(9), e0137306. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0137306

Hansen, U., & Schrader, U. (2005). Corporate Social Responsibility als aktuelles Thema der Betriebswirtschaftslehre. *Die Betriebswirtschaft*, *65*(5), 373–395.

Heal, G. (2005). Corporate Social Responsibility: An Economic and Financial Framework. *Geneva Pap R Iss P*, *30*(3), 387–409.

Hirst, M. (2005). Carer distress: A prospective, population-based study. *Social Science & Medicine*, *61*(3), 697–708. doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2005.01.001

Isen, A. M. (1970). Success, failure, attention, and reaction to others: The warm glow of success. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *15*(4), 294.

Isen, A. M., & Levin, P. F. (1972). Effect of feeling good on helping: cookies and kindness. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *21*(3), 384.

Johnson, E. J., & Goldstein, D. G. (2003). Do defaults save lives? *Science*, *302*, 1338–1339.

Johnson, E. J., & Goldstein, D. G. (2004). Defaults and donation decisions. *Transplantation*, *78*(12), 1713–1716.

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1982). The psychology of preferences. *Scientific American*, *246*(1), 160–173.

Karlan, D., Mullainathan, S., McConnell, M., & Zinman, J. (2010). *Getting to the Top of Mind: How Reminders Increase Saving* (Working Paper No. id:2587). eSocialSciences. https://ideas.repec.org/p/ess/wpaper/id2587.html. Accessed 24 May 2016

Kasser, T., Cohn, S., Kanner, A. D., & Ryan, R. M. (2007). Some costs of American corporate capitalism: A psychological exploration of value and goal conflicts. *Psychological Inquiry*, *18*(1), 1–22.

Konow, J., & Earley, J. (2008). The Hedonistic Paradox: Is homo economicus happier? *Journal of Public Economics*, *92*(1–2), 1–33. doi:10.1016/j.jpubeco.2007.04.006

Konrath, S. (2014). The power of philanthropy and volunteering. In F. Huppert & Cooper (Eds.), *Wellbeing: A Complete Reference Guide, Volume VI, Interventions and Policies to Enhance Wellbeing* (pp. 387–427). London, UK: John Wiley & Sons.

Korenok, O., Millner, E. L., & Razzolini, L. (2013). Impure altruism in dictators' giving. *Journal of Public Economics*, *97*, 1–8. doi:10.1016/j.jpubeco.2012.08.006

Kube, S., Maréchal, M. A., & Puppe, C. (2012). The Currency of Reciprocity: Gift Exchange in the Workplace. *The American Economic Review*, *102*(4), 1644–1662.

Landry, C., Lange, A., List, J. A., Price, M. K., & Rupp, N. G. (2005). *Toward an Understanding of the Economics of Charity: Evidence from a Field Experiment* (Working Paper No. 11611). National Bureau of Economic Research. http://www.nber.org/papers/w11611. Accessed 24 May 2016

Lee, Y., & Brudney, J. L. (2009). Rational volunteering: A benefit-cost approach. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, *29*(9/10), 512–530.

Lev, B., Petrovits, C., & Radhakrishnan, S. (2010). Is doing good good for you? how corporate charitable contributions enhance revenue growth. *Strategic Management Journal*, *31*(2), 182–200. doi:10.1002/smj.810

Li, Y., & Ferraro, K. F. (2006). Volunteering in Middle and Later Life: Is Health a Benefit, Barrier or Both? *Social Forces*, *85*(1), 497–519. doi:10.1353/sof.2006.0132

London Benchmarking Group. (2014). *Maximum Impact: The LBG Annual Review 2014* (p. 8). London, UK: London Benchmarking Group. http://www.lbg-online.net/pdf/LBG%20Annual%20Review%202014.pdf

Low, N., Butt, S., Ellis, P., & Davis Smith, J. (2007). *Helping out: a national survey of volunteering and charitable giving*. London, UK: Cabinet Office. http://openaccess.city.ac.uk/2547/

Lyubomirsky, S., King, L., & Diener, E. (2005). The benefits of frequent positive affect: does happiness lead to success? *Psychological bulletin*, *131*(6), 803.

Martinez, I. L., Crooks, D., Kim, K. S., & Tanner, E. (2011). Invisible civic engagement among older adults: Valuing the contributions of informal volunteering. *Journal of cross-cultural gerontology*, *26*(1), 23–37.

McGinigle, K. L., Milano, P. M., Rich, P. B., & Viera, A. J. (2008). Volunteerism among surgeons: an exploration of attitudes and barriers. *The American Journal of Surgery*, *196*(2), 300–304.

Meier, S., & Stutzer, A. (2004). Is volunteering rewarding in itself? Evidence from a natural experiment. *Institute for the Study of Labor (IZA) discussion paper*, (1045).

Meier, S., & Stutzer, A. (2008). Is Volunteering Rewarding in Itself? *Economica*, *75*(297), 39–59. doi:10.1111/j.1468-0335.2007.00597.x

Mellor, D., Hayashi, Y., Firth, L., Stokes, M., Chambers, S., & Cummins, R. (2008). Volunteering and Well-Being: Do Self-Esteem, Optimism, and Perceived Control Mediate the Relationship? *Journal of Social Service Research*, *34*(4), 61–70. doi:10.1080/01488370802162483

Mohan, J., & Bulloch, S. L. . (2012). *The idea of a civic core: what are the overlaps between charitable giving, volunteering, and civic participation in England and Wales?* Third Sector Research Centre. http://www.birmingham.ac.uk/generic/tsrc/documents/tsrc/working-papers/working-paper-73.pdf

Nelson, L. D., & Norton, M. I. (2005). From student to superhero: Situational primes shape future helping. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *41*(4), 423–430. doi:10.1016/j.jesp.2004.08.003

Nichols, G., & King, L. (1999). Redefining the recruitment niche for the Guide Association in the United Kingdom. *Leisure Sciences*, *21*(4), 307–320.

North, A. C., Hargreaves, D. J., & McKendrick, J. (1997). In-store music affects product choice. *Nature*.

O'Malley, M. N., & Andrews, L. (1983). The effect of mood and incentives on helping: Are there some things money can't buy? *Motivation and emotion*, *7*(2), 179–189.

Parfit, D. (1984). *Reasons and Persons*. Oxford UK: Oxford University Press.

Peloza, J. (2009). The Challenge of Measuring Financial Impacts From Investments in Corporate Social Performance. *Journal of Management*. doi:10.1177/0149206309335188

Pfeffer, J., & DeVoe, S. E. (2009). Economic evaluation: The effect of money and economics on attitudes about volunteering. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *30*(3), 500–508. doi:10.1016/j.joep.2008.08.006

Piliavin, J. A., & Callero, P. L. (1991). *Giving blood: The development of an altruistic identity.* Johns Hopkins University Press.

Post, S. G. (2005). Altruism, happiness, and health: it's good to be good. *International Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, *12*(2), 66–77. doi:10.1207/s15327558ijbm1202_4

Randle, M., & Dolnicar, S. (2009). Not just any volunteers: Segmenting the market to attract the high contributors. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, *21*(3), 271–282.

Richards, S., Jenkinson, C., Dickens, A., Jones, K., Thompson-Coon, J., Taylor, R., et al. (2013). OP74 Is “volunteering” a Public Health Intervention: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health*, *67*(Suppl 1), A35–A35. doi:10.1136/jech-2013-203126.74

Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job engagement: Antecedents and effects on job performance. *Academy of management journal*, *53*(3), 617–635.

Rodell, J. B. (2013). Finding meaning through volunteering: Why do employees volunteer and what does it mean for their jobs? *Academy of Management Journal*, *56*(5), 1274–1294.

Rosenhan, D. L., Salovey, P., & Hargis, K. (1981). The joys of helping: Focus of attention mediates the impact of positive affect on altruism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *40*(5), 899.

Rosenhan, D. L., Underwood, B., & Moore, B. (1974). Affect moderates self-gratification and altruism. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *30*(4), 546.

Ryan, R. M., Huta, V., & Deci, E. L. (2008). Living well: A self-determination theory perspective on eudaimonia. *Journal of happiness studies*, *9*(1), 139–170.

Siegel, D. S., & Vitaliano, D. F. (2007). An empirical analysis of the strategic use of corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Economics & Management Strategy*, *16*(3), 773–792.

Skills – Third Sector, National Council For Voluntary Organisations, and Third Sector Research Centre. (2013). UK Voluntary Sector Workforce Almanac. http://www.3rdsectorworkforce.org.uk/fast-facts/

Son, J., & Wilson, J. (2012). Volunteer Work and Hedonic, Eudemonic, and Social Well-Being. *Sociological Forum*, *27*(3), 658–681. doi:10.1111/j.1573-7861.2012.01340.x

Stewart, N. (2009). The cost of anchoring on credit-card minimum repayments. *Psychological Science*, *20*(1), 39–41.

Stutzer, A., & Frey, B. S. (2004). Reported subjective well-being: A challenge for economic theory and economic policy. *Schmollers Jahrbuch*, *124*(2), 1–41.

Sundeen, R. A., Garcia, C., & Raskoff, S. A. (2009). Ethnicity, Acculturation, and Volunteering to Organizations A Comparison of African Americans, Asians, Hispanics, and Whites. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *38*(6), 929–955. doi:10.1177/0899764008322779

Sundeen, R. A., Raskoff, S. A., & Garcia, M. C. (2007). Differences in perceived barriers to volunteering to formal organizations: Lack of time versus lack of interest. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, *17*(3), 279–300. doi:10.1002/nml.150

Switzer, C. L., Switzer, G. E., Stukas, A. A., & Baker, C. E. (1999). Medical student motivations to volunteer: Gender differences and comparisons to other volunteers. *Journal of Prevention & Intervention in the community*, *18*(1-2), 53–64.

Taylor, S. E., & Brown, J. D. (1988). Illusion and well-being: a social psychological perspective on mental health. *Psychological bulletin*, *103*(2), 193.

Thaler, R. (1985). Mental accounting and consumer choice. *Marketing science*, *4*(3), 199–214.

Thoits, P. A., & Hewitt, L. N. (2001). Volunteer Work and Well-Being. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, *42*(2), 115–131. doi:10.2307/3090173

Tkach, C. T. (2005). *Unlocking the treasury of human kindness: Enduring improvements in mood, happiness, and self-evaluations*. University of California, Riverside.

Warburton, J. (2010). Volunteering as a productive ageing activity: evidence from Australia. *China Journal of Social Work*, *3*(2-3), 301–312. doi:10.1080/17525098.2010.492655

Warburton, J., Paynter, J., & Petriwskyj, A. (2007). Volunteering as a productive aging activity: Incentives and barriers to volunteering by Australian seniors. *Journal of Applied Gerontology*, *26*(4), 333–354.

Weyant, J. M. (1978). Effects of mood states, costs, and benefits on helping. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *36*(10), 1169–1176. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.36.10.1169

Wilson, A., & Pimm, G. (1996). The tyranny of the volunteer: the care and feeding of voluntary workforces. *Management Decision*, *34*(4), 24–40. doi:10.1108/00251749610115134

Windsor, T. D., Anstey, K. J., & Rodgers, B. (2008). Volunteering and Psychological Well-Being Among Young-Old Adults: How Much Is Too Much? *The Gerontologist*, *48*(1), 59–70. doi:10.1093/geront/48.1.59

Wyatt, W. (2009). *Driving Business Results Through Continuous Engagement*. New York, NY: WorkUSA.

Sport and Recreation Alliance
Burwood House
14-16 Caxton Street
London SW1H 0QT
T: 020 7976 3900
info@sportandrecreation.org.uk
@sportrectweets

SPORT+ RECREATION ALLIANCE