[LSU Doctoral Dissertations](#)   [Graduate School](#)

5-25-2020

Exploring the Role of Engagement Among Sport Volunteers at College Football Bowl Games

Marcella Otto
Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College

EXPLORING THE ROLE OF ENGAGEMENT AMONG SPORT VOLUNTEERS AT COLLEGE FOOTBALL BOWL GAMES

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

School of Kinesiology

by
Marcella Otto
B.S., Southern Illinois University, 2014
M.S., Southern Illinois University, 2016
August 2020

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Martina and Frank, and to my brother Gianni. Your unconditional love, support, positivity, trust, and encouragement made all of this possible. I aspire to be just like you. Thank you for everything. Ich hab euch sehr lieb, eure Lelli.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Completing this dissertation has been a long process and I would like to thank the following people who had a major impact on me and for helping me along the way:

First off, a big and sincere thank you to all of my committee members! To my advisor, Dr. Michael Martinez, thank you for taking me on after I randomly sent you an email on a Friday afternoon. Thank you for giving me the opportunity to come to LSU, guiding me through this process, your patience, and believing in me. To my co-advisor, Dr. Chris Barnhill, thank you for your insightful advice and for making my work and questions a priority. Even from afar you were just as present. I hope I met both of your expectations as your first PhD student. Thank you for everything both of you have done for me these past four years!

To my fellow European, Dr. Per Svensson, thank you for helping me through not only my dissertation, but life as a PhD student in general. Your constant encouragement, excitement, insight, and genuine support is something I will forever cherish as you played a major role in me becoming a better researcher and teacher. I appreciate your willingness to always listen and to offer advice whenever I needed help.

To Dr. Chad Seifried, thank you for your overall guidance and mentoring in various aspects throughout my time at LSU and your involvement in this project. Your knowledge helped me tremendously to better understand not only academia, but also how to improve the quality of this dissertation and my research. I will send you some Goldschatz Schokolade every now and then, make sure to check your mailbox.

To my other committee members, Dr. Sunyoung Park and Dr. Mark Walker, I truly appreciate your willingness to serve on my committee, for your time, and providing feedback from different angles to enhance my work. I am very grateful for your interest and input.

To Dr. Dee Jacobsen, thank you for being a great mentor, friend, and sharing your experiences. You have taught me numerous valuable lessons; I will miss being able to bounce ideas off of each other and sitting in your office just to catch up! We will do that over the phone though, no worries. Thank you for encouraging me to always stick to what I believe and being an amazing role model!

A huge shout out goes to Dr. Alex Garn for taking time out of your day (willingly!) and walking me through one of the most challenging aspects of this dissertation: learning how to use structural equation modeling in Mplus. Your patience made everything a lot easier and I am extremely grateful for that.

I would also like to thank Dr. Ben Downs. Without your knowledge, support, sarcasm, passionate rants, and weekly facetime sessions I know I would not be where I am now. You helped me more than you will ever know and your friendship means a lot to me. You and your family will get Schoko and Keks for life!

Lastly, I would like to thank my boyfriend, Matthew. Thank you for always making me laugh and smile, being incredibly supportive, understanding, encouraging, and believing in me throughout this process. You are awesome. I cannot wait to eat the best homemade tiramisu and watch more sunrises together!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT

Recent scholars noted the need for an engaged workforce to achieve optimal performance in various institutional fields. Within the sports industry, organizations often rely heavily on volunteers as a vital resource to accomplish goals and missions (Cuskelly, 2004; Doherty, 2009). The sport volunteer literature demonstrates the broadness of the field but also shows the increased demand for volunteers to aid staging events, even as the recruitment pool of volunteers is generally decreasing. Relatedly, it is in the best interest of organizations to maintain and manage volunteers to stay efficient (Chelladurai, 2006) because the need for this human resource continues to increase (Cuskelly, Hoye, & Auld, 2006).

Despite the growing body of literature on sport event volunteers, one particularly unexplored avenue within this literature is engagement, which allows organizations to retain and motivate individuals. Kahn (1990) defined engagement "as a series of active and positive psychological states (cognitive, emotional, and behavioral)" (Shuck & Reio, 2014, p. 47), underlining one's motivation with the intent to act. Among the growing hallmark events within the sports industry are college football bowl games (Williams & Seifried, 2013). As the popularity of football bowl games has increased (Coakley, 2017; Seifried & Smith, 2011), organizers are placing more focus on staging ancillary events, indicating a heightened dependency on the "invaluable human resource" (Doherty, 2006, p. 108), the sport volunteer.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore the role of engagement levels among volunteers at National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) bowl games and how engagement relates to the recruiting and retaining of those individuals. This quantitative inquiry is guided by Kahn's (1990) initial engagement conceptualization. Overall, this study contributes to the engagement literature, adding empirical

and theoretical discussion to the sport context along with proposing future research opportunities. More specifically, it allows for developing practical implications and designing more effective training sessions and retention strategies. Additionally, organizations will be able to find more meaningful roles for their volunteers to ensure higher retention rates and to maximize their ability to address the needs of their human resources, to stage a successful event for everyone involved.

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins with an overall introduction of human resource engagement, sport volunteers, and the nature of sport volunteers within the context of college football bowl games, setting the stage for the focus of this dissertation, followed by the significance of the study. Next, the purpose statement, research questions, definition of terms, delimitations, and the structure of the dissertation are presented.

Numerous organizations, especially in the nonprofit sector, rely heavily on volunteers to offer and provide services to realize successful event operations. Within the context of sport, many organizations rely on the volunteer force to function, and more importantly, survive (Chelladurai, 2006; Cuskelly, 2004; Kim, Chelladurai, & Trail, 2007). Additionally, over the past few years, the staging of mega-events has witnessed a growth in recruiting volunteers to ensure success (Allen & Shaw, 2009). For example, when Rio hosted the 2014 World Cup, 50,000 official volunteers participated, while 70,000 were recruited for the 2016 Summer Olympic Games. In 2018, when Australia hosted the 2018 Commonwealth Games, event organizers began advertising for volunteer recruitment two years prior (Gold Coast 2018, 2017).

Notably, while event organizers are in need of volunteers, people are engaging less in voluntary roles (Bussell & Forbes, 2002; Cuskelly, 2004; Cuskelly et al., 2006). Thus, a consensus among scholars is that the recruitment and retention of sport volunteers remains an important issue for sport managers (Wicker, Breuer, Lamprecht, & Fischer, 2014). Human resource engagement regarding volunteers has been studied in for-profit and non-profit management fields for quite some time, with sport management researchers working on volunteer-related research over the past two decades (Wicker, 2017). Scholars pointed to the fundamental role volunteers play within the sport context, making them a necessity not only in

regards to staging sporting events, but also in providing a helping hand for sport clubs and organizations (Adams & Deane, 2009; Cnaan & Godberg-Glen, 1991; Fairley, Kellett, & Green, 2007; Getz, 1997; Kodama, Doherty, & Popovic, 2013; Lasby & Sperling, 2007; Schlesinger, Klenk, & Nagel, 2015).

As an example, previous literature specifically examined volunteers' motivation (Bang & Ross, 2009; Clary et al., 1998; Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998; Johnston, Twynam, & Farrell, 2000; Wollebæk, Skirstad, & Hanstad, 2014), satisfaction (Costa, Chalip, Green, & Simes, 2006; Fairley et al., 2007; Reeser, Berg, Rhea, & Willick, 2005), and commitment (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Green & Chalip, 2004; Park & Kim, 2013). Simultaneously, experiences of volunteers (Rogalsky, Doherty, & Paradis, 2016; Sheptak & Menaker, 2016) along with perceptions to better understand how to recruit (Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Cuskelly, 2004) and retain volunteers (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2007; Hoye, Cuskelly, Taylor, & Darcy, 2008) have been explored. Few scholars also focused on providing organizational management with more insight to address recruitment and retention strategies (Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, & Darcy, 2006; Warner, Newland, & Green, 2011; Welty Peachey, Cohen, Borland, & Lyras, 2013).

However, one particularly underexplored aspect is the engagement levels of sport volunteers. Kahn (1990) defined human resource engagement "as a series of active and positive psychological states (cognitive, emotional, and behavioral)" (Shuck & Reio, 2014, p. 47), underlining one's motivation with the intent to act. In this sense, human resource engagement represents a unique construct that influences one's role performance in the work environment (Saks, 2006). Up until now, no prior studies in the sport volunteer context investigated human resource engagement levels with the initial engagement conceptualization stemming from Kahn

(1990). Examining the role of human resource engagement, operationalized as engagement in the present study, is vital for sport organizations and managers, offering new avenues to better understand, train, manage, recruit, and retain volunteers. Identifying how engagement influences a volunteer's behavior in their volunteer role could strengthen an organization's ability to meet their needs to ensure the successful staging of sporting events. Additionally, there are potential insights into the ongoing recruitment and retention issues of sport volunteers, therefore minimizing possible negative experiences leading up to and during the event.

Engagement

Over the past decade, engagement has risen to become one of the more popular concepts within the management field (Albrecht, 2010; Saks, 2006; Saks & Gruman, 2014). Scholars and practitioners from different areas developed an interest in this construct while predominantly pointing out the significance of studying engagement within the human resource development (HRD) setting. Prior studies acknowledged various claims outlining an organization's competitive advantage and success through engaged individuals (Macey, Schneider, Barbera, & Young, 2009; Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010), resulting in a heightened interest in this construct. Engagement, therefore, is defined as "the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's 'preferred self' in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence, and active full role performances" (Kahn, 1990, p. 700).

Kahn's (1990) framework is focused on identifying an individual's level of engagement, as are the majority of prior studies, while few have focused on organizational outcomes (Czarnowsky, 2008; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Since engagement is a personally driven concept, it appears studying individuals' choice/degree of engagement could be used to create improved organizational work climates related to attitude, intention, and behavior (Harter,

Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Kahn, 1990; Wagner & Harter, 2006). Organizations need to better understand an individual's reason to be engaged to foster advantages and strong work climates to provide the opportunity to be as successful as possible for both the individual and the organization.

Assessing engagement from an individual level is just as important as from the unit and whole team perspective (Harter et al., 2002; Shuck & Wollard, 2010). Addressing engagement at the individual level ultimately allows organizations to uncover new avenues to increase engagement and therefore create a more engaged workforce. As a result, exploring engagement further would allow combining individual and organizational needs to reach the best possible outcome. Shuck, Reio, and Rocco (2011) created a framework outlining three facets important for engagement which can be utilized to achieve this goal. Those facets include: (1) cognitive engagement, (2) emotional engagement, and (3) behavioral engagement. This conceptualization focuses on a full-spectrum experience of an individual rather than just one particular facet such as work, the organization, or one's job.

Summary

Overall, the aforementioned information suggests the concept of engagement can be described as a sequence of "active and positive psychological states (cognitive, emotional, and behavioral)" (Shuck & Reio, 2014, p. 47) that are separate and distinct from already existing organizational behavior and similar engagement-like constructs that influence one's role in a work environment (Saks, 2006). For example, similar constructs are found in the literature with respect to: work engagement, organizational engagement, job engagement, and social/intellectual engagement (Rich et al., 2010; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002a; Shuck, Osam, Zigarmi, & Nimon, 2017; Shuck, Twyford, Reio, & Shuck, 2014; Soanne et al., 2012).

However, scholars routinely position human resource engagement as a unique construct with its own framework because it underlines one's motivation with the intent act (Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006; Saks & Gruman, 2014; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006; Shuck, Ghosh, Zigarmi, & Nimon, 2012; Shuck et al., 2011; Shuck et al., 2014). Each construct does have a distinctive focal point and should therefore not be used interchangeably with, or as a substitute for, human resource engagement (Shuck, Adelson, & Reio, 2017). Engagement does not fit a previously established construct, therefore creating a case for its uniqueness, adding a new research avenue within the sport volunteer context, expanding scholarly literature, and enhancing practical applications for individuals and organizations.

Volunteers in the Sport Industry

Over the past two decades, there has been an increased interest in the literature on volunteerism within the sports industry (Wicker, 2017). Volunteers are fundamental for the staging and success of sporting events, while also aiding throughout various nonprofit sport clubs and organizations (Adams & Deane, 2009; Cnaan & Godberg-Glen, 1991; Fairley et al., 2007; Lasby & Sperling, 2007). Some organizations that have a membership association (e.g., community sport clubs) rely primarily on the work of volunteers (Cuskelly, 2004). Research on volunteerism in sport encompassed various areas, ranging from local sport clubs, to mega-events while always arriving at the same challenges: recruiting and retaining volunteers successfully.

The recruitment and retention of volunteers goes back to an organization's ability to match an individual's experiences and personal motives (Clary et al., 1998). Even though several volunteer roles exist, individuals have different motives as to why they participate in those roles (Wilson, 2012). Some may be motivated due to pure enjoyment and leisure (Stebbings & Graham, 2004), personal sport participation and love of the sport (Bang & Ross, 2009; Dawson

5

& Downward, 2013), personal growth, values, career enhancement, external influences, rewards, or community involvement (Bang & Ross, 2009; Gasser & Levinsen, 2004; Strigas & Jackson, 2003). However, Locke, Ellis, and Smith (2003) suggested poor management of volunteers is another factor for individuals to leave organizations in comparison to a supportive, appreciative, and developmental approach that has higher potential to retain them. The ability to manage volunteers successfully plays a crucial role in addressing the continuous challenges of recruitment and retention (Allen & Bartle, 2014). Creating improved volunteer training sessions and implementing support programs could increase the retention rate of volunteers (Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, & Darcey, 2006). Therefore, it is necessary for organizations and event managers to better understand the varying motivational aspects and deterrents within volunteers as it could be used towards their advantage to appeal and attract certain target groups.

Prior research investigated the recruitment and retention of volunteers through levels of commitment (Cuskelly, Harrington, & Stebbins, 2002; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Research has highlighted a significant relationship between commitment, retention, and performance, suggesting an increased level of commitment to the organization and volunteer roles demonstrates better performance and retention rates (Engelberg, Skinner, & Stakus, 2011; Hoye, 2007). Simultaneously, research suggested that a volunteer's motives affect their response to organizational problems (Garner & Garner, 2011). Thus, addressing one's motivation and meeting personal motives, along with individual experience, could increase levels of engagements. Further, exploring the understudied construct of engagement within the organizational behavior literature of sport volunteers could uncover an important avenue for organizations and management. Investigating, understanding, and addressing levels of

engagement among sport volunteers could aid with recruitment and retention of this valuable human resource.

Summary

A notable amount of research examined different types of motivational aspects of volunteers across sporting events and their influence on satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to continue volunteering. This focus continues to address the major concern within the sport volunteer literature of recruiting and retaining individuals (Burgham & Downward, 2005; Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Cuskelly, 2004; Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Fairley et al., 2007; Farrell et al., 1998; Green & Chalip, 1998; Lasby & Sperling, 2007; Park & Kim, 2013; Schlesinger, Egli, & Nagel, 2013; Schlesinger et al., 2015). Engagement levels could open another avenue to gain a deeper understanding of this matter to address current management, recruitment, training, and retention strategies aimed at strengthening the volunteer number.

<div align="center">

Bowl Game Context

</div>

College football is considered to be an important part of American culture and campus life, bringing students, alumni, and other supporters together (Popp, Jensen, & Jackson, 2017; Toma, 2003; Seifried, Soebbing, & Agyemang, 2018). As college football's popularity increased in past decades (Coakley, 2017; Eckard, 2013; Seifried & Smith, 2011), the fall semester is now considered the most important time of the year for universities, not only in terms of popularity among fans, but also due to the significant financial ramifications stemming from ticket revenues, alumni donations, and future student applications (Martinez, Stinson, Kang, & Jubenville, 2010; McEvoy, Morse, & Shapiro, 2013).

After the regular season ends, selected teams in the National Collegiate Athletic Association's (NCAA) Division I Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) face each other in

postseason contests called bowl games. Bowl games are played for about three weeks during the American holiday season from mid-December until early January. Teams competing in a postseason bowl game often split the prize money, with more prestigious bowls games having a greater payout (Seifried & King, 2012). As an example, the College Football Playoff semifinals and National Championship Game pay the most to participants (Seifried, Soebbing, & Agyemang, 2019).

Over the past few decades, postseason bowl games have become a multi-million-dollar industry, and bowl games are among the most anticipated sporting events hosted in the United States annually (Ours, 2004; Seifried et al., 2018, 2019). For example, during the 2018-2019 college football season, the six College Football Playoff games produced five of the six most-watched cable events of the year, all telecasted on ESPN (National Football Foundation, 2019). Initially, Thurow (as cited in McAllister, 1998) explained that many bowl games were utilized to promote the raising of money for charities. Additional scholarship suggests that as intercollegiate athletics grew into a business throughout the 20th century (Williams & Seifried, 2013), bowl games also helped generate additional business for the host city by increasing tourism from out-of-town visitors and contributing to the local economy through their tourism expenditures (Seifried & King, 2012; Zimbalist, 2009).

This rings especially true for the host communities that partner with tourism bureaus, chambers of commerce, and sports commissions to organize postseason events to increase the city's attractiveness (Griffith, 2010). With the number of bowl games increasing and host cities witnessing an increase in visitors, the focus shifted towards the development of additional events to ensure that spectators would prolong their stay and be part of the other festivities. Therefore,

the idea to "augment" (Green, 2001, p. 2) an event included the incorporation of additional activities and other services that may require the need for volunteers.

Focusing specifically on the Allstate Sugar Bowl, the host city is reporting increasingly growing economic impacts figures from hosting this bowl game as this event added more than $2.5 billion to the city's economy in the past decade (Allstate Sugar Bowl, 2019). Historically the game attracted more than six million fans to the area while also staging week-long activities. For example, the day before the game, fans are able to attend the New Year's Eve Parade. On the day of the game, three hours before kickoff, the Sugar Bowl hosts a Fan Jam, which includes interactive games, food, and entertainment. These ancillary events help organizers stay true to the original mission from 1943, which was to "bolster the region's economy" (Allstate Sugar Bowl, 2019). In 2015, more than 28 million people watched the Allstate Sugar Bowl as it hosted one of the first College Football Playoff Semifinals, which was the largest cable television broadcast in history at that time (Allstate Sugar Bowl, 2019). Part of this success must be attributed to the volunteers who put forth tremendous amounts of effort to stage an event with this type of magnitude (Allstate Sugar Bowl, 2019).

With the introduction of postseason bowl games, cities try to host those ancillary events in order to attract tourists and fans who are willing to travel and watch their respective teams compete. Thus, postseason bowl games are classified as a large-scale or mega-event sport tourism event that attracts numerous fans not only from the host city, but also from outside (Williams & Seifried, 2013). While numerous scholars discussed the economic impact of major college football games, there continues to be ongoing debate regarding the actual economic impact (Baade, Baumann, & Matheson, 2008; Beyer, 2016; Brown, Rascher, Nagel, & McEvoy, 2010; Coates & Depken, 2011). Postseason bowl games could indeed be an economic boost for

the host cities as out-of-town visitors not only stay for the bowl game as the major event, but also attend ancillary events (Musibay, 2013; Winston, Testa, & Delpy Neirotti, 2016). For example, in the previous bowl season, $559.1 million was paid out to the participating ten FBS conferences while it is anticipated that last year's and this year's payout will combine for more than $1 billion (FBA, 2019). Additionally, postseason bowl games report higher numbers of out-of-town visitors compared to the regular football season. For example, the 2016 College Football Playoff National Championship Game had more than 65,000 individuals travel from out-of-town to the Phoenix area (Mokwa, McIntosh, Eaton, Evans, & Hill, 2016).

As more activities have been added to expand the overall bowl game phenomenon, event managers have begun to rely more on human resources (Williams & Seifried, 2013). Previous research sheds light on volunteers as a whole, specifically exploring their motives to get involved in events and the creation of measurement scales to assess those reasons (see Bang & Chelladurai, 2003; Clary et al., 1998; Farrell et al., 1998; Green & Chalip, 2004). Utilizing information pulled from the IRS Tax Return form 990 documents, the number of volunteers has outgrown the number of actual paid staff over the years. This phenomenon is consistent with both larger, more prominent bowls such as the Sugar Bowl and Peach Bowl. In the case of the former, the Sugar Bowl documented 16 paid staff versus 131 volunteers in 2017 while the Peach Bowl reported that they relied on 475 volunteers and 28 paid staff members. It is also no surprise that the Rose Bowl, the oldest and most prestigious of the bowl games, and its Tournament of Roses Parade has the highest number of volunteers with 935, while paying 39 individuals. In contrast, smaller bowls such as the Independence Bowl had six paid staff members and utilized 200 volunteers in 2017. These totals suggest that the bowl games themselves have considered volunteers as one of the most valuable of human resources. However, no prior studies have

explored engagement levels of human resources within this specific context. Therefore, as the number of bowl games and ancillary events increases, there is a need to do more study.

Event Leverage

The practice of hosting additional activities to encourage visitors to spend more money is what scholars refer to as event leverage (Chalip, 2004). In order to achieve this, the host city not only needs to promote a visitor's spending, but simultaneously foster one's willingness to extend one's stay. Thus, as pointed out by Frechtling (1987), if the host destination can attract visitors to stay longer, their spending on local accommodation and other areas will help the local economy. Previous research suggested that individuals who are traveling to attend a certain event mainly focus on that specific event (Chalip, Green, & Vander Velden, 1998), while being less interested to engage in other activities offered from the host city (Pennington-Gray & Holdnak, 2002). However, the inclusion of pre- and post-event activities could accumulate in potential advertisement to serve as an opportunity to increase attendance and prolong one's intention to stay (Ritchie & Adair, 2004). For example, Baltimore hosts the Preakness, a horse race during the month of May. Even though this is a one-day event the organizers created "The Preakness Celebration" in 2002. Activities such as a balloon festival, a parade, live music, and others were added to address social activities and increase the ability to form connections with others. Due to the ability to package these activities with the main event attendance spiked, leading to most spectators spending almost an entire week in the city (Green, 2001).

Summary

As college football rose to be one of the most anticipated sports in American culture, post-season bowl games experienced an exponential growth. Eventually, these bowl games leveraged the experience with the addition of ancillary events. There are various stakeholders

who can benefit from higher numbers of visitors who are exploring the host city during that specific time. At the same time, with the increase of post-season bowl games and events to augment the fan experience, the reliance on volunteers became more important.

Significance of the Study

Organizations welcome the idea of using volunteers to provide services. This includes organizations within the public, profit, and nonprofit sector, as they have the ability to benefit from individuals who are willing to work for free and may possess special expertise. Within the sports industry, numerous organizations function due to the involvement of volunteers, allowing some to solely exist because of their efforts (Cuskelly, 2004). However, scholars found even though an increased reliance on volunteers has emerged, the number of individuals willing to offer their time has decreased (Bussell & Forbes, 2002; Cuskelly, 2004; Locke et al., 2003).

Though scholars examined the engagement levels of volunteers in various ways (McMorrow, 2014; Tuckey, Bakker, & Dollard, 2012; Vecina, Chacon, Sueiro, & Barron, 2012), the current study will explore the role of engagement among sport volunteers. For example, in the broader literature on engagement and volunteers, Tuckey et al. (2012) researched volunteer firefighters and the relationship between motivation and work engagement, hinting at the importance to analyze work engagement from various perspectives to add to overall well-being and individual empowerment. Additionally, Vecina et al. (2012) pointed out the importance engagement played regarding satisfaction, while satisfaction then positively influenced one's intention to continue volunteering. At the same time, engagement increased levels of commitment, therefore also increasing one's willingness to stay. While both of these studies were conducted in the general management field, McMorrow (2014) bridged the gap and utilized

the Job-Demands Resource model to explain work engagement of volunteers within the sports industry.

However, the significance and value of this present study addresses engagement based on it being a unique construct. Findings from this study underline the importance of focusing on an individual's engagement levels and emphasize the need for sport leaders and organizations to take this into consideration, beyond the scope of adding training and feedback skills. Furthermore, findings from this study contribute to the emerging body of literature regarding engagement approaches from different perspectives. Previous sports industry research analyzed certain portions of antecedents and outcomes regarding volunteers, yet, no study to date actually applied an engagement framework to examine the role engagement plays among sport volunteers.

Thus, this study creates knowledge in the sport volunteer context by applying and testing an engagement model. These new insights may serve as an approach to develop a better understanding for the creation and implementation of focused and effective engagement strategies within organizations and events. Further, findings may provide support for utilizing this framework to develop specific task-oriented interventions. For example, sport leaders and organizations could emphasize developmental interventions and training sessions that encourage certain characteristics to impact heightened levels of engagement. Therefore, these types of interventions may be useful when addressing the volunteer's expectations as those strategies may be a tool to better recruit and pair a potential volunteer's skill with essential tasks (Clary et al., 1998). It is important for organizations to better understand their volunteers as prior studies detected significant relationships between commitment, a volunteer's intention to stay, and levels of performance (Engelberg et al., 2011; Hoye, 2007).

Findings from this study will underline the importance of human resource engagement on sport volunteers, emphasizing its relevance in the sport management literature. Simultaneously, investigating engagement levels among paid staff within the sports industry through the application of an engagement model could expand the sport management literature, as sport organizations face challenges at numerous levels.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the role of engagement among volunteers at college football bowl games and ancillary events based in the United States. This specific setting was chosen due to the popularity of bowl games, the establishment of ancillary events surrounding those bowl games, and their high level of volunteer participation. More specifically, the study sought to understand if engagement levels vary based on the individual's involvement with the specific bowl game or other events around the game.

Research Questions

Two overarching research question guiding this study are:

RQ1. What role does engagement play in bowl game volunteers' affective outcomes?

RQ2. Will engagement predict a more significant variance in outcomes of satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain when controlling for gender, race, age, education, and volunteer experience?

Limitations and Delimitations

The findings are limited to Shuck, Adelson, et al.'s (2017) engagement model. Specifically, the findings are limited to the researcher's interpretation of data within human resources engagement and conceptualization of engagement applicable within the context of sport volunteers. This also sheds light on the limitations of the researcher and the quantitative

design guiding this inquiry. As a result of the chosen methodology, findings from this study may be generalized to other sporting events or sport organizations. Although findings might shed light on what might have been found or might be found in previous and future studies on other sporting events, the behavior and characteristics of college football bowl games and participants in the current sample may not necessarily reflect the realities of other organizations and events of the same type of magnitude. Despite using a convenience sampling technique, the chosen organizations may only have provided access to a limited number of individuals within their organization or not forwarded the questionnaire at all. Out of the 41 bowls game, initially 10 showed an interest to forward the researcher's survey to their volunteers. An individual link was created for each bowl game, yet the researcher had no access to the number of volunteers who received the invitation. After speaking face-to-face with the National Championship Game volunteer organizer and participating in the fan fest activities as a volunteer, the researcher received strong support and interest to analyze data for the participating bowl games. However, the researcher was unable to report an accurate number of potential participants for each bowl game.

There are also several delimitations associated with the current study. The purpose of the study was to use an engagement framework to examine the role human resource engagement among sport volunteers, analyzing individuals participating at college football bowl games. Thus, one of the boundaries for this study is the definition of human resource engagement used within this context. Additionally, this population was chosen due to the lack of attention given to not only the actual bowl game, but also the surrounding ancillary events as the number of those events increased exponentially. Although various sporting events set up ancillary events, the researcher chose to focus only on football bowl games in the United States in the current study as

it is a highly publicized and anticipated holiday season within American culture. This decision was made given the lack of studies focusing on this specific volunteer population, whereas a large body of literature researched administrative, commercialism, historical, and economic-related issues of bowl games (see Baade et al., 2008; Rishe, Reese, & Boyle, 2015; Seifried, 2012; Seifried & King, 2012; Seifried & Smith, 2011; Tobolowsky & Lowery, 2006). It is crucial to define specific terms related to this study before exploring theoretical constructs. Specifically, the human resource engagement concept and the differences between each subdimension is addressed.

Operational Definitions

Engagement- "The simultaneous employment and expression of a person's 'preferred self' in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence, and active full role performances" (Kahn, 1990, p. 700).

Disengagement- Withdrawal behavior from employees to employ physical, cognitive, or emotional energy toward their personal performance in current jobs.

Psychological Meaningfulness- "Sense of return on investments of self in role performance" (Kahn, 1990, p. 705).

Psychological Safety- "Being able to show and employ self without fear or negative consequences to self image, status, or career" (Kahn, 1990, p. 705).

Psychological Availability- "Sense of possessing the physical, emotional, and psychological resources necessary for investing in role performance" (Kahn, 1990, p. 705).

Cognitive Engagement- An individual's thoughts about the organization along with one's understanding of task, the culture, and level of intellectual commitment to the company.

Emotional Engagement- Feelings and beliefs influencing one's engagement.

Behavioral Engagement- "Psychological state of intention to behave in a manner that positively affects performance and/or positive organizational outcome" (Shuck, Adelson, et al., 2017, p. 955).

Antecedent- A certain condition or element that induced or projected a specific emerging behavior (Saks, 2006).

Job fit- The degree to which an individual perceives one's personality and values match with one's current job (Resick, Baltes, & Shantz, 2007).

Affective Commitment- Individuals "with a strong affective commitment remain because they want to" (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993, p. 539).

Organizational Climate- Shared perceptions of employees regarding various formal and informal aspects within their organization, policies, practices, rewards, support, events, and expected work behavior (Reichers & Schneider, 1990).

Outcome- The resulting consequence of certain actions or circumstances (Saks, 2006).

Job Satisfaction- "A pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300).

Organizational Commitment- An individual's positive attitude and attachment towards an organization.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior- One's initiatives to be involved within the work context by doing more than what is expected.

Intention to Stay- An individual's intention to stay and not leave.

Volunteerism- "An activity that is intended to benefit another person, group, or cause, is not done for monetary compensation or material gain and goes beyond one's normal responsibilities" (Callow, 2004, p. 262).

Postseason Bowls- "Bowls are an extra contest beyond the limits established in NCAA Bylaw 17.9, and are played after the end of the regular season as defined by the policies and procedures contained in the NCAA Postseason Bowl Handbook" (2019-20 NCAA Postseason Bowl Handbook, 2019, p. 1).

Football Bowl Association (FBA)- "The non-profit organization- as many of the bowls themselves are- was established to help build upon the traditions of the bowl games, and bring to light the many benefits of the games beyond the playing field and parades and other activities" (FBA, 2019, p. 6).

College Football Playoffs- "The College Football Playoff (CFP) determines the national champion of the top division of college football. The format fits within the academic calendar and preserves the sport's unique and compelling regular season" (College Football Playoff, 2019).

Championship Monday- "The two winning teams from the Playoff Semifinals compete for the College Football Playoff National Championship. The national championship game is in a different city each year, always on a Monday night" (College Football Playoff, 2019).

Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation follows a traditional format. Chapter two will offer the literature review on related research of the topic of this project. Further, chapter three explores the design of the study and methods employed. Chapter four presents the findings along with data analysis of the study. Lastly, chapter five focuses on discussing the results and concludes with a section on the implications for theory, practitioners, and future research.

CHAPTER II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter begins by defining engagement and positioning the concept as an emerging and distinct, yet different construct from previously established ones. Next, a chronological overview of the academic literature presents the development of human resource engagement, along with examining the antecedent and outcome variables explored in this study. Aforementioned studies on volunteers in the sport context are also reviewed, specifically related to the variables used in this research project. The chapter concludes with an overview of football bowl games and brief summary of the literature review, furthering establishing the context within which the study was conducted.

Human Resource Engagement

Scholars routinely position engagement as a unique construct with its own framework (Saks, 2006; Saks & Gruman, 2014; Shuck et al., 2014). Specifically, human resource engagement can be defined as a series of active and positive psychological states (cognitive, emotional, and behavioral) that are separate from already existing engagement-like constructs such as work engagement, organizational engagement, and job engagement. The intent to act prominently underlines one's motivation for engagement, which distinguishes human resource engagement from other constructs (Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2006; Shuck et al., 2012; Shuck et al., 2011) as "engagement describes an active motivational state encapsulating the full working experience" (Shuck, Adelson, et al., 2017, p. 958). Overall, engagement is a personally driven concept, meaning individuals choose the degree of their engagement (Harter et al., 2002; Wagner & Harter, 2006).

Based on previous literature, Saks (2006) reasoned that engagement stemmed from cognitive (Kahn, 1990; Maslach et al., 2001), emotional (Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990), and

behavioral aspects (Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990; Maslach et al., 2001), which Shuck and Reio (2014) proposed to all work together. Each subdomain of engagement will be discussed in the following section, based on Kahn's (1990) original conceptualization of personal engagement, which has been supported from various scholars (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011; Rich et al., 2010; Shuck, 2011) throughout the literature, especially from Shuck, Osam, et al. (2017) as they view the three dimensions as interdimensional, unique, and symbiotic.

Cognitive Engagement

Kahn (1990) suggested that cognitive engagement means to invest mental energy into one's work role, or to be mentally immersed into work, allowing employees to be vigilant, focused, and attentive. As a result, cognitively engaged individuals are more attentive toward work-related activities and positive organizational outcomes, especially when individuals perceive their assigned or chosen tasks to be meaningful and safe along with being presented appropriate resources to get the work done (Rich et al., 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2002a; Shuck et al., 2014). This includes any work-related experiences with one's job, the actual work, or the active role one holds while working (Shuck, Adelson, et al., 2017). As previous literature made a case for having different types of engagement (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Saks 2006), which do not emerge simultaneously but rather are built upon each other, it would be important for organizations to understand what type of antecedents influence each engagement type. This subdomain encompasses an individual's entire experience related to their work. As such, what organizations and its leadership need to understand is what directly influences their employees to engage in their work. Cognitive engagement precedes an individual's decision-making that would result in his/her behavior to be engaged. It is necessary to concentrate on this area first rather than an individual's behavioral engagement when implementing development activities

(i.e., training sessions) (Shuck & Wollard, 2010). For example, cognitively engaged individuals are mentally absorbed in their work because they see themselves contributing something of value and find meaning in their assignment (Shuck, Adelson, et al., 2017).

Emotional Engagement

Emotional engagement is described as an individual's willingness to invest themselves emotionally into their work, and as such, toward positive organizational outcomes (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Shuck et al., 2014; Shuck, Osam et al., 2017). A deepened level of emotional engagement allows employees to invest personal resources into affective appraisal and experiences, such as value, feeling a sense of personal meaning, believing, or connectedness to one's work role and overall work experience (Shuck, Adelson, et al., 2017). At the same time, individuals with higher levels of emotional engagement are more attached and feel connected to the organization (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Other examples of affective experiences that are driven by emotions can be joy, care, and love. Those experiences are in constant motion and are dependent on cognitive cues that influence one's intensity and direction based on the context and appraisal, of the situations. For example, individuals are emotionally engaged when the current task they are working on is personally meaningful to them. Another example of emotional engagement is the positive emotion that develops from engaging in a career-related conversation with one's manager as it can have a significant and meaningful impact (Shuck et al., 2014). Also, emotionally engaged individuals would say that they are believing in the purpose of an organization. Here, it is important to point out that engagement starts with an emotional manifestation even though it was first developed cognitively. At the same time, through behavioral engagement, affective perception influences one's physical manifestation of intention (Shuck et al., 2014; Zigarmi, Nimon, Houson, Witt, & Diehl, 2009).

Behavioral Engagement

Lastly, behavioral engagement is known as an individual's psychological state which positively affects performance (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Rich et al., 2010; Shuck, Adelson, et al., 2017). This type of engagement describes employees as more willing to invest extra effort into their work roles for the good of the team and organization, therefore portraying a "proactive behavior" (Macey & Schneider, 2008, p. 19). This engagement type does not actually address action-related behavior, but rather an employee's psychological willingness to invest effort into his/her work role and active working context, therefore connecting it to observable behavior. Behavior is generally observable, yet, behavioral engagement begins before one notices another individual acting based on their personal intention (Shuck et al., 2014). This psychological state of engagement is inherently different compared to actual behavior, which falls outside of the engagement construct. For example, when an individual decides to leave the organization, he/she already underwent cognitive and emotional processes because the individual might have not felt valued anymore. The visible behavior is ultimately cutting ties with the organization and leaving as one's psychological state negatively affected performance. Therefore, behavioral engagement is connected to one's psychological intention which in turn aligns with observable behavior. Ultimately, working harder does not result in higher levels of behaviorally engaged individuals. Rather, behaviorally engaged individuals direct their energy and intensity towards their psychological willingness to give more. Their perception of being willing to invest more will manifest into behavior but cannot be observed at that moment in time.

Engagement "is not only identity focused, but also a present-focused state looking toward the future encompassing cognitive, emotional, and behavioral aspects" (Shuck, Adelson, et al., 2017, p. 958). It is a dynamic process in which the cycles of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral

engagement are continuously being monitored, evaluated, and adjusted. Based on one's ability to evaluate situations that inform engagement to assign meaning and value, new appraisals can be identified. Shuck, Osam et al., (2017) highlighted that "this process continues through a cumulative building and a reciprocal affect which guide the experience of an employee being engaged" (p. 268).

From a practitioner's standpoint, the meaning and definition of engagement emphasizes the importance for organizations to better understand the reasons as to why individuals choose to be engaged (Saks, 2006). Therefore, in academic literature, engagement has been clearly and routinely identified as a distinct concept (Shuck, Adelson et al., 2017). Even though it has been conceptualized differently from other organizational behavior concepts, scholars tend to use the term 'engagement' interchangeably as discussed further below (Akingbola, 2013). The researcher will distinguish engagement from similar constructs before reviewing relevant literature.

Similar Constructs

Since the literature highlighted various other engagement-like constructs, it has to be acknowledged that scholars usually use those terms interchangeably (Akingbola & van den Berg, 2017; Park, Kim, Park, & Lim, 2018). Additionally, former concepts such as commitment, motivation, as well as job involvement are the first indicators for engagement (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Wefald & Downey, 2009). Moreover, commonly used definitions and measurements applied to engagement are mostly known as already established constructs such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job involvement (Robinson, Perryman, & Hayday, 2004; Shuck et al., 2012). Hence, Shuck (2011) proposed that engagement needs to be differentiated from "other well-researched job attitude and organizational constructs such as job

satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement, and job affect, as well as uncovering statistical evidence regarding the concepts demonstrated usability and validity" (p. 317).

Work Engagement. Schaufeli and colleagues (2002a) described work engagement as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (p. 74). The main aspect of work engagement is the relationship with work activity and work itself. Shuck (2011) explained work engagement is based on burnout literature and described it be the opposite of burnout, which Maslach et al. (2001) acknowledged the same idea as job engagement. Maslach and colleagues (2001) defined job engagement as "persistent, positive, affective-motivational state of fulfillment" (p. 417). As investigated by scholars, work engagement was distinguished among job involvement and organizational commitment, as each represented an empirically different construct (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006). However, Hallberg and Schaufeli (2006) suggested work engagement and organizational commitment were more closely related to each other, compared to the relationship with work involvement. Shuck et al. (2014) also indicated the active psychological state is in the forefront, taking the immediate work experience into consideration, while Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found work engagement to mediate the relationship between motivational job resources and work commitment. Furthermore, the scholars also established that engagement mediated the relationship between job resources and turnover intention.

Organizational Engagement. Saks (2006) described organizational engagement as "the extent to which an individual is psychologically present in a particular organizational role" (p. 604), thus guiding the focal point towards organizational identification and being present. While relying on social exchange theory when identifying antecedents and consequences, findings showed there was a meaningful difference between the constructs of job and organization

engagement. Here, the attachment to the organization is more important than identification whereas "engagement is inclusive of an attachment-like state to the organization, but is not specifically defined by it" (Shuck, Adelson et al., 2017, p. 956). Put another way, Akingbola and van den Berg (2017) established organizational engagement in comparison to job engagement offered a better mediating role arguing "while the work roles of the employees are important, it appears the mission and values of the organization affect behavior more than job engagement" (2017, p. 20). The focus of this type of engagement is on performing the role as being part of the organization while job engagement is related, yet "performing the work role" (Schaufeli, 2013, p. 7). Barrick and colleagues (2015) proposed a theory of collective organizational engagement, taking into consideration that engagement could be facilitated by the organization itself through specific practices and resources. The scholars argue that using organizational resources will allow individuals to be fully engaged.

Job Engagement. Rich et al. (2010) also identified job engagement as a relatable construct, outlining it as "a multi-dimensional motivational concept reflecting the simultaneous investment of an individual's physical, cognitive, and emotional energy in active, full work performance" (p. 619). The main focus of job engagement is job activity, allowing individuals to identify the degree to which they engage with their jobs. Engagement differs from this construct as it draws attention more towards an individual's active role based on their experience of their work, while also looking at the job, team, organization, and work.

Organizational Commitment. Organizational commitment is described as an individual's "affective attachment to the organization, perceived costs associated with leaving the organization and obligation to remain with the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 63-64). The affective attachment towards the organization is demonstrated through one's

willingness to invest energy into one's organization to be successful, being a proud member of,

and to identify oneself with the organization (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Neither can be used to

substitute human resource engagement though (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Robinson et al.,

2004). Engagement, on the other hand, is the extent to which an individual is immersed in their

role performance, rather than being an attitude.

Job Satisfaction. Locke (1976) identified job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive

emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience," (p. 1300). It can be

influenced through multiple factors such as the makeup of the job, job characteristics,

supervisors, and co-workers, (Russel et al., 2004) as well as personality differences (Judge,

Heller, & Mount, 2002). Experiencing higher levels of job satisfaction are related to higher

organizational effectiveness as individuals are more willing to engage in those behaviors due to

psychological needs or values being met (Judge, Bono, Thoresen, & Patton, 2001; Rich et al,

2010).

Job Involvement. Job involvement is also different from human resource engagement.

This concept is explained as the degree to which an individual relates to their job. More

specifically, individuals who strongly identify with their jobs will think about their jobs outside

of work (Kanungo, 1982). As such, job involvement can also be used as a predictor for job

performance because the higher the degree of job involvement, the higher the focus of

individuals is geared towards their work roles (Hillman, Nicholson, & Shropshire, 2008; Kreiner,

Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2006). May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) proposed, "engagement may be

thought of as an antecedent to job involvement in that individuals who experience deep

engagement in their roles should come to identify with their jobs," (p. 12). Previous research

underlined that job involvement and engagement differ based on their conceptualization (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006; Scrima, Lorito, Parry, & Falgares, 2014).

Other Forms of Engagement. Soane et al. (2012) underlined the importance for the inclusion of intellectual, affective, and social engagement in which case intellectual engagement was described as "the extent to which one is intellectually absorbed in work and thinks about ways to improve work" (p. 532). Additionally, an individual will experience a state of positive affect relating to one's work role" (p. 532), which is described as affective engagement. Lastly, research addressed the importance for individuals to work collectively (Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, & Zapata-Phelan, 2006), thus creating social engagement in which individuals feel socially connected to co-workers by sharing common values within the work setting. Those three facets are again relatable to the overall construct of human resource engagement.

Thus, prior research has situated human resource engagement as a unique construct among other organizational behavior literature. This created some confusion as scholars tended to use the term interchangeably. However, human resource engagement does not fit a previously established construct, therefore creating a case for its uniqueness, adding a new research avenue expanding scholarly literature, and enhancing practical applications for individuals and organizations (Byrne, 2015). A central discourse in this line of scholarship is that it is imperative to expand our collective understanding of how engagement can be applied to examine and understand the sport volunteer experience and performance (Allen & Bartle, 2014). In the following section, the researcher introduces the theoretical model which serves as the foundation of this research along with relevant literature and additional hypothesis regarding the antecedents and outcomes of engagement in sport volunteers.

Theoretical Framework for Engagement

Due to other concepts being closely related to researchers' different definition of engagement, scholars have adopted several models and theories to highlight its difference. There are a number of different scholarly models of engagement, two of which stem from Kahn's (1990) ethnographic study that highlights both personal engagement and disengagement. The other one, introduced by Maslach et al. (2001), argued that there is value in examining engagement and its relationship with burnout.

Kahn (1990) addressed the first theory of employee engagement through his ethnographic study. His work is based on Goffman (1961a), who proposed people experience different levels of attachment to, as well as detachment from, their roles. Kahn (1990) conducted two qualitative studies by interviewing summer camp counselors and employees from an architecture firm about their experiences with engagement and disengagement at work. This research featured an exploration of the individual's experience of themselves, their job responsibilities, and its respective context. Findings revealed individuals use varying degrees of engagement, based on three psychological conditions: meaningfulness, safety, and availability.

Kahn's Theory of Engagement: Need-Satisfying Approach

Kahn (1990) outlined studies to draw one's attention towards the experiences of individuals within their work context and how those experiences are indicators for engaged or disengaged behavior. The influences on engagement for individuals regarding their role performance can be complex. Factors such as emotional reactions/responses, personal experiences within the work context, and personal performance are indicators that shape the understanding as to why individuals are more or less psychologically present at work and how it affects engagement. From Kahn's point of view, individuals "defend their preferred selves on the

basis of their psychological experiences of self-in-role" (p. 702). Moreover, Kahn defined personal engagement at work as "the harnessing of organizational members' selves to their work role; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances," (p. 694). People have their own ideas and dimensions about themselves, using their preferred version in the work setting for role performance. In order to employ those dimensions, Kahn (1990) highlighted the importance for individuals to focus their energy into physical, cognitive, and emotional labor.

Further, the concept of disengagement demonstrates a withdrawal behavior from employees to apply physical, cognitive, or emotional energy toward their job performance. Thus, when feelings of disconnect surface between the personal self from their respective roles at work, employees can become disengaged. To assess if one is engaged or disengaged at work, an individual will subconsciously ask the following three questions, appealing to three psychological conditions: "(1) How meaningful is it for me to bring myself into this performance?; (2) How safe is it to do so?; and (3) How available am I to do so?" (Kahn, 1990, p. 703).

Based on these questions, Kahn (1990) reasoned each psychological condition is important for an actual contract. For starters, individuals are interested in contracts that include wanted benefits and security for their job performance with resources at hand to fulfill expectations. As a result, individuals willingly immerse themselves more into their work roles. One's personal engagement could therefore be dependent on various parts. For example, the perceived benefits one receives or how one values the meaningfulness of the work that should be completed can shift one's engagement. Additionally, personal engagement, and in turn performance, is influenced based on one's perception of obtaining positive outcomes. Kahn's

(1990) conceptualization of these conditions within a contract offered a more thorough linkage of psychological conditions with engagement.

As a result, exploring different situations with varying characteristics influences an individual's work experience about themselves, their role within that context, as well as how those two relate, offering a better insight into the psychological conditions. First, psychological meaningfulness is linked to work elements that encourages or hinders engagement. Psychological safety aligns more with social systems to become engaged. Psychological availability is described as possessing resources to engage in role performance, which some individuals experience more or less.

Psychological Meaningfulness. Psychological meaningfulness can be described as deriving meaning from one's work while also receiving a return on investment based on their role performance (Kahn, 1990). People experience meaningfulness when they perceive to be valued and feel useful while also not taken for granted. Additionally, when individuals perceive their input could make a difference, they will associate more meaningfulness with their job. However, as soon as employees feel their performance did not matter, little was asked of them, or expectations were lowered, a lack of meaningfulness can emerge. From a general understanding, one can link those perceptions back to another concept as to how individuals invest themselves not only into their tasks at work (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), but and their roles (Maehr & Braskamp, 1986) that positively affect others and satisfy one's personal needs (Maslow, 1954). Therefore, the first hypothesis stated:

H1: Psychological meaningfulness will be positively associated with increased levels of
engagement.

30

Psychological Safety. Psychological safety can be described as being "able to show and employ one's self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career" (Kahn, 1990, p. 708). Situations, which are predictable, clear, and consistent allow people to feel safe, which in turn positively affects their trust development. Additionally, employees perceive that their personal engagement will not negatively affect them. Based on Kahn (1990), psychological safety is directly influenced by "interpersonal relationships, group and intergroup dynamics, management style and process, and organizational norms" (Sung, 2017, p. 78). As a result, the second hypothesis stated:

> *H2: Psychological safety will be positively associated with increased levels of*
>
> *engagement.*

Psychological Availability. Lastly, psychological availability is described as having physical, emotional, or psychological resources available that are vital for the individual to engage at a certain point in time regarding their role performance (Kahn, 1990). Individuals can be exposed to various distractions that have a direct influence on their level of engagement. One can express heightened or lower levels of engagement depending on how one deals with work and outside of work-related aspects. The four types of distractions that are negatively related to psychological availability are "depletion of physical energy, depletion of emotional energy, individual insecurity, and outside lives" (Jacobs, 2013, p. 15). As a result, organizations that have those resources available will experience more engaged employees within their setting (Kahn, 1990). Thus, the third hypothesis stated:

> *H3: Psychological availability will be positively associated with increased levels of*
>
> *engagement.*

Maslach et al.'s (2001) Burnout-Antithesis Approach

The second theory related to engagement stems from the literature on burnout. As

Maslach et al. (2001) proposed, job engagement is an expansion of burnout. It is also described

as "the positive antithesis of burnout" (Schaufeli, 2012, p. 4) and is characterized by these three

dimensions: exhaustion, cynicism, and ineffectiveness (Maslach et al., 2011). Engagement can

be evaluated based on the three Maslach-Burnout Inventory (MBI) dimensions (Maslach,

Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Moreover, Maslach et al. (2001) pointed towards the six areas of work-

life that lead to burnout and engagement: workload, control, rewards and recognition,

community and social support, perceived fairness, and values.

On the one hand, this theory explains the greater the mismatch between the individual

and any of those areas, the greater the chances of one experiencing burnout. On the other hand,

the greater the match between the individual and those organizational areas, the greater the

chances to demonstrate engagement. Accordingly, employee engagement depends on a

maintainable workload, feelings of control and choice, receiving rewards and appropriate

recognition, a supportive work community, justice and fairness, as well as valued and

meaningful work.

Harter et al.'s (2002) Satisfaction-Engagement Approach

Harter et al.'s (2002) approach utilized the positive psychology framework and has been

of the most cited studies within the employee engagement literature. Using data from the Gallup

Organization and conducting a meta-analytic procedure across various fields within the industry

resulted in a definition of engagement as an "individual's involvement and satisfaction with as

well as enthusiasm for work" (Harter et al., 2002, p. 417). The study shed light on the following

positive relationships between engagement and customer satisfaction, safety, productivity,

turnover, and profitability, as it looked at levels of employee-engagement satisfaction and profitable outcomes. Further extending Harter et al.'s (2002) model, Luthans and Peterson (2002) added to the current literature as they uncovered a connection between employee engagement and a manager's self-efficacy as "the most profitable work units of companies have people doing what they do best, with people they like, and with a strong sense of psychological ownership" (p. 376). Findings underline that managers play a crucial role in ensuring that individuals are exposed to supportive psychological climates (Brown & Leigh, 1996) and drew parallels to previous engagement theories (Kahn, 1990; Maslach et al., 2001).

Saks's (2006) Multidimensional Approach

Saks (2006) provided one of the first empirical studies that tested antecedents and consequences of employee engagement, hypothesizing that employee engagement evolved based on a social exchange model (Shuck, 2011). More importantly, this study offered an inclusive approach, bridging previous academic literature and theories of employee engagement with practitioners' approaches to arrive at the first empirical three-component model. Defining employee engagement as "a distinct and unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components… associated with individual role performance" (p. 602), allowed Saks (2006) to combine previous developments and understandings of employee engagement. As such, the author was able to introduce how cognitive (Kahn, 1990; Maslach et al., 2001), emotional (Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990), and behavioral components (Harter et al., 2002; Maslach et al., 2001) were part of the development of employee engagement.

Saks (2006) tested the model at a Canadian University by collecting data from 102 enrolled working students. Results from his study demonstrated a positive relationship between the following antecedents: job characteristics, perceived organizational support, and procedural

justice. Additionally, a relationship was also found between employee engagement outcomes of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit. Moreover, his findings added to the overall knowledge, for example, a meaningful difference exists between the constructs of job engagement and organization engagement. Also, perceived organizational support is a predictor for both, job and organization engagement, while job characteristics predict job engagement. Lastly, Saks (2006) study showed job and organization engagement functioned as a mediator for the relationships between antecedents and outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and intentions to leave. However, limitations to this study exist as cross-sectional and self-reported data were used. Though the findings are consisted with previous literature, one cannot be certain that the established relationships in this study truly are causing engagement or are a consequence of engagement.

Investigating the differences of each of these approaches results in different focus points of engagement. Kahn (1990) addressed personal engagement in regard to role performance while Maslach et al. (2001) argued burnout is the antithesis to engagement, highlighting its positive attributes. Harter et al. (2002) approached engagement from the perspective of linking it with customer satisfaction and other business outcomes, while Saks (2006) stressed antecedents and outcomes of engagement for the job and the organization.

Macey and Schneider's (2008) Employee Engagement Framework

Macey and Schneider (2008), who relied significantly on previous academic work, introduced the three facets of trait, psychological state, and behavioral engagement as separate, yet related constructs (Shuck, 2011). More specifically, as previously suggested by Saks (2006), there are three types of engagement that Macey and Schneider (2008) continued to develop.

Therefore, trait engagement (e.g., proactive personality, trait positive affect, and conscientiousness) is described as "the inclination or orientation to experience the world from a particular vantage point" (Macey & Schneider, p. 5). Psychological state engagement (e.g., involvement, satisfaction, empowerment) was identified as an antecedent to behavioral engagement, while the later was referred to as "discretionary effort" (Macey & Schneider, 2008, p. 6). Discretionary effort is often connected to extra-role behavior, role expansion, and proactivity. This conceptual model offers an insight into the idea of how each engagement type builds on the next, with the first two preceding behavioral engagement, and therefore contribute to the employee engagement construct as a whole.

Schaufeli et al., (2002a) Utrecht Work Engagement

Work engagement has also been assessed through the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). Within the work setting, vigor is described as high levels of energy, persistence, and mental resilience, while the individual is also willing to invest effort in one's work. Dedication refers to an individual as expressing strong involvement in their work and simultaneously feeling a sense of significance, inspiration, price, enthusiasm, and challenge. Lastly, one is absorbed in one's work when concentration levels are high, times passes by fast, and it is challenging for the individual to let go from work. Building on this research, the UWES was introduced to measure work engagement with 24 items (Schaufeli et al., 2002a). However, after psychometric evaluation, the item number was shortened to 17 (Schaufeli et al., 2002a). Schaufeli et al., (2006) later were able to narrow down the instruments to 9 items (UWES-9).

Even though this measure has been widely used and is the most used measurement within the engagement literature (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), concerns exist. As one example, it does not align with the antecedent conditions outlined by Kahn (1990), which are psychological

meaningfulness, safety, and availability. Scholars believe it creates confusion and call this measurement into question, based on the concept of redundancy (Cole, Walter, Bedeian, & O'Boyle, 2011, Saks & Gruman, 2014).

Antecedents and Outcomes of Engagement

Shuck and colleagues (2011) created a framework outlining three facets that are important for engagement. Thus, suggesting their influence on the overall human resource engagement experience, in accordance to how the term has been previous conceptualized (Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010; Shuck, 2011). The authors identified the following three facets: (1) cognitive engagement, (2) emotional engagement, and (3) behavioral engagement, which other scholars described in more depth (Rich et al., 2010; Shuck, 2011; Shuck & Wollard, 2010; Wollard & Shuck, 2011). Saks (2006) argued engagement does represent a "unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components" (p. 602) that influence one's role performance in the work environment.

Antecedents

Engagement could be experienced cognitively and emotionally, while it could be manifested behaviorally (Saks, 2006; Salanova et al., 2003; Schaufeli et al., 2002a). For an individual to be absorbed in one's work role, physical, emotional, and psychological resources must be accessible to develop levels of engagement (Kahn 1990; Harter et al., 2002; Saks, 2006; Salanova et al., 2003; Schaufeli et al., 2002a). Some antecedents of engagement include job characteristics, procedural justice, perceived organizational and supervisory support, and organizational climate. Researchers (e.g. Brown & Leigh, 1996; Maslach et al., 2001; May et al., 2004; Saks, 2006; Shuck et al., 2011; Wollard & Shuck, 2011) pointed towards antecedents of

engagement, indicating a better understanding in this area might aid in the overall development of an engaged work force, leading to more positive and desirable outcomes.

Currently, theories such as social exchange theory (Saks, 2006; Saks & Gruman, 2014) and self-determination theory (Meyer & Gagné, 2008) are used to conceptualize employee engagement (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Shuck, Adelson, et al., 2017). Kahn (1990) and Maslach et al. (2001) utilized models that identified the three previously outlined psychological conditions or that other antecedents are required for engagement. However, neither model explains why individuals have different responses to the previously outlined conditions. Social exchange theory (SET) and self-determination theory (SDT) offer a theoretical approach to further explain why individuals respond with varying degrees of engagement to those conditions (Saks, 2006).

Job Characteristics. Saks (2006) identified job characteristics as a significant predictor of human resource engagement. Relatedly, Kahn (1992) suggested that one's psychological meaningfulness, which can be influenced by job characteristics through the sense of return on investment based on one's own role performance, also was related to human resource engagement. Thus, in order to achieve psychological meaningfulness as an individual, employees need challenging work, variety, allowance to use various skills, have some personal discretion, and to have opportunities to make significant contributions. Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed a job characteristics model. This model contained five core job characteristics (i.e., task identity, skill variety, task significance, autonomy, and feedback). Relying on this model, Kahn (1990) recommended individuals will be more engaged when having a job with high levels of core job characteristics as it would result in allowing the individual to bring themselves more into their work role. May et al. (2004) supported this notion, discovering a positive relationship

between job enrichment and meaningfulness, while meaningfulness was simultaneously a mediator between job enrichment and engagement.

Maslach et al. (2001) suggested a number of job factors related to potential burnout. Within the context of social exchange theory, one would argue that an individual with an enriched job will feel obligated to respond with higher levels of engagement to give back to the organization.

Perceived Organizational and Supervisor Support. Perceived organizational and supervisor support was another antecedent for engagement (Saks, 2006). Kahn (1992) proposed that psychological safety is important for individuals because it allows them to show their true selves without fearing any negative consequence. One factor that plays an important role for safety is the perceived support individuals experience from their organization and supervisors. Kahn (1990) pointed out that psychological safety can be promoted through interpersonal relationships when they are trusting and supportive. He found that individuals felt safer at work when they experienced openness and feelings of support. Being part of a supportive environment allows members to be more open to trying new things, even if it means to fail because they do not have to fear consequences. Additionally, Maslach et al. (2001) included social support as a condition in their model. Later, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) indicated that support from colleagues can be used as a measure of job resources because social support enhanced engagement. On the other hand, Maslach et al. (2001) also found that a lacking presence of social support is related to burnout.

Saks (2006) discovered support for his hypothesis that perceived organizational support is positively related to job engagement. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) referred to perceived organizational support, which is grounded in SET, as the overall belief an organization is

38

interested in their staff's well-being and values an individual's contribution. As such, some feel compelled to care about their respective organization overall, but also to help in the process of their organization to reach its goals (Rhoades, Eisennberger, & Armeli, 2001). Previous literature discussed perceived organizational support within the context of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance which are all identified to be positive outcomes (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002); yet, no study focused on the human resource engagement context.

Perceived organizational support could potentially lead to other positive outcomes through engagement. Therefore, individuals who experience higher levels of perceived organizational support could be more engaged in their job role based on the reciprocity norm within the SET context, aiding organizations to reach its goals (Rhoades et al., 2001). When individuals perceive their organization values and cares for their well-being, they are more likely to become more engaged in order to fulfill their work obligations.

Organizational Climate. Studying organizational climate within an organization is important due to the influence on attitudinal, behavioral, and performance-related outcomes (Bakker & Albrecht, Leiter, 2011). Within academic literature, organizational climate is defined as the shared perceived understanding of individuals regarding numerous formal and informal aspects within their organization, policies, practices, rewards, support, events, and expected work behavior (Reichers & Schneider, 1990).

Since Kahn (1990) suggested engagement is a multidimensional framework, scholars advocated for more empirical research to focus on examining its relationship with dimensions of well-being (Cole et al., 2011; Rich et al., 2010; Shuck et al., 2011; Shuck & Reio, 2014). Previous research showed the influence of psychological workplace climate on the development of human resource engagement (Shuck et al., 2011). Additionally, scholars found well-being and

human resource engagement are also related (Schaufeli, Taris, & Van Rhenen, 2008). Psychological workplace climate encompasses an individual's perception of the organizational environment and impact on outcomes (Brown & Leigh, 1996). Based on the perception of one's work environment, this has a direct influence on their well-being and level of engagement, which was supported in previous research (Shuck & Reio, 2014; Shuck et al., 2011).

Person-Task Fit. Management scholars demonstrated a growing interested in understanding the concept of person-environment (P-E) fit as there are various positive benefits in regard to an individual's attitude and behavior (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). Overall, this theory examines the relationship between individual and organizational characteristics (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011; Ostroff & Zhan, 2012). For example, perceived benefits are that P-E fit positively influences not only job satisfaction, but also organizational commitment, while it is negatively related to intentions to stay. Part of the overall P-E fit are other types of fit, such as person-organization (P-O), person-group (P-G), person-vocation (P-V), and person-job (P-J) (Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Werbel & Gilliland, 1999). The most commonly studied types are P-O and P-J. For this research project, person-job fit (P-J), from here on out referred to as person-task (P-T) fit, is defined as the match between an individual's abilities with the demands of a job (Edwards, 1991). One of the most common suggestions for managers is to use a match strategy (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011; Farrell et al., 1998; Reeser et al., 2005). Matching the volunteer's motivation and satisfaction with tasks stems from traditional HRM approaches assuming a match will enhance performance and retention rates. Yet, in the context of sport volunteers, it may not always be feasible to apply the matching strategy as some volunteers are willing to take on roles to ensure a successful event (Allen & Shaw, 2009).

When assigning volunteers to their tasks and scheduling their work, one has to be mindful of the volunteer's capabilities (Barr, 2018). For example, assigning an individual to lift heavy objects even though he/she would not qualify for a task of this magnitude is something of which management staff needs to be aware. The recruitment of volunteers has to take place well in advance in order to also leave room for adequate training sessions. An orientation session to welcome everyone could lead to lower levels of stress, especially among new volunteers, and might negatively affect turnover intention (Cuskelly, 1995). During training sessions, the responsibilities, duties, and expectations need to be addressed, which might also require more specialized training depending on the task at hand. Basic training should incorporate how volunteers need to dress, communication strategies, risk management, and what procedures to follow in case of an accident, emergency, or injury (Barr, 2018). The majority of sport events rely on the recruitment of adequate volunteers who are motivated and skilled to stage a successful event (Cuskelly et al., 2006). Findings from Sheptak and Manker's (2016) study among long-term volunteers revealed that social and task frustration were due to unclear communication, insufficient training and preparation, lack of organizational support, and interest in the assigned task. Therefore, the research created the following hypothesis:

H4: Person-task fit will be positively associated with higher levels of engagement.

Outcomes

As outlined before, the reason for the increased interest in engagement is based on the perception of positive outcomes and results for organizations and individuals (Harter et al., 2002; Saks, 2006). Engagement is a construct that first has to be measured on the individual level and an individual's outcome levels need to be assessed before one can analyze how it relates to organizational outcomes. Due to reported organizational benefits, leaders within an organization

41

need to concentrate on the development of engaged individuals as one of their main concerns to understand how to arrive at positive outcomes (Ketter, 2008). Kahn (1992) hinted at engagement potentially leading to individual and organizational outcomes, which Saks (2006) explored in a later study. Regarding individual outcomes, Kahn (1992) referred to the quality of one's work and the overall experience of doing that work, whereas organizational outcomes more so concentrate on the growth and productivity of the organization, which other scholars later highlighted as well (see Bates, 2004; Ketter; 2008; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009).

Organizational Commitment. Within organizational commitment, researchers focused specifically on attitudinal and affective aspects (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Individuals develop an emotional attachment towards their organization based on shared values and interests, hence their commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday, 1998). Scholars investigated the relationship between organizational commitment and retention attitudes within individuals (Brown, 1996; Jaros, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1997), assuming that individuals who feel stronger ties to their organization experience higher motivational levels to remain there. Morrow (1983) suggested that instead of relying on personal factors to build and influence affective organizational commitment, job characteristics are important. Thus, proposing organizational commitment is affected more by extrinsic characteristics instead of intrinsic motivation.

Performance. Engagement has been found to be one of the key determinants when it comes to individual performance (Leiter & Bakker, 2010; Macey et al., 2009; Mone & London, 2010). As Kahn (1990) proposed, the more engaged an individual is, the better they will perform their jobs. Various scholars found empirical evidence for this (Baumruk, 2004; Demerouti &

Cropanzano, 2010; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Harter et al., 2002; Salanova et al., 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2002a; Schaufeli, Martinez, Marqués-Pinto, Salanova, & Bakker, 2002b; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Engaged personnel achieve higher customer satisfaction, which in turn increases an organizations' revenue (Coffman, 2000; Coffman & Gonzalez-Molina, 2002; Ellis & Sorensen, 2007; Heintzman & Marson, 2005; Vance, 2006; Wagner & Harter, 2006). Furthermore, with the concept of reciprocity in mind, Kahn (1990) proposed higher engaged individuals, with the perception of receiving valued rewards, will increase performance, motivation, and efforts. Moreover, engagement positively influences emotional and cognitive aspects that ultimately further performance (Halbesleben & Wheeler 2008). In addition, Halbesleben (2010) conducted a meta-analysis and found a significant relationship between engagement and performance, commitment, health, and turnover intentions. More recently scholars pointed towards a direct relationship between human resource engagement, profit, and overall growth (Bates, 2004; Czarnowsky, 2008; Ketter, 2008; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Literature indicated engagement and organizational performance outcomes are closely linked together (Markos & Sridevi, 2010). Rich et al., (2010) found engagement mediates the relationship between various variables such as value congruence, core self-evaluations, perceived organizational support, and performance-related outcomes. Examples of job performance-related outcomes could be organizational citizenship behavior and task performance.

Bakker and Bal (2010) conducted a study in the Netherlands which included 54 teachers to investigate the effect of engagement on performance. This study showed a positive relationship between work engagement and job performance. Additionally, engagement was also found to be a mediator between job resources and individual performance. Similarly, a study

conducted among firefighters, Rich et al. (2010) successfully link higher levels of engagement to other performance-related outcomes such as being more helpful, friendlier, and courteous toward colleagues. The results demonstrated that individuals with higher levels of engagement worked harder and had other factors influence their overall performance. For example, experiencing a positive and individual affective state allowed individuals to be more helpful towards others. Additionally, engagement has also been related to job performance as well as extra-role behavior (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003).

Gruman and Saks (2011) also examined how performance management and human resource engagement are related. More specifically, the authors suggested performance management could be improved by looking at human resource engagement as one of the key drivers that needs to be fostered within organizations for individuals to be able to reach higher levels of performance.

Turnover Intentions. Scholars argue highly engaged individuals have significantly lower levels of intentions to leave and direct their efforts to be more profitable, healthier and safer, and flexible (Buchanan, 2004; Fleming & Asplund, 2007; Maslach et al., 2001; Saks, 2006; Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008; Shuck et al., 2011; Sonnentag, 2003; The Gallup Organization, 2001; Wagner & Harter, 2006).

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) suggested that engagement mediated the relationship between job resources and turnover intentions, indicating it is negatively related to turnover because individuals experience higher attachment levels to their organization. While employees experience higher levels of engagement, it simultaneously represents higher levels of cognitive and emotional involvement. As a result, due to engagement those positive experiences influence

one's intentions, actions, and behaviors within one's organization, which consequently impact one's commitment to job role and employer.

To conclude, Kahn's (1990) original conceptualization of engagement featured three distinct psychological constructs, which are cognitive, emotional, and behavioral engagement to address an individual's engagement. It also is commonly described as a psychological state of motivation (Kahn, 1990). As the vast majority of research reviewed, engagement has been defined in numerous ways, not specifically addressing the idea of an individual's engagement at work, but rather relatable areas. In addition, previous efforts tend to rely upon the multi-attribute characteristics which are part of this concept.

Volunteers in Sport

Overview of Volunteers

Over the past two decades, there has been an increased interest in the literature on volunteerism within the sports industry (Wicker, 2017). Volunteers are fundamental for the staging and success of sporting events, while also aiding throughout various nonprofit sport clubs and organizations (Adams & Deane, 2009; Cnaan & Godberg-Glen, 1991; Fairley et al., 2007; Lasby & Sperling, 2007). Additionally, volunteer participation is crucial for the majority of sporting events in regard to overall long-term sustainability (Stewart, Nicholson, Smith, & Westerbeek, 2004) as Getz (1997) proposed volunteer engagement is one of the most crucial factors when producing and staging a sport event. Some of the first articles related to sport volunteering were published in the late 1990s (Auld, 1997; Cuskelly, 1995; Cuskelly, McIntyre, & Boag, 1998). Those initial works focused primarily on nonprofit sport organizations and community volunteering, along with human resources approaches for managing volunteers (Doherty, 1998; Inglis, 1997). Researchers specifically investigated nonprofit organizations from

various levels, ranging from smaller and more local community sport clubs (Cuskelly et al., 1998) to large national sport organizations (Auld & Godbey, 1998).

Wicker (2017) suggested interest in this research area to be twofold. First, scholars realized individuals are willing to "work for nothing" (Freeman, 1997, p. S160). Second, volunteers are necessary for sporting organizations to aid with any aspects related to the staging and setting up of an event (Kodama et al., 2013; Schlesinger et al., 2015). Scholars tend to reference Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth (1996) to conceptualize the term volunteer along with four key dimensions: free choice, remuneration, structure, and intended beneficiaries. Therefore, a volunteer is described as an individual who voluntarily engages in activities out of free will. Additionally, this individual would not receive remuneration or only a small stipend or another form of reimbursement (Cnaan et al., 1996). Also, volunteers and their decisions and behaviors are different from paid employees as previous labor supply explanations reason for pay to play a role for individuals to select certain work (Freeman, 1997). To have individuals devoting their time to contribute to something else outside of their personal life gives researchers reason to investigate this matter further (Wicker, 2017).

Some individuals might be interested in volunteering based on pure enjoyment and leisure (Stebbins & Graham, 2004). Understanding sport volunteer motives and through what factors their behavior is influenced by is beneficial for the sports industry. Furthermore, analyzing current management approaches, the perceptions of volunteers about their effectiveness, and what can be added to improve the volunteer's experience could be important. Similarly, from the perspective of a sport organizations, volunteers contribute to the success of clubs and events, which opens up another avenue to conduct future investigations.

Based on previous research there are two types of sport volunteers: those who are involved in administrative management, or governing positions, and those who are participating as event organizers, coaches, team managers, or hold roles to help with the event (Ringuet-Riot, Cuskelly, Auld, & Zakus, 2014). Both of those roles are integral to sporting events and to sport clubs. Pearce (1993) ascribed the term "core" volunteers to those who demonstrated higher involvement and commitment levels. Applying this conceptualization to the sport setting, Cuskelly et al. (2006) identified core volunteers are usually involved in leadership roles, for example, being a committee member, part of a board, or can be found holding positions in a formal office. Engelberg (2008) found that "committee members were significantly more committed to their role than volunteers in other roles" (p. 114). Pearce (1993) described the second group as "peripheral" volunteers, indicating that those individuals show lower involvement and commitment levels. Therefore, those individuals can be viewed as occasional contributors. Also, Ringuet-Riot and colleagues (2014) found core volunteers were more committed to the organization in comparison to peripheral volunteers. Simultaneously, less individuals are willing to commit their time, therefore identifying less as core volunteers. With lower commitment and involvement levels, it will be more challenging to rely on core volunteers, yet peripheral volunteers do not necessarily have the same expertise and experience, also referred to as "superficial understanding' of organizational procedures (Engelberg et al., 2011; Ringuet-Riot et al., 2014). This stresses the need for organizations to create and address recruitment strategies to better understand how peripheral volunteers can be transformed into core volunteers, and more specifically, how to target them.

Contribution of Volunteers. Volunteers represent one of the most vital resources for nonprofit sport organizations, given the large amounts of individuals needed to set up and run

sport events. It does cost organizations to have volunteers, but at the same time those volunteers provide a significant return on the amount spent to recruit and train them, thus allowing to operate cost-effectively (Andreff, 2006; Schlesinger et al., 2015; Segal & Weibrod, 2002; Whitley, Everhart, & Wright, 2006). Volunteers can engage in simple activities such as handing out water, seting-up, tearing-down, or cleaning-up events, other basic tasks that can encompass activities from pre-event planning, to assisting athletes, to aiding in the selling of merchandise, and being involved in the registration of participants (Allen & Shaw, 2009; Shaw, 2009). However, there are times when their expertise is also of significant value (Chelladurai & Madella, 2006). For example, volunteers who are qualified or possess adequate experience in areas such as marketing or offering legal advice could be of tremendous help to sport organizations. As such, volunteers provide a great value as an organizational resource which explains why sport organizations rely heavily on those types of resources (Cuskelly et al., 2006). Additionally, volunteers might be asked to take on more than just one role; therefore, it is important to clarify the expectations an event organizer has to enhance a volunteer's contribution to a successful event (Rogalsky et al., 2016).

Volunteers are referred to as a unique human resource in the sport sector (Chelladurai, 2006; Cuskelly et al., 1998; Doherty, 2006; Rochester, 2006) and research demonstrated a decline in volunteers across countries such as Australia, Canada, and the United States (Ringuet-Riot et al., 2014; Warner et al., 2011). Due to the decline, sport organizations that rely heavily on volunteers are forced to compete to obtain them from a shrinking recruitment pool. Consequently, it is important to develop a better understanding of volunteer engagement to aid with aspects of recruitment and retention while also implementing new management approaches to explore volunteer experiences. This helps to address volunteer concerns and focuses on the

relationships among performance, satisfaction, training, and retention as it relates to antecedents and outcomes.

Volunteer Management. Volunteer management is described as the "recruitment, selection, orientation, training, support, performance management, and recognition of organizational volunteers" (Cuskelly et al., 2006, p. 149). The role of volunteer management staff is to supervise volunteers who are involved in a sporting event, while volunteers are more appreciative of a structured volunteer management that has a positive influence on their individual volunteer engagement (Østerlund, 2013). Two main responsibilities of management are: 1) coordinating with event organizers to determine how many volunteers are needed and for what areas and 2) to seek, train, and manage volunteers (Gladden, McDonald, & Barr, 1998). Relaying information through proper communication is necessary to address volunteer needs, qualifications, and the expected work to be performed. Additionally, understanding reasons that influence individuals to become sport volunteers will help in the development management approaches (Allen & Bartle, 2014).

Volunteer Engagement. Engagement is an important concept, especially among volunteers as they choose based on their free will to give their personal time to an event. At the same time, they are able to express themselves while participating in their assigned activities (Shantz, Saksida, & Alfes, 2014). Similarly, to paid workers, scholars found that work engagement positively contributes to well-being (Schauefli et al., 2008) and is negatively related to turnover intentions (Alfes, Shantz, Truss, & Soane, 2013). In sport management, researchers have primarily used the term engagement to describe why individuals chose to assume roles as volunteers and how much time they dedicate to do so (Hallmann & Harms, 2012; Swierzy, Wicker, & Breuer, 2018; Wicker & Hallmann, 2013) rather than the engagement construct.

Even though Allen and Shaw (2009) did not specifically examine the concept of engagement within sport volunteers, the researchers were able to make connections to the engagement literature as they assessed sport volunteers' willingness to "give that little bit extra" (p. 84), which is part of personal engagement (Kahn, 1990). Based on this study and utilizing a work engagement scale, Allen and Bartle (2014) suggested there could be meaningful insights in applying engagement among sport volunteers to investigate factors that foster or hinder engagement while at the same time understanding affective outcomes.

Outcomes of Volunteers

    Motivation. Even though there is not one specific definition of volunteerism, Cuskelly et al., (2006) suggested being involved in volunteer activities would be beneficial for the community and the individual. Allen and Shaw (2009) proposed most definitions of volunteerism and voluntary behavior rely on the idea of free choice and free will. It is important to understand what some initial motives for individuals are and as to why they are interested in offering their own time to help others, and what are some factors that influence future decision-making to continue/to refrain from volunteer opportunities. Therefore, it would be suitable to apply self-determination theory in order to explore volunteer motivation.

    Allen and Shaw (2009) offered the example of extrinsic motivation in which sport volunteers pick up trash because they were told to do so. Further, one might experience extrinsic motivation because of instrumental reasons in order to avoid punishments, criticism, or obtain rewards and approval. Even though extrinsic motivation could weaken intrinsic motivation, the secondary can only happen when the action pursued is of actual value or fundamentally enjoyable. Moreover, it is possible to move from being extrinsically motivated to being intrinsically motivated through the help of the following psychological needs: a sense of

autonomy, feelings of competence, and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000). A sense of autonomy is identified as expressing one's wish to have an internal locus of control. Feelings of competency refers to one's need to experience mastery of something, whereas relatedness, the third psychological need, focuses on being able to relate and connect with others (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Due to the fact that extrinsic motivation faces a diverse amount of instrumental reasons, the degree of internalization varies between individuals, which leads to different types of extrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan (2000) outlined four types of extrinsic motivation as: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation (p. 236). External regulation is described as either doing something to avoid punishment from others (i.e., social) or to do something in order to obtain rewards (i.e., material). This type is also closest related to amotivation because the most important drive to complete an activity is based on the possibility to obtain rewards. Thus, this type is completely non-internalized. Introjected regulation refers to doing something out of guilt, shame, or other internally pressuring forces. For example, an employee might act based on this type of regulation in order to avoid being sanctioned by an employer or because he/she felt guilty which led to the engagement. This behavior might also be based on maintaining one's self-worth and is therefore partially internalized and controlling (Koestner & Losier, 2002; Ryan & Connell, 1989). Identified regulation indicates performing an activity because of the value it represents to oneself.

Identified regulation is distinctly different from internal motivation since an activity is completed for the instrumental value that activity represents to an individual compared to the drive to do something because the activity itself is enjoyable and fun (intrinsic motivation). In other words, an individual realizes the value of a behavior and accepts its regulation as his/her

own, allowing the individual to do an activity more willingly (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991). Also, Burton, Lydon, D'Alessandro, and Koestner (2006) demonstrated that identified regulation might have a more powerful and widespread impact on behavior since motivation is measured on an explicit level. When an individual is internalizing the significance of goals, which is done with identified regulation, it allows individuals to create mental routes on how to achieve those goals, therefore acting in an automatic way. When an individual is motivated based on identified regulation, that individual recognizes how important one's respective work is toward one's chosen career path (van Beek, Hu, Schaufeli, Taris, & Schreurs, 2012), making it one the leading motivators among employees. Jobs do not always consist of doing something interesting or enjoyable to oneself, but it also includes repetitive and unpleasant tasks, hence as to why engaged employees are also extrinsically motivated to some degree (van Beek et al., 2012). Thus, employees who exhibit higher levels of engagement are primarily driven by autonomous motivation based on having the ability to engage in an activity that is valuable and of interest to them.

Lastly, integrated regulation occurs when the individual understands the value of an activity and simultaneously internalizes it (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Another distinction between identified and integrated regulation compared to intrinsic motivation is the fact that the first two are driven by goals and values. Intrinsic motivation on the other hand relies on emotions as the primary driving force that comes out while being engaged in an activity. Given that motivation exists on a continuum, Koester and Losier (2002) pointed out attitudinal and behavioral differences regarding introjected, identified regulation, as well as intrinsic motivation. Autonomous motivation is found to yield the most anticipated behavioral, affective, and

attitudinal outcomes in comparison to amotivation and controlled motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

Using SDT offers researchers a multidimensional perspective on motivation and provides further insight into how the various types can be enhanced or discouraged. Within in the work setting, employees who express to be more self-determined are simultaneously more committed to their organization and therefore report lower levels of intention to turnover (Gagné & Koestner, 2002; Richer, Blanchard, & Vallerand, 2002). Additionally, previous scholars assessed employees' self-determination is linked to positive job outcomes. For example, a study conducted by Richer et al. (2002) discovered self-determined work motivation demonstrated higher levels of satisfaction along with lower levels for intention to leave the organization.

Scholars Farrell et al., (1998) and Bang and Ross (2009) found higher levels of motivation among sport volunteers when they felt valuable to the organization. Furthermore, Farrell et al. (1998) added to the literature by identifying four categories for sport volunteer motives which are: purposive, solidary, external traditions (extrinsic motivation), and commitments. Purposive motivated is described as wanting to give back and contribute to society whereas solidarity is identified as wanting to be socially integrated and to a network. Initially adapting Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) motivation to volunteer (MTV) scale, the new findings resulted in the creation of the special event volunteer motivation scale. Results from volunteers at an elite women's curling championship demonstrated "to make the event a success" (Farrell et al., 1998, p. 292) to be the greatest motivator, while "obtaining an educational experience" (Farrell et al., 1998, p. 292) was also mentioned. This differed from Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen's (1991) initial study and original findings, which discovered doing something good for someone else ranked as the highest motivational factor.

Within the setting of volunteerism in the sports industry, self-determination theory could be helpful to understand the type of motivation volunteers rely on throughout their engagement and to explore how/what type of activities/tasks might change the motivation. Additionally, understanding what type of motivation an individual relies on allows leaders to address individuals differently while examining how social exchanges play a role in the motivation approach, too.

Knoke and Prensky (1984) described three general motivational incentives for volunteering among formal organizations, which are: "normative (altruism), utilitarian (self-interest), and affective" (Allen & Shaw, 2009, p. 80). Normative incentives speak towards the values an individual hold, for example, experiencing civic obligations to contribute to what the organization stands for. Utilitarian incentives are considered to be monetary such as wages, pensions, salaries, or other 'perks' one might receive in exchange for their contribution to the organization. Lastly, affective incentives are rooted in interpersonal relations when individuals have emotional or symbolic attachments to others within their group. Within the context of sport volunteers, motivation and experiences at various sporting event levels have been explored by numerous scholars (Bang & Ross, 2009; Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Fairley et al., 2007; Reeser et al., 2005; Welty Peachey et al., 2013; Wollebæk et al., 2014).

One of the first studies focusing on motivational factors stated, "individuals will be attracted by and expect different material and personal incentives when volunteering for a cause" (Andrew, 1996, p. 24). Additionally, the effects of motivation on satisfaction, recruitment, retention, and performance were explored (Fairley et al., 2007; Farrell et al., 1998; Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011) while other studies also took management practices into consideration to understand how volunteers perceive their effectiveness (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Shaw, 2009).

Motives for Volunteers at Sporting Events. It is important to acknowledge research has not only focused on local community sport events, but also on mega-events (Elstadt, 1997; Fairley et al., 2007). Getz (2008) pointed out mega-events are characterized by particular size and can be described to be "typically global in their orientation and require a competitive bid to win them as a one-time event for a particular place" (p. 408). As such, governments and communities usually support those events based on benefitting financially and enhancing one's infrastructure for the sport event (Ritchie & Adair, 2004). Hallmark events in comparison are also relying on the help of the host community while local events are usually held in one place and mainly attract residents from the surrounding area (Getz, 2008).

Mega-events can provide unique opportunities for the host city, often also referred to as legacy events due to their potential to have a lasting impact, even after the event is over (Dickson, Darcey, Edwards, & Terwiel, 2015). As a result, Ritchie and Adair (2004) suggested those types of events can "enhance international awareness/image of the city" (p. 156) and economic benefits derive due to increased tourism activity as well as other "social, physical, cultural, technical or psychological" (p. 156) benefits that may be intangible. Examples can be the Olympic Games, Paralympics, the FIFA World Cup, World Master Games (Dickson et al., 2015). Other scholars use the terms special sport event (Dwyer & Fredline, 2008) or large-scale sporting events (Coalter & Taylor, 2008). Since 1980, volunteering for the Olympic Games has seen a growing interest, which simultaneously added to the successful implementation and staging of the event (Giannoulakis, Wang, & Gray, 2008).

There are various motives found within the volunteer literature for individuals to decide to volunteer. For example, Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) found 28 volunteer motives, implying motivation in the context of volunteering can be measured as a one-dimensional item.

Clary et al. (1998) on the other hand identified six main categories that offered volunteer motives that took a majority of those motives into consideration, which alluded to a multifaceted measurement. The first function, *values*, relied on the idea that being involved in volunteer activities allows an individual to "express values related to altruistic and humanitarian concerns for other" (p. 1517). *Understanding* as the second function provides individuals to experience learning opportunities and develop skills. The third function, *social*, might motivate individuals to improve relationships. *Career* is another function an individual might benefit from when volunteering to further advance. The fifth function, *protective*, relates to one's ego to escape from negative feelings such as feeling guilty to be more fortunate than others. Lastly, the *enhancement* function focuses on the ability to grow and the positive development of one's ego through a motivational process (Clary et al., 1998). Utilizing a functional approach toward volunteerism and therefore acknowledging the psychological purposes volunteers identify with, Clary et al. (1998) proposed motivational aspects underlie volunteer activities and can be operationalized and measured in subscales. Tested through three studies, the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) was created and had internal consistency. This scale has been used in numerous studies focused on volunteers in the sport context.

Farrell et al. (1998) shed additional light on large-scale events and pointed out the motivational differences for special event volunteers compared to others, linking volunteer motivation, volunteer satisfaction, and actual experiences. Special sport events seem to be more unique due to their prestigious image, which some volunteers might see as an incentive to become involved. The authors recommended:

"motivation for special event volunteers is different from that for other volunteers. Special event volunteers might find these distinct dimensions (purposive, solidarity, external traditions, and commitments) important because of their volunteer commitment

and their attachment to the activity. These dimensions may differ from motivations for other volunteer actives because of the nature of special events." (p. 298)

Thus, based on how sport event volunteers are managed, it directly affects their levels of satisfaction (Cuskelly et al., 2006). A later study conducted by Strigas and Jackson (2003) validated those results and revealed five factors that have an influence on individuals to decide to engage in volunteerism. Those factors were identified as mostly material, external influences, leisure, egoistic, and purposive.

Elsewhere, Bang and Ross (2009) surveyed 254 volunteers at the 2004 Twin-Cities Marathon utilizing Bang and Chelladurai's (2003) Validation of the Revised Volunteer Motivation Scale for International Sporting Events (VMS-ISE). Relying on the 2002 FIFA World Cup, a major international sporting event, this scale identified six volunteer motivational factors. Within Bang and Ross's (2009) regional study, the modified version of the scale identified seven volunteer motivational factors. Those factors are: "expression of values, community involvement, interpersonal contacts, career orientation, personal growth, extrinsic rewards, and love of sport" (Bang & Ross, 2009, p. 61). The factor of community involvement at a local sporting event allowed scholars to suggest feelings of pride in an either local or regional event may be a valuable approach for the recruitment and retention purposes of volunteers. Additionally, "love of the sport" demonstrated to be a significant motivational factor for volunteers, which the researchers articulated to be "because of the special nature of sporting events, the reasons for volunteering converged on the sport itself rather than the simple reason of helping others" (Bang & Ross, 2009, p. 70). Both studies, Farrell et al. (1998) and Bang and Ross (2009), found higher levels of satisfaction within volunteers was attributed to making the event a success, resulting in the conclusion a volunteer's motivation increases when they feel valuable to the organization.

Additionally, Fairley et al. (2007) studied Olympic Games volunteers and identified nostalgia, companionship along with friendship, connectiveness because of the Olympic setting, and lastly expertise knowledge to be major motives for volunteers to participate. The one motive that proved to be important for volunteers to actually engage in volunteering behavior was the ability to connect with an event, which was supported in other studies as well (Fairley et al., 2007; Farrell et al., 1998; Ralston, Downward, & Lumsden, 2004; Reeser et al., 2005).

As mentioned before, the uniqueness of an event does affect a volunteer's reason to stay in contact with an organization for a longer period of time (Hoye et al., 2009). Findings from Coyne and Coyne (2001) who studied volunteers at professional golf events revealed one's motives could change over time and could be classified as fluid. The participants in the study marked personal rewards to be important, but these changed as they remained with consecutive events. As such, Slaughter (2002) suggested long-term sport event volunteers offer their free time because they are more interested in giving back to the community instead of focusing on networking opportunities or social inclusion, which some volunteers argue is their initial motivation to volunteer.

Gender differences among sport event volunteers is another avenue that needs to be acknowledged. Downward, Lumsdon, and Ralston (2005) assessed men were motivated to volunteer due to their personal interest in the sport or attachment to a sport organization, thus focusing on intrinsic motivation. Females, on the other hand, were more so motivated by external rewards, such as building human and social capital that would eventually aid them in the labor market, which points towards extrinsic motivation.

Satisfaction. Satisfaction among volunteers is crucial for the overall success of the event and any future events (Farrell et al., 1998) and emerged as a key concept within the volunteer

engagement literature (Sheptake & Menaker, 2016). In order to satisfy volunteers, understanding their motives, experiences, perceptions, and behaviors are important. It could allow organizers and managers to address management, planning, and recruitment tactics. Satisfaction is another component that plays an important role in sport volunteer behavior based on the assumption that satisfaction leads to higher levels of retention. Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) reasoned "people will continue to volunteer as long as the experience as a whole is rewarding and satisfying" (p. 281). Elstad (1997) was one of the first scholars to analyze the perception of volunteer learning and satisfaction at the 1994 Winter Olympic Games in Lillehammer, Norway, and discovered that being involved in the event, developing job competence, being part of the celebratory atmosphere, and having possibilities of expanding one's social network to be sources that influence satisfaction levels among volunteers. This resulted in a call for further exploration of mega-event volunteer management strategies to investigate future volunteer motivation. Additionally, Costa et al. (2006) showed volunteer's sense of community positively affected their overall volunteering behavior and experience, underlying its influence on job satisfaction.

Johnston and colleagues (2000) highlighted management practices that are also demonstrated to impact satisfaction of volunteers. The authors identified quality of communication as significant as well as recognizing volunteers for their efforts to affect levels of satisfaction. Research also demonstrated the importance of communication between volunteers, especially for sport event volunteers, and receiving recognition (Farrell et al., 1998, Reeser et al., 2005). Also, Reeser et al. (2005) argued that receiving performance feedback and recognition from event managers significantly impacted volunteers' satisfaction levels.

Volunteers are more likely to return and continue to volunteer if they had a satisfying experience (Green & Chalip, 2004). Literature also suggested that individuals have positive

perceptions about volunteering and volunteerism when they had a satisfying experience with a specific event (Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Farrell et al., 1998). As such, higher levels of satisfaction among volunteers leads to higher enjoyment during the voluntary activity, a repetition to volunteer, and to encourage others to engage in volunteer behavior (Coyne & Coyne, 2001). Therefore, for event managers, it is important to ensure volunteers have a positive experience throughout the event as it affects their satisfaction levels and in return impacts their likelihood of returning for successive events (Farrell et al., 1998). Another approach event managers should take into consideration to increase recruitment strategies and to improve overall volunteer services is to encourage the social interaction between volunteers (Kodama et al., 2013). As found in Lee, Kim, and Koo's (2016) study, team member exchange between volunteers significantly influenced an individual's intentions to continue to volunteer and to report a positive experience at the event. This supported former results (Fairley et al., 2007; Farrell et al., 1998) and suggests social interaction to be considered an antecedent for future volunteer intentions.

Regardless of size, location, or sporting event, it is fundamental to have volunteers with a satisfying experience and to understand what aspects made their voluntary engagement successful in their opinion. Since sport event organizers, as well as nonprofit sport clubs, do need adequate numbers of volunteers to continuously return, analyzing what would increase their satisfaction levels would be beneficial. Ultimately, this could be used for future recruitment and retention strategies in the hopes of decreasing the level of turnover. Therefore, the following hypothesis is presented:

H5: Engagement will be positively associated with satisfaction.

Psychological Well-Being. An increase in individually focused research addressing health and wellness, while simultaneously having implications for the organization, have emerged over time (Iverson, Olekalns, & Erwin, 1998; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2006; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). For example, Schaufeli et al. (2002a), found a negative relationship between engagement and burnout, which in turn influences performance and productivity. Also, Schaufeli et al. (2008) found a link between engagement and an individual's well-being. Additionally, Schaufeli (2012) suggested to further examine the elements that make up a workplace climate to understand the how engagement develops and its relation to well-being. Therefore, Schaufeli (2012) investigated psychological workplace climate and its influence on engagement as well as well-being among individuals. Based on the perception of overall psychological workplace climate, an individual's level of engagement could be dependent on interpreting various circumstances within an organization (Schaufeli, 2012).

Increasing the understanding of overall well-being among individuals is important in sport management literature (Kim, Kim, Newman, Ferris, & Perrewe, 2019). The scholars used Fredrickson's (2001) broaden-and-build theory when addressing the positive organizational behavior perspective in athletic department from Division I institutions. Based on Fredrickson's (1998, 2001) broaden-and-build theory, the scholar suggested that positive emotions will result in an increase of affective and cognitive resources. This indicates that individuals who are experiencing positive emotions are able to temporarily broaden their "thought-action repertoire, which in turn has the effect of building that individual's physical, intellectual, and social resources" (Fredrickson, 1998, p. 300). Also, staying within the context of sport and developing a better understanding of sport employees, researchers found that higher levels of engagement resulted in higher levels of psychological well-being (Svensson, Jeong, Shuck, & Otto, 2019).

Additionally, studies on nonprofit volunteers have also identified engagement as a significant predictor of psychological well-being (Vecina et al., 2012), being able to link higher levels of engagement with increased levels of happiness (Alfes, Shantz, & Bailey, 2016). Therefore, the researcher hypothesized the following:

H6: Engagement will be positively associated with psychological well-being.

Intention to Remain. There are various sport organizations and sporting events which rely on the services provided by volunteers in order to create a successful event, yet experience difficulties in recruiting those individuals (Cuskelly, 2004; Cuskelly & Boag, 2001). Within the United States, the value of sport volunteerism has been projected to be worth over $50 billion (Chelladurai, 2006). Volunteers represent an important workforce for various sport segments, ranging from small scale (within the recreational setting) to mega-events, such as the Olympic Games. Additionally, planning ahead of time to prepare for the number of volunteers needed and what type of capacity their services are required is crucial (Barr, 2018). However, recruitment and retention issues of volunteers for sport events are usually rooted in marketing strategies (Green & Chalip, 1998).

Previous research found organizational commitment to be a significant predictor for paid employees regarding turnover intentions, task performance, and absenteeism. There are numerous reasons for volunteers to leave their sport organizations, most of which are not directly controlled or influenced by the organization (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001). Also, some might experience an illness, receive a job promotion, have an overall lifestyle change, or believe to have achieved their initial goal with the organization and are interested in going somewhere else (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001). Prior evidence suggests volunteers are often taken for granted (Cuskelly et al., 2006), while scholars also explored benefits organizations derive from

volunteers (Hager & Brudney, 2004). The authors found volunteer retention rates are higher in organizations that perceive to have higher benefits from employing volunteers. Yet, within their sample only one-third of the studied organizations actually had public recognitions set in place for their volunteers.

One has to acknowledge the different context volunteers are confronted with in comparison to paid employees. The supply of labor and financial compensation is vastly different for a work organization and for organizations that depend on voluntary engagement. Not having sufficient funds available for volunteers increases their intention to turnover (Hager & Brudney, 2011). As stated before, sport organizations face challenges when recruiting an adequate number of volunteers to fill roles to function properly. For starters, most volunteer tasks are based on a seasonal basis, which could be an important factor regarding turnover intentions.

Especially within nonprofit sport organizations, managers need to examine what types of attitudes affect the volunteers job satisfaction in order to retain them. Also, retaining volunteers who share the organization's values and are committed to the organization's goals is important (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001). With increased job satisfaction, intentions to turnover are lower which would save money because the organization does not have to seek out new volunteers and train them (Bang, 2011). Also, when organizations perceive to gain more benefits from volunteers, volunteer retention rates were found to be better (Hager & Brudney, 2004).

Within sport volunteerism, Cuskelly and Boag (2001) utilized organizational commitment to predict turnover intentions. Individuals who exhibited higher levels of organizational commitment were less likely to leave the organization, yet a clear cause and effect relationship between both variables was not established. Furthermore, developing trust and forming relationship among leaders and followers' influences job satisfaction that could lead to

higher commitment towards the sport organization (Bang, 2011). Furthermore, for those volunteers whose values align closer with those of the organization will exhibit heightened levels of commitment (Bang, Ross, & Reio, 2013). Individuals who participated in volunteer activities for a long time, have a child in the sport organization, or have higher levels of job satisfaction experienced lower levels of turnover intention (Schlesinger et al., 2013). Therefore, the researcher hypothesized:

H7: Engagement will be positively associated with intention to remain.

Engagement as Mediator

Engagement has been found to serve as a mediator of a number of different variables. Maslach et al. (2001) proposed a model grounded in burnout literature with six work conditions, in which engagement functions as a mediating variable between those conditions and other outcomes. Further, engagement has been found to serve as a mediator of a number of different variables. Just as burnout, the outcomes should be expected to relate to job satisfaction, commitment, increased levels of withdrawal, and lower performance should be some related outcomes. When individuals have positive experiences and emotions, they are more likely to also experience positive work outcomes. As such, engagement can be linked to work outcomes since it is described as having fulfilling and positive experiences at work, along with a positive mindset and mindset at work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003), which also relates to good health (Sonnentag, 2003).

Previous empirical research showed an existing relationship between engagement and various work outcomes. Research found a positive relationship between engagement and organizational commitment, while it is negatively related to intention to quit (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003). Additionally, scholars established

64

that engagement mediated relationships between antecedent and outcome variables (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Shuck, 2011; Sonnentag, 2003), yet little has been researched in the context specifically applied to HRD (Shuck et al., 2014). Saks (2006) was able to identify that supportive climate, job characteristics, and fairness made an impact on the overall development of engagement from an antecedent perspective. Therefore, the following hypotheses are presented:

> *H8: Meaningfulness will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.*

> *H9: Safety will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.*

> *H10: Availability will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.*

> *H11: Person-task fit will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.*

Summary of Volunteers

Previous research within the sports industry acknowledged the importance of utilizing volunteers, making a case for their presence to be essential, yet unique from a human resource standpoint (Chelladurai, 2006; Cuskelly et al., 1998; Doherty, 1998, 2006; Green & Chalip, 1998). Most sport organizations would not be able to survive without the help of volunteers, thus making those individuals an important human resource to achieve organizational goals and objectives (Costa et al., 2006; Cuskelly, 1998; Doherty & Carron, 2003; Finkelstein, 2008). With the continuous expansion of sporting events and the increase of popularity of college football bowl games, the need for engaged volunteers is just as important.

Football Bowl Games

The college football bowl season commences at the end of the year and member institutions of the NCAA are participating in bowl games, which can be considered as a reward based on a successful regular season in the Division I Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) (Seifried, 2013). In order to be eligible to participate in post-season bowl games, teams have to win at least six games throughout the regular season.

History

The Tournament of Roses held the first bowl game in Pasadena, California in 1902, which would eventually become the Rose Bowl and became known as a regular annual event in 1916 (Coates & Depken, 2011; Dumnnavant, 2004; Zimbalist, 2009). The "Granddaddy of Them All" (cited in McAllister, 1998, p. 361), the Rose Bowl featured the first East-West game between Michigan and Stanford and was created to bring attention towards the Pasadena area to increase economic activity in the region. As such, Adande used one of the founder's explanation who described the event to "tell the world about our paradise" (as cited in McAllister, 1998, p. 361). Ultimately, the event helped attract out of town visitors to attend their annual New Year's Day Festival parade (Seifried, 2013).

Based on the financial success and positive feedback of this bowl event, other locations with warmer climates during the winter season such as San Diego, Miami, El Paso, and Dallas started to consider creating bowl games and to attract tourism to their locals and foster business activities (Seifried, 2013). This ultimately helped establish and create the bowl phenomenon (Seifried, 2013). Due to the increased popularity of football there has also been an increase in bowl games, especially after the 1930s. Ever since then, the number of post-season bowl games has witnessed an exponential boost. Starting in the 1980s, the college football bowl season

enjoyed tremendous change as the idea of sponsoring bowl games moved to the forefront (McAllister, 1998). There was a total of 19 post-season bowl games in 1989 and this number has more than doubled in recent years (Daughters, 2015; Zimbalist, 2009).

The 2020-2021 college football post-season will have a total of 43 bowl games, as new bowls have been added (Kercheval, 2019). In total 80 teams will participate in bowl games, indicating nearly 65 percent of the 130 FBS teams (Kercheval, 2019). Critics raised concerns claiming the number of bowl games is too high for the amount of FBS programs, indicating low achieving teams should not be able to receive a chance to participate in post-season games (Solomon, 2016). In response, the NCAA Division I council approved a new measure, which allowed teams that had a losing record (5-7) to be eligible for post-season participation (Johnson, 2015). The main reason for additional bowl games is the fact that more bowl games indicate the ability to generate increased opportunities to practice for football programs, build brand awareness for participating institutions, potential to receive financial benefits, and to create more television products to increase revenue (Seifried, 2013; Seifried et al., 2019). This revenue not only stems from corporate sponsorships, but also from television networks paying high amounts to be able to broadcast those games. VIZIO chief sales officer Randy Waynick was quoted saying "Sport fans, particularly football fans, are a critically important audience for our brand as it continues to grow and expand" after it was announced the Rose Bowl received a new sponsor (Reuters, 2010).

The expansion of television deals also affected the nature of bowl games as stakeholders explored possibilities to generate higher revenues, while the number of volunteers participating in bowl games continuously increased (Dunnavant, 2004). Further, the IEG Sponsorship Report revealed a six percent increase for the 2008-2009 bowl season with companies investing more

than $56 million on title sponsorship compared to the previous year (Schmitz, 2012). Fans demonstrate continuous interest in watching bowl games as television ratings consistently stayed strong (Schrotenboer, 2014). Simultaneously, as the number of bowl games increased, host cities continue to express interest in staging those events based on heightened national exposure, publicity, and their potential to contribute to local economies (Popp et al., 2017).

Economic Impact

With the introduction of post-season bowl games, cities try to host those events in order to attract tourists and fans who are willing to travel and watch their teams compete. Thus, post-season bowl games are classified as a large-scale or mega-event sport tourism event that attracts numerous fans not only from the host city, but also from outside (Williams & Seifried, 2013). On the one hand, numerous scholars discussed the economic impact of major college football games, there continues to be ongoing debates regarding the actual economic impact (Baade et al., 2008; Beyer, 2016; Brown et al., 2010; Coates & Depken, 2011). On the other hand, post-season bowl games could indeed be an economic boost for the host cities as out-of-town visitors and volunteers not only stay for the bowl game as the major event, but also attend ancillary events (Musibay, 2013; Winston et al., 2016). Additionally, post-season bowl games report higher numbers of out-of-town visitors compared to the regular football season. For example, a study reported the 2016 College Football Playoff National Championship Game had more than 65,000 individuals travel from out-of-town to the Phoenix area (Mokwa, et al., 2016). Another example from ESPN noted that on average, there were 1.7 million households watching the 2005 regular football games (www.mediaweek.com) while ABC reported over 13million viewers for the 2005 championship game at the Orange Bowl (Tobolowksy & Lowery, 2006). The most recent College Football Playoff Championship game between Louisiana State University and Clemson

University had 26 million viewers according to ESPN, which represented a 4% increase in viewership compared to the previous year (Russo, 2020).

Even though previous scholars highlighted the attractiveness of these games for fans, it is crucial to understand which match-up would be most favorable to out of town travelers and tourists as having people in attendance is important for the overall survival of those events (Coates & Depken, 2011; Eddy, Rascher, & Stewart, 2016). Not only does the match-up influence one's decision to attend the bowl game, other factors such as distance to travel, host city attractiveness, and team performance are also included. Previous scholars already examined the effects distance has on attendance (DeSchriver & Jensen, 2002; Griffith, 2010), while other scholars also found for each added mile a team has to travel, attendance dropped by two people (Eddy et al., 2016). Eddy and colleagues (2016) discovered a matchup between two teams coming from power conferences attracted almost 8,000 more viewers compared to a game in which only one of the participating teams were part of a power five conference. It is ultimately in the best interest of the BCS teams to play against another member in a bowl game to create a high-profile atmosphere (Dosh, 2013).

Traditionally bowl games were hosted during the winter holidays, once the official season ended, attracting spectators to travel to warm climate areas to watch a match-up of top teams, and the host city. Those games did not only attract greater crowds to the host destination, but television coverage spiked, which also led to greater revenue possibilities for sponsors and participating institutions (Eckard, 2013). It is common for students, fans, alumni, and boosters to use the post-season game holiday to travel and have a fun experience while supporting their team. Usually, fans arrive a few days before the main event or even turn this into a week-long

vacation. Local businesses experience an economic boost as visitors stay in hotels and venture around the local areas (Zimbalist, 2009).

Event Leverage

Staging a sport event is not only about the main event anymore, but rather an opportunity for local economic development (Getz, 1997). Specifically, the host communities along with tourism bureaus, chambers of commerce, and sports commissions organize post-season events to increase the city's attractiveness (Griffith, 2010). Thus, bowl games are a creation among various stakeholders as previously outlined alongside the FBS institutions, the bowl sponsors, and television networks (Seifried & King, 2012; Zimbalist, 2009). As a result, event organizers were tasked to create additional events to attract a higher number of visitors, which simultaneously increases the city's economic impact. Therefore, the idea to "augment" (Green, 2001, p. 2) an event included the incorporation of additional activities and other services. The immediate economic impact of an event is depending on the visitor's willingness to spend money. The higher the amount of money spent within the host city, the higher the economic impact (Dwyer, Forsyth, Madden, & Spurr, 2000). Regarding event leverage, one has to encourage visitors to spend money while at the same time keep this money in the host economy. In order to achieve this, the host city not only needs to promote a visitor's spending, but simultaneously foster one's willingness to extend one's stay. Thus, as pointed out by Frechtling (1987) if the host destination is able to attract visitors to stay longer, their spending on local accommodation and other areas will increase local economy.

Ancillary Events

Previous research suggested for individuals who are traveling to attend a certain event to be mainly focused on that specific event (Chalip et al., 1998), while being less interested to

engaged in other activities offered from the host city (Pennington-Gray & Holdnak, 2002). However, the inclusion of pre- and post-event activities could accumulate in potential advertisement to serve as an opportunity to increase attendance and prolong one's intention to stay (Ritchie & Adair, 2004). For example, Baltimore hosts the Preakness, a horse race during the month of May. Even though this is a one-day event the organizers created "The Preakness Celebration" in 2002. Activities such as a balloon festival, a parade, live music, and others were added to address social activities and increase the ability to form connections with others. Due to the ability to package these activities with the main event attendance spiked, leading to most spectators spending almost an entire week in the city (Green, 2001). As more activities have been added and expanded the overall bowl game phenomenon, this resulted in relying on more human resources (Williams & Seifried, 2013). In 2015, more than 28 million people watched the Allstate Sugar Bowl, which was the largest cable television broadcast in history at that time. Part of this success must be attributed to the volunteers who put forth tremendous amounts of effort to stage an event with this type of magnitude (Allstate Sugar Bowl, 2019).

Summary

Ever since the first post-season football bowl game became an annual event in 1912, there has been an increased growth in the number of bowl games, especially in recent decades. Prior, the game itself served as an ancillary event, which changed over time as it is now the focal point. The number of post-season bowl games for the 2019-2020 season accumulated to 40, while more games will be added in future seasons. In order to encourage visitors to stay longer and explore the host city, event organizers added various activities surrounding the game. Therefore, the demand for volunteers to help stage those ancillary events witnessed continuous

growth over recent years. In order to have a successful outcome for everyone involved, volunteers are one of the main resources that are necessary for those type of events.

Summary of Literature Review

Society witnessed a shift of for-profit organizations now also to relying increasingly on the labor of volunteers. Based on the variety of sport volunteer settings and the various responsibilities and roles, Green and Chalip (2004) described volunteers as "a core component of sport service delivery" (p. 14). For example, when the Super Bowl was hosted in New Jersey in 2014, 9,000 volunteers participated while 1,500 paid temporary employees were also part of this event (Pedulla, 2014). A few years before, in 2008, 10,000 volunteers were recruited for the Super Bowl XLII (Arizona Super Bowl XLII Host Committee, 2008). Other leagues and major sporting events also increase their volunteer recruitment numbers (NBA All-Star Week, US Tennis Open) (Allen & Shaw, 2009; Warner et al., 2011).

As sport literature focused on various antecedents and outcomes related to engagement, it is critical to analyze how engagement among volunteers can be increased. Volunteers are crucial because most organizations would not be able to survive without them. Literature on engagement suggests not only organizational but also individual positive outcomes. However, sport organizations witness a heightened challenge in recruiting and retaining volunteers. Volunteers have different motives and expectations regarding their willingness to offer personal time, but through the development of a better understanding on how to engagement individuals, stakeholders from all parties involved will see benefits.

CHAPTER III. METHODOLOGY

This chapter focuses on explaining the methods used in the study. It presents the purpose, hypothesis, research design, sample, data collection method, the instrumentation, and the proposed data analysis procedures. The chapter concludes with the data analysis and a summary of the chapter.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to analyze the role of engagement among volunteers at college football bowl games and associated ancillary events based in the United States. This specific setting was chosen due to the rapid expansion of the bowl season and the establishment of ancillary events surrounding the games. More specifically, the study sought to understand if engagement levels vary based on the individual's involvement with the specific bowl game or other events around the game. The influence of engagement on outcomes associated with volunteering was tested using structural equation modeling.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following two overarching research questions guiding this study are:

RQ1. What role does engagement play in bowl game volunteers' affective outcomes?

RQ2. Will engagement predict a more significant variance in outcomes of satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain when controlling for gender, race, age, education, and volunteer experience?

Based on the literature and to examine these research questions, the following eleven hypotheses were tested:

H1: Meaningfulness will be a significant predictor of engagement.

H2: Safety will be a significant predictor of engagement.

H3: Availability will be a significant predictor of engagement.

H4: Person-Task fit will be a significant predictor of engagement.

H5: Engagement will be a significant predictor of satisfaction.

H6: Engagement will be a significant predictor of psychological well-being.

H7: Engagement will be a significant predictor of volunteer intention to remain.

H8: Meaningfulness will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.

H9: Safety will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.

H10: Availability will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.

H11: Person-Task fit will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.

Research Design

There are five types of research (Thomas, Nelson, & Silverman, 2011). This quantitative study identified as descriptive research because it "describes a particular phenomenon, focusing upon the issue of what is happening, rather than why it is happening" (Gratton & Jones, 2004, p. 6). Additionally, the research design is also classified as non-experimental as experimental research tries to establish a cause-and-effect relationship as it involves the manipulation of treatments (Thomas et al., 2011). Another form of research labeled analytical research tries to examine and explain complex phenomena by analyzing and evaluating available information. Next, qualitative research differs from other types of research as it uses questions to guide a study rather than a hypothesis. Also, this research is a systematic method of inquiry and usually

applies a scientific approach to problem solving (Thomas et al., 2011). As previously outlined in the literature review, no empirical studies have tested the influence of engagement on selected outcomes of sport volunteers. Engagement has been examined extensively in other contexts, which allows to draw upon established instruments. Therefore, a quantitative research design was utilized for the current study to investigate the relationship between independent variables (psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety, psychological availability, and person-task fit) and the dependent outcome variables (satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain), measured through engagement to analyze the strength between the dependent and independent variables.

Sample

An initial list of 41 football bowl games was identified from a review of currently hosted bowl games for the 2019-2020 season to identify a sample of volunteers. This initial list was identified through websites for each bowl game in the United States and documented any events related to the bowl season. The following criteria had to be met by the selected organizations: (1) host ancillary bowl events, and (2) offer volunteer opportunities. The researcher was able to set up an in-person meeting with a representative of the Greater New Orleans Sports Foundation in October 2019 as this organization was in charge of recruiting volunteers for the National Championship game hosted in New Orleans while also being responsible for the R+ L Carriers bowl game. During the meeting, the researcher explained the purpose and benefits of this study and was able to receive a verbal commitment from the organization to send out the survey to their volunteer database. A few weeks later, the researcher was able to secure another bowl organization to participate in the study via personal communication. Simultaneously, this meeting opened the door to get in contact with the executive director from the Football Bowl

Association (FBA). After personal email communication and explaining the purpose of this project, the executive director met with the FBA's research committee to inform them about the benefits of this study for each bowl organization. The researcher created individualized surveys for each bowl game in Qualtrics and sent a list to the executive director, who reached out to each bowl representative while the researcher was copied on to each email. Out of 41 bowl games, 10 bowls demonstrated interest and distributed the survey to their volunteers via email. At the beginning of January, each individualized survey link was sent to its respective bowl game. Additional phone calls and follow-up emails were part of this study to establish relationships and to ensure the forwarding of the survey.

Data Collection

Approval by the governing institutional review board was given to the researcher before data collection. In order to collect data for the present study, an Internet-based self-report survey created with Qualtrics was utilized. Scholars pointed out that this type of data collection method is used more often compared to other approaches within research (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). The executive director of the Football Bowl Association contacted each bowl organization and forwarded the survey link, while copying the researcher to the emails. Each representative of an organization was asked to contact volunteers listed in their respective organizations and databases via email to explain the purpose and procedures of the study to seek their participation, forwarding the researcher's invitation email with the attached survey link. As a reminder, the executive director sent follow-up emails at the beginning of the year to each organization.

Participants in the study received access to the survey via email. The participants received further instructions and descriptions regarding the purpose of the study and were asked

to complete the 5-10-min survey during their free time. To increase participation, the follow-up strategies recommended by Dillman (2000) were used. Those strategies include the sending of a pre-notification along with follow-up emails of the first survey invitation email. Previous researchers found it increases the sample size while at the same time lowers the chances of receiving nonresponse errors (Simsek & Viga, 2001). Participants had a total of five weeks to complete the survey and were informed at the beginning of the survey their participation was voluntary. The first follow-up email was sent to the participating organizations one week after the initial distribution. Another reminder email was sent two weeks and three weeks after the initial survey email. One week before the survey closed a final follow-up email was sent to participants.

Data collection commenced at the beginning of the 2019-2020 football bowl season. Smaller bowl games were scheduled to begin in late December, while larger bowl games were scheduled to be played on New Year's Day. Even though not classified as a bowl game, the National Championship Game was scheduled for Monday, January 13, and data collection was completed at the beginning of February 2020. The researcher also collected data from the National Championship game.

Internet Survey Research

Due to growth of and increased usage of the Internet (Dillman, Tortora, & Bowker, 1999), academic and organizational researchers expressed a heightened interest to relay on this source as a data collection instrument (Dillman et al., 2014; Schmidt, 1997; Stanton, 1998). Utilizing this approach allows researchers to collect information ranging from descriptive statistics to opinions and attitudes from a particular data set (Isaac & Michael, 1995). Within quantitative and qualitative research Internet surveys are a common tool to be utilized to gather

information from individuals (Creswell, 2003; Fowler, 2002). Utilizing an internet survey might result in more truthful answers compared to a telephone interview or face-to-face communication (Dillman, 1991, 2000). For example, people might respond more openly towards sensitive topics such as politics, religious beliefs, or work perceptions on a survey than in an in-person interview (Dillman, 1991, 2000). Furthermore, survey research has the possibility of reaching a larger sample, which in turn leads to increasing levels of generalization of the study's findings.

Internet-Based Self-Report Surveys. To protect the privacy of participants, bowl organizations distributed surveys to their email list. A representative from the organization then forwarded the survey link to their volunteer database. Those types of surveys are computerized and involve a self-administered questionnaire the respondent receives and is able to complete (Simsek & Veiga, 2001). Collecting data employing an internet-based self-report survey can be broken down into the following three types (Bradley, 1999): (1) sending an email that includes the survey questions at the end of the message, (2) include the survey as an attachment along with a covering e-mail letter; and (3) sending an e-mail which has a URL embedded, asking respondents to click on the link to begin with the web-based questionnaire (Bradley, 1999). There are both advantages and disadvantages regarding the utilization of internet-based self-report surveys which were taken into consideration in this study (Manfreda, Batagelj, & Vehovar, 2002; Topp & Pawloski, 2002).

Advantages of self-report surveys. Scholars pointed to various benefits when utilizing an Internet-based self-report survey. For example, the design flexibility, it is interactive, having the ability to reach larger samples, being time and cost-efficient, as well as anonymity are identified in the literature (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998; Simsek & Veiga, 2001). However, one has to acknowledge potential limitations.

Limitations of self-report surveys. Two major limitations when utilizing this type of

technique and approach include lower response rates along with facing potential technical issues

(Dillman et al., 2014; Yun & Trumbo, 2000). It is possible to experience lower response rates

compared to traditional mail surveys (Crawford, Couper, & Lamias, 2001; Dillman & Bowker,

2001), but this does not have to be true for every study (Dillman et al., 2014). Groves (2006)

examined response rates and found for traditional mail surveys, they can range from 25% to

91%. Regarding the response rates for self-reported Internet surveys, , scholars Schonlau and

colleagues (2001) proposed those percentages may vary between 6 to 68.

Also, the possibility of a respondent experiencing technical challenges can have a

negative effect on response rates. Dillman et al. (1999) noted how the design of the survey, the

respondent's ability to use a computer, and the programming used for the survey might create

issues. There are four potential types of errors that can stem from a low response rate which are:

measurement error, sampling error, coverage error, and nonresponse error.

Measurement error is defined by Dillman et al. (1999) as "the result of inaccurate

answers to questions that stem from poor question wording, poor interviewing, survey mode

effects, and/or answering behavior of the respondent" (p. 2). The "error resulting from surveying

a portion of the population rather than all of its members" is described as a sampling error.

(Dillman et al., 1999, p. 2). Next, coverage error is referred to as "all units of a population not

having a known probability greater than zero if inclusion in the sample that is drawn to represent

the entire population" (p. 2). Lastly, nonresponse error is "not getting some people in the sample

to respond to the survey who, had they done so, would have provided a different distribution of

answers than those who did respond" (Dillman et al., 1999, p. 2).

However, there are ways to reduce coverage and sampling error. Dillman and Bowker (2001) suggested that that both previously mentioned types of errors can be reduced when providing the participating individual of a defined population an equal opportunity to be surveyed. This would allow the response rate to increase. Another effort can be made in order to limit measurement errors. By conducting a pilot study, the researcher has a better chance to understand if the choice of words and question design is appropriate, while the item order is also important to prevent bias in responses (Krosnick & Presser, 2010). Lastly, the researcher can reduce the probability of nonresponse error by sending out pre-notification and follow-up emails after the initial survey was sent out. This approach has revealed to increase response rates while simultaneously increase sample size (Simsek & Veiga, 2001; Taylor & Lynn, 1998). To increase response rate and to reduce the four aforementioned measurement errors in this study, the researcher followed the suggestions made by Dillman et al.'s (2014) Tailored Design Method.

Evidence of Reliability & Validity

Reliability measures were taken after data collection was completed by using Cronbach's alpha coefficients to measure internal reliability. Further, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis was utilized to estimate the evidence of convergent validity, while structural equation modeling was used to determine model fit.

Reliability

Reliability is crucial for successful survey research as it explains consistency of obtained results from the questionnaire and allows for repeatability (Gratton & Jones, 2004; Thomas et al., 2011). A questionnaire has to be reliable, otherwise it cannot be considered valid (Thomas et al., 2011). Internal consistency measures the degree to which each question in a scale measures the same phenomenon. Internal consistency is directly assessed from the obtained data in the survey

(Ary et al., 2006). The coefficient alpha, also referred to as Cronbach's alpha, is the most common reported type of reliability coefficient in the literature. This coefficient measures internal consistency reliability as it examines the degree of response consistency of the measures within the instrument (Kline, 2016). Kline (2016) argued that in observed-variable analyses there is not one specific rule explaining how high coefficients need to be in order to establish a satisfactory score reliability but suggested the following guidelines. Coefficient values around .90 are "excellent", values around .80 are described as "very good", while values around .70 are "adequate". Lastly, as recommended by De Vaus (1986), the researcher used items within the survey which were adapted from previous scales that had high internal consistency.

Validity

Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008) explained that an instrumentation can be reliable, while at the same time not being valid. Validity explores the extent to which an instrument measures what it purports to measure (Thomas et al., 2011). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was utilized to estimate the validity of each construct used in the instrument. Construct validity is defined as "whether scores measure a target hypothetical construct, which is latent and thus can be measured only indirectly through its indicators" (Kline, 2016, p. 93). In order to accomplish this type of validity one can explore discriminant validity and convergent validity (Hinkin, 1995) as it has been deemed vital for the success of any study (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Content validity examines if the items used in the instrument are representing what they are supposed to measure (Kline, 2016). Face validity is described as a subjective judgement of the construct and its operationalization. (Drost, 2011).

Initial Phase

One of the first steps in this study was to create a suitable instrument that measured the research questions by combining adapted items from previously established and validated scales. The scales are rooted within organizational behavior and human resource management literature and are associated with individuals in work environments. Some questions were removed from the original scales because they did not properly fit the point of interest while other questions were modified to fit the volunteer setting. Scholars (De Vaus, 1986; Rubio, Berg-Weger, Tebb, Lee, & Rauch, 2003) suggested to use a panel of experts who are familiar with the subject of study as they are able to establish face and content validity (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Thus, a panel of five experts in the field of sport management were recruited, who have previously conducted research on sport volunteers, to establish face validity of the used items in the survey. This was done by sending each professor an email along with an attachment of the survey, allowing them to provide feedback and suggestions regarding the removal or rewording of items to ensure appropriate usage. After receiving feedback from each expert, some questions in the survey were adjusted to better fit the volunteer setting. Further, the reason for pilot testing is to establish construct validity (Gratton & Jones, 2004). During pilot testing, the researcher relies on a smaller sample, but one that is representative of what the study is intending to explore. Therefore, a pilot study with 60 students with sport volunteer experience was conducted to review reliability and validity of scales used for this study. Before the survey was administered via pen and paper, students were informed about the purpose of study. Students were instructed to rely on former volunteer experiences at football games when responding to the items listed on the survey, while also adding additional feedback. Once the survey was completed, the

82

researcher reviewed each for additional feedback and created a final instrument based on results from the pilot test.

Instrumentation

To date, there are various survey instruments that assess human resource engagement within paid staff literature and volunteers of nonprofit organizations (Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer, & Schaufeli, 2003; May et al., 2004; Rich et al., 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2002a; Shuck et al., 2017; Soane et al., 2012). Typically, an individual's engagement is referred to as a psychological state, which implies behavior that focuses on meeting or exceeding organizational goals (Shuck & Wollard, 2010). Previous literature identified motivation to be an underlying factor of engagement (Kahn, 1990). Researchers Macey and Schneider (2008) tend to view the term human engagement as an 'umbrella term' (Schaufeli, 2013, p.7) demonstrating various definitions of engagement exist based on the approach one takes (Kahn, 1990; Harter et al., 2002; Maslach et al., 2001; Saks, 2006; Soane et al., 2012).

In order to evaluate the variables, the following measures were used: antecedents to engagement, person-task fit, employee engagement, person-task fit, satisfaction, psychological well-being, and retention. Items of those scales were previously established scales are rooted within the employment setting. Therefore, the wording of some items was adjusted to accurately represent the volunteer setting. For example, one item stated, "I am really focused when I am working," which was modified into "I am really focused when I am volunteering." Another example was "I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated" that was changed into "I do not feel that the volunteer work I do is appreciated."

At the beginning of the survey, participants were asked to fill out 11 demographic questions, including the amount of time they have volunteered in the past for other or this specific

event. Throughout the remainder of the survey, participants were reminded to best answer the questions based on the event which they most recently volunteered at.

The survey contained six sections (i.e., demographic information, antecedents to engagement, engagement, satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain). In order to ensure that item ambiguity will be eliminated, each item was assessed in the initial phase (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Though items were used from previously established and validated scales, a panel of five experts was asked to review the survey to assess content validity. Additionally, a pilot study with 60 students with sport volunteer experience was conducted to measure item reliability. Each scale will be addressed below. Appendix A shows individual scale items measuring antecedents to engagement, engagement, and outcome variables.

Demographics

Eleven items were incorporated at the beginning of the survey to assess descriptive statistics to understand the sample population and to have the ability to segment participants into sub-groups of interest posited in the study. Following strategies of previous studies regarding engagement or sport volunteers, selected questions included basic demographics information of gender, race, age, education, and volunteer experiences (Downward et al., 2005; Khoo & Engelhorn, 2007; Schlesinger et al., 2013).

Antecedents to Engagement

Three antecedents to engagement that have been identified in the literature are psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety, and psychological availability (Kahn, 1990). May et al. (2004) measured the mediating effect of all three variables on engagement and found significant and positive relationships with engagement, while psychological meaningfulness exhibited the strongest relation. To measure the three psychological antecedents

to engagement, 13 questions from May et al.'s (2004) study were adjusted to fit the volunteer setting. To measure psychological meaningfulness to assess one's degree of meaning given to work-related activities, May et al. (2004) relied on six items from Spreitzer (1995) and May (2003) with strong internal consistency of α =.90. For example, the item "The work I do on this job is very important to me" was reworded into "The work I do on this volunteer job is very important to me." Also, the item "My activities are personally meaningful to me" was adjusted to "My volunteer activities are personally meaningful to me." Another adjustment was made for the item that stated, "the work I do on this job is worthwhile" to "the work I do on this volunteer job is worthwhile." The item "my job activities are significant to me" was changed into "my volunteer activities are significant to me." Also, the item "the work I do on this job is meaningful to me" was adjusted to "the work I do on this volunteer job is meaningful to me." Finally, "I feel that the work I do on my job is valuable" was changed into "I feel that the work I do on my volunteer job is valuable."

To measure psychological safety, May et al. (2004) averaged three items based on Kahn's (1990) discussion with internal consistency of α =.71. First, the item "I'm not afraid to be myself at work" was adjusted to "I'm not afraid to be myself at the volunteer activity." Second, "I am afraid to express my opinions at work" was reworded to "I am afraid to express my opinions at my volunteer activity. Both, the second and third items were reversed scored. Lastly, psychological availability was measured to understand one's cognitive, physical, and emotional ability to be available for work activities. Based on Kahn's (1990) work, five items were averaged and had an internal consistency of α =.85. For the purpose of this study, four items were chosen and adjusted to fit the volunteer setting. The word "work" was replaced with "volunteer activity" for each item. Responses were recorded on a 7-point Likert-type scale.

Person-Task Fit

To measure person-task fit, another antecedent, three items were adopted form Kim et al.'s, (2007) study, which in turn was based on Lauver and Kristof-Brown's (2001) original Perceived Person-Job fit scale. As in Kim et al.'s (2007) study, the researcher focused specifically on items that were measuring P-T fit, which meant that two items out of the five-item scale were eliminated. Kim et al. (2007) reported strong internal consistency (α = .91), and the average variance extracted (AVE) value exceeded 0.50 with 0.76, demonstrating that the items represented the construct well (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair, Anderson, Tatham,, & Black, 1998). For the purpose of the current study, questions were modified to fit the volunteer setting. For example, the item "My abilities fit the demands of this job" was modified into "My abilities fit the demands of my volunteer work." Another example, "I have the right skills and abilities for doing this job" was adjusted to "I have the right skills for carrying out my volunteer assignment." Lastly, the item "There is a good match between the requirements of this job and my skills" was adjusted to "There is a good match between the requirements of my volunteer work and my skills." Responses were scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree.

Engagement

To measure engagement, Shuck, Adelson, et al.'s (2017) 12-item employee engagement scale was used. To develop this instrument, the scholars went through a multi-study approach, which identified that the sub-dimensions collectively create a higher-order 'overall engagement' construct. This scale assesses the following three sub-dimensions: cognitive, emotional, and behavioral engagement and has been tested across four independent studies within the human resource and management fields. The researchers developed the scale based on their definition

that engagement "describes an active motivational state encapsulating the full working experience" (Shuck, Adelson, et al., 2017, p. 958). Each subscale proved to have strong internal consistency, with cognitive engagement $\alpha = 0.94$, emotional engagement $\alpha = 0.88$, and behavioral engagement $\alpha = 0.91$. The response format consisted of a 7-point Likert-type response, ranging from strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree.

Satisfaction

Volunteer satisfaction was measured utilizing three out of eight items from Green and Chalip's (2004) satisfaction scale. In their initial survey, Green and Chalip (2004) asked volunteers from the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games to rank eight key aspects of their volunteer satisfaction with their respective experience in regard to "training, job assignment, rewards earned, distribution of rewards, recognition, support, equality, and the relationship between paid staff and volunteers" (p. 56-57). The item "I am satisfied with the overall experience of being a volunteer" was adjusted to "I am satisfied with the overall experience of being a football bowl game volunteer." The volunteer satisfaction scale was validated with an alpha score of 0.90 to measure internal consistency. The response format consisted of a 7-point

Likert-type scale, ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree.

Psychological Well-Being

Additionally, psychological well-being was assessed by utilizing Schwartz Outcome Scale [SOS-10; Blais et al., 1999]. Four items were selected because they were most applicable to the volunteer context. This ten item scale has been created to specifically measure an individual's health and well-being and has been validated in multiple languages (Blais, 2012; Blais et al., 1999). The scale asks participants to respond to ten statements from 1 (never) to 7 (all or nearly all the time). The highest possible score is 70, indicating greater psychological

well-being, while lower scores indicate worse psychological health. Though the SOS-10 does not have a validity scale, scores that are extremely high occur less than two percent and should be considered invalid (Blais, 2012). Numerous studies reported internal consistency ranging from 0.84 to 0.96 (Blais et al., 2012; Haggerty, Blake, Naraine, Siefert, & Blais, 2010; Young, Waehler, Laux, McDanie, & Hillsenroth, 2003). Participants were asked to respond on a scale from 1 (never) to 7 (all or nearly all the time) to four statements that fit the volunteer context.

Intention to Remain

Lastly, intention to remain was assessed using three items from Price and Mueller's (1986) four item intention to stay scale. One item, "I plan to leave the organization as soon as possible", was removed from the scale as it did not fit the volunteer setting for the current study. Internal consistency for this scale has been validated with scores ranging from 0.85 to 0.90 (Kim, Price, Mueller, & Watson, 1996; Price & Kim, 1993). Additionally, Markowitz (2012) utilized the scale and reported a Cronbach's alpha of 0.89 to measure internal reliability in his study. For the purpose of the current study, questions were modified to fit the volunteer setting. For example, the item "I plan to stay at this organization as long as possible" was modified into "I plan to volunteer at this organization as long as possible." Another example "I plan to leave this organization as soon as possible" was adjusted to "I plan to never volunteer with this organization again." Responses were scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree. The adapted questions addressing each of the individual scales are listed in Appendix A.

Model Procedures

Factor analysis was conducted and the fit of the measurement model was analyzed to determine if questions from Shuck, Adelson, et al.'s (2017) employee engagement scale are valid

questions for sport volunteers. In order to use structural equation modeling, the researcher followed the suggested two-step process by Anderson and Gerbing's (1988). Here, the initial step consisted of assessing the measurement model's suitability by analyzing the model's identification. Model identification is described as assessing "whether enough information exists to identify a solution for a set of structural equations" (Hair et al., 1998, p. 771). The second step involved testing the assumptions of multivariate normality. Robust maximum likelihood (MLR) estimation was used for SEM analysis as it is the most popular method to assess continuous outcomes (Kline, 2011).

After the measurement model fit was tested through the reproduction of a model, a structural model was assessed. The following fit indices were used in the proposed study: chi-square, Root Means Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Standardized Root Mean Residual (SRMR) as suggested by Kline (2005). Additionally, two facets of criterion-related validity were explored: convergent and discriminant validity. Both allow for the evaluation of measures against each rather than "an external standard" (Kline, 2011, p. 71). Alternative models were tested as necessary, given the fit of the proposed model. Differences between groups were explored by conducting an analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Sample Size

In order to determine the sample size, the researcher first has to consider the level of power, the effect size, and the alpha level. In this case, power explains, "the probability of getting statistically significant results over random samples when the null hypothesis is false" (Kline, 2016, p. 52). Hair and colleagues (2005) suggested that .80 or anything above is an acceptable level of power. Iacobucci (2010) stated that when considering SEM, the general approach would be to have a sample size that is greater than 200. To address effect size,

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) reasoned that "the proportion of variance in the DV that is associated with levels of an IV… it assesses the amount of total variance of the DV that is predictable from knowledge of the levels of the IV" (p. 53). Therefore, following the suggestion "a medium effect of 0.5 is visible to the naked eye of a careful observer" (p. 156) while an effect size above 0.5 represents a mean difference greater than one standard deviation. Also, effect size will be evaluated using R^2. Additionally, the bootstrapping technique was applied (Efron, 1979). Bootstrapping is a resampling method, which attempts to estimate statistical precision through the combination of cases from the data set in various ways (Kline, 2016).

Data Analysis

For the data analysis of this research project, the researcher utilized SEM to assess the measurement model fit and proposed a structural model, assessing relationships and their strengths between latent variables. Hu and Bentler (1999) explained that "a structural equation model represents a series of hypotheses about how the variables in the analysis are generated and related" (p. 2). Thus, to apply the SEM technique, one has to begin with specifying a model that will be estimated and then assess the goodness of fit. Utilizing SEM allows for the researcher to not only account for measurement errors, but to analyze complex theoretical models along with latent variables.

Once the collected data was coded, analysis was conducted to confirm the reliability and construct validity of the instrument. Reliability was assessed by examining the Cronbach's alpha of the observed measures that were part of the instrument. Hair and colleagues (1998) proposed that those alphas should be greater than .70. The researcher utilized CFA in order to examine the reliability of each item. Thus, any items that had a factor loading below .50 were removed from the analysis (Hair et al., 2005).

Next, once reliability and construct validity were confirmed, a CFA was utilized on the measurement model. It is important to first establish a reliable measurement model before one can conduct an analysis of the structural model (Lomax, 2010). The purpose of conducting a CFA of the measurement model is to be able to examine how well observed variables infer to latent variables. Thus, it is necessary to examine the measurement models adequacy with CFA first for data fit, before one can test the structural model (Yang, 2005). Mplus 8.0 was utilized to perform the CFA with MLR estimation. Since the data was non-normal, the robust maximum likelihood estimation (MLR) was utilized in order to create maximum likelihood parameter estimates along with standard errors robust to non-normality (Bentler &. Yuan, 1999). Hair and colleagues (2010) proposed a four-stage process to assume for a CFA. First, define the individual constructs. Next, develop a measurement model. Third, test the measurement model. Lastly, assess the validity of the measurement model.

Significance was determined at the .05 level (t = 1.96), following Lomax (2010) suggestions. As proposed by Hair et al. (2010), the researcher followed the guidelines to use the four goodness of fit (GOF) measures to compare similarities between the observed and estimated covariance matrices along with the indicator items to assess the measurement model. Thus, the researcher analyzed the fit indices for the following four measures: chi-square, Root Means Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Standardized Root Mean Residual (SRMR). McCallum and colleagues (1996) suggested a RMSEA of .08 or less demonstrated an acceptable fit of the model. A value of zero demonstrates the best result as this absolute fit index is scaled as "a badness-of-fit statistic" (Kline, 2016, p. 273). Per recommendation from Schumacker and Lomax (2004), a SRMR of .05 or less is an acceptable fit

as higher values indicate a worse fit (Kline, 2016). A CFI of 1.0 demonstrates a perfect fit of the model (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Results of the CFA are explained in the following chapter.

The usage of SEM is more popular when examining the process "by which an independent variable X is thought to affect the dependent variable Y, directly, or indirectly through a mediator" (Iacobucci, 2010, p. 93) and because latent variables cannot be directly measured (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Even though previous researchers heavily relied on regressions to understand and measure these relationships, SEM has been deemed to be better and more efficiently when estimating the relationships (Iacobucci, 2008). An analysis was conducted to determine the overall fit of the structural model. The fit of the model was established by examining the four goodness of fit indices. The proposed hypotheses were either supported or rejected based on statistical significance and by analyzing the direction of the coefficients within the measurement model. Analysis was conducted using Mplus 8.0 software (Muthen & Muthen, 1998-2017). Also, ANOVA tests were utilized to assess subgroup differences on engagement and/or on other outcomes.

Summary

This chapter offered the methods employed to be able to conduct this study. Procedures to measure reliability and validity were also addressed. It reviewed the research design and provided the sampling, data collection, and proposed items to be included in the survey from previously verified scales. The chapter also described the instrumentation utilized in the data analysis, which was reviewed by a panel of experts. A proposed measurement model was presented to assess if the questions measure what they are supposed to measure. In order to analyze the data, structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted to test the proposed model along with the research hypotheses. As soon as the items used in the survey were deemed

appropriate, the researcher sought IRB approval to conduct this study. The results are discussed

in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER IV. RESULTS

This chapter addresses the results of the study. It also explores the background of the sample, examines the hypothesized structural model to the alternative models, examines the proposed hypotheses, and concludes with a summary of the chapter. To analyze the hypotheses, structural equation model was utilized to test the proposed model and identify significant relations between the variables. Additionally, ANOVA tests were run to find significant differences in engagement when controlling for selected demographic variables.

Sample Size

The researcher anticipated a sample of at least 300 individuals. A sample size of 300 respondents would strengthen statistical power and reduce the possibility of a Type II error. Participants for this study consisted of volunteers at football bowl games across all types of job duties. The participants were contacted through the organization they volunteered for and received the survey forwarded in an email. The current study incorporated eight scales measuring 38 items, including 11 demographic information questions for a total of 49 items on the questionnaire. Appendix B shows the questionnaire.

Background of the Sample

Data collection started on December 20, 2019 when the survey was sent out to all participating bowls. It lasted for approximately seven weeks and closed on February 5, 2020. Four hundred and eighty ($n = 480$) respondents participated in this study, which represented 15% of possible respondents. Full information maximum likelihood estimation (FIML), commonly referred to as the individual raw-score likelihood method, was applied to account for missing data (McDonald, & Ho, 2002). Out of this total population, 16 were excluded due to missing information, which left a total of 464 usable surveys.

Gender. A frequency analysis of gender indicated that 265 (55.2%) of the respondents were male while 214 (44.6%) of the sample were female. One respondent (0.2%) of the sample did not wish to report their gender.

Race/Ethnicity. A frequency analysis of ethnicity demonstrated that 317 (66.7%) of the respondents were White. The second highest respondent group (n=78 or 16.3%) self-identified as Black or African American. Further, American Indian/Alaskan Native, Asian/Pacific Islander, Hispanic or Latino, and Other were all combined into one category of 16.7% as Other.

Highest Level of Education Completed. A frequency analysis of highest education completed showed that 211 (44%) indicated earning a Bachelor's Degree. The second highest respondent group of 112 (23.3%) reported earning a Master's Degree. Next, 70 (14.6%) of the participants' highest educational attainment was a high school diploma, 45 (9.4%) indicated earning an Associate Degree, while 24 (5%) reported earning a Doctorate, and 18 (3.3%) reported earning a Vocational Degree.

Hours traveled to the Event. A frequency analysis of hours traveled to the event indicated that 286 (59.6%) traveled less than one hour, 75 (15.6%) reported traveling 1-2 hours, and 71 (14.8%) reported traveling more than 6 hours. Further, 13 (2.7%) reported traveling 2-3 hours, 12 (2.5%) reported traveling 3-4 hours, 12 (2.5%) reported traveling 4-5 hours, and 11 (2.3%) reported traveling 5-6 hours.

Age. A frequency analysis of age reported that 142 (29.6%) belonged to the 55-64 age group. The second highest respondent group of 105 (21.9%) were part of the 65-74 age group. Next, 91 (19%) belonged to the 45-54 age group, while 59 (12.3%) to the 35-44 age group. Also, 36 (7.5%) were part of the 25-34 age group, 34 (7.1%) of the participates indicated they belong to the 18-24 age group, and finally 13 (2.7%) belonged to the 75 or older age group.

Sport Events volunteered for in One Year. A frequency analysis of how many sport events an individual volunteers for within one year indicated that 168 (35%) participate in 1-2. The second highest group of 122 (25.4%) responded they participate in 3-4. Further, 112 (23.3%) reported to only volunteer for one event, while 43 (9%) reported to participate in more than six sport events. Lastly, 25 (5.2%) indicated to participate in 4-5, and 10 (2.1%) participate in 5-6.

Previous Volunteer Experience at the Current Event. A frequency analysis examining if individuals have previously volunteered for their respective bowl game demonstrated that 278 (57.9%) have previously volunteered, while 202 (42.1%) have not.

Number for Current Bowl Game. A frequency analysis of how many times volunteers have previously volunteered for their specific bowl game showed that 165 (34.4%) of the participants reported they volunteered more than six times. The second highest group of 31 (6.5%) volunteered twice, 28 (5.8%) of the participants have volunteered once, 23 (4.8%) volunteered three times, 17 (3.5%) participated four times previously, 16 (3.3%) volunteered five times, and 11 (2.3%) participated six times.

Training. A frequency analysis of what type of training participants received indicated that 361 (75.1 %) of respondents received in-person training, 98 (20.4%) reported they received no training, and 21 (4.4%) reported they received online training.

Awareness. A frequency analysis of how participants became aware of this volunteer opportunity reported that 172 (35.8%) participants knew of this opportunity through a friend. The second highest group of 155 (32.3%) participants knew of this opportunity through email, while 118 (24.6%) reported they knew of this opportunity through other. Also, 28 (5.8%) became aware of this volunteer opportunity through school, whereas 5 (1%) reported through a newsletter, and 2 (0.4%) reported through the radio.

Appendix C offers a frequency table of all demographic variables assessed in this study.

Evidence of Reliability & Validity

This study relied on eight scales that were adapted from previously verified instruments. To ensure the reliability of each scale, a CFA was conducted on each item within the adapted scales. Hair et al. (2005) suggested factor loadings should have a cut-off value at 0.5. Therefore, any items that did not achieve a factor loading of 0.50 or greater were removed from overall statistical analysis (Hair et al., 2005). After the CFA was conducted, the Cronbach's alpha of each scale was assessed. Acceptable values for Cronbach's alpha to measure internal consistency are usually above .70 (Nunnally, 1978). However, when a scale only has a few items, Hair and colleagues (2006) suggested that values near .60 are also acceptable. Missing data was accounted for by FIML. Table 1 demonstrates descriptive statistics for each scale along with the correlations. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was utilized to assess internal consistency.

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of the Study Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Ethnicity	2.01	1.82	1											
2. Age	4.34	1.53	-.126**	1										
3. CE	6.50	.83	-0.021	-0.008	1									
4. EE	6.30	.92	0.029	-0.024	.602**	1								
5. BE	6.36	.85	0.011	-0.035	.674**	.678**	1							
6. ATEM	6.39	.82	0.020	0.030	.617**	.756**	.803**	1						
7. ATES	4.66	.74	0.031	-0.019	.365**	.424**	.475**	.503**	1					
8. ATEA	6.45	.59	-.092*	-0.062	.327**	.437**	.499**	.481**	.352**	1				
9. ITR	6.22	1.05	0.023	.158**	.192**	.483**	.331**	.454**	.205**	.391**	1			
10. SAT	6.19	.91	0.020	0.051	.227**	.450**	.343**	.503**	.261**	.466**	.603**	1		
11. PTF	6.55	.55	-0.060	0.031	.217**	.279**	.333**	.336**	.236**	.457**	.326**	.405**	1	
12. PWB	6.57	.48	-0.050	-0.020	.150	.187**	.275**	.260**	.206**	.394**	.132**	.261**	.422**	1

*Note. CE= cognitive engagement; EE= emotional engagement; BE= behavioral engagement; ATEM= meaningfulness; ATES= safety; ATEA= availability; ITR= intention to remain; SAT= satisfaction; PTF= person-task fit; PWB= psychological well-being; p<.05, **p<.01*

Results

Antecedents to Engagement

To measure antecedents to engagement, three previously verified scales were adapted from May et al. (2004) for this study that specifically addressed meaningfulness (measured with six items), safety (measured with three items), and availability (measured with four items). Overall the scale to measure antecedents to engagement had strong internal consistency with (α = .89). On the survey, items used to measure meaningfulness were 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, and 29. The scale to measure meaningfulness had strong internal consistency (α = .95). All six items to measure meaningfulness had a factor loading that exceeded the acceptable threshold. Item 24 had a factor loading of .886 (M = 6.38, SD = .91). Item 25 had a factor loading of .924 (M = 6.41; SD = .91). Item 26 had a factor loading of .837 (M= 6.41, SD= .91). Item 27 had a factor loading of .900 (M = 6.42, SD = .88). Item 28 had a factor loading of .926 (M = 6.35, SD = .92). Item 29 had a factor loading of .854 (M = 6.37, SD = .92).

Safety was assessed using three items from a previously verified scale from May et al. (2004). On the survey, items to measure safety were 30, 31, and 32. Just as during the pilot testing, one item proved to cause problems. A possible reason for item 32 to have a low factor loading of .058 (M = 1.59, SD = 1.14) could have been due to reversed scoring. With this item being included in the scale, the overall scale had poor internal consistency (α = .354). Due to poor performance and expert recommendations, item 32 was excluded and removed from the scale. This led to witnessing an increase in the scale's internal consistency (α =.68), which is borderline acceptable. Item 30 had a factor loading of .815 (M = 6.42, SD = .93) while item 31 also had a factor loading of .661 (M = 5.94, SD = 1.244).

Availability was assessed using four items from May et al.'s (2004) scale. On the survey, the items to measure availability were 33, 34, 35, and 36. This scale had good internal consistency with ($\alpha = .84$). All four items in this scale had a factor loading exceeding the acceptable threshold. Item 33 had a strong factor loading of .734 ($M = 6.39$, $SD = .79$). Item 34 had a strong factor loading of .800 ($M = 6.42$, $SD = .72$). Item 35 had a factor loading of .828 ($M = 6.52$, $SD = .68$). Lastly, item 36 had a factor loading of .697 ($M = 6.48$, $SD = .68$).

Person-Task Fit

Person-task fit was assessed through the utilization of Lauver and Kristof-Brown's (2001) three item scale. On the survey instrument, person-task fit was measured by items 50, 51, and 52. This scale had an acceptable internal consistency ($\alpha = .78$). All items met the acceptable threshold. Item 50 had a factor loading of .630 ($M = 6.67$, $SD = .49$). Item 51 had a factor loading of .814 ($M = 6.49$, $SD = .75$). Item 52 had a factor loading of .808 ($M = 6.51$, $SD = .72$).

Engagement

Engagement was assessed through the utilization of Shuck, Adelson, et al.'s (2017) 12 item employee engagement scale. Items were adapted to fit the volunteer context. The three subscales that are part of the main scale, each measured with four items, were: cognitive, emotional, and behavioral engagement. Item parceling was performed for engagement consisting of 12 items. Little and colleagues (2002) suggested that item parceling provides a number of psychometric and estimation advantages when utilizing structural equation modeling. There are three factor loadings that represent the mean of each subscale. A single mean score of each of the items of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral engagement was created. Each subscale had strong internal consistency. Cognitive engagement had a strong internal consistency ($\alpha = .92$). On the survey, the items to measure cognitive engagement were 12, 13, 14, and 15. The factor loading

for all four items combined was 0.720 (*M* = 6.50, *SD* = .83). On the survey, items to measure

emotional engagement were 16,17, 18, and 19. Emotional engagement had a strong internal

consistency (*α* = .89). All four items had factor loadings that exceeded the acceptable threshold.

The factor loading for all four items combined was 0.803 (*M* = 6.30, *SD* = .92). Lastly, on the

survey items to measure behavioral engagement were 20, 21, 22, and 23. Behavioral engagement

had strong internal consistency (*α* = .91). The factor loading for all four items combined was

0.885 (*M* = 6.36, *SD* = .85).

Satisfaction

Satisfaction was measured using items adapted from Green and Chalip's (2004) scale. On

the survey instrument, satisfaction was measured by items 40, 41, and 42. The scale's overall

consistency was acceptable (*α* =.76). All items had acceptable factor loading, with Item 40

having a factor loading of .674 (*M* = 6.02, *SD* = 1.21). Item 42 had a factor loading of .723 (*M* =

6.21, *SD* = 1.14). Item 43 had a factor loading of .806 (*M* = 6.37, *SD* = .93).

Psychological Well-Being

Psychological well-being was assessed using items adapted from Blair et al.'s (1999)

Schwartz Outcome Scale (SOS-10) that fit the volunteer context for this study. On the survey

instrument items 58, 59, 60, and 61 were used to measure psychological well-being. The

psychological well-being scale had an acceptable internal consistency (*α* =.72). Even though

item 58 had a fairly low factor loading of .402 (*M* = 6.53, *SD* = .69), it was not removed from the

scale as the overall scale had an internal consistency of above .70. Item 59 had a factor loading

of .680 (*M* = 6.64, *SD* = .65). Item 60 had a factor loading of .790 (*M* = 6.50, *SD* = .69). Item 61

had a factor loading of .708 (*M* = 6.62, *SD* = .59).

Intention to Remain

Intention to remain was measured using items adapted from Price and Mueller's (1986) scale. On the survey instrument items 37, 38, and 39 were used to measure intention to remain. Overall this scale had good internal consistency (α = *.84*). Each item in the adapted scale also had acceptable factor loading and was therefore retained. Item 37 had a factor loading of .868 (*M* = 6.49, *SD* = .98). Item 38 had a factor loading of .689 (*M* = 5.97, *SD* = 1.41. Item 39 had a factor loading of .905 (*M* = 6.32, *SD* = 1.18). The mean, standard deviation, and Cronbach alpha of all items can be found in Appendix D.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Proposed Model

After reliability testing was completed, a CFA was conducted on the proposed measurement models. It is important to conduct a CFA of the measurement model because it explains how well the observed variables infer with the latent variables. Based on prior suggestions, the level of significance of interference was determined and set at 0.05 (t = 1.96, n > 464). To determine the overall fit of the measurement model, the researcher examined the following four goodness of fit measures: chi-square along with degrees of freedom and probability of the chi-square, RMSEA (< .08), SRMR (< .05), and CFI (> .90).

The initial CFA indicated unacceptable model fit with chi-square (Rχ2 = 2343.791, df = 636, p-value = 0.0000), RMSEA (0.075), SRMR (0.062), and CFI (0.788). One item from the safety (factor loading 0.058) scale should be removed from the proposed measurement model. The inclusion of this item on the safety scale created instability due to its poor performance and low internal consistency. Additionally, another suggestion was made to remove one item from psychological well-being scale, as item 58 had a poor factor loading of 0.402. However, the inclusion of this item allowed for the scale to have an acceptable Cronbach alpha while its

removal would have been inconsistent with theory. Therefore, after adjustments have been made

and the safety item was removed, internal consistency improved, which allowed for the proposed

measurement model to have a better fit.

The relationship among the main constructs were examined through correlations. The

correlation of meaningfulness to engagement was relatively high, which indicated the possibility

of multicollinearity. The researcher examined the multilinear regression with all four antecedents

to engagement in order to determine tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) statistics.

When examining multicollinearity, it is important to investigate the tolerance as well as the

(VIF). Tolerance can be examined by investigating the proportion of variance, which is not

described by other variables and would lead to severe multicollinearity if the values are below

.10. At the same time, if the VIF value is higher than 10, multicollinearity does exist (Kline,

2005; Lomax, 2010). Table 2 demonstrates the collinearity diagnostics and shows that

multicollinearity did not occur in antecedents to engagement, specifically meaningfulness to

engagement.

Table 2. Collinearity Diagnostics for Engagement and Meaningfulness (DV Eng)

	Tolerance	VIF
Meaningfulness	.638	1.567
Safety	.685	1.460
Availability	.643	1.555
Person-Task Fit	.771	1.297

Following the modification of the measurement for safety, the proposed measurement

model had a better fit, but it was still not within the acceptable limits: chi-square ($R\chi2$ =

2257.967, df = 600; p-value = 0.000), RMSEA (0.076), SRMR (0.063), and CFI (0.789).

Additional modification indices were suggested but were theoretically implausible.

CFA of the Proposed Model after Modification

In the alternative model, engagement was held as a second-order construct, with three engagement subscales as first-order constructs. In the initial analysis, not all factor loadings were significant, and the overall model fit was poor. Due to poor fit, modifications were made. The initial adjustment was not enough to have a proper fit among the four goodness of fit indices. Additionally, after the alternative model showed challenges, engagement was split up into three subscales. Engagement was initially measured as one scale rather than with first-order latent variables. Instead of relying on one scale, latent variables loaded better on engagement as it identifies as a second-order construct. Following these modifications, the proposed measurement model had an acceptable fit: chi-square ($R\chi2$ = 703.068, df = 321, p-value = 0.0000), RMSEA (0.050), SRMR (0.048), and CFI (0.925). Table 3 illustrates the factor loadings between the observed and latent variables in the proposed measurement model after additional modifications were conducted.

Model Comparison

In order to choose the final model, the researcher compared the initial proposed model with the second proposed model after modifications for the measurement of safety have been conducted (model 2), and the third proposed model after additional adjustments have been made in regard the measurement for engagement (model 3) based on goodness of fit indices, which included the chi-square ($\chi2$), RMSEA, SRMR, and CFI. Due to better values, the third proposed model (model 3) indicated a better fit regarding overall model fit. Table 4 illustrates the fit indices of the initial, second, and third measurement model.

Table 3. Factor Loadings of the Overall CFA

Item	Engagement C	Engagement E	Engagement B	Antecedents to Engagement	P-T Fit	Satisfaction	Intention to Remain	Psychological Well-Being
ENG 1C								
ENG 2C	0.720							
ENG 3C								
ENG 4C								
ENG 5E								
ENG 6E		0.803						
ENG 7E								
ENG 8E								
ENG 9B								
ENG 10B			0.885					
ENG 11B								
ENG 12B								
ATE 1M				0.866				
ATE 2M				0.924				
ATE 3M				0.837				
ATE 4M				0.900				
ATE 5M				0.926				
ATE 6M				0.854				
ATE 7S				0.815				
ATE 8S				0.661				
ATE 10A				0.734				
ATE 11A				0.800				
ATE 12A				0.828				
ATE 13A				0.697				
PTF 1					0.630			
PTF 2					0.803			
PTF 3					0.885			

Table cont'd

Item	Engagement C	Engagement E	Engagement B	Antecedents to Engagement	P-T Fit	Satisfaction	Intention to Remain	Psychological Well-Being
SAT 1						0.674		
SAT 2						0.723		
SAT 3						0.806		
ITR 1							0.868	
ITR 2							0.689	
ITR 3							0.905	
PWB 1								0.402
PWB 2								0.680
PWB 3								0.790
PWB 4								0.708

Table 4. Model and Parameter Estimates

Model	Rχ^2	Df	p-value	RMSEA (90% CI)	SRMR	CFI
Model 1	2343.791	636	0.000	0.075 (.072, .078)	0.062	0.788
Model 2	2257.967	600	0.000	0.076 (.073, .079)	0.063	0.789
Model 3	703.068	321	0.000	0.050 (.045, .055)	0.048	0.920

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)- Modeling Analysis

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is described as a multivariate statistical approach. This type of approach allows researchers to test theories on "how hypothesized sets of variables define constructs and how these constructs are related to each another" (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004, p. 2). In other words, SEM is a regression model consisting of observed and latent variables (Lee, 2007). Observed variables can be detected directly and can be measured. Latent variables, on the other hand, are variables one cannot directly observe. Rather they are hypothesized concepts which can be deduced from observable variables (Burnette & Williams, 2005). Kaplan (2008) explained that SEM consists of a measurement model and a structural model. With the measurement model, the researcher is able to view the relation of the observed variables to the latent variables. With the structural model, the researcher is able to view causal relations. Therefore, the measurement model is explored in CFA, while path analysis or multiple regression is for the structural model (Corral-Verdugo, 2002).

CFA of the initially proposed and the then adjusted measurement models resulted in a measurement model with an acceptable fit. The fit indices for the structural model were: Chi-square (R$\chi 2$ = 1148.103, df = 333, p-value = 0.0000), RMSEA (0.072), SRMR (0.082), and CFI

(.908). See Appendix E for the initial full proposed structural model and Appendix F for the selected structural model.

R^2 identifies the amount of variance the model explains for each latent dependent variable. The R^2 of 0.86 showed that approximately 86% of the variance in engagement can be explained by the overall model. The R^2 of 0.30 illustrated that 30% of the variance in satisfaction can be explained by the overall model. The R^2 of 0.11 showed that approximately 11% of the variance in psychological well-being can be explained by the overall model. Lastly, the R^2 of 0.23 demonstrated that approximately 23% of the variance in intention to remain can be explained by the overall model.

Hypothesis Testing

Each hypothesis was either supported or rejected pending on the accepted structural model. Appendix G shows the direct and indirect effects of the path estimates.

Hypothesis 1 stated that *Meaningfulness will be a significant predictor of engagement*. The significance of the standardized β coefficient in the model indicated that meaningfulness had a significant direct relationship with engagement (β = .660, *p* < .001). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was supported. Meaningfulness was a significant predictor of engagement.

Hypothesis 2 stated that *Safety will be a significant predictor of engagement.* The significance of the standardized β coefficient in the model indicated that safety had a significant direct relationship with engagement (β = .227, *p* < .001). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was supported. Safety was a significant predictor of engagement.

Hypothesis 3 stated that *Availability will be a significant predictor of engagement.* The significance of the standardized β coefficient in the model indicated that availability had a

significant direct relationship with engagement ($\beta = .125$, $p < .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was supported. Availability was a significant predictor of engagement.

Hypothesis 4 stated that *Person-Task fit will be a significant predictor of engagement.* The significance of the standardized β coefficient in the model indicated that person-task fit had a significant direct relationship with engagement ($\beta = .035$, $p < .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was rejected. Person-Task fit was not a significant predictor of engagement.

Hypothesis 5 stated that *Engagement will be a significant predictor of satisfaction.* The significance of the standardized β coefficient in the model indicated that engagement had a significant direct relationship with satisfaction ($\beta = .552$, $p < .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was supported. Engagement was a significant predictor of satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6 stated that *Engagement will be a significant predictor of psychological well-being.* The significance of the standardized β coefficient in the model indicated that engagement had a significant direct relationship with psychological well-being ($\beta = .344$, $p < .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 6 was supported. Engagement was a significant predictor of psychological well-being.

Hypothesis 7 stated that *Engagement will be a significant predictor of intention to remain.* The significance of the standardized β coefficient in the model indicated that engagement had a significant direct relationship with intention to remain ($\beta = .482$, $p < .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was supported. Engagement was a significant predictor of intention to remain.

Hypothesis 8 stated that *Meaningfulness will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.* The significance of the standardized β coefficient in the model indicated that meaningfulness had a significant indirect relationship with

satisfaction (β = .365), had a significant indirect relationship with psychological well-being (β = .227), and had a significant indirect relationship with intention to remain (β = .318). All were statistically significant as the p-value was less than 0.001 for all three. Therefore, hypothesis 8 was supported. Meaningfulness was significantly related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.

Hypothesis 9 stated that *Safety will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.* The significance of the standardized β coefficient in the model indicated that safety had a significant indirect relationship with satisfaction (β = .126), had a significant indirect relationship with psychological well-being (β = .078), and had a significant indirect relationship with intention to remain (β= .110). All were statistically significant as the p-value was less than 0.001 for all three. Therefore, hypothesis 9 was supported. Safety was significantly related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.

Hypothesis 10 stated that *Availability will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.* The significance of the standardized β coefficient in the model indicated that availability had a significant indirect relationship (β = .069), had a significant indirect relationship with psychological well-being (β = .043), and had a significant indirect relationship with intention to remain (β = .060). All were statistically significant as the p-value was less than 0.05 for all three. Therefore, hypothesis 10 was supported. Availability was significantly related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.

Hypothesis 11 stated that *Person-Task fit will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.* The standardized β coefficient in the

model indicated that person-task fit did not have statistically significant indirect relationships. The satisfaction structure coefficient ($\beta = .035$), the psychological well-being structure coefficient ($\beta = .012$), and the intention to remain structure coefficient ($\beta = .017$) were all found to not be statistically significant at the 0.05 or 0.01 alpha level. Therefore, Hypothesis 11 was rejected. Person-Task fit was not a significantly related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement. Table 5 provides an overview of the direct and indirect effects.

Table 5. Direct and Indirect Effects

Direct Effect	ß	Boot CI 95% L	Boot CI 95% H	R²
Engagement				0.867
MEAN	0.660**	0.564	0.756	
SAFE	0.227**	0.144	0.337	
AVAIL	0.125**	0.049	0.224	
PTF	0.035	-0.012	0.097	
Satisfaction				0.306
Engagement	0.553**	0.388	0.719	
Psychological Wellbeing				0.118
Engagement	0.344**	0.193	0.494	
Intention to Remain				0.232
Engagement	0.482**	0.322	0.642	

Indirect Effect	ß	Boot CI 95% L	Boot CI 95% H	
Satisfaction				
MEAN - Eng	0.365**	0.248	0.482	
SAFE - Eng	0.126**	0.076	0.176	
AVAIL - Eng	0.069*	0.012	0.126	
PTF - Eng	0.019	-0.009	0.048	
Well-Being				
MEAN - Eng	0.227**	0.123	0.330	
SAFE - Eng	0.078**	0.039	0.118	
AVAIL - Eng	0.043*	0.004	0.082	
PTF - Eng	0.012	-0.007	0.031	
Intention to Remain				
MEAN - Eng	0.318**	0.209	0.428	
SAFE - Eng	0.110**	0.063	0.156	
AVAIL - Eng	0.060*	0.009	0.111	
PTF - Eng	0.017	-0.008	0.042	

Note: MEAN= meaningfulness; SAFE= safety AVAIL= availability; PTF= person-task fit; *ß*= standardized beta; SE= standard error of the unstandardized beta; Boot CI L 95% CI= low end of 95% bootstrap confidence interval; Boot CI H 95% CI= high end of 95% bootstrap confidence interval (1,000 bootstrap resamples). *p<.05, ** p<.01.

ANOVA

ANOVA test were run to determine if there were statistically significant differences in engagement when controlling for selected variables. In the sample, 263 respondents identified as males and the mean response was 6.38 (SD = .739). There were 214 individuals who identified as females, providing a mean of 6.39 (SD = .797). A one-way ANOVA revealed no significant difference between male and females at the .05 level (F = 0.002, p = .998).

Within the sample, 314 identified as white (M = 6.44, SD = .55), 78 identified as African American or Black (M = 6.09, SD = 1.28) and 20 identified as Other (M = 6.43, SD = .61). A one-way ANOVA revealed significant difference between ethnicities at the 0.5 level (F = .028, p = .001), as the post hoc comparisons, using the Tukey HSD test, indicated significant differences between the mean scores for White and African American or Black volunteers. These results suggest that White volunteers experience greater engagement than Black volunteers. The effect size was relatively small (σ^2 = 0.033), indicating ethnicity account for around 3.3% of the variance. No significant differences were found within other racial identities.

In the sample, 70 participants indicated receiving a High School Diploma (M = 6.36, SD = .79). Additionally, 18 indicated receiving a vocational degree (M = 6.37, SD = .68). 44 indicated receiving an associate degree (M = 6.48, SD =.89). Further, 209 participants identified they received a bachelor's degree (M =6.42, SD =.65). Also, 112 indicated they received a master's degree (M = 6.29, SD = .89). Lastly, 24 participants indicated receiving a PhD (M = 6.39, SD = .76). A one-way ANOVA revealed no significant difference between education received at the .05 level (F = .613, p = .690).

Out of the sample, 284 indicated they traveled less than one hour to volunteer in their bowl game (M = 6.34, SD = .87). Some participants (n = 75) traveled 1-2 hours (M = 6.47, SD =

.49). 13 respondents traveled 2-3 hours (M = 6.15, SD = .61). Other participants (n = 12) traveled 3-4 hours (M = 6.40, SD = .52). Another 12 indicated they traveled 4-5 hours (M = 6.34, SD = .66). Eleven participants reported they traveled 5-6 hours (M = 6.50, SD = .66). Lastly 70 participants reported they traveled more than 6 hours (M = 6.51, SD = .62). A one-way ANOVA revealed no significant difference between hours traveled to the event at the .05 level (F = .897, p = .497).

There was a total of seven age groups participants were grouped in. 33 reported to be part of the 18-24 age group (M = 6.53, SD = .48). 35 indicated to be part of the 25-34 age group (M = 6.43, SD = .52). Out of the sample, 58 responded to be part of the 35-44 age group (M = 6.22, SD = .95). Further, 91 participants reported to belong to the 45-55 age group (M = 6.45, SD = .57). The majority (n = 142) belonged to the 55-64 age group (M = 6.44, SD = .57). Another big portion of the sample (n = 105) identified as part of the 65-74 age group (M = 6.24, SD = 1.09). Lastly, 13 reported to be 75 or older (M = 6.81, SD = .26). A one-way ANOVA revealed a significant difference between age groups at the .05 level (F = 2.241, p = .038) as the post hoc comparisons, using the Tukey HSD test, indicated significant differences between the mean scores for certain age groups. A statistically significant difference was found between the age group of 65-74 and the age group 55-64. Another statistically significant difference was reported between the age group of 75 and older and the age group of 35-44. Additionally, a statistically significant difference was reported between the age group of 75 or older and the age group of 65-74. The effect size was relatively small (σ^2 = 0.028) and likely caused by sample size, which simultaneously indicated that 2.8% of the variance is explained by age. Table 6 illustrates the descriptive statistics for age variable while Table 7 provides the ANOA results of age with engagement.

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics: Age

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
18-24	33	6.53	.482	.084
25-34	35	6.43	.520	.088
35-44	58	6.22	.955	.125
45-54	91	6.45	.578	.060
55-64	142	6.44	.571	.047
65-74	105	6.24	1.095	.106
75 or older	13	6.81	.268	.074
Total	477	6.39	.764	.035

Table 7. ANOVA of Age with Engagement

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.737	6	1.289	2.241	.038
Within Groups	270.498	470	.576		
Total	278.234	476			

When asked about the training received for their volunteer job, 358 participants reported they received in-person training ($M = 6.38$, $SD = .78$). Online training was indicated to be received by 21 participants ($M = 6.30$, $SD = 1.27$). And a total of 98 indicated they did not receive any training ($M = 6.43$, $SD = .50$). A one-way ANOVA revealed no significant difference between training received at the .05 level ($F = .274$, $p = .760$).

Respondents answered to the question of how many sporting events they volunteer for during the year. A total of 111 volunteers indicated they only volunteered for this specific bowl game ($M = 6.33$, $SD = .89$). Additionally, 168 participants reported they volunteer for 1-2 events each year ($M = 6.38$, $SD = .66$). Another group of 120 responded they volunteer for 3-4 events each year ($M = 6.37$, $SD = .77$), while 25 people indicated they volunteer for 4-5 events each year ($M = 6.50$, $SD = .38$). Only 10 participants indicated they volunteered for 5-6 events ($M =$

6.77, $SD = .36$), while 43 participants volunteer for more than 6 events each year ($M = 6.46$, $SD = .94$). A one-way ANOVA revealed no significant difference between number of events volunteered per year at the .05 level ($F = .837$, $p = .524$).

When asked about the number of times one has volunteered for this specific bowl game, 27 indicated they have done so once ($M = 6.34$, $SD = .48$). Another 31 reported they volunteered twice before ($M = 6.12$, $SD = 1.09$). A total of 22 responded they volunteered three times before ($M = 6.29$, $SD = .13$). Additionally, 17 indicated they have volunteered four times previously ($M = 6.57$, $SD = .11$). Another 16 reported they have volunteered five times for their respective bowl game before ($M = 6.41$, $SD = .644$). Eleven individuals responded with a total of six previous volunteer participation ($M = 6.42$, $SD = .47$). Lastly, a total of 165 participants indicated they have volunteered more than six times for their respective bowl game ($M = 6.53$, $SD = .75$). A one-way ANOVA revealed no significant difference between number of times individuals have previously volunteered for their respective bowl game at the .05 level ($F = 1.632$, $p = .138$).

Summary

This fourth chapter reported results of the data analysis. Basic descriptive statistics were reported for demographic items as well as for each construct and the items of the survey that they were measured with. The variables meaningfulness, safety, and availability were all significantly associated with engagement, while engagement was significantly associated with satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain. After measurement modifications were conducted on the initial proposed measurement model, the third measurement model represented an acceptable fit based on the four goodness-of-fit indices and was chosen as the final model. Finally, nine of the eleven hypotheses were supported. After ANOVA tests were run, two statistically significant differences were identified when controlling for age and ethnicity

variables. Chapter 5 discusses the results and provides implications for future theory, research, and practice.

CHAPTER V. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The last chapter offers a summary of the study along with a discussion of the results, including the outcome of the ANOVA tests. Implications for theory and researchers, along with practical implications, limitations of the study, and future research recommendations are offered as well.

Summary of the Study

Research on engagement within the work setting is prevalent in human resource management literature, especially focusing on the context of paid staff. Despite the growing field of research in this area, there has been a demonstrated need for further investigations. Recent study into engagement within the work setting has focused on various industries, for-profit or nonprofits, addressing individual and organization outcomes (Albrecht, 2010; Akingbola & van den Berg, 2017; Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Halbesleben.& Wheeler, 2008; Harter et al., 2002; May et al., 2004; Vance, 2006). Further, some research, even though limited, began with the examination of engagement among volunteers in the nonprofit context (Alfes et al., 2016; Park et al., 2018; Vecina et al., 2012).

Yet, with the increased relevance of engagement, there has been a lack of applicability within the sport industry. Scholars reasoned that sport volunteers are a crucial human resource and extremely valuable. Therefore, research into the context of sport volunteer engagement is prudent. Previous studies significantly expanded sport volunteer literature from various perspectives including satisfaction (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Elstad, 1997; Green & Chalip, 2004; Johnston et al., 2000), commitment (Bang, 2011; Bang et al., 2013; Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Dorsch, Riemer, Sluth, Paskevich, & Chelladurai, 2002; Schlesinger et al., 2013), motivation (Bang & Ross, 2009; Downward et al., 2005; Fairely et al., 2007), and experience (Farrell et al.,

118

1998; Kodama et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2016). However, there have been very few to address engagement, albeit focusing more on the involvement aspect and its relation to sport volunteers (Hallmann & Harms, 2012; Swierzy et al., 2018; Wicker & Hallmann, 2013). This is in contrast to what has been identified as more traditional engagement research that utilizes Kahn's (1990) personal engagement conceptualization. As the number of sporting events expands, organizations continually increase their reliance on successfully recruiting volunteers to aid in the staging of those events. Further developing one's understanding of volunteer engagement in the sport context may add the potential for organizers to implement better strategies when creating meaningful roles for volunteers to be engaged in. As a result, this could result in better ways to recruit and retain those individuals for future events.

Furthermore, academic literature should be extended when focusing on sport volunteers. Direct relations exist between engagement and other important outcomes of volunteers and their involvement. Since volunteers have been described as individuals who are willing to "work for nothing" (Freeman, 1997, p. S160), this offers additional ways for new literature to research various approaches when comparing the management of volunteers to paid staff. Therefore, understanding the applicability of engagement within the sport volunteer context is needed due to the currently limited research in this specific area (Allen & Bartle, 2014).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate levels of engagement among sport volunteers at college football bowl games. Additionally, its aim was to measure how specific antecedents influence engagement, which in turn affects various outcomes. Finally, the study examined how engagement can be utilized as a mediator to measure how antecedents impact outcomes through engagement. This study also tested the applicability of engagement within the sport volunteer

119

setting. The two main research questions that guided this study were: What role does engagement play in bowl game volunteers' affective outcomes? Furthermore, will engagement predict a more significant variance in outcomes of satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain when controlling for gender, race, age, education, and volunteer experience? To investigate these research questions, 11 hypotheses were proposed in this study as follows:

Hypothesis 1: *Meaningfulness will be a significant predictor of engagement.*

Hypothesis 2: *Safety will be a significant predictor of engagement.*

Hypothesis 3: *Availability will be a significant predictor of engagement.*

Hypothesis 4: *Person-Task fit will be a significant predictor of engagement.*

Hypothesis 5: *Engagement will be a significant predictor of satisfaction.*

Hypothesis 6: *Engagement will be a significant predictor of psychological well-being.*

Hypothesis 7: *Engagement will be a significant predictor of intention to remain.*

Hypothesis 8: *Meaningfulness will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.*

Hypothesis 9: *Safety will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.*

Hypothesis 10: *Availability will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.*

Hypothesis 11: *Person-Task fit will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement.*

Discussion

In order to better articulate the findings of this study, the following section includes discussion based on each antecedent (psychological meaningfulness, safety, availability, and person-task fit), as well as each outcome (satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain). Finally, how each antecedent affected the outcomes through engagement is explained.

Antecedents to Engagement

In this study, the three antecedents to engagement were measured (i.e., psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability), as previous researchers underlined their influence on engagement (Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004). It was established that these three have a direct relationship with engagement and need to be met in order to exhibit higher levels of engagement. Engagement is a construct driven through one's "motivation with the intention to act" and is rooted within an individual's psychology. However, in order to be engaged, these three antecedents first need to be fulfilled. Within the current study, the proposed model, which was accepted after minor modifications were made, supports previous research in which meaningfulness, safety, and availability were all predictors of engagement (May et al., 2004). In the following section, each antecedent is addressed individually, along with the interpretation of the results below.

Meaningfulness. When individuals derive meaning from their involvement and task performance, they are more likely to be engaged as they perceive to do something that is worthwhile (Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990). This is especially true when they feel valued and believe their involvement makes a difference. In addition, interacting with other people while performing different tasks enhances meaningfulness associated with the task at hand. The findings in this study (i.e., *Meaningfulness will be a significant predictor of engagement*) support

121

previous research as there is a direct and significant relationship between meaningfulness and engagement. The volunteers in this study associated their participation in carrying out different tasks to be meaningful for themselves, while they believed their actions of giving back to something bigger allowed for increased levels of engagement. Not only does their involvement focus on their personal needs, but also helping others. Understanding what type of tasks are the most meaningful to volunteers, who are donating their personal time to contribute to an event, can be advantageous for event organizers. For example, knowing that an individual sees value in volunteering for the fan fest during the national championship game (based on being able to pick certain time slots), the event organizer can attempt to understand if working directly with people would be something that speaks to the volunteer. On the other hand, working hands-on behind the scenes might be another avenue for volunteers in which they perceive they are adding value in comparison to interacting with fans. Regardless, providing volunteers with the feeling and sense of being valued will increase their psychological meaningfulness and increase their willingness to be engaged during their task. Thus, being able to involve volunteers in activities from which they derive meaning is crucial as it is a key point in witnessing higher levels of engagement to "give that little bit extra" (Allen & Shaw, 2009, p. 84).

Safety. The second antecedent to engagement, psychological safety, is another relevant factor in one's ability to express higher levels of engagement (Kahn, 1990). Specifically, psychological safety addresses one's perception of having the ability to express oneself without having to fear any negative consequences (Kahn, 1990). Hypothesis 2 (*Safety will be a significant predictor of engagement*) supported previous studies that found safety plays a crucial role in enhancing engagement behavior from individuals (Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004). This can be explained from multiple angles. First, psychological safety is influenced through

122

interpersonal relationships as well as group dynamics. Within volunteer settings, one will most likely be asked to work with others on tasks together. As such, the better the overall group dynamic among volunteers, the more people will feel inclined to feel safe and able to express themselves. Second, having an environment in which one is able to create trust adds to psychological safety and, therefore the ability to show one's true self due to feelings of support. For an event organizer, this is important to take into consideration as the pairing of volunteers with others, along with management style, will significantly influence levels of engagement. Building strong relationships and getting to know the volunteers will create better overall communication and safer environments in which people will be more comfortable to open up, thus exhibiting higher levels of engagement.

Availability. The third antecedent to engagement, psychological availability, addresses psychological availability of carrying out the assigned tasks. Hypothesis 3 (*Availability will be a significant predictor of engagement*) was supported, consistent with prior research (Kahn, 1990). Importantly, three factors that can contribute to psychological availability are: physical, emotional, or psychological resources (Kahn, 1990). Britt, Castro, and Adler (2005) found the availability of certain resources (physical, emotional, and social) positively influenced one's motivation to complete tasks, which was supported by Shuck (2010). It does not only depend on how emotionally available the volunteer is, but rather what does the event organizer offer in order for the volunteer to be able to demonstrate psychological availability. Sport events can be stressful and hectic, especially when dealing with upset fans and corresponding with unhappy customers. When working with volunteers, it is important to communicate proper etiquette on how to proceed in challenging situations and to prepare everyone as best as possible.

Through training sessions (i.e., in person or online), the organization can use its resources to educate volunteers on how to respond to certain scenarios to try and prevent any feelings of unease that could potentially hinder psychological availability from fulfilling the task. Managers need to avoid creating roles that are too stressful and demanding as this could hinder the ability to be psychologically available and, in return, exhibit increased levels of engagement (May et al., 2004). Following these suggestions, organizations may allow volunteers to feel more confident and able to express heightened levels of engagement due to the organization's involvement and resources. At the same time, one can also interpret the results for psychological availability from another perspective. Volunteers are signing up to participate in a sporting event because they would like to do so, not because they are required to do so. Therefore, one can argue that psychological availability might not necessarily apply to this group of participants. If one would not be able to be emotionally available, one might be less inclined to sign up to volunteer for something due to personal reasons. Yet, personality and expectation of volunteer benefits might also impact the decision to volunteer. It would be interesting to understand how personality influences personal engagement.

Person-Task Fit

A somewhat unexpected finding in the results analysis was that hypothesis 4 *(Person-Task fit will be a significant predictor of engagement)* was not supported. Previous research highlighted the increased interest in understanding environment from an organizational perspective, as it influences behavior and attitude of individuals (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). Researchers specifically started focusing on the relationship between P-O and P-T fit to develop a better understanding on how the match between abilities and job demands influence outcomes of commitment, satisfaction, and intention to remain. Scholars suggested to match an

individual according to their abilities to increase overall performance (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011; Farrell et al., 1998; Reeser et al., 2005). Therefore, the researcher in this study was interested in examining how person-task fit has an influence on levels of engagement and assumed that person-task fit would be favorable from a volunteer's perspective.

However, the findings of this study indicated that person-task fit has no significant impact on engagement. This demonstrates that the participants in this study are not going to be more engaged at their task, even when they perceive to be a good fit for the task to which they have been assigned. Person-task fit was not one of the main antecedents of engagement. However, it was expected that the relationship would be significant, due to the fact that prior research indicates pairing an individual with an activity based on their expertise or skill set is important in the volunteer context (Chelladurai & Madella, 2006). Therefore, it was hypothesized this relationship would help to increase engagement levels. One explanation as to why it was not significant as expected could be attributed to the fact that participants in this study did not have to clarify the type of task they were assigned. The actual task one was assigned could be a possible reason as to why there was no significant increase in levels of engagement. If volunteers had to identify their roles the researcher might have been able to find a difference in levels of engagement. Another explanation could be that the participants in this study were more interested in being part of the overall experience and giving back to the community and organization. Due to these reasons, Allen and Shaw (2009) suggested that volunteers are not concerned about their assigned role or if it was a match with their abilities. The researchers explained that volunteers are acting in favor of ensuring the staging of a successful event and are therefore more inclined to take on tasks even if there is no direct match between the person and task (Allen & Shaw, 2009; Shaw, 2011).

Given the fact that volunteers are different from those who are being compensated for their work, it is understandable how person-task fit might not be as applicable. For example, around 57% of volunteers in this study indicated they have participated as volunteers more than six times in the previous years for their respective bowl games. However, their diverse experiences within the event context and with the intention to remain could play a significant role in creating meaningful experiences and increasing levels of engagement. As such, returning volunteers might be more aware of choosing an activity that speaks to them based on previous experiences. Furthermore, another possibility exists in which case volunteers would rather be matched with an activity that does not reflect their abilities to have lower levels of responsibility, something Allen and Shaw (2009) described. This should be addressed in future research if differences exist between returnees and first-time volunteers.

Satisfaction

Satisfaction is an important outcome of engagement and has previously been addressed in various work settings (Harter et al., 2002; Saks, 2006). Researchers have consistently found evidence that engagement influences satisfaction and therefore reported a positive relationship. Hypothesis 5 (*Engagement will be a significant predictor of satisfaction*) was supported within this study, which contributes to the overall literature of sport volunteers. Since previous scholars mainly focused on satisfaction as a key outcome of volunteers (Farrell et al., 1998; Sheptak & Menaker, 2016), the results showed that engagement significantly impacts volunteers and increases their levels of satisfaction. As this study tried to address how to better recruit and retain volunteers, understanding what creates more satisfaction among the participants is crucial. Event organizers and volunteers are well aware of tasks that do not necessarily require increased

126

amounts of attention. As Allen and Shaw (2009) discussed, handing out water is a basic task and one can argue that it does not require volunteers to be tuned in and be fully engaged.

Since event organizers care about the overall outcome of the event and the perceptions of customers, fans, athletes, and the volunteers, it is important to communicate why even a simple task (such as handing out water) is important for the event. This is a critical part of successful volunteer management due to how volunteers are managed affects their levels of satisfaction and participation in volunteer activities (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Strigas & Jackson, 2003) along with communication efforts (Johnston et al., 2013; Pauline, 2011). Having clear communication strategies in addition to having management practices set in place to guide volunteers through the event will allow them to exhibit higher levels of engagement.

Psychological Well-Being

Psychological well-being is an area that has received more attention in recent years as personal well-being is directly linked to levels of engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Previous scholars identified engagement as a significant predictor of psychological well-being (Alfes et al., 2016; Vecina et al., 2012), which was also a finding in this study. Additionally, scholars in sport management underlined the importance of promoting psychological well-being of employees (Kim et al., 2019). Hypothesis 6 (*Engagement will be a significant predictor of psychological well-being*) was supported, which showed that a significant relationship between engagement and psychological well-being exists for sport volunteers. Thus, for volunteers to take part in activities while being engaged positively contributes to their overall psychological well-being. As previous research highlighted, the overall work environment has a direct influence on levels of engagement (Shuck & Reio, 2014; Shuck et al., 2011) and consists of more than just

psychological well-being. Research that addressed sport employees found that higher levels of engagement resulted in higher levels of psychological well-being (Svensson et al., 2019).

There has been a growing emphasis on mental health in sport during recent years. One important take-away from this should be that through an active engagement in sport events, individuals are able to impact their psychological well-being positively. Therefore, this study shows that there is a need to also focus on and include sport volunteers as increasing engagement provides a way for managers to be able to help and have a positive impact on one's psychological well-being. Future scholars could continue to explore other factors that are part of the work environment, especially within the sport volunteer setting, to identify their individual impact on engagement. Also, identifying how the work environment impacts satisfaction and intention to remain would be another avenue to focus on. Developing a better understanding in this area from the sport volunteer perspective might offer future approaches to increase better recruitment as more knowledge has been created around this topic.

Intention to Remain

Intention to remain as an outcome of engagement was one of the key aspects within this study to be measured as scholars repeatedly voiced difficulties with this topic from a sport volunteer perspective (Cuskelly, 2004; Cuskelly & Boag, 2001). Previous literature on sport volunteers increasingly highlighted the need for understanding the drive of volunteers to stay with one organization and to continue volunteering. General management literature discovered a positive relationship between engagement and lower levels of turnover intention (Halbesleben, 2010; Harter et al., 2002; Saks, 2006; Shuck et al., 2011). Hypothesis 7 (*Engagement will be a significant predictor of intention to remain*) was supported and therefore aligned with previous findings.

With heightened levels of engagement and being cognitively, emotionally, and behaviorally present during assigned tasks, volunteers will be more inclined to remain with the organization. As pointed out before, 57% of participants in this study indicated they have volunteered more than six times for their respective bowl game. Researchers indicated volunteers are more likely to return and continue volunteering (Green & Chalip, 2004), especially when developing positive and satisfying perceptions about the volunteer experience for a specific event (Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Farrell et al., 1998). With the relationship between engagement and intention to remain being positive and significant, the model suggests that lower levels of engagement would also show lower levels of intentions to remain. This result supports the notion to offer volunteer activities in which the individual can engage in to increase their willingness to return to volunteer.

At the same time, event organizers need to be observable and direct attention towards engagement levels due to its direct impact on retention. As previous research on volunteerism primarily focused on how satisfaction (Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Cuskelly et al., 2006; Green & Chalip, 2004), commitment (Dorsch et al., 2002), and motivation (Bang & Ross, 2009; Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011) influence willingness to remain, this study offers a new aspect to explore. Understanding that the more engaged volunteers are, the more likely they are to return creates a new way for event organizers to develop strategies to keep volunteers engaged at their task. For example, to increase engagement and, as a result, intention to remain, event organizers could introduce a t-shirt hierarchy. Each year a volunteer receives a shirt with a specific color. Each color represents the number of years an individual has previously volunteered at the specific event. The goal of this approach would be to entice individuals to aim for the next color as the organization's culture emphasizes and respects this type of work. Additionally, there might be a

possibility for event organizers to keep track of previous volunteers and their involvement, providing them with the option of being able to have more say in what type of activity they would like to be placed in next. This type of reward strategy might resonate well with volunteers if they perceive to be able to have even more of an impact the following year.

Effects of Antecedents on Outcomes through Engagement

The following elaborates on the results of the four hypotheses that explored how each antecedent had an effect on each outcome through engagement. First, hypothesis 8 (*Meaningfulness will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement*) was supported and established a significant and positive relationship with each outcome. One major factor in meaningfulness is not only to derive meaning from the assigned task, but also to feel valued. Scholars highlighted that when volunteers receive feedback and recognition in regard to their performance from event managers, that it will significantly increase their levels of satisfaction (Reeser et al., 2005). One can argue here that receiving recognition and feedback adds to psychological meaningfulness because the volunteer is receiving direct input about their performance. In support of previous findings, volunteers in this study articulated that the meaning given to their ability to give back has the most significant effect on satisfaction while their overall psychological well-being and intention to remain also halted positive results. Further, perceiving a task as meaningful does not only increase levels of engagement, but it also has a decreases turnover intention (Fredrickson, 1998). What this indicates for future sporting events is the importance to create meaningful positions and experiences as volunteers in this sample indicated that meaningfulness was the most significant factor that contributed to overall satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain.

For example, prior scholarship has addressed the importance of creating a positive volunteer experience (Bang & Ross, 2009; Farrell et al., 1998; Rogalsky et al., 2016; Schlesinger et al., 2013). A heightened amount of effort has been dedicated to train volunteers along with finding supervisors who will ensure that everything goes according to plan (Costa et al., 2006; Gladden, McDonald, & Barr, 2005; Shaw, 2009). Communication is important and should be used to ensure that volunteers are aware about how they are actively impacting the event. Results from Ralston et al.'s (2004) study addressed some recruitment issues that led volunteers to think their skills were not accurately assessed, which in turn affected their perception of contributing to the event. Creating a positive experience starts before the event, hence as to why training sessions are crucial to not only address the assigned task, but to also enhance the volunteer's understanding of the task at hand and how it impacts the event (Kodama et al., 2013). Some event organizers might perceive that small tasks do not necessarily need training; however, some volunteers might take on multiple new and complex tasks (Cuskelly et al., 2006). Rogalsky et al., (2016) discovered the importance of supervision in relation to role ambiguity among sport volunteers as it affected performance and satisfaction. Clearly communicating what is expected of a volunteer by incorporating appropriate training sessions and having supervisors who give clear instructions and motivational feedback are encouraged to enhance the volunteer experience form the beginning on.

Second, hypothesis 9 (*Safety will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement*) was also supported as expected. Safety was found to have a significant and positive relationship with each outcome. Having the ability to express one's true self serves as an indicator in regard to being able to be more engaged. The volunteers in this study indicated that a safe environment increased their levels of engagement which led to

higher levels in satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain. Therefore, higher levels of perceived psychological safety will affect outcomes. For example, previous scholars Farrell et al. (1998) found that communication between volunteers was important, as social systems can enhance psychological safety (Kahn, 1990). For event organizers one key aspect is to create a space in which volunteers can stay true to themselves and feel that there are no negative consequences from their personal engagement. For example, some volunteer organizations try to pair individuals with others to whom they have some type of connection. When organizations rely on students to volunteer for an event, it would be advisable to try and have students from the same class or university work together. Due to having something in common, in this example taking the same class or attending the same school, individuals are going to feel safer in that specific setting.

Third, hypothesis 10 (*Availability will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement*) was also supported as expected. Psychological availability significantly affected each outcome through engagement. As discussed previously, contributors for psychological availability are physical, emotional, or psychological resources (Kahn, 1990). Due to this relationship being significant, volunteers in this study who had access to such resources reported significantly higher levels of engagement. Further, Shuck (2010) extended literature and supported that the availability of resources decreased individuals' turnover intentions. At the same time, event organizers need to be aware of potential distractions that could hinder the volunteer's ability to engage fully. This can vary from being mentally and physically exhausted due to the task at hand, or it can be related to personal reasons. Event organizers need to ensure a healthy balance between demands and task fulfillment and for enough breaks that physical exhaustion does not occur. As outlined before, recognition of a

volunteer's work does not only add to overall meaningfulness, but it can also increase emotional energy, which directly affects psychological availability. For example, most sporting events host a volunteer appreciation day once the event is completed to say thank you for anyone who was involved.

Lastly, hypothesis 11 (*Person-Task fit will be related to satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain through engagement*) was not supported. Even though previous research indicated a good match between ability and task would positively affect various outcomes (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010), this was not the case in this study. Therefore, one takeaway from these results could be that volunteers view person-task fit differently, which previous literature suggested (Allen & Shaw, 2009; Shaw, 2011). Based on the results from this specific study, person-task fit did not indicate a significant relationship with any of the three outcomes. This demonstrates that regardless of tasks assignment, volunteers see no change in their levels of satisfaction, psychological well-being, or intention to remain through engagement.

Previous literature elaborated on the fact that volunteers who lack available resources, whether psychological, emotional or physical, might experience role difficulty as some might be assigned to tasks and need to fulfill certain expectations they have no prior experience with (Ralston et al., 2004). Therefore, having initiatives in place for managers and supervisors on how to properly and clearly communicate not only expectations, but also tasks could address portions of role difficulty. For example, creating a volunteer handbook that specifically addresses behavior, provides an overview of training, and reinforces expectations could be a physical resource. Exposing volunteers to a supportive and positive environment in which supervisors foster relationships demonstrates that emotional resources are also available.

However, this study did not examine what specific tasks volunteers took on, which could be researched in future studies. General management literature indicates that a positive relationship between person-environment and outcomes such as satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to turnover exist as one is analyzing the relationship between an individual and the organization's characteristics (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010; Ostroff, Shin, & Kinicki, 2005; Ostroff & Zhan, 2012). Even though Allen and Shaw (2009) did not find significant support in their study, this could be elaborated on in the future as a fit between ability and task does influence other important outcomes (Barr, 2018; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; Sheptak &Manker, 2016).

ANOVA Interpretation

To address the second research question, ANOVA tests were run to test for significant differences in engagement when testing for variables. Out of the 10 variables that were tested, only two showed significant differences between groups; race and age. The results of this study indicated that there was a significant difference in engagement between White and African American/Black volunteers. One possible explanation as to why White volunteers experienced higher levels of engagement could stem from information that this particular group had a much larger sample size as 66% identified as White, compared to 16.3% who identified as African American or Black.

However, sport is described to be a catalyst for positive social outcomes (Rich, Misener, & Dubeau, 2015; Schulenkorf &Edwards, 2012). For example, sport can be used to develop more healthy and inclusive communities, and appreciate cultural diversity (Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999; Donnelly & Coackley, 2002; Misener & Mason, 2006). Individuals are able to participate in sporting events, not only as athletes, but also as volunteers. Misener and Mason

(2006) elaborated on positive outcomes such as being able to socialize and create a network opportunity, bringing people together. Other scholars reasoned that community spirit and pride could improve, possibility increasing social capital (Green 2011). Event organizers should continue to make efforts to reach a wide variety of volunteers and be inclusive.

The second variable that found significant differences in relation to engagement was age. The highest number of participants identified to be part of the 55-64 age group (29.6%), while 12.3% belonged to the 35-44 age group, 21.9% belonged to the 65-74 age group, and lastly only 2.7% belonged to the 75 or older group. These results are similar, yet to some extent contradict Burgham and Downard's (2005) findings, which also highlighted that older and retired individuals were found to volunteer the most. However, the researchers identified in their study that the age group of 55-65 was least likely to volunteer, which is the exact opposite of the finding in this study.

An important takeaway for event organizers is the fact individuals who identified as 35 and older were more represented in the volunteer sample in comparison to younger participants. From a recruitment perspective, event organizers have a better understanding of the target population who is interested in participating at this sporting event. Examining differences in engagement levels brought to light that the age group of 65-74 reportedly experienced higher levels of engagement compared to the age group of 55-64. Additionally, the age group of 75 and older demonstrated to have higher levels of engagement compared to the age group of 65-74 as well as the age group of 35-44. Part of this can be attributed due to a significant lower sample size in that age group, however, the results still indicate elderly individuals are more engaged during volunteer work.

As pointed out by other researchers (Burgham & Downward, 2005; Ralston et al., 2004), older individuals, especially retirees, have more time on hand to participate in volunteer activities and are motivated to meet new people, while also being local residents. Being a local resident is important because it allows individuals to "age with the event" (Burgham & Downward, 2005, p. 81). Continuous involvement enhances not only the development of certain competencies that are crucial for volunteers to apply to the successful staging of an event, but also contributes to the sustainability of the event itself (Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Farrell et al., 1998).

Interpretation of the Structural Model

Since the results of each hypothesis was interpreted in the previous section, the interpretation of the structural model is as follows. Results demonstrated that this study explained 86% of the variance in engagement with this model, after modifications were made. The variance explained in satisfaction (30%) was more than the variance for psychological well-being (11%) or the variance for intention to remain (23%). The results demonstrated that satisfaction had the strongest relation to engagement closely followed by intention to remain and lastly psychological well-being, which is likely due to the six omitted items from the SOS-10 scale.

Overall, this model underlined the direct and positive influence of engagement on satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain, which addressed the first research question. Engagement can contribute to higher levels of satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain. Moreover, this underlines the importance for event organizations to understand that engagement in sport volunteers matters. The significance of engagement has not been accounted for in previous studies within the sport context, hence as to why this model adds

value and contribution to the sport volunteer literature. Also, the strong links between meaningfulness, safety, and availability on each outcome through engagement creates additional knowledge that allows volunteers to better express what would allow them to have higher levels of engagement. At the same time, it is vital to further understand and research other determinants that contribute to experiencing meaningfulness, safety, and availability and their relationships with other volunteer outcomes.

Implications for Theory, Researchers, and Practitioners

Over the last two decades engagement, as a concept, enjoyed significant popularity as an emerging field, especially in human resource development (see Macey & Schneider, 2008; Shuck, 2010; Shuck et al., 2011; Shuck, Adelson, et al., 2017). This study offered evidence that engagement is a relevant concept within the sport volunteer context, affecting outcomes that are crucial for sport event organizers. The following sections explore implications for sport management theory, research, and offers practical implications for practitioners.

Implications for Theory

The major theoretical contribution of this study demonstrated the applicability of Shuck, Adelson, et al.'s (2017) employee engagement scale within the sport volunteer context, addressing antecedents and outcomes. While engagement has been explored in general management settings, only one study specifically addressed engagement and its applicability in the nonprofit sport context among paid employees (Svensson et al., 2019). Thus, the current study specifically offered a nuanced understanding of engagement within the sport volunteer context, which contributes to the knowledge gap as no prior studies used the lens of engagement applied to sport volunteers. Thus, this study offers evidence and supports Kahn's (1990)

approach and conceptualization of engagement as this study provided results that demonstrate important relationships of the explored antecedents and outcomes.

Moreover, this study explored levels of engagement based on Shuck et al.'s (2017) employee engagement scale that was created based on Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of personal engagement. It clarified relationships between antecedents and outcomes of engagement in the sport volunteer context and offered a conceptual model for these relationships. Numerous studies researched and identified positive as well as negative factors that would influence level of engagement as some utilized engagement-like constructs (Harter et al., 2002; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Maslach et al., 2001; Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2002a; Soane et al., 2012), yet these studies did not focus on sport volunteers.

Finally, as prior research showed, these results also offer empirical evidence in which conditions of engagement have relations with antecedents and outcomes (May et al., 2004; Shuck, 2010), even within sport. Engagement can be utilized for predictability when addressing intention to remain (Shuck, 2010). Shuck (2010) found that through the combination of engagement and affective commitment, individuals were less likely to leave. The theoretical model could be re-evaluated in the context of the sports industry. Perhaps, there are additional differences between engagement components among volunteers in comparison to employees. Thus, volunteers may experience their tasks and levels of engagement differently to some extent. Further, researchers could explore other variables and test their predictive qualities to continuously examine engagement and develop a better understanding of what is relevant and influences a volunteer's levels of engagement.

Overall, this study suggested strong relationships between the examined antecedents, engagement, and outcomes. Similar to general human resource development literature,

meaningfulness, safety, and availability were found to be significant conditions of engagement for volunteers (Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004; Shuck, 2010). Additionally, this study highlighted other important relations between engagement and satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain. However, more research is needed to extend our knowledge.

Implications for Researchers

As this is the first study to examine engagement within the sport volunteer context utilizing Kahn's (1990) original conceptualization, it is important to for future scholars to replicate the current study with other types of events which are reliant on sport volunteers. This study was the first attempt to understand if Shuck, Adelson, et al.'s (2017) employee engagement scale was adequate to be used within the sport volunteer context. Also, this was the first attempt to develop a model in which engagement was used as a mediator to measure various outcomes in the sport volunteer context. For a SEM study, the sample size was good and contained various participants from different backgrounds. A second study with different outcomes to measure how engagement influences those would allow more insight into the engagement model.

As described in the introduction, the context of this study was college football bowl games. Future studies should account for other contexts to understand and examine engagement not only within sporting events within the United States, but also overseas. This includes other hallmark, mega, and small-scale events. Additionally, research should extend the understanding of engagement not only within sport volunteers, but also within other sport industry environments. One study conducted by Svensson and colleagues (2019) addressed levels of engagement among nonprofit paid staff in sport, but there are more avenues that need to be explored.

Researchers could explore specific groups of sport volunteers or paid employees in various organizational sport settings over a certain time period to examine how engagement levels might chance over time. Specifically, in the sport industry it would be interesting to focus on engagement levels between new employees and those who have been with the organization longer. One could draw comparisons between those groups to identify engagement levels and design effective approaches to address drops in engagement. This could lead to the incorporation of workshops to develop engagement, led not only by supervisors but also current employees/volunteers who have been with the organization for a certain time. Furthermore, a qualitative study to better understand reasons for volunteers or paid staff to leave their organization might be another approach. Allowing individuals to provide in-depth answers regarding their voluntary exiting would offer a more direct avenue to analyze engagement and interpret these results.

Implications for Practitioners

Engagement demonstrated to be a promising construct within the sport volunteer context, and the next step would be to explore how higher levels of engagement could be developed from an organizational standpoint. Further, how will managers foster greater engagement levels and influence those? The results of this study suggest various implications not only for bowl game organizers, but also other volunteer organizations and practitioners in terms of developing meaningful volunteer experiences for those involved. This study found multiple relationships between antecedents with engagement, engagement with outcomes, as well as significant relationships of antecedents having an effect on outcomes through engagement. The model from this study showed two specific promising areas to focus on for current and future volunteers: meaningfulness and safety.

Event organizers are continuously looking to increase volunteer numbers and ways to retain those. This study offers ways to utilize each variable explored to design specific approaches to address engagement. Therefore, event organizers have a crucial role in implementing strategies to increase engagement to influence organizational outcomes. First, volunteers with reportedly higher engagement levels were more likely to also indicate higher levels of meaningfulness. Exploring ways to add to the volunteer experience by incorporating meaningful activities can be done through the organization. For example, event organizers could create training sessions and design interventions to directly educate supervisors and managers to pair volunteers with meaningful activities. The goal for managers is to find volunteers to be involved in meaningful activities that fit with their interest. Finding a task from which the volunteer derives personal meaning will lead to organizational benefits, such as lower levels of issues with turnover.

A second approach is to distinguish volunteers from one another. Event organizers should specifically pursue volunteers who have strong aspirations to give back to their community as they derive meaning from their involvement and are more inclined to stay involved in the future. As findings indicated, those with higher levels of meaningfulness will be more engaged, will have higher satisfaction levels, and lower turnover intentions. Employing this type of strategy would aid event organizers with future recruitment and training efforts, while reducing costs at the same time. Event organizers need to be actively involved and utilize a proactive and conscious approach when recruiting, training, and managing volunteers.

Further, as previous literature highlighted the importance of allowing volunteers to create relationships with other volunteers and supervisors, this could allow for the following approach: Event organizers looking to increase meaningfulness associated with the assigned task could also

design positive socialization programs to foster the building of relationships among volunteers. Barr (2018) suggested to have communication strategies in place during training sessions. One step further would be to also implement team building activities to enhance volunteer relationships. Incorporating social activities ahead of the event will add to creating an overall positive experience for the volunteer, which will positively influence volunteer outcomes.

Moreover, organizational culture plays an integral part in this, as supervisors and event organizer need to properly communicate values and expectations. Previous research also indicated the importance of creating valuable relationships with supervisors/managers. Ensuring appropriate recognition for a volunteer's efforts and rewarding them by making them feel part of the organization or valued will contribute to successful retention behavior. Most organizations host an appreciation party for their volunteers after staging an event. Another strategy described earlier is the approach of implementing a 'volunteer hierarchy'. Pending on the organization, one possibility would be to clearly communicate the meaning of certain colored shirts, emphasizing a culture of staying involved. Exit surveys should be included at the end of each event in order for organizations to be able to use the feedback and improve on necessary communication skills if necessary.

Limitations of the Study

As for all research projects, several limitations exist for this study. First, the findings of this study may not generalize to other sport contexts since there are various types of sport organizations and contexts where sport events are held. This specific study utilized convenience sampling for data collection and specifically focused on sport volunteers from college football bowl games. The findings may be different when collecting data from a different sporting event,

142

especially from a small-scale event. Also, the findings may differ when recruiting a wider sample or a randomly selected sample from various different sporting events and from various countries.

Second, the results of this study may change depending on actual task assignments and the sport event one is affiliated with. In this study, the researcher did not ask for specific job assignment, which could impact levels of engagement. Also, levels of involvement of volunteers (e.g. being a board member or member of the organization itself) might have led to different outcomes.

A third limitation was the usage of self-reported surveys. Even though self-report measures are beneficial for the researcher due to their ability to be easily distributed and inexpensive, there are also some drawbacks. Since this study relied on self-report measures in which case individuals reported their personal experiences, social desirability could potentially be an influence towards bias responses from individuals when reporting the amount of time they were involved in engaging behavior (Pearson & Porath, 2005). Therefore, results were analyzed based how the participants perceived the questions in the survey. Also, one's responses to questions may have been influenced due to a person's characteristics, motivation, knowledge, and experience. It is possible that some respondents felt the urge to report socially desirable responses due to answering perceived sensitive questions about themselves. One potential way to address this in future studies is to collect data at multiple points from the sample individuals since the time of year may influence their responses.

Finally, this study sought to explore the effect of engagement on three specific outcomes that have been researched within the sport volunteer context. However, research on sport volunteers is broader and should explore other areas as well. Although this study included some highly researched outcomes through the lens of engagement, it is also a limitation. There is more

to the volunteer experience in order to understand engagement and its effect on recruitment and intention to remain.

Future Research Recommendations

This study was the first to explore engagement of sport volunteers through Shuck, Adelson, et al.'s (2017) engagement framework. Future research should examine other contexts within the sport industry, both in the United States and in other regions, through the lens of engagement levels of involved stakeholders. Moreover, more comprehensive research, which should include other factors related to engagement from an antecedent and outcome perspective, could be conducted. The perceived levels of engagement among involved personnel also warrants future research on other outcomes and to explore additional antecedents to engagement. Developing a better understanding of factors associated with levels of engagement and its effects on recruitment, retention, and satisfaction should be at the forefront of the organization's interest. Moreover, further research is needed to understand the current human resource management approaches that are in place to help the "invaluable human resource" (Doherty, 2006, p. 108) of sport volunteers.

Researchers could also examine other factors which were not accounted for in this study to broaden the current research on engagement within sport volunteers, sporting events, and the sport industry. For example, motivation, satisfaction, commitment have been researched in relation to sport volunteers. Some researchers tried to better understand if there is a connection among these and their respective influence on intention to remain (Bang & Ross, 2009; Coyne & Coyne, 2001; Cuskelly & Boag, 2011; Doherty, 2009; Farrell et al., 1998; Schlesinger et al., 2013). Findings have revealed that certain motivational factors have an influence on volunteer satisfaction, which in turn heightened the volunteer experience (Bang & Ross, 2009; Farrell et

al., 1998). Being able to provide positive volunteer experiences creates higher levels of intention to remain (Bang & Ross, 2009). Love and colleagues (2011) were able to establish that a satisfying experience of volunteering at a PGA event positively influenced an individual's intention to return. Also, Schlesinger and colleagues (2013) reported that volunteers with higher satisfaction levels were less likely to leave. Therefore, engagement could be useful in this regard as it might shed more light onto what type of motivation through engagement individuals use to volunteer.

As previous literature portrayed the importance of engagement when forming higher levels of commitment, understanding engagement levels would also help organizations take more direct approaches as to how levels of commitment could also be heightened. Also, engagement could be examined as it relates to various outcome variables that enhance the organization's performance. For example, the researcher in this study focused on how engagement could be utilized as an approach to increase recruitment and retention of volunteers. However, each organization is unique, meaning that each organization needs to understand what it is they would like to focus on and what type of organizational goals they would like to accomplish. Thus, there are additional antecedents to engagement that are worth exploring and that would allow stakeholders to have a more comprehensive understanding of what is wanted and needed for volunteers to demonstrate more engaged behavior. For example, perceived organizational support, leadership, and environmental climate would allow researchers as well as organizations to have more diverse avenues to specifically address the volunteer needs.

Furthermore, longitudinal studies could shed more light on engagement among sport volunteers. As mentioned previously, one of the major challenges is to retain volunteers, hence, an emphasis should be placed on better understanding volunteers who return. For example,

Coyne and Coyne (2001) and Slaughter (2002) recognized that motives to volunteer could change over time. This would be a great opportunity for researchers to establish an overall understanding on how a volunteer gets involved and therefore how expectations and experiences influence future volunteer intentions.

Utilizing qualitative methods to develop a greater understanding of overall engagement and the perceptions and involvement of volunteers could also be included in future studies. Being able to include follow-up questions for subjects to voice their opinions, criticism, and needs can enhance any shortcomings of the questionnaire format. This would allow a greater insight from an organization and organizer point of view to be able to better respond to creating a meaningful experience for their human resources. This is especially important for the potential to develop a volunteer specific engagement scale. Even though Shuck, Adelson, et al.'s (2017) engagement scale fit within the volunteer context, there were some questions that needed to be adapted. It might be beneficial to create engagement questions that would specifically target volunteers or a sporting event. Additionally, researchers may focus on exploring volunteer organizations and take volunteers into account who have never volunteered before and compared them to those who continuously return.

Another approach future research could take is to focus on the development of a sport volunteer engagement scale. Since the findings in this study identified that there is value within engagement for volunteers, it would be advisable to create a scale specifically for the sport context. This could benefit event organizers from a planning perspective, especially when working with returning volunteers. At the same time, it could also offer additional benefits from an evaluation standpoint to enhance a volunteer's experience in the future. Numerous scales already exist that address various outcomes for volunteers (e.g. motivation, commitment,

satisfaction), however, creating a scale solely focusing on engagement would focus on more on the individual and to attempt to develop a better understanding of their needs.

Lastly, it would be advisable to gain a greater understanding on how autonomy contributes to be more or less engaged. Pearce (1993) suggested for a differentiation between core and peripheral volunteers, while scholars determined core volunteers to be in leadership roles and to have higher levels of commitment (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Ringuet-Riot et al., 2014). For example, are volunteers going to be more engaged when they are part of the organization as a core volunteer and therefore have more say and ability to make decisions in what type of roles they will be assigned? Or is there going to be less engagement among volunteers when they are assigned roles beforehand as they are classified as a peripheral volunteer?

Conclusion

This dissertation endeavors to underline the applicability of engagement within the sport industry, specifically toward sport volunteers. As engagement has been explored through the human resource development lens, volunteers have also been identified as a "hidden workforce" (Kemp, 2002, p. 109). Thus, with the sport industry's heavy reliance on volunteers, it is necessary to explore this area further. Previous engagement literature focused on the general management area, while this study explored engagement within the sport context. Guided by Shuck, Adelson, et al.'s (2017) engagement scale and using Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of personal engagement, the purpose of this study was to explore engagement levels among sport volunteers at college football bowl games. Additionally, this study sought to address the continuously resurfacing recruitment and retention issues of volunteers by proposing approaches to increase levels of engagement. This research builds on Allen and Bartle's (2014) call to further apply engagement within the sport volunteer context. It is also important to recognize this

study's contributions toward future theory development as well as building on the current theoretical understanding of engagement in sport management literature. Findings from this study also add to the general understanding of sport volunteers as scholars and practitioners routinely voice concerns over recruitment and retention issues (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2007).

A total of 11 hypotheses were proposed to examine various antecedents and outcomes to understand the role of engagement. Findings demonstrated the importance for a volunteer's psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability to be present for levels of engagement to increase. Simultaneously, the measured outcomes of satisfaction, psychological well-being, and intention to remain were positively affected by engagement. Interestingly, person-task fit did not influence engagement and was also not significantly related to the three outcomes, which contradicts previous literature. This study found that specifically for sport volunteers, meaningfulness and safety proved to be most significant and therefore emerged as predictors of engagement.

Overall, this study contributes to the sport volunteer literature and call from scholars to expand on applying engagement. Findings in this study extend our knowledge of engagement among sport volunteers and highlight suggestions for organizations. The aim of this research was to create a heightened awareness of the relevance that engagement has for volunteers and how organizations can better develop approaches to increase levels of engagement, which in turn would help design recruitment and retention strategies. Ultimately, this will aid organizations in their approach to meet organizational goals due to having a competitive advantage through engaged volunteers. This study's results offer a foundation for future research on engagement within the sport industry. Developing a better understanding of engagement is crucial to design

more effective initiatives to aid organizations to meet their goals and stage a successful event for

everyone involved.

APPENDIX A. INDIVDIUAL SCALE ITEMS

Construct	Variable	Item
Antecedent to Eng (M) (6 items)		
	ATEM 1	The work I do on this volunteer job is very important to me.
	ATEM 2	My volunteer activities are personally meaningful to me.
	ATEM 3	The work I do on this volunteer job is worthwhile.
	ATEM 4	My volunteer activities are significant to me.
	ATEM 5	The work I do on this volunteer job is meaningful to me.
	ATEM 6	I feel that the work I do on my volunteer job is valuable.
Antecedent to Eng (S) (3 items)		
	ATES 7	I am not afraid to be myself at the volunteer activity.
	ATES 8	I am not afraid to express my opinions at my volunteer activity.
	ATES 9	There is a threatening environment at work. (r)
Antecedent to Eng (A) (4 items)		
	ATEA 1	I am confident in my ability to handle competing demands at my volunteer activity.
	ATEA 2	I am confident in my ability to deal with problems that come up at my volunteer activity.
	ATEA 3	I am confident in my ability to display the appropriate emotions at my volunteer activity.
	ATEA 4	I am confident that I can handle the physical demands at my volunteer activity.
Person-Task Fit (3 items)		
	PTF 1	I have the right skills for carrying out my volunteer assignment.
	PTF 2	There is a good match between the requirement of my volunteer work and my skills.
	PTF 3	My abilities fit the demands of my volunteer work.

(table cont'd)

Construct	Variable	Item
Engagement Cognitive (4 items)		
	ENG 1C	I am really focused when I am volunteering.
	ENG 2C	I concentrate on my job when I am volunteering.
	ENG 3C	I give my job responsibility a lot of attention.
	ENG 4C	While I am volunteering, I am focused on my job.
Emotional Engagement (4 items)		
	ENG 5E	Volunteering at this bowl game has a great deal of personal meaning to me.
	ENG 6E	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this volunteer job.
	ENG 7E	I believe in the mission and purpose of this event.
	ENG 8E	I care about the future of this event.
Behavioral Engagement (4 items)		
	ENG 9B	I really push myself to work beyond what is expected of me.
	ENG 10B	I am willing to put in extra effort without being asked.
	ENG 11B	I often go above what is expected of me to help my event team be successful.
	ENG 12B	I work harder than expected to help this event to be successful.
Satisfaction (3 items)		
	SAT 1	I am satisfied with the recognition I received as a volunteer.
	SAT 2	I am satisfied with the job to which I was assigned to.
	SAT 3	I am satisfied with the overall experience of being a football bowl game volunteer.
Psychological Well-being (4 items)		
	PWB 1	Given my current physical condition, I am satisfied with what I can do.
	PWB 2	I have confidence in my ability to sustain important relationships.
	PWB 3	I am often interested and excited about things in my life.
	PWB 4	I am able to have fun.
Intention to Remain (3 items)		
	ITR 1	I plan to volunteer with this bowl game again.
	ITR 2	I would be sad to not be able to volunteer for this bowl game again.
	ITR 3	I plan to volunteer for this bowl game as long as possible.

APPENDIX B. QUESTIONNAIRE

Online Questionnaire:							
Demographic Items							
Directions: Please answer the following questions.							
1. What is your gender?	M	F	Other	Do not wish to report			
2. Please select your ethnicity you most identify with.	White	Black or African American	American Indian/ Alaska Native	Asian/ Pacific Islander	Hispanic or Latino	Other	Select all that apply
3. Highest level of education completed?	High School	Vocational	Associate	Bachelor	Master	PhD	
4. How many hours did you travel to volunteer at this event?	Less than 1hour	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours	5-6 hours	6+ hours
5. What is your age?	18 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 54	55 to 64	65 to 74	75 or older
6. Within one year, how many sport events do you volunteer for?	Only this one	1-2	3-4	4-5	5-6	>6	
7. Have you volunteered for this specific bowl game event before?	yes	no					
8. If you answered yes, how many times have you volunteered for this event before?	1	2	3	4	>5		
9. Have you volunteered for other bowl games before? If yes, please specify which ones:							
10. What type of training did you receive for this specific volunteer assignment?	In-person	Online	I did not receive training				

11. How did you hear about this volunteer opportunity?	Email	Friend	Radio	TV	Newsletter	School	Other

Engagement:

Directions: Read each item and decide whether you agree, or disagree, and to what extent (select one answer per question).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
12. I am really focused when I am volunteering.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I concentrate on my job when I am volunteering.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I give my job responsibility a lot of attention.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. While I am volunteering, I am focused on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Volunteering at this bowl game has a great deal of personal meaning to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I feel a strong sense of belonging to this volunteer job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I believe in the mission and purpose of this event.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I care about the future of this event.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I really push myself to work beyond what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I am willing to put in extra effort without being asked.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I often go above what is expected of me to help my event team be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

23. I work harder than expected to help this event to be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Antecedents to Engagement:

Directions: Read each item and decide whether you agree, or disagree, and to what extent (select one answer per question).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Psychological Meaningfulness							
24. The work I do on this volunteer job is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. My volunteer activities are personally meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. The work I do on this volunteer job is worthwhile.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. My volunteer activities are significant to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. The work I do on this volunteer job is meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I feel that the work I do on my volunteer job is valuable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Psychological Safety							
30. I am not afraid to be myself at the volunteer activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. I am not afraid to express my opinions at my volunteer activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. There is a threatening environment at work. (r)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Psychological Availability							

33. I am confident in my ability to handle competing demands at my volunteer activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. I am confident in my ability to deal with problems that come up at my volunteer activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. I am confident in my ability to display the appropriate emotions at my volunteer activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. I am confident that I can handle the physical demands at my volunteer activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Intend to Remain:

Directions: Read each item and decide whether you agree, or disagree, and to what extent (select one answer per question).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
37. I plan to volunteer with this bowl game again.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. I would be sad to not be able to volunteer for this bowl game again.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. I plan to volunteer for this bowl game as long as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Satisfaction:

Directions: Read each item and decide whether you agree, or disagree, and to what extent (select one answer per question).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
40. I am satisfied with the recognition I received as a volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
41. I am satisfied with the job to which I was assigned to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. I am satisfied with the overall experience of being a football bowl game volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Extrinsic Rewards:

Directions: Read each item and decide whether you agree, or disagree, and to what extent (select one answer per question).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
43. I wanted to get free food at the event.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. I wanted to get event uniform/ licensed apparels.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. I wanted to get tickets/ free admission.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Love of Sport:

Directions: Read each item and decide whether you agree, or disagree, and to what extent (select one answer per question).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
46. I like any event related to sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47. I like any event related to football.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. Sport is something I love.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. I enjoy being involved in sport activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Person-Task Fit:

Directions: Read each item and decide whether you believe it is true or untrue, and to what extent (select one answer per question).

	Not True at all	Untrue	Somewhat Untrue	Neutral	Somewhat True	True	Very True

50. I have the right skills for carrying out my volunteer assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. There is a good match between the requirement of my volunteer work and my skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. My abilities fit the demands of my volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Motivation:

Directions: Read each item and decide how important or unimportant it is, and to what extent (select one answer per question).

	Not Important at all	Low Importance	Slightly Important	Neutral	Moderately Important	Very Important	Extremely Important
53. I wanted to help make this bowl game a success.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. I wanted to do something worthwhile.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. I wanted to put something back in the community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. I wanted to feel part of this community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. Volunteering creates a better society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Psychological Well-Being:

Directions: Read each item and chose the number that best fits how you have generally felt.

	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Frequently	Usually	All or nearly all the time
58. Given my current physical condition, I am satisfied with what I can do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

59. I have confidence in my ability to sustain important relationships.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. I am often interested and excited about things in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61. I am able to have fun.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX C. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR VOLUNTEER DEMOGRAPHICS

Variable	Construct	Frequency (%)	Cumulative (%)
Gender	Male	265 (55.2)	55.2
	Female	214 (44.6)	99.8
	Do not wish to report	1 (.2)	100
Ethnicity	White	317 (66.7)	66.7
	Black or African American	78 (16.3)	83.2
	American Indian/Alaska Native	1 (.2)	83.4
	Asian/Pacific Islander	9 (1.9)	85.3
	Hispanic or Latino	2 (.4)	85.7
	Other	60 (12.5)	98.7
	Select all that apply	8 (1.7)	100
Education	High School	70 (14.6)	14.6
	Vocational	18 (3.8)	18.3
	Associate	45 (9.4)	27.7
	Bachelor	211(44)	71.7
	Master	112 (23.3)	95
	PhD	24 (5)	100
Travel	Less than 1 hour	286 (59.6)	59.6
	1-2 hours	75 (15.6)	75.2
	2-3 hours	13 (2.7)	77.9
	3-4 hours	12 (2.5)	80.4
	4-5 hours	12 (2.5)	82.9
	5-6 hours	11 (2.3)	85.2
	More than 6 hours	71 (14.8)	100

(table cont'd)

Variable	Construct	Frequency (%)	Cumulative (%)
Age	18-24	34 (7.1)	7.1
	25-34	36 (7.5)	14.6
	35-44	59 (12.3)	26.9
	45-54	91 (19)	45.8
	55-64	142 (29.6)	75.4
	65-74	105 (21.9)	97.3
	75 or older	13 (2.7)	100
OneYear	Only this one	112 (23.3)	23.3
	1-2	168 (35)	58.3
	3-4	122 (25.4)	83.8
	4-5	25 (5.2)	89
	5-6	10 (2.1)	91
	More than 6	43 (9)	100
This Event	Yes	278 (57.9)	57.9
	No	202 (42.1)	100
Number for this Event	1	28 (9.6)	9.6
	2	31 (10.7)	20.3
	3	23 (7.9)	28.2
	4	17 (5.8)	34
	5	16 (5.5)	39.5
	6	11 (3.8)	43.3
	More than 6	165 (56.7)	100
If yes, other event participation		233 (48.5)	48.5

(table cont'd)

| Variable	Construct	Frequency (%)	Cumulative (%)
Training	In-person	361 (75.2)	75.2
	Online	21 (4.4)	79.6
	I did not receive training	98 (20.4)	100
How	Email	155 (32.2)	32.3
	Friend	172 (35.8)	68.1
	Radio	2 (.4)	68.5
	Newsletter	5 (1)	69.6
	School	28 (5.8)	75.1004
	Other	118 (24.6)	100

APPENDIX D. MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, AND CRONBACH ALPHA

| Construct	Variable	M	SD	α
Antecedent to Eng (M) (6 items)				.957
	ATEM 1	6.38	.911	
	ATEM 2	6.41	.919	
	ATEM 3	6.41	.919	
	ATEM 4	6.42	.887	
	ATEM 5	6.35	.920	
	ATEM 6	6.37	.926	
Antecedent to Eng (S) (3 items)				.414
	ATES 7	6.42	.933	
	ATES 8	5.94	1.244	
	ATES 9	6.41	1.114	
Antecedent to Eng (A) (4 items)				.846
	ATEA 1	6.39	791	
	ATEA 2	6.42	.726	
	ATEA 3	6.52	.658	
	ATEA 4	6.48	.687	
Person-Task Fit (3 items)				.781
	PTF 1	6.67	.497	
	PTF 2	6.49	.751	
	PTF 3	6.51	.725	
Engagement Cognitive (4 items)				.921
	ENG 1C	6.42	.992	
	ENG 2C	6.51	.934	
	ENG 3C	6.57	.885	
	ENG 4C	6.51	.909	
Emotional Engagement (4 items)				.896
	ENG 5E	6.08	1.229	

(table cont'd)

Construct	Variable	M	SD	α
	ENG 6E	6.14	1.153	
	ENG 7E	6.45	.962	
	ENG 8E	6.57	.866	
Behavioral Engagement (4 items)				.916
	ENG 9B	6.29	.986	
	ENG 10B	6.51	.909	
	ENG 11B	6.42	.885	
	ENG 12B	6.22	1.036	
Satisfaction (3 items)				.766
	SAT 1	6.01	1.215	
	SAT 2	6.21	1.140	
	SAT 3	6.37	.938	
Psychological Well-being (4 items)				.726
	PWB 1	6.53	.695	
	PWB 2	6.64	.651	
	PWB 3	6.50	.692	
	PWB 4	6.62	.597	
Intention to Remain (3 items)				.841
	ITR 1	6.49	.988	
	ITR 2	5.97	1.417	
	ITR 3	6.21	1.180	

APPENDIX E. PROPOSED STRUCTURAL MODEL
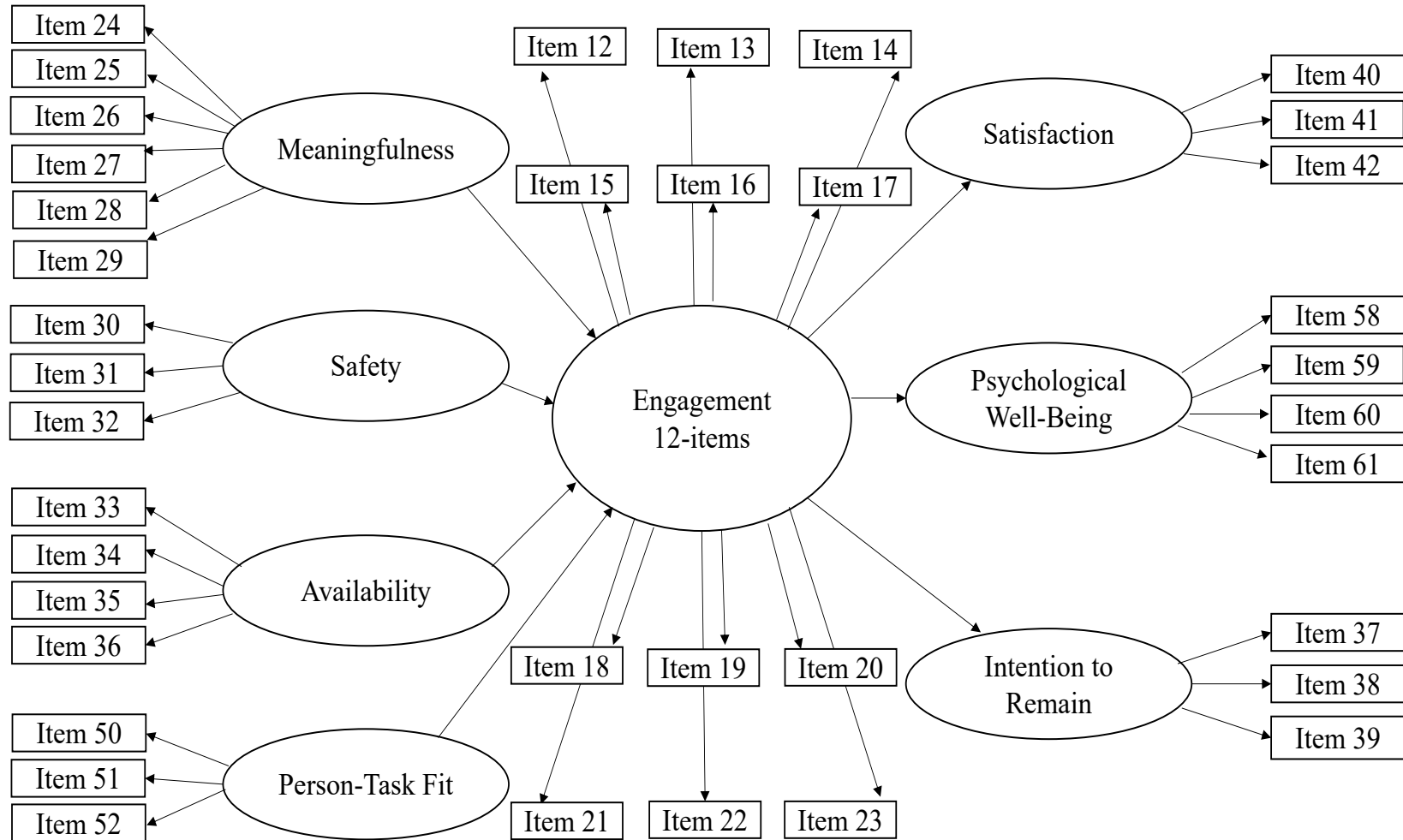
APPENDIX F. FINAL STRUCTURAL MODEL
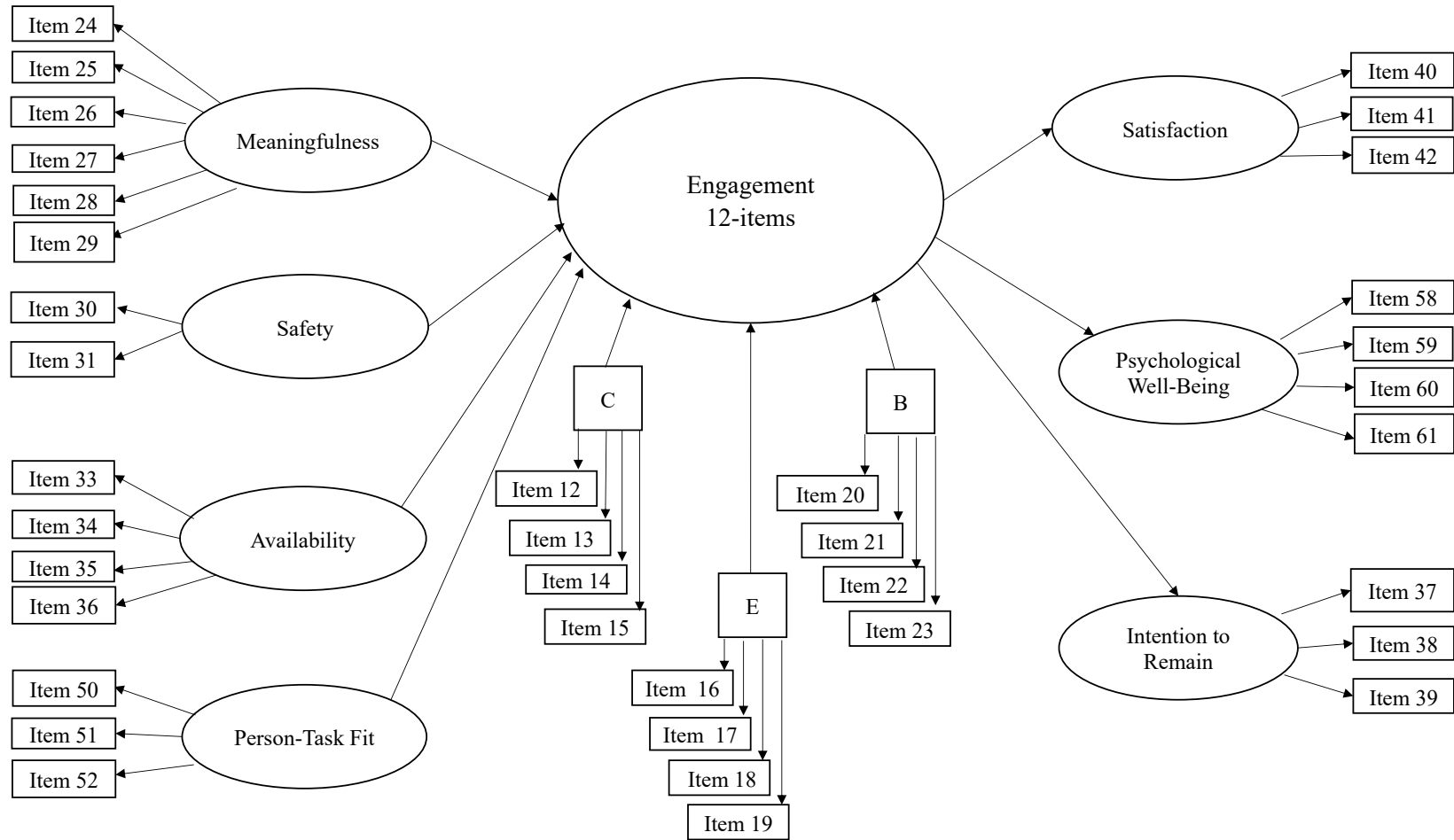
APPENDIX G. HYPOTHESIS TESTING: DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFETCS

Hypothesis	Direct Effects	Results
H1: Meaningfulness → Engagement	0.660**	Supported
H2: Safety → Engagement	0.227**	Supported
H3: Availability → Engagement	0.125**	Supported
H4: -Task Fit → Engagement	0.035	Not Supported
H5: Engagement → Satisfaction	0.553**	Supported
H6: Engagement → Psychological Well-Being	0.344**	Supported
H7: Engagement → Intention to Remain	0.482**	Supported

Hypothesis	Indirect Effects	Results
H8: Meaningfulness → SAT, WB, ITR through Engagement	0.365**, 0.227**, 0.318**	Supported
H9: Safety → SAT, WB, ITR through Engagement	0.126**, 0.078**, 0.110**	Supported

(table cont'd)

Hypothesis	Direct Effects	Results
H10: Availability →SAT, WB, ITR through Engagement	0.069*, 0.043*, 0.060*	Supported
H11: Person-Task Fit →SAT, WB, ITR through Engagement	0.019, 0.012, 0.017	Not Supported

APPENDIX H. IRB APPROVAL

ACTION ON EXEMPTION APPROVAL REQUEST

LSU

TO: Marcella Otto
Kinesiology

FROM: Dennis Landin
Chair, Institutional Review Board

DATE: October 10, 2019

RE: IRB# E11867

TITLE: Exploring the Role of Engagement Among Sport Volunteers at D1 College Football Bowl Games

Institutional Review Board
Dr. Dennis Landin, Chair
130 David Boyd Hall
Baton Rouge, LA 70803
P: 225.578.8692
F: 225.578.5983
irb@lsu.edu
lsu.edu/research

New Protocol/Modification/Continuation: New Protocol

Review Date: 10/8/2019

Approved ____X____   **Disapproved** _____

Approval Date: 10/8/2019   **Approval Expiration Date:** 10/7/2022

Exemption Category/Paragraph: 2b

Signed Consent Waived?: Yes

Re-review frequency: (three years unless otherwise stated)

LSU Proposal Number (if applicable):

By: Dennis Landin, Chairman _____

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING –
Continuing approval is CONDITIONAL on:
1. Adherence to the approved protocol, familiarity with, and adherence to the ethical standards of the Belmont Report, and LSU's Assurance of Compliance with DHHS regulations for the protection of human subjects*
2. Prior approval of a change in protocol, including revision of the consent documents or an increase in the number of subjects over that approved.
3. Obtaining renewed approval (or submittal of a termination report), prior to the approval expiration date, upon request by the IRB office (irrespective of when the project actually begins); notification of project termination.
4. Retention of documentation of informed consent and study records for at least 3 years after the study ends.
5. Continuing attention to the physical and psychological well-being and informed consent of the individual participants, including notification of new information that might affect consent.
6. A prompt report to the IRB of any adverse event affecting a participant potentially arising from the study.
7. Notification of the IRB of a serious compliance failure.
8. **SPECIAL NOTE:** When emailing more than one recipient, make sure you use bcc. Approvals will automatically be closed by the IRB on the expiration date unless the PI requests a continuation.

* *All investigators and support staff have access to copies of the Belmont Report, LSU's Assurance with DHHS, DHHS (45 CFR 46) and FDA regulations governing use of human subjects, and other relevant documents in print in this office or on our World Wide Web site at http://www.lsu.edu/irb*

REFERENCES

Adams, A., & Deane, J. (2009). Exploring formal and informal dimensions of sports volunteering in England. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 9*(2), 119-140.

Akingbola, K. (2013). Context and nonprofit human resource management. *Administration & Society*, *45*, 974-1004.

Akingbola, K., & van den Berg, H. A. (2017). Antecedents, consequences, and context of employee engagement in nonprofit organizations. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *39*(1), 46-74.

Albrecht, S. (2010). *Handbook of employee engagement*. Cheltenham, England: Edward Elgar.

Alfes, K., Shantz, A. D., & Bailey, C. (2016). Enhancing volunteer engagement to achieve desirable outcomes: What can non-profit employers do? *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, *27*, 595-617.

Alfes, K., Shantz, A. D., Truss, C., & Soane, E. C. (2013). The link between perceived human resource management practices, engagement and employee behaviour: A moderated mediation model. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 24*, 330-351.

Allen, J. B., & Bartle, M. (2014). Sport event volunteers' engagement: Management matters. *Managing Leisure, 19*(1), 36-50.

Allen, J. B., & Shaw, S. (2009). "Everyone rolls up their sleeves and mucks in": Exploring volunteers' motivation and experiences of the motivational climate of a sporting event. *Sport Management Review, 12*, 79-90. doi:10.1016/j.smr.2008.12.002

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63,* 1-18.

Allstate Sugar Bowl (2019, April 24). Football. *Allstatesugarbowl.org*. Retrieved from https://allstatesugarbowl.org/allstate-sugar-bowl/about-us/

Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychology Bulletin, 103*, 411-423.

Andreff, W. (2006). Voluntary work in sport. In W. Andreff, & S. Szymanski (Eds.), *Handbook on the economics of sport* (pp. 219-224). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Andrew, J. (1996). Motivations and expectations of volunteers involved in a large scale sports event: a pilot study. *Australian Leisure*, *7*(1), 21-25.

Aryee, S., Budhwar, P. S., & Chen, Z. X. (2002). Trust as a mediator of the relationship between organizational justice and work outcomes: Test of a social exchange model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *23*(3), 267-285.

Auld, C. (1997). Professionalisation of Australian sport administration: The effects on organisational decision-making. *European Journal for Sport Management, 4,* 17-39.

Auld, C. J., & Godbey, G. (1998). Influence in Canadian national sport organizations: Perceptions of professionals and volunteers. *Journal of Sport Management, 12,* 20-38.

Baade, R. A., Baumann, R. W., & Matheson, V.A. (2008). Assessing the economic impact of college football games on local economies. *Journal of Sports Economics, 9*, 628-643.

Bakker, A. B., Albrecht, S. L., & Leiter, M. P. (2011). Key questions regarding work engagement. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 20*(1), 4-28.

Bakker, A. B., & Bal, M. P. (2010). Weekly work engagement and performance: A study among starting teachers. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *83*, 189-206.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., De Boer, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2003). Job demands and job resources as predictors of absence duration and frequency. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 62*, 341-356.

Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2008). Positive organizational behavior: Engaged employees in flourishing organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 29,* 147-154. doi: 10.1002/job.515

Bang, H. (2011). Leader-member exchange in nonprofit sport organizations. *Journal of Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 22*(1), 85-105.

Bang, H., & Chelladurai, P. (2003). *Motivation and satisfaction in volunteering for 2002 World Cup in Korea*. Paper presented at the conference of the North American Society for Sport Management in Ithaca, New York.

Bang, H., & Ross, S. (2009). Volunteer motivation and satisfaction. *Journal of Venue and Event Management, 1*(1), 61-77.

Bang, H., Ross, S., & Reio, T. (2013). From motivation to organizational commitment of volunteers in non-profit sport organizations. *Journal of Management Development, 32*(1), 96-112.

Barr, C. (2018). Event management. In L. P. Masteralexis, C. A. Barr, & M. A. Hums (Eds.), *Principles and practice of sport management* (pp. 351-371). Burlington, MA: Jones & Bartlett Learning.

Barrick, M. R., Thurgood, G. R., Smith, T. A., & Courtright, S. H. (2015). Collective organizational engagement: Linking motivational antecedents, strategic implementation, and form performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 58*(1), 111-135.

Bates, S. (2004). Getting engaged. *HR Magazine, 49*(2), 44-51.

Baumruk, R. (2004). The missing link: The role of employee engagement in business success. *Workspan, 47*(11), 48-52.

Bentler, P. M., & Yuan, K. (1999). Structural equation modeling with small samples: Test statistics. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 34*(2), 181-197.

Beyer, S. (2016, January 7). Are winning college football teams a catalyst for urban growth? *Forbes*. Retrieved from https://www.forbes.com/sites/scottbeyer/2016/01/07/are-winning-college-football-teams-a-catalyst-for-urban-growth/#48beee867cf1

Blais, M. A. (2012). The Schwartz Outcome Scale- 10 (SOS)-10. *Integrating Science and Practice, 2*(2), 40-42.

Blais, M. A., Lenderking, W. R. Baer, L., deLorell, A., Peets, K., Leahy, L., & Burns, C. (1999). Development and initial validation of a brief mental health outcome measure. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 73*, 359-373.

Blais, M. A., Sinclair, S., Baity, M., Worth, J., Weiss, A., Ball, L., et al. (2012). Measuring outcomes in adult outpatient psychiatry. *Clinical Psychology & Psychotherapy Clin. Psychol. Psychother, 19*, 203-213.

Bradley, N. (1999). Sampling for Internet surveys: An examination of respondent selection for Internet research. *Journal of Market Research Society*, *41*, 387-395.

Britt, T. W., Castro, C. A., & Adler, A. B. (2005). Self-engagement, stressors, and health: A longitudinal study. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 31*, 1475-1486.

Brown, S. P. (1996). A meta-analysis and review of organizational research on job involvement. *Psychological Bulletin, 2,* 235-255.

Brown, S. P., & Leigh, T. W. (1996). A new look at psychological climate and its relationship to job involvement, effort, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *81*(4), 358-368.

Brown, M. T., Rascher, D. A., Nagel, M. S., & McEvoy, C. D. (2010). *Financial management in the sport industry*. Scottsdale, AZ: Holcomb Hathaway.

Buchanan, L. (2004). The things they do for love. *Harvard Business Review, 82*(12), 19-20.

Burgham, M., & Downward, P. (2005). Why volunteer, time to volunteer? A case study from swimming. *Managing Leisure, 10*(2), 79-93.

Burnette, J. L., & Williams, L. J. (2005). Structural equation modeling (SEM): An introduction to basic techniques and advanced issues. In R. Swanson, & E. F. Holton (Eds.), *Research in Organizations* (pp. 143-160). San Francisco, CA: Berbett-Koehler Publischers, Inc.

Burton, K. D., Lydon, J. E., D'Alessandro, D. U., & Koestner, R. (2006). The differential effects of intrinsic and identified motivation on well-being and performance: Prospective, experimental, and implicit approaches to self-determination theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 91*, 750-762.

Bussell, H., & Forbes, D. (2002). Understanding the volunteer market: The what, where, who and why of volunteering. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing, 7*(3), 244-257.

Byrne, Z. S. (2015). *Understanding employee engagement: Theory, research, and practice.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Callow, M. (2004). Identifying promotional appeals for targeting potential volunteers: An exploratory study on volunteer motives among retirees. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing, 9*, 261-274.

Chalip, L. (2004). Beyond impact: a general model for sport event leverage. In B.W. Ritchie & D. Adair (Eds.), *Sport tourism: Interrelationships, impacts and issues* (pp. 226-252). Clevedon, UK: Channel View Publications.

Chalip, L., Green, C. B., & Vander Velden, L. (1998). Sources of interest in travel to the Olympic Games. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 1*(4), 7-22.

Chelladurai, P. (2006). *Human resource management in sport and recreation* (2nd ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Chelladurai, P., & Madella, A. (2006). *Human resource management in Olympic sport organizations*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics Publishers.

Christian, M. S., Garza, A. S., & Slaughter, J. E. (2011). Work engagement: A quantitative review and test of its relations with task and contextual performance. *Personnel Psychology, 64,* 89-136.

Clary, E. G., & Snyder, M. (1999). The motivations to volunteer: Theoretical and practical considerations. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 8*(5), 156-159.

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*, 1516-1530.

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

Cnaan, R. A., Handy, F., & Wadsworth, M. (1996). Defining who is a volunteer: Conceptual and empirical considerations. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *25*(3), 364-383.

Coakley, J. J. (2017). *Sports in society: Issues and controversies* (12th ed.). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Coalter, F., & Taylor, J. (2008). *Large scale sports events: Event impact framework.* Retrieved from https://dspace. stir.ac.uk/bitstream/1893/1942/1/Large%20Scale%20 Sports%20Events%20-%20v2.pdf

Coates, D., & Depken, C. A. (2011). Mega-events: Is Baylor football to Waco what the Super Bowl is to Houston? *Journal of Sports Economics, 12*(6), 599-621.

Coffman, C. (2000). *Is your company bleeding talent? How to become a true "employer of choice". The Gallup Management Journal, 2000.* Princeton, NJ: The Gallup Organization.

Coffman, C., & Gonzalez-Molina, G. (2002). *Follow this Path: How the world's greatest organizations drive growth by unleashing human potential.* New York, NY: Warner Books, Inc.

Cole, M. S., Walter, F., Bedeian, A. G., & O'Boyle, E. H. (2011). Job burnout and employee engagement: A meta- analytic examination of construct proliferation. *Journal of Management, 38*(5), 1550-1581.

College Football Playoff (2019). *Collegefootballplayoff.com.* Retrieved from https://college footballplayoff.com/sports/2016/9/30/overview.aspx

Corral-Verdugo, V. (2002). *Structural equation modeling.* In R. B. Bechtel, & A. Churchman (Eds.), *Handbook of environmental psychology* (pp. 256-270). New York, NY: Wiley.

Costa, C. A., Chalip, Green, C., & Simes, C. (2006). Reconsidering the role of training in event volunteers' satisfaction. *Sport Management Review, 9*, 165-182.

Coyne, B. S., & Coyne, E. J. (2001). Getting, keeping and caring for unpaid volunteers for professional golf tournament events: A study of the recruitment/retention of unpaid volunteers for staging large, mass-attended, high-profile Professional Golf Association (PGA) golf tournaments. *Human Resource Development International, 4*(2), 199-214.

Crawford, S. D., Couper, M. P., & Lamias, M. J. (2001). Web surveys: Perceptions of burden. *Social Science Computer Review, 19,* 146-162.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cuskelly, G. (1995). The influence of committee functioning on the organizational commitment of volunteer administrators in sport. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 18*(4), 254-266.

Cuskelly, G. (2004). Volunteer retention in community sport organisations. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 4*(2), 59-76.

Cuskelly, G., & Boag, A. (2001). Organisational commitment as a predictor of committee member turnover among volunteer sport administrators: Results of a time-lagged study. *Sport Management Review, 4,* 65-86.

Cuskelly, G., Harrington, M., & Stebbins, R. A. (2002). Changing levels of organizational commitment amongst sport volunteers: A serious leisure approach. *Leisure/Loisir, 27*(3), 191-212.

Cuskelly, G., Hoye, R., & Auld, C. (2006). *Working with volunteers in sport*. London, UK: Routledge.

Cuskelly, G., McIntyre, N., & Boag, A. (1998). A longitudinal study of the development of organizational commitment amongst volunteer sport administrators. *Journal of Sport Management, 12*, 181-202.

Cuskelly, G., Taylor, T., Hoye, R., & Darcy, S. (2006). Volunteer management practices and volunteer retention: A human resource management approach. *Sport Management Review, 9,* 141-163.

Czarnowsky, M. (2008). *Learning's role in employee engagement: An ASTD research study*. Alexandria, VA: American Society for Training & Development.

Daughters, A. (2015, April 8). Tracking the growth in college football bowl games. *FBSchedules.com.* Retrieved from www.fbschedules.com/2015/04/tracking-growth-college-football-bowl-games/

Dawson, P., & Downward, P. (2013). The relationship between participation in sport and sport volunteering: An economic analysis. *International Journal of Sport Finance, 8*, 75-92.

De Vaus, D. A. (1986). *Surveys in social research.* London: George Allen & Unwin.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry, 11*(4), 227-268.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008). Facilitating optimal motivation and psychological well-being across life's domains. *Canadian Psychology, 49*, 14-23. doi:10.1037/0708-5591.49.1.14

Deci, E. L., Vallerand, R. J., Pelletier, L. G., & Ryan, R. M. (1991). Motivation and education: The self-determination perspective. *Educational Psychologist, 26*, 325-346.

Demerouti, E., & Cropanzano, R. (2010). From thought to action: Employee work engagement and job performance. In A. B. Bakker & M. P. Leiter (Eds.), *Work engagement: A handbook of essential theory and research* (pp. 147-163). Hove, East Sussex: Psychology Press.

DeSchriver, T. D., & Jensen, P. E. (2002). Determinants of spectator attendance at NCAA Division II football contests. *Journal of Sport Management, 16*(4), 311-330.

Dickson, T. J., Darcy, S., Edwards, D., & Terwiel, F. A. (2015). Sport mega-event volunteers' motivations and postevent intention to volunteer: The Sydney World Masters games, 2009. *Event Management, 19*, 227-245.

Dillman, D. A. (1991). The design and administration of mail surveys. *Annual Review of Sociology, 17*, 225-249.

Dillman, D. A. (2000). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Dillman, D., & Bowker, D. K. (2001). The web questionnaire challenge to survey methodologists. In U. Reips, & M. Bosnjak (Eds.), *Dimension of internet science* (pp. 159-178). Lengerich, Germany: Pabst Science Publishers.

Dillman, D. A., Smyth, J. D., & Christian, L. M. (2014). *Internet, phone, mail, and mixed-mode survey: The tailored design method.* Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Dillman, D. A., Tortora, R. D., & Bowker, D. K. (1999). *Principles for constructing web surveys*. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Don_Dillman/publication/ 2465935_Principles_for_Constructing_Web_Surveys/links/549813cb0cf2519f5a1db6de. pdf

Doherty, A. J. (1998). Managing our human resources: A review of organisational behaviour in sport. *Sport Management Review, 1*, 1-24.

Doherty, A. (2006). Sport volunteerism: An introduction to the special issue. *Sport Management Review, 9*, 105-109.

Doherty, A. (2009). The volunteer legacy of a major sport event. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events, 1*(3), 185-207.

Doherty, A. J., & Carron, A. V. (2003). Cohesion in volunteer sport executive committees. *Journal of Management, 12*, 181-202.

Doherty, A. J., & Chelladurai, P. (1999). Managing cultural diversity in sport organizations: A theoretical perspective. *Journal of Sport Management, 13*, 280- 297.

Donnelly, P., & Coakley, J. (2002). *The role of recreation in promoting social inclusion.* Toronto, ON: Laidlaw Foundation.

Dorsch, K. D., Riemer, H. A., Sluth, V., Paskevich, D. M., & Chelladurai, P. (2002). *What affects a volunteer's commitment.* Toronto: Canadian Centre for Philanthropy.

Dosh, K. (2013). *Saturday millionaires: How winning football builds winning colleges.* Nashville, TN: Turner Publishing.

Downward, P., Lumsdon, L., & Ralston, R. (2005). Gender differences in sports event volunteering: Insights from Crew 2002 at the XVII Commonwealth Games. *Managing Leisure, 10*, 219-236.

Drost, E. A. (2011). Validity and reliability in social science research. *Education Research and Perspectives, 38*(1), 105-124.

Dunnavant, K. (2004). *The fifty-year seduction: How television manipulated college football, from the birth of the modern NCAA to the creation of the BCS.* New York, NY: St Martin's Press.

Dwyer, L., & Fredline, L. (2008). Special sport events- Part I. *Journal of Sport Management, 22*(4), 385-391.

Dwyer, L., Forsyth, P., Madden, J., & Spurr, R. (2000). Economic impacts of inbound tourism under different assumptions regarding the macroeconomy. *Current Issues in Tourism, 3*(4), 325-363.

Eckard, E. W. (2013). Is the Bowl Championship Series a cartel? Some evidence. *Journal of Sports Economics, 14*(1), 3-22.

Eddy, T., Rascher, D., & Stewart, R. (2016). Where is everyone? An examination of attendance at college football bowl games. *International Journal of Sport Finance, 11*(1), 26-45.

Edwards, J. R. (1991). Person–job fit: A conceptual integration, literature review, and methodological critique. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 6,* 283-357.

Efron, B. (1979). Bootstrap methods: Another look at the jackknife. *Annals of Statistics, 7*, 1-26.

Ellis, C. M., & Sorensen, A. (2007). Assessing employee engagement: The key to improving productivity. *Perspectives, 15*(1), 1-9.

Elstad, B. (1997). Volunteer perception of learning and satisfaction in a mega-event: the case of the XVII Olympic Winter Games in Lillehammer. *Festival Management and Event Tourism, 4*, 75-83.

Engelberg, E. (2008). "The Commitment of Volunteers in Junior Sport Organizations: A Mixed Methods Study." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Griffith University.

Engelberg, T., Skinner, J., & Zakus, D. H. (2011). Exploring the relationship between commitment, experience, and self-assessed performance in youth sport organizations. *Sport Management Review*, *14*(2), 117-125.

Fairley, S., Kellett, P., & Green, B. C. (2007). Volunteering abroad: Motives for travel to volunteer at the Athens Olympic games. *Journal of Sport Management, 21*(1), 41-58.

Farrell, J. M., Johnston, M. E., & Twynam, G. D. (1998). Volunteer motivation, satisfaction, and management at an elite sporting competition. *Journal of Sport Management, 12*, 288-300.

FBA (2019). *FBA Media Guide*. Retrieved from https://footballbowlassociation.com/documents/2019/10/23/FBA_Media_Guide_2019_digital.pdf

Finkelstein, M. A. (2008) Volunteer satisfaction and volunteer action: afunctional approach. *Social Behavior and Personality, 36*(1), 9-18.

Fleming, J. H., & Asplund, J. (2007). *Human sigma*. New York, NY: Gallup.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*, 382-388.

Fowler, F. J. (2002). *Survey research methods* (3rd ed.). Newberry Park, CA: Sage.

Frechtling, D. C. (1987). Assessing the impacts of travel and tourism- measuring economic benefits. In J. R. B. Ritchie, & C. R. Goeldner (Eds.), *Travel, tourism and hospitality research- a handbook for managers and researchers* (pp.325-331). New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons.

Fredrickson, B. L. (1998). What good are positive emotions? *Review of General Psychology*, *2*, 300-319.

Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist*, *56*, 218-226.

Freeman, R. B. (1997). Working for nothing: The supply of volunteer labor. *Journal of Labor Economics, 15*(1), S140-S166.

Gagné, M., & Koestner, R. (2002). Self-determination theory as a framework for understanding organizational commitment. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology in Toronto, Canada.

The Gallup Organization. (2001, March 15). What your dissatisfied workers cost. *Gallup Management Journal*. Retrieved from http://gmj.gallup.com/content/default.aspx?ci=439

Garner, J. T., & Garner, L. T. (2011). Volunteering an opinion: Organizational voice and volunteer retention in nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *40*(5), 813-828.

Gasser, P. K., & Levinsen, A. (2004). Breaking post-war ice: Open fun football schools in Bosnia and Herzegovina. *Sport in Society*, *7*(3), 457-472.

Getz, D. (1997). *Event management and event tourism*. New York, NY: Cognizant Communication Corporation.

Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management*, *29*(3), 403-428.

Giannoulakis, C., Wang, C. H., & Gray, D. (2008). Measuring volunteer motivation in mega-sporting events. *Event Management, 11*, 191-200.

Gladden, J. M., McDonald, M. A., & Barr, C. A. (1998). Event management. In L.P. Masteralexis, C.A. Barr, & M.A. Hums (Eds.), *Principles and practice of sport management* (pp. 42-59*).* Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen.

Gladden, J. M., McDonald, M. A., & Barr, C. A. (2005). Event management. In L.P. Masteralexis, C.A. Barr, & M.A. Hums (Eds.), *Principles and practice of sport management* (pp. 84-96). Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen.

Gold Coast 2018. (2017). *Volunteers.* Retrieved from https://www.gc2018.com/take/part/ volunteerring.

Goffman, E. (1961a). *Encounters: Two studies in the sociology of interaction*. Indianapolis, IN: Bobbs-Merrill Co.

Gratton, C., & Jones, I. (2004). *Research methods for sport studies.* London: Routledge.

Green, B. C. (2001). Leveraging subculture and identify to promote sport events. *Sport Management Review, 4,* 1-9.

Green, B. C., & Chalip, L. (1998). Sport volunteers: Research agenda and application. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 7*(2), 14-23.

Green, B. C., & Chalip, L. (2004). Paths to volunteer commitment: Lessons from Sydney Olympic Games. In R.A. Stebbins & M. Graham (Eds.), *Volunteering as leisure/leisure as volunteering: An international assessment* (pp. 49-68). Wallingford, UK: CAB International.

Griffith, D. A. (2010). An analytical perspective on sporting events attendance: The 2007-2008 US NCAA college bowl games. *Applied Geography, 30*, 203-209.

Groves, R. M. (2006). Nonresponse rates and nonresponse bias in household surveys. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *70*, 646-675.

Gruman, J. A., & Saks, A. M. (2011). Performance management and employee engagement. *Human Resource Management Review, 21*, 123-136. doi:10.1016/j.hrmr.2010.09.004

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1980). *Work redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Hager, M. A., & Brudney, J. L. (2004). Volunteer Management: practices and retention of volunteers. The Urban Institute. Retrieved from http://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/alfresco/publication-pdfs/411005-VolunteerManagement-Practices-and-Retention-of-Volunteers.PDF

Hager, M. A., & Brudney, J. L. (2011). Problems recruiting volunteers: Nature versus nurture. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 22*(2), 137-157.

Haggerty, G., Blake, M., Naraine, M., Siefert, C. & Blais, M. (2010). Construct validity of the Schwartz Outcome scale-10: Comparisons to interpersonal distress, adult attachment, alexithymia, the five factor model, romantic relationship length and ratings of childhood memories. *Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy, 17*(1), 44-50.

Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate data analysis* (5th ed.). New Jersey, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.)*.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2005). *Multivariate data analysis* (5th ed.)*.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis* (6th ed.). New Jersey, NJ: Pearson Educational, Inc.

Halbesleben, J. R. B. (2010). A meta-analysis of work engagement: Relationships with burnout, demands, resources, and consequences. In A. B. Bakker & M. P. Leiter (Eds.), *Work engagement: A handbook of essential theory and research* (pp. 102-117). Hove, East Sussex, UK: Psychology Press.

Halbesleben, J. R. B., & Wheeler, A. R. (2008). The relative roles of engagement and embeddedness in predicting job performance and intention to leave. *Work and Stress, 22*(3), 242-256.

Hallberg, U. E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2006). "Same same" but different? Can work engagement be discriminated from job involvement and organizational commitment? *European Psychologist, 11,* 119-127.

Hallmann, K., & Harms, G. (2012). Determinants of volunteer motivation and their impact on future voluntary engagement: A comparison of volunteer's motivation at sport events in equestrian and handball. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, *3*, 272-291.

Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Hayes, T. L. (2002). Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 268-279.

Heintzman R., & Marson, B. (2005). People, service and trust: Links in a public sector service value chain. *International Review of Administrative Studies*, *7*(4), 549-575.

Hillman, A. J., Nicholson, G., & Shropshire, C. (2008). Directors' multiple identities, identification, and board monitoring and resource provision. *Organization Science, 19,* 441-456.

Hinkin, T. R. (1995). A review of scale development practices in the study of organizations. *Journal of Management, 21*, 967-988.

Hoye, R. (2007). Commitment, involvement and performance of voluntary sport organization board members. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 7*(1), 109-121.

Hoye, R., Cuskelly, G., Taylor, T., & Darcy, S. (2008). Volunteer motives and retention in community sport: A study of Australian rugby clubs. *Australian Journal on Volunteering, 13*(2), 40-48.

Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *6*(1), 1-55.

Iacobucci, D. (2008). *Mediation analysis.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Iacobucci, D. (2010). Structural equations modeling: Fit indices, sample size, and advanced topics. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 20*, 90-98.

Inglis, S. (1997). Roles of the board in amateur sport organizations. *Journal of Sport Management, 11*, 160-176.

Isaac, S., & Michael, W.B. (1995). *Handbook in research and evaluation: A study of principles, methods, and strategies useful in the planning, design, and evaluation of studies in education and the behavioral sciences*. San Diego, CA: EdITS.

Iverson, R., Olekalns, M., & Erwin, P. J. (1998). Affectivity, organizational stressors, and absenteeism: A causal model of burnout and its consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 52*, 1-23.

Jackson, C. L., Colquitt, J. A., Wesson, M. J., & Zapata-Phelan, C. P. (2006). Psychological collectivism: A measurement validation and linkage to group member performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 884-899.

Jacobs, H. (2013). An examination of psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability as the underlying mechanisms linking job features and personal characteristics to work engagement. FIU Electronic Theses and Dissertations, 904 Retrieved from https://digitalcommons.fiu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=2023&context=etd

Jaros, S. J. (1997). An assessment of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 51,* 319-337.

Johnson, G. (2015, December 1). NCAA Football: Council approves process to allow 5-7 teams into bowl games. *NCAA.com*. Retrieved from https://www.ncaa.com/news/football/article/2015-11-30/ncaa-football-council-approves-process-allow-5-7-teams-bowl-games

Johnston, M. E., Twynam, G. D., & Farrell, J. M. (2000). Motivation and satisfaction of event volunteers for a major youth organisation. *Leisure/Loisir, 24*, 161-177. doi:10.1080/14927713.1999.9651263

Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Thoresen, C. J., & Patton, G. K. (2001). The job satisfaction-job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin, 127*(3), 376-407.

Judge, T. A., Heller, D., & Mount, M. K. (2002). Five-factor model of personality and job satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(3), 530-541.

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal, 33*, 692-724.

Kahn, W. A. (1992). To be fully there. Psychological presence at work. *Human Relations, 45*, 321-349.

Kanungo, R. N. (1982). Measurement of job and work in involvement. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 67,* 341-349.

Kaplan, D. (2008). *Structural equation modeling: Foundations and extensions* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Kemp, S. (2002). The hidden workforce: Volunteers' learning in the Olympics. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 26*(2), 109-116.

Ketter, P. (2008). What's the big deal about employee engagement? *Training & Development, 62*, 44-49.

Kercheval, B. (2019, April 30). Boston's Fenway Park to host new 2020 college football bowl game between ACC, AAC teams. *CBSSports.com.* Retrieved from https://www.cbssports. com/college-football/news/bostons-fenway-park-to-host-new-2020-college-football-bowl-game-between-acc-aac-teams/

Khoo, S., & Engelhorn, R. (2007). Volunteer motivations for the Malaysian Paralympias. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development, 4*, 159-167.

Khoo S., & Engelhorn, R. (2011). Volunteer motivations at a national Special Olympics event. *Adapted Physical Activity Quarterly, 28*, 27-39.

Kim, M., Chelladurai, P., & Trail, G. T. (2007). A model of volunteer retention in youth sport. *Journal of Sport Management, 21*, 151-171.

Kim, M., Kim, A. C. H., Newman, J. I., Ferris, G. R., & Perrewé, P. L. (2019). The antecedents and consequences of positive organizational behavior: The role of psychological capital for promoting employee well-being in sport organizations. S*port Management Review 22*(1), 108-125.

Kim, S., Price, J., Mueller, C., & Watson, T. (1996). The determinants of career intent among physicians at a U.S. Air Force hospital. *Human Relations, 49*(7), 947-976.

Kimberlin, C. L., & Winterstein, A. G. (2008). Validity and reliability of measurement instruments used in research. *American Journal of Health-System Pharmacy, 65*(23), 2227-2284.

Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: The Guildford Press.

Kline, R. B. (2016). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (4th ed.). New York, NY: The Guildford Press.

Kiesler, S., & Sproull, L.S. (1986). Response effects in the electronic survey. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 50*, 402-413.

Knoke, D., & Prensky, D. (1984). What relevance do organization theories have for voluntary associations? *Social Science Quarterly, 65*(1), 3-20.

Kodama, E., Doherty, A., & Popovic, M. (2013). Front line insight: An autoethnography of the Vancouver 2010 volunteer experience. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 13*(1), 76-93.

Koestner, R., & Losier, G. F. (2002). Distinguishing three ways of being internally motivated: A closer look at introjection, identification, and intrinsic motivation. In E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination research* (pp. 101-121). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.

Kreiner, G. E., Hollensbe, E. C., & Sheep, M. L. (2006). Where is the "me" among the "we"? Identity work and the search for optimal balance. *Academy of Management Journal, 49,* 1031-1057.

Kristof, A. L. (1996). Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology, 49*, 1-49.

Kristof-Brown, A. L., & Guay, R. P. (2011). Person–environment fit. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial/organizational psychology* (pp. 3–50). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., & Johnson, E. C. (2005). Consequences of individuals' fit at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-group, and person-supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology, 58*, 281-342.

Krosnick, J. A., & Presser, S. (2010). Sampling theory. In P. V. Marsden, & J. D. Wright (Eds.), *Handbook of survey Research* (pp. 83-138). Bingley, UK: Emerald.

Lasby, D., & Sperling, J. (2007). *Understanding the capacity of Ontario sports and recreation organisations*. Toronto, ON: Imagine Canada.

Lauver, K. J., & Kristof-Brown, A. (2001). Distinguishing between employees' perceptions of person-job and person-organization fit. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 59*, 454-470.

Lee, Y., Kim, M., & Koo, J. (2016). The impact of social interaction and team member exchange on sport event volunteer management. *Sport Management Review, 19*, 550-562.

Leiter, M. P., & Bakker, A. B. (2010). Work engagement: Introduction. In A. B. Bakker & M. P. Leiter (Eds.), *Work engagement: A handbook of essential theory and research* (pp. 1-9). Hove, East Sussex, UK: Psychology Press.

Little, T. D., Cunningham, W. A., Shahar, G., & Widaman, K. F. (2002). To parcel or not to parcel: Exploring the question, weighing the merits. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *9*(2), 151-173.

Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In Dunnette, M.D. (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1297-343). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.

Locke, M., Ellis, A., & Smith, J. D. (2003). Hold on to what you've got: The volunteer retention literature. *Voluntary Action, 5*(3), 81-99.

Lomax, R. G. (2010). Structural equation modeling: Multisample covariance and mean structures. In G. R. Hancock & R. O. Mueller (Eds*.), The reviewer's guide to quantitative methods in the social sciences* (pp. 385-395). New York, NY: Routledge.

Love, A., Hardin, R. L., Koo, G-Y., & Morse, A. (2011). Effects of motives on satisfaction and behavioral intentions of volunteers at a PGA event. *International Journal of Sport Management, 12,* 86-101.

Luthans, F., & Peterson, S. J. (2002). Employee engagement and manager self-efficacy: Implications for managerial effectiveness and development. *Journal of Management Development, 21*, 376-387. doi:10.1108/02621710210426864

Macey, W., & Schneider, B. (2008). The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 1*, 3-30.

Macey, W. H., Schneider, B., Babera, K. M., & Young, S. A. (2009). *Employee engagement: Tools for analysis, practice, and competitive advantage*. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Maehr, M. L., & Braskamp, L. A. (1986). *The motivation factor: A theory of personal investment.* Lexington, UK: D. C., Heath Co.

Manfreda, K. L., Batagelj, Z., & Vehovar, V. (2002). Design of web survey questionnaires: Three basic experiments. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communications, 7*(3)*.* doi: 10.1111/j.1083-6101.2002.tb00149.x

Martinez, J. M., Stinson, J. L., Kang, M., & Jubenville, C. B. (2010). Intercollegiate athletics and institutional fundraising: A meta-analysis. *Sport Marketing Quarterly 19*(1), 36-47.

Markos, S., & Sridevi, M. S. (2010). Employee engagement: They key to improving performance. *International Journal of Business and Management, 5*(12), 89-96.

Markowitz, G. A. (2012). *Faculty intent to stay and the perceived relationship with supervisor at a career-focused university* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Open Access Dissertations. (Paper 890)

Maslach, C., Jackson, S. E., & Leiter, M. P. (1996). *Maslach Burn out Inventory manual* (3rd Ed.). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist's Press.

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*, 397-422. doi:10.1111/1467-8721.01258

Maslow, A. (1954). *Motivation and personality.* New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Mathieu J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin, 108,* 171-194.

May, D. R. (2003). *Fostering the human spirit at work: Toward an understanding of the influences on employees' experienced meaningfulness at work.* [Unpublished manuscript]. Department of Management, University of Nebraska-Lincoln.

May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 77,* 11-37.

McAllister, M. P. (1998). College bowl sponsorship and the increased commercialization of amateur sports. *Critical Studies in Mass Communication, 15*, 357-381.

McDonald, R. P., & Ho, M. H. R. (2002). Principle and practice in reporting structural equation analysis. *Psychological Methods, 7*(1), 64-81.

McEvoy, C. D., Morse, A. L., & Shapiro, S. L. (2013). Factors influencing collegiate athletic department revenues. *Journals of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics, 6,* 249-267.

McMorrow, T. F., Jr. (2014). *The relationship of job demands and job resources in work engagement of sport volunteers.* 75, ProQuest Information & Learning.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review, 1*, 61-98.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*. London, UK: Sage.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(4), 538-551.

Meyer, J. P., & Gagné, M. (2008). Employee engagement from a self-determination theory perspective. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 1*, 60-62.

Misener, L., & Mason, D. S. (2006). Creating community networks: Can sporting events offer meaningful sources of social capital? *Managing Leisure, 11*(1), 39-56.

Mokwa, M., McIntosh, D., Eaton, J., Evans, A., & Hill, K. (2016). The economic impact of College Football Playoff 2016. Tempe, AZ: Seidman Research Institute. Retrieved from http://azsmart-dev.wpcarey.asu.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/2016-CFP-Exec-Summary.pdf

Mone, E. M., & London, M. (2010). *Employee engagement through effective performance management: A practical guide for managers*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Morrow, P. C. (1983). Concept redundancy in organizational research: The case of work commitment. *Academy of Management Review, 8,* 486-500.

Mowday, R. T. (1998). Reflections on the study and relevance on organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review, 4,* 387-401.

Mowday, R. T., Porter, L., & Steer, R. (1982). *Employee-organization linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism and turnover.* New York, NY: Academic Press.

Musibay, O. P. (2013, November 1). Orange Bowl, BCS Championship scored high in economic impact. *South Florida Business Journal.* Retrieved from https://www.bizjournals.com/southflorida/news/2013/11/01/orange-bowl-bcs-championship-scored.html

Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. O. (1998-2017). *Mplus user's guide* (8th Ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Muthén & Muthén.

NCAA Postseason Bowl Handbook (2019). *Ncaaorg.s3.amazonaws.com.* Retrieved from https://ncaaorg.s3.amazonaws.com/championships/sports/football/d1/PBA/2019-20PBA_PostseasonBowlHandbook.pdf

Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Inc.

Ostroff, C., Shin, Y., & Kinicki, A. (2005). Multiple perspectives of congruence: Relationships between value congruence and employee attitudes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*, 591-623.

Ostroff, C., & Zhan, Y. (2012). Person–environment fit in the selection process. In N. Schmidt (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of personnel assessment and selection.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ours, R. M. (2004). B*owl games: College football's greatest tradition.* Yardley, PA: Westholme Publishing VIII.

Østerlund, K. (2013). Managing voluntary sport organizations to facilitate volunteer recruitment. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 13*(2), 143-165.

Park, S., & Kim, M. (2013). Development of a hierarchical model of sport volunteers' organizational commitment. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 13*, 94-109. doi:10.1080/16184742.2012.744764

Park, S., Kim, J., Park, J., & Lim, D. H. (2018). Work engagement in nonprofit organizations: A conceptual model. *Human Resource Development Review*, *17*, 5-33.

Pauline, G. (2011). Volunteer satisfaction and intent to remain: An analysis of contributing factors among professional golf event volunteers. *International Journal of Event Management Research, 6*(1), 10-32.

Pearce, J. (1993). *Volunteers: The organizational behavior of unpaid workers.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Pearson, C. M., & Porath, C. L. (2005). On incivility, its impact, and directions for future research. In R. M. Griffin & A. M. O'Leary-Kelly (Eds.), *The dark side of organizational behavior* (pp. 403-425). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Pedulla, J. (2014, January 28). The price for Super Bowl volunteers. *New York Times*, B10.

Pennington-Gray, L., & Holdnak, A. (2002). Out of the stands and into the community: Using sports events to promote destination. *Event Management, 7*(3)*, 177-186.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2012). Sources of method bias in social science research and recommendations on how to control it. *Annual Review of Psychology, 63*, 539-569.

Popp, N. Jensen, J., & Jackson, R. (2017). Maximizing visitors at college football bowl games. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management, 8*(3), 261-273.

Price, J., & Kim, S. (1993). The relationship between demographic variables and intent to stay in the military: Medical personnel in a U.S. Air Force hospital. *Armed Forces and Society, 20*(1), 125-144.

Price, J., & Mueller, C. (1986). *Handbook of organizational measurement.* Marshfield: Pitman.

Ralston, R., Downward, P., & Lumsdon, L. (2004). The expectations of volunteers prior to the XVII Commonwealth Games, 2002: A qualitative study. *Event Management, 9*, 13-26.

Reeser, J. C., Berg, R. L., Rhea, D., & Willick, S. E. (2005). Motivation and satisfaction among polyclinic volunteers at the 2002 Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games. *British Journal of Sports Medicine*, *39*(4), e20. doi: 10.1136/ bjsm.2004.015438

Reichers, A. E., & Schneider, B. (1990). Climate and culture: An evolution of constructs. In B. Schneider (Ed.), *Organizational climate and culture* (pp. 5-39). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Resick, C. J., Baltes, B. B., & Shantz, C. W. (2007). Person-organization fit and work- related attitudes and decisions: Examining interactive effects with job fit and conscientiousness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*, 1446-1455.

Reuters (2010, October 20). VIZIO to Serve as New Presenting Sponsor of the Rose Bowl Game. Retrieved from https://www.reuters.com/article/idUS135639+20-Oct-2010+ PRN20101020

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87,* 698-714.

Rhoades, L., Eisenberger, R., & Armeli, S. (2001). Affective commitment to the organization: The contribution of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 825-36.

Rich, B. L., LePine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job engagement: Antecedents and effects of job performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 53*, 617-635.

Rich, K., Misener, L., & Dubeau, D. (2015). "Community Cup, We Are a Big Family": Examining social inclusion and acculturation of newcomers to Canada through a participatory sport event. *Social Inclusion, 3*(3), 129-141.

Richer, B. L., Blanchard, C., & Vallerand, R. J. (2002). A motivational model of work turnover. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 32*(10), 2089-2113.

Ringuet-Riot, C., Cuskelly, G., Auld, C., & Zakus, D. H. (2014). Volunteer roles, involvement and commitment in voluntary sport organizations: Evidence of core and peripheral volunteers. *Sport in Society, 17*(1), 116-133.

Ritchie, B. W., & Adair, D. (2004). *Sport tourism: Interrelationships, impacts, and issues*. Clevedon, UK: Channel View Publications.

Rishe, P., Reese, J., & Boyle, B. (2015). Secondary market behavior during college football's postseason: Evidence from the 2014 Rose Bowl and BCS Championship Game. *International Journal of Sport Finance, 10*, 267-283.

Robinson, D., Perryman, S., & Hayday, S. (2004). *The drivers of employee engagement.* Brighton, UK: Institute for Employment Studies.

Rochester, C. (2006). *Making sense of volunteering: A literature review.* London: Volunteering England.

Rogalsky, K., Doherty, A., & Paradis, K. F. (2016). Understanding the sport event volunteer experience: An investigation of role ambiguity and its correlates. *Journal of Sport Management, 30*, 453-469.

Rubio, D. M., Berg-Weger, M., Tebb, S. S., Lee, E. S., & Rauch, S. (2003). Objectifying content validity: conducting a content validity study in social work research. *Social Work Research, 27*, 94-104.

Russel, S. S., Spitzmuller, C., Lin, L. F., Stanton, J. M., Smith, P. C., & Ironson, G. H. (2004). Shorter can also be better: The abridged Job in General Scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 64*(5*)*, 878-893.

Russo, R. D. (2020, January 14). TV audience up slightly from last year for CFP Championship. *U.S. News.* Retrieved from https://www.usnews.com/news/entertainment/articles/2020-01-14/tv-audience-up-slightly-from-last-year-for-cfp-championship

Ryan, R. M., & Connell, J. P. (1989). Perceived locus of causality and internalization: Examining reasons for acting in two domains. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57*, 749-761. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.57.5.749

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25*, 54-67.

Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21*, 600-619. doi: 10.1108/02683940610690169

Saks, A. M., & Gruman, J. A. (2014). What do we really know about employee engagement? *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 25*(2), 155-182.

Salanova, M., Llorens, S., Cifre, E., Martínez, I., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2003). Perceived collective efficacy, subjective well-being and task performance amongst electronic work groups: An experimental study. *Small Groups Research, 34*, 43-73.

Salanova, M., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2008). A cross-national study for work engagement as a mediator between job resources and proactive behavior. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 19*, 116-131.

Schaefer, D. R., & Dillman, D. A. (1998). Development of a standard email methodology: Results of an experiment. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 62,* 378-397.

Schaufeli, W. B. (2012). Work engagement. What do we know and where do we go? *Romanian Journal of Applied Psychology*, *14*(1), 3-10.

Schaufeli, W. B. (2013). What is engagement? In C. Truss, K. Alfes, R. Delbridge, A. Shantz, & E. Soane (Eds.), *Employee engagement in theory and practice* (pp. 1-37). London: Routledge.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25,* 293-315.

Schaufeli, W. B., Bakker, A. B., & Salanova, M. (2006). The measurement of work engagement with a short questionnaire: A cross-national study. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *66*, 701-716. doi:10.1177/0013164405282471

Schaufeli, W. B., Martínez, I., Marqués-Pinto, A., Salanova, M., & Bakker, A. B. (2002b). Burnout and engagement in university students: A cross national study. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 33*, 464-481.

Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., González-Romá, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002a). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 3*, 71-92.

Schaufeli, W. B., Taris, T. W., & Van Rhenen, W. (2008). Workaholism, burnout, and work engagement: Three of a kind or three different kinds of employee well-being? *Applied Psychology*, *57*, 173-203. doi:10.1111/j.1464- 0597.2007.00285.x

Schlesinger, T., Egli, B., & Nagel, S. (2013). 'Continue or terminate?' Determinants of long-term volunteering in sports clubs. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 13*, 32-53.

Schlesinger, T., Klenk, C., & Nagel, S. (2015). How do sport clubs recruit volunteers? Analyzing and developing a typology of decision-making processes on recruiting volunteers in sport clubs. *Sport Management Review, 18*, 193-206.

Schmidt, W. C. (1997). World-Wide Web survey research: Benefits, potential problems, and solutions. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers, 29*, 274-279.

Schmitz, J. (2012, January 1). College bowl names as well as games are big business. *Post-gazette.com.* Retrieved from https://www.post-gazette.com/sports/college/2012/01/01/ College-bowl-names-as-well-as-games-are-big-business/stories/201201010319

Schonlau, M., Fricker, R. D., & Elliott, M. N. (2001). *Conducting research surveys via email and the web*. Retrieved from http://www.rand.org/publications/MR/MR1480/html

Schrotenboer, B. (2014, December 25). Bowl game attendance n decline but TV interest grows. *USA Today*. Received from https://www.usatoday.com/story/sports/ncaaf/2014/12/25/ college-football-bowl-games-attendance-bahamas-camellia-espn/20896969/

Schulenkorf, N., & Edwards, D. (2012). Maximizing positive social impacts: Strategies for sustaining and leveraging the benefits of intercommunity sport events in divided societies. *Journal or Sport Management, 26*, 379-390.

Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2004). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, N. J: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2010). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Scrima, F., Lorito, L., Parry, E., & Falgares, G. (2014). The mediating role of work engagement on the relationship between job involvement and affective commitment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 25*, 2159-2173.

Segal, L. M., & Weisbrod, B. A. (2002). Volunteer labor sorting across industries. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management, 21*, 427-447.

Seifried, C. (2012). Reviewing the public discourse of the Division I (Football Bowl Subdivision) playoff issue pre-BCS: A historical analysis of core event stakeholder perspectives. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics, 5*, 96-118.

Seifried, C. (2013). College football bowl games. In M. Nelson (Ed.). *American sports: A history of icons, idols, and ideas* (pp. 175-180). Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO.

Seifried, C., & King, B. (2012). The postseason payout history of the Division I football bowl subdivision: Comparing current bowl championship series (BCS) and non-BCS institutions through the lifespan of defunct and active bowl games. *Sport History Review, 43*, 206-228.

Seifried, C. S., Soebbing, B. P., & Agyemang, K. (2018). The utilization of interorganizational relations in an uncertain institutional Field: A case study of the Fiesta Bowl's ascension. *Sport History Review, 49,* 58-81.

Seifried, C., Soebbing, B., & Agyemang, K. J. A. (2019). The impact of interorganizational relationships on an uncertain industry: College football bowl games. *Journal of Sport Management, 33*, 317-330.

Seifried, C., & Smith T. (2011). Congressional hearings and the Division I (football bowl subdivision) postseason arrangement: A content analysis on letters, testimonies, and symposiums. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics, 4*, 1-23.

Shantz, A., Saksida, T., & Alfes, K. (2014). Dedicating time to volunteering: Values, engagement, and commitment to beneficiaries. *Applied Psychology, 63*, 671-697.

Shaw, S. (2009). "It was all 'smile for Dunedin!": Event volunteer experience at the 2006 New Zealand Masters Games. *Sport Management Review, 12,* 26-33.

Sheptak, R. D. & Menaker, B. E. (2016). The frustration factor: Volunteer perspectives of frustration in a sport setting. *Volutas, 27*, 831-852.

Shuck, B. (2010). Employee engagement: An examination of antecedents and outcome variables. FIU Electronic Theses and Dissertations, 235. Retrieved from https://digitalcommons.fiu. edu/etd/235/?utm_source=digitalcommons.fiu.edu%2Fetd%2F235&utm_medium=PDF& utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages

Shuck, B. (2011). Four emerging perspectives of employee engagement: An integrative literature review. *Human Resource Development Review, 10,* 304-328.

Shuck, B., Adelson, J. L., & Reio Jr, T. G. (2017). The employee engagement scale: Initial evidence for construct validity and implications for theory and practice. *Human Resource Management*, *56*, 953-977.

Shuck, B., Ghosh, R., Zigarmi, D., & Nimon, K. (2012). The jingle jangle of employee engagement: Further exploration of the emerging construct & implications for workplace learning and performance. *Human Resource Development Review, 12*, 11-35.

Shuck, B., Osam, K., Zigarmi, D., & Nimon, K. (2017). Definitional and conceptual muddling: Identifying the positionality of employee engagement and defining the construct. *Human Resource Development Review, 16*(3), 263-293.

Shuck, B., & Reio Jr., T. G., (2014). Employee engagement and well-being: A moderation model and implications for practice. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 21*, 43-58. doi:10.1177/1548051813494240

Shuck, B., Reio Jr., T. G., & Rocco, T. (2011). Employee engagement: An antecedent and outcome approach to model development. *Human Resource Development International, 14*, 427-445. doi:10.1080/13678868.2011.601587

Shuck, B., Twyford, D., Reio Jr., T. G., & Shuck, A. (2014). Human resource development practices and employee engagement: Examining the connection with employee turnover intentions. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 25*, 239-270.

Shuck, B., & Wollard, K. (2010). Employee engagements and HRD: A seminal review of the foundations. *Human Resource Development Review, 9*(1), 89-110.

Simsek, Z., & Veiga, J. (2001). A primer on Internet organizational surveys. *Organizational Research Methods, 4*, 218-235.

Slaughter, L. (2002). Motivations of long term volunteers at events. *Journal of Sport & Tourism, 7*(3), 35-36.

Soane, E., Truss, C., Alfes, K., Shantz, A., Rees, C., & Gatenby, M. (2012). Development and application of a new measure of employee engagement: The ISA engagement scale. *Human Resource Development International, 15*(5), 529-547.

Solomon, J. (2016, February 23). More bowl games? Austin, Charleston want in 'broken' bowl system. *CBS.sports.com*. Retrieved from https://www.cbssports.com/college-football/news/more-bowl-games-austin-charleston-want-in-broken-bowl-system/

Sonnentag, S. (2003). Recovery, work engagement, and proactive behavior: A new look at the interface between nonwork and work. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 518-528.

Spreitzer, G. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38,* 1442-1465.

Stanton, J. M. (1998). An empirical assessment of data collection using the Internet. *Personnel Psychology, 51*, 709-725.

Stebbins, R. A., & Graham, M. (2004). *Volunteering as leisure/leisure as volunteering: An International Assessment*. Oxfordshire, UK: CABI Publishing.

Stewart, B., M. Nicholson, M., Smith, A., & Westerbeek, H. (2004). *Australian sport: Better by design? The evolution of Australian sport policy*. London: Routledge.

Strigas, A. D., & Jackson, N. E. (2003). Motivating volunteers to serve and succeed: Design and results of a pilot study that explores demographics and motivational factors in sport volunteerism. *International Sports Journal, 7*(1), 111-123.

Sung, M. (2017). Antecedents of job engagement: The mediating role of psychological states. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Georgia.

Svensson, P., Jeong, S., Shuck, B., & Otto, M. (2019). Antecedents and outcomes of employee engagements in non-profit sport organizations. Paper presented at the SMAANZ conference in Christchurch, New Zealand.

Swierzy, P., Wicker, P., & Breuer, C. (2018). The impact of organizational capacity on voluntary engagement in sports clubs: A multi-level analysis. *Sport Management Review*, *21*, 307-320.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Experimental designs using ANOVA*. Belmont, CA: Duxbury.

Taylor, S., & Lynn, P. (1998). The effect of a preliminary notification letter to a postal survey of young people. *Journal of the Market Research Society, 2,* 165-178.

Thomas, J. R., Nelson, J. K., & Silverman, S. J. (2011). *Research methods in physical activity* (6th ed). Champaign: Human Kinetics.

Tobolowsky, B. F., & Lowery, J. W. (2006). Commercializing college: An analysis of college representations during bowl games. *International Journal of Educational Advancement, 6*(3), 232-242.

Toma, J. D. (2003). *Football U: Spectator sports in the life of the American university.* Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.

Topp, N. W., & Pawloski, B. (2002). Online data collection. *Journal of Science Education and Technology, 11*(2), 173-178.

Tuckey, M. R., Bakker, A. B., & Dollard, M. F. (2012). Empowering leaders optimize working conditions for engagement: A multilevel study. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 17*(1), 15-27.

van Beek, I., Hu, Q., Schaufeli, W. B., Taris, T. W., & Schreuers, B. H. J. (2012). For fun, love, or money: What drives workaholic, engaged, and burned-out employees at work? *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 61*, 30-55. doi:10.1111/j.1464-0597.2011.00454.x

Vance, R. J. (2006). *Employee engagement and commitment: A guide to understanding, measuring, and increasing engagement in your organization*. Alexandria, VA: The SHRM Foundation.

Vecina, M. L., Chacon, F., Sueiro, M., & Barron, A. (2012). Volunteer engagement: Does engagement predict the degree of satisfaction among new volunteers and the commitment of those who have been active longer? *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 61*(1), 130-148.

Wagner, R., & Harter, J. K. (2006). *12: The great elements of managing*. Washington, DC: The Gallup Organization.

Warner, S. Newland, B. L., & Green, B. C. (2011). More than motivation: Reconsidering volunteer management tools. *Journal of Sport Management, 25,* 391-407.

Wefald, A., & Downey, R. (2009). Job engagement in organizations: Fad, fashion or folderol? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 30*, 141-145.

Welty Peachey, J., Cohen, A., Borland, J., & Lyras, A. (2013). Exploring the motivations of individuals to volunteer with a sport-for-homeless initiative. *International Journal of Sport Management, 14,* 103-122.

Werbel, J. D., & Gilliland, S. W. (1999). The use of person-environment fit in the selection process. In G. Ferris (Ed.), *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management* (pp. 209-243). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Whitley, E. M., Everhart, R. M., & Wright, R. A. (2006). Measuring return on investment of outreach by community health workers. *Journal of Health Care for the Poor and Underserved, 17*, 6-15.

Wicker, P. (2017). Volunteerism and volunteer management in sport. *Sport Management Review*, *20*, 325-337.

Wicker, P., Breuer, C., Lamprecht, M., & Fischer, A. (2014). Does club size matter? An examination of economies of scale, economies of scope, and organizational problems. *Journal of Sport Management, 28*(3), 266-280.

Wicker, P., & Hallmann, K. (2013). A multi-level framework for investigating the engagement of sport volunteers. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 13*(1), 110-139.

Williams, D., & Seifried, C. (2013). The taxing postseason: The potential impact of unrelated business income taxation on college football bowl organizers. *Journal of Legal Aspects of Sport, 23*, 72-90.

Wilson, J. (2012). Volunteerism research a review essay. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *41*(2), 176-212.

Winston, C., Testa, M. R., & Delpy Neirotti, L. (2016, February 9). The economic impact of college bowl games. *SDSU, New Center.* Retrieved from https://newscenter.sdsu.edu/ sdsu_newscenter/news_story/aspx?sid=76492

Wollard, K. K., & Shuck, B. (2011). Antecedents to employee engagement. *Advances in Developing Human Resources, 13,* 429-446. doi:10.1177/1523422311431220

Wollebæk, D., Skirstad, B., & Hanstad, D. V. (2014). Between two volunteer cultures: Social composition and motivation among volunteers at the 2010 test event for the FIS Nordic World Ski Championships. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport, 49,* 22-41. doi:10.1177/1012690212453355

Wright, T. A., & Cropanzano, R. (2000). Psychological well-being and job satisfaction as predictors of job performance. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5*(1), 84-94.

Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2009). Reciprocal relationships between job resources, personal resources, and work engagement. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 74*, 235-244.

Yang, B. (2005). Factor analysis methods. In R. A. Swanson, & E. F. Holton III (Eds.), *Research in organizations: Foundations and methods of inquiry* (pp. 181-199). San Francisco, CA: Berrett–Koehler.

Young, J. L., Waehler, C. A., Laux, J. M., McDaniel, P. S., & Hilsenroth, M. J. (2003). Four studies extending the utility of the Schwartz Outcome Scale (SOS-10). *Journal of Personality Assessment, 80*, 130-138.

Yun, G. W., & Trumbo, C. W. (2000). Comparative response to a survey executed by post, e-mail, & web form. *Journal of Computer Mediated Communication, 6*(1).

Zigarmi, D., Nimon, K., Houson, D., Witt, D., & Diehl, J. (2009). Beyond engagement: Toward a framework and operational definition for employee work passion. *Human Resource Development Review, 8*, 300-326.

Zimablist, A. (2009). The BCS, antitrust, and public policy. *The Antitrust Bulletin, 54*(4), 823-856.

VITA

Marcella Giuliana Otto was born in Berlin, Germany, and grew up in the South of Germany, in Stuttgart. She attended Southern Illinois University (SIU) on a full athletic scholarship to be part of the swim team in Spring 2012. At SIU, she earned her Bachelor of Science degree in Sport Administration with a double minor in Speech Communication and Coaching in 2014. Following graduation Marcella continued to earn her Master of Science degree in Kinesiology with a concentration in Sport Studies at SIU and graduated in Spring 2016. Marcella has spent the last four years as a Graduate Teaching Assistant and Doctoral Student in Louisiana State University's (LSU) Sport Management program. Marcella plans to graduate from LSU with her Doctor of Philosophy degree in Kinesiology, with a specialization in Sport Management in August 2020. She plans to begin her career as an Assistant Professor in Sport Management at Northern Illinois University. Eventually she will speak Italian fluently