

SPILOVER EFFECTS OF SPORT PARTICIPATION PROGRAMS ON
EMPLOYEES' PSYCHOLOGICAL AND BEHAVIORAL
CHANGES IN THE WORKPLACE

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ABSTRACT

Drawing on social exchange theory and the notion of behavioral spillover, this dissertation provides empirical evidence that organizational support for employees' participation in organized sport participation programs can engender employees' psychological and behavioral changes in the workplace. Based on a mixed-method approach using multimethod (qualitative and quantitative) data, findings showed that employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs, which capture the degree to which employees value such programs, strengthen employees' social abilities, workplace cooperativeness, and affective organizational commitment. Additionally, results indicated that opportunities for organized sport participation programs should be fairly distributed to all employees, and the level of competitiveness in sport should be well controlled; employees wanted organized sport participation programs to entail a balance between functioning as a social activity and competitive sport. Findings are expected to motivate practitioners to consider adopting organized sport participation programs to create a workplace of cooperative and affectively committed team members. This study contributes to the literature by empirically examining social exchange theory in the context of organized sport participation programs. As suggested, employees are likely to reciprocate the benefits of organized sport participation programs through increased affective organizational commitment. In addition, findings on the positive association of organized sport participation programs with employees' social abilities and workplace cooperativeness provide a foundation for future researchers to confidently propose sport as an avenue to individual, organizational, and social development.

To my father, Jongkun Hyun.
I now realize how strong you were.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	iii
DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
Purpose of the Study	4
Significance of the Study	6
Definition of Terms.....	7
Overview of Chapters	7
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	9
Research Context	9
Employee Support Programs	9
Types of Employee Support Programs	11
Challenges and Opportunities Surrounding Organized Sport	
Participation Programs.....	17
Theoretical Background.....	21
Social Exchange Theory	21

Emergence and Development of Social Exchange Theory.....	23
Applications to Sport Management	26
Reciprocation in Organized Sport Participation Programs Contexts.....	31
Psychological Reciprocation: Social Exchange through Employees’	
Perceived Organizational Support	33
Behavioral Spillover: Behavioral Changes as Reciprocation of	
Organizational Support	34
Spillover Effects.....	34
Types of Spillover Effects	35
Workplace Cooperativeness as Behavioral Reciprocation	36
Potential Unintended Negative Outcomes	38
Distributive Justice.....	38
3. METHOD	41
Study 1	42
Participants.....	42
Measures	52
Independent Variables	52
Mediators and Outcome Variable	52
Control Variables	53
Data Analysis Procedure.....	53
Study 2	56
Participants and Procedure.....	56

Data Analysis	58
4. RESULTS	60
Study 1	60
Construct Reliability	60
Organized Sport Participation Programs Group	60
Non-organized Sport Participation Programs Group	62
Non-sport Employee Support Programs Group	64
Measurement Invariance Tests	66
Organized Sport Participation and Non-organized Sport Participation Programs.....	67
Organized Sport Participation and Non-sport Employee Support Programs	67
Non-organized Sport Participation and Non-sport Employee Support Programs.....	68
Demographic Comparison	69
Variable Scores Comparison.....	78
Measurement Model	84
Organized Sport Participation Programs Group	84
Non-organized Sport Participation Programs Group.....	87
Non-sport Employee Support Programs Group.....	90
Combined Data	93
Structural Model	97

Hypotheses Testing.....	98
Study 2	100
Sport for Social Interaction.....	100
“I Don’t Want to be Competitive, but I Still Want to Win”	101
Organized Sport Participation Programs as a Sign of Organizational Support.....	103
5. DISCUSSION.....	105
Study 1 Discussion.....	105
Study 2 Discussion.....	108
6. CONTRIBUTIONS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH.....	112
Academic Contributions	112
Managerial Implications	114
Limitations and Future Directions	116
Conclusion	120
REFERENCES	122
APPENDICES	
A. STUDY 1 QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS	143
B. STUDY 2 INTERVIEW GUIDE.....	145

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
Table 1.1. Definitions of Terms	8
Table 3.1. Demographics and Tenure of Organized Sport Participation Programs	
Participants.....	44
Table 3.2. Company Types of Organized Sport Participation Programs	
Participants.....	45
Table 3.3. Sport League Types of Organized Sport Participation Programs	
Participants.....	46
Table 3.4. Demographics and Tenure of Non-organized Sport Participation Programs	
Participants.....	48
Table 3.5. Program Types of Non-organized Sport Participation Program	
Participants.....	49
Table 3.6. Demographics and Tenure of Non-sport Employee Support Programs	
Participants.....	50
Table 3.7. Program Types of Non-sport Employee Support Programs	
Participants.....	51
Table 4.1. Construct Reliability of Organized Sport Participation Programs	
Group	61
Table 4.2. Construct Reliability of Non-organized Sport Participation Programs	
Group	63

Table 4.3. Construct Reliability of Non-sport Employee Support Programs	
Group	65
Table 4.4. Results of Measurement Invariance Test between Organized Sport Participation Programs and Non-organized Sport Participation Programs	
Groups.....	67
Table 4.5. Results of Measurement Invariance Test between Organized Sport Participation Programs and Non-sport Employee Support Programs Groups.....	68
Table 4.6. Results of Measurement Invariance Test between Non-organized Sport Participation Programs and Non-sport Employee Support Programs Groups.....	68
Table 4.7. Ethnicity and Program Type Crosstabulation.....	69
Table 4.8. Gender and Program Type Crosstabulation.....	71
Table 4.9. Results of One-way ANOVA for Age.....	72
Table 4.10. Results of One-way ANOVA for Tenure	73
Table 4.11. Job Role and Program Type Crosstabulation	73
Table 4.12. Family Structure and Program Type Crosstabulation.....	74
Table 4.13. Education Level and Program Type Crosstabulation	75
Table 4.14. Annual Household Income and Program Type Crosstabulation	77
Table 4.15. Results of One-way ANOVA for Attitudes toward Employee Support Programs	79
Table 4.16. Results of One-way ANOVA for Distributive Justice.....	80
Table 4.17. Results of One-way ANOVA for Perceived Organizational Support	81

Table 4.18. Results of One-way ANOVA for Perceptions of One’s Workplace	
Cooperativeness	82
Table 4.19. Results of One-way ANOVA for Affective Organizational	
Commitment	83
Table 4.20. Correlations and Validity Measures of Organized Sport Participation	
Programs Group	85
Table 4.21. Summary of Measurement Items, Reliability, and Factor Loadings of	
Organized Sport Participation Programs Group	86
Table 4.22. Correlations and Validity Measures of Non-organized Sport Participation	
Programs Group	88
Table 4.23. Summary of Measurement Items, Reliability, and Factor Loadings of Non-	
organized Sport Participation Programs Group	89
Table 4.24. Correlations and Validity Measures of Non-sport Employee Support	
Programs Group	91
Table 4.25. Summary of Measurement Items, Reliability, and Factor Loadings of Non-	
sport Employee Support Programs Group	92
Table 4.26. Correlations and Validity Measures of Combined Model	94
Table 4.27. Summary of Measurement Items, Reliability, and Factor Loadings of	
Combined Model	95
Table 4.28. Results of Hypothesis Testing.....	99

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
Figure 3.1. Research model	55

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Over the past four decades, employees have become less dependent on a single employer for work (Grant et al., 2008). In the 1970s, people held an average of three to four jobs during their lifetime (Cascio, 2003). However, the median employee tenure in the United States in 2018 was roughly 4.2 years (U.S. Department of Labor, 2018), indicating that the mean number of jobs people hold throughout life would be approximately seven to eight. A notable employment shift involves people's willingness to trade a high salary for a more satisfactory organizational culture, work-life balance, and personal growth and improvement (Cascio, 2003). Essentially, a competitive salary may no longer dominate employees' psychological attachment to their organizations and positive workplace behavior; rather, organizations' support for employees' lives during and after work hours has become critical to employees' psychological and behavioral status in the workplace. With regard to turnover, for example, it can be assumed that job characteristics and wages are similar between competing companies. Given this assumption, the differentiating factor in employee retention is the work environment's appeal (Falkenberg, 1987). For these reasons, companies invest substantial effort and resources into creating attractive working conditions to recruit and retain talent (Falkenberg, 1987; Grant et al., 2008).

As one way to craft an appealing workplace, many organizations have adopted employee support programs (Falkenberg, 1987; Grant et al., 2008; Hartwell et al., 1996), referring to "formalized practices designed to improve employees' experiences at work

by providing emotional, financial, and instrumental assistance beyond the scope of standard HR pay, benefit, recognition, and training and development programs” (Grant et al., 2008, p. 898). A common assertion among scholars studying employee support programs (e.g., family-friendly programs and employee wellness programs) is that such programs can cultivate employees’ affective organizational commitment (i.e., affection for one’s job or organization); this form of commitment can lead to higher job satisfaction, improved productivity, and lower rates of absenteeism and turnover (e.g., Berry et al., 2011; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Goodstein, 1995; Grant et al., 2008; P. Wang & Walumbwa, 2007).

Scholars have drawn on the notion of reciprocation, which is a key concept of social exchange theory, to explain the mechanism through which employee support programs promote positive workplace attitudes and behavior. Grant et al. (2008) and Falkenberg (1987) pointed out that employees may interpret employee support programs as signifying organizations’ commitment to supporting workers’ mental and physical well-being. Employees’ perceived organizational support can thus be enhanced, encouraging a deep emotional bond with their companies, as evidenced by affective organizational commitment (Rhoades et al., 2001).

Although employee support programs have been documented as an effective tool for employees’ psychological and behavioral changes in the workplace, such programs come with substantial costs. Falkenberg (1987) noted that employee fitness programs could cost millions, particularly when on-site facilities are constructed. Furthermore, in the U.S., corporations must spend substantial amounts of money on legally required

employee benefits; on average, 7.3% of U.S. corporations' labor costs cover legally required benefits, such as Social Security and Medicare payments as well as unemployment insurance (U.S. Department of Labor, 2018). Under these circumstances, companies should select the most cost-effective and purposeful programs to offer as many benefits as possible while maintaining the lowest costs.

In this regard, the current study presents sport-based employee support programs, namely sport participation programs, as programs that can potentially improve employees' affective organizational commitment and cultivate employees' cooperativeness in the workplace. Thus far, scant research has considered the organizational benefits of programs involving playing sport with colleagues, despite these programs' popularity in common industries (SHRM, 2018) and their potential benefits in improving employer–employee and employee–employee relationships, such as by developing social and teamwork abilities (Hill & Jones, 2014; M. Kim et al., 2013). Therefore, exploring the organizational benefits of sport participation programs can provide fruitful implications for sport management researchers and practitioners who hope to cultivate a better organizational culture and improve employees' work commitment.

In this study, sport participation programs are defined as “any type of employee benefit program from an organization that encourages employees' participation in sport and organized physical activities by providing financial, instrumental, or systematic assistance,” extended from the aforementioned definition of employee support programs (Grant et al., 2008). According to Eime et al.'s (2013a) Health through Sport model,

recreational sport can be either organized or non-organized. For instance, organized sport participation programs include company-supported sport clubs, intramural sport events/leagues, and group participation in participant sport events; non-organized sport participation programs include in-office workout facilities, fitness equipment subsidy (e.g., Fitbit), and gym membership subsidies. The primary difference between these program types is that organized programs can facilitate social interaction between participants, whereas non-organized programs often focus on financial support for an activity. For example, supporting an intramural yoga club (e.g., providing space for yoga classes and hiring a yoga instructor to staff the company yoga club) would be categorized as an organized program, and a subsidy for a membership at a private yoga studio would represent a non-organized program.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this dissertation is to explore the organizational benefits of adopting organized sport participation programs by investigating employees' experiences with the programs. By drawing upon social exchange theory and the notion of behavioral spillover, the dissertation addresses four research questions via two interrelated studies:

RQ1: What are the unique and positive outcomes of adopting organized sport participation programs from organizational perspectives?

RQ2: How do organized sport participation programs engender employees' reciprocation of affective organizational commitment?

RQ3: What are the unintended negative consequences of organized sport participation programs?

RQ4: How can the unintended negative outcomes of organized sport participation programs be alleviated?

In Study 1, to address RQs 1 and 2, survey data were collected through two channels: 1) a research collaboration with an outsourcing company regarding the implementation of organized sport participation programs and 2) an online research support platform (i.e., Qualtrics). Based on quantitative data, first, the study explores whether employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs, which capture the degree to which employees value these programs, effectively improve employees' affective organizational commitment through two mediators (i.e., perceived organizational support and employees' perceptions of their workplace cooperativeness). Second, the effects of distributive justice in allocating support for organized sport participation programs on employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs and affective organizational commitment are tested.

Based on the qualitative data analysis, Study 2 addresses all research questions by incorporating the results of Study 1 and insights from interviews with employees who have experience with organized sport participation programs. Through a series of episodic interviews with 16 full-time employees in the U.S., their experiences with organized sport participation programs are explored in detail. In particular, as interviewees were recruited from survey participants in Study 1, the results of Studies 1 and 2 are complementary and offer a clear understanding of the potential effects of

organized sport participation programs on employees' level of affective organizational commitment. Overall, the purpose of Study 2 is to confirm and supplement findings from Study 1 and identify intriguing themes in employees' actual experiences with organized sport participation programs.

Significance of the Study

This study provides compelling evidence that organized sport participation programs represent a low-cost and viable solution for developing employees' affective organizational commitment. Theoretically, drawing on social exchange theory, this dissertation aims to explore the social exchange process between organizations' support for organized sport participation programs and employees' reciprocation of that support. In particular, whereas past literature on employee support programs has primarily focused on a psychological form of reciprocation, such as affective organizational commitment, this study also proposes employees' perceptions of their workplace cooperativeness as an outcome of supporting organized sport participation programs. The mechanism behind the relationship between organized sport participation programs and employees' workplace cooperativeness is delineated by the notion of *behavioral spillover*, which indicates that repeated behavior in one domain may become personal habits, scripts, or styles that could affect one's behavior in another domain (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000); that is, organized sport participation programs are anticipated to facilitate social interaction among participants, which could improve participants' cooperativeness in the workplace.

Definition of Terms

Table 1.1 lists definitions of the key terms in this study. The table also includes definitions of key constructs used to create and test the research model.

Overview of Chapters

This dissertation is organized as follows. In Chapter 2, the context of the current study, employee support programs, is reviewed. In so doing, sport participation programs are introduced as a sub-category of employee support programs; this part focuses on the definition, boundaries, categorization, and comparisons of various types of employee support programs, such as family-friendly programs and wellness programs. Then, the overarching theoretical background of the study, social exchange theory and behavioral spillover, is reviewed to understand how organized sport participation programs engender employees' positive psychological and behavioral changes in the workplace. Chapter 3 outlines the methods through which the current dissertation addressed the four research questions. In Chapters 4 and 5, research findings and discussions are delineated. Chapter 6 summarizes the academic contributions, managerial implications, and limitations of this study along with future directions.

Table 1.1
Definitions of Terms

Terms	Definitions	References
Employee Support Programs	Formalized practices designed to improve employees' experiences at work by providing emotional, financial, and instrumental assistance beyond the scope of standard HR pay, benefits, recognition, and training and development programs	(Grant et al., 2008)
Sport Participation Programs	Any type of employee benefit program from an organization that encourages employees' participation in sport and organized physical activities by providing financial, instrumental, or systematic assistance	-
Social Ability	An individual's level of competency and familiarity with social activities	(Di Giunta et al., 2010; Laffey et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2006)
Cooperativeness	An individual personality trait concerning willful contribution of effort to the successful completion of interdependent organizational tasks	(Chatman & Barsade, 1995; Wagner, 1995)
Perceived Organizational Support	Employees' general beliefs about the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being	(Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002)
Affective Organizational Commitment	Employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization	(Meyer & Allen, 1991)

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The following section presents an overview of relevant literature and theory regarding sport participation programs. First, the context of the current study (i.e., employee support programs) is reviewed, particularly in terms of various types of employee support programs and their effects on employees' psychological and behavioral changes in the workplace. This section concludes by explaining the concept, boundaries, categorization, and potential positive effects of organized sport participation programs. Second, social exchange theory is extensively reviewed as a primary theoretical background of the current study. This section also includes a review of the concept and application of behavioral spillover.

Research Context

Employee Support Programs

Research on employee support programs was initially conducted in the fields of organizational behavior and health psychology to determine how best to cultivate employees' psychological attachment to their companies, promote employees' health, and decrease costs associated with workers' health management (Grant et al., 2008; Parks & Steelman, 2008). Employee support programs have been defined in the literature as "formalized practices designed to improve employees' experiences at work by providing emotional, financial, and instrumental assistance beyond the scope of standard HR pay, benefit, recognition, and training and development programs" (Grant et al., 2008, p. 898).

In particular, while organizational scholars consider work–family conflict the primary reason behind employees’ counterproductive behaviors that can be decreased through employee support programs, health psychologists tend to focus on employees’ personal health problems. These different approaches to problem recognition have spurred organizational and health psychology researchers’ efforts to show the effects of family-friendly programs and employee wellness programs, respectively. For instance, family-friendly programs (e.g., childcare, eldercare, and flexible work time programs) have been widely studied in organizational behavior (Frye & Breugh, 2004; Goff et al., 1990; Scandura & Lankau, 1997; P. Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). In health psychology, employee wellness programs (e.g., employee fitness programs, health coaching, and smoking cessation programs) are of primary interest (Baicker et al., 2010; Berry et al., 2011; Parks & Steelman, 2008).

Although organizational scholars and health psychologists have taken different approaches, both types of programs have been shown to be effective in promoting affective organizational commitment, increasing productivity, and lowering rates of absenteeism (Berry et al., 2011; Jones, 2010; Rhoades et al., 2001; P. Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). On one hand, the field of organizational behavior tends to emphasize family-friendly programs (Frye & Breugh, 2004; Scandura & Lankau, 1997; P. Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). The mechanism behind the path from employee support programs to desirable outcomes (e.g., affective commitment and job satisfaction) in organizational behavior is two-pronged: 1) employees’ enhanced perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Riggle et al., 2009); and 2) employees’ improved work–life

balance (Frye & Breugh, 2004). In health psychology, on the other hand, employee wellness programs are more prominent. Health psychologists have mainly focused on the benefits of employee wellness programs in reducing employee management costs (e.g., healthcare costs or costs derived from employees' absenteeism) and increasing job satisfaction (Baicker et al., 2010; Berry et al., 2011; Parks & Steelman, 2008). Between these two approaches, organizational studies particularly inform the current research because organizational scholars tend to consider employees' reciprocation (e.g., perceived organizational support and affective organizational commitment) rather than monetary benefits, such as healthcare costs.

In the following section, literature on family-friendly programs is thoroughly reviewed followed by an overview of employee volunteer programs, which emerged in the 2000s as a new type of employee support program among organizational scholars. Then, literature regarding employee wellness programs is reviewed. Lastly, an introduction to sport participation programs is provided.

Types of Employee Support Programs

Family-friendly programs. In the field of organizational behavior and human resource management, practitioners and researchers believe that work–family conflict presents a significant barrier to employees' dedication to their work. Researchers have attempted to resolve this conflict via family-friendly programs either directly (e.g., offering childcare or eldercare programs) or indirectly (e.g., providing flexible work time benefits). Accordingly, practitioners and researchers have sought to examine whether family-friendly programs can reduce work–family conflict, which in turn leads to

desirable outcomes from employers' perspectives (e.g., employees' job satisfaction, affective commitment, and reduced turnover).

To this point, research has shown that family-friendly programs exert significant effects on employees' affective commitment and job satisfaction (Frye & Breugh, 2004; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Scandura & Lankau, 1997; P. Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). Grover and Crooker (1995) were one of the earliest to assess the effects of family-friendly programs. They aimed to determine whether maternity leave, childcare programs, and flexible work time programs could cultivate employees' affective commitment and reduce turnover. They found that maternity leave and childcare programs indeed decreased employee turnover, while flexible work time programs increased workers' affective organizational commitment (Grover & Crooker, 1995). Scandura and Lankau (1997) also discovered that flexible work time programs could enhance organizational commitment and increase job satisfaction by addressing work-family conflict.

While most early scholars focused solely on the benefits of family-friendly programs (Baltes et al., 1999; Scandura & Lankau, 1997), scholars in the 2000s have proposed that simply offering family-friendly programs does not guarantee an increase in employees' psychological attachment (Frye & Breugh, 2004; P. Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). Such studies have emphasized the role of a pro-family workplace, such that if the surrounding work environment is not supportive, family-friendly programs are futile at best and counterproductive at worst (P. Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). For example, P. Wang and Walumbwa (2007) contended that supervisors' transformational leadership,

namely how leaders attend to subordinates' needs and how open they are to considering new and creative ideas, is a critical moderator in the relationship between family-friendly programs and employees' reciprocation. The rationale behind this argument is that the success of family-friendly programs depends upon immediate supervisors' consideration for their employees (Swanberg, 2004). Frye and Breugh (2004) also highlighted the necessary combination of family-friendly policies and supervisors' support for taking advantage of such programs. Overall, organizational studies on family-friendly programs are well established, shedding light on the effects of family-friendly programs along with the importance of an organizational culture that supports their use.

Employee volunteer programs. Volunteer programs are another type of employee support program that has recently attracted considerable attention in organizational behavior studies (Grant et al., 2008; Jones, 2010). Scholars studying volunteer programs have looked into the organizational identification process. For instance, Jones (2010) suggested that employees' attitudes toward organization-supported volunteer programs, referring to the degree to which employees value their companies' volunteer programs, lead employees to identify more closely with the company, resulting in better workplace behavior such as citizenship and in-role performance. Grant et al. (2008) also explored the role of identification. By participating in organizational helping programs (e.g., offering monetary support for coworkers who are in financial trouble), employees' organizational identification increased, which led to a higher level of affective organizational commitment (Grant et al., 2008).

Studies regarding employee volunteer programs are especially important in two respects. First, the authors expanded the scope of employee support programs; findings revealed that employees' organizational commitment and workplace behaviors could be improved by providing support to their coworkers or their community as well as by receiving support from their organizations (Grant et al., 2008; Jones, 2010). Second, the authors proposed a new mediating mechanism through which organizational support engendered employees' reciprocation. Findings showed that organizational identification could also mediate the relationship between employee support programs and employees' reciprocation.

Employee wellness programs. In the health psychology literature, researchers have assessed the effects of employee wellness programs, especially support for employees' psychological and physical health, because they perceive employees' health problems as the primary source of counterproductive behavior. Health psychology scholars have classified employee wellness programs into fitness programs and comprehensive programs (Parks & Steelman, 2008). Whereas fitness programs tend to focus on workout facilities and gym membership subsidies, comprehensive programs include extensive health management programs, such as smoking cessation programs, health coaching, stress management counseling, and self-help education. Like family-friendly programs, employee wellness programs have been found to positively influence employees' psychological and behavioral changes via metrics such as perceived organizational support and improved health status (Parks & Steelman, 2008). Notably,

comprehensive programs appear to have more substantial effects than fitness-only programs on employees' well-being (Parks & Steelman, 2008).

In addition, considerable emphasis has been placed on investigating the return on investment of employee wellness programs (Baicker et al., 2010; Berry et al., 2011). In exploring whether the benefits of employee wellness programs outweigh the costs of adoption, health psychology scholars have argued that employee wellness programs are beneficial for organizations as well as employees. For instance, Berry et al. (2011) revealed that every dollar SAS, a software company, spent on its employee wellness program generated \$1.41 in health plan savings. In a field study by Ozminowski et al. (1999), Citibank's Health Management Program was found to enable the company to save roughly \$4.50 per dollar spent on the program. Baicker et al. (2010) also estimated through a meta-analysis that employees' healthcare costs declined by \$3.27, on average, per every dollar organizations spent on employee wellness programs. Organizational costs for dealing with employees' absenteeism also fell by about \$2.73 through reduced absenteeism from implementing employee wellness programs (Baicker et al., 2010).

Sport participation programs. In this section, the definition, classification, and potential benefits of sport participation are reviewed. Sport participation programs can be defined as "any type of employee benefit program from an organization that encourages employees' participation in sport and organized physical activities by providing financial, instrumental, or systematic assistance," extended from the aforementioned definition of employee support programs in organizational studies (Grant et al., 2008).

Sport participation programs can be further classified into organized sport participation programs and non-organized sport participation programs. Organized sport participation programs are usually team-based or group participation programs, which may facilitate social interaction among coworkers. Examples include intramural sport leagues, company-supported sport teams or clubs, and group participation in participant sport events, such as marathons. Non-organized sport participation programs are similar to a sub-category of employee wellness programs, specifically fitness-only employee wellness programs (Parks & Steelman, 2008). These programs are usually individually oriented and focus mainly on financial or instrumental aid for physical activity and rarely provide opportunities to interact socially with coworkers. Examples include gym membership subsidies and in-office workout facilities.

Sport management scholars have mainly focused on how to manage sport organizations rather than how to leverage the benefits of sport participation within broader organizational boundaries. Therefore, there have been relatively few published works in sport management journals discussing the potential benefits of participating in sport with coworkers. Sport management scholars have rarely considered this topic as a research area in their discipline, presumably because the research context does not involve sport organizations specifically but rather general organizations. This perspective has left a significant research gap around this topic (i.e., organizational benefits of organized sport participation programs).

Yet several academic studies regarding the benefits of participating in sport with coworkers have come to a shared conclusion: it can contribute to employees' workplace

cooperativeness, on-the-job teamwork, a sense of community, and affective organizational commitment (e.g., Hill & Jones, 2014; M. Kim et al., 2013; Lee, 1991). In addition to the findings from academic research regarding sport participation with coworkers, some informative reports and news articles have been published. According to a survey conducted by the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM), approximately 17% of U.S. corporations include organization-supported sport teams as a component of employee benefit programs (SHRM, 2018). The primary purpose of companies' support for employees' sport participation is to develop bonds among coworkers because the healthy competition involved in sport can foster team spirit between colleagues (Harper, 2012; Social Issues Research Centre, 2006). Occasionally, company-supported sport leagues expand to sport leagues between competing companies. For example, a co-ed softball league composed of company-supported softball teams in Boston, MA (e.g., Yahoo, AOL, and CBS Boston) has been running successfully since 2001 with enthusiastic support from each company (Borchers, 2013). Notably, according to the aforementioned academic studies and reports, organized sport participation programs are expected to provide potential benefits to organizations, such as stronger affective organizational commitment and workplace cooperativeness from employees (Hill & Jones, 2014; M. Kim et al., 2013).

Challenges and Opportunities Surrounding Organized Sport Participation Programs

Challenges. Practically, implementing employee support programs involves additional organizational costs. Depending on the type of program, execution can cost up to millions (e.g., constructing an on-site workout facility; Falkenberg, 1987). In

particular, if an organization already runs several family-friendly programs or employee wellness programs, it would be challenging to persuade such organizations to adopt organized sport participation programs newly. Therefore, the role of sport management researchers is critical. Researchers must aim to provide practitioners with continuous, plausible, and scientific-evidence-based findings, demonstrating that organized sport participation programs can complement a broader suite of employee support programs through their potential advantages.

Another potential challenge in adopting organized sport participation programs is the fact that sport is inherently competitive. Particularly in organized team-based sport contexts, the ultimate goal of these activities is to outperform one's competitors. Therefore, the level of competition in sport leagues could become excessive and detract from other vital purposes of organized sport participation programs, such as having pleasant social interactions and a fun time with coworkers. Some studies have consistently reported negative consequences of excessive competition, such as less task enjoyment, lower self-evaluation after failure, and increased cheating behavior (Lam et al., 2004; Schwierien & Weichselbaumer, 2010). What is more important than beating one's opponents in organized sport participation programs is sharing an entertaining activity with coworkers. Therefore, practitioners should strive to balance the competitive components of sport with the social components of organized sport participation programs.

Opportunities. The popularity of organized sport participation programs has grown substantially. Approximately 17% of U.S. corporations have company-supported

sport teams (e.g., a company-supported softball team participating in a community softball league), and the percentage has continued increasing since 2014 except for one year (SHRM, 2018). In addition, outsourcing companies for the implementation of organized sport participation programs have expanded rapidly. ZogSports is a prime example of one such company that handles tasks associated with organized sport participation programs. It was founded in 2012, and its primary business function is organizing sport leagues and corporate sporting events for team-building initiatives among company employees. In the five years following its launch, ZogSports created the nation's largest social sport league, with roughly 100,000 employees playing every year (ZogSports, 2019). As of 2016, the company had 30 full-time employees and 300 part-time field team members who run corporate sporting events (Harnish, 2016). ZogSports was also selected as one of the fastest-growing companies in the U.S. by the business magazine *Inc.* (ZogSports, 2019). As organizations become more aware of the unique benefits associated with organized sport participation programs, the market for these programs will broaden, resulting in the continued growth of companies like ZogSports and the emergence of competing firms.

Exploring how to leverage the benefits of sport participation in an organizational setting requires a broad knowledge of the inherent characteristics and potential benefits of sport participation (e.g., physical movement, teamwork, goal achievement, competition, and physical and mental well-being). Because sport management scholars have accumulated extensive knowledge in this context (e.g., Allen et al., 2010; Hyun & Jordan, in press; Inoue et al., 2013; Sato et al., 2014, 2015), researchers in this domain

are best positioned to understand the potential benefits of organized sport participation programs and suggest practical ways to adopt such programs in an organizational setting. Sport management scholars should work to frame this context as disciplinary territory. Employee wellness programs are an excellent example of this acquisition process. Although most work on employee wellness programs has examined constructs developed by organizational scholars (e.g., affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and absenteeism), health psychologists have built a strong academic foundation on wellness programs based on their extensive body of knowledge in the health and wellness context and have thus emerged as leading academic experts on employee wellness programs.

From a theoretical perspective, studies regarding employee management through a variety of sport could contribute to the body of knowledge regarding sport participation. Several studies have shown that participation in team-based sport is likely to improve one's social abilities and interpersonal skills due to the social nature of team-based sport (e.g., Allen et al., 2010; Eime et al., 2013a, 2013b). Furthermore, in an organizational context, playing team-based sport with coworkers has been positively associated with strong social relationships among employees and a sense of community (e.g., Hill & Jones, 2014; M. Kim et al., 2013; Lee, 1991). Nevertheless, a research gap remains regarding how organizations can leverage the benefits of sport participation through supporting organized sport participation programs. Therefore, the organizational benefits of organized sport participation programs and how companies should use these programs are extensively explored in this dissertation. In evaluating the benefits of organized sport

participation programs, this work primarily draws on social exchange theory. Thus, in the following section, social exchange theory is comprehensively reviewed to provide a theoretical backdrop for the current study. The following notions are considered in particular: 1) the concept of social exchange; 2) the emergence and development of social exchange theory; and 3) applications of the theory in sport management contexts.

Theoretical Background

Social Exchange Theory

The first principle of social exchange theory is that “persons that give much to others try to get much from them, and persons that get much from others are under pressure to give much to them” (Homans, 1958, p. 606). For example, employers expect employees to contribute to organizational success in return for their paychecks, and employees are under pressure to work hard for their employers to earn a paycheck. However, this process of exchange is not limited to material goods (e.g., money). People often exchange warm words with friends or colleagues during the holidays as a means of showing friendship or expressing thanks. Sometimes, people invite friends to dinner without expecting any tangible reward. Homans (1958) attempted to explain the social exchanges that occur in everyday life by borrowing economic principles such as cost, reward, and profit. Consider a supervisor who sends Christmas cards to his/her subordinates. The price of the Christmas cards, the time spent writing them, and the price of stamps represent costs for the supervisor. Her/his rewards for sending the cards would likely be subordinates’ gratitude or respect. Accordingly, the supervisor’s profit represents the difference between rewards and cost. According to Homans (1958), people

take action (e.g., sending Christmas cards) when the rewards they receive are more valuable to them than the costs they have to pay.

This concept of social exchange differs from the economic concept of exchange in that individuals not only try to maximize profit but also strive to maintain a balance between their own profit and that of their partners. A social relationship is a continual series of give-and-take interactions between two or more people rather than a one-time event, like a purely economic transaction (e.g., purchasing a book). Therefore, the direct application of the operating principle of economic exchange, profit maximization, into social behavior is unrealistic. Emerson (1976) defined social exchange as “the economic analysis of [a] noneconomic social situation” (Emerson, 1976, p. 336). Homans (1958) also emphasized the nature of social exchange (i.e., a series of interactions). He suggested that a lack of balance in an exchange between a group of people will negatively affect future relationships between them (Homans, 1958; Redmond, 2015). Another feature that distinguishes social exchange from economic exchange is that the reciprocation for what individuals receive is a moral or psychological obligation rather than a legal duty of a given individual. An individual cannot purchase a textbook without paying the corresponding amount of money (i.e., price). However, in social exchange, it is the receiver’s own decision to reciprocate and how much, which could be more or less than or equal to what she/he received (i.e., unspecified obligation; Blau, 1964).

In social exchange, exchange partners’ perceptions of fairness play a substantial role in the sustainability of the relationship. According to equity theory, people often care more about how fairly they are rewarded than how much they receive (Adams, 1965). For

instance, if a person believes she has completed a given task successfully, then she may feel she deserves a certain type of reward; if the reward falls short of her expectations, she will likely find the reward unfair, resulting in negative emotions or behaviors (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg et al., 2007).

Emergence and Development of Social Exchange Theory

A significant goal of sociologists in the early 1900s was to understand “what happens when two or three persons are in a position to influence one another” (Homans, 1958, p. 597). Small groups were considered representative of massive social structures, such as classes, firms, communities, and societies (Homans, 1958). Before Homans' (1958) work, scholars usually studied the social behavior of small groups through laboratory experiments (Homans, 1958). Therefore, Homans (1958) tried to synthesize the results of these experiments, test the results in a real-world setting, and ultimately establish a theory of social behavior by generalizing his findings. He proposed that individuals should understand human behavior in society (i.e., interactions) in terms of exchange and defined the interaction between persons as “an exchange of goods, material and non-material” (Homans, 1958, p. 597). His efforts to understand social behavior through exchanges have been further crystallized through subsequent work by Blau (1964) and Emerson (1976).

The purpose of Blau's (1964) work was threefold. First, he emphasized the technical economic analysis of social exchange (Emerson, 1976). He explained the initiation and cessation of social exchange between two parties through the concept of diminishing marginal utility. People interact with others if there are benefits to doing so

and stop interacting when the marginal utility of interacting becomes zero (Blau, 1964). Second, he proposed the concept of “unspecified obligation” to distinguish social exchange from economic exchange. Third, he focused on the role of trust as a mediator of social exchange. If no trust exists between exchange partners, social exchange will not even begin. However, once social exchange starts, trust will grow as a result of continuous exchanges.

Emerson (1976), on the other hand, tried to expand the theory from two-party exchanges to *N*-party exchanges. He suggested a notion of “productive exchange” in offering an alternative to two-party exchanges. Most social groups (e.g., families, business corporations, and communities) rely on group production to accomplish shared goals (Emerson, 1976). He elaborated on this proposition using an example from Kuhn’s (1963) work: if Person A has bread and Person B has cheese, and both want to have cheese sandwiches, they can jointly produce cheese sandwiches by pooling their own resources (e.g., bread and cheese) rather than bartering what they have and producing each other’s cheese sandwiches, namely productive exchange (Emerson, 1976). In such situations, usually more than two people are involved in the exchange process as a cooperating group. Therefore, people engage in group-level exchange by creating an exchange network rather than calculating the costs and rewards of an exchange between one another. In this case, exchange parties’ rewards are not the value of the direct exchange but rather the value of the final product through a value-adding process (Emerson, 1976). Later, Emerson’s (1976) notions of “productive exchange” and “exchange networks” provided a strong theoretical background for organizational

behavior scholars' work owing to the concepts' applicability to phenomena in business organizations where a group of employees is actively engaged in productive exchange to reach shared goals (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Organizational behavior scholars have also focused on how continuous social exchange between organizations and employees can lead to improved relationships between these parties. For example, organizational scholars have put forth the concept of perceived organizational support, which measures "the extent to which the organization values [employees'] contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 501). According to the literature, as the level of perceived organizational support increases, employees are more likely to reciprocate through increased psychological attachment to their organizations, which results in better job performance, reduced absenteeism, and increased organizational citizenship behavior (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2001; Lynch et al., 1999; Randall et al., 1999).

In addition, social exchange theory has been developed through scholars' efforts to address one of its primary limitations: oversimplification of human relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Early social exchange theorists tried to understand human interaction through simple economic terms: costs, rewards, and profits. This approach overlooks other potential factors that influence social exchanges, such as rationality, altruism, group gain, status consistency, and competition (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Organizational scholars have since taken such factors into consideration. For instance, Grover and Crooker (1995) emphasized a supportive organizational culture as well as the magnitude of employees' benefits. For example, even if an organization

provides flexible work time programs, employees cannot benefit from the program if the organizational culture is not supportive and cooperative, resulting in no reciprocation from employees.

Grant et al. (2008) further expanded the theory by offering a new perspective on individual rewards. Their argument was sparked by critics of social exchange theory claiming that people engage in social exchange only when they receive benefits from others; if there are no rewards, people do not engage in social interaction (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004). According to Grant et al. (2008), however, people engage in social exchange even in the absence of explicit rewards. In a study by Grant et al. (2008), people demonstrated a higher level of affective organizational commitment (i.e., reciprocation) when they received an opportunity to participate in giving behavior, such as volunteer programs to help people who were facing financial emergencies (Grant et al., 2008). The act of giving provided employees opportunities to develop “their personal prosocial identities and pride in the company for holding a collective prosocial identity” (Grant et al., 2008, p. 901). In sum, the work of Grant et al. (2008) suggests that social relationships can sometimes be built and developed even without tangible rewards.

Applications to Sport Management

Social exchange theory has been widely adopted in sport management due to the theory’s applicability in explaining the benefits of certain sport products, such as sport sponsorship and sporting events. In particular, sport management scholars have largely drawn upon works by Homans (1958) and Blau (1964) because the benefits of sport products do not solely involve economic value but can also include social benefits. For

example, Inoue and Havard (2014) identified four social benefits local residents can gain from community-hosted sporting events: community excitement, enhanced community attachment, event-related excitement, and community pride. Overall, social exchange theory has been adopted in sport management in three major areas: (a) sport sponsorship (Copeland et al., 1996; Y. K. Kim & Trail, 2011; McCarville & Copeland, 1994); (b) the social impact of sporting events (Hritz & Ross, 2010; Huang et al., 2016; Inoue & Havard, 2014; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012; Mao & Huang, 2016); and (c) sport organizational behavior (Auld & Godbey, 1998; Rocha & Chelladurai, 2011; Shonk & Bravo, 2010; Snyder, 1990). In the following section, sport management studies grounded in social exchange theory are reviewed.

Sport sponsorship and social exchange. First, scholars who study sport sponsorship have contended that sponsorship can be understood based on exchange theories because sponsorship is inherent to the exchange process (McCarville & Copeland, 1994). It involves financial support from sponsors and the rights to be associated with sponsored teams as reciprocation (Copeland et al., 1996; McCarville & Copeland, 1994). For instance, in 2012, world-famous companies such as Coca-Cola, Acer, Atos, General Electric, Dow, McDonald's, Omega, Panasonic, P&G, Samsung, and Visa were worldwide Olympic Partners of the International Olympic Committee. Each company contributed \$100 million to the 2012 London Olympic Games (The Guardian, 2012). In return, they advertise their companies during the Olympics, use the Olympic logo on their products, and ultimately associate themselves with positive images related to the Olympics.

However, it is unclear how sponsorship, essentially an economic exchange involving cash as an exchange medium, can be understood in the context of social exchange theory, which emphasizes the quality of the relationship between exchange partners rather than the magnitude of resulting profits. In this regard, Y. K. Kim and Trail (2011) suggested in their conceptual paper that, in sport marketing, a fundamental shift from a traditional exchange paradigm to a relationship paradigm is needed. Their main argument was that in exchange situations in sport marketing practice, parties should consider each exchange partner's relational benefits (e.g., trust, commitment, intimacy, and self-connection) in addition to monetary benefits (e.g., cost and rewards).

Sporting event management. Second, in studies on the social impacts of sporting events, researchers have tried to identify the positive social effects of hosting these events, both large- and small-scale, in terms of social exchange. This line of research marks an effort from sport management scholars to respond to criticisms regarding the inconclusive economic impact of sporting events studies (Inoue & Havard, 2014). Researchers first analyzed the hosting city residents' costs and benefits when hosting sporting events. They then argued that social and economic benefits for residents (e.g., community attachment, event-related excitement, community pride, and an economic boom in the local area) offset the costs of hosting such events. According to the reciprocation rule in social exchange theory, local residents' perceptions of these benefits and costs determine their attitudes toward the sporting event, which significantly shape their intentions to support it. Local residents will support an event being held in their

community when their perceived benefits outweigh the perceived costs of hosting (Huang et al., 2016; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012).

Inoue and Havard (2014) and Mao and Huang (2016) expanded the scope of sporting event management studies by focusing on the relative nature of perceived benefits in social exchange. Their argument was that each resident's perceptions of the benefits of a sporting event differ depending on her/his pre-existing level of community attachment (Mao & Huang, 2016), identification with the event or event organizers (Inoue & Havard, 2014; Mao & Huang, 2016), and event organizers' efforts to contribute to the local community (Inoue & Havard, 2014). Accordingly, different levels of perceived benefits affect residents' level of support for the sporting event (Inoue & Havard, 2014). For instance, in a study based on a regular PGA TOUR event, Inoue and Havard (2014) classified local residents' social benefits of hosting sporting events into four categories: community excitement, enhanced community attachment, event-related excitement, and community pride. Perceptions of such social impacts were affected by how much the event contributed to their local communities and how much residents identified with the event organizers (Inoue & Havard, 2014). Put simply, because the benefits and costs for residents of hosting city include intangible assets (e.g., community pride and event-related excitement) as well as tangible assets and liabilities (e.g., employment rate, crime rate, and traffic congestion), social exchange theory can logically explain local residents' behavior regarding sporting events held in their local communities.

Sport organizational behavior. Last, sport management researchers have tried to show that organizational theories operate similarly in sport organizations as they do in general organizations (Husin et al., 2012; Kent & Chelladurai, 2001; Millar & Stevens, 2012; Rocha & Chelladurai, 2011; Snyder, 1990; Wallace & Weese, 1995). Among these researchers, Rocha and Chelladurai (2011), Shonk and Bravo (2010), and Husin et al. (2012) specifically examined social exchange theory in sport organizations (e.g., college athletics departments). Rocha and Chelladurai (2011) described the organization-employee relationship as a reciprocal interdependent relationship where employees depend on their organizations to achieve their objectives, and organizations depend on employees to help attain organizational goals. In their study of a college athletic department, Rocha and Chelladurai (2011) drew on social exchange theory to examine the effects of organizational support toward athletic coaches on the performance of athletic teams the coaches oversaw. The authors contended that athletic coaches reciprocated organizational support by increasing their level of affective organizational commitment, which in turn led to better team performance (Rocha & Chelladurai, 2011).

On the other hand, Husin et al. (2012) tested social exchange theory in the context of golf course employees. They focused on employees' organizational citizenship behavior as a form of reciprocation for organizational support (Husin et al., 2012), which is defined as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that is the aggregate [that] promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Husin et al. (2012) suggested that, based on social exchange theory, employers' support for employees' work

environment, training, reward system, and supervisory assistance led to employees' citizenship behavior, which resulted in a higher level of service quality.

Overall, sport management scholars have thoroughly applied social exchange theory to social phenomena in the sport industry. Sport management researchers have also established a clear theoretical understanding of sport sponsorship, sport event management, and sport organizational behavior. In particular, sport organizational behavior scholars have successfully identified the benefits of employee support programs in sport organizations based on social exchange theory and the notion of reciprocation. The following section presents an overview of how the notion of reciprocation informs this study and its hypotheses.

Reciprocation in Organized Sport Participation Programs Contexts

Many studies on the employer–employee relationship conducted in social scientific disciplines, such as organizational behavior, health psychology, and sport management, have drawn primarily on social exchange theory, which holds reciprocation as a cornerstone (Cropanzano et al., 2017; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Despite some concerns that social exchange theory is extremely broad and that theory-based predictions are too general (Cropanzano et al., 2017), many empirical studies have provided compelling results. For example, when employees are provided genuine organizational support for their workplace/personal lives (e.g., employee support programs), employees tend to reciprocate such support by being affectively committed to their companies and exhibiting positive workplace behavior (Cropanzano et al., 2017; Grant et al., 2008; Husin et al., 2012).

In line with findings regarding the outcomes of employee support programs and based on social exchange theory, this study explores employees' affective organizational commitment as a primary form of reciprocation for organizational support of organized sport participation programs. Specifically, it is examined whether employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs, particularly the degree to which employees value such programs (Jones, 2010), are positively associated with employees' level of affective organizational commitment. In addition, in the context of organized sport participation programs, employees understand that the primary purposes of organized sport participation programs are not limited to physical and mental health management or entertainment but include developing social relationships and promoting a sense of community (Hill & Jones, 2014). Therefore, this study also explores whether reciprocation for organized sport participation programs manifests as employees' cooperativeness in the workplace (i.e., the association between attitudes toward organized sport participation programs and employees' perceptions of their workplace cooperativeness).

This dissertation theoretically draws upon the notion of reciprocation and behavioral spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Grant et al., 2008; Rhoades et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) to understand the potential effects of organized sport participation programs on employees' affective organizational commitment and workplace cooperativeness. Therefore, in the following section, literature regarding psychological reciprocation is first reviewed to explore how the reciprocation process could explain the relationship between organized sport participation programs and

employees' affective organizational commitment. Second, the concept of behavioral spillover is reviewed, followed by clarification regarding how behavioral spillover contributes to an understanding of the relationship between organized sport participation programs and employees' workplace cooperativeness.

Psychological Reciprocation: Social Exchange through Employees' Perceived Organizational Support

Organizational scholars have proposed the concept of *perceived organizational support*, defined as “the extent to which the organization values [employees'] contributions and cares about their well-being” (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 501), to understand the psychological mechanism behind how organizational support for employees' non-work-related activities (i.e., employee support programs) can engender employees' reciprocation (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 2001; Grant et al., 2008; Rhoades et al., 2001). A key rationale underpinning this research stream is that when organizations provide support, employees perceive that support as their organizations endeavoring to enrich their well-being and meet their personal needs (Grant et al., 2008; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Therefore, employees are motivated to reciprocate this support through increased psychological attachment to their organizations, such as affective organizational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Grant et al., 2008; Lynch et al., 1999; Randall et al., 1999).

This theoretical suggestion inspired the first hypothesis of this study: employees who hold favorable attitudes toward their companies' organized sport participation programs will demonstrate high perceived organizational support. This hypothesis will

provide empirical support for perceived organizational support theory in the context of organized sport participation programs (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and align with findings from empirical studies on other types of employee support programs (e.g., employee training programs, flexible work hour programs, childcare, and eldercare; Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel, 2009; Casper & Harris, 2008; Kurtessis et al., 2017).

H1a: Employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs are positively associated with employees' level of perceived organizational support.

Behavioral Spillover: Behavioral Changes as Reciprocation of Organizational Support Spillover Effects

The notion of spillover, or externalities, first appeared in economics in the 1920s, referring to the costs or benefits generated by a seemingly unrelated entity or event (Pigou, 2017). Air pollution from industrial facilities is a typical example of a negative spillover effect in economics (Callon, 1998). For instance, a thermal power plant will inevitably produce air pollution. Although neighbors of a thermal power plant suffer from the effects of air pollution, resulting in incurred costs (e.g., increased healthcare costs and decreased property values), such costs are not considered in the plant's accounting records. The negative spillover effects of power plants can give way to "not in my backyard" (NIMBY) syndrome from neighbors. NIMBY syndrome is also common among neighbors of sewage treatment plants or waste disposal sites. Positive spillover effects are similarly common, albeit for other types of businesses. For example, golf courses are positively associated with property values near the course (Nicholls &

Crompton, 2007). However, property owners enjoy increased property values free of charge; they are not required to invest in building the golf course to benefit from it.

Since the early 1980s, the notion of spillover has been applied to other social science fields such as psychology and management (e.g., Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Hanson et al., 2006; Takeuchi et al., 2002). For instance, management scholars studying the link between work experiences and family life have widely adopted the notion of spillover. They have also customized the definition of spillover for their own purposes, referring to the transfer of an individual's psychological state or behavior from one domain to another, namely within-person cross-domain transmission (Bakker et al., 2009; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Hanson et al., 2006). In particular, Edwards and Rothbard (2000) suggested a concept of behavioral spillover, indicating that one's repeated behavior in one domain may become habits, scripts, or styles, which may affect behavior in another domain. Such behavioral spillover is particularly frequent when role requirements in two situations are similar (e.g., teamwork in team sport and teamwork for a group project in a work setting; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). In sum, although the notion of spillover was initially developed to explain uncompensated expenses or uninvested profits generated by a third party in economic systems of human society, it has since been expanded to include individuals' psychological or behavioral processes of transferring experiences in one life domain to another.

Types of Spillover Effects

Spillover can be classified as either horizontal and vertical, and vertical spillover can be further segmented into bottom-up and top-down spillover (Sirgy, 2012; Sirgy et

al., 2001). As noted in Chapter 1, horizontal spillover refers to “the influence of affect in one life domain on a neighboring domain” (Sirgy et al., 2001, p. 244). For instance, one’s experiences at his/her workplace may influence his/her behaviors in family life (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Vertical bottom-up spillover refers to the influences of experiences or affect from a life subdomain on the superordinate domain (Sirgy et al., 2001). For example, watching sport during leisure time has shown to be positively associated with overall life satisfaction (Sato et al., 2015). Lastly, vertical top-down spillover refers to the effects of one’s experiences in a superordinate life domain (e.g., life satisfaction) on a subdomain (e.g., job satisfaction and family satisfaction; Sirgy et al., 2001).

This study draws on the notion of spillover in the psychology and management literature, encompassing within-person cross-domain transmission of an individual’s psychological state or behavior (Bakker et al., 2009) rather than the economic concept of spillover, which refers to the costs or benefits generated by a seemingly unrelated party or event (Pigou, 2017). In addition, the current study targets horizontal spillover because this study focuses on the influences of one’s experiences with organized sport participation programs on her/his workplace experiences, which are neighboring—rather than hierarchical—life domains.

Workplace Cooperativeness as Behavioral Reciprocation

Drawing on the notion of behavioral spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), this dissertation aims to demonstrate that pleasant social interaction during organized sport participation programs increases employees’ cooperativeness in the workplace.

According to Edwards and Rothbard (2000), frequent and repeated supportive and pleasant social interaction can enhance one's social abilities, referring to her/his level of competency and familiarity with social activities (e.g., sharing ideas, collaborating with others, and handling social situations). The second hypothesis of this study was developed based on this notion of behavioral spillover. As sport participation promotes social interaction among participants by providing opportunities to engage in active physical and psychological interaction (Eime et al., 2013a, 2013b), it can be expected that improved social abilities (i.e., through positive experiences with organized sport participation programs) will spill over to one's work context. Presumably, employees who value organized sport participation programs will exhibit higher cooperativeness in the workplace, defined as "an individual personality trait concerning willful contribution of effort to the successful completion of interdependent organizational tasks" (Wagner, 1995, p. 152).

H1b: Employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs are positively associated with employees' perceptions of their cooperativeness in the workplace.

In addition, many scholars have agreed that the ultimate form of employee reciprocation is emotional dedication to their companies, given that employees' emotional dedication is an antecedent of various types of workplace behavior such as absenteeism, job performance, and turnover (Grant et al., 2008; Rhoades et al., 2001). Employees' emotional dedication is often measured through affective organizational commitment, referring to the degree to which employees are emotionally attached to, identified with, and involved in their organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1991). This study

accordingly tests the hypotheses that employees will reciprocate the benefits of organized sport participation programs by enhancing their affective organizational commitment, and this relationship will be mediated by perceived organizational support and perceptions of one's workplace cooperativeness.

H1c: Employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs have an indirect positive influence on affective organizational commitment through employees' level of perceived organizational support.

H1d: Employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs have an indirect positive influence on affective organizational commitment through employees' perceptions of their cooperativeness in the workplace.

Potential Unintended Negative Outcomes

In the context of sport participation, certain individuals might encounter serious constraints to participation. For instance, people may not feel confident in playing sport (i.e., intrapersonal constraints), may not have friends with whom to participate (i.e., interpersonal constraints), or may have an excessively busy schedule (i.e., structural constraints; Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Thus, employees with such constraints may consider organized sport participation programs an extra organizational benefit for some employees who enjoy sport or have sufficient time to take part in such programs.

Distributive Justice

In any employee support program, some employees will be excluded from the program's benefits. For instance, unmarried and childless employees or those with grown children do not benefit from childcare programs, and employees who work with

international customers cannot take advantage of flexible work time programs because of the time difference. Therefore, employee support programs should be comprehensive and offer alternative ways to benefit when employees cannot participate in a particular type of program. In other words, the opportunity to take advantage of employee benefits, regardless of type, should be equitably distributed among all employees. Specifically, distributive justice should serve as a pre-condition of employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs. If distributive justice is not guaranteed, then employees will not hold positive attitudes toward any type of organizational support, including organized sport participation programs.

In the literature, the concept of distributive justice encompasses the degree to which organizational rewards or support for employees is fairly distributed among employees (Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011), representing an overarching factor that can reflect the degree to which employee benefits are fairly distributed (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2001). The concept was derived from Adams' (1965) equity theory and is a core element of social exchange theory (Homans, 1958; Mitchell et al., 2012), emphasizing the importance of fairness of outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2001); people often care more about fairness than absolute outcomes or benefits (Adams, 1965). Per Skarlicki and Folger (1997), when outcome distribution is inequitable, employees are not merely dissatisfied; they display measurable declines in performance, organizational citizenship, and other productive workplace behaviors (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996; Organ, 1988; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Youngblood et al., 1992).

Thus, the opportunity to participate in organized sport participation programs must be fairly distributed to all employees (Mitchell et al., 2012). Otherwise, organized sport participation programs will not properly foster affective organizational commitment and may even hurt organizational culture because of complaints from non-participants. This pattern inspired the following hypotheses regarding the effects of distributive justice in allocating opportunities to participate in organized sport participation programs on employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs and affective organizational commitment.

H2a: Distributive justice in allocating support for organized sport participation programs is positively associated with employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs.

H2b: Distributive justice in allocating support for organized sport participation programs has an indirect positive influence on affective organizational commitment through employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs and employees' level of perceived organizational support.

H2c: Distributive justice in allocating support for organized sport participation programs has an indirect positive influence on affective organizational commitment through employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs and employees' perceptions of their cooperativeness in the workplace.

The hypothesis testing process is reviewed in the following chapter, including relevant measures, data collection methods, sample characteristics, and data analysis procedures.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the methods used to address the four research questions in the dissertation (RQ1: What are the unique and positive outcomes of adopting organized sport participation programs from organizational perspectives?; RQ2: How do organized sport participation programs engender employees' reciprocation of affective organizational commitment?; RQ3: What are the unintended negative consequences of organized sport participation programs?; and RQ4: How can the unintended negative outcomes of organized sport participation programs be alleviated?). In the following section, the overarching philosophical approach of this study and its connection with the chosen research method are reviewed, followed by an overview of the study participants, data collection methods, relevant measures, and data analysis procedures.

This dissertation is grounded in a post-positivist viewpoint. Although numerous studies have demonstrated the potential benefits of sport participation, little is known about employees' actual experiences with organized sport participation programs in the real world and how to leverage the benefits of such programs in an organizational setting. To holistically understand the phenomenon surrounding organized sport participation programs, this dissertation assumes a mixed-method approach (Markula & Silk, 2011). By combining quantitative and qualitative methods, employees' experiences with organized sport participation programs are thoroughly explored. Following the nature of

the mixed-method approach, findings from Study 1 and 2 are iteratively reflected and complementary (Markula & Silk, 2011).

Study 1

In Study 1, the proposed research model was empirically tested via quantitative data analysis. Specifically, hypotheses were statistically tested based on survey data collected from full-time employees in the U.S. who have experience with organized sport participation programs.

Participants

Study 1 is based on quantitative data collected from a research collaboration with an outsourcing company regarding the implementation of organized sport participation programs. The partnered company is based in New York City and organizes corporate sport leagues for company-supported sport teams with over 120,000 players per year. Its business model is to sell its services to other companies in New York City. The partner company offers outsourcing solutions for organized sport participation programs for approximately \$1,800 per season per team of 10–15 employees. Corporate league registrations are all-inclusive, covering facility fees, referees, team jerseys, and a tournament management system. In addition, leagues can be gender-specific (e.g., men’s or women’s leagues) or co-ed, and the competitiveness level can differ (e.g., low- or high-competition). Employees of customer companies create teams with their coworkers and participate in sport leagues managed by the partnered company. All teams in the partnered company’s sport leagues are registered through the customer companies’ human resources departments, and their employers pay registration fees. The partnered

company's current customers include Verizon, US Bank, Bloomberg, Ernst & Young, KPMG, PWC, and Goldman Sachs. As participants in the partnered company's corporate sport leagues are full-time employees joining their companies' organized sport participation programs, they were deemed appropriate samples for the current dissertation.

Online survey invitations were sent to recent participants of corporate sport leagues using the partnering company's consumer database. A total of 112 online surveys were collected, and 82 responses were retained for data analysis. Thirty responses were excluded because participants either failed an attention check question or provided illogical answers. Respondents were mostly highly educated Caucasians and Asians with a high income; for instance, 65.9% were Caucasian and 17.1% were Asian, 93.9% had a 4-year college or postgraduate degree, and 65.7% earned an annual household income of more than \$80,000. Most respondents worked in the finance, media, software, accounting, or marketing/consulting industries; sample companies included AON, US Bank, Goldman Sachs, Bloomberg, Bleacher Report, Ernst & Young, PWC, and KPMG. With regard to sport, kickball was the most popular sport (36.6% participation), followed by indoor soccer (31.7%), volleyball (28.0%), and outdoor soccer (20.7%). Among all respondents, 45.1% participated in multiple sport leagues. Tables 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3 present details about the sample demographics, company types, and sport league types.

Table 3.1
Demographics and Tenure of Organized Sport Participation Programs Participants

Demographics	Percentage	Mean (SD)	Median
Age		30.91 (8.93)	29
Tenure		4.05 (3.82)	3
Gender			
Male	59.8%		
Female	35.4%		
Other/Decline	4.9%		
Ethnicity			
White/Caucasian	65.9%		
African American	2.4%		
Hispanic	7.3%		
Asian	17.1%		
Multiracial	6.1%		
Job Role (Managerial Duty)			
Yes	57.3%		
No	42.7%		
Children			
Yes	11.7%		
No	88.3%		
Education			
Less than 4-year degree	6.1%		
4-year or postgraduate degree	93.9%		
Income			
Equal to or less than \$80,000	34.2%		
\$80,001–\$200,000	53.9%		
More than \$200,000	11.8%		

Table 3.2
Company Types of Organized Sport Participation Programs Participants

Industry	<i>n</i>	Percentage	Examples
Finance	14	17.1%	AON, US Bank, Goldman Sachs
Media	10	12.2%	Bloomberg, Bleacher Report
Software	7	8.5%	CoEnterprise, CenturyLink
Accounting	5	6.1%	Ernst & Young, PWC, KPMG
Marketing	4	4.9%	Digitas, Amobee, Simon Data
Consulting	3	3.7%	Mercer, Protiviti
Manufacturing	3	3.7%	Otis, DevaCurl
Startup	3	3.7%	Warby Parker, Quip
Non-profit	2	2.4%	Sesame Workshop
Engineering	2	2.4%	HDR
Medical	1	1.2%	
Biopharmaceutical	1	1.2%	
Transportation	1	1.2%	
Education	1	1.2%	
Telecommunication	1	1.2%	Verizon
Health	1	1.2%	
Unknown	23	28.0%	
Total	82	100.0%	

Table 3.3
Sport League Types of Organized Sport Participation Programs Participants

Sport	<i>n</i> ^a	Percentage
Kickball	30	36.6%
Indoor soccer	26	31.7%
Volleyball	23	28.0%
Outdoor soccer	17	20.7%
Softball	13	15.9%
Basketball	12	14.6%
Beach volleyball	10	12.2%
Dodgeball	9	11.0%
Bowling	8	9.8%
Flag football	7	8.5%
Futsal	3	3.7%
Cornhole	2	2.4%
Ultimate frisbee	1	1.2%

^a 37 (45.1%) respondents participated in multiple sport leagues.

In addition to data gathered through the research collaboration, two additional surveys were distributed to 1) participants in non-organized sport participation programs (e.g., gym membership subsidy) and 2) non-sport employee support programs (e.g., childcare or flexible work hours). These additional data were collected to determine whether different patterns manifested in the hypothesized relationships between participants of three different types of employee support programs.

These additional data were obtained via an online research support platform (Qualtrics.com). Data collection through an online research support platform has several advantages. First, as Qualtrics recruits potential study participants through numerous

sources, including online advertising and direct messaging, resultant data are randomly distributed demographically and geographically. By contrast, data from a research collaboration tends to be somewhat skewed in terms of demographics and geographic locations (e.g., all respondents in this study were highly educated and based in New York City). Second, Qualtrics has an extensive database on their panels' demographics and socioeconomic status, which enables researchers to precisely target suitable samples. For instance, in the current study, targeted samples were full-time employees in the U.S. who were participating in either non-organized sport participation programs or non-sport employee support programs. Third, Qualtrics has a quality control team to remove straight-lined responses and input from respondents who fail attention check questions, thus ensuring valid construct measurement (i.e., scale validity; Kung et al., 2018). Given these advantages, online research support services have been widely used in sport management and organizational studies published in leading management journals (e.g., Bendersky & Shah, 2012; Billings et al., 2016; Drayer et al., 2019; Holtz, 2015; Phillips et al., 2014; Strauss et al., 2012; Walsh & Williams, 2017).

For the second group of samples (i.e., participants in non-organized sport participation programs), the survey began with a screening question to ensure that all respondents were participants of non-organized sport participation programs. A total of 110 responses were collected, and 67 were retained for analysis. Forty-three participants were excluded because of illogical answers or a failed attention check question. Samples were randomly distributed in terms of demographics: 58.2% were women, 62.7% were Caucasian, 46.3% had a 4-year college or postgraduate degree, and 24.6% earned more

than \$80,000 in annual household income. They took advantage of a gym membership subsidy (58.2%), weight-loss program (49.3%), in-office workout facilities (31.3%), fitness programs subsidy (e.g., yoga, spinning; 23.9%), and fitness equipment subsidy (e.g., Fitbit, Apple Watch; 17.9%). Thirty-seven respondents (55.2%) were participating in multiple programs. Tables 3.4 and 3.5 list detailed sample characteristics of respondents' demographics, tenure, and program types.

Table 3.4
Demographics and Tenure of Non-organized Sport Participation Programs Participants

Demographics	Percentage	Mean (SD)	Median
Age		36.36 (8.82)	35
Tenure		6.48 (5.30)	5
Gender			
Male	40.3%		
Female	58.2%		
Other/Decline	1.5%		
Ethnicity			
White/Caucasian	62.7%		
African American	20.9%		
Hispanic	4.5%		
Asian	7.5%		
Multiracial	4.5%		
Job Role (Managerial Duty)			
Yes	61.2%		
No	38.8%		
Children			
Yes	62.7%		
No	37.3%		

Table 3.4 (continued)

Demographics	Percentage	Mean (SD)	Median
Education			
Less than 4-year degree	53.7%		
4-year or postgraduate degree	46.3%		
Income			
Equal to or less than \$80,000	75.4%		
\$80,001–\$200,000	21.5%		
More than \$200,000	3.1%		

Table 3.5

Program Types of Non-organized Sport Participation Program Participants

Programs	<i>n</i> ^a	Percentage
Gym membership subsidy	39	58.2%
Weight-loss programs	33	49.3%
In-office workout facilities	21	31.3%
Fitness programs subsidy (e.g., yoga, spinning)	16	23.9%
Fitness equipment subsidy (e.g., Fitbit, Apple Watch)	12	17.9%

^a 37 (55.2%) respondents participated in multiple programs.

Data for the third group of samples (i.e., participants of non-sport employee support programs) were collected in the same way as the second group. The survey began with a screening question to ensure that all respondents were participants of non-sport employee support programs. A total of 115 responses were collected, and 62 were retained for data analysis. Fifty-three responses containing a failed attention check question or illogical answers were excluded. Samples were randomly distributed in terms of demographics except for gender: 64.5% were women, 66.1% were Caucasian, 53.3%

had a 4-year college or postgraduate degree, and 30.6% earned more than \$80,000 annually. They participated in programs including tuition reimbursement (64.5%), flexible work time (59.7%), community volunteering (41.9%), childcare (33.9%), social activity clubs (e.g., book club, movie club; 21.0%), and sabbatical (8.1%), with 45 (75.6%) participating in multiple programs. Tables 3.6 and 3.7 show detailed sample characteristics based on demographics, tenure, and program types.

Table 3.6
Demographics and Tenure of Non-sport Employee Support Programs Participants

Demographics	Percentage	Mean (SD)	Median
Age		37.30 (9.52)	36
Tenure		7.23 (5.74)	5
Gender			
Male	35.5%		
Female	64.5%		
Other/Decline	0.0%		
Ethnicity			
White/Caucasian	66.1%		
African American	19.4%		
Hispanic	4.8%		
Asian	4.8%		
Multiracial	4.8%		
Job Role (Managerial Duty)			
Yes	61.3%		
No	38.7%		
Children			
Yes	62.9%		
No	37.1%		

Table 3.6 (continued)

Demographics	Percentage	Mean (SD)	Median
Education			
Less than 4-year degree	46.7%		
4-year or postgraduate degree	53.3%		
Income			
Equal to or less than \$80,000	69.4%		
\$80,001–\$200,000	27.4%		
More than \$200,000	3.2%		

Table 3.7

Program Types of Non-sport Employee Support Programs Participants

Programs	<i>n</i> ^a	Percentage
Tuition reimbursement	40	64.5%
Flexible work time programs	37	59.7%
Employee community volunteer programs	26	41.9%
Childcare (e.g., in-office daycare service, daycare cost subsidies)	21	33.9%
Social activity clubs (e.g., book club, movie club)	13	21.0%
Sabbatical programs	5	8.1%

^a 45 (75.6%) respondents participated in multiple programs.

The final sample thus consisted of 211 responses from three groups: organized sport participation programs ($n = 82$), non-organized sport participation programs ($n = 67$), and non-sport employee support programs ($n = 62$).

Measures

Independent Variables

Employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs were evaluated using the 4-item construct from Jones (2010), contextualized for the current study (e.g., "I enjoy the fact that my company encourages me to participate in the [employee support programs/non-organized sport participation programs/organized sport participation programs]"). A 4-item construct from Colquitt et al. (2001) was adopted to measure distributive justice in allocating the benefits of employee support programs (e.g., "Based on the work I have completed, the [employee support program/non-organized sport participation program/organized sport participation program] benefits from my organization are appropriate"). All variables were measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). Appendix A presents all measurement items.

Mediators and Outcome Variable

Perceived organizational support was assessed based on an 8-item construct developed by Rhoades et al. (2001; e.g., "My organization really cares about my well-being"). Perceptions of one's workplace cooperativeness were measured using a 5-item scale developed by Lu, Au, Jiang, Xie, and Yam (2013; e.g., "At work, I usually consider other team members' perspectives"). Affective organizational commitment was measured using a 6-item construct from Rhoades et al. (2001; e.g., "I feel a strong sense of belonging to my company"). All variables were measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). Appendix A shows all measurement items.

Control Variables

Participants' race, gender, age, tenure, job level, and family structure were included in the analysis as control variables because such variables have been shown to be correlated with employees' workplace behavior, such as social interaction, creativity, and productivity (Chatman & Barsade, 1995; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). In this study, binary variables were used to measure gender (male = 0, female = 1), race (white = 0, racial minority = 1), job level (no managerial duties = 0, managerial duties = 1), and family structure (no children = 0, children = 1). Age (years) and tenure (years) were measured based on survey participants' numerical input (i.e., continuous variable).

Data Analysis Procedure

Data analysis began with calculating the Cronbach's alpha value and corrected item-total correlation of every measurement construct in all three surveys to explore construct reliability. Next, measurement invariance tests were performed to examine whether the samples from three different groups interpreted and responded to survey questions in a similar way (S. Wang et al., 2018). Specifically, to assess configural invariance, all parameters of the two CFA models being compared were freely estimated (S. Wang et al., 2018). To estimate metric invariance, the factor loadings of two CFA models were constrained to be equal, and model fit indices of the metric model were compared with those of the configural model (S. Wang et al., 2018). Next, scalar invariance was evaluated if metric invariance was established. To evaluate scalar invariance, the factor loadings and item intercepts of the two CFA models were constrained to be equal, and model fit indices of the scalar model and metric model were

compared (S. Wang et al., 2018). Lastly, strict invariance was tested if scalar invariance was established. To determine strict invariance, the factor loadings, item intercepts, and item residual variances of the two CFA models were constrained to be equal, and model fit indices of the strict model and scalar model were compared (S. Wang et al., 2018). In addition, sample demographics and the average scores of key variables were compared between the three sample groups to identify differences in variable scores.

Lastly, for hypothesis testing, partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) was conducted via SmartPLS 3. This technique was chosen for two reasons: 1) PLS-SEM can effectively handle complex models, even those involving small sample sizes (Hair et al., 2019) and 2) PLS-SEM does not require a normality assumption for data; therefore, it works well with relatively small sample sizes (Hair et al., 2019). In particular, survey data are likely to be skewed toward the right (e.g., few scores of 1 and 2 and many of 5, 6, and 7 on a 7-point Likert scale). This pattern violates the normality assumption, which is an underlying assumption of parametric analyses, such as regression and covariance-based SEM. On the contrary, PLS-SEM relies on the bootstrap procedure, a non-parametric technique, to test the statistical significance of path coefficients. Therefore, PLS-SEM does not make distributional assumptions and is well suited to small sample sizes. In this dissertation, bias-corrected bootstrapped confidence intervals were generated through 1,000 iterations (Hayes, 2017). Figure 3.1 illustrates the research model and hypotheses guiding this study.

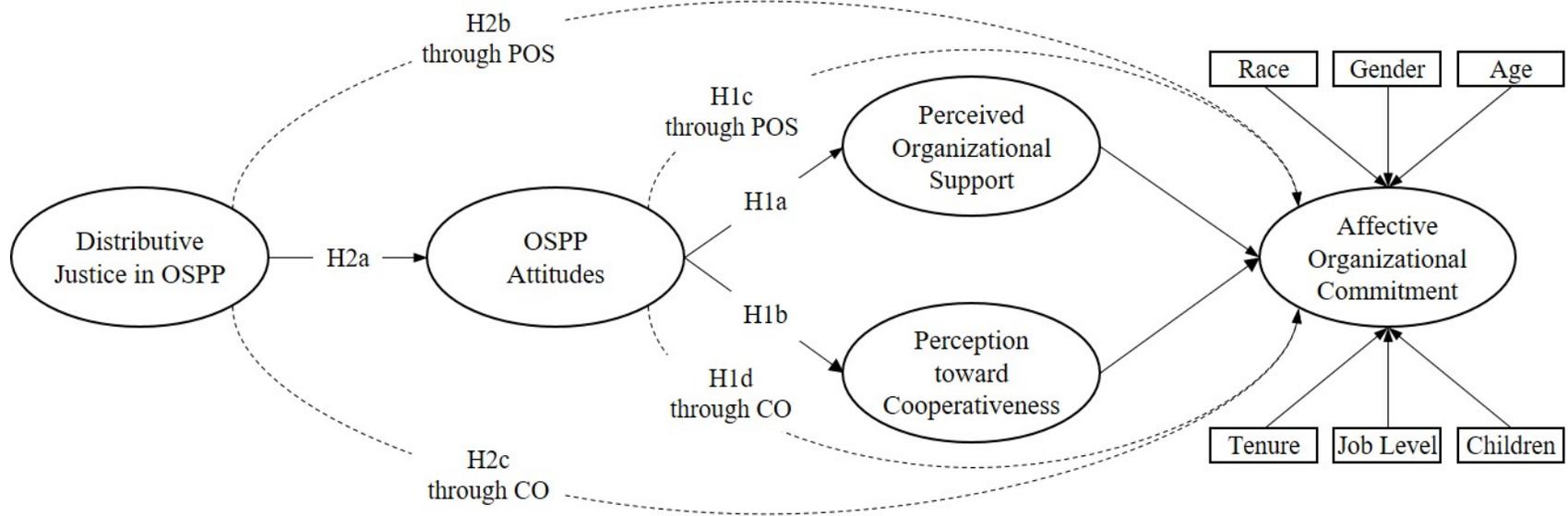


Figure 3.1. Research model; dotted lines indicate indirect effects.

Study 2

The primary purpose of Study 2 was to discuss the potential positives and negatives of organized sport participation programs that were not captured through Study 1. Study 2 utilized qualitative data to solicit an in-depth understanding of employees' perceptions toward and experiences with organized sport participation programs. Therefore, data were collected through a series of interviews with participants of organized sport participation programs who were customers of the partnered company.

Participants and Procedure

Study 2 was conducted based on sequentially collected qualitative data after data were gathered in Study 1. Respondents to the first survey (i.e., customers of the collaborating company) were asked if they wanted to participate in an in-depth interview about their experience with organized sport participation programs at the end of the survey. Slightly less than half (43.2%) were willing to participate in an interview. Interviewees were randomly selected, and in-depth episodic interviews were performed until theoretical saturation (i.e., no new themes emerged; Markula & Silk, 2011), resulting in 16 interviews.

Episodic interviews were conducted to understand informants' experiences based on their personal narratives about what they actually experienced while participating in organized sport participation programs (Flick, 2014; Mueller, 2019). Therefore, informants were asked to provide detailed stories about their experiences during and after their participation in organized sport participation programs. Interviews began by asking informants to tell a story about how and why they first began participating in organized

sport participation programs to provide interviewees with a broad context of the interview (Mueller, 2019). Then, interviewees were asked to tell another story about positively and negatively impressive episodes during and after their participation in organized sport participation programs. Additional questions were posed to better understand the context of organized sport participation programs in their companies (e.g., how teams were assembled and how companies paid or reimbursed registration fees). Throughout interviews, the interviewer tried not to interrupt interviewees when telling their own stories, and interviewees were free to choose any story they wanted to share (Mueller, 2019). Interviews were recorded, transcribed, and imported into ATLAS.TI 8. All interviewees were assigned pseudonyms. Appendix B includes the interview protocol used in this study.

To address four criteria related to the trustworthiness of qualitative research (Guba, 1981), strategies to enhance credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability were applied following suggestions from Korstjens and Moser (2018) and Shenton (2004). First, to ensure credibility, data triangulation strategies were adopted by randomly selecting interviewees from Study 1's survey population, resulting in data from employees working for various companies and departments (Shenton, 2004). In addition, the interviewer spent sufficient time building rapport by having in-depth conversations with informants regarding the study context (i.e., organized sport participation programs in their respective companies; Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Informants thus had a clear understanding of the study context. Second, to enhance transferability, a detailed description of the study context, as well as informants' experiences, were solicited from

interviewees (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Specifically, questions were asked to understand the atmosphere surrounding organized sport participation programs in the workplace (e.g., how teams were assembled, how registration fees were paid or reimbursed, who employees' teammates were, and how supportive their companies were of organized sport participation programs). Last, to improve dependability and confirmability, in-depth methodological descriptions have been provided. The limitations section also indicates that the researcher's beliefs and assumptions could have affected informants' responses during interviews. Other potential limitations of the current study's qualitative data collection methods and their possible effects are discussed as well (Shenton, 2004).

Data Analysis

Interview data were analyzed using thematic analysis, a suitable approach for mixed-method studies given its applicability to inductive and deductive approaches (Braun et al., 2019). Thematic analysis involves six phases: 1) the researcher familiarizes themselves with the data, 2) generates initial codes, 3) searches for themes, 4) reviews potential themes, 5) defines and names identified themes, and 6) produces a corresponding report (Braun et al., 2019). All steps were carefully followed in this study. Interview data were analyzed deductively based on the findings of Study 1. Then, the interview data were inductively coded (i.e., via open coding) to identify any new themes derived from data content.

Specifically, interview transcripts were annotated based on two coding schemes from the findings of Study 1 (i.e., workplace cooperativeness and perceived

organizational support). This deductive approach was intended to confirm and complement the results of Study 1 by further illustrating employees' detailed experiences with organized sport participation programs. Second, data were coded inductively. In doing so, based on episodes shared by the informants, the researcher sought to identify interesting themes in employees' favorable and unfavorable experiences with organized sport participation programs.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This section presents results from the two studies in this dissertation. The first study focused on exploring the associations between employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs and their affective organizational commitment. Study 2, as a qualitative study, was intended to provide an in-depth understanding of employees' actual experiences with organized sport participation programs. Collectively, the results from Studies 1 and 2 complement each other and demonstrate why and how organized sport participation programs are beneficial for employees and employers.

Study 1

Data for Study 1 were collected through three surveys from participants of organized sport participation programs, non-organized sport participation programs, and non-sport employee support programs. The following section highlights the results of construct reliability tests, measurement invariance tests, demographic comparisons, variable score comparisons, and hypothesis tests.

Construct Reliability

Organized Sport Participation Programs Group

To examine the construct reliability of measures based on data from the organized sport participation programs group, Cronbach's alpha values and corrected item-total correlations were calculated. According to the results, all measurement constructs showed good construct reliability with Cronbach's alpha values greater than .70 (Hair et al., 2010) and corrected item-total correlations greater than .40 (Field, 2005). Specifically,

first, the Cronbach's alpha of attitudes toward organized sport participation programs was .76, and all corrected item-total correlations of the four related items were above .40. Second, the Cronbach's alpha of distributive justice was .89, and all corrected item-total correlations of the four related items were above .40. Third, the Cronbach's alpha of perceived organizational support was .91, and all corrected item-total correlations of the eight related items were above .40. Fourth, the Cronbach's alpha of perceptions of one's workplace cooperativeness was .88, and the corrected item-total correlations of the five related items were above .40. Last, the Cronbach's alpha of affective organizational commitment was .89, and all corrected item-total correlations of the six related items were above .40 (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1
Construct Reliability of Organized Sport Participation Programs Group

Construct ^a	Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Organized Sport Participation Programs Attitudes ($\alpha = .76$)	OSPPA_1	.490	.753
	OSPPA_2	.744	.638
	OSPPA_3	.598	.706
	OSPPA_4	.541	.740
Distributive Justice ($\alpha = .89$)	DJ_1	.750	.868
	DJ_2	.751	.865
	DJ_3	.726	.877
	DJ_4	.835	.832
Perceived Organizational Support ($\alpha = .91$)	POS_1	.726	.900
	POS_2	.741	.899
	POS_3	.791	.894
	POS_4	.743	.899

Table 4.1 (continued)

Construct ^a	Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Perceived Organizational Support ($\alpha = .91$)	POS_5	.643	.907
	POS_6	.820	.891
	POS_7	.601	.910
	POS_8	.711	.905
Perceptions of One's Workplace Cooperativeness ($\alpha = .88$)	CO_1	.758	.838
	CO_2	.685	.856
	CO_3	.706	.851
	CO_4	.591	.876
	CO_5	.819	.828
Affective Organizational Commitment ($\alpha = .89$)	AOC_1	.857	.855
	AOC_2	.798	.863
	AOC_3	.573	.897
	AOC_4	.801	.861
	AOC_5	.716	.884
	AOC_6	.630	.888

^a Numbers in parentheses represent Cronbach's α .

Non-organized Sport Participation Programs Group

In data from the non-organized sport participation programs group, all Cronbach's alphas were greater than .70 (Hair et al., 2010), and all corrected item-total correlations were greater than .40 (Field, 2005). First, the Cronbach's alpha of attitudes toward non-organized sport participation programs was .79, and the corrected item-total correlations of all items were above .40. Second, the Cronbach's alpha of distributive justice was .88, and the corrected item-total correlations of all items were above .40. Third, the Cronbach's alpha of perceived organizational support was .92, and the corrected item-

total correlations of all items were above .40. Fourth, the Cronbach's alpha of perceptions of one's workplace cooperativeness was .90, and the corrected item-total correlations of all items were above .40. Last, the Cronbach's alpha of affective organizational commitment was .90, and the corrected item-total correlations of all items were above .40 (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2
Construct Reliability of Non-organized Sport Participation Programs Group

Construct ^a	Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Non-organized Sport Participation Programs Attitudes ($\alpha = .79$)	NOSPPA_1	.454	.814
	NOSPPA_2	.691	.694
	NOSPPA_3	.732	.685
	NOSPPA_4	.572	.757
Distributive Justice ($\alpha = .88$)	DJ_1	.755	.838
	DJ_2	.771	.834
	DJ_3	.708	.856
	DJ_4	.731	.848
Perceived Organizational Support ($\alpha = .92$)	POS_1	.734	.911
	POS_2	.795	.906
	POS_3	.773	.908
	POS_4	.822	.904
	POS_5	.686	.915
	POS_6	.751	.910
	POS_7	.678	.915
	POS_8	.696	.916

Table 4.2 (continued)

Construct ^a	Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Perceptions of One's Workplace Cooperativeness ($\alpha = .90$)	CO_1	.725	.884
	CO_2	.828	.861
	CO_3	.819	.863
	CO_4	.723	.887
	CO_5	.684	.893
Affective Organizational Commitment ($\alpha = .90$)	AOC_1	.729	.883
	AOC_2	.705	.886
	AOC_3	.750	.879
	AOC_4	.836	.869
	AOC_5	.752	.879
	AOC_6	.622	.899

^a Numbers in parentheses represent Cronbach's α .

Non-sport Employee Support Programs Group

The measurement constructs in non-sport employee support programs group data also showed good construct reliability: Cronbach's alphas were greater than .70 (Hair et al., 2010), and corrected item-total correlations were greater than .40 (Field, 2005). First, the corrected item-total correlations of items related to attitudes toward non-sport employee support programs were above .40, and the Cronbach's alpha was .84. Second, the corrected item-total correlations of distributive justice items were above .40, and the Cronbach's alpha was .89. Third, the corrected item-total correlations of items on perceived organizational support were above .40, and the Cronbach's alpha was .92. Fourth, the corrected item-total correlations of items regarding perceptions of one's workplace cooperativeness were above .40, and the Cronbach's alpha was .86. Last, the

corrected item-total correlations of affective organizational commitment items were above .40, and the Cronbach's alpha was .92 (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3
Construct Reliability of Non-sport Employee Support Programs Group

Construct ^a	Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Non-sport Employee Support Programs Attitudes ($\alpha = .84$)	NSESPA_1	.605	.835
	NSESPA_2	.736	.770
	NSESPA_3	.788	.758
	NSESPA_4	.621	.818
Distributive Justice ($\alpha = .89$)	DJ_1	.777	.852
	DJ_2	.747	.860
	DJ_3	.765	.853
	DJ_4	.756	.861
Perceived Organizational Support ($\alpha = .92$)	POS_1	.825	.898
	POS_2	.764	.903
	POS_3	.728	.907
	POS_4	.797	.901
	POS_5	.756	.904
	POS_6	.685	.910
	POS_7	.583	.917
	POS_8	.702	.910
Perceptions of One's Workplace Cooperativeness ($\alpha = .86$)	CO_1	.579	.859
	CO_2	.651	.843
	CO_3	.713	.828
	CO_4	.700	.832
	CO_5	.785	.808

Table 4.3 (continued)

Construct ^a	Item	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Affective Organizational Commitment ($\alpha = .92$)	AOC_1	.791	.897
	AOC_2	.876	.883
	AOC_3	.829	.891
	AOC_4	.791	.896
	AOC_5	.745	.903
	AOC_6	.563	.927

^a Numbers in parentheses represent Cronbach's α .

Measurement Invariance Tests

When interpreting the results of the measurement invariance test, a chi-squared difference test (i.e., examining the difference in chi-squared fit statistics of two CFA models) has often been used because the models being compared in measurement invariance tests are always nested (Chen, 2007; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; S. Wang et al., 2018). For example, the difference in chi-squared fit statistics ($\Delta\chi^2$) between a less restrictive model (e.g., configural model) and a more restrictive model (e.g., metric model) can be tested to determine whether a significant change exists in the chi-squared fit statistics between two models. However, the chi-squared difference test has a critical limitation in that the test results are highly susceptible to sample size and violation of the normality assumption (Chen, 2007); therefore, even a small change in chi-squared fit statistics may lead to a conclusion that a significant difference exists between two chi-squared fit statistics (Chen, 2007). For this reason, scholars have recommended that researchers also consider other model fit indices, such as CFI and RMSEA (Chen, 2007; S. Wang et al., 2018). Specifically, measurement invariance is unlikely to be established

if a change in CFI is greater than .01 and/or a change in RMSEA is greater than .015 (Chen, 2007).

Organized Sport Participation and Non-organized Sport Participation Programs

Results from the measurement invariance test between organized sport participation programs and non-organized sport participation programs groups supported metric invariance. The change in CFI between configural and metric models was less than .01, and the change in RMSEA was less than .015. Scalar invariance was not established because the change in CFI was greater than .01. Table 4.4 provides detailed results of the measurement invariance test between the organized sport participation programs and non-organized sport participation programs groups.

Table 4.4
Results of Measurement Invariance Test between Organized Sport Participation Programs and Non-organized Sport Participation Programs Groups

	x^2	df	Δx^2	Δdf	p	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	$\Delta RMSEA$
Configural Model	1067.0	628				.854		.097	
Metric Invariance	1114.7	650	47.7	22	< .01	.846	.008	.098	.001
Scalar Invariance	1211.2	672	96.5	22	< .01	.821	.025	.104	.006
Strict Invariance	1238.2	677	27.0	5	< .01	.813	.008	.105	.001

Organized Sport Participation and Non-sport Employee Support Programs

Metric invariance was established between the organized sport participation programs and non-sport employee support programs groups. The change in CFI between configural and metric models was less than .01, and the change in RMSEA was less

than .015. Scalar invariance was not established because the change in CFI was greater than .01. Table 4.5 displays details of the measurement invariance test between the two groups.

Table 4.5
Results of Measurement Invariance Test between Organized Sport Participation Programs and Non-sport Employee Support Programs Groups

	x^2	df	Δx^2	Δdf	p	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	$\Delta RMSEA$
Configural Model	1032.9	628				.858		.095	
Metric Invariance	1080.4	650	47.5	22	< .01	.849	.009	.096	.001
Scalar Invariance	1156.9	672	76.5	22	< .01	.830	.019	.100	.004
Strict Invariance	1177.6	677	20.7	5	< .01	.825	.005	.101	.001

Non-organized Sport Participation and Non-sport Employee Support Programs

Strict invariance was established between non-organized sport participation programs and non-sport employee support programs groups. Changes in CFI between the configural and metric model, metric and scalar model, and scalar and strict model were all less than .01, and the changes in RMSEA were less than .015. Table 4.6 lists results of the measurement invariance test between the two groups.

Table 4.6
Results of Measurement Invariance Test between Non-organized Sport Participation Programs and Non-sport Employee Support Programs Groups

	x^2	df	Δx^2	Δdf	p	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	$\Delta RMSEA$
Configural Model	1167.1	628				.819		.115	
Metric Invariance	1200.4	650	33.3	22	> .05	.815	.004	.115	.001

Table 4.6 (continued)

	x^2	df	Δx^2	Δdf	p	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	$\Delta RMSEA$
Scalar Invariance	1216.2	672	15.9	22	> .05	.817	.002	.112	.003
Strict Invariance	1224.3	677	8.1	5	> .05	.816	.001	.112	.000

Demographic Comparison

In addition to measurement invariance tests, a series of chi-square tests were conducted to understand potential demographic differences between the three different groups. First, ethnicity was significantly different between the groups ($\chi^2(14) = 24.46, p < .05$). There were substantially fewer African Americans and more Asians than expected in the organized sport participation programs group; there were significantly more African Americans than expected in the non-organized sport participation groups (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7
Ethnicity and Program Type Crosstabulation

Ethnicity		Program			
		OSP	NOSP	NSP	Total
White/ Caucasian	Count	54 (65.9%)	42 (62.7%)	41 (66.1%)	137 (64.9%)
	Expected Count	53.2	43.5	40.3	137.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	.2	-.5	.2	
African American	Count	2 (2.4%)	14 (20.9%)	12 (19.4%)	28 (13.3%)
	Expected Count	10.9	8.9	8.2	28.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-3.7*	2.2*	1.7	
Hispanic	Count	6 (7.3%)	3 (4.5%)	3 (4.8%)	12 (5.7%)
	Expected Count	4.7	3.8	3.5	12.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	.8	-.5	-.3	

Table 4.7 (continued)

Ethnicity		Program			Total
		OSP	NOSP	NSP	
Asian	Count	14 (17.1%)	5 (7.5%)	3 (4.8%)	22 (10.4%)
	Expected Count	8.5	7.0	6.5	22.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	2.5*	-1.0	-1.7	
Native American	Count	1 (1.2%)	1 (1.5%)	0 (0%)	2 (0.9%)
	Expected Count	.8	.6	.6	2.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	.3	.6	-.9	
Pacific Islander	Count	0 (0%)	1 (1.5%)	1 (1.6%)	2 (0.9%)
	Expected Count	.8	.6	.6	2.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-1.1	.6	.6	
Other (please specify)	Count	2 (2.4%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (0.9%)
	Expected Count	.8	.6	.6	2.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	1.8	-1.0	-.9	
Multiracial	Count	3 (3.7%)	1 (1.5%)	2 (3.2%)	6 (2.8%)
	Expected Count	2.3	1.9	1.8	6.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	0.6	-0.8	0.2	
Total	Count	82	67	62	211
	% within Program	100%	100%	100%	100%

$$\chi^2(14) = 24.46^*$$

* $p < .05$.

Second, gender was significantly different between the three groups ($\chi^2(6) = 16.24, p < .05$); specifically, there were significantly more men in the organized sport participation programs group and more women in the non-sport employee support programs group (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8
Gender and Program Type Crosstabulation

Gender		Program			Total
		OSP	NOSP	NSP	
Male	Count	49 (59.8%)	27 (40.3%)	22 (35.5%)	98 (46.4%)
	Expected Count	38.1	31.1	28.8	98.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	3.1*	-1.2	-2.1*	
Female	Count	29 (35.4%)	39 (58.2%)	40 (64.5%)	108 (51.2%)
	Expected Count	42.0	34.3	31.7	108.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-3.7*	1.4	2.5*	
Other	Count	1 (1.2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.5%)
	Expected Count	0.4	0.3	0.3	1.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	1.3	-0.7	-0.6	
Decline	Count	3 (3.7%)	1 (1.5%)	0 (0%)	4 (1.9%)
	Expected Count	1.6	1.3	1.2	4.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	1.5	-0.3	-1.3	
Total	Count	82	67	62	211
	% within Program	100%	100%	100%	100%

$\chi^2(6) = 16.24^*$

* $p < .05$.

Third, a significant difference was observed in age between the three groups ($F(2, 204) = 10.54, p < .05$). In particular, the organized sport participation programs group was significantly younger than the other two groups, whereas no significant difference emerged between the non-organized sport participation programs and non-sport employee support programs groups (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.9
Results of One-way ANOVA for Age

Mean (SD)	OSP	NOSP	NSP
	30.91	36.36	37.30

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Between Groups	1735.20	2	867.60	10.54	< .05
Within Groups	16794.35	204	82.33		
Total	18529.55	206			

Post-hoc (LSD)

(I) Program	(J) Program	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% CI Lower Bound	95% CI Upper Bound
OSP	NOSP	-5.45*	1.51	< .05	-8.43	-2.48
	ESP	-6.38*	1.54	< .05	-9.42	-3.34
NOSP	OSP	5.45*	1.51	< .05	2.48	8.43
	ESP	-.93	1.61	> .05	-4.11	2.25
ESP	OSP	6.38*	1.54	< .05	3.34	9.42
	NOSP	.93	1.61	> .05	-2.25	4.11

* $p < .05$.

Fourth, tenure was significantly different between the three groups ($F(2, 207) = 8.35, p < .05$): participants in the organized sport participation programs group had significantly shorter tenure than the other two groups, while no difference was found between the non-organized sport participation programs and non-sport employee support programs groups (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10
Results of One-way ANOVA for Tenure

Mean (SD)	OSP	NOSP	NSP
	4.05	6.48	7.23

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Between Groups	404.62	2	202.31	8.35	< .05
Within Groups	5014.51	207	24.22		
Total	5418.13	209			

Post-hoc (LSD)

(I) Program	(J) Program	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% CI Lower Bound	95% CI Upper Bound
OSP	NOSP	-2.42*	.81	< .05	-4.02	-.82
	ESP	-3.18*	.83	< .05	-4.82	-1.53
NOSP	OSP	2.42*	.81	< .05	.82	4.02
	ESP	-.75	.87	> .05	-2.47	.97
ESP	OSP	3.18*	.83	< .05	1.53	4.82
	NOSP	.75	.87	> .05	-.97	2.47

* $p < .05$.

Fifth, job role was not significantly different between the three groups ($\chi^2(2) = .32, p > .05$). Among the samples, 59.7% had managerial duties in their work positions (see Table 4.11).

Table 4.11
Job Role and Program Type Crosstabulation

Job Role		Program			Total
		OSP	NOSP	NSP	
No Managerial Duty	Count	35 (42.7%)	26 (38.8%)	24 (38.7%)	85 (40.3%)
	Expected Count	33.0	27.0	25.0	85.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	0.6	-0.3	-0.3	

Table 4.11 (continued)

Job Role		Program			Total
		OSP	NOSP	NSP	
Managerial Duty	Count	47 (57.3%)	41 (61.2%)	38 (61.3%)	126 (59.7%)
	Expected Count	49.0	40.0	37.0	126.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-0.6	0.3	0.3	
Total	Count	82	67	62	211
	% within Program	100%	100%	100%	100%

$\chi^2(2) = .32$

* $p < .05$.

Sixth, family structure was significantly different between the three groups ($\chi^2(10) = 69.52, p < .05$). Only a few people in the organized sport participation programs group had children. On the contrary, compared to the expected count, significantly more people in the non-organized sport participation programs and non-sport employee support programs groups had children (see Table 4.12).

Table 4.12

Family Structure and Program Type Crosstabulation

Family Structure		Program			Total
		OSP	NOSP	NSP	
Single without Children	Count	53 (68.8%)	18 (26.9%)	8 (13.1%)	79 (38.5%)
	Expected Count	29.7	25.8	23.5	79.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	6.9*	-2.4*	-4.9*	
Single with Children	Count	1 (1.3%)	15 (22.4%)	12 (19.7%)	28 (13.7%)
	Expected Count	10.5	9.2	8.3	28.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-4.0*	2.5*	1.6	
Married without Children	Count	10 (13.0%)	5 (7.5%)	5 (8.2%)	20 (9.8%)
	Expected Count	7.5	6.5	6.0	20.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	1.2	-0.8	-0.5	
Married with Children	Count	8 (10.4%)	21 (31.3%)	22 (36.1%)	51 (24.9%)
	Expected Count	19.2	16.7	15.2	51.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-3.7*	1.5	2.4*	

Table 4.12 (continued)

Family Structure		Program			
		OSP	NOSP	NSP	OSP
Life Partner without Children	Count	5 (6.5%)	2 (3%)	9 (14.8%)	16 (7.8%)
	Expected Count	6.0	5.2	4.8	16.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-0.5	-1.8	2.4*	
Life Partner with Children	Count	0 (0%)	6 (9%)	5 (8.2%)	11 (5.4%)
	Expected Count	4.1	3.6	3.3	11.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-2.6*	1.6	1.2	
Total	Count	77	67	61	205
	% within Program	100%	100%	100%	100%

$\chi^2(10) = 69.52^*$

* $p < .05$.

Seventh, a significant difference was found in the three groups' education levels ($\chi^2(14) = 60.97, p < .05$): significantly more people held a 4-year college or postgraduate degree in the organized sport participation programs group than in the other two groups (see Table 4.13).

Table 4.13
Education Level and Program Type Crosstabulation

Education Level		Program			
		OSP	NOSP	NSP	Total
Less than High School	Count	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (1.6%)	1 (0.5%)
	Expected Count	0.4	0.3	0.3	1.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-0.8	-0.7	1.6	
High School/GED	Count	0 (0%)	10 (14.9%)	10 (16.1%)	20 (9.5%)
	Expected Count	7.8	6.4	5.9	20.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-3.7*	1.8	2.1*	
Some College	Count	2 (2.4%)	12 (17.9%)	9 (14.5%)	23 (10.9%)
	Expected Count	8.9	7.3	6.8	23.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-3.1*	2.2*	1.1	

Table 4.13 (continued)

Education Level		Program			Total
		OSP	NOSP	NSP	
2-year College Degree	Count	1 (1.2%)	14 (20.9%)	9 (14.5%)	24 (11.4%)
	Expected Count	9.3	7.6	7.1	24.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-3.7*	3.0*	0.9	
4-year College Degree	Count	57 (69.5%)	21 (31.3%)	20 (32.3%)	98 (46.4%)
	Expected Count	38.1	31.1	28.8	98.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	5.4*	-3.0*	-2.7*	
Master's Degree	Count	18 (22%)	5 (7.5%)	12 (19.4%)	35 (16.6%)
	Expected Count	13.6	11.1	10.3	35.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	1.7	-2.4*	0.7	
Doctoral Degree	Count	1 (1.2%)	2 (3%)	0 (0%)	3 (1.4%)
	Expected Count	1.2	1.0	0.9	3.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-0.2	1.3	-1.1	
Professional Degree (JD, MD)	Count	3 (3.7%)	3 (4.5%)	1 (1.6%)	7 (3.3%)
	Expected Count	2.7	2.2	2.1	7.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	0.2	0.6	-0.9	
Total	Count	82	67	62	211
	% within Program	100%	100%	100%	100%

$$\chi^2(14) = 60.97^*$$

* $p < .05$.

Last, annual household income differed significantly between the three groups ($\chi^2(20) = 47.17, p < .05$). In particular, people in the organized sport participation programs group tended to earn a higher income than those in the other two groups (see Table 4.14).

Table 4.14
Annual Household Income and Program Type Crosstabulation

Annual Household Income		Program			
		OSP	NOSP	NSP	Total
\$0 – \$20,000	Count	0 (0%)	3 (4.6%)	2 (3.2%)	5 (2.5%)
	Expected Count	1.9	1.6	1.5	5.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-1.8	1.4	0.5	
\$20,001 - \$40,000	Count	1 (1.3%)	15 (23.1%)	13 (21%)	29 (14.3%)
	Expected Count	10.9	9.3	8.9	29.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-4.1	2.5	1.8	
\$40,001 - \$60,000	Count	7 (9.2%)	12 (18.5%)	14 (22.6%)	33 (16.3%)
	Expected Count	12.4	10.6	10.1	33.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-2.1	0.6	1.6	
\$60,001 - \$80,000	Count	18 (23.7%)	19 (29.2%)	14 (22.6%)	51 (25.1%)
	Expected Count	19.1	16.3	15.6	51.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	-0.4	0.9	-0.6	
\$80,001 - \$100,000	Count	15 (19.7%)	8 (12.3%)	6 (9.7%)	29 (14.3%)
	Expected Count	10.9	9.3	8.9	29.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	1.7	-0.6	-1.2	
\$100,001 - \$120,000	Count	9 (11.8%)	4 (6.2%)	5 (8.1%)	18 (8.9%)
	Expected Count	6.7	5.8	5.5	18.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	1.2	-0.9	-0.3	
\$120,001 - \$140,000	Count	5 (6.6%)	0 (0%)	1 (1.6%)	6 (3%)
	Expected Count	2.2	1.9	1.8	6.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	2.4	-1.7	-0.7	
\$140,001 - \$160,000	Count	6 (7.9%)	0 (0%)	3 (4.8%)	9 (4.4%)
	Expected Count	3.4	2.9	2.7	9.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	1.9	-2.1	0.2	
\$160,001 - \$180,000	Count	2 (2.6%)	1 (1.5%)	2 (3.2%)	5 (2.5%)
	Expected Count	1.9	1.6	1.5	5.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	0.1	-0.6	0.5	
\$180,001 - \$200,000	Count	4 (5.3%)	1 (1.5%)	0 (0%)	5 (2.5%)
	Expected Count	1.9	1.6	1.5	5.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	2.0	-0.6	-1.5	

Table 4.14 (continued)

Annual Household Income		Program			Total
		OSP	NOSP	NSP	
\$200,001+	Count	9 (11.8%)	2 (3.1%)	2 (3.2%)	13 (6.4%)
	Expected Count	4.9	4.2	4.0	13.0
	<i>Adjusted Residual</i>	2.4	-1.3	-1.2	
Total	Count	76	65	62	203
	% within Program	100%	100%	100%	100%

$\chi^2(20) = 47.17^*$

* $p < .05$.

Variable Scores Comparison

A series of analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were conducted to understand potential differences in variable scores between the three groups. First, attitudes toward organized sport participation programs (non-organized sport participation programs/non-sport employee support programs) were significantly different between the three groups ($F(2, 208) = 3.51, p < .05$). The organized sport participation programs group demonstrated a significantly higher average score than the other two groups. Second, distributive justice was not significantly different between the three groups ($F(2, 208) = .80, p > .05$). Third, perceived organizational support also did not differ significantly between the three groups ($F(2, 208) = .15, p > .05$). Fourth, perceptions of one's workplace cooperativeness were significantly different between the three groups ($F(2, 208) = 2.53, p < .05$), with the organized sport participation programs group showing a significantly higher average score than the non-organized sport participation programs group. Last, affective organizational commitment was not significantly different between the three groups ($F(2, 208) = 1.59, p > .05$). Tables 4.15–4.19 show detailed ANOVA test results.

Table 4.15
Results of One-way ANOVA for Attitudes toward Employee Support Programs

Mean (SD)	OSP	NOSP	NSP
	5.87	5.46	5.49

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Between Groups	7.70	2	3.85	3.51	< .05
Within Groups	228.35	208	1.10		
Total	236.05	210			

Post-hoc (LSD)

(I) Program	(J) Program	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% CI Lower Bound	95% CI Upper Bound
OSP	NOSP	.41*	.17	< .05	.07	.75
	ESP	.37*	.18	< .05	.03	.72
NOSP	OSP	-.41*	.17	< .05	-.75	-.07
	ESP	-.03	.18	> .05	-.40	.33
ESP	OSP	-.37*	.18	< .05	-.72	-.03
	NOSP	.03	.18	> .05	-.33	.40

* $p < .05$.

Table 4.16
Results of One-way ANOVA for Distributive Justice

Mean (SD)	OSP	NOSP	NSP
	5.75	5.80	5.57

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Between Groups	1.88	2	.94	.80	> .05
Within Groups	243.24	208	1.17		
Total	245.11	210			

Post-hoc (LSD)

(I) Program	(J) Program	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% CI Lower Bound	95% CI Upper Bound
OSP	NOSP	-.05	.18	> .05	-.40	.30
	ESP	.18	.18	> .05	-.18	.54
NOSP	OSP	.05	.18	> .05	-.30	.40
	ESP	.23	.19	> .05	-.15	.61
ESP	OSP	-.18	.18	> .05	-.54	.18
	NOSP	-.23	.19	> .05	-.61	.15

* $p < .05$.

Table 4.17
Results of One-way ANOVA for Perceived Organizational Support

Mean (SD)	OSP	NOSP	NSP
	5.33	5.24	5.33

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Between Groups	.36	2	.18	.15	> .05
Within Groups	245.25	208	1.18		
Total	245.61	210			

Post-hoc (LSD)

(I) Program	(J) Program	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% CI Lower Bound	95% CI Upper Bound
OSP	NOSP	.09	.18	> .05	-.26	.44
	ESP	.00	.18	> .05	-.36	.36
NOSP	OSP	-.09	.18	> .05	-.44	.26
	ESP	-.09	.19	> .05	-.47	.29
ESP	OSP	-.00	.18	> .05	-.36	.36
	NOSP	.09	.19	> .05	-.29	.47

* $p < .05$.

Table 4.18
Results of One-way ANOVA for Perceptions of One's Workplace Cooperativeness

Mean (SD)	OSP	NOSP	NSP
	6.04	5.74	5.83

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Between Groups	3.70	2	1.85	2.53	< .05
Within Groups	152.27	208	.73		
Total	155.98	210			

Post-hoc (LSD)

(I) Program	(J) Program	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% CI Lower Bound	95% CI Upper Bound
OSP	NOSP	.31*	.14	< .05	.03	.58
	ESP	.21	.14	> .05	-.07	.50
NOSP	OSP	-.31*	.14	< .05	-.58	-.03
	ESP	-.09	.15	> .05	-.39	.20
ESP	OSP	-.21	.14	> .05	-.50	.07
	NOSP	.09	.15	> .05	-.20	.39

* $p < .05$.

Table 4.19
Results of One-way ANOVA for Affective Organizational Commitment

Mean (SD)	OSP	NOSP	NSP
	5.04	5.19	5.40

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Between Groups	4.46	2	2.23	1.59	> .05
Within Groups	292.06	208	1.40		
Total	296.51	210			

Post-hoc (LSD)

(I) Program	(J) Program	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% CI Lower Bound	95% CI Upper Bound
OSP	NOSP	-.15	.20	> .05	-.53	.24
	ESP	-.36	.20	> .05	-.75	.04
NOSP	OSP	.15	.20	> .05	-.24	.53
	ESP	-.21	.21	> .05	-.62	.20
ESP	OSP	.36	.20	> .05	-.04	.75
	NOSP	.21	.21	> .05	-.20	.62

* $p < .05$.

In sum, although measurement invariance was established between the three groups, participants in the groups were demographically different, and their average variable scores were also slightly different. In the following section, construct reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of the three groups' datasets are investigated based on measurement model evaluation criteria before proceeding to hypothesis testing.

Measurement Model

Unlike covariance-based SEM, a single goodness-of-fit index is unavailable in PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2019). Therefore, a series of nonparametric evaluation criteria were considered when evaluating the measurement models in Study 1, following the suggestion from Hair et al. (2016). Specifically, measurement models were assessed through construct reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2016). First, construct reliability was investigated based on items' factor loadings, Cronbach's alpha values, and composite reliability (CR) values. According to Hair et al. (2010) and Kline (2015), factor loadings should range from .63 to .96, Cronbach's alpha values of all constructs should be above the cut-off of .70, and all CR values should exceed the recommended threshold of .70. Second, the average variance extracted (AVE) values of all factors should be higher than .50 to satisfy convergent validity (Hair et al., 2019). Last, discriminant validity was tested using Fornell and Larcker's (1981) method; the square root of each construct's AVE should be larger than the correlations between each construct and other factors.

Organized Sport Participation Programs Group

The measurement model from the organized sport participation programs group demonstrated acceptable construct reliability. The Cronbach's alpha values of all constructs were above the cut-off of .70, and all CR values exceeded the recommended threshold of .70. Although the factor loadings of three items were slightly outside the range of .63 and .96, these items were retained because other criteria (i.e., Cronbach's alpha and CR) showed good construct reliability. Next, convergent validity was satisfied

as the AVE values of all factors were greater than .50. Last, discriminant validity was also satisfied because the square roots of the AVE values were higher than the correlations between each construct and other factors. Tables 4.20 and 4.21 display the construct correlations, validity measures, and measurement items and their factor loadings.

Table 4.20
Correlations and Validity Measures of Organized Sport Participation Programs Group

	Mean	SD	AOC	CO	DJ	OSPPA	POS
AOC	5.04	1.16	.771				
CO	6.04	.62	.497*	.768			
DJ	5.75	.99	.207	.509*	.828		
OSPPA	5.87	.88	.540*	.655*	.643*	.707	
POS	5.33	1.00	.734*	.477*	.091	.564*	.760
	CR		.897	.875	.866	.798	.915
	AVE		.594	.590	.685	.500	.577

Notes: $N = 82$; numbers in bold on the diagonal represent the square root of AVE. CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; AOC = affective organizational commitment; CO = perceptions of one's workplace cooperativeness; DJ = distributive justice; OSPPA = organized sport participation programs attitudes; POS = perceived organizational support.

* $p < .05$.

Table 4.21
Summary of Measurement Items, Reliability, and Factor Loadings of Organized Sport Participation Programs Group

Construct ^a	Item	λ	
Affective Organizational Commitment ($\alpha = .89$)	AOC_1	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my company	.874
	AOC_2	I feel personally attached to my company	.715
	AOC_3	I am proud to tell others I work for my company	.858
	AOC_4	Working for my company has a great deal of personal meaning to me	.743
	AOC_5	I would be happy to work at my company until I retire	.645
	AOC_6	I feel that the problems my company faces are also my problems	.769
Perceptions of One's Workplace Cooperativeness ($\alpha = .88$)	CO_1	At work, I would usually consider the interests of all parties	.662
	CO_2	I can usually consider multiple views when I handle tasks	.636
	CO_3	At work, I usually consider other team members' perspectives	.734
	CO_4	When working together with team members, I am willing to listen to others' opinions, even though I might not agree with them	.863
	CO_5	When working with others on a group task, I am able to integrate their views	.910
Distributive Justice ($\alpha = .89$)	DJ_1	Based on the work I have completed, the organized sport participation programs benefits from my organization are appropriate	.998
	DJ_2	Based on the effort I put into my work, I have earned the organized sport participation programs benefits	.844
	DJ_3	Based on what I contribute to my work, I deserve the organized sport participation programs benefits	.716
	DJ_4	Based on my performance at work, the organized sport participation programs benefits are justified	.699

Table 4.21 (continued)

Construct ^a	Item	λ	
Organized Sport Participation Programs Attitudes ($\alpha = .76$)	OSPPA_1	The organized sport participation programs are one of the reasons I enjoy working here	.672
	OSPPA_2	I highly value that my company provides the opportunity to participate in the organized sport participation programs	.791
	OSPPA_3	I enjoy the fact that my company encourages me to participate in the organized sport participation programs	.753
	OSPPA_4	It is not important to me that my company gives me the opportunity to participate in the organized sport participation programs	.599
Perceived Organizational Support ($\alpha = .91$)	POS_1	My organization really cares about my well-being	.708
	POS_2	My organization strongly considers my goals and values	.865
	POS_3	My organization shows little concern for me	.793
	POS_4	My organization cares about my opinions	.879
	POS_5	My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor	.676
	POS_6	Help is available from my organization when I have a problem	.743
	POS_7	My organization would forgive me for an honest mistake	.590
	POS_8	If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me	.779

^a Numbers in parentheses represent Cronbach's α .

Non-organized Sport Participation Programs Group

The measurement model from the non-organized sport participation programs group displayed acceptable construct reliability. Although four items exhibited factor loadings of less than .63, all Cronbach's alpha values were higher than the cut-off of .70, and all CR values were above the recommended threshold of .70. All AVE values were

higher than .50, confirming good convergent validity. However, discriminant validity was not satisfied because the correlations between affective organizational commitment and perceived organizational support and between non-organized sport participation programs attitudes and distributive justice were too high (i.e., .917 and .976, respectively). Further, all square roots of the AVE values were less than the greatest correlations between each construct and other factors. Therefore, data from the non-organized sport participation programs group were not included in further analyses. Tables 4.22 and 4.23 list construct correlations, validity measures, and measurement items and their factor loadings.

Table 4.22
Correlations and Validity Measures of Non-organized Sport Participation Programs Group

	Mean	SD	AOC	CO	DJ	NOSPPA	POS
AOC	5.19	1.20	.779				
CO	5.74	1.05	.789*	.806			
DJ	5.80	1.04	.592*	.799*	.805		
NOSPPA	5.46	1.08	.666*	.854*	.976*	.731	
POS	5.24	1.11	.917*	.847*	.633*	.768*	.778
CR			.901	.901	.880	.815	.924
AVE			.606	.649	.649	.534	.605

Notes: $N = 67$; numbers in bold on the diagonal represent the square root of AVE. CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; AOC = affective organizational commitment; CO = perceptions of one's workplace cooperativeness; DJ = distributive justice; NOSPPA = non-organized sport participation programs attitudes; POS = perceived organizational support.

* $p < .05$.

Table 4.23
Summary of Measurement Items, Reliability, and Factor Loadings of Non-organized Sport Participation Programs Group

Construct ^a	Item	λ	
Affective Organizational Commitment ($\alpha = .90$)	AOC_1	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my company	.939
	AOC_2	I feel personally attached to my company	.682
	AOC_3	I am proud to tell others I work for my company	.775
	AOC_4	Working for my company has a great deal of personal meaning to me	.757
	AOC_5	I would be happy to work at my company until I retire	.761
	AOC_6	I feel that the problems my company faces are also my problems	.734
Perceptions of One's Workplace Cooperativeness ($\alpha = .90$)	CO_1	At work, I would usually consider the interests of all parties	.871
	CO_2	I can usually consider multiple views when I handle tasks	.890
	CO_3	At work, I usually consider other team members' perspectives	.830
	CO_4	When working together with team members, I am willing to listen to others' opinions, even though I might not agree with them	.797
	CO_5	When working with others on a group task, I am able to integrate their views	.611
Distributive Justice ($\alpha = .88$)	DJ_1	Based on the work I have completed, the non-organized sport participation programs benefits from my organization are appropriate	.879
	DJ_2	Based on the effort I put into my work, I have earned the non-organized sport participation programs benefits	.786
	DJ_3	Based on what I contribute to my work, I deserve the non-organized sport participation programs benefits	.737
	DJ_4	Based on my performance at work, the non-organized sport participation programs benefits are justified	.813

Table 4.23 (continued)

Construct ^a	Item	λ
Non-organized Sport Participation Programs Attitudes ($\alpha = .79$)	NOSPPA_1 The non-organized sport participation programs are one of the reasons I enjoy working here	.537
	NOSPPA_2 I highly value that my company provides the opportunity to participate in the non-organized sport participation programs	.888
	NOSPPA_3 I enjoy the fact that my company encourages me to participate in the non-organized sport participation programs	.831
	NOSPPA_4 It is not important to me that my company gives me the opportunity to participate in the non-organized sport participation programs	.607
Perceived Organizational Support ($\alpha = .92$)	POS_1 My organization really cares about my well-being	.753
	POS_2 My organization strongly considers my goals and values	.870
	POS_3 My organization shows little concern for me	.814
	POS_4 My organization cares about my opinions	.816
	POS_5 My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor	.704
	POS_6 Help is available from my organization when I have a problem	.864
	POS_7 My organization would forgive me for an honest mistake	.743
	POS_8 If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me	.623

^a Numbers in parentheses represent Cronbach's α .

Non-sport Employee Support Programs Group

The measurement model from the non-sport employee support programs group showed acceptable construct reliability. Although three items displayed factor loadings of less than .63, the Cronbach's alphas of all factors were higher than .70, and all CR values were higher than the cut-off value of .70. The measurement model also demonstrated

satisfactory convergent validity as the AVE values of all factors were greater than .50. However, discriminant validity was not established because the correlation between attitudes toward non-sport employee support programs and distributive justice was too high (i.e., .977). Further, all square roots of AVE values were less than the highest correlations between each construct and other factors. Therefore, data from the non-sport employee support programs group were not considered in further analyses. Tables 4.24 and 4.25 present the construct correlations, validity measures, and measurement items and their factor loadings.

Table 4.24
Correlations and Validity Measures of Non-sport Employee Support Programs Group

	Mean	SD	AOC	CO	DJ	NSESPA	POS
AOC	5.40	1.20	.812				
CO	5.83	.89	.677*	.745			
DJ	5.57	1.23	.606*	.706*	.821		
NSESPA	5.49	1.21	.727*	.741*	.977*	.775	
POS	5.33	1.17	.883*	.750*	.689*	.729*	.768
	CR		.919	.860	.891	.857	.919
	AVE		.660	.555	.673	.601	.589

Notes: $N = 62$; numbers in bold on the diagonal represent the square root of AVE. CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; AOC = affective organizational commitment; CO = perceptions of one's workplace cooperativeness; DJ = distributive justice; NSESPA = non-sport employee support programs attitudes; POS = perceived organizational support.

* $p < .05$.

Table 4.25
Summary of Measurement Items, Reliability, and Factor Loadings of Non-sport Employee Support Programs Group

Construct ^a	Item	λ	
Affective Organizational Commitment ($\alpha = .92$)	AOC_1	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my company	.902
	AOC_2	I feel personally attached to my company	.838
	AOC_3	I am proud to tell others I work for my company	.873
	AOC_4	Working for my company has a great deal of personal meaning to me	.839
	AOC_5	I would be happy to work at my company until I retire	.848
	AOC_6	I feel that the problems my company faces are also my problems	.510
Perceptions of One's Workplace Cooperativeness ($\alpha = .86$)	CO_1	At work, I would usually consider the interests of all parties	.832
	CO_2	I can usually consider multiple views when I handle tasks	.688
	CO_3	At work, I usually consider other team members' perspectives	.606
	CO_4	When working together with team members, I am willing to listen to others' opinions, even though I might not agree with them	.758
	CO_5	When working with others on a group task, I am able to integrate their views	.817
Distributive Justice ($\alpha = .89$)	DJ_1	Based on the work I have completed, the non-sport employee support programs benefits from my organization are appropriate	.857
	DJ_2	Based on the effort I put into my work, I have earned the non-sport employee support programs benefits	.734
	DJ_3	Based on what I contribute to my work, I deserve the non-sport employee support programs benefits	.816
	DJ_4	Based on my performance at work, the non-sport employee support programs benefits are justified	.867

Table 4.25 (continued)

Construct ^a	Item	λ	
Non-sport Employee Support Programs Attitudes ($\alpha = .84$)	NSESPA_ 1	The non-sport employee support programs are one of the reasons I enjoy working here	.668
	NSESPA_ 2	I highly value that my company provides the opportunity to participate in the non-sport employee support programs	.823
	NSESPA_ 3	I enjoy the fact that my company encourages me to participate in the non-sport employee support programs	.838
	NSESPA_ 4	It is not important to me that my company gives me the opportunity to participate in the non-sport employee support programs	.761
Perceived Organizational Support ($\alpha = .92$)	POS_1	My organization really cares about my well-being	.856
	POS_2	My organization strongly considers my goals and values	.867
	POS_3	My organization shows little concern for me	.736
	POS_4	My organization cares about my opinions	.884
	POS_5	My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor	.719
	POS_6	Help is available from my organization when I have a problem	.765
	POS_7	My organization would forgive me for an honest mistake	.668
	POS_8	If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me	.600

^a Numbers in parentheses represent Cronbach's α .

Combined Data

The measurement model using combined data composed of datasets from the three groups had a discriminant validity issue, presumably due to the inclusion of data from the non-organized sport participation programs and non-sport employee support programs groups. First, the measurement model based on the combined data displayed

acceptable construct reliability: the Cronbach's alphas of all factors were higher than .70, and all CR values were higher than the threshold of .70, although two items had factor loadings slightly less than .63. Second, convergent validity was also satisfied as the AVE values of all factors were greater than .50. However, discriminant validity was not satisfied because four of the five square roots of the AVE values were less than the highest correlations between each construct and other factors. Thus, the combined data were not adopted in subsequent analyses. Tables 4.26 and 4.27 show construct correlations, validity measures, and measurement items and their factor loadings.

Table 4.26
Correlations and Validity Measures of Combined Model

	Mean	SD	AOC	CO	DJ	ESPA	POS
AOC	5.19	1.19	.772				
CO	5.88	.86	.638*	.777			
DJ	5.71	1.08	.465*	.667*	.815		
ESPA	5.63	1.06	.608*	.761*	.869*	.745	
POS	5.30	1.08	.837*	.702*	.490*	.686*	.764
CR			.898	.884	.887	.831	.917
AVE			.597	.604	.664	.555	.583

Notes: $N = 211$; numbers in bold on the diagonal represent the square root of AVE. CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; AOC = affective organizational commitment; CO = perceptions of one's workplace cooperativeness; DJ = distributive justice; ESPA = employee support programs attitudes; POS = perceived organizational support.

* $p < .05$.

Table 4.27
Summary of Measurement Items, Reliability, and Factor Loadings of Combined Model

Construct ^a	Item	λ	
Affective Organizational Commitment ($\alpha = .89$)	AOC_1	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my company	.916
	AOC_2	I feel personally attached to my company	.761
	AOC_3	I am proud to tell others I work for my company	.841
	AOC_4	Working for my company has a great deal of personal meaning to me	.739
	AOC_5	I would be happy to work at my company until I retire	.673
	AOC_6	I feel that the problems my company faces are also my problems	.675
Perceptions of One's Workplace Cooperativeness ($\alpha = .89$)	CO_1	At work, I would usually consider the interests of all parties	.821
	CO_2	I can usually consider multiple views when I handle tasks	.779
	CO_3	At work, I usually consider other team members' perspectives	.741
	CO_4	When working together with team members, I am willing to listen to others' opinions, even though I might not agree with them	.797
	CO_5	When working with others on a group task, I am able to integrate their views	.744
Distributive Justice ($\alpha = .89$)	DJ_1	Based on the work I have completed, the employee support program benefits from my organization are appropriate	.919
	DJ_2	Based on the effort I put into my work, I have earned the employee support program benefits	.788
	DJ_3	Based on what I contribute to my work, I deserve the employee support program benefits	.748
	DJ_4	Based on my performance at work, the employee support program benefits are justified	.793

Table 4.27 (continued)

Construct ^a	Item	λ	
Employee Support Programs Attitudes ($\alpha = .81$)	ESPA_1	The (organized sport participation programs/non-organized sport participation programs/non-sport employee support programs) are one of the reasons I enjoy working here	.628
	ESPA_2	I highly value that my company provides the opportunity to participate in the (organized sport participation programs/non-organized sport participation programs/non-sport employee support programs)	.852
	ESPA_3	I enjoy the fact that my company encourages me to participate in the (organized sport participation programs/non-organized sport participation programs/non-sport employee support programs)	.819
	ESPA_4	It is not important to me that my company gives me the opportunity to participate in the (organized sport participation programs/non-organized sport participation programs/non-sport employee support programs)	.657
Perceived Organizational Support ($\alpha = .92$)	POS_1	My organization really cares about my well-being	.788
	POS_2	My organization strongly considers my goals and values	.859
	POS_3	My organization shows little concern for me	.769
	POS_4	My organization cares about my opinions	.863
	POS_5	My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor	.710
	POS_6	Help is available from my organization when I have a problem	.769
	POS_7	My organization would forgive me for an honest mistake	.701
	POS_8	If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me	.620

^a Numbers in parentheses represent Cronbach's α .

Structural Model

As data from the organized sport participation programs group raised no concerns with reliability and validity in its measurement model, the structural model was developed and examined to test the current study's hypotheses. As mentioned above, goodness-of-fit measures (e.g., chi-squared based model fit, CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR) are not applicable in PLS-SEM because PLS-SEM solutions are not based on minimizing the divergence between overserved and estimated covariance matrices (Hair et al., 2016). Instead, the structural model in PLS-SEM is assessed based on the model's predictive capabilities (Rigdon, 2012). Specifically, Hair et al. (2019) outlined four evaluation steps when evaluating a structural model using PLS-SEM: 1) assess collinearity, 2) determine R^2 values, 3) identify Q^2 values to determine predictive relevance, and 4) perform k -fold cross validation.

In the current study, collinearity was first assessed based on variance inflation factors (VIFs). Although there is little consensus among scholars on the cut-off value for VIFs, it is generally believed a value of less than 10 is acceptable (Filho et al., 2016; Kennedy, 2003). In the current study, all VIFs were below 10, indicating negligible collinearity issues. Second, the R^2 values of all endogenous variables were acceptable, given the study context and model complexity¹ (Hair et al., 2019). Third, according to Hair et al. (2019), the Q^2 values of endogenous variables obtained through a blindfolding procedure should be higher than 0; all Q^2 values in this study were acceptable per this

¹ $R_{AOC}^2 = .63, R_{CO}^2 = .44, R_{OSPPA}^2 = .48, \text{ and } R_{POS}^2 = .50.$

criterion². Fourth, to test the model's out-of-sample predictive power, a holdout sample-based prediction was performed via the PLSpredict procedure (Hair et al., 2019; Shmueli et al., 2019). In interpreting the results of *k*-fold cross validation through the PLSpredict procedure, the predictive power should be determined by the root means squared error (RMSE) of indicators, referring to the square root of the average of squared differences between the predictions and actual observations (Hair et al., 2019). Following the guideline from Shmueli et al. (2019), RMSE values of the predicted model and its naïve benchmark (i.e., results from linear regression models) were compared. More than half of the indicators (21 out of 23 indicators) in the predicted model (i.e., PLS-SEM model) exhibited RMSE values below the RMSE values in its naïve benchmark, indicating that the model possessed moderate predictive power (Hair et al., 2019; Shmueli et al., 2019).

Hypotheses Testing

After confirming that all model evaluation criteria were met, hypotheses were tested based on PLS-SEM. First, employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs had a positive association with perceived organizational support (H1a; $\beta = .890$, bootLLCI = .442, bootULCI = 1.389) and perceptions of one's workplace cooperativeness (H1b; $\beta = .537$, bootLLCI = .220, bootULCI = .935), lending support to H1a and H1b. Second, employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs had a positive indirect effect on affective organizational commitment through perceived organizational support (H1c; $\beta = .501$, LLCI = .099, ULCI = 1.685) but not through perceptions of one's workplace cooperativeness (H1d; $\beta = .139$, LLCI = -.269,

² $Q_{AOC}^2 = .33$, $Q_{CO}^2 = .21$, $Q_{OSPPA}^2 = .21$, and $Q_{POS}^2 = .19$.

ULCI = .823); thus, H1c was supported while H1d was not. Third, distributive justice in allocating the benefits of organized sport participation programs was positively associated with employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs (H2a; $\beta = .690$, bootLLCI = .490, bootULCI = .830), supporting H2a. Last, distributive justice in allocating the benefits of organized sport participation programs had a positive indirect effect on affective organizational commitment through employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs and perceived organizational support (H2b; $\beta = .345$, bootLLCI = .063, bootULCI = 1.222), but not through employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs and perceptions of one's workplace cooperativeness (H2c; $\beta = .096$, bootLLCI = -.214, bootULCI = .581); H2b was hence supported whereas H2c was not. Table 4.28 summarizes the PLS-SEM results.

Table 4.28
Results of Hypothesis Testing

	Path	β	Bootstrapped 95% CI ^a	
Direct Effect				
H1a	OSPPA → POS	.890*	[.442, 1.389]	
H1b	OSPPA → CO	.537*	[.220, .935]	
H2a	DJ → OSPPA	.690*	[.490, .830]	
Indirect Effect				
H1c	OSPPA → POS → AOC	.501*	[.099, 1.685]	
H1d	OSPPA → CO → AOC	.139	[-.269, .823]	
H2b	DJ → OSPPA → POS → AOC	.345*	[.063, 1.222]	
H2c	DJ → OSPPA → CO → AOC	.096	[-.214, .581]	
R²	AOC	CO	OSPPA	POS
	63%	44%	48%	50%

^a Standardized scores were reported for confidence intervals because SmartPLS 3 standardizes each bootstrapped sub-sample, addressing Hayes' (2017) concern about estimating bootstrapped confidence intervals using standardized scores.

* Bootstrapped confidence interval does not include zero.

Study 2

Based on thematic analysis of the interview data, three major themes were identified: 1) sport for social interaction; 2) “I don’t want to be too competitive, but I still want to win”; and 3) organized sport participation programs as a sign of organizational support. These themes confirmed and further illuminated the results of Study 1. Findings related to these themes are detailed in the following sections.

Sport for Social Interaction

All informants perceived participating in organized sport participation programs as a valuable social opportunity; these programs reportedly offered unique opportunities to interact with their colleagues, including employees who would otherwise never talk to each other. Informants also mentioned that such social interaction through sport strongly influenced their personal lives. One participant, Emma, poignantly explained that she had become a more social person through organized sport participation programs. Her comment exemplified the effects of sport participation on improving one’s social abilities, which aligns with the literature on which the current study draws (Eime et al., 2013b; Hansen et al., 2003).

I like [the program] a lot. I am a social person, so I enjoy it. ... I joined it in the first place when I wasn’t as social, just because I enjoyed bowling. ... And then the other part of it kind of followed. It came naturally after I joined the team. (Emma)

Other informants shared their experiences with relationship building through sport and how the relationships built through sport spilled over into their work lives. Through these programs, employees played sport together and developed strong relationships. In particular, interviewees indicated that their experiences of interacting socially with

coworkers during organized sport participation programs carried over to their workplace relationships. Informants also discussed observing the human aspects of their colleagues, not only as coworkers but also as humans and friends, while playing sport together. Some informants identified this aspect as a factor differentiating sport from other activities, such as company-sponsored happy hours. Liam, Olivia, and Isabella provided valuable input regarding the roles of organized sport participation programs in creating a collaborative work environment:

I think sports give you a unique opportunity where you are also playing on a team. If you are creating camaraderie, just by going to happy hour with your coworkers or doing other things, I don't think it gives you the opportunity to really work with someone on something that isn't work-related. (Liam)

[Organized sport participation programs] just bring more people together. ... in the workplace when you have to do certain projects together, and sometimes it could start off a little awkward. But [these programs have] really helped us build really solid friendships. So, you know, coming back to work, those people may just be so much easier to approach. (Olivia)

It's been an amazing way to bring people together and give them the opportunity to bond. It gives them the opportunity to bond outside the office. So, relationships have definitely been stronger since we've done that. People are more willing to hang out outside the office now. (Isabella)

“I Don't Want to be Competitive, but I Still Want to Win”

Based on data from the interviews, the level of competition in sport leagues emerged as a critical factor in employees' experiences with organized sport participation programs. As discussed in Chapter 2, when reviewing challenges and opportunities surrounding organized sport participation programs, an excessive level of competition during sport could detract from other purposes of organized sport participation programs (e.g., social interaction). Interestingly, employees sought an optimal level of competition.

On one hand, several informants agreed that they had initially begun participating in organized sport participation programs to play sport competitively; winning was clearly a primary participatory motivation:

I would definitely say [that I participate in the programs] for the sport, honestly. I really enjoy being competitive in athletics. (Oliver)

I definitely see that people like to have fun, but people also like to win. (Benjamin)

On the other hand, while some interviewees acknowledged that team-based sport is inherently competitive, they did not want to engage in excessive competition. One informant, William, mentioned that he and his team members initially chose to play together because the recreational sport does not require strong skills: anybody could play, and ability did not affect participants' overall enjoyment even if some colleagues were not as skilled. For most informants, competition was neither the sole nor the strongest motivation for participating in organized sport participation programs. The following two individuals were not concerned about their performance in their respective sport leagues; they were more interested in having fun and getting to know their peers.

For me it's not really about winning or losing. It's about working together, and having that sweat and that you're [in it] together. (Ava)

It is a recreational sport. We are not winning a trophy; we are not going to the Olympics. This is solely for us to do something fun. It is nothing to be super serious about. (Isabella)

In addition, several informants pointed out that such competition detracted from their program experience. Ava and Isabella shared similar examples wherein excessive competition adversely affected their workplace sport participation:

[A male colleague] was very aggressive when the company played together. ... He got really frustrated, and he was more into "We're not

winning. You can't get the ball, get out of my way.” And then [caused] more tension. (Ava)

One individual was very aggressive and would yell at the team. She would yell at our teammates, and that would just kind of lower the morale of everybody. It just wasn't really good. And so just from that, the excitement just kind of went down. And so kind of just ruined it for everybody. So it's like everyone can come together and want to participate in a game. But if one person's attitude is just not—and if they're way too competitive, or all they care about is winning, it could just kind of ruin everyone's [experience]. People became less excited throughout the game. We [had] people who just didn't even want to play anymore because they were just really fed up with it. (Isabella)

This theme provided valuable insight into participants' expectations about and experiences with organized sport participation programs. People generally enjoyed playing competitive sport with their colleagues but preferred the activity not to be overly focused on competition. They were also eager to enjoy a fun environment in which they could interact with their coworkers and friends. At the same time, however, some informants indicated that winning still mattered to them. In particular, a gender difference was observed in participants' attitude toward winning in sport: women tended to focus more on having fun and interacting with colleagues, whereas men tended to seek competitiveness and winning.

Organized Sport Participation Programs as a Sign of Organizational Support

A finding from Study 1, the positive effect of organized sport participation programs on perceived organizational support, was confirmed through this theme. Many informants believed organized sport participation programs represented an important employee benefit. In particular, Charlotte mentioned exactly what scholars studying perceived organizational support and social exchange theory have suggested (e.g.,

Eisenberger et al., 2001; Grant et al., 2008): organized sport participation programs showed her that her organization truly understood her needs.

It does make me feel like our company understands [what I want] and offers activities for us that are outside of just our everyday work activities. (Charlotte)

By acknowledging the benefits of organized sport participation programs, employees might realize that their companies care about their lives, not only their work performance (Grant et al., 2008). Such awareness could lead to substantial shifts in employees' attitudes toward their companies, including strong affective commitment. Many informants appreciated that their companies encouraged employees to participate in organized sport participation programs. Such encouragement pleased employees because they realized they were working in an organization where work is not everything. Thus, organized sport participation programs represented a benefit that could cultivate a more positive association between employees and the workplace and could improve employees' experience working for their companies:

[Imagine] you're somebody who likes playing sports and your company was sponsoring you to do this once a week. [The] benefit that you get is a more positive association you have with work when you have them, you know, paying for this thing that you like to do. (Sophia)

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This study was intended to explore how companies' support for organized sport participation programs could promote employees' psychological and behavioral changes in the workplace. To fulfill the research purpose, two interrelated studies were conducted. Study 1 used quantitative data to explore phenomena surrounding organized sport participation programs, and Study 2 was based on qualitative data to confirm, complement, and further illuminate the results of Study 1. Overall, this dissertation provides empirical findings indicating that organized sport participation programs can 1) improve employees' affective organizational commitment (i.e., psychological change) and 2) promote employees' cooperativeness in the workplace (i.e., behavioral change). In the following, in-depth discussions of key findings from Study 1 and 2 are presented.

Study 1 Discussion

First and foremost, the findings from Study 1 help to substantiate social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958): employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs increased their level of perceived organizational support, which in turn improved their affective organizational commitment. According to social exchange theory, employees aim to reciprocate the benefits received from their organizations, especially when they think that such benefits manifest from their organizations' genuine concern for employees' well-being (Grant et al., 2008; Jones, 2010; P. Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). The current study empirically demonstrated that employees who

value their organizations' support for organized sport participation programs are likely to reciprocate such support through stronger affective organizational commitment.

Second, as hypothesized based on spillover effects (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), attitudes toward organized sport participation programs were positively associated with employees' perceptions of their workplace cooperativeness. According to the Health through Sport conceptual model proposed by Eime et al. (2013b), participating in team-based organized forms of sport can improve one's social abilities and interpersonal skills, such as cooperativeness and teamwork, due to the social nature of sport. The results of the current study empirically support Eime et al.'s (2013b) Health through Sport conceptual model in organizational contexts by showing that employees who value organized sport participation programs also express a high degree of workplace cooperativeness.

The present study drew on the notion of behavioral spillover proposed by Edwards and Rothbard (2000) to explain how sport can improve one's social abilities. Edwards and Rothbard (2000) suggested that repeated pleasant social interactions can develop one's social abilities, such as sharing ideas and cooperating with others. As noted in Study 2, playing sport with coworkers provides valuable social opportunities to employees; informants indicated that they experienced many pleasant social interactions when taking part in organized sport participation programs. Therefore, a cross-comparison between the results of these two studies suggests that sport can develop one's social abilities (e.g., workplace cooperativeness) by providing opportunities for productive social interaction with others. This finding is in line with Eime et al.'s (2013b)

Health through Sport conceptual model and findings from empirical studies regarding the capability of sport in developing one's social abilities (Eime et al., 2013a, 2013b; Hansen et al., 2003; Hill & Jones, 2014).

Third, this study showed that distributive justice in allocating the benefits of organized sport participation programs had significant positive effects on employees' affective organizational commitment through the mediating effects of attitudes toward organized sport participation programs and perceived organizational support. In other words, if the benefits of organized sport participation programs are not equitably distributed, employees will not value the programs; subsequently, the positive effects of organized sport participation programs on affective organizational commitment will disappear. This result corroborates earlier research regarding the significant effects of distributive justice on employees' organizational commitment (Colquitt et al., 2001; Loi et al., 2006). For example, organizational scholars have identified distributive justice as a critical antecedent of employees' psychological state and behavior in the workplace, including organizational commitment, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, job performance, and turnover (Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Fox et al., 2001; Loi et al., 2006).

Contrary to H1d and H2c, study results indicated that employees' perceptions of their workplace cooperativeness could not mediate the relationship between employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs and affective organizational commitment and between distributive justice in allocating organized sport participation programs benefits and affective organizational commitment. These findings are likely

attributable to the insignificant direct effect of perceptions of one's workplace cooperativeness on affective organizational commitment ($\beta = .260$, bootLLCI = $-.341$, bootULCI = 1.429). This insignificant direct effect implies that employees' level of affective organizational commitment is hardly affected by employees' perceptions of their workplace cooperativeness. Instead, scholars have reported that a company's cooperative climate can significantly influence employees' affective organizational commitment (Bogaert et al., 2012). A cooperative workplace atmosphere, rather than individual employees' perceptions of their own workplace cooperativeness, is likely to influence employees' affective organizational commitment. As such, employees' perceptions of their workplace cooperativeness should have been considered solely as an outcome variable of attitudes toward organized sport participation programs rather than a mediator of employees' reciprocation process (i.e., the relationship between employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs and their level of affective organizational commitment).

Study 2 Discussion

Through sequentially collected interview data from survey respondents, the current dissertation promotes a comprehensive understanding of employees' experiences with organized sport participation programs. First, informants discussed enjoying pleasant social interactions with their coworkers through organized sport participation programs. At an intrapersonal level, results indicated that sport could develop individuals' social abilities as suggested in the literature (e.g., Eime et al., 2013b). In organized team-based sport participation contexts, the ultimate goal of these activities is

to outperform one's competitors by cooperating with teammates. In so doing, proactive interaction with teammates is not simply recommended but required. As in Emma's example, social skills developed while playing sport seemed unconsciously ingrained. In her interview, Emma explicitly indicated that she was not originally a social person but became more social by playing sport with her colleagues. She further mentioned that this evolution occurred naturally once she began regularly playing sport with her coworkers. This process of becoming more social reflects Edwards and Rothbard's (2000) proposition of behavioral spillover, wherein repeated behaviors in one domain can become ingrained as habits, scripts, or styles and thus affect personal behavior in other life domains. In Emma's case, repeated experiences playing sport with her coworkers appeared to have shaped her personality, as indicated by her statement "I am a social person" during her interview (despite having not been particularly social previously).

Interpersonally, informants discussed building solid relationships with their coworkers through organized sport participation programs. Liam, Olivia, and Isabella each mentioned having established close relationships with others, not only as coworkers but also as friends; they each used the term "friendship" to describe the relationships they had developed through organized sport participation programs. They also agreed that the close relationships built through organized sport participation programs spilled over into their work relationships: their coworker relationships were strengthened inside and outside the office since participating in such programs. For instance, Liam shared a compelling example in which one company department established a cross-selling

opportunity through its relationship with another department, which developed through organized sport participation programs.

Second, the interviews empirically confirmed social exchange theory along with the results of Study 1. Many informants mentioned feeling supported by their companies because their companies encouraged them to join organized sport participation programs. Charlotte noted in her interview that she felt like her company understood what she wanted. Furthermore, Sophia noted she had a more positive association with her workplace thanks to organized sport participation programs. Social exchange theory suggests that to evoke reciprocation from employees, employees have to believe that their organizations genuinely value and care about their well-being (Grant et al., 2008). The results from Study 2 uncovered examples indicating employees' belief that organized sport participation programs signaled genuine support from their organizations for a better work environment, organizational culture, and personal well-being.

Third, this study elicited an interesting discussion around the level of competition in organized sport participation programs: organized sport participation programs should entail a balance between functioning as a social activity and competitive sport. Informants expressed two somewhat contradictory expectations for organized sport participation programs. Although employees recognized that they were participating in sport, which is naturally competitive given the goal of beating one's opponent, workers did not want too much competition. Several informants explained that excessive competitiveness had marred their experiences playing sport with colleagues; for instance, Isabella mentioned that several coworkers no longer wished to participate in the program

because one employee had ruined the atmosphere on the volleyball court (e.g., admonishing teammates). This finding echoes previous literature regarding the harmful effects of excessive competitiveness. For example, although a competitive environment leads to better performance on simple tasks, too much competition can lead to lower task enjoyment, poorer self-evaluation after failure, and more cheating (Lam et al., 2004; Schwieren & Weichselbaumer, 2010).

Notably, however, informants' perspectives on competition varied; although most agreed that winning or losing did not affect their experiences with organized sport participation programs, some informants admitted they indeed preferred to win. They explained that winning represented a major milestone in organized sport participation programs. Interestingly, this attitude differed by gender; although men and women each desired an optimal balance between the social and competitive aspects of organized sport participation programs, male informants focused more on competition, whereas female informants preferred the social nature of these programs. This result corroborates findings from Cashdan (1998) and Alexandris and Carroll (1997), who reported that men tend to be more competitive during athletic activities such as sport. Practical implications related to this finding are delineated further in the "Managerial implications" section.

CHAPTER 6
CONTRIBUTIONS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE
RESEARCH

The current dissertation contributes to the sport management literature by identifying the potential of organized sport participation programs as an effective employee management tactic. In particular, drawing on social exchange theory and the notion of behavioral spillover, this study improves theoretical understanding of how organized sport participation programs can engender employees' psychological attachment to their companies and cooperativeness in the workplace.

Academic Contributions

Theoretically, this dissertation empirically examined social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976; Homans, 1958) in the context of organized sport participation programs in business organizations. Findings indicated that employees *reciprocate* benefits from their organizations as social exchange theory suggests (Blau, 1964; Grant et al., 2008; Jones, 2010); employees with positive attitudes toward organized sport participation programs showed strong affective organizational commitment. In addition, the results confirmed previous studies' findings regarding the mechanism behind such reciprocation. Many scholars have shown that reciprocation in the context of employee support programs occurs through the mediating effect of perceived organizational support (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 2001; Rhoades et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002); that is, organizational support for employees' well-being causes employees to feel that their organizations are attempting to meet their needs,

which then motivates employees to reciprocate by developing a strong emotional bond with their organizations (e.g., affective organizational commitment; Grant et al., 2008; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). This mediating relationship has been confirmed in the current study given that employees' attitudes toward organized sport participation programs increase perceived organizational support and thus enhance employees' affective organizational commitment.

In addition to validating social exchange theory, this study extends relevant literature by uncovering the benefits of organized sport participation programs in cultivating employees' cooperativeness in the workplace. Organized sport participation programs are likely to lead to better general relationships between coworkers, which contributes to employees' workplace cooperativeness. This result provides a foundation for future sport management researchers to confidently propose sport as an avenue to an individual, organizational, and social development as exemplified in this study.

Last, the current study contributes to the sport management literature, specifically in a recreational sport context, by highlighting the importance of the optimal level of competition during social sport leagues. The results of Study 2 suggested that creating a pleasant and interactive environment while ensuring a moderate level of competition is critical to recreational sport participation. Many informants in Study 2 indicated that too much competition in this context would mitigate many of the positive effects of sport participation. However, informants also mentioned winning/losing as a crucial aspect of their experiences with organized sport participation programs. Albeit somewhat contradictory, this aspect (i.e., maintaining a balance between social activity and

competitive sport) should be taken as a critical theoretical component in future studies to explore social phenomena surrounding recreational sport participation (e.g., Alexandris & Carroll, 1997).

Managerial Implications

Findings carry important implications for CEOs, human resources managers, and leaders of organizations who wish to build an organization of cooperative and committed team members. First, this study provides empirical evidence that organized sport participation programs can enhance employees' affective organizational commitment. Practitioners and researchers have long sought ways to improve employees' affective organizational commitment because such psychological status is highly connected to employees' workplace behavior (e.g., job performance, prosocial behavior, and tenure). In response to these efforts, the current study proposes that organized sport participation programs could be an immediately viable solution for cultivating employees' affective organizational commitment.

Second, this study demonstrates that organized sport participation programs can engender behavioral changes (e.g., workplace cooperativeness) as well as psychological changes (e.g., affective organizational commitment) in employees. Thus, organized sport participation programs would be an excellent solution for companies aiming to develop a cooperative organizational culture in a practical way. Importantly, however, the opportunity to participate in organized sport participation programs must be equitably distributed among employees. The results of the current study indicate that if employees

perceive this benefit as being unfairly distributed, they are unlikely to express positive attitudes toward organized sport participation programs.

Third, the level of competition in organized sport participation programs should be carefully controlled. Solely emphasizing either competition or social interaction may backfire and discourage some employees from participating. As Crawford and Godbey (1987) pointed out, some people may be afraid of being injured, may not be physically active, or simply may not be skilled in sport; these factors could evoke reluctance to participate in competitive sport. Contrarily, individuals who are similar to Oliver or Benjamin in this study may not be interested in participating in sport leagues if the competition level is too low. A practical solution for this matter would be to offer employees several options based on their preferred competitiveness (e.g., low- and high-competition leagues). In addition, per the observed gender difference in this study, providing several sport leagues based on gender distribution would be another sound strategy (e.g., men's, women's, and co-ed leagues). Given the anticipated cost associated with providing sport leagues with different competition levels and gender distribution, using an outsourcing company that offers such options would be an efficient way to satisfy most participants of organized sport participation programs.

Last, organized sport participation programs offer an inexpensive but effective means of improving employees' affective organizational commitment and workplace cooperativeness. For example, as mentioned above, the partnered company in this study provides outsourcing solutions for approximately \$1,800 per season per team of 10–15 employees. On the contrary, other types of programs, such as tuition reimbursement,

childcare, and sabbatical programs, are often associated with high costs (e.g., the average cost of tuition at a public two-year college in the U.S. is \$7,345.44 per year; Powell & Kerr, 2019). Cost-effectiveness notwithstanding, organized sport participation programs can effectively promote psychological (e.g., affective organizational commitment) and behavioral (e.g., workplace cooperativeness) changes among employees, which may benefit an entire organization.

In sum, while different employee support programs have unique purposes and strengths (e.g., organized sport participation programs cannot replace childcare programs), organized sport participation programs appear especially promising for improving employees' affective organizational commitment and workplace cooperativeness at relatively low costs compared with other programs.

Limitations and Future Directions

Although the current study was conducted with rigor, several limitations leave space for future research. First, all participants were full-time employees in the U.S. In addition, they likely worked for relatively large companies because small companies could presumably not afford to provide employee support programs. In particular, all interviewees were working for large companies based in New York City, such as the S&P 500 firms. Thus, caution is needed in generalizing these findings to employees who work for small companies or on a part-time basis. Employees of small companies or part-time employees are likely to demonstrate lower psychological attachment to their companies (e.g., organizational pride, affective organizational commitment, and job satisfaction). Therefore, they would probably exhibit diverse psychological and

behavioral reactions to organized sport participation programs compared to the samples in this study. It is expected that further research based on data gathered from employees with diverse socioeconomic backgrounds will complement the findings of this work.

The second limitation is closely related to the first. Although the interviews were performed until theoretical saturation (i.e., there was no new emerging theme that did not appear in previous interviews; Bowen, 2008; Markula & Silk, 2011; Soulliere, Britt, & Maines, 2001), additional interviews with people from different socioeconomic backgrounds (e.g., employees with limited job security) might generate novel themes. In addition, interviews with participants of non-sport team-based programs (e.g., wine tasting events, book clubs, and movie clubs) would have elicited interesting discussions because these programs likely afford their participants' social opportunities. The similarities and differences in social opportunities provided by non-sport team-based programs and organized sport participation programs would be interesting for sport management and organizational scholars to explore in the future.

Third, the potential spillover effects of negative experiences during organized sport participation programs on employees' work lives were not identified in this study. For example, although some informants mentioned that excessively competitive people ruined their experiences with organized sport participation programs, no informants indicated whether these negative experiences during organized sport participation programs affected their work lives. However, as Cropanzano et al. (2017) suggested, negative experiences with organized sport participation programs might lead to negative reciprocation, such as incivility or aggression in the workplace. The reason why such

negative reciprocation was not identified in the present study may be because informants were under unconscious pressure to focus on the positives of organized sport participation programs. Despite the researcher's efforts to remain as objective as possible, interviewees may have believed that the researcher assumed that organized sport participation programs were uniformly positive. In future studies, it is highly recommended to deductively explore the spillover effects of negative experiences with organized sport participation programs because it is likely that an employee's negative interactions with another employee during organized sport participation programs could influence workplace relationships (e.g., awkward relationships with overly competitive people during organized sport participation programs; Cropanzano et al., 2017).

Fourth, data from the Qualtrics panel could not be analyzed due to discriminant validity concerns. There are several potential explanations for these issues: (a) all constructs were measuring similar concepts; (b) survey respondents answered all questions similarly because of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003); or (c) survey participants did not pay sufficient attention to the survey and answered all questions similarly. The combination of the second and third reasons could have led to issues in this study based on three factors. First, all constructs had been rigorously established and widely examined in prior literature. Second, data from the first group (i.e., responses from customers of the collaborating company) revealed no concerns regarding discriminant validity; if common method bias was the sole reason, the first dataset should have had the same issue because all surveys were designed exactly in the same way. Third, the data were thoroughly reviewed line by line in the data cleaning

stage, and more than 40% of responses from the Qualtrics panel had data quality issues (e.g., a failed attention check question, illogical answers, and straight-lined responses). By contrast, only 27% had problems in the first dataset. Therefore, in future studies, caution is needed when collecting survey data via Qualtrics, especially when trying to measure latent constructs. Two-wave data collection could reduce common method bias to some degree (Podsakoff et al., 2003), and researchers should include multiple attention check questions in their surveys.

Fifth, the benefits of organized sport participation programs (e.g., affective organizational commitment and workplace cooperativeness) are likely to develop gradually; that is, program-related advantages will emerge over time rather than immediately. However, it is difficult to understand the gradual evolution of affective organizational commitment and workplace cooperativeness based on the current study's results, mainly because of the cross-sectional design of Study 1. Therefore, it would be valuable if future researchers could empirically demonstrate the effects of organized sport participation programs on longitudinal changes in affective organizational commitment and workplace cooperativeness using appropriate research designs, such as a cross-lagged model, latent growth modeling, or quasi-experimental design.

Last but not least, it must be noted that sport is not a panacea. Organized sport participation programs have an inherent limitation: they cannot change the nature of jobs. For instance, an informant from Study 2 who was working in investment banking indicated that he occasionally (i.e., once or twice a year) worked until midnight every night on work projects. During that time, he could not participate in any program,

although his company had a range of excellent benefit programs such as organized/non-organized sport participation programs and flexible work time programs. Within this type of work environment, any employee support program would not generate expected outcomes. A supportive workplace environment (e.g., leader supportiveness) must therefore accompany organized sport participation programs (P. Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). In other words, if leaders are not supportive of subordinates' well-being and work conditions, then organizational support for employee benefits will not elicit the desired outcomes. Therefore, in future studies, scholars should consider a supportive work environment when exploring the effectiveness of organized sport participation programs in promoting employees' affective organizational commitment and workplace cooperativeness.

Conclusion

This dissertation was intended to understand the effects of organizational support for employees' participation in team-based sport with coworkers (i.e., organized sport participation programs) on employees' psychological and behavioral changes in the workplace. The current study contributes to the sport management and organizational literature by providing vital implications for practitioners and academics. Team-based sport can be an effective means of promoting one's social abilities, and organized sport participation programs offer inexpensive but effective solutions for organizations to create a more pleasant workplace of cooperative and affectively committed team members. I hope this study will inspire sport management scholars to explore how to

leverage the benefits of sport in other daily contexts; I strongly believe in the power of sport to help our lives flourish.

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APPENDIX A

STUDY 1 QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

Attitudes toward Organized Sport Participation Programs (Jones, 2010)

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*).

- The [employee support programs/non-organized sport participation programs/organized sport participation programs] are one of the reasons I enjoy working here
- I highly value that my company provides the opportunity to participate in the [employee support programs/non-organized sport participation programs/organized sport participation programs]
- I enjoy the fact that my company encourages me to participate in the [employee support programs/non-organized sport participation programs/organized sport participation programs]
- It is not important to me that my company gives me the opportunity to participate in the [employee support programs/non-organized sport participation programs/organized sport participation programs]

Distributive Justice (Colquitt, 2001)

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*).

- Based on the work I have completed, the [employee support program/non-organized sport participation program/organized sport participation program] benefits from my organization are appropriate
- Based on the effort I put into my work, I have earned the [employee support program/non-organized sport participation program/organized sport participation program] benefits
- Based on what I contribute to my work, I deserve the [employee support program/non-organized sport participation program/organized sport participation program] benefits
- Based on my performance at work, the [employee support program/non-organized sport participation program/organized sport participation program] benefits are justified

Perceived Organizational Support (Rhoades et al., 2001)

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*).

- My organization really cares about my well-being
- My organization strongly considers my goals and values
- My organization shows little concern for me
- My organization cares about my opinions
- My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor

- Help is available from my organization when I have a problem
- My organization would forgive me for an honest mistake
- If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me

Perceptions of One's Workplace Cooperativeness (Lu et al., 2013)

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*).

- At work, I would usually consider the interests of all parties
- I can usually consider multiple views when I handle tasks
- At work, I usually consider other team members' perspectives
- When working together with team members, I am willing to listen to others' opinions, even though I might not agree with them
- When working with others on a group task, I am able to integrate their views

Affective Organizational Commitment (Rhoades et al., 2001)

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*).

- I feel a strong sense of belonging to my company
- I feel personally attached to my company
- I am proud to tell others I work for my company
- Working for my company has a great deal of personal meaning to me
- I would be happy to work at my company until I retire
- I feel that the problems my company faces are also my problems

APPENDIX B

STUDY 2 INTERVIEW GUIDE

Prologue:

The purpose of this study is to better understand the organizational benefits of organized sport participation programs. In particular, we are interested in your detailed experiences with organized sport participation programs. Therefore, questions will be asked regarding your experience, thoughts, and expectations about organized sport participation programs in your company. Our conversation will be recorded, and if you do not feel comfortable answering any questions, you may skip them. You can also ask that answers be removed from the interview record if you feel uncomfortable. The recorded conversation will be transcribed, and you will have the opportunity to review the transcript and suggest revisions or clarification. All information will remain confidential and will only be used for academic purposes.

Interview Questions

1. Tell me about your company's business objectives and mission
2. Tell me about your responsibilities in your organization
3. Tell me about the employee benefits you receive from your organization
4. Tell me about your company's support for sport participation
5. How deeply involved are/were you in organized sport participation programs?
6. Do you believe organizational support for organized sport participation programs has met your expectations?
7. Tell me about your experiences with organized sport participation programs as specifically as possible
 - a. What made you participate in the program?
 - b. Who did you participate in the program with?
 - c. How was your experience with organized sport participation programs?
 - d. How would you evaluate your experience with organized sport participation programs? Did it positively affect your work life?
 - e. Did you have any impressive episodes during organized sport participation programs?
 - f. Did you have any experiences when organized sport participation programs influenced your life in the workplace?
8. If applicable, what prevented you from participating in organized sport participation programs?
9. If you had any unpleasant experiences with organized sport participation programs, please tell me about them