Passion in the Workplace:
Empirical Insights from Team Sport Organisations

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Abstract

Research Question: Although sport management scholars have focused on a fairly wide number of psychologically-related constructs in the workplace, passion has not been part of this research agenda. The present study is the first attempt to fill this gap by exploring team sport organisation employees' passion via the dualistic model, that is, harmonious and obsessive, developed by Vallerand et al. (2003).

Research Methods: UK football industry employees responsible for either business-related functions or the clubs' social agenda (N=236) completed an online survey in order to measure their level of passion. The particular instrument has two components: harmonious and obsessive passion towards the job. Besides the passion scales, the survey contained measures related to demographic variables, employment position, and previous job experience. Data were treated with Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and analysis of variance using SPSS and Amos 18.0.

Results and Findings: Both groups of employees are passionate about their job. They remain harmoniously passionate throughout their career and show low levels of obsessive passion. The type of work activities influences personnel within sport organisations with employees responsible for the social agenda being slightly more harmoniously and obsessively passionate compared to those responsible for the business agenda.

Implications: Vallerand et al.'s dualistic model of passion has been adapted for sport organisations. The particular working environment that forms these organisations attracts and/or facilitates employees to experience a positive work–life balance.

Keywords: passion at work, sport organisations, dualistic model of passion, football

Passion is a fascinating psychological construct (Gielnik et al., 2015) that has been generally defined as a strong inclination towards an activity that people like and find important, and in which they invest time and energy (Vallerand et al., 2003). Given that work is one of the most important activities in a person's life (Birkeland & Buch, 2015; Houlfort & Vallerand, 2006; Perttula & Cardon, 2011), workplace passion has been recently the subject of both conceptual (e.g., Zigarmi et al., 2009; Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003) and empirical studies (Caudroit et al., 2011; Forrest, Mageau, Sarrazin, & Morin, 2011; Ho, Wong, & Lee, 2011; Marques, 2007; Neumann, 2006; Patel, Thorgren, & Wincent, 2015; Thorgren, Wincent, & Sirén, 2013). Practitioners, too, have emphasized both the personal benefits of being passionate about one's job (Anderson, 1995; Boyatzis, McKee, & Goleman, 2002), and the organisational gains that result from companies having passionate employees (Bruch & Ghoshal, 2003; Moses, 2001). At a personal level, for example, passion at work results in lower levels of job burnout (Vallerand, Paquet, Philippe, & Charest, 2010), better interpersonal relations (Philippe et al., 2010), as well as satisfaction (Thorgren et al., 2013; Vallerand et al., 2010). From the organisations' perspective, passionate workforces lead to greater employee creativity and effectiveness (Perttula & Cardon, 2011), and to higher performance under challenging situations (Patel et al., 2015).

In the context of sport, however, despite there being as many as 6 million sport-related jobs in the US (Shank & Lyberger, 2015) and about 450,000 in the UK (Cave, 2015), the examination of passion at work has been non-existent. Interestingly, studies have found that employees outside the sport industry were more satisfied with their compensation than were those working in it (Parks, 1991; Parks & Para, 1994)[1], thereby suggesting that the intention to enter sport management is not guided by remuneration alone (Cunningham &

[1] Caution is needed here as these two studies report empirical findings of more than two decades ago; yet, no more recent studies are available. We thank one of the reviewers for pointing this out.

Sagas, 2004; Sibson, 2010). Such desire for working in the sport industry may be generally justified by the industry's specificity (Hassan, 2012; Smith & Stewart, 2010) and idiosyncratic characteristics (Day, Gordon, & Fink, 2012). That is, the passion for sport is the very same that employees experience as passive or active consumers (Smith & Stewart, 2010; Wakefield, 2016) and/or through their identification and involvement with a sport team (Todd & Andrew, 2008). Indeed, recent empirical studies have shown that the employees of team sport organisations are distinct from those in other industry sectors, in that they identify both with the parent organisation in which they are employed and the team that represents it (Oja, Bass, & Gordon, 2015; Swanson & Kent, 2015). Job seekers, therefore, are largely attracted to sport industry jobs because they perceive a good fit between their preferences for future work and the sporting environment (Todd & Andrew, 2008).

This is further facilitated by the fact that the sport industry is comprised of three distinct but interrelated sectors, that is, public, nonprofit, and commercial (Hoye et al., 2012), each of which, naturally, constitutes a multitude and/or different institutional logics (Gammelsæter, 2010).According to Reay and Hinings (2009) institutional logics 'provide the organising principles for a field [in our case, sport]; they are the basis of taken-for-granted rules guiding behaviour of field-level actors, and they refer to the belief systems and related practices that predominate in an organisational field' (p. 629). In team sport organisations, for example, employees have the opportunity to exert their passion at work for different ends (e.g., profit versus health), using different means (e.g., commodification processes versus practicing sport) and different measurement criteria (e.g., number of season ticket holders versus number of participants).

However, studies examining workplace passion have empirically shown that depending on how people identify with their work, their passion can take on more adaptive (harmonious) or maladaptive (obsessive) forms (Vallerand, 2015). Passion, is seen as distinct

from such related constructs as proactivity, enthusiasm, persistence, and focus (Perrewé et al., 2014). Some of the job-related constructs that have been examined in sport management literature, such as organisational or occupational commitment of intercollegiate coaches (e.g., Chelladurai & Ogasawara, 2003; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005) and sporting goods retail employees (Todd & Andrew, 2006), employee satisfaction (e.g., Cleave, 1993; Hall, Bowers, & Martin, 2010; Parks & Para, 1994) and/or burnout (e.g., Danylchuk, 1993) offer a one-dimensional perspective, which makes them ill-suited to explaining not only the positive, but also the possible dark sides of enjoying work (Thorgren et al., 2013).

More specifically, beyond passion's positive association with greater work satisfaction (Carbonneau, Vallerand, Fernét, & Guay, 2008), mental health (Forest et al., 2011), and subjective well-being (Rousseau & Vallerand, 2008), passion may also lead to uncontrolled rumination (Ratelle et al., 2004) and inflexibility (Vallerand et al., 2003). Passionate employees may showcase aggressive behaviour associated with active pursuit of goals, the elimination of barriers, and the accumulation of job-related materials and support (Cardon, Wincent, Singh, & Drnovsek, 2009), which may be interpreted as threatening, particularly when work resources are perceived as finite (Perrewé et al., 2014). Finally, compulsive levels of passion can lead to rigid persistence that hinders task completion and interpersonal relationships (Vallerand et al., 2010).

Research questions and theoretical contribution

Given the conceptual characteristics that passion at workplace entails, the present study is set to examine passion in the context of team sport organisations and asks the following research questions (RQ):

#RQ1: Do paid administrative personnel in the context of team sport organisations experience passion for their jobs?

#RQ1a: If so, what type of passion (harmonious or obsessive)?

#RQ2: Is there any difference in passion and its types between personnel responsible for business operations and from those responsible for the team's social agenda?

#RQ3: At both the personal and organisational levels, do selected individual (i.e., managerial position, level of experience, age, gender, and education) and contextual (i.e., organisational size) variables influence the type of passion experienced by paid personnel in team sport organisations?

In addressing the above questions, this article contributes to the literature in three ways. First, the uniqueness of this study lies in linking social-identity theory (SIT) and self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000) and particularly the dualistic model of passion (DMP; Vallerand et al., 2003), to explore whether passion manifests in team sport organisations' workforce. Prior studies have highlighted the pivotal role of SIT in understanding the behaviour of sport consumers (Wann & Branscombe, 1993) and employees (Todd & Kent, 2009) alike, thereby underlying the distinctiveness of sport from other industrial settings (Smith & Stewart, 2010). The present study extends passion research by reporting empirical results which, for the first time, denote its breadth vis-à-vis the sport industry, thereby providing insights into the influence of a particular organisational context. Studies have indicated that work for a passionate employee becomes part of his/her identity (Vallerand et al., 2003) and a means to associate with others. According to SDT, an individual grows psychologically when connected to others within a social context. This relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000) echoes what Ashforth and Mael (1989) referred to as organisational identification, which is a specific form of socialization (Swanson & Kent, 2015). Such organisations can be where a person feels the need to be authentically associated with others while passionately carrying out his/her job.

Integral to the above, the second contribution is the exploration of determinants that favour one type of passion over the other, thereby responding to calls that future research should identify determinants towards passion at work (Houlfort & Vallerand, 2006). Taking into account Doherty's (1998) advice that, "the focus should be on the relationships among variables, rather than purely descriptive accounts of individual and group characteristics, attitudes, and behaviours" (p. 7), we explore the individual and contextual variables on employees' passion for work. This approach enhances understanding of the different types of passion experienced by employees in sport organisations. For example, modern (European) professional teams' being constituted by a multitude of institutional logics that reflect the variety of job roles therein (Gammelsæter, 2010) led us to compare the construct of passion between employees responsible for business operations and their counterparts responsible for the social agenda. The common denominator is the logic of professionalism, which means that control of work is based on expertise (Freidson, 2001). However, at the outset, these two groups seem to be qualitatively dissimilar. In institutionalism parlance, personnel responsible for functions including social media marketing, retailing and merchandising, sponsorship or new and international business development is closer to the managerialism logic that invokes commodification, profitability and shareholder value (Cousens & Slack, 2005; Gammelsæter, 2010). The latter group, which by and large, carries out its work through the charitable foundations that professional teams have now established (Anagnostopoulos, Byers, & Shilbury, 2014; Babiak & Wolfe, 2009) mobilises personnel for higher order goals (see logic of 'idealism') (Gammelsæter, 2010) such as health improvement, promoting alternative educational methods, increasing sport participation, or encouraging social inclusion (Anagnostopoulos & Shilbury, 2013). Given, therefore, that modern team sport organisations seem to carry different logics typically expressed through the tasks performed by their

workforce, potential differences based on the contextual and individual variables allow for the dualistic model of passion to be tested in relation to its determinants.

The third contribution is the confirmatory factor analysis, complementing other studies (e.g., Houlfort et al., 2015; Forest et al., 2011; Vallerand et al., 2003), but adding again the sport organisational context. Investigating and confirming the applicability of the DMP in two distinctive sport organisational contexts contributes to the discussion in regards to how passion should be measured in different domains. The item content of the dualistic model has been confirmed in different organisations excluding the sport domain. Offering evidence of validity and reliability for the 12-item scale of passion and refining its context to fit well with sport organisation data are important not only for a deeper understanding of passion conceptualisation itself, but also of the relationships that passion can influence.

In the following section, the theory underpinning this study is presented along with a discussion of how passion differs from other job-related constructs. Next, a detailed account of the method employed is outlined, and the findings obtained from the empirical analysis are then presented. We conclude with a discussion of the findings, before offering some practical implications and outlining the study's limitations and issues for further research.

Theoretical and conceptual background

Self-determination theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) theoretically underpins this study, which is broadly situated in the field of human motivation. The central premise of SDT is that a person's psychological growth comes from the satisfaction of three basic needs: relatedness, competence and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). According to Deci and Ryan (1994), "people are inherently motivated to feel *connected* to others within a social milieu, to function *effectively*

in that milieu and to feel a sense of *personal initiative* while doing so" (p. 7). In other words, the fulfillment of these three psychological needs occurs as a person interacts with the environment and engages in several activities. Therefore, the experience gained from such activities helps the individual grow and develop a sense of self (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

According to SDT the internalization of elements from the person's environment through such activities can either be an autonomous or a controlled process. In the former, the individual freely accepts the activity as being significant without any attached contingencies. This type of internalization stems from the intrinsic and integrative tendencies of the self (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) and yields a motivational force to engage in the activity willingly, thereby stimulating a sense of volition and personal endorsement about pursuing the activity (Vallerand et al., 2003). Put simply, instead of feeling obliged to engage in the activity, the individual freely chooses to do so. In contrast, controlled internalization involves various pressures of social acceptance, self-esteem, and similar ego-invested self-structures (Hodgins & Knee, 2002).

It is the aforementioned internalization process of SDT upon which Vallerand and his colleagues (2003) conceptualized the construct of passion through the Dualistic Model of Passion (DMP). The central premise of the DMP is that an individual – in endeavouring to satisfy the basic psychological needs of relatedness, competence, and autonomy – engages in enjoyable activities that he or she values highly. These activities become so self-defining that they ultimately represent central features of this person's identity. Such internalization of any given activity within the person's identity will result in a passion for that particular activity. Vallerand and Houlfort (2003) argued that work is one of the most important activities in a person's life, considering that most individuals engage in work-related activities from their early years (schooling) until even after formal retirement. Therefore, since work "serves to define us […] we are not only people who work in computers, management, or sales, we are

computer analysts, managers, or salespersons" (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003, p. 176). For many people, work serves an important intrapersonal function that becomes part of their identities and causes them to be passionate about the particular activity. However, according to the DMP (Vallerand et al., 2003), there are two different types of passion – harmonious and obsessive – that describe different concepts, and an employee may have one type but not the other (Ho et al., 2011).

The DMP uses the autonomous and controlled internalization processes (Deci & Ryan, 2000) in the self to explain these two distinct types of passion. Obsessive passion, on the one hand, is associated with a pressured internalization of the job, meaning that employees perceive their jobs as important because of certain pressures or outcomes attached to the job (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003). For example, an individual may receive a sense of prestige and/or self-worth from doing a job, but feel compelled to pursue the activity in a rather rigid form in order to maintain self-worth. Consequently, the job controls the person and becomes an obsession, which may conflict with other aspects of life (Ho et al., 2011). Harmonious passion, on the other hand, entails autonomous and voluntary internalization in which the individual freely and voluntarily pursues the activity or job because of the job's importance or characteristics rather than because of any derived feelings of social approval or recognition (Ho et al., 2011; Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003).

To illustrate these two distinct types of passion, consider the example of two graphic designers who work for sport teams. Both devote themselves to their jobs in a passionate manner, but internalize this passion for different reasons. One may simply enjoy developing creative ideas and concepts used for marketing purposes (harmonious passion), whereas the other may enjoy the fact that other colleagues value the skills the individual brings to the job and enjoy being relied upon for the (sport team's) marketing and advertising campaign (obsessive passion). The first graphic designer does not experience any guilt when not

engaging in job-related activities unless s/he needs to do so, whereas the other one feels bound to pursue job-related activities even in the presence of non-work commitments and obligations (Ho et al., 2011).

Moreover, the way Vallerand and colleagues (2003) conceptualized passion has set it apart from previously established job-related constructs. The next section elucidates why this is the case in relation to relevant sport management literature.

Passion versus job-related constructs in sport management

Scholarship in sport management has increasingly emphasized such psychologically-related constructs in work as motivation, satisfaction, commitment, involvement and identification, flow, burnout, and workaholism. However, several other studies have either theoretically argued or empirically shown that passion has some important distinctions from these constructs (e.g. Caudroit et al., 2011; Forrest, et al., 2011; Ho et al., 2011; Marques, 2007; Neumann, 2006; Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003; Vallerand et al., 2010; Zigarmi et al., 2009).

For example, although passion is closely linked to intrinsic motivation (in that both encompass the element of liking an activity), intrinsically-motivated employees are typically not seen as having internalized their work in their identity, which means that the activity does not define them (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Rather, intrinsically-motivated activities emerge from the short-term person-task interaction (Koestner & Losier, 2002); that is, employees perform a specific job because it brings immediate pleasure and satisfaction.

The ‘distance’ between passion and extrinsic motivation is even larger, considering the possible absence of enjoyment for the job itself and the dominance of external reasons (Vallerand, 2010), such as monetary compensation, benefits, or workplace promotion (Chang, Choi, & Kim, 2008). Beyond such tangible external pressures, Melton and Cunningham (2014) showed that lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender (LGBT) employees

are motivated by the fact that the sport organisation setting enhances their self-esteem and, by and large, provides greater social acceptance in their working environment. However, Melton and Cunningham's study did not reveal whether LGBT employees actually internalized the working tasks such that they were passionate about their jobs.

Passion in the workplace has also been differentiated in terms of both organisational and occupational commitment. For example, sport management scholars who have examined organisational commitment in relation to several other factors – leadership (Kent & Chelladurai, 2001), part- and full-time workforce citizenship (Chang & Chelladurai, 2003) and intention to leave and perceived performance (Turner & Chelladurai, 2005) – have emphasized the employee's attitude toward the organisation rather than toward the job itself, which pertains to passion. Being passionate about innovative marketing ideas for a sport organisation may prompt an employee to work for another organisation (thereby demonstrating low organisational commitment), or to be strongly committed to his or her existing employer (and also be a loyal fan) without necessarily having a passion for the job-related tasks. Moreover, employees who are committed to their occupations (such as coaching personnel in Turner and Chelladurai [2005]) may not necessarily like their job activities (Vallerand, 2010). To illustrate, a team's equipment manager (also known as kit person) may demonstrate high commitment for maintaining the athletes' apparel and having everything ready for training sessions and games, but may not enjoy the actual job.

Furthermore, the construct of passion must be distinguished from job satisfaction. This is because passion is not limited to merely liking a job, and also encompasses identification. In contrast, an employee may feel satisfied (or dissatisfied; see Dixon & Warner, 2010) simply because of pleasant working conditions, good relations with colleagues and supervisors (Cunningham et al., 2005; Hall et al., 2010), or even the job design itself (Cleave, 1993). For example, in one of the first studies to examine a job-related construct in

sport administration, Koehler (1988) found that female corporate fitness managers were generally satisfied with their jobs. Interestingly, although the managers' sense of social service and moral values were the most important factors in their high satisfaction levels, which implied cognitive elements behind the pursuit of the task, the study revealed little about whether the managers had internalized their job as part of their identities.

Job involvement and identification are two other dimensions of work-related attitudes that are distinct from passion (Vallerand et al., 2003). As mentioned, passion is not only cognitive (capturing the importance of the job for the individual), but also affective (having a strong inclination for and enjoyment of the job). In contrast, Kanungo (1979, 1982) eschewed the affective aspects of job involvement, stressing its purely cognitive nature, thereby "capturing the cognitive state of psychological identification" (Ho et al., 2011, p. 29). In other words, an individual may identify with a job as a sport agent or a financial manager for a professional team and find the job important (job identification), but not like or have an interest in pursuing that specific job (a job passion).

Todd and Kent (2009) theoretically proposed, through their positive social identity model, that employees in team sport organisations identify not only with the team, but also with the organisation itself. This idea was empirically tested by Swanson and Kent (2015), who drew on social identity theory that posits that a person's identity and behaviour shift along a personal-collective continuum as a function of social context (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Thus, employees in the sport industry may be expected to identify with a team sport organisation when it is contextually salient to do so. In contrast, passionate employees typically identify with the object of their passion (in this case, the specific job they pursue) because it is accessible and salient at all times, albeit in qualitatively different ways for harmonious versus obsessive passion (Rip, Vallerand, & Lafrenière, 2012).

In summary, the present study focuses on passion in the workplace in order to understand this psychologically-related construct in the context of paid employees within team sport organisations. This endeavour seeks to support arguments for why the sport industry may be a desirable workplace, thereby offering insights into how human resource development (HRD) units within a sport organisation can realize both healthier and more productive employees.

Method

Participants and procedures

Participants in the study were employees from the British football sector (i.e. top three divisions in England and first division in Scotland) who either worked for one of the 80 'parent' clubs or their charitable foundations. Employees in the former were responsible for business-related functions (e.g., marketing, sponsorship, communication etc.), whereas workforce within the foundations were responsible for formulating and implementing community-based programs that, by and large, fall within the parent's club's wider corporate social responsibility (CSR) agenda. We developed a database of potential respondents in four interconnected stages. First, we perused the official websites of both organisational units and recorded the names, job titles, and contact details of the staff members listed. Second, the lead author used a professional online social network to connect with employees who had a presence in the network and agreed to the connection. Although connecting through this online platform delayed data collection (some invitations to connect were accepted after three months), it did establish necessary professional rapport because the participants were given the opportunity to check the researcher's credentials. Through these connections, the lead author was able to identify and approach additional potential participants (stage 3) whose profiles did not appear on the teams' or foundations' webpages. Last, we also asked those

participants who took part in the study to provide contacts (from both the 'parent' club and the foundation) who would be willing to participate in this research. Thirty nine additional contacts were the result of this call. This four-stage process resulted in a total of 850 sport employees in various roles and hierarchical positions, 648 of whom were employed by professional football clubs and 202 of whom were employed by their affiliated foundations. Athletic and medical staff members, such as players, coaches, physiotherapists or personnel working in the football academies, were excluded from this study. Therefore, the operating core of a professional sport organisation (Kent & Chelladurai, 2001) was not considered. Rather, drawing on Kent and Chelladurai's (2001) and Oja et al.'s (2015) works, the study targeted senior (e.g., CEOs) and middle management (e.g., managers/directors and officers) administration personnel.

Following approval from the lead author's university ethical review committee, we sent each of the 850 employees a personal email invitation to take part in the study. Each potential participant received a cover letter describing the purpose of the study and a link to a survey created with Qualtrics online survey software. The survey remained open from April 24, 2014 until July 1, 2014. Three follow-up emails were sent to all non-respondents during the data collection period to increase the response rate. In addition, to eliminate the nonresponse error threat on the study's external validity, the first technique put forward by Jordan, Walker, Kent, and Inoue (2011) was employed. As such, a second data collection stage was undertaken between October 21 and November 30, 2015 to compare early to late respondents. An additional 59 new or late respondents answered the survey (20 employees from the charitable foundations and 39 from the parent football clubs), which satisfied the recommended criterion of a minimum of 30 useable responses (Lindner, Murphy, & Briers, 2001). No difference between respondents from the first and second stage was detected for key variables such as harmonious passion and obsessive passion within the same

organisational settings, that is, foundations and football clubs. It is thus anticipated that the non-response bias is reduced.

Participants' identifying information was kept separate from survey responses to ensure anonymity and confidentiality. Among the 257 surveys returned, 21 were incomplete and were eliminated, reducing the usable sample to 236, which represents a response rate of 27.8 percent.

Instrumentation

We measured passion using an instrument that Vallerand et al. (2003) developed to gauge the passion individuals experience in different contexts. This instrument reflects the dualistic model of passion which is broadly and consistently used into the literature over the last 10 years or so (i.e., Forest et al., 2011; Ho et al., 2011; Vallerand et al., 2008). Curran et al. (2015) in a recent meta-analysis review on passion, have reported 94 studies which measured passion based on this dualistic model. The particular instrument has two components: one that distinguishes between passionate and non-passionate employees, and one that distinguishes between harmonious or obsessive passion among employees. To distinguish passionate employees, respondents were asked to report their level of agreement with the following statement: '*This job is a passion for me*'. They used a five-point Likert scale in which 1 represented 'strongly disagree' and 5 represented 'strongly agree'. Following Vallerand and Houlfort's (2003) recommendation, employees were considered passionate towards their work only if their score was above the midpoint (3) on this scale. Therefore, only those employees who had a general level of passion of 3 or above on the five-point Likert scale were kept for further analysis.

The main part of the instrument consisted of two subscales based on Vallerand et al. (2003), which assess harmonious and obsessive passion, also using a five-point Likert scale.

Harmonious passion is measured with a subscale of six items, including '*This job is a passion that I manage to control*', '*My job is well integrated in my life*', and '*This job allows me to live a variety of experiences*'. We used Cronbach's α to estimate the internal consistency of this particular subscale and obtained a value of .73. The instrument subscale measures obsessive passion with such items as '*This job is the only thing that really excites me*', '*I am emotionally dependent on this job*', and '*This job is so exciting that I sometimes lose control over it*'. We found the reliability of the six-item obsessive passion scale to be .75. Previous authors have also reported satisfactory Cronbach's alpha values for harmonious (.71–.84) and obsessive (.60–.87) passion, supporting the reliability of the particular two sub-scales (Vallerand et al., 2003; Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003). In addition, a number of studies have supported the construct validity of the particular instrument in different contexts including work (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003; Carbonneau et al., 2008). The above provides adequate evidence that the passion conceptualization with the 12-item scale grouped into two six-item sub-scales (i.e., harmonious and obsessive passion) is a valid and reliable instrument. Overall, the final instrument consisted of 13 items measuring the respondents' harmonious (i.e., six items), and obsessive (i.e., six items) passion, and overall passion (i.e., the passion criterion). The only change made to the original instrument was on the term "this activity", which was used by Vallerand et al. (2003); it was substituted with the term "this job" to fit the purpose and context of the present study. Respondents were consistently provided with a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1, "strongly disagree", to 5, "strongly agree", to check their responses.

The survey also collected demographic variables (age, gender, and education), employment position in the organisation, and previous experience in their current position, in the specific organisation and in the sport industry in general. Finally, respondents were asked to indicate their organisation's type (football club or charitable foundation) and the

organisation size (number of employees). The above variables were demographic and contextual and were measured with closed-ended questions.

Analysis and measurement tests

Apart from basic descriptive statistics, we employed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to evaluate the factor structure of the dualistic passion model using the SPSS and AMOS 18.0 programs. The CFA permits testing of hypotheses that have a relationship between the observed variables (such as dualistic passion items) and the underlying latent constructs (harmonious and obsessive passion), as suggested by Vallerand et al. (2003). The 12 passion subscale items were used as indicators of Vallerand et al.'s (2003) two first-order latent factors, entitled harmonious and obsessive passion. To assess whether the tested model demonstrated a 'good fit' to the dataset, we used the comparative fit index (CFI), the incremental fit index (IFI), the goodness of fit index (GFI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). In order to evaluate the effects of the independent variables on harmonious and obsessive passion for the job, we conducted a one-way analysis of variance (t-test and ANOVA), followed by post-hoc Sheffé analysis when significant differences occurred.

Results

Demographics

Among the 236 completed questionnaires, seven respondents (2.97 percent) with low level of passion were disregarded following Vallerand and Houlfort's (2003) recommendation, leaving the useable sample at 229 respondents showing moderate or high passion (97.03 percent). Among them, 126 (55 percent) were employees responsible for the social agenda, and 103 (45 percent) were working for the business functions of the parent football club.

These respondents represented 49 different football clubs and 56 different charitable foundations, that is, more than 60 percent of the total number of sport organisations targeted in England and Scotland. Table 1 depicts the profile of respondents.

INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

Overall, the study's findings indicated that personnel in the British football sector consider their work to be a passionate activity, with a mean score of 4.28 (SD=.68). The following two sub-sections offer a more detailed account of this finding.

Exploring the factorial validity of the dualistic passion model (CFA)

First the two-correlated-factor model was tested in the total sample with harmonious and obsessive passion items loaded onto different factors; the results showed an unacceptable fit (χ2/df=3.45, CFI=.77, GFI=.87, IFI= .77 RMSEA=.10; see Table 2). Examination of the standardized factor loadings and standardized residuals (error terms) revealed that four items demonstrated poor loadings (below 0.45) to their respective latent variables; therefore, we decided to exclude these for further analysis (Mullan, Markland, & Ingledew, 1997). Two of the four items were related to harmonious passion and the other two to obsessive passion. The harmonious passion related items were '*This job is a passion that I manage to control*' and '*My job is in harmony with other things that are part of me*'. The obsessive passion items were '*I have difficulties controlling my urge to do my job*' and '*If I could, I would only do my job'.*

After deleting the particular items, we again applied the CFA to the revised eight-item solution, producing an improved fit to the dataset (see Table 2). The ratio of χ^2 to the degree of freedom (χ^2/df=1.41) and the remaining commonly used goodness-of-fit indices (CFI=.97,

GFI=.98, IFI=.98, RMSEA=.04) were in line with the recommended criteria (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2005). The above two factor model was tested also in the two sub-samples (i.e., foundations and clubs) and produced equally satisfactory results in the case of the football foundations (χ2/df=1.74, CFI=.92, GFI=.94, IFI=.93, RMSEA=.07) and the football clubs (χ2/df=1.12, CFI=.98; GFI=.96, IFI=.98, RMSEA=.03). As indicated in Table 3, factor loadings were comparably high and statistically significant, ranging from 0.4 to .78, in the total sample, which is in accordance with the adequacy of the fit indices and supported the hypothesised structure of the dualistic passion model (Vallerand et al., 2003) in the examined organisational setting. Based on Fornell and Larcker (1981), factor loadings >0.4 that are statistically significant are proof of the convergent validity of the latent constructs, in this case the harmonious and obsessive passion dimensions.

INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

Convergent validity refers to how well a set of items measures the dimension it was designed to measure. As such, harmonious and obsessive passion were correlated (r=.22, p=.001) as suggested in previous studies (Mageau, Carpentier, & Vallerand, 2011; Forest et al., 2011). This low correlation (<.30) between the two dimensions confirmed the discriminant validity, which refers to whether two constructs are different from each other (Kline, 2005).

In order to further explore the dualistic structure of the passion model, we tested the one-factor model with all individual items loaded on a single passion factor. The results showed a poor fit for the one-factor model (χ2/df=6.32, CFI=.48, GFI=.76, IFI= .49 RMSEA=.15; see Table 2), which further indicated that the dualistic passion model had a reasonably good fit to the 'parent' clubs-related dataset and a good fit to the foundations-

related dataset (see Table 3). In summary, the factorial assessment of the dualistic passion model indicates a satisfactory fit for the data. Based on the CFA results, the aggregate mean was 3.98 (SD=.49) for harmonious passion and 2.30 (SD=.72) for obsessive passion.

Exploring effects on passion toward the job

We used t-test and ANOVA to determine the effect of contextual variables on passion for the job. The results (see Table 4) indicated that the type of organisation had an effect on both harmonious and obsessive passion of employees. Employees who worked for charitable foundations were slightly more harmoniously passionate (M=4.07, SD=.49) toward their job than those who worked for the 'parent' football clubs (M=3.89, SD=.49); the mean difference was statistically significant ($t(227)=-2.63,\ p<.01$). A similar difference was found for obsessive passion toward the job between foundation (M=2.45, SD=.69) and club employees (M=2.13, SD=.72); the mean difference was statistically significant ($t(227)=-3.44,\ p<.01$). However, the employees reported low overall average levels of obsessive passion toward their job in both organisational settings.

INSERT TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE

Results suggest that gender and organisation size do not affect the levels of either harmonious ($t(227)=-.68\ \ p>.05;\ \ F(2,227)=2.12\ \ p>.05$) or obsessive passion ($t(227)=-1.1\ \ p>.05;F(2,227)=2.21\ \ p>.05$) among employees; the level of harmonious and obsessive passion reported by male and female employees working for larger or smaller organisations (of either type) was comparable. Age of employees appears to show significant difference overall ($F(2,227)=3.73\ p<.05$), however the post hoc comparisons indicated that the obsessive passion mean scores were not significantly different between age sub-group comparisons.

Significant difference is observed for harmonious passion between employees with secondary education compared to employees with an associated degree ($F(2,227)=3.03$ $p<.05$), the latter being more harmoniously passionate. No significant difference is observed regarding levels of obsessive passion for different levels of education ($F(2,227)=.44$ $p<.05$). Employees at senior management positions are significantly more harmoniously passionate (M=4.13, SD=.50) compared to employees at middle management position (M=3.95, SD=.49; $t(227)=-2.31$ $p<.05$) but they are not more obsessively passionate about their job ($t(227)=-1.65$ $p>.05$). Experience levels in the current job or in the organisation did not seem to influence harmonious or obsessive passion among employees. Conversely, people who had worked for more than a year in the sport industry were more likely to report higher levels of obsessive passion than those who worked for a year or less ($F(2,227)=5.32$ $p<.05$), although this result did not apply to harmonious passion ($F(2,227)=.20$ $p>.05$). As shown in Table 4, staff with a year or less of experience in the sport industry reported very low levels of obsessive passion towards their work (M=1.82, SD=.63) compared with respondents with two to five years (M=2.42, SD=.78) and six years or more of experience (M=2.32, SD=.69). Significant differences ($p<.05$) were found in the mean results for early-career employees (up to a year of experience in the sport industry) versus those with two to five years of experience, and between early-career employees and those with six and more years of experience.

Discussion

The main purpose of this study is to examine whether, and in what type, passion manifests in team sport organisations' workforce. To date, sport management scholars have focused on a fairly wide number of job-related constructs, but passion has not been part of this research agenda. The present study is the first to draw on SDT to apply the DMP (Vallerand et al., 2003) within the workplace setting of team sport organisations. Our results have failed to

confirm the 12-item passion scale proposed by Vallerand et al. (2003) and yielded a two-factor model with eight items to measure passion within a sport-oriented workplace (see RQ 1). Generally, it is anticipated that different contexts may uncover slightly revised passion scales. The particular result (two-factor structure with eight items) has shown the importance of further exploring the applicability of a passion measure with modifications pertinent to sport jobs and activities (Vallerand et al., 2007; Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003; Stenserng, 2008).

Indeed, with as many as 97.03 percent of participants stating that their job is a passion for them, the present study provides strong empirical support for Todd and Kent's (2009) proposition that employees in the sport industry may exhibit some distinctive psychologically-related traits. Given that previous research has suggested that many people identify themselves with the object of their passion (Murnieks, Mosakowski, & Cardon, 2014; Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003), one could argue that participants in this study are passionate about their job, which seems to have become part of their identity. This finding adds to empirical evidence from recent studies (e.g., Oja et al., 2015; Swanson & Kent, 2015) that employees' identification in the sport industry is not restricted to the team, but extends to the organisation itself. However, the finding that workforce demonstrates a high level of passion implies that these employees do not only identify with the organisation when it is contextually salient to do so (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), but instead (or as well) with the very specific job-related task because they can both pursue it and see its importance at all times (Houlfort et al., 2015; Lavigne, Forest, Fernet, Crevier-Braud, 2015).

Furthermore, although the general assumption that employees in team sport organisations are passionate about their jobs has not hitherto been empirically confirmed, it was the application of DMP (Vallerand et al., 2003) that enabled us to theoretically advance our understanding on work-related constructs, thereby measuring the levels of harmonious

and obsessive passion and the effect of contextual variables on passion. More specifically, the present study reveals that employees in team sport organisations show high levels of harmonious passion and low levels of obsessive passion (see RQ1a). This result supports findings from empirical studies outside the sport management literature that put forward that an employee may have one type of passion but not the other (Ho et al., 2011). As such, employees in team sport organisations seem to undertake their jobs freely and voluntary because they see it as important and not solely because they seek social approval or recognition (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003). However, despite their low level of obsessive passion, employees appreciate the obsessiveness their job can generate; that is, the need to self-validate and garner social approval through participation in the beloved activity (Curran et al., 2015). In general, though, employees' passion does not control them and is not an obsession that can conflict with other aspects of their life (Ho et al., 2011).

It is noteworthy that recent empirical research has shown the positive 'face' of the 'dark side' of passion (Patel et al., 2015; Omorede, Thorgren, & Wincent, 2013), proposing that leaders who score high in obsessive passion are likely to excel in highly dynamic environments. If one accepts that management of football occurs in a setting characterized by high degree of unpredictability and uncertainty (Hamil & Chadwick, 2010), then having obsessively passionate employees may lead to better organisational performance. It is interesting to see, however, that despite the apparent pressures to perform by (potentially) mitigating various types of uncertainty (Deci & Ryan, 1987), administrative employees in the 'parent' clubs still demonstrate low levels of obsessive passion. In general, however, the high level of harmonious passion, in conjunction with low level of obsessive passion that employees demonstrate, may further suggest beneficial effects on their ability to deliver their task and other work-related activities, by improving work satisfaction (Thorgren et al., 2013) and/or preventing burnout (Carbonneau et al., 2008; Danylchuk, 1993; Lavigne, Forest,

Fernet, & Crevier-Braud, 2012; Vallerand et al., 2010). Although further research is needed to empirically test whether this is actually the case, this study shows that working in the sport industry constitutes a harmoniously passionate activity, which can partially explain why paid jobs in sport have been (Parks & Para, 1994) and remain desirable (Sibson, 2010; Todd & Andrew, 2008).

Another contribution of this study pertains to the fact that it broadens the theoretical discussion in formal members of two 'divisions' (see Swanson & Kent, 2015), thereby offering insights from organisational actors who represent two different, yet interconnected, institutional logics (see RQ 2). Our data analysis highlighted that the type of job associated with the divisional scope and purpose within team sport organisations does have an effect on both the harmonious and obsessive passion experienced by personnel therein. As such, the present study extends relevant literature that has been limited in conceptualizing work passion for a job as a whole (e.g., Ho et al., 2011), and has therefore failed to examine the possibility that individuals may have different types of passion about different jobs within divisional units of the same organisational entities (in this case, team sport organisations).

A likely explanation for the slight difference on harmonious passion between employees in the two examined settings is that these organisations carry different (institutional) logics and that personnel's job-related tasks differ a great deal as a result. On the one hand, and through various community projects, foundations' employees strive for higher-order goals (see logic of idealism) such as improving health, educating children, increasing sport participation, and seeking social cohesion. On the other hand, business executives – who are perhaps closer to the logics of managerialism (Gammelsæter, 2010) – seem to be passionately driven towards making a profit (Garcia-del-Barrio & Szymanski, 2009; Millward, 2013), which can contribute to the core business of the football company;

that is, on-field success while remaining financially solvent. Therefore, we have assumed that employees in the charitable foundations may see the joy of engaging in the work for its own sake (through having an impact on people's lives) more than their counterparts in the 'parent' companies, whose focus is often on tasks like achieving better sponsorship deals or hospitality packages and contributing towards effective communication strategies. After all, the latter's income is usually based on monetary incentives and pay-for-performance schemes, similar to business personnel in other industries (Cadsby, Song, & Tapon, 2007).

Moreover, the nature of the work of the charitable foundations' technical core entails numerous 'outside-the-office' tasks. These tasks are often not limited to either the football club's imperatives (such as creating a new generation of fans or the engagement thereof) or the sport of football alone (that is, using a multi-sport platform to 'do' the job). This "all-embracing passion" (Anagnostopoulos et al., 2014, p. 274), which may also highlight the interplay of work and non-work arrangements (Brown et al., 2011) by blurring the classic dichotomy between work and leisure (Filho, 2010), seems to further disconnect the job from any derived feelings of social approval or recognition (see obsessive passion). Instead, the foundation employees feel even freer to pursue their job than their counterparts in the 'parent' clubs.

The above finding may be of particular importance when considering the complex environment in which these charitable foundations exist and operate. Indeed, a combination of factors form a complex environment consisting of different 'job tasks', which may make these employees feel bound to pursue various job-related actions. These factors are (a) the increasing recognition football foundations enjoy from external organisations for the effectiveness of their delivery (Walters & Panton, 2014), (b) their over-reliance on public funding (Bingham & Walters, 2013), (c) their continuous efforts towards capacity building

through partnerships with often heterogeneous stakeholder groups for the implementation of community programs (Heinze, Soderstrom, & Zdroik, 2014; Kihl, Babiak & Tainski, 2014), and (d) the need to counteract any negative connotations that the current football context possesses, in an endeavour to get the balance right (Slack & Shrives, 2008). Rather than being seen as free or voluntary undertakings, such actions are instead motivated by a compulsion to maintain the business and socially-related acceptance resulting from the job (that is, an obsessive type of passion). The personnel therein is faced with such controversies as well as various types of interdependences, which is a typical situation in complex environments (Child, 1972; Miller, 1988). Despite that, the evidence offered in the present study that employees demonstrate high harmonious passion should be perceived as an encouraging outcome, especially considering studies that have shown that better performance can be achieved by harmoniously passionate employees under high environmental complexity (Patel et al., 2015).

Therefore, in accordance with arguments made elsewhere (e.g., Allenbaugh, 2002; King, 2005), emotions can be instrumental and useful within an organization only if they help achieve a rational goal, whether it is business-oriented or social. In this context, a goal is considered rational when the employee performs actions that constitute the most effective and efficient means of bringing the workforce closer to achieving the organisational objectives (Wittington, 2001). In this regard, workforce within the charitable foundations demonstrates a harmonious passion that, when built around broader personal social consciousness stimuli, helps their organisations grow and secure returns to investors; that is, statutory funders, commercial partners, and the parent football club itself. Indeed, Zigarmi and Nimon (2011) argued that “the essence of work passion is the intention to act consistently using behaviours that are constructive for the organisation’s desired outcomes as well as the individual’s” (p. 451).

With regard to those contextual elements that may influence the type of passion experienced by those who work in team sport organisations (see RQ 3), the results of the present study suggest that although generally employees show low level of obsessive passion, this is influenced by their experience in the industry and the level of management position. Early-career individuals have much lower levels of obsessive passion than employees with two or more years of experience in the sport industry. This challenges the view that entry-level positions in sport often involve working unsociable hours and frequently entail heavy competition (Emery, Crabtree, & Kerr, 2012). What becomes evident, however, is that once individuals have acquired some experience (i.e., more than one year at their position), they start becoming more obsessively passionate about their work (but the level of passion remains low); this is the case across both types of the organisations under examination. Employees who gain experience within the same organisation or in relation to a specific task (job title) are not more obsessively passionate than those who gain experience in different jobs and/or organisations. This is an encouraging finding for the field of sport, considering that previous studies have suggested that obsessive passion creates activity addiction (Stenseng, 2008) or emotional exhaustion (Lavigne et al., 2012).

At the same time, the level of harmonious passion does not differ significantly with the level of experience; in fact, it is actually greater for senior management compared to middle management employees. This is important since employees in sport organisations (of either type) seem to demonstrate a harmonious passion throughout their career. This echoes what person-environment fit literature advocates (e.g., Edwards, 2008; Kristof, 1996), that an individual's passion is attained through finding a fit with the right work. As Chen, Ellsworth and Schwarz (2015) showed, however, passion for work can be also cultivated over time in any profession, thereby developing it through mastery rather than expecting it from the outset. Identifying which one of the two processes (i.e., finding a fit versus developing it)

occur in the context of sport would partially explain the increasing desire of young people for sport industry employment (Sibson, 2010).

Practical implications

This study has several implications for practice. First, the key finding that team sport organisations yield a high level of harmonious passion and a low level of obsessive passion clearly indicates that the particular working environment attracts and/or facilitates employees to experience a positive work–life balance and a voluntary internalization of the job, while obsessive passion is somehow mitigated. The reality is that team sport organisations exist and operate in a highly dynamic and complex environment with a range of pressures and external contingencies attached to job tasks. This may indicate that further nurturing the employees' harmonious passion for their job (especially after some years of experience in the sport industry) is a challenge in itself. Previous research suggests that empowering employees to work autonomously, redesigning the job to be more meaningful and inspiring, and providing feedback can contribute to how employees valuate their job and become passionate (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003). An equally effective way could be to introduce mentoring and continuing professional development (CPD) schemes, delivered by employees who are experienced and – crucially – harmoniously passionate (Thorgren et al., 2013). The underlying message of such schemes could perhaps be drawn on sport-focused analogies that stretch the importance of notions such as harmony, balance, and team spirit, but also underscore the importance of playing for the love of the game, regardless of what spectators may say afterwards about individual performances (that is, ignoring outcomes and the rewards attached to them).

Another implication for practice can be drawn directly from the confirmation of the dualistic model of passion in the sport organisational environment. Given that passion and

motivation for work are two differentiated theoretical concepts that have significant affective, cognitive, and behavioural effects, sport managers – especially those involved in human resource practices – should seriously consider incorporating the concept of passion in the recruitment and selection procedures of new employees. The empirical findings offered strong evidence that practitioners can use the particular dualistic passion measure as a valid and reliable evaluation tool for identifying potential harmonious and/or obsessive passionate employees. Considering that obsessive passion is often associated with negative cognitive consequences, screening employees in early stages can help to create and maintain a workforce with a high level of harmonious passion. This is especially important for charitable sport organisations, which are asked to excel towards both social and business-related objectives (Anagnostopoulos et al., 2014), despite their arguable shortage of resources, including personnel (Bingham & Walters, 2013). Therefore, managers need to be more "frugal and wise with their decisions as they seek to recruit, foster and retain qualified and motivated personnel" (Zigarmi et al., 2009, p. 301), an attitude that it is hoped will help them perform the tasks for which they have been assigned responsibility with harmonious passion.

Limitations and future research

The present research has some limitations that offer avenues for future research. First, our inferences could be affected by the geographical context in which the study was carried out. Football clubs in the UK, not least their established charitable foundations, are becoming increasingly professionalized and commercialized, which means that the present findings are not necessarily generalizable to other organisations from different sport, or even from other countries and/or continents. Consequently, the current set of results needs further replication and validation with different samples (perhaps less-popular sport) across different

geographical settings (such as North America or Australasia) in order to achieve greater generalizability and confidence in the findings.

Another limitation pertains to our partial assessment of passion within the workplace setting of team sport organisations. This is because the exploratory nature of this study did not make it possible to establish any sort of causality between other job-related constructs. To this end, further research could investigate whether the slightly higher level of harmonious passion shown, for example, by charitable foundation staff is also related to a high level of commitment and/or identification to the organisation. In other words, would an individual show different level and/or different type of passion (harmonious/obsessive) doing the same job in another organisation (that is, passion for the job itself and passion for the job in that organisation). As such, further research could investigate whether team sport organisation employees are passionate fans (and what type of passion they demonstrate) of the team for which they are working and if any transfer of passion is occurring (that is, towards a dual passion). It would also be useful to examine whether passion and CPD have an effect on work satisfaction in the organisational setting of sport organisations, considering that performance (an organisation-centred construct) and satisfaction (an employee-centred construct) can both offer a sound picture of outcomes in the workplace.

There are also limitations at the methodological level. Specifically, the passion scale was operationalized in compliance with Vallerand et al. (2003) who suggest a Likert type scale asking the respondents to state their degree of agreement in predefined statements. This process allows for cross-sectional analysis in order to compare respondents' level of passion, but might have restricted any nuanced responses. A qualitative in nature and longitudinal study can offer a richer account of how passion unfolds over time, its antecedents and the contextual factors that may have a bearing on the type of passion experienced by employees in team sport organisations.

Conclusion

The central purpose of this study was to examine the construct *passion* in the context of team sport organisations. Therefore, this is the first sport management study to empirically show that passion exists amongst administrative personnel. In fact, employees within team sport organisations demonstrate high levels of harmonious passion and low levels of obsessive passion, and do so throughout their career and irrespective of their job portfolios and work-related agendas. Interestingly, however, employees who engage with community and outreach-related tasks demonstrate even higher (albeit slightly) levels of harmonious passion. This is further testimony to how the magnitude and power of sport, and football in particular, can impact not just on the community programs' beneficiaries, but also on the agents responsible for delivering such related job-tasks. Additional research is greatly needed in order to better understand the intricacies underlying the role of passion in sport professionals. We hope that the present study helps to provide a foundation that will facilitate just that.

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Table 1: Profile of the Respondents (*N*=229)

	Clubs (N=103)		Foundations (N=126)		Total Sample	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Gender						
Male	85	82.5	98	77.8	183	79.9
Female	18	17.5	28	22.2	46	20.1
Age						
Under 30 years of age	52	50.5	42	33.3	94	41.0
31 to 45	34	33.0	57	45.2	91	39.7
46 and up	17	16.5	27	21.4	44	19.2
Education						
GCSEs or Standard Grade	8	7.8	11	8.7	19	8.3
A-Levels or Advanced Highers	16	15.5	27	21.4	43	18.8
Undergraduate degree	55	53.4	67	53.2	122	53.3
Postgraduate degree	24	23.3	21	16.7	45	19.7
Size of sport organisation						
Up to 20 members of staff	9	8.7	85	67.5	94	41.0
21- 50	29	28.2	41	32.5	70	30.6
51 and up	65	63.1	0	0.0	65	28.4
Position in the organisation						
Senior Managers	9	8.7	40	31.7	49	21.4
Middle managers	94	91.3	86	68.3	180	78.6
Length of experience in the current position						
Up to one year	45	43.7	34	27.0	79	34.5
2 – 5 years	34	33.0	57	45.2	91	39.7
6 years and up	24	23.3	35	27.8	59	25.8
Length of experience in the same organisation						
Up to one year	43	41.7	25	19.8	68	29.7
2 – 5 years	29	28.2	51	40.5	80	34.9
6 years and up	31	30.1	50	39.7	81	35.4
Length of experience in the sport industry						
Up to one year	15	14.6	4	3.2	19	8.3
2 – 5 years	35	34.0	22	17.5	57	24.9
6 years and up	53	51.5	100	79.4	153	66.8

Table 2: Fit Indexes for Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the dualistic passion model (N=229)

Fit indexes	χ^2/df	CFI	GFI	IFI	RMSEA
Original 2-factor model (12 items)	3.45	.77	.87	.77	.10
1-factor model (8 items)	6.32	.48	.76	.49	.15
Revised 2-factor model (8 items)	1.41	.97	.98	.98	.04
Revised 2 factor-model (Foundations)	1.74	.92	.94	.93	.07
Revised 2 factor-model (Clubs)	1.12	.98	.96	.98	.03

Table 3: Path coefficients for the revised dualistic passion model for the total sample and the two sub-groups (N=229)

	Factor Loadings*		
	Total Sample (N=229)	Clubs (N=103)	Foundations (N=126)
Harmonious passion			
The new things that I discover with this job allow me to appreciate it even more	.57	.64	.50
This job reflects the qualities I like about myself	.63	.54	.67
This job allows me to live a variety of experiences	.63	.47	.77
My job is well integrated in my life	.40	.37	.43
Obsessive passion			
I have almost an obsessive feeling for this job	.78	.89	.58
This job is the only thing that really excites me	.41	.35	.47
This job is so exciting that I sometimes lose control over it	.51	.33	.73
I am emotionally dependent on this job	.55	.41	.47

*Note. *Factor loading significant at p<.05 or higher.*

Table 4: Results from One-Way analysis of variance (N=229)

	Harmonious Passion	**Obsessive Passion**
	Type of sport organisation	
Football Clubs	3.89 (.49)	2.13 (.72)
Football Foundations	4.07 (.49)	2.45 (.69)
	*t(227)=-2.63, p=.009***	*t(227)=-3.44, p=.001***
	Gender	
Male	3.98 (.50)	2.28 (.68)
Female	4.03 (.50)	2.41 (.87)
	t(227)=-.68, p=.50	*t(227)=-1.1, p=.28*
	Age	
Under 30 years of age	3.99 (.50)	2.23 (.75)
31 to 45	3.97 (.52)	2.46 (.67)
46 and up	4.03 (.47)	2.14 (.71)
	F(2,227)=.27 p=.77	*F(2,227)=3.73 p=.03**
	Education	
GCSEs or Standard Grade	3.74 (.37)	2.16 (.68)
A-Levels or Advanced Highers	4.14 (.45)	2.30 (.73)
Undergraduate degree	3.98 (.50)	2.34 (.76)
Postgraduate degree	3.99 (.56)	2.26 (.64)
	*F(2,227)=3.03 p=.03**	*F(2,227)=.44 p=.73*
	Size of sport organisation	
Up to 20 members of staff	4.03 (.49)	2.42 (.74)
21- 50	4.04 (.49)	2.25 (.70)
51 and up	3.88 (.52)	2.19 (.71)
	F(2,227)=2.12 p=.12	*F (2,227)=2.21 p=.11*
	Position in the Organisation	
Senior managers	4.13 (.50)	2.45 (.76)
Middle managers	3.95 (.49)	2.26 (.71)
	*t(227)=-2.31 p=.02**	*t(227)=-1.65 p=.10*
	Years of experience in the current position	
Up to 1 year	4.01 (.50)	2.25 (.78)
2 – 5 years	3.95 (.48)	2.34 (.73)
6 and up	4.01 (.54)	2.32 (.64)
	F(2,227)=.36 p=.70	*F (2,227)=.38 p=.68*
	Years of experience in the sport organisation	
Up to 1 year	3.96 (.50)	2.24 (.82)
2 – 5 years	3.98 (.45)	2.33 (.71)
6 and up	4.02 (.54)	2.34 (.65)
	F(2,227)=.37 p=.69	*F (2,227)=.43 p=.65*
	Years of experience in the sport industry	
Up to 1 year	4.05 (.44)	1.82 (.63)
2 – 5 years	3.97 (.47)	2.42 (.78)
6 and up	3.97 (.52)	2.32 (.69)
	F(2,227)=.20 p=.82	*F (2,227)=5.32 p=.006***