

IMPACT OF DONOR MOTIVATION AND PERCEIVED RELATIONSHIP QUALITY ON
DONOR BEHAVIOR IN PROFESSIONAL SPORT NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS

by

MINHONG KIM

(Under the Direction of James J. Zhang)

ABSTRACT

Although our society continuously evolves, numerous social and environmental issues remain to be resolved. To address such issues, nonprofit organizations have emerged, and professional sport entities are no exception. By hosting a variety of community outreach programs and/or raising funds through their own charitable foundations, sport entities have become highly engaged with social and environmental issues – not only for their local communities but also for the public good. However, given the increasing number of nonprofit organizations in professional sport and the limited amount of financial resources, a critical question for such organizations is how to maintain current donor involvement and eventually guarantee future contributions from potential donors. Even so, researchers have provided limited information on what factors motivate people to make donations specific to the nonprofit organizations that are connected to professional sport teams and athletes. Therefore, this study explored the underlying motivational factors that channel donor behavior by developing an instrument for application in the professional sport setting. In addition, the current study sought to examine the influence of relationship quality on donor behavior in accordance with the impact of donor motivation.

Through the instrument development process, three distinctive professional sport donor motivation factors emerged (i.e., fan identification, community support, and charity image) with the measurement showing good psychometric properties in regard to reliability and validity. The results revealed that three motivational factors positively influence donor behavior while the overall measure of professional sport donor motivation did not predict donor behavior well. The results also indicated that both the relationship quality of nonprofit staff members and that of professional athletes had significant effects on donor behavioral loyalty (i.e., future donation intention and positive word-of-mouth) while the influence of nonprofit staff members' relationship quality was slightly stronger than athletes' relationship quality. The findings of this study generally support the hypotheses and extend the current donor behavior literature. The discussion offers implications for nonprofit managers within the sport industry and academicians pursuing research in the sport philanthropy area, and future research recommendations are suggested.

INDEX WORDS: Professional Sport, Nonprofit Organization, Donor Motivation, Relationship Quality, Donor Behavior, Scale Development

IMPACT OF DONOR MOTIVATION AND PERCEIVED RELATIONSHIP QUALITY ON
DONOR BEHAVIOR IN PROFESSIONAL SPORT NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS

by

MINHONG KIM

B.S., Yonsei University, Republic of Korea, 2008

M.S., The University of Florida, 2011

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2016

© 2016

Minhong Kim

All Rights Reserved

IMPACT OF DONOR MOTIVATION AND PERCEIVED RELATIONSHIP QUALITY ON
DONOR BEHAVIOR IN PROFESSIONAL SPORT NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS

by

MINHONG KIM

Major Professor:	James J. Zhang
Committee:	Zhenqiu (Laura) Lu
	Billy J. Hawkins
	Becca Leopkey

Electronic Version Approved:

Suzanne Barbour
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
August 2016

To my family

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would first like to extend my sincerest gratitude to my major professor, Dr. James J. Zhang, for his endless support, guidance, and mentoring during this journey. Without his help, encouragement, and insight, I would not have been able to complete my courses of study and dissertation. I am very grateful and honored for the opportunity to work and study under his guidance. I would like to extend thanks also to my committee members, Drs. Zhenqiu (Laura) Lu, Billy Hawkins, and Becca Leopkey, for their great guidance, assistance, and contribution during the course of this dissertation. I truly feel fortunate to work with and learn from you. Further, very large and sincere thanks go to the faculty, staff, and colleagues of the Department of Kinesiology at UGA for their assistance and encouragement during this arduous process.

Finally, I would like to extend my greatest appreciation to my family, especially my parents and parents-in-law, for their endless support and sacrifices. Most importantly, I deeply thank my beautiful and lovely wife, Namhee Lee, and my precious son, Jayden J. Kim, for their endless love and support. Thanks to your unselfish sacrifice and tireless support, I would have been able to complete this rigorous and not always enjoyable process.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of Problem.....	3
Purpose of Study	9
Research Hypotheses	10
Research Delimitations	10
Significance of Study.....	11
Definitions of Terms	11
2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE	15
Helping Behavior	16
Donor Motivation.....	25
Relationship Quality	33
3 METHOD	41
Phase 1: Development of Instrument.....	41
Phase 2: Examining Structural Relationships among Variables.....	47
4 RESULTS	56

Phase 1 Results	56
Phase 2 Results	61
5 DISCUSSION	87
Measurement Properties.....	88
Hypotheses Testing	92
Implications.....	97
Limitations	99
Future Research	99
Conclusion	100
REFERENCES	102

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 4.1: Demographic characteristics of participants.....	68
Table 4.2: Descriptive statistics for professional donor motivation	69
Table 4.3: Factor pattern matrix for the professional sport donor motivation variables: maximum likelihood extraction with varimax rotation.....	71
Table 4.4: Model fit comparison between the three-factor model with 31 items and three-factor model with 22 items of professional sport donor motivation	73
Table 4.5: Summary result for reliability and validity assessments for phase 1.....	74
Table 4.6: Correlation matrix for three-factor model	75
Table 4.7: Descriptive statistics for professional donor motivation, relationship quality of nonprofit staff members, relationship quality of athletes, word-of-mouth, and future intention	76
Table 4.8: Summary result for reliability and validity assessments for phase 2.....	80
Table 4.9: Correlation matrix for seven factors of fan identification, community support, charity image, perceived relationship quality of nonprofit staff members, perceived relationship quality of athletes, word-of-mouth, and future intention.....	82

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1.1: Theoretical framework	14
Figure 4.1: Hypothesized structural model	83
Figure 4.2: Alternative model with the first-ordered professional sport donor motivation.....	84
Figure 4.3: Alternative model with the first-ordered perceived relationship quality	85
Figure 4.4: Direct effect model with the first-ordered donor behavior outcomes	86

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The nonprofit sector plays a huge role in the U.S. economy. Indeed, according to the National Center for Charitable Statistics (2015), close to 1.6 million nonprofit organizations are registered with the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) under Section 501(c)(3) of the tax code. These nonprofit organizations contributed more than \$900 billion, equivalent to 5.4 percent of the country's gross domestic product (GDP), to the U.S. economy in 2013 with \$2.26 trillion in revenues, \$5.17 trillion in assets, and \$2.10 trillion in expenses (McKeever, 2015). Unlike their counterpart (i.e., for-profit organizations), nonprofit organizations use and allocate their revenues and profits to accomplish their mission. These nonprofit organizations exist to fulfill their mission with their financial resources, while for-profit organizations' main focuses are making revenues and profits and eventually enriching their owners and shareholders or stockholders.

According to the Internal Revenue Code, more than 30 types of tax-exempt nonprofit organizations exist. Among various types of tax-exempt nonprofit organizations, public charities constitute the largest portion (more than 1 million out of 1.6 million nonprofit organizations) of the sector, including arts, culture (e.g., museums and theaters), education organizations (i.e., schools), health care organizations (e.g., hospitals and clinics), human service organizations, and other types of organizations that receive tax-deductible donations from donors (Tschirhart & Bielefeld, 2012). In addition, more than 100,000 private foundations have raised funds and disbursed grants to support their cause of interest. Although these two types of nonprofit organizations operate to achieve and fulfill their missions (e.g., providing relief to people in

need, improving their communities, etc.), public charities rely heavily on broad public support (i.e., contribution from donors), whereas private foundations receive most of their grants or funds from a single (i.e., founder) or a small number of sources (i.e., family, corporations, or other foundations).

Following the philanthropic movements, more than 1100 nonprofit organizations related to or represented by professional sport leagues, teams, and/or athletes have participated in various philanthropic activities (Lee, Heinze, Babiak, & Juravich, 2011). The rise of corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives in general business has stimulated the inception of CSR activities in sport; in turn, the majority of sport entities (leagues, teams, and even professional athletes and coaches) followed suit. For example, from the mid-nineteenth century, professional sport teams rolled up their sleeves to help people in need—starting from the Boston Red Sox, which announced the Jimmy Fund as its official charity in 1953; the National Football League (NFL) initiated the first league-level nonprofit organization (NFL Charities) in 1973; the National Hockey League's (NHL) Hockey Fights Cancer initiative in 1998, the National Basketball Association's (NBA) philanthropic initiative, NBA Cares, in 2005, and so on (Sports Philanthropy Project, 2009).

Not only the professional sport leagues, but almost all professional sport teams are actively involved in resolving social issues through a host of public and private charitable organizations. For instance, the Atlanta Hawks, a team in the NBA, attempts to help the city of Atlanta's youth population improve their lives through their own foundation (i.e., Atlanta Hawks Foundation) and other community outreach programs. The Silver & Black Give Back, formerly the Spurs Foundation initiated by the San Antonio Spurs, is also actively engaged with its community to improve youth education, environment, health, and wellness. Further, professional

athletes are not an exception for various forms of philanthropy. As an example, the Livestrong Foundation, established by former professional road racing cyclist Lance Armstrong, raises and solicits funds by hosting various charity events, provides financial support to people of its interests, and disburses grants to numerous cancer research institutions and centers. Additionally, Tiger Woods, a professional golfer, founded his own foundation and is now actively supporting the underserved youth population to enhance their education and health by providing scholarships and creating its own learning centers. Such humanitarian movements are only several examples of numerous environmental, educational, medical, and philanthropic programs/initiatives of professional sport teams and athletes.

Statement of Problem

While there is a growing interest in the sport management literature regarding socially responsible initiatives of professional sport entities, limited research has been conducted to explore how these entities effectively and efficiently function, how effectively they are managed, and/or how they influence people's perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, behaviors, and even future behavioral intentions. Among numerous professional sport charitable nonprofit organizations, some are quite successful in generating revenue and disbursing grants for their cause of interests. For example, the Tiger Woods Foundation, Andre Agassi Foundation, and Lance Armstrong (Livestrong) Foundation would be the most successful nonprofits in professional athlete-related nonprofits in terms of total estimated revenues, which recently reported \$75.6 million, \$82.2 million, and \$103.4 million, respectively (Charitynavigator.com, 2013). In addition, professional sport team-related nonprofits, such as the Boston Red Sox Foundation, Memphis Grizzlies Foundation, San Antonio Spurs Foundation, New England Patriots Charitable Fund, etc., reported more than \$1.5 million for achieving their missions (McGowan & Mahon, 2009;

Sparvero & Kent, 2014). However, when compared with non-sport counterparts, most nonprofit organizations in sport are financially struggling. It is notable that many professional sport-related charitable organizations have a limited amount of operational budget, which eventually might cause financial problems for effective charity operations and management (Kim & Zhang, 2016).

In terms of nonprofit management and operation, a majority of nonprofits related to professional sport teams and athletes are classified as public charities, while some others are private foundations (Kim & Zhang, 2016; Sparvero & Kent, 2014). As noted, public charities generally rely heavily on contributions and support from a large donor base, while private foundations usually have a few major donors, and they are generally individuals or founders of the nonprofits, family members; however, in the professional sport setting, they would be franchise owners and/or players. Because most professional sport-related nonprofits are classified as public charities that require huge support from their donors, their donors typically play critical roles in such nonprofits' survival and success. However, it seems that professional sport-team-level nonprofit organizations are utilizing their charity programs as promotional tools rather than managing them as they are supposed to be. This point was evidenced by previous research stating that:

...some sport team nonprofits are not really concerned with financial efficiency and may exist for PR purposes...these sport nonprofits would find it challenging to attract donors sufficient to support their mission without the excitement, commitment, and media resources associated with team sports (Sparvero & Kent, 2014, p. 112).

In addition, another study conducted by Kim and Zhang (2016) confirmed that many professional sport nonprofit organizations showed low charity program efficiency and effectiveness, indicating that such organizations were not utilizing their resources to raise funds

from individual donors; rather they were relying heavily on contributions from the owners of professional teams or professional athletes without putting sufficient fundraising effort into increasing individual donors' involvement and commitment.

From the nonprofit organizations' perspective, professional sport franchise owners and/or professional athletes who founded nonprofit organizations would be the major stakeholders as they are the ones who oversee, control, and manage charity operations and management, and provide a large portion of funds for achieving missions and objectives (Kim & Zhang, 2016). However, such organizations do possess other critical stakeholder groups for their survival and success, including but not limited to individual and corporate donors, staff members, fans, local communities, government agencies, sponsors, local charities, and beneficiaries among others. Indeed, Kim and Zhang (2016) confirmed that one of the most important stakeholder groups for professional sport nonprofits would be donors. Even when donors do not always call for urgent claims or immediate attentions, donors act as one of the most important stakeholder groups to the nonprofit organizations because donors possess utilitarian and normative power as well as legitimate rights to influence the nonprofit organization. Intuitively, without the monetary support from donors, a nonprofit organization cannot successfully achieve its mission and even cannot survive. Therefore, due to a critical role of donors in the nonprofit setting, better understanding donors' primary motives would be the first step for nonprofit managers to keep their donors involved, make them more committed, and ultimately raise more funds to achieve their missions.

For professional sport nonprofit organizations to continuously survive and thrive in competitive conditions and develop effective fundraising strategies and programs, understanding their donors' perceptions toward the nonprofit organizations and identifying the factors that

encourage people to donate more would be necessary. Nonetheless, the psychological motives of donors of professional sport nonprofits rarely have been investigated. Because the number of professional sports' nonprofits is continuously increasing, empirical evidence derived from research investigations is necessary to formulate viable procedures to effectively promote current donor involvement and attract new donors.

Although researchers have addressed donor perceptions, motivations, and behaviors in various sport contexts (e.g., Filo, Funk, & O'Brien, 2008; Gladden, Mahony, & Apostolopoulou, 2005; Leslie & Ramey, 1988; Mahony, Gladden, & Funk, 2003), especially for college athletics (Billing, Holt, & Smith, 1985; Mahony et al., 2003; Staurowsky, Parkhouse, & Sachs, 1996; Verner, Hecht, & Fansler, 1998), participants' motivations to take part in charity sport events (Filo et al., 2008; Filo, Funk, & O'Brien, 2009, 2011; Won & Park, 2010), sport tourism (Coghlan & Filo, 2013; Snelgrove & Wood, 2010), and corporate social responsibility initiatives in the professional sport industry (Babiak, Mills, Tainsky, & Juravich, 2012; Kent & Walker, 2010; Sheth & Babiak, 2010; Tainsky & Babiak, 2011), previous research findings might not fully explain donor motivation related to nonprofit organizations that are represented by professional sport teams, leagues, or athletes. While some factors derived in previous studies might be adaptable to professional sport settings, considering the different characteristics of professional sport teams or athletes (e.g., highly commercial, higher level of community visibility, high media coverage, and presence of individual athletes' foundations) when compared with college athletics, different motives might affect people's intention to participate in charitable programs of professional sport entities.

Indeed, Kim and Zhang (2016) qualitatively explored why people make monetary contributions to nonprofit organizations that are represented or initiated by professional sport

entities. By analyzing the qualitative data from professional sport nonprofit managers and actual donors of professional sport nonprofits, they identified unique donor motivational factors, including fan identification, awareness of needs/causes, personal cause involvement, charity image and reputation, community support, perceived nonprofit effectiveness, and altruistic reasons. Although the study shed light on better understanding professional sport donor motivation, the researchers did not attempt to develop an instrument to empirically measure actual donors' motivation and to verify how well such motivational factors actually explain donor behaviors. Accordingly, there still remains a growing need to better understand the underlying dynamics that channel donor behavior to the nonprofit organizations in the professional sport setting.

Another logical way to raise more funds and increase donor commitment would be to strengthen the relationship quality of an organization with its donors. In the marketing literature, the importance of personal interactions has been drawing considerable attention in terms of customer relationships, which ultimately influences a corporate's performance outcomes such as sales, market share, and profits (Crosby, Evans, & Cowles, 1990; Morgan & Hunt, 1994) and customer satisfaction (Crosby & Stephens, 1987; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). Similarly, researchers and practitioners in the nonprofit area have long regarded "friendraising" as an essential component of any fundraising effort (Weinstein, 2009). Fundraisers attempt to nurture relationships with donors because such relationships make people more involved, which, in turn, lead them to be more committed.

Findings of previous studies have confirmed that relationship quality of a nonprofit organization led to positive donor behavioral outcomes (Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005; Brennan & Brady, 1999; Sargeant, 2001). For example, Shabbir, Palihawadana, and Thwaites (2007) found

that donor-perceived relationship quality positively influenced donor-related outcomes such as donor loyalty and positive word-of-mouth communications. Some nonprofit sector organizations have adopted a relationship marketing perspective for fundraising activities and strategies by using a term “relationship fundraising” (Burnett, 2002; Sargeant, 2001; Sargeant & Jay, 2004). These previous studies highlighted the importance of donor-perceived relationship quality, which ultimately influences donor loyalty and behavioral outcomes.

Based on previous findings, it can be logically speculated that there is a strong connection between relationship quality and positive donor behavioral outcomes of nonprofit organizations in professional sports, including positive word-of-mouth and future intentions to keep making donations to the nonprofit organization. Nevertheless, only a limited number of studies have been conducted to examine the influence of relationship quality of nonprofit organizations in the professional sport setting. As professional sport nonprofit organizations provide various charity events, activities, and programs involving star players, donors who participate in such events have a chance to meet and interact with such high-profile figures. In turn, due in part to the unique conditions and situations, the relationship quality of athlete(s) who engaged with fundraising events or charity programs would have a higher chance to influence donor behavior along with the relationship quality of staff members who organize such events.

Considering the previous research analyzing the effect of perceived relationship quality, we could carefully surmise that donors’ perceived relationship quality factors would serve as extrinsic motivational factors, which eventually help to build long-term relationships with donors and ultimately foster donor commitment and involvement. Although donor motivational factors are intrinsic to donors’ decision-making processes, perceived relationship quality factors are external, as they are dictated by the interpersonal relational quality or characteristics/traits of

nonprofit managers as well as professional athlete(s). Thus, donors' perceived relationship quality of professional nonprofit organizations would be parallel to their motivational factors, and, in turn, such two factors would ultimately influence donor behaviors.

Further, as some researchers have suggested (Knox & Gruar, 2007; Kotler & Armstrong, 1999), the concept of relationship quality and an effective stakeholder management could be integrated to make stronger connections between an organization and its various stakeholders. As stakeholder management focuses on identifying direct and/or indirect stakeholders who are critical to an organization's survival and how to manage them while the concept of relationship quality highlights enhancing relationships between an organization and its important stakeholders, these two concepts are contributive each other in regards to providing useful insights to better understand underlying dynamics in donor decision-making processes. In addition, by enhancing and strengthening the relationship quality, the professional nonprofit organizations would be more likely to effectively and efficiently manage relationships with their donors and eventually foster donors' continuous contributions.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is twofold: (a) to develop an instrument for measuring donor motivations in the professional sport setting and to identify the likely multifaceted perspectives that cause and channel donor behavior and (b) to examine the influence of donors' motivations and relationship quality on donor behavior. A quantitative research design was employed in order to develop a theoretically sound instrument to measure professional sport donor motivation, examine the psychometric properties of the instrument, verify the utility of the instrument, and explore the relationships among donor motivation, relationship quality, and donor behavior. Specifically, Churchill's (1979) suggested procedure was adapted and modified

to develop an instrument to measure professional sport donor motivation, and structural equation modeling was conducted to examine the structural relationships among donor motivation, relationship quality, and donor behavior (i.e., word-of-mouth and future intention). Figure 1.1 provides a theoretical framework of the current study.

Research Hypotheses

The following are research hypotheses in this study:

1. Professional sport donor motivational factors will positively influence donor behavior (i.e., word-of-mouth and future intention).
2. Donors' perceived relationship quality of professional sport nonprofit organizations will positively influence donor behavior (i.e., word-of-mouth and future intention).
- 2a. Donors' perceived relationship quality of professional athlete(s) will positively influence donor behavior (i.e., word-of-mouth and future intention).
- 2b. Donors' perceived relationship quality of nonprofit managers will positively influence donor behavior (i.e., word-of-mouth and future intention).

Research Delimitations

1. This study focused on donors of professional sport nonprofit organizations.
2. This study involved professional sport nonprofit organizations that are initiated by professional sport team or professional athlete or partnered with professional sport entities.
3. This study used actual donors as a sample using snowballing technique and online survey provider (i.e., Mechanical Turk from Amazon).

4. This is a study aiming to identify common motivational factors of professional sport donors—not to differentiate their motivational factors based on the level of sport entity.

Significance of Study

Identifying related theoretical contexts based on previous research findings and developing a framework for inquiry into professional sport donors would be the first step to enhance studies on donor behaviors in the professional sport setting. In particular, because no instrument is currently available to capture professional sport donor motivations, development of such measure would provide researchers with an assessment tool to further the studies and also help practitioners to better understand the various motivation perspectives of professional sport donors so as to plan and implement effective strategies and procedures to raise more funds and promote the mission of these nonprofit organizations. Further, given the limited understanding of how the relationship quality of professional sport nonprofit organizations influences donor behavior, this developed theoretical framework would help academicians further verify the relevance and importance of the relationship quality of nonprofit organizations in sports. Further, it will help practitioners to develop campaigns that effectively appeal to current and potential professional sport donors and strengthen the relationships with their donors, which would ultimately enhance donor involvement and commitment.

Definitions of Terms

1. Professional sport nonprofit organization: nonprofit organization (i.e., charity or charitable organization), which is registered with the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) under Section 501(c)(3) of the tax code and initiated by, represented by, or partnered with professional sport entities (i.e., leagues, teams, and/or athletes).

2. Motivation: “a conscious experience or subconscious condition, which serves as a factor determining an individual’s behavior or social conduct in a situation” (Alderson, 1955, p. 6)
3. Donor Motivation: a donor’s conscious or subconscious reason, desire, or willingness to make a monetary contribution to a nonprofit organization
4. Fan Identification: one’s feeling or sense of attachment toward a professional athlete or team (Branscombe & Wann, 1991)
5. Community Support: helping or supporting any social issues of a donor’s local community.
6. Charity Image: a donor’s familiarity (e.g., mere perception, general awareness, knowledge, belief, or feelings) with a nonprofit organization and his/her perceived effectiveness and/or success (e.g., how well the organization operates or is managed) of the nonprofit organization (Bendapudi, Singh, & Bendapudi, 1996).
7. Relationship Quality: “overall assessment of the strength of a relationship, conceptualized as a composite or multidimensional construct capturing the different but related facets of a relationship” (Palmatier, Dant, Grewal, & Evans 2006, p. 138). Building on Palmatier et al.’s (2006) definition, relationship quality is described as interpersonal characteristics/traits that help strengthening, fostering, and/or nurturing relationships with others.
8. Trustworthiness: a confident belief that a person can be relied upon (Crosby et al., 1990).
9. Commitment: an individual’s interpersonal characteristic or trait of being dedicated or devoted to nurturing relationship.

10. Sympathy: understanding and sharing feelings, thoughts, and/or emotions of others who are suffering.
11. Friendliness: being helpful, kind, and friendly to other people.
12. Word-of-Mouth: an informal communication about experience, evaluation, and recommendation of goods or services with others (Anderson, 1998).

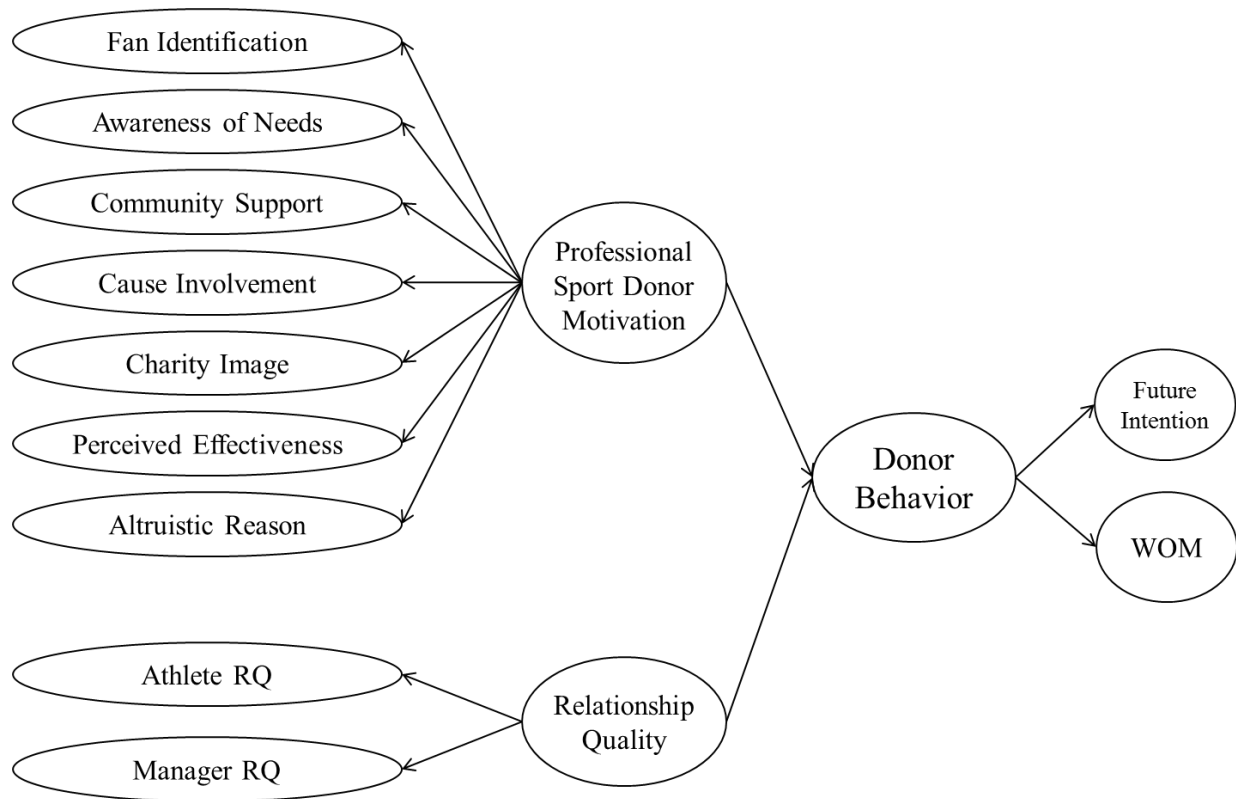


Figure 1.1. Theoretical framework

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Although our society continuously evolves, there still remain numerous social and environmental issues, i.e., poverty, educational inequality, social inequality, diseases or health issues, various types of pollution, etc. For this reason, numerous nonprofit organizations have emerged, which are actively involved with various causes to resolve such issues, and professional sport entities are no exception. By hosting a variety of community outreach programs and/or raising funds through their own charitable foundations, they have become highly engaged with social and environmental issues – not only for their local communities but also for the public good. Due to the congruence between their high profile status and the significant media attention of serious social and environmental issues, professional sport entities have better chances to foster solicitation efforts from the general public on behalf of their chosen beneficiaries. This literature review section discusses the overview of helping behavior in various disciplines. Specifically, starting with the discussion of helping attitudes, attitudes toward helping behavior and charitable organizations and attitude toward charitable giving are followed. In addition, the concept of relationship quality was examined within the business, nonprofit, and sport management literature, while elaborating upon two important subconcepts, including trust and commitment. Finally, stakeholder theory is briefly explored, as the idea of stakeholder management is clearly tied to relationship marketing as well as relationship fundraising.

Helping Behavior

Helping behavior is generally defined as “behavior that enhances the welfare of a needy other, by providing aid or benefit, usually with little or no commensurate reward in return” (Bendapudi et al., 1996, p.34). People help others by donating money to nonprofit organizations or by donating their time to causes of their interests – or both. They financially support nonprofit organizations that help to resolve social and environmental issues on behalf of their direct involvement; they also physically provide assistance using their talents and skills by volunteering for various causes. Increasing the number of nonprofit organizations, increasing the amount of monetary contributions from individuals, and increasing the time spent on volunteering activities indicate that helping behavior; thus, a part of our lives and such phenomenon possess huge economic and social impacts (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2015).

In turn, numerous scholars from various disciplines have attempted to better understand why people choose to support certain nonprofit organizations over others and how they make decisions to help others financially and physically. Many scholars from the economics, clinical psychology, social psychology, anthropology, sociology, and even mainstream business literature have attempted to solve the issue of why people decide to provide monetary contributions as well as their time volunteering (Clary et al., 1998; Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007). In particular, after Burnett and Wood (1988), Guy and Patton (1989), and Bendapudi et al.’s (1996) seminal works, numerous scholars have follow the suit to examine helping behavior in terms of helping attitude (De Cremer & Van Lange, 2001; Nickell, 1998; Reizer & Mikulincer, 2007), attitude toward helping behavior (Bekkers, 2007; Krueger, Hicks, & McGue, 2001; Webb, Green, & Brashear, 2000), attitude toward charitable giving (Bennett, 2003; Furnham,

1995; Sargeant & Woodliffe, 2007), and attitude toward charitable organizations (Venable, Rose, Bush, & Gilbert, 2005; Webb et al., 2000).

Helping Attitude

The ideas of prosocial or helping tendencies have been a dominant issue among social psychologists who typically believe the possibility of an empirically measuring altruistic or helping personality (Batson, 1991) and its impact on people's prosocial behaviors. While the concept of altruistic behavior or altruism has been explored from early- or mid-nineteenth century, some scholars have taken further steps in order to better understand how personal characteristics or traits influence actual helping behavior (Romer, Gruder, & Lizzadro, 1986; Rushton, Chrisjohn, & Fekken, 1981). For instance, Rushton et al. (1981) introduced the concept of "altruistic personality," arguing that:

...some people are consistently more generous, helping and kind than others.

Furthermore, such people are readily perceived as more altruistic, as is demonstrated by several studies showing positive relationships between behavioral altruism and peers' and teachers' ratings of how altruistic a person seems. (p. 296)

Through a series of investigations, the authors developed the self-report altruism (SRA) scale as a self-report format with 20 items and found a positive relationship between altruistic traits and the frequency of helping behaviors.

By applying Ribal's (1963) helping-orientation model, Romer et al. (1986) also conducted a study that attempted to explore how helping orientations, which is related to personality and motives, along with social situation affect helping behavior. Specifically, the researchers tried to predict person-situation interactions by distinguishing personal motives into true altruistic motives (i.e., helping others without any expectations to receive compensation) and

selfish motive (i.e., helping others with desire to receive compensation in return) and based on the different helping situations; thus, when the requester offered compensation versus when requester did not. As a result, the authors identified four ideal helping-orientation types, including altruists, receptive givers, selfish persons, and inner-sustaining persons. Further, their results revealed different helping responses in relation to personality type (i.e., different motives) and compensations conditions (i.e., social situation) suggesting that altruists were most helpful when compensation for return was not expected whereas receptive givers were more likely to help others when compensation was expected.

Although these previous studies best represent the impact of personality traits on helping behavior, there exists a weakness in which identified altruistic traits and personal orientations did not take the complexity of cognitive and affective components in decision-making processes into account. This point was evidenced by Nickell (1998) who believed that an individual's altruistic or helping personality should be multidimensional, which consists of cognitive beliefs and affective feelings that eventually affect helping behavior. While he did not attempt to empirically test and validate how positive and negative helping attitudes influence actual helping behavior, he did validate the multidimensionality and complexity of helping attitudes.

In company with previous studies measuring helping attitudes, another line of research also has addressed and explored helping behavior by taking a different approach. Building on Messick and McClintock's (1968) original work of "rational self-interest," some scholars conceptualized the term "social value orientation," which is defined as follows:

...preferences for particular patterns of outcomes for the self and others and focuses on a three-category typology of (a) cooperation (i.e., maximizing outcomes for the self and others), (b) individualism (i.e., maximizing outcomes for the self with little or no regard

for others' outcomes), and (c) competition (i.e., maximizing relative advantage over others' outcomes. (Van Lange, 1999, p. 337)

In light of previous studies, many scholars have examined helping behavior by using the social value orientation concept (e.g., De Cremer & Van Lange, 2001; McClintock & Allison, 1989). As an example, De Cremer and Van Lange (2001) examined how individuals react to social responsibility (i.e., “reflecting people’s concern for both self and other’s interest, p. 9) and reciprocity (i.e., “people’s tendency to reward or punish their interaction partner according to what they deserve, p. 9) by dividing individuals into two groups; prosocials, who care about other’s gains or losses, and proselfs, who mainly care about maximizing their own gains. The authors found that prosocial individuals were more likely to have stronger feelings of social responsibility than people of proself, thus indicating that prosocials act more cooperatively. Additionally, the authors confirmed the relationship between reciprocity and a prosocial orientation by demonstrating the fact that “prosocials, relative to proselfs, expressed strong desire to restore equality in outcomes as they engaged more in behavioral assimilation” (p. 14).

In sum, previous research on helping attitude and social value orientation shed light on better explaining and understanding underlying dynamics of helping behavior. Indeed, studies of helping attitude helped build other lines of research, including attitude toward helping behavior, attitude toward charitable giving, and attitude toward charitable organizations while social value orientation research were found to be closely related to cooperative behavior in social dilemmas (e.g., Balliet, Parks, & Joireman, 2009), helping behavior (e.g., McClintock & Allison, 1989), donation behavior (Van Lange, Bekkers, Schuyt, & Van Vugt, 2007), and pro-environmental behavior (e.g., Van Vugt, Van Lange, & Meertens, 1996). However, such studies have put heavy emphasis on personal characteristics or personality traits, intrinsic values of individual rather

than considering external or situational factors, and extrinsic motivation or rewards at the same time. Further, several previously developed instruments were lacking predictive validity evidences, thus how well individuals' helping attitudes or social value orientations explain their actual behaviors, and they were shown to have low applicability in different cultural contexts (Nickell, 1998).

Attitudes Toward Helping Behavior and Charitable Organizations

Considering that altruism is a motivation or moral obligation benefiting others' welfare, social psychologists applied the concept of altruism, which is sometimes regarded as a part of an umbrella concept of prosocial behavior, in order to explore helping behavior. Although there were debates among scholars in regards to whether helping behavior is altruistic or egoistic, Batson and his colleagues (e.g., Batson & Coke, 1981; Coke, Batson, & McDavis, 1978), and Eisenberg and her colleagues (e.g., Eisenberg & Miller, 1987; Eisenberg et al., 1989) clearly differentiated altruistically and egoistically motivated prosocial behaviors. Eisenberg and Miller (1987) noted the following by summarizing works of Batson and his colleagues:

...because the altruist's goal is to reduce the other's and not his or her own distress, there is a psychological cost for not assisting, and little gain for the potential benefactor or helper in escaping the situation without helping. In contrast, if the motive for prosocial responding is primarily egoistic (i.e., to reduce feelings of personal distress), this goal can be achieved more easily by escaping the aversive stimulus than by helping, if escape is both possible and easy. (p. 92)

However, in the follow-up study of Batson and Shaw (1991), they suggested the possibility of simultaneous existence of altruistic and egoistic motives within an individual and sometimes the individual behaves without knowing his or her action is altruistic or egoistic. In

other words, an individual can possess altruistic and egoistic motives at the same time, but he or she makes actions depending heavily on his or her situations because people do not always behave solely relying on a single motive.

While there still is no unanimous agreement about the existence of true altruistic behavior, many scholars attempt to confirm the relationship between altruism and helping behavior by adapting different approaches or considering other situational, motivational, and/or cognitive factors (e.g., Bekkers, 2007; Berkowitz, 1972; Dovidio, 1984; Krueger et al., 2001; Rushton et al., 1981). For example, Krueger et al. (2001) examined the relationships among personality, altruism, and antisocial behavior (which is generally regarded as the opposite meaning of altruism). More specifically, the researchers investigated whether altruism and antisocial behavior can coexist within an individual, how personality traits are linked to altruistic and antisocial behavior, and etiological differences between altruistic and antisocial behaviors. As a result, they found independency between altruism and antisocial behavior, etiological differences between the two behaviors, as well as linkage between altruism and positive emotionality and between antisocial behavior and negative emotionality. In terms of an instrument to measure altruistic behavior, the researchers used Rushton et al.'s (1981) SRA scale and confirmed discriminant and convergent validity of measurement.

Recognizing the increased possibility of self-presentation effects on self-administered measurement of altruistic behavior, Bekkers (2007) used a different method to explore altruistic behavior. By modifying the dictator game, which is widely used in behavioral economics, along with using a survey method for predicting helping experiences, she found that only 5.7% of participants gave away their rewards to help others (i.e., made donations charitable causes) while a majority of them secured rewards in return for participation in the study. In addition, the results

of this study revealed positive influences of age, level of education, income level, trust, and prosocial value orientation on giving behavior. Although this study provided another possible direction to explore helping behavior and established construct and convergent validity of the dictator game, only a small portion of helping behavior was explained by the results, which could eventually cause issues of predictive validity as well as replicability or adaptability of study to other contexts.

In an effort to better understand helping behavior dynamics, some scholars have focused narrowly on monetary donation behaviors by applying marketing concepts. In the marketing literature, attitude is typically referred to as “global and relatively enduring evaluations of objects, issues or persons” (Petty, Unnava, & Strathman, 1991, p. 242) and is considered as an important predictor of an individual’s behavior, which is evidenced by Fishbein and Ajzen’s (1975) seminal work. Using attitude research as a theoretical foundation, Webb et al. (2000) defined attitude toward helping others (AHO) as “global and relatively enduring evaluations with regard to helping or assisting other people” (p. 300) and attitude toward a charitable organization (ACO) as “global and relatively enduring evaluations with regard to the NPOs that help individuals” (p. 300) and attempted to develop an instrument to better explain the relationship between attitudes and helping behavior.

The findings of the study revealed the positive linkage between AHO and donor behavior (i.e., financial support to charities with various causes) and between ACO and donor behavior. The researchers also identified clear differences between two types of attitudes in terms of giving behavior, thus suggesting that the magnitude of giving behavior was only explained by ACO. When it comes to the researcher’s newly created instrument to measure the two types of attitudes, their proposed two-factor model with a total of nine items (four for AHO and five for

ACO) demonstrated good reliability and validity estimates. More specifically, Cronbach's alpha scores ranged between .79 and .82, indicating high internal consistency of the measure, and the overall fit statistics also confirmed a very good fit of measurement model.

Although Webb et al. (2000) followed appropriate steps to develop an instrument, and it presented good reliability and validity evidences, a couple of important issues remain that must be addressed. First, considering the factor loadings for items measuring both AHO and ACO, low factor loadings of some items (two items measuring AHO and three items measuring ACO) clearly indicate that there is an issue of convergent validity. According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988), factor loadings should be equal to or greater than .707 in order for an instrument to satisfy convergent validity, suggesting that Webb et al.'s measurement did not meet the criteria of convergent validity. Further, items measuring ACO seemed that they are more related to perceived charity image and perceived success of charity operation rather than measuring attitude (e.g., "My image of charitable organizations is positive" and "Charitable organizations have been quite successful in helping the needy"). That is, there might be an issue of construct validity, especially when a multitrait-multimethod analysis is conducted with other instruments, measuring charity image or perceived effectiveness of charity operations to confirm the construct validity.

Attitudes Toward Charitable Giving

Due in part to the increasing popularity of exploring helping behavior, some scholars took a different path in order to understand attitudes toward helping behavior with regard to charitable giving. Particularly, Furnham (1995) went a step farther to discover determinants of attitudes toward monetary donation to charities. Recognizing a dearth of psychological research that explores motives, beliefs, and behaviors depending on the level of donor behaviors, he

attempted to assess the relationship between attitudes toward charitable giving and attitudes toward people with disabilities, assuming that both attitudes involve beliefs about less fortunate others with the “just world” hypothesis (BJW) as a theoretical foundation. Furnham explained that BJW theory is the notion that:

...in this world people are personally responsible for the rewards or misfortunes they have experienced...People have a need to align ‘what ought to be’ with ‘what exists in reality’ and where the reality is perceived as unfortunate but difficult to change, the attempt will be made to justify it. (p. 578)

This notion was clearly outlined by the results in which people who have “just world” beliefs would have positive attitudes toward helping people with disabilities and charitable giving, whereas “unjust world” believers would hold negative views toward people with disabilities and remain skeptical toward charitable giving.

More importantly, the results yielded a 20-item instrument to measure an individual’s attitudes toward charitable giving, which consisted of five sub-factors, including inefficiency of charitable giving, efficiency of charitable giving, cynical giving, altruistic giving, and purpose of charity. Although the primary purpose of the study was not focused on developing an instrument to measure attitudes toward charitable giving, the instrument developed from this study raises critical issues in terms of reliability and validity. First, seeing the reliability estimates, it is difficult to surmise that the instrument is reliable because the alpha scores ranged from .49 to .73 and only one factor (i.e., inefficiency of charitable giving) met a cut-off criteria of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). In addition, due in part to the small sample size, only exploratory factor analysis was conducted without confirming the factor structure of the instrument, thereby raising issues of convergent validity and discriminant validity. Finally, an issue of predictive validity

arose from the fact that the relationship between attitudes toward charitable giving and actual, or at least potential, giving behavior was not analyzed in the study.

Summary

This section discussed the concept of helping behavior while providing several important lines of research that better explain helping behavior in general. In accordance with the growing need to better explain the underlying dynamics of helping behavior, numerous scholars have developed instruments that represent such phenomenon. However, preexisting instruments intended to predict helping behavior focused heavily on personality traits and intrinsic nature of individuals rather than taking other external or situational factors as well as extrinsic motivational factors into account. In addition, several measures have shown limited reliability and validity evidence, calling for an extra push for further development of statistically sound measure of helping behaviors.

Donor Motivation

Donor Motivation in the Business and Nonprofit Literature

As the philanthropic landscape becomes more competitive in terms of raising and soliciting funds, a growing need of developing theoretical underpinnings to better understand donor behavior has increased; eventually, seminal works have been conducted by Burnett and Wood (1988), Guy and Patton (1989), and Bendapudi et al. (1996), incorporating various cognitive, affective, and behavioral factors into a bigger framework. For example, Guy and Patton (1989), recognizing the different decision-making process of helping behavior compared with that of consumption behavior, depicted an individual's helping decision process with some potential mitigating factors. Specifically, they suggested five steps that lead people to help others who are in need: (1) awareness of another people in need; (2) interpretation of the situation; (3)

recognition of personal responsibility; (4) perception of ability/competence to help; and (5) implementation of helping action.

Stated differently, an individual makes a decision to help others when the individual recognizes someone else calling for help; this person will typically evaluate the situation depending on the intensity and urgency. Also, before actually helping others, an individual must recognize he or she is the only one who could help in complying with his or her ability to actually help others in need. Further, besides the helping decision process, Guy and Patton also suggested two possible mitigating factors that could enhance or inhibit potential donors' process through those five steps. One is the internal factors, which are related to individual's characteristics such as demographics, personality variables, social status, mood, knowledge, ability, resources, and previous experience. The other is external factors, which are focusing on the characteristics of the situation, including nature of appeal of help, other people involved, availability of alternate courses of action, and environmental factors.

Building on the previous research of Burnett and Wood (1988), and Guy and Patton (1989), Bendapudi et al. (1996) proposed more detailed framework in hopes of better understanding people's helping behavior, especially in terms of monetary donations. Their conceptual framework of helping behavior consisted of such components as antecedents (e.g., image of the charity, similarity between beneficiary and potential donors, and type of charitable giving), moderators (e.g., perceptions, motives, abilities, mood state, media exposure, and attention, which relate to donor variables and government policies, state of the economy, social norms, technology, and competing charities, which relate to non-donor variable), and consequences (e.g., beneficiary-, charity-, community-, and donor-related outcomes) as a result of helping behavior. In addition, the authors depicted a generic helping decision process in

conjunction with previous studies of Batson (1987) and Krebs and Miller (1985), which consists of four sequential steps: (1) perception of need; (2) motivation; (3) behavior; and (4) consequences.

Another conceptual model that explains individual's charitable giving behavior was developed by Sargeant (1999). The model indicates several external inputs (e.g., charity appeals, brands, facts, images, and mode of ask), which could affect an individual's awareness toward charitable organizations. These inputs, in turn, lead to potential donors' perceptual reactions (e.g., portrayal, fit with self, strength of stimulus, and perceptual noise), which may influence their attitude toward charitable giving behavior. He noted that "the degree of compliance in the case of an individual charity will depend on the extent to which other, perhaps similar, organizations are currently marketing themselves to potential supporters" (p. 222). Then, an individual's perceptual reaction will have an impact on his/her decision along with past experience and judgmental criteria. That is, the donor's past experience with charitable giving and his/her evaluation of supporting the organization will influence the charitable giving decision process. When an individual has decided to participate in charitable giving, he/she will support the charitable organization in various ways (e.g., money, time, size of contribution, and loyalty).

More recently, Bekkers and Wiepking (2010) conducted a study to compile previous research on charitable giving and provide an overview of the topic. By thoroughly reviewing more than 500 academic articles from various journals, the authors identified eight factors that serve as the most important driving forces for charitable contributions including awareness of need, solicitation, costs and benefits, altruism, reputation, psychological benefits, values, and efficacy. To put it simply, people tend to make donations when they are aware of social issues, when they were asked to donate, when the cost/amount of donation is low, and/or when they

could receive tangible benefits (e.g., gifts, services, proceeds, etc.) or psychological benefits (e.g., positive feelings such as self-efficacy, pleasure, happiness, etc.). Although the authors provided a thorough overview of factors that influence people's donation decisions, their study also lacked empirical evidence. Again, even though several factors from their study could be applied to the professional sport setting, there should be other critical factors that have an impact on actual donors' decision-making processes due to the unique nature and characteristics of professional sport.

Seeing the previously developed conceptual frameworks focusing on charitable giving behavior and the donation decision process, many studies are lacking empirical evidence and do not take the unique characteristics of professional sport into account. To empirically test these conceptual frameworks, a scale to measure psychometric properties of donor motivation is needed. As noted, the development of a scale to measure donor motivation will help academicians and practitioners to better understand donor behavior dynamic and find important factors, which could encourage people to participate in charitable programs and solidify future donations.

Donor Motivation in Sport Management

Currently, little research on why people participate in donating to charitable organizations related to professional sport exists. As the number of charitable organizations in professional sport is continuously increasing, it remains surprising because promoting future donations and drawing attention from potential donors to a cause are important issues for them to strive in this competitive situation. Although researchers have addressed donor perceptions, motivations, and behaviors in various sport contexts (Filo et al., 2008; Gladden et al., 2005; Leslie & Ramey, 1988; Mahony et al., 2003), donor behavior research in professional sport is still lacking. That is,

since most donor motivation studies in sport focused on college athletic donor motivation, these donor motivations might not fully explain the donor motivation related to charitable organizations represented by professional sport teams, leagues, or athletes. To some extent, several factors in these studies might be adaptable to a professional sport setting. However, considering the different characteristics of professional sport teams or athletes (e.g., high levels of community visibility and/or high profile status) compared with college athletics, different motives might affect people's intention to participate in charitable programs of professional sport entities. To expand the body of knowledge related to donor behavior in professional sport, different theories and approaches are essential to help illuminate this phenomenon.

Much of the donor behavior research stems from the athletic donor motivation research conducted by Billing et al. (1985). These authors identified four key motives for athletic donor motivation: (1) social (i.e., participating in sports with family and friends); (2) philanthropic (i.e., providing athletic scholarships); (3) success (i.e., the value associated with victories; and (4) benefits (i.e., tax deductions). Based on the author's initial findings, the Athletic Contributions Questionnaire to measure athletic donor motivation was developed. However, recognizing that the Athletic Contributions Questionnaire lacked a proper theoretical underpinning, Staurowsky et al. (1996) combined donor behavior with motivation by incorporating Birch and Veroff's (1966) paradigm of human motivation. The researchers proposed the Athletic Contributions Questionnaire Revised Version II (ACQUIRE-II), which includes benefit, philanthropic, power, social, success 1, and success 2. Later, expanding on this work using social cognitive theory, Verner et al. (1998) developed the Motivation of Athletic Donors (MAD-1) scale. Through an extensive review of literature and interviews with athletic donors, the authors identified 12 dimensions of athletic donor motivation (i.e., participating in secondary events, public

recognition, giving of time and energy, inside information, priority treatment, philanthropy, collaboration, create, change, curiosity, power, and loyalty).

Although previous researchers adopted appropriate research procedures and data analyses, some of the factors in their instruments are shown to have low reliability and validity evidence. For instance, loyalty factor in the MAD-1 had a Cronbach's alpha value lower than .70, and some items had low factor loadings. Also, scale items for the ACQUIRE-II did not fully represent athletic donor motivations, and some items were problematic in terms of validity and reliability. Further, while several factors could be applicable to the professional sport contexts (e.g., giving of time and money or public recognition); other factors such as priority treatment, philanthropy, create, and/or power might not be able to explain the donors who participate in charitable programs associated with professional sport teams or athletes.

Additionally, Mahony et al. (2003) developed the donor motivation scale to explore the importance among various donor-related factors. The authors identified 10 factors that help predict donor motivation, notably highlighting success, priority seating, and psychological commitment as the strongest motivations for athletic donors. Similar to previous scales, this scale might not fully understand the motivations of professional sport donors because it solely focused on college athletic donors. Also, it lacks psychosocial theory to support the scale items and provided little explanation on thoughts and feelings of why an individual is compelled to donate. Even though researchers have tried to capture predictive validity by examining the amount of money donated and years as a season ticket holder for football and men's basketball, the results were not statistically significant.

Recently, Ko, Rhee, Walker, and Lee (2013) proposed a model of athletic donor motivation (MADOM) using the existence relatedness growth (ERG) theory. By using a sample

of college athletic donors, they developed an eight-factor (philanthropy, vicarious achievement, demonstrating commitment, affiliation, socialization, power, public recognition, and tangible benefits) measurement scale (scale of athletic donor motivation; SADOM). Again, although the authors adopted a well-established theory to explore donor motivation in college athletics, different motives might influence donors in a professional sport setting because various sport entities with high profile status (e.g., sport teams, famous star players, and well-known coaches) are involved in charitable programs in professional sport.

In the professional sport settings, Filo et al. (2008) conducted a study to explore the motive for charitable giving toward a charitable sport event and why people participate in such an event. They adapted Funk and James' (2001, 2006) psychological continuum model (PCM) for their theoretical background and interviewed 31 participants in the two charitable sport events (i.e., Lance Armstrong Foundation's (LAF) 2005 Ride for the Roses and LAF's 2006 LIVESTRONG Challenge). The results showed that intellectual, social, competency, reciprocity, self-esteem, need to help others, and desire to improve charity motives attracted participants to charity sport events, and the charitable component of the sport events influenced social and competency motives, which eventually enhanced participants' attachments to the events. While the researchers found key motives why people participate in charitable sport events and donate their time and money, they did not develop a scale to better explain the psychometric properties of participants' motivations based on their qualitative findings.

More recently, Kim and Zhang (2016) conducted a qualitative study to explore donor motivation in professional sport nonprofit organizations. Collecting data using in-depth semi-structured interviews with professional sport nonprofit managers and from actual donors, who are making monetary contributions to professional sport nonprofits using open-ended

questionnaire, the authors confirmed the existence of unique donor motivational factors in the professional sport setting different from those of collegiate athletics donors. Particularly, the authors identified fan identification, awareness of needs, cause involvement, charity image, and community support as primary factors that trigger donor behavior dynamics while perceived nonprofit effectiveness and altruistic reason were minor motivational factors that affect actual donor behavior. Although the researchers identified unique motivational factors that channel professional sport donors' giving behavior, similar to previous studies, empirical evidences were still lacking.

Comprehending the previous research findings on college athletics donors and professional sport donors, clear distinctions can be drawn between the two settings. College athletics donors tend to contribute mainly because they want to support universities or their alma mater. On the other hand, professional sport donors have numerous motivations, such as awareness of charity needs, charity image, personal cause involvement, and fan identification, among others. Intuitively, college athletics have only one philanthropic activity, helping student athletes by providing scholarships and educational opportunities, which, in turn, enhances the prestige and success of university athletics (Clotfelter, 2001; Tom & Elmer, 1994; Tsotsou, 2006). Professional sport charities, however, may have various philanthropic reasons/purposes to help others who are in need. Some might be involved with a certain disease, while others are concerned with the environment, youth health, youth education, or community development (Walker & Kent, 2009). Given the different characteristics between college athletics and professional sport donors, managers in professional sport nonprofit organizations need to identify those factors that specifically drive the donation decision process for the professional sport

setting. Accordingly, building on Kim and Zhang's (2016) work, the following hypothesis was developed.

Hypothesis 1: Professional sport donor motivational factors will positively influence donor behavior (i.e., word-of-mouth and future intention).

Relationship Quality

In the marketing discipline, Berry (1983) first conceptualized the term “relationship marketing” and defined it as “attracting, maintaining and—in multiservice organizations—enhancing customer relationships” (p. 25). However, the importance of relationship quality has been drawing significant attention even before Berry (1983) conceptualized the term. For instance, some scholars have realized the importance of personal interactions, especially when the service personnel markets intangible products or resells the products (George, 1977; Grönroos, 1981; Levitt, 1981), and when corporations or businesses want to retain their customers (George, 1977; Grönroos, 1981; Berry, 1980). Building on such previous studies, numerous researchers have adopted the relationship marketing concept to various sub-disciplines of marketing including but not limited to brand management (Fournier, 1998; Parvatiyar & Sheth, 2001), service marketing (Berry 1995; Grönroos, 1995; Gwinner, Gremler, & Bitner, 1998), and consumer marketing (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995), among others.

Multidimensionality of Relationship Quality

It is generally regarded that relationship quality is a multidimensional concept and “a higher-order construct consisting of several distinct, although related dimensions” (Dorsch, Swanson, & Kelly, 1998, p. 130). In the relationship quality literature, a majority of researchers included multiple factors to capture different perspectives of the relationship quality construct,

which typically includes such sub-concepts as trust, commitment, and satisfaction (Bejou, Wray, & Ingram, 1996; Crosby et al., 1990; Garbarino, & Johnson, 1999), and trust, benevolence, and commitment (Bennett, & Barkensjo, 2005). In a sport context, numerous researchers have tried to understand sport consumer and spectator behaviors by adopting relationship marketing and relationship quality perspectives (Bee & Kahle, 2006; Kim, Trail, Woo, & Zhang, 2011; McDonald & Milne, 1997; Wang, Ho, & Zhang, 2012).

Most studies, however, have examined how perceived relationship quality of a university sport team or a professional team influences their consumers' satisfaction toward the relationship (Kim et al., 2011), sport consumption behavior that includes attendance intention, media consumption intention, and licensed merchandise purchase intention (Kim, Trail, & Ko, 2011), and actual game attendance and customer referral (i.e., positive word-of-mouth; Wang et al., 2012). Further, because there is no unanimous agreement among scholars in terms of sub-concept within the relationship quality construct, there is an extra push for further studies that best explain the multidimensionality of relationship quality traits and characteristics.

Relationship Quality in Nonprofit and Sport Management Literatures

In terms of the nonprofit setting, the concept of “friendraising” has been regarded as an important factor for any fundraising effort (Weinstein, 2009). This means that nonprofit managers or fundraisers must nurture relationships with their donors because nurturing such donor relationships increases donor involvement as well as donor commitment. This notion is confirmed by some scholars in the nonprofit area who adopted a relationship marketing perspective for fundraising activities and strategies (Burnett, 2002; Sargeant, 2001; Sargeant & Jay, 2004). More specifically, Burnett (2002) conceptualized the term “relationship fundraising”

by recognizing the importance of relationship with donors and provided the definition of relationship fundraising:

Relationship fundraising is an approach to the marketing of a cause that centers on the unique and special relationship between a nonprofit [organization] and each supporter [donor]. Its overriding consideration is to care for and develop that bond and to do nothing that might damage or jeopardize it. Every activity is therefore geared toward making sure donors know they are important, valued, and considered, which has the effect of maximizing funds per donor in the long run (p. 38).

Findings of previous studies confirm that relationship quality of a nonprofit organization led to positive donor behavioral outcomes (Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005; Brennan & Brady, 1999; Sargeant, 2001). For example, Shabbir et al. (2007) found that a donor-perceived relationship quality positively influenced donor-related outcomes such as donor loyalty and positive word-of-mouth communications.

In terms of nonprofit organizations in sport, Tower, Jago, and Deery (2006) examined the relationship marketing and partnerships in not-for-profit sports in Australia. The authors attempted to identify factors that would influence the relationship between not-for-profit sport clubs or associations and sport venues. By interviewing 15 personnel from different service agencies, they found that appropriate partnerships, commitment, communication, cultural/management style, funding and resource allocation, and satisfaction positively affected the relationship quality between those two sport organizations.

However, these findings as well as previous findings regarding relationship quality of a sport team on consumer/spectator behavior could not fully explain how members of a nonprofit sport organizations' relationship quality influence their donors' behavioral and attitudinal

loyalty. As aforementioned, because various members of a sport organization (i.e., professional athletes, coaches, and staffs) are involved with the nonprofit sport organization, it is possible that donors of such an organization might have different motives and reasons to contribute their money to that organization. Indeed, Kim and Walker (2013) and Kim and Zhang (2014) found the importance and relatedness of donors' identification with an athlete or a team when sport figures are connected to a nonprofit sport organization. Donors of that organization make contributions because they are highly identified with an athlete or a team; by doing so, they could have chances to meet athletes or coaches of the team through participating in fundraising activities or events. That is, donors might expect having interactions and relationships with not only staff members of a sport nonprofit organization but also athletes and/or coaches of a professional team when they make donations.

Therefore, when professional sport teams and athletes are involved with nonprofit organizations, their relationship quality would have profound influence on donor behaviors. Nevertheless, only a limited number of studies have been conducted to examine the influence of relationship quality of nonprofit (i.e., charitable) organizations in a professional sport setting. Further, there is disagreement among scholars in terms of sub-concepts within relationship quality construct. As nonprofit organizations that are related to professional sports provide unique opportunities to their donors (e.g., meeting with athletes and coaches through fundraising activities and events), it is possible that these unique features, such as the relationship quality of athletes and coaches with donors as well as those of staff members, might influence donor behavior.

Hypothesis 2: Donors' perceived relationship quality of professional sport nonprofit organization(s) will positively influence donor behavior (i.e., word-of-mouth and future intention).

Hypothesis 2a: Donors' perceived relationship quality of professional athlete(s) will positively influence donor behavior (i.e., word-of-mouth and future intention).

Hypothesis 2b: Donors' perceived relationship quality of nonprofit managers will positively influence donor behavior (i.e., word-of-mouth and future intention).

Relationship Quality and Stakeholder Management

As relationship quality, relationship marketing, and relationship fundraising concentrate on the relationship between an organization and its important stakeholders (i.e., customers, consumers, or donors), these concepts are closely related to stakeholder theory. Indeed, Kotler and Armstrong (1999) defined relationship marketing as “creating, maintaining and enhancing strong relationships with customers and other stakeholders” (p. 50). At the same time, stakeholder theory focuses on identifying important stakeholders of an organization “who can affect or can be affected by the organization.” Consequently, relationship marketing perspective “does offer a reformist agenda for stakeholder management since it places an emphasis on stakeholder collaboration beyond the immediacy of market transactions” (Knox & Gruar, 2007, p. 115). In other words, stakeholder theory helps us to identify important stakeholders of an organization and highlights the relationship between an organization and various stakeholders for its survival and success; thus, the relationship marketing perspective could play a significant role by strengthening the relationship between those two parties. Further, as relationship marketing as

well as relationship fundraising concepts places emphasis on building long-term relationships with consumers or donors, relationship quality factors could serve as extrinsic motivational forces that would ultimately foster donor involvement and commitment in the long run.

Stakeholder Theory

Freeman (1984) defined a stakeholder as “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of an organization’s objectives” (p. 46) and highlighted that firms have to identify their direct (primary) and indirect (secondary) stakeholders and look for congruency between the firm and its stakeholders to maximize success. This definition is generally used across various disciplines, and there is no intensive debate about the kinds of social actors who might be stakeholders; however, different views about “who or what really counts” and different approaches to examining stakeholders are prevalent in the literature. Nonetheless, stakeholder theorists typically agree that stakeholder theory is powerful for better understanding and identifying different classes and types of stakeholders.

More specifically, the theory has served as a strong foundation to describe the nature of an organization, to identify connections or lack of connections between the organization and its various stakeholders, or to provide moral or philosophical guidelines to the organization (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). In turn, numerous scholars have applied the stakeholder approach to describe the nature of an organization (Brenner & Molander, 1977), how board members of an organization consider the interests of corporate constituency (Wang & Dewhirst, 1992), and how some organizations are actually managed (Clarkson, 1991; Halal, 1990; Kreiner & Bhambri, 1991). Particularly, Wang and Dewhirst (1992) applied the descriptive/empirical stakeholder approach to interpret the perceptions of a board of directors of an organization regarding their

corporate constituencies. They found that directors have high stakeholder orientations, and they view some stakeholders differently depending on their occupation and type.

Recently, many scholars in the field of sport also adapted stakeholder theory to identify different stakeholders of a sport organization and their influence upon the organization (e.g., Esteve, Di Lorenzo, Inglés, & Puig, 2011; Kihl, Leberman, & Schull, 2010; Leopkey & Parent, 2009; Parent, 2008; Parent & Séguin, 2007). Similar to general businesses, sport entities build connections with various types of stakeholders including but not limited to fans, employees or staff, volunteers, government, sponsors, partner corporations, competitors, higher education, local communities, consumers, and even media. Particularly, professional sport franchises extend their stakeholders to local nonprofit organizations, donors, and funders by having philanthropic programs or by initiating their own charities (Kim & Walker, 2013; Walker & Kent, 2009).

Although various type organizations exist in the sport industry (e.g., sport governing bodies, professional sport teams, amateur sport teams, sport equipment manufacturers, sporting goods retailers, sport media, etc.), and they have different direct and indirect stakeholders, the stakeholder theory was used heavily to examine the perceptions of various stakeholders toward sport governing bodies (Leopkey & Parent, 2009; Parent, 2008; Parent, Rouillard, & Leopkey, 2011). For example, Parent (2008) tried to understand how organizing committees evolve and what types of issues they and their stakeholders face by combining stakeholder theory and issue management. By using descriptive and instrumental approaches of stakeholder theory, the author developed a framework explaining the evolution of an organizing committee and specifying stakeholder issue categories.

The importance of stakeholder management in the professional sport nonprofit organizations was confirmed by Kim and Zhang's (2016) recent study. By qualitatively

exploring the stakeholder salience concept from nonprofit managers' perspectives and perceptions from the actual donors of professional sport nonprofit organizations, their results revealed that managers of a professional sport nonprofit organization perceived their donors as a highly salient stakeholder group that possesses three key stakeholder attributes, whereas professional sport donors indicated that they do not necessarily possess urgency in most cases. Stated differently, contrary to expectations from the managers who believed that donors actively and urgently communicated their claims and requests to the organization, donors were not the ones who called for the immediate attention of the managers. The findings also indicated that only a few donors made requests or claims on the nonprofit organizations, and their claims were of minor importance to both themselves and the organization. However, although donors seldom made claims on the nonprofit organizations, managers promptly took care of donors' claims and took them seriously, which indicates that an extra push of urgency from donors could draw managers' attention.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

The purpose of this study was to develop an instrument to measure professional sport donor motivation and validate the developed instrument as well as examine the impact of professional sport donor motivation and perceived relationship quality of professional sport nonprofit organizations on donor behavioral loyalty (i.e., word-of-mouth and future intention). This chapter outlines the quantitative methods and procedures that were used to develop an instrument and evaluate the proposed theoretical framework. More specifically, this study was divided into two sub-studies; the first study involves the development of an instrument to measure professional sport donor motivation and the second study was to validate the instrument and analyze the influence of donor motivation and perceived relationship quality on donor behavioral loyalty. Accordingly, phase 1 represents the methodology used to develop an instrument in the following order: (1) research design; (2) sampling; (3) procedures; and (4) data analysis. In addition, phase 2 involves the methodology used to test the theoretical framework including: (1) research design; (2) sampling and procedure; (3) instrumentation; and (4) data analysis.

Phase 1: Development of Instrument

Research Design

From the previous study conducted by Kim and Zhang (2016), seven professional sport donor motivation factors were identified: fan identification, awareness of needs/causes, personal cause involvement, charity image, community support, perceived organizational effectiveness,

and altruistic reason. Building on the study, quantitative data collection (i.e., online survey) and analyses were used to develop an instrument to measure donor motivation in the professional sport setting by following Churchill's (1979) procedure. Initially, Churchill (1979) suggested a procedure for developing a measure or an instrument with eight steps: (1) specifying domain of construct; (2) generating sample of items; (3) collecting data; (4) purifying measure; (5) collecting data; (6) assessing reliability; (7) assessing validity; and (8) developing norms. However, this procedure lacks a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which is useful for optimally matching the observed and theoretical factor structures for a given data set to determine the goodness of fit of the predetermined factor model. Consequently, this study modified Churchill's procedure to increase the reliability and validity of instrument using seven steps: (1) specifying domain of construct; (2) generating sample of items; (3) revising sample items from a panel of experts; (4) collecting data; (5) conducting an exploratory factor analysis (EFA); (6) employing a CFA; and (7) assessing reliability and validity estimates.

Sample

The sample for this study consisted of current donors who make monetary contributions to nonprofit organizations that are represented or initiated by professional sport leagues, teams, or athletes. An online survey was created and distributed to donors who are currently supporting monetarily professional sport-related nonprofit organizations. McMillan (2002) stated that "the purpose of sampling is to obtain a group of subjects who will be representative of the larger group of individuals, in the case of quantitative research, or will provide specific information needed" (p. 102). In general, two types of sampling methods are available: probability sampling and nonprobability sampling. While the probability sampling involves random selection of individuals, nonprobability sampling does not (Babbie, 2004). In this study, a nonprobability

sampling method, especially purposive sampling, was used due in part to the reliance on donors who are currently donating to professional sport nonprofit organizations. In the purposive sampling method, a sample is chosen with a purpose in mind or based on one or more specific predefined groups that best represent the purpose of study. Although this sampling method can be biased to some extent because the selection process can be affected by numerous uncontrolled and unknown variables (Polit & Hungler, 1995), this sampling method was deemed appropriate for this study because this study targets a niche group of individuals (i.e., professional sport donors).

In terms of sample size for factor analysis and structural equation modeling, it is generally believed that there is a strong relationship between the sample size and the number of variables or measurement items (Hinkin, Tracey, Enz, 1997). Previously, the recommended item-to-response ratios for factor analysis were ranged from 1:4 (Rummel, 1970) to at least 1:10 (Schwab, 1980). However, more recent studies suggest that a minimum sample size of 150 would be enough to obtain desired results for an EFA (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988) and a minimum number of 200 samples were recommended for a CFA (Hoelter, 1983) as well as for a structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis (Bollen, 1989). Accordingly, this study intended to collect at least 500 participants in order to conduct both EFA and CFA and for a subsequent SEM analysis.

Procedure

In order to collect quantitative data, an online survey was created using research software (i.e., Qualtrics). In compliance with Institutional Review Board's (IRB) protocol, an informed consent form that does not requires participants' signatures was included at the beginning of the online survey. Next, an email was drafted and sent out to numerous nonprofit organizations that

are connected to professional sports teams and athletes (e.g., Atlanta Hawks Foundation, Atlanta Braves Foundation, Seattle Seahawks Foundation, Chicago Bears Care, Andre Agassi Foundation, Tim Tebow Foundation, Livestrong Foundation, Tiger Woods Foundation, etc.) in order to receive permissions to collect data from their donors. Once the nonprofit managers agreed to participate in the study, the online survey link sent to the managers, and eventually they sent out the link to their donors. However, due to very limited number of permissions from the nonprofit managers, an online survey provider (i.e., Amazon Mechanical Turk) also was used to collect data.

The usefulness and quality of data collected from online survey providers have been a challenging issue for scholars in various disciplines (Berinsky, Huber, & Lenz, 2012; Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Horton, Rand, & Zeckhauser, 2011; Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010). Indeed, there are some potential threats in terms of internal and external validity and generalizability. Specifically, concerns regarding the representativeness of population and the overall quality of data from online participants still exist (Paolacci et al., 2011). However, recent research findings indicate that such online survey provider possesses practical advantages such as lowered cost and easy recruitment of participants, while establishing internal validity almost as same as traditional data collection methods (Buhrmester et al., 2011; Horton et al., 2011; Paolacci et al., 2011). More importantly, some scholars found that participants recruited from the online survey provider sometimes are more representative of the U.S. population than traditional convenient sampling method (Berinsky et al., 2012). Based on previous studies, the use of online survey provider deemed acceptable for this study. Additionally, in order to increase the quality of data and to ensure the reliability and validity, several screening questions were included at the beginning of the survey (Paolacci et al., 2011);

for instance, name(s) of professional nonprofit organization(s) they are donating to, previous and/or current participation in fundraising activities supported by professional sport nonprofit organizations, past and/or current relationship/communication with such nonprofit organizations, name(s) and/or type(s) of fundraising activities they have participated, etc.

Data Analysis

As stated, Churchill's (1979) suggested procedure for developing an instrument was adapted and modified. First, operational definitions for each factor were developed based on the previous research findings (i.e., fan identification, awareness of needs, community support, cause involvement, charity image, perceived effectiveness, and altruistic reason). Next, the sample items were generated from the thorough review of literature by adapting and modifying the items from the previous donor motivation scales while some were newly created. Because some unique motivational factors for professional sport donors were identified by Kim and Zhang (2016), modifying the previous items measuring donor motivations and creating new ones were deemed appropriate for this study. In total, 42 items, six items for each factor, were developed. Although there is no rule of thumb regarding the number of items to be created, Hinkin et al. (1997) noted that:

...a quality scale comprised of four to six items could be developed for most constructs or conceptual dimensions. It should be anticipated that approximately one-half of the new items will be retained for use in the final scales, so at least twice as many items should be generated than will be needed for the final scales (p.103).

Accordingly, considering the factor correlation and to conduct a CFA, six items per each factor were suitable in terms of the number of items to measure professional sport donor motivation. In addition, all items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) strongly

disagree to (7) strongly agree. After generating initial items to measure professional sport donor motivation, a panel of experts reviewed the relatedness of each item in respect to the each sub-dimension, which was intended to measure (DeVellis, 2011) for the content validity purpose. Once the panel revised the initial items, the online survey was finalized and distributed to the nonprofit managers as well as to the professional sport donors.

After collecting the data, descriptive statistics were analyzed using the latest version of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Additionally, exploratory factor analyses were conducted to find a set of latent constructs among the developed instrument items (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999) using maximum likelihood extraction with varimax rotation. Because maximum likelihood extraction “allows for the computation of a wide range of indexes of the goodness of fit of the model [and] permits statistical significance testing of factor loadings and correlations among factors and the computation of confidence intervals” (Fabrigar et al., 1999, p. 277), the use of this extraction method deemed appropriate. Further, varimax rotation, which is one of the orthogonal methods of rotation, assumes that factors are uncorrelated each other. Although it is difficult to divide behavior into one another in social science, orthogonal rotation methods produce a higher level of interpretability (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Fabrigar et al., 1999). Consequently, considering the nature of this study (i.e., development of an instrument) using varimax rotation was suitable to produce a more interpretable result. In addition, the Kaiser criterion (Kaiser, 1970) and the scree test (Zwick & Velicer, 1982) were used to determine an appropriate number of factors to retain. To determine the factors and items, a factor should have an eigenvalue equal to or greater than 1.0 (Kaiser, 1974), an item should have a factor loading equal to or greater than .40 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), and identified factors and retained items should be related to the theoretical context.

After conducting exploratory factor analyses, confirmatory factor analyses were employed for optimally matching the observed and theoretical factor structures for a given data set to determine the goodness of fit of the predetermined factor model by using the latest version of AMOS software. To examine the goodness of fit, the following criteria were used: chi-square statistic (χ^2), normed chi-square (χ^2/df), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and comparative fit index (CFI). Hu and Bentler (1999) noted that if the RMSEA value is less than .06, it shows a close fit, between .06 and .08 shows acceptable fit, between .08 and .10 shows mediocre fit, and greater than .10 means unacceptable fit of the data. The CFI is generally known as “the relative improvement in fit of the researcher’s model compared with a baseline model (i.e., null model)” (Kline, 2005, p. 140), and a CFI value of larger than .90 indicates an acceptable fit. Additionally, Cronbach’s alpha scores and average variance extracted (AVE) values will be calculated for the composite reliability assessment and discriminant validity of the construct. Cut-off values of .70 (Nunnally, 1978) and .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) were used for Cronbach’s alpha and AVE values, respectively. Lastly, comparisons of squared correlations among factors were employed for the discriminate validity purpose. Kline (2005) suggested that discriminate validity can be established if correlations among constructs are less than .85.

Phase 2: Examining Structural Relationships among Variables

Research Design

After developing an instrument to measure professional sport donor motivation, a validation process was made to examine the relationships between the scale dimensions and donor behavioral loyalty (i.e., word-of-mouth and future intention) of professional sport nonprofit organizations. Further, donors’ perceived relationship qualities of nonprofit organizations were included to predict how such donors’ perceptions affect their behavioral and

attitudinal loyalty. However, as stated above, there is a disagreement among scholars in terms of sub-concepts within relationship quality construct, especially in the marketing as well as nonprofit literature (Bejou et al., 1996; Bennett, & Barkensjo, 2005; Crosby et al., 1990; Garbarino, & Johnson, 1999). In turn, qualitative data collection and analysis were first conducted to better capture actual donors' perceptions regarding the relationship quality of professional sport athletes as well as respective nonprofit organizations' managers. More specifically, a short, online open-ended questionnaire was created and distributed to donors who are currently making monetary donations to professional sport nonprofit organizations prior to collect data for the main study. Once the qualitative data were analyzed, previously developed instruments to measure relationship quality factors were adapted and modified accordingly.

Sample and Procedure

To investigate the impact of donor motivation and perceived relationship quality on donor behavioral and attitudinal loyalty, the data were gathered from actual donors who are currently donating to nonprofit organizations that are associated with professional sport entities. Similar to the first study, participants were recruited using purposive sampling technique because all of the variables in this study are related to perception and/or attitude regarding their donation behavior; in turn, individuals who are currently donating to professional sport nonprofit organizations were eligible to participate in the study. Again, an online survey was created via Qualtrics, and an informed consent form was included at the beginning of the online survey. Next, nonprofit managers of professional sport nonprofit organizations helped distribute a link to the online survey to their donors as well as an online survey provider (i.e., Amazon Mechanical Turk) in order to collect data.

Instrumentation

In order to establish the appropriateness and usefulness of the instrument, reliability and validity of measurement must be considered. In general, reliability refers to the consistency or stability of measurement while validity is regarded as suitability or appropriateness of the measure (Wiersma, 2000). Because the use of valid and reliable instruments is the best way to minimize measurement errors, this study utilized the instruments that already proved to have adequate psychometric properties.

Donor Motivation. Alderson (1955) defined motivation as “a conscious experience or subconscious condition, which serves as a factor determining an individual’s behavior or social conduct in a situation” (p. 6). Building on this definition, donor motivation can be described as a donor’s conscious or subconscious reason, desire, or willingness to make a monetary contribution to a charitable nonprofit organization. In order to assess donors’ motivations to make a donation to professional sport nonprofit organization, measurement items were used based on the results from the first study of this research with a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree.

Relationship Quality. According to Berry (1983), relationship marketing can be defined as “attracting, maintaining and—in multiservice organizations—enhancing customer relationships” (p. 25). Building on the previous literature, Palmatier et al. (2006) defined relationship quality as “overall assessment of the strength of a relationship, conceptualized as a composite or multidimensional construct capturing the different but related facets of a relationship” (p. 138). In order to attract, maintain, and enhance customer relationships with an organization, many scholars have highlighted the importance of personal interactions and the quality of such interpersonal relationship. In turn, they identified multiple factors to assess

different perspectives of the relationship quality, which typically include such subdimensions as trust, commitment, benevolence, and satisfaction (Bejou et al., 1996; Bennett, & Barkensjo, 2005; Crosby et al., 1990; Garbarino, & Johnson, 1999).

However, a disagreement among scholars in regard to sub-dimensions within the construct still exists. Further, because the relationship fundraising concept focuses on “the marketing of a cause that centers on the unique and special relationship between a nonprofit [organization] and each supporter [donor] (Burnett, 2002, p. 38),” there is a possibility that unique relationship quality factors could exist between the nonprofit organization–donor relationship unlike the relationship between seller and buyer. Consequently, due to the disagreement and uniqueness of the context, qualitative data collection and analysis were first employed to better understand professional sport donors’ perceptions toward the relationship quality of professional sport athletes as well as respective nonprofit organizations’ managers in their donation decision-making process.

Prior to the data collection for the main study, an online open-ended questionnaire was created and distributed to 30 donors who are currently participating in the professional sport nonprofit organizations’ charity programs. Specifically, the donors were asked to list and elaborate at least three personal characteristics or traits that are important and crucial for them when they are having interpersonal relationships or communication with professional athlete(s) and professional sport nonprofit manager(s) at fundraising events/activities. Demographically a total of 30 participants completed an online open-ended questionnaire: 16 participants were females and 14 were males; 23 participants identified as Caucasian, one as African-American, and six as Hispanic; and participants’ age ranged from 23 to 56 years old.

Further, participants were currently donating or have donated to nonprofit organizations that are represented by or connected with professional sport entities (i.e., leagues, teams, and athletes). Specifically, 14 participants were donating or have donated to team-level nonprofit organizations (e.g., Chicago Bears Care, Philadelphia Eagles Youth Partnership, Texas Rangers Baseball Foundation, Chicago Cubs Charities, etc.), 15 participants were donating or have donated to athlete-level nonprofit organizations (e.g., Livestrong Foundation, Hines Ward Helping Hands Foundation, Baron Davis Rising Stars of America Foundation, Ryan Zimmerman's ziMS Foundation, Kobe Bryant and Vanessa Bryant Family Foundation, etc.), and one participant was donating or has donated to league-level initiative (i.e., Susan G Komen that is partnered with NFL).

Once all the open-ended questionnaires were collected, the data were analyzed by following Charmaz's (2006) guidelines and procedures. Since Charmaz's approach and procedure provide greater flexibility in the data analysis, following this approach deemed appropriate not only because of its greater flexibility but also her approach is useful for a small number of sample (Charmaz, 2006) and is effective when there is no predetermined theory to answer research questions (Creswell, 2013). To analyze the qualitative data, the raw data were organized and prepared for analysis by reading through all the data. Then the data were coded and analyzed by using computer software (i.e., QSR NVivo11). Lastly, themes were identified and the results were described and interpreted. The results of the qualitative data analysis yielded four relationship quality sub-constructs: trustworthiness, commitment, sympathy, and friendliness.

The first sub-dimension of relationship quality, trustworthiness, refers to a confident belief that a person can be relied upon (Crosby et al., 1990). The items to assess trustworthiness

of athlete(s) and nonprofit managers were measured using a 7-point Likert scale anchored from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. In addition, items were adapted and modified from Crosby et al.'s (1990) study regarding relationship quality in the service selling industry, which also has shown to have adequate internal reliability scores (Cronbach's $\alpha = .76$). More specifically, three items in the original survey were adapted and modified into six items using the terms such as "nonprofit staff members" and "athlete(s)" instead of using "my agent" in order to better understand how donors felt about interpersonal characteristics/traits of nonprofit staff members as well as athletes who are involved in their fundraising activities and events.

The second sub-dimension, commitment, involves an individual's interpersonal quality of being dedicated to a nurturing relationship. To measure commitment, six items were adapted from Fletcher, Simpson, and Thomas' (2002) study and modified because the original items were focusing on intimate relationship between individuals. Further, as their items were created using interrogated forms, modifying and re-wording the items were deemed appropriate in order to increase readability and consistency of survey items. Accordingly, the items were re-worded by highlighting the nurturing relationships with nonprofit entities' based on donors' responses using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree.

Based on the donors' responses, the third sub-dimensional factor, sympathy, was described as understanding and sharing feelings, thoughts, and/or emotions of others who are suffering. Donors of professional sport nonprofits expected nonprofit staff members and athletes to be caring, sympathetic, and/or compassionate about people who are less fortunate and need their support. For example, a donor stated that "I would think that, if they really cared about the organization, they would want to project a caring and compassionate attitude towards participants [beneficiaries]." Although the service quality literature (e.g., Parasuraman, Zeithaml,

& Berry, 1988) includes empathy as one of the service quality sub-factors, its definition is somewhat different from the nonprofit setting because the term focuses on the “individualized attention the firm provides its customers” (Parasuraman et al., 1988). Consequently, in order to measure sympathy, six items were developed based upon the participants’ perceptions using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree.

The final factor, friendliness, also revealed as another unique relationship quality factor in the nonprofit setting. Because the concept of “friendraising” is germane in the nonprofit literature, donors’ expectations of nonprofit staff members and athlete(s) being friendly, helpful, kind, and approachable were not so surprising. For example, a donor stated that:

I think that being friendly is very important. Nobody wants to interact with someone who is grouchy and hard to be around...I want to be able to talk to them and have a conversation as if they were just a friend.

In turn, similar to measure sympathy, six items were newly created based on the donors’ perceptions and expectations toward nonprofit staff members and athlete(s) using 7-point Likert scale anchored from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree.

Donor Behavioral Outcomes. In the marketing literature, loyalty is generally defined as ...a deeply held commitment to rebuy or re-patronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior. (Oliver, 1997. p. 392)

Following this definition, donor loyalty could be described as a commitment to make monetary donations a preferred nonprofit organization consistently in the future. Referring to Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996), loyalty also is related to another behavioral intention items such

as “saying positive things about the company, recommending the company to someone who seeks advice, [and] encouraging friends and relatives to do business with the company” (p. 37–38), which is generally known as “word-of-mouth.” Accordingly, behavioral loyalty factors (i.e., future intention and positive word-of-mouth) were included to measure donor behavioral outcomes. To assess Future Intention, six items were adapted and modified from the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991). For measuring positive Word-of-Mouth, three items were adapted from Zeithaml et al.’s (1996) study and modified into six items to be consistent with other measurement items. All of the items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree.

Demographic Questions. Along with items to measure the constructs employed in this study, a section that asks the donors regarding demographic items was included in the online survey such demographic variables as age, gender, income level, marital status, and occupation as well as year as a donor, annual amount of donation, a total amount of donation, number of fundraising events attended per year, and a total number of fundraising events attended for classification purposes. This information was used in the descriptive analysis of the sample, and no *a priori* hypotheses were developed for the demographic information.

Data Analysis

The data gathered from the online survey were analyzed using the latest version of AMOS software. Data analyses were conducted in the following order. First, descriptive statistics and correlations as well as reliability estimates (i.e., Chronbach’s alpha scores) were analyzed and reported for all facets of the questionnaire. Next, a follow-up CFA was conducted to determine the dimensionality of the constructs and examine the goodness of fit to the data. Finally, the proposed theoretical framework was tested based on the hypotheses of this study. To

test the relationship among donor motivation, relationship quality, and donor behavior, structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed. Because SEM is generally accepted as a statistical technique designed for modeling and analyzing several variables, specifically finding the relationship between one or more independent variables and a dependent variable, SEM deemed appropriate for analyzing the data.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter outlines the results of the data analyses conducted for the current study. The quantitative data were collected using a newly developed instrument to measure professional donor motivation and several other measures to assess the constructs employed for this study (i.e., perceived relationship quality and donor behavioral outcomes). As this study consists of two sub-studies, this chapter is divided into two sections: results for phase 1 and results for phase 2. The section for phase 1 is presented in four sections, which include: (1) factor specification and descriptive findings; (2) exploratory factor analyses; (3) confirmatory factor analyses; and (4) reliability and validity estimates. The section for phase 2 is outlined in three sections, including (1) preliminary analyses; (2) reliability and validity assessments (CFA); and (3) SEM analysis.

Phase 1 Results

Factor Specification and Descriptive Findings

By following Churchill's (1979) suggested procedure, operational definitions for each donor motivation factor were developed based on the previous research findings. The first donor motivation factor, Fan Identification, was defined as one's feeling or sense of attachment toward a professional athlete or team (Branscomb & Wann, 1991). The second factor, Awareness of Needs, was described as a donor's recognition of a need or cause to be solved or supported. The third factor, Community Support, refers to helping or supporting any social issues of a donor's local community. The fourth factor, Cause Involvement, involves a donor's perceived relevance

or importance of a certain cause based upon his or her personal needs, values, beliefs, and interests. The fifth factor, Charity Image, was depicted as a donor's mere perception, knowledge, belief, or feeling toward a nonprofit organization. The sixth factor, Perceived Effectiveness, was defined as "how well a charity functions and the charity's perceived success in meeting its objectives" (Bendapudi et al., 1996, p. 37). Last, the Altruistic Reason was described as selfless actions, concerns, or actions for other people's well-being to receive psychological/intrinsic benefits.

In total, 511 useable surveys were collected. Demographic characteristics of participants ($N = 511$) are depicted in Table 4-1. Demographically, the majority of the participants were males (68.9%). The average age of the participants was 32 years old ($M = 31.79$, $SD = 3.88$), and 65.4% of participants were identified as Caucasian, 10.4% as African–American, 12.1% as Hispanic, 11% as Asian, and 1.2% as others. Particularly, more than a half of total participants ($n = 261$; 51.1%) were donating to professional sport team-supported nonprofit organizations while 42.1% ($n = 215$) of participants were making donations to professional athlete-related nonprofit organizations. Finally, only 35 (6.8%) of total participants were donating to league-level nonprofit organizations.

A general summary of means and standard deviations are presented in Table 4.2. Regarding the professional sport donor motivation factors, all of the factors scored well above the midpoint ($M = 5.29$ to 6.08). The items for Altruistic Reason had the highest means on the 7-point Likert type scale ($M = 5.98$) whereas the items for Community Support had the lowest means ($M = 5.42$). The item "I feel happy when I help people in need" returned the highest mean score ($M = 6.08$, $SD = 1.06$), and the item "I am personally related to the cause that the nonprofit organization supports" returned the lowest mean score ($M = 5.29$, $SD = 1.50$).

Exploratory Factor Analyses

To conduct an EFA and a CFA, the data were randomly divided into two halves: one for EFA ($n = 256$) and the other for CFA ($n = 255$). An EFA for the professional sport donor motivation variables was conducted to find a set of latent constructs among the developed instrument items (Fabrigar et al., 1999) and to identify a simple structure (Stevens, 1996) using the first half of the data. The employment of an EFA was deemed appropriate because this analysis is one of the widely used and applied statistical techniques to examine and determine the number of factors underlying the data (Costello & Osborne, 2005). The initial EFA results yielded six factors with 42 items explaining a total variance of 64.92%. The scree plot also indicated that a six-factor model was the most interpretable. However, seven items were cross-loaded with other factors, such items were removed; in turn, another EFA was conducted. In the second EFA, five factors were emerged based on the retention criteria (i.e., scree plot test and the Kaiser criterion) explaining a total variance of 63.59%. Again, two items were removed due to having cross-loadings with another factor. In addition, although Altruistic Reason items were shown to have high mean scores, such items also were removed to increase the interpretability of identified model and based on suggestions made by one of the members of panel of experts. The member of panel suggested that questions indicating whether the person feels that helping other are their duty or moral obligation are required in order to assess altruistic reason; otherwise, simply asking about their feelings would increase self-reporting bias. In other words, when self-reporting data were collected, people tend to be biased by trying to present a better image to others (Van de Mortel, 2008).

Consequently, another round of EFA was conducted without the items to measure altruistic reason. Without such items, five factors were emerged with the retention criteria,

explaining 63.21% of total variance. However, based on the predetermined criterion of an item loading equal to or greater than .40, one item to measure Awareness of Needs was removed, and another four items were deleted due to cross-loadings with other factors. The final EFA results yielded a three-factor model with 31 items. Awareness of Needs, Cause Involvement, Charity Image, and Perceived Effectiveness items were collapsed to form a global factor, which is labeled as “Charity Image.” Accordingly, Fan Identification factor with six items, Community Support factor with six items, and Charity Image factor with 19 items were retained. The result of the rotated pattern matrix using varimax rotation is presented in Table 4.3. All the factor loadings for the final three-factor model with 31 items were greater than the cut-off value of .40 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

After the exploratory factor analyses, a confirmatory factor analysis was employed to investigate the dimensionality of the three-factor model emerged from previous exploratory factor analyses using the second half of the data. Using the maximum likelihood estimation, goodness of fit indices were estimated via the latest version of AMOS software. The three-factor model with 31-item measurement model did not fit the data well (Table 4.4). The chi-square statistic was significant ($\chi^2 = 1213.77, p < .001$), suggesting that the hypothesized model and the observed model are statistically difference. Other fit indices such as normed chi-square (χ^2/df), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and comparative fit index (CFI) also showed a poor fit. Although a value of the normed chi-square ($\chi^2/df = 2.816$) was below the suggested cut-off value (i.e., 3.0; Bollen, 1989), the RMSEA value indicated mediocre fit (RMSEA = .085) and the CFI value of .88 was lower than the recommended cut-off ratio (.90; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Seeing the results, a model re-specification was required because the measurement model did not fit the data well (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), and the poor factor loading also called for a model re-specification. According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988), a factor loading should be equal to or greater than .707 in order for an instrument to satisfy convergent validity. Thus, two items with low factor loadings below .707 had to be removed; more importantly, modification indices also suggest further elimination of items. Accordingly, after carefully considering the statistical and theoretical justifications and interpretability, a decision was made to eliminate a total of nine items.

As a result, the model re-specification yielded a three-factor model with 22 items: Fan Identification (4 items), Community Support (3 items), and Charity Image (15 items). A follow-up CFA result indicated that the three-factor model fit the data reasonably well (Table 4.4). The chi-square statistic was significant ($\chi^2 = 543.507, p < .001$), and other fit indices such as normed chi-square (χ^2/df), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and comparative fit index (CFI) also demonstrated to have an acceptable fit. Specifically, the value of the normed chi-square ($\chi^2/df = 2.638$) was below the suggested cut-off value of 3.0 (Bollen, 1989), the RMSEA value indicated acceptable fit (RMSEA = .080), and the CFI value of .92 was higher than the recommended cut-off ratio of .90 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). When compared with the initial three-factor model with 31 items, overall goodness of fit of the three-factor model with 22 items improved drastically, indicating the acceptability of measurement model.

Reliability and Validity Estimates

To evaluate the reliability of three factors and respective items, Cronbach's alpha scores were calculated. Cronbach's alpha scores for the three-factor model were greater than the suggested cut-off value of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), ranging from .83 (Community

Support) to .96 (Charity Image). Considering the reliability estimated, the determined factors were deemed reliable. Further, Kline (2005) suggested that discriminate validity can be established if correlations among constructs are less than .85. In addition, average variance extracted (AVE) values of less than .50 indicate discriminant validity of the construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). No factor correlations exceeded the threshold of .85, ranging from .497 (between Fan Identification and Community Support) to .740 (between Community Support and Charity Image; Table 4.6). Further, AVE values of three factors were ranged from .87 (Community Support) to .89 (Charity Image). The summary of reliability estimates (i.e., Cronbach's alpha) and discriminant validity scores (i.e., AVE values) are presented in Table 4.5. Consequently, discriminant validity for three-factor model has been established.

Finally, by evaluating factor loadings for scale items, a convergent validity test was conducted. All of the factor loadings for 22 items were greater than the suggested cut-off value of .707 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988), except for one item under Charity Image with a value of .70. As the factor loading was only slightly lower than the threshold value and considering its theoretical relevance, a decision was made to retain the item. Overall, the three-factor model of professional sport donor motivation indicates great convergent validity of the developed instrument (Table 4.5). A graphical description of the three-factor professional sport donor motivation is provided in Figure 4.1.

Phase 2 Results

Preliminary Analyses

The purpose of the second phase of this study was to investigate the impact of professional sport donor motivation and perceived relationship quality on donor behavioral outcomes especially behavioral loyalty factors (i.e., Future Intention and positive Word-of-

Mouth). However, since there's no agreement among scholars in regards to sub-dimensions within the construct of relationship quality, qualitative data collection and analysis were conducted. From the qualitative data analysis, four perceived relationship quality factors were identified: Trustworthiness, Commitment, Sympathy, and Friendliness. Although instrument items to measure Trustworthiness and Commitment were adapted and modified from the existing literature, items to measure Sympathy and Friendliness were developed based upon the participants' perceptions. Accordingly, in order to assess dimensionality of the construct, an EFA was conducted with maximum likelihood extraction with varimax rotation using the first half of the data. The results of EFA indicated that both perceived relationship quality of staff members and that of athletes were not disaggregated into four dimensions as initially conceptualized. Thus, the perceived relationship quality items for nonprofit staff members and such items for athletes were combined into two single global measures of Perceived Relationship Quality of Staff Members (RQ Staff; $N = 24$) and Perceived Relationship Quality of Athletes (RQ Athletes; $N = 24$), explaining 64% and 65% variances, respectively.

To analyze the structural relationships among variables, the second half of the data collected from the phase 1 was used. An overall descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations for the professional sport donor motivation scale, perceived relationship quality of nonprofit staff members and athletes, and donor behavioral outcome variables are provided in Table 4.7. In terms of the professional sport donor motivation factors, all of the items scored well above the midpoint ($M = 5.28$ to 5.93). The items for RQ Staffs also had mean scores above the midpoint on the 7-point Likert type scale ($M = 5.59$ to 5.80). Additionally, RQ Athletes items returned mean scores of 5.25 or above with the highest mean score of 5.62.

Finally, mean scores for donor behavioral outcome variables, Word-of-Mouth and Future Intention, also far exceeded the midpoints ($M = 5.66$ to 5.86 and $M = 5.64$ to 5.79 , respectively).

Reliability and Validity Assessments

Before conducting an SEM analysis to test the theoretical framework (see Figure 1.1), a measurement model was assessed in order to determine the goodness of fit for a given data set by conducting a CFA. Specifically, maximum likelihood estimation method was used and goodness of fit indices (e.g., chi-square statistic, normed chi-square, RMSEA, and CFI) were estimated using the latest version of AMOS software. Initially, the hypothesized measurement model was not supported by the CFA. Although the chi-square statistic was significant ($\chi^2 = 11068.680$, $p < .001$), other fit indices showed poor fit to the data. The normed chi-square ($\chi^2/df = 3.440$) exceeded the suggested cut-off value of 3.0 (Bollen, 1989), the RMSEA value (.098) was not in the acceptable range, and the CFI value (.68) was lower than the recommended cut-off ratio (.90; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Considering the initial results of CFA, a model re-specification was deemed appropriate because poor factor loadings (less than .707; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) and modification indices suggested an extra push for re-specification. By following Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) suggestion, a total of 41 items were removed. Schmitt and Stults (1985) suggested that making an instrument short is an effective way to decrease response biases due to boredom or fatigue. In turn, in order to make the instrument parsimonious, three items under Professional Sport Donor Motivation construct (one from Fan Identification and two from Charity Image) were removed and only eight items for RQ Staffs as well as RQ Athletes were retained (two items related to Trustworthiness, two for Commitment, two for Sympathy, and two for

Friendliness). Additionally, three items to measure Word-of-Mouth and three items to assess Future Intention were eliminated for the parsimoniousness of instrumentation purpose.

A follow-up CFA with modified measurement model was conducted, and the fit of the model was reasonably acceptable. The chi-square statistic was significant ($\chi^2 = 2267.972$, $p < .001$) and the normed chi-square ($\chi^2/df = 2.817$) was also lower than the suggested cut-off value (i.e., 3.0; Bollen, 1989). Although the CFI value (.88) was lower than the recommended cut-off ratio .90 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), it could be considered marginally acceptable (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2006). Further, the RMSEA value indicated mediocre fit (RMSEA = .088); nonetheless, the modified measurement model was statistically feasible for subsequent SEM analysis (Professional Sport Donor Motivation, 19 items; RQ Staff, eight items; RQ Athletes, eight items; Word-of-Mouth, three items; and Future Intention, three items).

Before analyzing the data for SEM analysis, reliability assessments of seven factors were calculated with Cronbach's alpha values (see Table 4.8). Cronbach's alpha scores for seven factors were greater than the suggested cut-off value of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), ranging from .86 (Word-of-Mouth) to .95 (Charity Image), which indicate the determined factors were reliable. Further, seeing the correlations among factors and AVE values, no factor correlations exceeded the threshold of .85, except for correlation between Charity Image and RQ Staffs (.870), between Charity Image and Word-of-Mouth (.858), and between Word-of-Mouth and Future Intention (.875; Table 4.9). Because the inter-factor correlations were only slightly higher than the cut-off value, discriminant validity was established. In terms of AVE values, all of the seven factors were ranged from .89 (Community Support) to .92 (Future Intention), indicating good discriminant validity of the measurement. Finally, a convergent validity test was assessed by evaluating factor loadings for scale items. All factor loadings for 41 items were

greater than the threshold of .707 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988), suggesting that convergent validity of measurement was established (see Table 4.8). Accordingly, this measurement model was used for a subsequent SEM analysis.

Structural Equation Modeling Analysis

The second half of the data set also was used to conduct an SEM analysis in order to test the hypotheses of the current study. The goodness of fit indices for overall structural model was first tested before estimating path coefficients for the hypothesized structural model. The overall fit of the structural model was reasonably acceptable. The chi-square statistic was significant ($\chi^2 = 1948.709$, $p < .001$), and other fit indices, including normed chi-square (χ^2/df), RMSEA value, and CFI value, were in the acceptable ranges. More specific, value of the normed chi-square ($\chi^2/df = 2.534$) was below the suggested cut-off value of 3.0 (Bollen, 1989) and the RMSEA value resided in the acceptable range (.078). Although the CFI value of .88 was lower than the suggested cut-off value of .90 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), the value was marginally acceptable (Meyers et al., 2006).

The hypothesized model that examined the influence of professional sport donor motivation and perceived relationship quality of professional sport nonprofit organization on donor behavioral outcomes is depicted in Figure 4.1. The second-order relationship quality factor significantly influenced the second-order donor behavioral outcomes (standardized $\gamma = .83$). However, the second-order Professional Sport Donor Motivation shown to have not significant impact on the second-order donor behavioral outcomes (standardized $\gamma = .06$). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was supported, while Hypothesis 1 was not supported indicating that while donor motivation as a whole did not predict donor behavioral outcomes, overall relationship quality of professional nonprofit organization had a positive impact on donor behavior.

Accordingly, while testing the hypothesized second-order hierarchical model, comparisons were made with an alternative model with the first-ordered professional sport donor motivation (see Figure 4.2) in order to test direct effects of donor motivational factors on donor behavior. The alternative model did not fit the data well ($\chi^2/df = 3.204$, RMSEA = .093, and CFI = .82). However, the standardized direct effect of Fan Identification was found to have a positive influence on donor behavioral outcomes (standardized $\gamma = .14$). The standardized direct effect of Community Support also had a positive impact on donor behavioral outcomes (standardized $\gamma = .12$) as well as Charity Image (standardized $\gamma = .31$). In brief, although the structural model (i.e., first-ordered donor motivation factors) showed poor fit of the data, direct effects of donor motivation factors (i.e., Fan Identification, Community Support, and Charity Image) on donor behavior were identified.

In order to test Hypothesis 2a and 2b (i.e., direct effects of RQ Athletes and RQ Staffs on donor behavior), perceived relationship quality of professional nonprofit organizations was modified as a first-ordered factors (see Figure 4.3), and this alternative model was tested. Although the alternative model did not fit the data well ($\chi^2/df = 3.401$, RMSEA = .097, and CFI = .81), the standardized direct effect of RQ Staffs had a positive impact on donor behavioral outcomes (standardized $\gamma = .51$) as well as RQ Athletes (standardized $\gamma = .27$). Therefore, Hypothesis 2a and 2b were supported. In other words, there were statistically significant and positive causal relationships between RQ Staffs and donor behavior, and between RQ Athletes and donor behavior, indicating that both relationship quality of staff members and athletes are strong predictors for positive donor behaviors.

Finally, the direct effects of independent variables (i.e., Fan Identification, Community Support, Charity Image, RQ Athletes, and RQ Staffs) on two dependent variables (i.e., Future

Intentions and Word-of-Mouth) were analyzed (see Figure 4.4). The standardized direct effects of Fan Identification, Community Support, Charity Image, RQ Staffs, and RQ Athletes showed a statistically significant influence on Future Intention (standardized $\gamma = .18, .13, .24, .62, .24$ respectively) as well as Word-of-Mouth (standardized $\gamma = .16, .18, .37, .48, .29$ respectively), while the direct effect model showed poor fit of the data ($\chi^2/df = 3.611$, RMSEA = .101, and CFI = .79). Stated differently, the results of direct effects indicate that all the donor motivation factors along with relationship quality factors serve as strong driving factors for donors' future donation intentions as well as positive word-of-mouth behaviors. Specifically, considering the path coefficients, relationship quality of nonprofit staff members had the strongest impacts both on donors' future intentions and word-of-mouth behaviors while Community Support and Fan Identification had weakest influences on future intentions and word-of-mouth behavior, respectively.

Table 4.1. Demographic characteristics of participants ($n = 511$)

Variable	Category	<i>n</i>	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Age	18-29	216	42.3	42.3	42.3
	30-39	221	43.2	43.2	85.5
	40-49	47	9.2	9.2	94.7
	50-59	25	4.9	4.9	99.6
	More than 60	2	.4	.4	100.0
Gender	Male	352	68.9	68.9	68.9
	Female	159	31.1	31.1	100.0
Ethnicity	Caucasian	334	65.4	65.4	65.4
	African-American	53	10.4	10.4	75.7
	Latino/Hispanic	62	12.1	12.1	87.9
	Asian	56	11.0	11.0	98.8
	Other	6	1.2	1.2	100.0
Household Income	Less than \$25K	44	8.6	8.6	8.6
	\$25K ~ \$50K	136	26.6	26.6	35.2
	\$50K ~ \$75K	139	27.2	27.2	62.4
	\$75K ~ \$100K	98	19.2	19.2	81.6
	\$100K ~ \$150K	64	12.5	12.5	94.1
	More than \$150K	30	5.9	5.9	100.0

Table 4.2. Descriptive statistics for professional donor motivation

Factors	Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Fan			
Identification	I identify with (athlete/team).	5.56	1.18
	I am a huge fan of (athlete/team).	5.80	1.30
	I regard myself as a big fan of (athlete/team).	5.67	1.37
	I am strongly attached to (athlete/team).	5.59	1.37
	I am highly identified with (athlete/team).	5.42	1.48
	I feel attachment toward (athlete/team).	5.62	1.37
Awareness of Needs			
	I am aware of the social issues that my nonprofit organization supports.	5.87	1.04
	I am aware of people who suffer from the causes the nonprofit supports.	5.67	1.20
	The causes that my nonprofit supports draw my attention.	5.77	1.09
	I know of the causes my nonprofit organization supports.	5.75	1.15
	The causes that my nonprofit supports are highly recognizable.	5.69	1.08
	I think the causes my nonprofit supports attract public recognition.	5.58	1.16
Community Support			
	The nonprofit organization supports the community where I come from.	5.30	1.40
	The nonprofit organization helps my local community.	5.33	1.45
	Donating to the nonprofit organization is a great way to support my community.	5.57	1.30
	The nonprofit organization supports people in need in my local area.	5.34	1.43
	Supporting the nonprofit organization is a great way to help people in my community.	5.55	1.29
	The nonprofit organization helps solve social issues in my community.	5.41	1.37
Cause Involvement			
	The cause that the nonprofit organization supports is personally relevant to me.	5.60	1.19
	I am interested in helping the cause that the nonprofit organization supports.	5.83	1.05
	I am personally related to the cause that the nonprofit organization supports.	5.29	1.50
	The cause that the nonprofit organization supports is important to me personally.	5.57	1.27
	Helping the cause that the nonprofit organization supports means a lot to me.	5.76	1.14

	The causes that the nonprofit organization supports are personally valuable.	5.62	1.22
Charity Image			
	I have a good impression of the nonprofit organization.	5.85	1.13
	I believe the nonprofit organization has a good image in the minds of people.	5.76	1.13
	I feel that the nonprofit organization has a good image.	5.73	1.12
	The nonprofit organization has a positive social image.	5.73	1.16
	The nonprofit organization has a favorable image in the minds of donors.	5.80	1.13
	I have a positive feeling toward the nonprofit organization.	5.89	1.10
Perceived Effectiveness			
	The nonprofit organization is successful in achieving its mission.	5.85	1.08
	The nonprofit organization operates effectively.	5.66	1.15
	The nonprofit organization is well-managed.	5.70	1.14
	The nonprofit organization uses its financial resources effectively.	5.64	1.15
	The nonprofit organization functions effectively in supporting its cause.	5.68	1.08
	The nonprofit organization makes the best use of its financial resources.	5.72	1.15
Altruistic Reason			
	I feel great when I help others who are in need.	5.96	1.117
	Helping others gives me a good feeling.	5.95	1.103
	Helping others in need makes me happy.	5.96	1.141
	Supporting people in need makes me feel good about myself.	5.98	1.102
	It is always nice to help someone in need.	5.94	1.117
	I feel happy when I help people in need.	6.08	1.062

Table 4.3 Factor pattern matrix for the professional sport donor motivation variables: maximum likelihood extraction with varimax rotation using first half data (n = 255)

	F1	F2	F3
<i>Fan Identification (6 items)</i>			
I identify with (athlete/team).	.481		
I am a huge fan of (athlete/team).	.752		
I regard myself as a big fan of (athlete/team).	.677		
I am strongly attached to (athlete/team).	.821		
I am highly identified with (athlete/team).	.786		
I feel attachment toward (athlete/team).	.838		
<i>Community Support (6 items)</i>			
The nonprofit organization supports the community where I come from.		.628	
The nonprofit organization helps my local community.		.724	
The nonprofit organization supports people in need in my local area.		.681	
Supporting the nonprofit organization is a great way to help people in my community.		.667	
The nonprofit organization helps solve social issues in my community.		.628	
The cause that the nonprofit organization supports is personally relevant to me.		.724	
<i>Charity Image (19 items)</i>			
The causes that my nonprofit supports draw my attention.			.628
I know of the causes my nonprofit organization supports.			.724
The causes that my nonprofit supports are highly recognizable.			.681
I think the causes my nonprofit supports attract public recognition.			.667
I am interested in helping the cause that the nonprofit organization supports.			.648
Helping the cause that the nonprofit organization supports means a lot to me.			.759
The causes that the nonprofit organization supports are personally valuable.			.681
I have a good impression of the nonprofit organization.			.669
I believe the nonprofit organization has a good image in the minds of people.			.671
I feel that the nonprofit organization has a good image.			.666
The nonprofit organization has a positive social image.			.626
The nonprofit organization has a favorable image in the minds of donors.			.650

I have a positive feeling toward the nonprofit organization.	.746
The nonprofit organization is successful in achieving its mission.	.647
The nonprofit organization operates effectively.	.755
The nonprofit organization is well-managed.	.796
The nonprofit organization uses its financial resources effectively.	.742
The nonprofit organization functions effectively in supporting its cause.	.755
The nonprofit organization makes the best use of its financial resources.	.678

Note. F1 = fan identification; F2 = community support; F3 = charity image

Table 4.4. Model fit comparison between the three-factor model with 31 items and three-factor model with 22 items of professional sport donor motivation using the second half data ($n = 255$)

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	CFI
Three-Factor Model (31 items)	1213.77	431	2.816	.085	.88
Three-Factor Model (22 items)	543.507	206	2.638	.080	.92

Table 4.5. Summary result for reliability and validity assessments (Factor loadings, Cronbach's Alpha & AVE) for phase 1

Factor	Item	λ	α	AVE
Fan Identification			.88	.88
	I identify with (athlete/team).	.73		
	I am a huge fan of (athlete/team).	.88		
	I regard myself as a big fan of (athlete/team).	.87		
	I am strongly attached to (athlete/team).	.76		
Community Support			.83	.87
	The nonprofit organization helps my local community.	.84		
	The nonprofit organization supports people in need in my local area.	.78		
	The nonprofit organization helps solve social issues in my community.	.75		
Charity Image			.96	.89
	I know of the causes my nonprofit organization supports.	.81		
	The causes that my nonprofit supports are highly recognizable.	.70		
	I am interested in helping the cause that the nonprofit organization supports.	.73		
	Helping the cause that the nonprofit organization supports means a lot to me.	.79		
	The causes that the nonprofit organization supports are personally valuable.	.75		
	I have a good impression of the nonprofit organization.	.73		
	I believe the nonprofit organization has a good image in the minds of people.	.76		
	The nonprofit organization has a positive social image.	.84		
	The nonprofit organization has a favorable image in the minds of donors.	.85		
	I have a positive feeling toward the nonprofit organization.	.77		
	The nonprofit organization operates effectively.	.76		
	The nonprofit organization is well-managed.	.74		
	The nonprofit organization uses its financial resources effectively.	.83		
	The nonprofit organization functions effectively in supporting its cause.	.83		
	The nonprofit organization makes the best use of its financial resources.	.73		

Table 4.6. Correlation matrix for three-factor model

Variable	FID	CSU	CIMG
FID	1		
CSU	.497**	1	
CIMG	.660**	.740**	1

Note. FID = fan identification; CSU = community support; CIMG = charity image

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.7. Descriptive statistics for professional donor motivation, relationship quality of nonprofit staff members, relationship quality of athletes, word-of-mouth, and future intention

Factors	Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Fan			
Identification	I identify with (athlete/team).	5.58	1.229
	I am a huge fan of (athlete/team).	5.74	1.318
	I regard myself as a big fan of (athlete/team).	5.57	1.420
	I am strongly attached to (athlete/team).	5.46	1.419
Community			
Support	The nonprofit organization helps my local community.	5.29	1.469
	The nonprofit organization supports people in need in my local area.	5.28	1.439
	The nonprofit organization helps solve social issues in my community.	5.33	1.428
Charity Image			
	I know of the causes my nonprofit organization supports.	5.66	1.241
	The causes that my nonprofit supports are highly recognizable.	5.62	1.133
	I am interested in helping the cause that the nonprofit organization supports.	5.82	1.024
	Helping the cause that the nonprofit organization supports means a lot to me.	5.71	1.151
	The causes that the nonprofit organization supports are personally valuable.	5.59	1.276
	I have a good impression of the nonprofit organization.	5.93	1.122
	I believe the nonprofit organization has a good image in the minds of people.	5.69	1.161
	The nonprofit organization has a positive social image.	5.62	1.270
	The nonprofit organization has a favorable image in the minds of donors.	5.70	1.153
	I have a positive feeling toward the nonprofit organization.	5.82	1.191
	The nonprofit organization operates effectively.	5.55	1.215
	The nonprofit organization is well-managed.	5.68	1.122
	The nonprofit organization uses its financial resources effectively.	5.55	1.238
	The nonprofit organization functions effectively in supporting its cause.	5.62	1.157
	The nonprofit organization makes the best use of its financial resources.	5.64	1.231
Relationship			
Quality of Nonprofit Staff	I believe the nonprofit staff members are sincere toward donors.	5.64	1.247
	Donors find the nonprofit staff members trustworthy.	5.64	1.228

Members	The nonprofit staff members are honest with their donors.	5.60	1.231
	The nonprofit staff members are authentic toward donors.	5.63	1.104
	The nonprofit staff members behave with integrity when dealing with donors.	5.69	1.175
	The nonprofit staff members are dependable when dealing with donors.	5.64	1.290
	The nonprofit staff members are dedicated to cultivating relationships with donors.	5.65	1.154
	The nonprofit staff members are devoted to building relationships with donors.	5.59	1.136
	The nonprofit staff members are passionate in nurturing relationships with donors.	5.73	1.122
	The nonprofit staff members are committed to building relationships with donors.	5.65	1.249
	The nonprofit staff members are enthusiastic in fostering relationship with donors.	5.60	1.162
	The nonprofit staff members are faithful to donors.	5.64	1.240
	The nonprofit staff members share the same feelings with donors about people who are suffering.	5.64	1.189
	The nonprofit staff members care about others who are in need.	5.71	1.181
	The nonprofit staff members are compassionate toward people who suffer.	5.67	1.213
	The nonprofit staff members express sympathies for others who are in need.	5.70	1.267
	The nonprofit staff members understand others' feelings who are suffering.	5.65	1.242
	The nonprofit staff members show compassions for people in need.	5.65	1.242
	The nonprofit staff members are friendly toward donors.	5.80	1.184
	The nonprofit staff members are kind to donors.	5.77	1.195
	The nonprofit staff members are helpful to donors.	5.72	1.169
	The nonprofit staff members are approachable by donors.	5.65	1.223
	The nonprofit staff members behave friendly to donors.	5.76	1.152
	The nonprofit staff members act with kindness to donors.	5.82	1.191
Relationship			
Quality of Athletes	I believe the athlete(s) is/are sincere toward donors.	5.45	1.234
	Donors find the athlete(s) trustworthy.	5.32	1.339
	The athlete(s) is/are honest with their donors.	5.42	1.243
	The athlete(s) is/are authentic toward donors.	5.40	1.294
	The athlete(s) behave(s) with integrity when dealing with donors.	5.42	1.168
	The athlete(s) is/are dependable when dealing with donors.	5.47	1.251

	The athlete(s) is/are dedicated to cultivating relationships with donors.	5.25	1.268
	The athlete(s) is/are devoted to building relationships with donors.	5.25	1.374
	The athlete(s) is/are passionate in nurturing relationships with donors.	5.28	1.294
	The athlete(s) is/are committed to building relationships with donors.	5.25	1.289
	The athlete(s) is/are enthusiastic in fostering relationship with donors.	5.35	1.280
	The athlete(s) is/are faithful to donors.	5.39	1.244
	The athlete(s) share(s) the same feelings with donors about people who are suffering.	5.43	1.246
	The athlete cares about others who are in need.	5.52	1.180
	The athlete(s) is/are compassionate toward people who suffer.	5.46	1.266
	The athlete(s) express(es) sympathies for others who are in need.	5.55	1.269
	The athlete(s) understand(s) others' feelings who are suffering.	5.53	1.159
	The athlete(s) show(s) compassions for people in need.	5.62	1.214
	The athlete(s) is/are friendly toward donors.	5.47	1.209
	The athlete(s) is/are kind to donors.	5.51	1.258
	The athlete(s) is/are helpful to donors.	5.37	1.239
	The athlete(s) is/are approachable by donors.	5.32	1.339
	The athlete(s) behave(s) friendly to donors.	5.47	1.216
	The athlete(s) act(s) with kindness to donors.	5.57	1.168
Word-of-Mouth	I will tell other people about how good this nonprofit organization is.	5.69	1.120
	I will encourage others to donate to this nonprofit organization.	5.66	1.203
	I will say positive things about this nonprofit organization.	5.86	1.121
	I will recommend this nonprofit organization to others.	5.75	1.174
	I will make positive comments on this nonprofit organization.	5.74	1.221
	I will refer others to make donations to this nonprofit organization.	5.73	1.137
Future Intention	I will keep donating to this nonprofit organization.	5.79	1.213
	I am intended to keep donating to this nonprofit organization.	5.72	1.135
	I am likely to support this nonprofit organization	5.64	1.266

continuously.		
I am willing to make donations to this nonprofit organization continuously.	5.70	1.199
I will support this nonprofit organization continuously.	5.76	1.178
I am planning to donate to this nonprofit organization continuously.	5.72	1.166

Table 4.8. Summary result for reliability and validity assessments (Factor loadings, Cronbach's Alpha & AVE) for phase 2

Factor	Item	λ	α	AVE
Fan Identification			.87	.90
	I am a huge fan of (athlete/team).	.87		
	I regard myself as a big fan of (athlete/team).	.80		
	I am strongly attached to (athlete/team).	.83		
Community Support			.87	.89
	The nonprofit organization helps my local community.	.88		
	The nonprofit organization supports people in need in my local area.	.90		
	The nonprofit organization helps solve social issues in my community.	.73		
Charity Image			.95	.90
	I know of the causes my nonprofit organization supports.	.80		
	The causes that my nonprofit supports are highly recognizable.	.73		
	I am interested in helping the cause that the nonprofit organization supports.	.75		
	Helping the cause that the nonprofit organization supports means a lot to me.	.82		
	The causes that the nonprofit organization supports are personally valuable.	.75		
	I have a good impression of the nonprofit organization.	.73		
	I believe the nonprofit organization has a good image in the minds of people.	.79		
	The nonprofit organization has a favorable image in the minds of donors.	.78		
	I have a positive feeling toward the nonprofit organization.	.76		
	The nonprofit organization operates effectively.	.79		
	The nonprofit organization is well-managed.	.82		
	The nonprofit organization uses its financial resources effectively.	.80		
	The nonprofit organization functions effectively in supporting its cause.	.78		
Relationship Quality of Nonprofit Staff Members			.93	.90
	The nonprofit staff members are authentic toward donors.	.78		
	The nonprofit staff members behave with integrity when dealing with donors.	.77		
	The nonprofit staff members are devoted to building relationships with donors.	.75		
	The nonprofit staff members are enthusiastic in fostering	.81		

	relationship with donors.			
	The nonprofit staff members care about others who are in need.	.77		
	The nonprofit staff members are compassionate toward people who suffer.	.86		
	The nonprofit staff members are kind to donors.	.81		
	The nonprofit staff members are helpful to donors.	.77		
Relationship			.93	.90
Quality of	The athlete(s) is/are authentic toward donors.	.79		
Athletes	The athlete(s) behave(s) with integrity when dealing with donors.	.84		
	The athlete(s) is/are devoted to building relationships with donors.	.81		
	The athlete(s) is/are enthusiastic in fostering relationship with donors.	.79		
	The athlete cares about others who are in need.	.74		
	The athlete(s) is/are compassionate toward people who suffer.	.74		
	The athlete(s) is/are kind to donors.	.82		
	The athlete(s) is/are helpful to donors.	.82		
Word-of-Mouth			.86	.91
	I will say positive things about this nonprofit organization.	.83		
	I will recommend this nonprofit organization to others.	.77		
	I will refer others to make donations to this nonprofit organization.	.84		
Future Intention			.90	.92
	I am likely to support this nonprofit organization continuously.	.86		
	I will support this nonprofit organization continuously.	.87		
	I am planning to donate to this nonprofit organization continuously.	.87		

Table 4.9. Correlation matrix for seven factors of fan identification, community support, charity image, perceived relationship quality of nonprofit staff members, perceived relationship quality of athletes, word-of-mouth, and future intention

Variable	FID	CSU	CIMG	RQS	RQA	WOM	INT
FID	1						
CSU	.522**	1					
CIMG	.627**	.614**	1				
RQS	.475**	.522**	.870**	1			
RQA	.519**	.534**	.710**	.753**	1		
WOM	.558**	.480**	.858**	.811**	.708**	1	
INT	.536**	.565**	.798**	.765**	.678**	.875**	1

Note. FID = fan identification; CSU = community support; CIMG = charity image; RQS = perceived relationship quality of nonprofit staff members; RQA = perceived relationship quality of athletes; WOM = word-of-mouth; INT = future intention

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

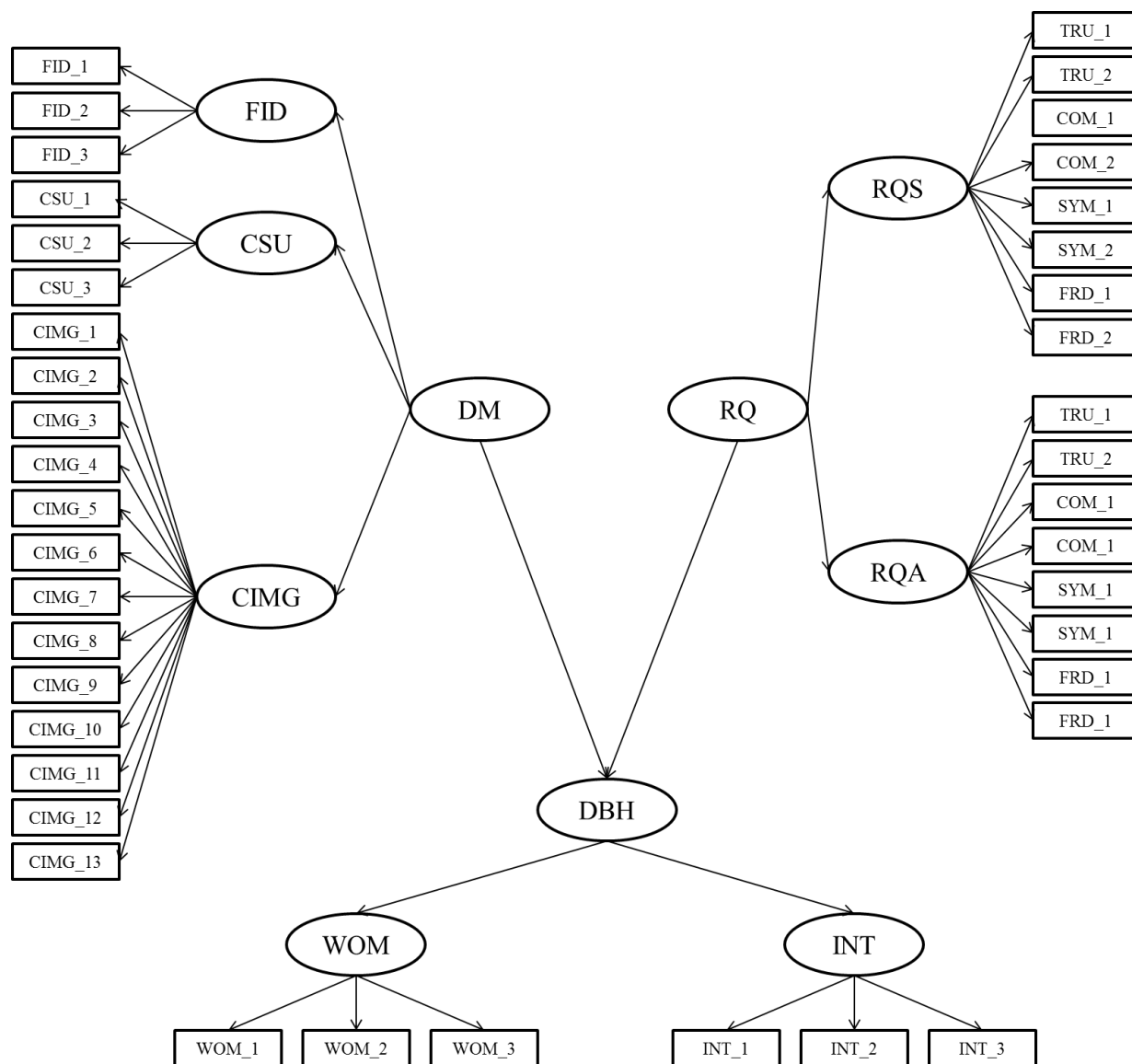


Figure 4.1. Hypothesized structural model

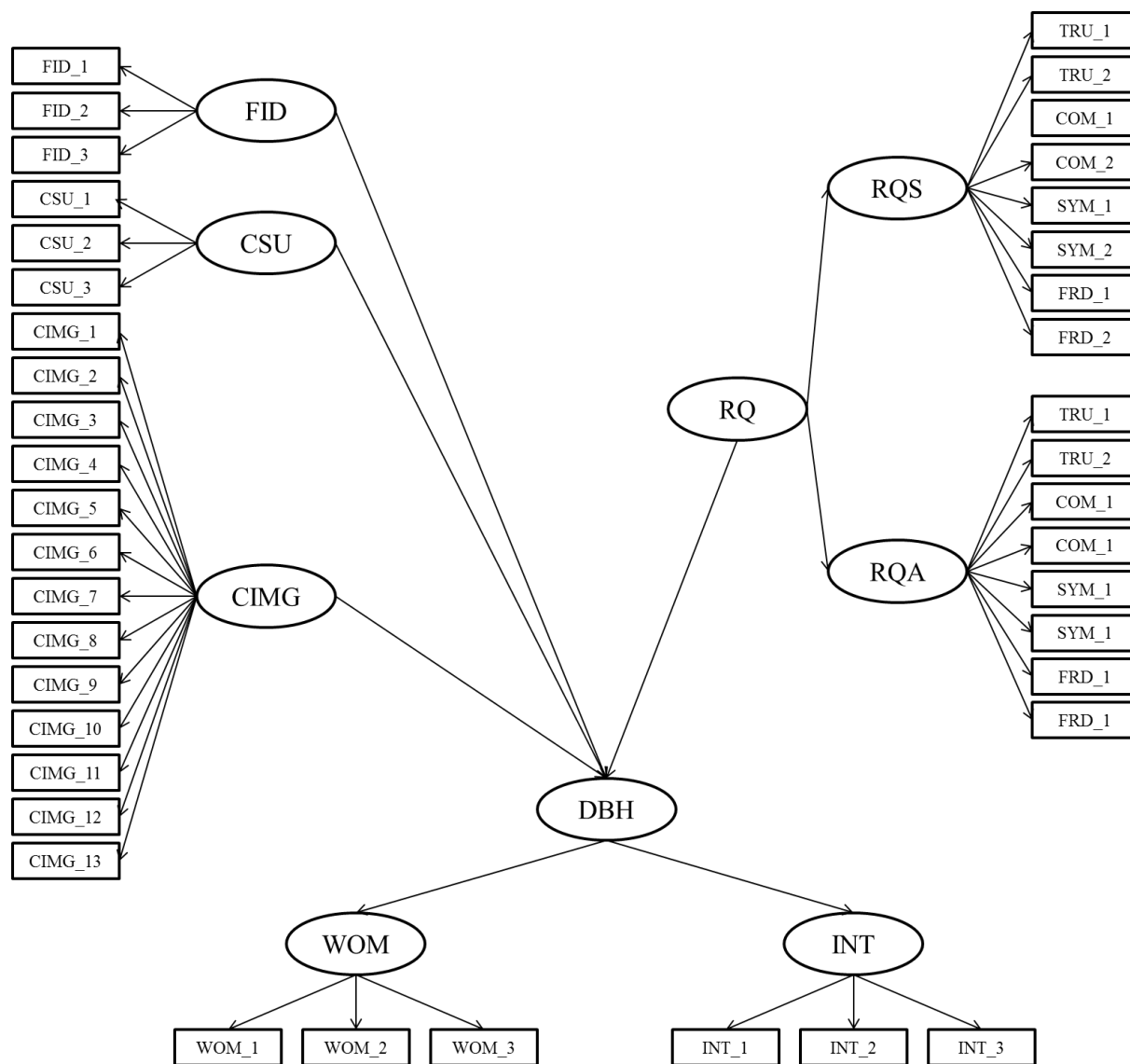


Figure 4.2. Alternative model with the first-ordered professional sport donor motivation

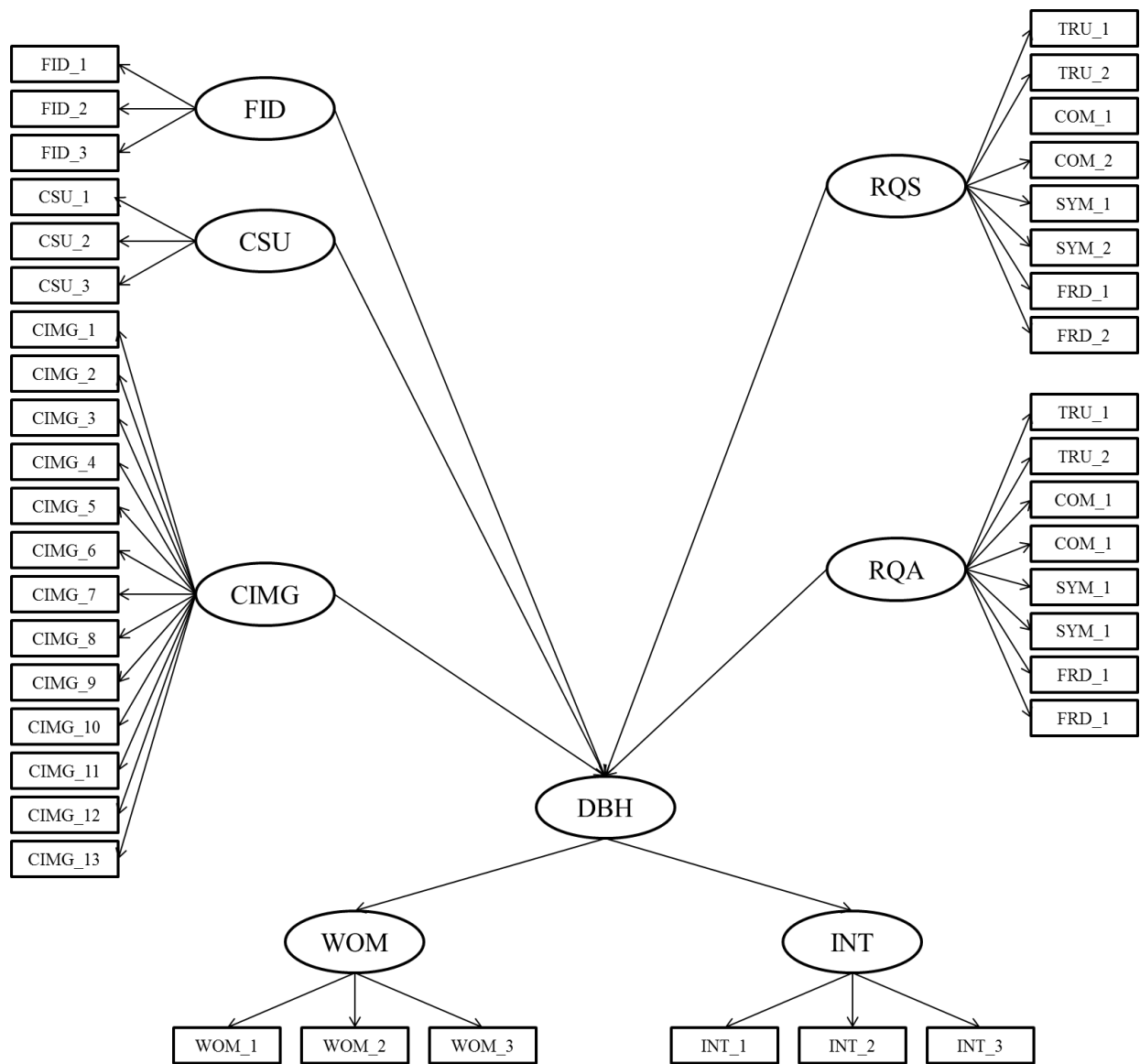


Figure 4.3. Alternative model with the first-ordered perceived relationship quality

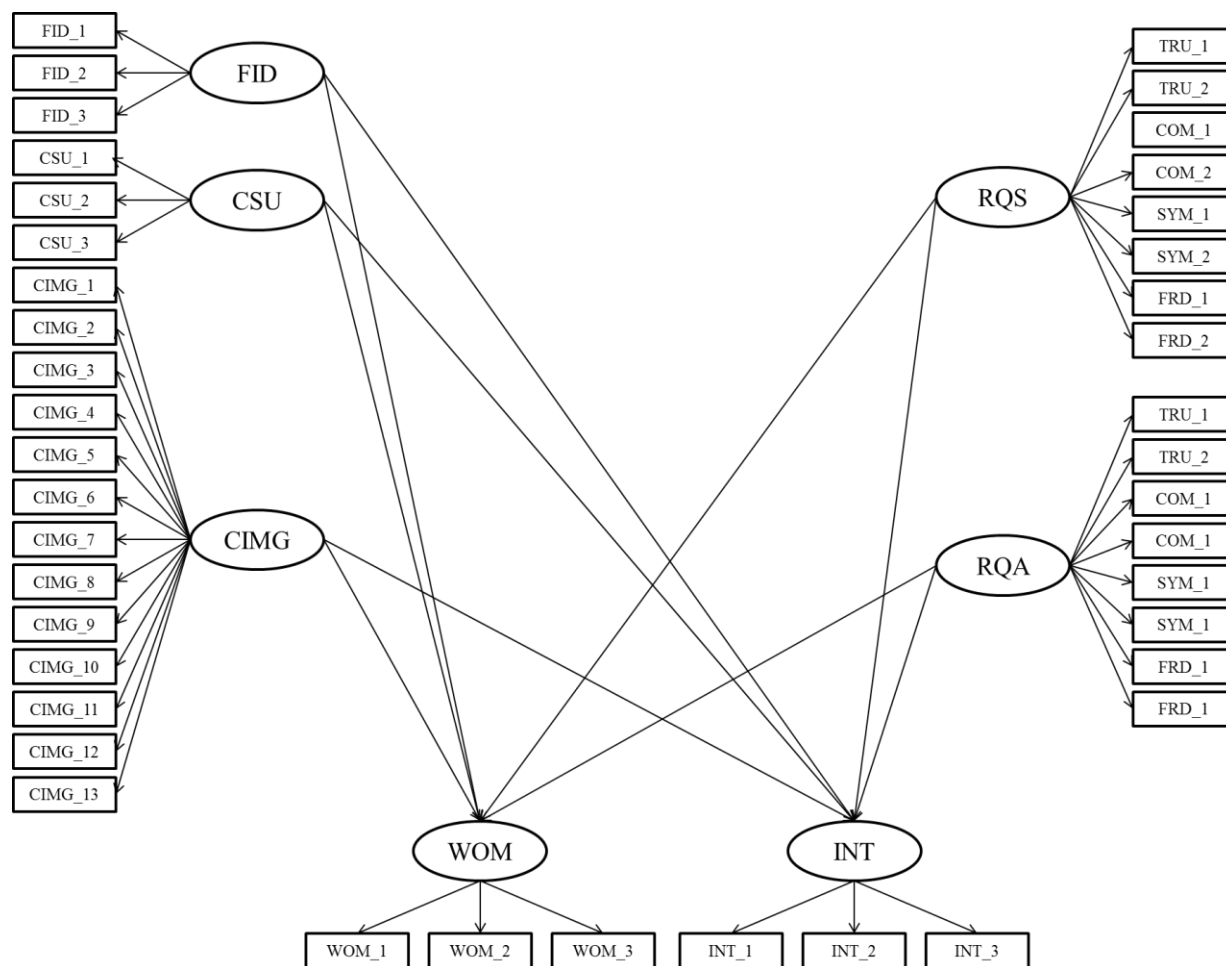


Figure 4.4. Direct effect model with the first-ordered donor behavior outcomes

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter presents discussion and interpretation of the data analyses in the following order: (1) measurement properties; (2) hypotheses testing; (3) implications; (4) limitations; (5) future research; and (6) conclusion.

In sport management literature, a dearth of research has explored donor motivations in the realm of professional sport – particularly what factors serve as driving forces for people to actually make monetary donations to nonprofit organizations that are represented or initiated by professional sport teams and athletes. In turn, this dissertation intends to address a growing interest of effective and efficient management of professional sport nonprofit organizations. Specifically, building on the initial work of Kim and Zhang (2016), this research involved the development of an instrument to better capture and explain professional sport donor motivation. While numerous research focused on understanding the donor decision process by incorporating various cognitive, affective, and behavioral factors, there is still a lack of empirical evidence of how such factors ultimately affect actual donor behavior and future donor involvement. The increasing number of literature on relationship marketing has demonstrated the importance of effective stakeholder management to nonprofit organizations in order for such organizations to maintain current stakeholder involvement and eventually increase and foster future commitments. As such, the importance of personal interactions has been drawing considerable attention in terms of customer relationships (e.g., Crosby et al., 1990; Morgan & Hunt, 1994) and donor behavioral outcomes (Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005; Brennan & Brady, 1999; Sargeant,

2001; Shabbir et al., 2007); however, how relationship quality traits actually predict current donors' behavioral loyalty (i.e., future donation intention and positive word-of-mouth) has rarely been studied. Accordingly, the current research was designed to fill such voids in the literature by creating an instrument that better fits for understanding donor behavior dynamics in the field of professional sport and confirming the relationship between donor motivation and donors' future commitment. In conjunction with professional sport donor motivation, the influence of relationship quality traits of professional sport nonprofit organizations also was taken into consideration to predict donor behavior.

Measurement Properties

Considering several limitations of Churchill's (1979) suggested procedure for developing a reliable and valid instrument, a more systematic procedure was undertaken by applying other guidelines (e.g., Hinkin et al., 1997) in compliance with Churchill's original procedure. To formulate the preliminary questionnaire, a comprehensive review of the literature was made to specify domains of construct followed by generation of sample items building on Kim and Zhang's (2016) initial qualitative study. For the content validity purpose, the sample items were sent to a panel of experts, which included three sport management scholars, one scholar in the statistics department, and one in the public administration department majoring nonprofit organizations. As the intention of this study was to identify global common motivational factors within the professional sport regardless of the levels of sport entity, the data were collected from actual donors who are currently making monetary contributions to various levels of professional sport nonprofit organizations (e.g., league-level, team-level, and athlete-level nonprofit organizations). Applying Hinkin et al.'s (1997) guideline, both EFA and CFA were conducted

for generalizability and validity purposes; EFA for identifying a set of latent constructs and CFA for confirming the factor structure identified from the EFA.

For donor motivation variables, seven factors with 42 items were prepared for initial EFA based on Kim and Zhang's (2016) qualitative results. The initial EFA results, however, did not confirm the seven factor measurement model rather six factors were identified. In addition, the cross-loaded items as well as interpretability of the measurement indicated an extra push for re-specification of the measurement items. According to Van de Mortel (2008), there is a higher chance for participants to fall into social desirability response bias, "the tendency for people to present a favorable image of themselves on questionnaires (p. 40)," especially when self-reporting questionnaire is used, suggesting that such bias would ultimately deter from identifying true and meaningful relationship among variables. This point was clearly evidenced by the mean scores for items measuring altruistic reasons, which were ranged from 5.94 to 6.08, indicating the possibility of social desirability response bias. Further, an issue of interpretability was arisen in terms of the identified factor structure because items measuring altruistic reasons were loaded on a factor along with items measuring charity image. After carefully considering the statistical and theoretical evidences, a decision was made to reanalyze the data without the items measuring altruistic reason.

As a result of the re-specification, three factors with 31 items were retained in the EFA including fan identification, community support, and charity image. The results of the EFA indicated a formation of global measure of charity image, which contains items measuring awareness of needs, cause involvement, charity image, and perceived effectiveness. Previously, Bendapudi et al. (1996) stated that "the helping decision process typically begins with the potential donor's perception that the charity is in need of help...the charity may influence this

need perception through its image, its depiction of the cause of need” (p. 37). They further depicted that the charity image consists of familiarity (i.e., general awareness of the charity), effectiveness (i.e., perceived success of a charity in achieving its mission), and efficiency (i.e., percentage of funds spent directly to beneficiaries). Consequently, the results of EFA supported the notion that charity image clearly encompasses donors’ awareness and perceived effectiveness of nonprofit organizations and their causes.

The follow-up CFA indicated that the re-specified model with three factors and 31 items did not fit the data well due to some items with poor factor loadings and high modification indices. Again, after careful consideration in terms of the statistical and theoretical justifications, nine items were removed, yielding a three-factor model with 22 items: Fan Identification (4 items), Community Support (3 items), and Charity Image (15 items). Another round of CFA results revealed that the three-factor model fit the data reasonably well, suggesting that the construct validity of newly developed instrument to measure professional donor motivation is established. The results of reliability estimates as well as discriminant and convergent validity estimates also confirmed the representativeness and applicability of instruments to measure donor motivation in the professional sport setting.

More importantly, several unique donor motivation factors emerged from the first phase of this study when compared with those of collegiate athletic donors. For example, one of the common collegiate athletic donor motivation factors was tangible benefits (i.e., receiving tax deductions, priority parking and seating, etc.; Billing et al., 1985; Ko et al., 2013; Staurowsky et al., 1996; Verner et al., 1998); however, the community support factor was identified as one of the primary motives for donors to make monetary contributions to professional sport nonprofit organizations. In particular, the team-level nonprofit organizations (e.g., Atlanta Hawks

Foundation, Silver & Black Give Back, Chicago Bears Care, etc.) are actively involved with their local communities with tremendous efforts to resolve social or environmental issues in their host cities and surrounding area. As collegiate athletic donors' motivations are somewhat limited to expressing commitment to their alma mater for enhancing prestige and success of university (Billing et al., 1985; Ko et al., 2013; Mahony et al., 2003; Staurowsky et al., 1996; Verner et al., 1998), the motive of helping local communities through a professional sport team is a distinctive factor that represents professional sport donor motivation.

Another notable finding was the emergence of Charity Image as a factor that embraces Awareness of Needs, Cause Involvement, Charity Image, and Perceived Effectiveness. As referring to Bendapudi et al.'s (1996) seminal work, there is no doubt that Awareness of Needs and Perceived Effectiveness should be parts of overall measure of Charity Image. The initial Charity Image factor also seemed appropriate to be included in the global measure of Charity Image because it was originally expected to measure a donor's mere perception, knowledge, belief, or feeling toward a nonprofit organization. In terms of Cause Involvement factor, it was intended to predict a donor's perceived relevance or importance of a certain cause based upon his or her personal needs, values, beliefs, and interests. Intuitively, in order for a donor to be personally involved with a cause, he or she must be aware of the cause before possessing a high degree of affinity toward the cause. This point was evidenced by previous research showing that people were more likely to donate to a nonprofit organization that supports a certain type of disease because they have family members or significant others who are suffering or suffered from that disease (Bennett, 2003). Stated differently, a donor could have a high level of involvement with a cause because he or she already is aware of the cause from personal experience. Further, Bendapudi et al. (1996) confirmed that perception of need, which is

reflected in charity image, could be generated by personal experience or from external information that might come from family or friends. As such, including Cause Involvement to an overall measure of Charity Image is deemed appropriate.

The Charity Image factor also differentiates the collegiate athletic donors and professional sport donors. Bendapudi et al. (1996) stated that donors' perceptions of charity image can be triggered by immediate cues, and the mass media is one of the immediate cues with more influence on social impact. In sport, the use of "star power" of an athlete for positive consumption behavior is not particular novel (Arai, Ko, & Ross, 2014; Braunstein & Zhang, 2005). That is, professional sport figures may possess a high profile status with heightened media attention than do collegiate athletics; in turn, professional sport nonprofits have a better chance to formulate donors' perceptions toward the charity, thus making people more familiar with the charity as well as various causes that they support. On the other hand, collegiate athletic donors were more likely to make a donation to enhance prestige of institutions and for the success of athletic programs (Billing et al., 1985; Ko et al., 2013; Mahony et al., 2003; Staurowsky et al., 1996), thereby such cause does not stand out well to the general public.

Hypotheses Testing

Another primary focus of the current study was to validate the developed instrument to measure professional sport donor motivation by examining the influence of donor motivation on donor behavioral outcomes (i.e., future donation intentions and positive word-of-mouth). In accordance with validating the instrument, this study also intended to investigate the impact of relationship quality on donor behavior because it is believed that the nonprofit organizations' relationship quality would play as an extrinsic driving force that enhances positive donor behavior. Accordingly, a series of hypotheses testing was undertaken by using SEM analysis.

The initial test of a hypothesized model that examined the influence of professional sport donor motivation and perceived relationship quality of professional sport nonprofit organization on donor behavioral outcomes revealed that the second-ordered relationship quality construct significantly influenced the second-ordered donor behavioral outcomes. However, the second-ordered Professional Sport Donor Motivation failed to predict the second-ordered donor behavioral outcomes. When an alternative model with the first-ordered donor motivation was tested, all of the three sub-factors (i.e., Fan Identification, Community Support, and Charity Image) had statistically significant impact on donor behavioral outcomes (standardized $\gamma = .14$, $.12$, and $.31$, respectively), although the overall hypothesized model did not fit the data well. In order to test Hypothesis 2a and 2b, perceived relationship quality of professional nonprofit organizations was modified as a first-ordered model, proving that Relationship Quality of Staff Members and Relationship Quality of Athletes had a positive impact on donor behavioral outcomes (standardized $\gamma = .51$ and $.27$, respectively). Finally, the analysis of the direct effects of independent variables on two dependent variables indicated that the standardized direct effects of Fan Identification, Community Support, Charity Image, RQ Staff, and RQ Athletes showed a statistically significant influence on Future Intention (standardized $\gamma = .18$, $.13$, $.24$, $.62$, $.24$, respectively) as well as Word-of-Mouth (standardized $\gamma = .16$, $.18$, $.37$, $.48$, $.29$, respectively).

Surprisingly, donor motivation was not a significant predictor of donor behavior, indicating the possibility of tarnishing predictive validity of an instrument to measure professional sport donor motivation. However, this result could be explained by important reasons. The sample of this study consisted of donors who make donations to either professional team-level nonprofit organizations or athlete-level organizations. Therefore, within the sample, there exist two different types of donors: donors of professional sport team-related nonprofit

organization (team-level donors) and donors of professional athlete-related nonprofit organization (athlete-level donors). Depending on the levels of nonprofit organizations, two types of donors might have different levels of motivation in terms of Fan Identification, Community Support, and Charity Image.

Regarding the level of fan identification, previous research identified high correlations between off-field behavior of athletes and athlete identification (Fink, Parker, Brett, & Higgins, 2009), suggesting that unscrupulous off-field acts by athletes can influence fans' level of identification. Recently, accusations of unfavorable off-field behaviors of professional athletes became prevalent (Davis, 2013). More importantly, some athletes, who were accused of committing unscrupulous off-field acts, were actively involved with philanthropic programs, and numerous participants in this study responded that they are currently donating to nonprofit organizations represented by the athletes who committed such erroneous acts. Consequently, as fan identification has been shown to have a positive effect on donor behavior (Kim & Walker, 2013), it could be assumed that athlete's unscrupulous off-field behavior affected the level of fan identification of donors, which eventually hurt the donor decision process.

Another possible reason that explains the insignificant causal relationship between donor motivation (especially with regard to Community Support) and behavior would be charity programs and/or fundraising events the professional sport nonprofit organizations offer to their donors in accordance with the causes they support. Specifically, professional sport team-level nonprofit organizations focus heavily on social and environmental issues of their local community or host cities, whereas athlete-level nonprofit organizations address various causes that are more general, broad, and beyond a certain geographical location. For instance, the Atlanta Hawks Foundation's mission is to "to increase access for metro Atlanta's youth to play,

grow and learn life and leadership skills through basketball” (NBA.com, n.d.), meaning that the nonprofit organization’s primary goal is to help local youth where the team belongs. On the other hand, athlete-level nonprofit organizations such as the Livestrong Foundation, Tiger Woods Foundation, Tim Tebow Foundation, Turn 2 Foundation (MLB player Derek Jeter), etc. are involved with various causes that are not limited to a certain location but rather causes that draw public attention; those causes include cancer, youth education, people with disabilities, and youth health. Stated differently, athlete-level donors might not consider community support as their primary motive, while team-level donors regard helping their local community as one of the most important motivational factors. As a result, because two different types of donors with different donor motivations are blended into the research sample, this heterogeneity within the sample would have contaminated the relationship between donor motivation and behavior.

The athlete-level nonprofit organizations also support a variety of causes to which the athletes feel a great degree of affinity. For instance, the ziMS Foundation (MBL player Ryan Zimmerman), Team Gleason Foundation (NFL player Steve Gleason), and Mario Lemieux Foundation (NHL player) are actively involved with helping people with certain types of diseases such as multiple sclerosis, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis or ALS, Hodgkin’s lymphoma, and many other diseases based on the athletes’ personal relevance and experience. When compared with other cause with heightened awareness from the general public, the causes that heavily focusing on certain types of diseases have lower chances to draw attention from potential donors, indicating that the image (i.e., familiarity of needs) of nonprofit organization do not stand out clearly than other nonprofit organizations with more recognizable causes.

The finding that relationship quality of professional sport nonprofit organization had a positive influence on donor behavior outcomes was consistent with previous studies (e.g.,

(Bennett & Barkensjo, 2005; Brennan & Brady, 1999; Sargeant, 2001; Shabbir et al., 2007).

Although the relationship quality measure did not disaggregate into four dimensions as conceptually suggested, one-dimensional relationship quality construct containing items to measure trustworthiness, commitment, sympathy, and friendliness led to positive donor behavioral outcomes. This study also confirmed that perceptions of trustworthiness and commitment were important to a person's decision-making processes with respect to interpersonal relationships (Bejou et al., 1996; Bennett, & Barkensjo, 2005; Crosby et al., 1990; Garbarino, & Johnson, 1999). Likewise, social psychologists previously identified positive relationships between empathy and prosocial behavior (e.g., Eisenberg & Fabes, 1990; Eisenberg & Miller, 1987). The term "empathy," defined as "the ability to comprehend the affective or cognitive status of another" (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987, p. 91), is used interchangeably with sympathy, and this emotional or sometimes cognitive status has been found to be highly related to altruistic behavior (Hoffman, 1984). In turn, it was obvious that nonprofit staff members' and athletes' showing the sympathetic emotions to their donors when raising funds or asking for solicitation catalyzed the donors' positive behavioral intentions.

When professional sport nonprofit organizations hold fundraising events, donors have a chance to meet not only staff members but also professional athletes who are connected to the nonprofit organization. Subsequently, analyzing the direct influences of relationship quality of staff members and athletes on donor behavior deemed appropriate. The results indicated that both RQ Staff and RQ Athletes had positive impacts on donor behavior outcomes. Particularly, the relationship between RQ Staff and donor behavior outcomes (standardized $\gamma = .51$) was statistically stronger than the relationship between RQ Athletes and donor behavior outcomes (standardized $\gamma = .27$). Although donors do not always make interpersonal relationships with the

nonprofit organizations frequently (Kim & Zhang, 2016), nonprofit staff members have more chances to make direct relationship with their donors (e.g., asking for donations or providing information through face-to-face meetings, phone calls, emails, direct mails, etc.) while professional athletes are more likely to have indirect relationships with donors via mass media. As such, it was not surprising to find that RQ Staff is a stronger driving force than RQ Athletes for encouraging future donor involvement and financial commitment.

Implications

From the results of the current research, several notable implications have emerged for nonprofit managers. First and foremost, nonprofit managers in professional sport should focus more on nurturing relationships with various stakeholders, especially with donors. Although donors do not always actively communicate with nonprofit organizations, this does not mean that they are the ones who can be neglected. Rather, as donors do have financial power that is crucial for the nonprofit organization's existence and success, nonprofit managers should emphasize and show their dedication in achieving mission when communicating with their donors. As several researchers (e.g., Burnett, 2002; Shabbir et al., 2007) have suggested, donors' perceptions of knowing that they are treated considerably and valuably by nonprofit organizations are important for maximizing financial supports. Accordingly, nonprofit managers should behave with honesty, kindness, sympathetic emotion, and dedication when communicating with their donors in order to maintain their donor base and receive a pledge of continuous support. Further, when professional athletes are invited to fundraising events, nonprofit managers should make sure the athletes act in the same way as do the nonprofit managers.

Second, nonprofit managers should select appropriate causes and initiate philanthropic programs in accordance with the interests and needs of the local community. In most cases,

professional sport teams and athletes represent the local communities, and they are well respected by community members. The professional sport teams' and athletes' community visibility and high profile status would serve as an immediate cue for donors to formulate a heightened charity image, which ultimately inspires more prosocial behavior from donors. Finally, nonprofit managers should keep in mind that a positive and favorable image of a team or athlete compromises the increasing level of team and athlete identification, which, hence, leads to positive donor behavior outcomes. Thus, continuously managing on and off field behaviors of athletes would be necessary to keep positive and favorable images in the minds of their community members as well as other fans, thereby increasing donor commitment and involvement.

For academicians, this research not only contributes to but extends the current donor behavior literature because the results of this study have validated the important underlying dynamics in the donor decision process specifically in the professional sport setting. As noted, a majority of donor motivation research in sport focused on collegiate athletic donors, and professional sport nonprofit organizations were rarely been studied; thus, this research is notable for several reasons. First, the results from the scale development process suggest that unique donor motivation factors exist for professional sport donors, which is different from collegiate athletic donors. Although the professional sport donor motivation scale did not predict donor motivation, different donor motivational factors were confirmed. Second, by showing a strong relationship between relationship quality and donor behavior, this study opens the range of examining other possible motivational factors in professional sport philanthropy literature, thereby providing sport management researchers with a different angle to further assess what factors underlie such a unique setting. Finally, identification of sympathy as one of the

relationship quality factors cannot be overlooked. Although there is disagreement in terms of sub-dimensions of the relations quality construct, expressing sympathetic emotions to beneficiaries should be considered in the nonprofit setting.

Limitations

The following is a list of limitations that should be acknowledged for this research:

1. The sample of this study was not differentiated based on the levels of professional sport nonprofit organizations. Some donors were making donations to team-level nonprofits, while others were donating to athlete-level nonprofits. Although much effort was made to develop a universal measure of professional sport donor motivation, there should be differences between the two groups of donors.
2. A majority of participants were recruited from an online survey provider and not directly from nonprofit organizations. In turn, there were concerns about the overall quality of the data (Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010) because there is no way to gauge how seriously the participants, recruited from the service provider, took the survey.
3. The dependent variables of this study, donor behavior outcomes, were assessed via self-reporting survey, which could have raised the issue of social desirability response bias (Van de Mortel, 2008). There is a possibility that respondents overestimated their behavioral intentions because they might wanted to present a better image or appear to be concerned with helping others in needs.

Future Research

The following are recommendations for future research:

1. Future research should revalidate the instrument measuring professional sport donor motivation by differentiating the donors based on the levels of professional sport nonprofit organizations in order to better predict donor behavior.
2. Although the charity image and relationship quality factors emerged from this study were identified as unidimensional constructs, previous research suggests their multidimensionality. As such, future research should focus on identifying sub-dimensional factors that constitute charity image as well as relationship quality construct.
3. While Fan Identification, Community Support, Charity Image, and Relationship Quality were important antecedents to donation behavior, other intrinsic and extrinsic motives such as peer pressure, community development, or previous experience also should be considered in the future study.
4. This study solely focused on motivational factors for individual donors. Because corporate donors also take up a large portion of total donation amount and numerous corporations and businesses are partnered with professional sport nonprofit organizations, assessing corporate or business donors' motivation as well as effectiveness of such partnership would help researchers to better understand the sport philanthropy landscape.

Conclusion

The results of the current study indicate that professional sport donors possess unique motivational factors and such factors influence their decision-making process, especially when these donors decide to make continuous monetary contribution and/or speak favorably of the organizations to others. The findings also suggest that the quality of relationships the nonprofit

organizations make with their donors play an additional driving force for making donation decisions. Because of increasing number of nonprofit organizations, along with the limited amount financial resources, the nonprofit sector is becoming more competitive. For professional sport nonprofit organizations to continuously survive and thrive in competitive situations and develop effective fundraising strategies and programs, nonprofit managers should not only adopt various marketing tools to trigger donor involvement but also must communicate effectively in order to build long-term relationships with their donors.

REFERENCES

- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 179-211.
- Alderson, W. (1955). A functionalist approach to consumer motivation. Consumer behavior and motivation. In R. H. Cole (Ed.), *Marketing symposium* (pp. 6-24). Urbana: University of Illinois.
- Anderson, E. W. (1998). Customer satisfaction and word of mouth. *Journal of Service Research*, 1, 5-17.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103, 411-423.
- Arai, A., Ko, Y. J., & Ross, S. (2014). Branding athletes: Exploration and conceptualization of athlete brand image. *Sport Management Review*, 17, 97-106.
- Babbie, E. (2004). *The Practice of Social Research (10th ed.)*, Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomas Learning.
- Babiak, K., Mills, B., Tainsky, S., & Juravich, M. (2012). An investigation into professional athlete philanthropy: Why charity is part of the game. *Journal of Sport Management*, 26, 159-176.
- Balliet, D., Parks, C., & Joireman, J. (2009). Social value orientation and cooperation in social dilemmas: A meta-analysis. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 12, 533-547.
- Batson, C. D. (1987). Prosocial motivation: Is it ever truly altruistic?. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 20, 65-122.
- Batson, C. (1991). *The altruism question: Toward a social-psychological answer*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum

- Batson, C. D., & Coke, J. S. (1981). Empathy: A source of altruistic motivation for helping? In J. P. Rushton & R. M. Sorrentino (Eds.), *Altruism and helping behavior: Social, personality, and developmental perspectives* (pp. 167-211). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Batson, C. D., & Shaw, L. L. (1991). Evidence for altruism: Toward a pluralism of prosocial motives. *Psychological Inquiry*, 2, 107-122.
- Bee, C. C., & Kahle, L. R. (2006). Relationship marketing in sports: A functional approach. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 15, 102-110.
- Bejou, D., Wray, B., & Ingram, T. N. (1996). Determinants of relationship quality: An artificial neural network analysis. *Journal of Business Research*, 36, 137-143.
- Bekkers, R. (2007). Measuring altruistic behaviour in surveys: The all-or-nothing dictator game. *Survey Research Methods*, 3, 139-144.
- Bekkers, R., & Wiepking, P. (2010). A literature review of empirical studies of philanthropy: Eight mechanisms that drive charitable giving. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 40, 924-973.
- Bendapudi, N., Singh, S. N., & Bendapudi, V. (1996). Enhancing helping behavior: An integrative framework for promotion planning. *Journal of Marketing*, 60, 33-49.
- Bennett, R. (2003). Factors underlying the inclination to donate to particular types of charity. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 8, 12-29.
- Bennett, R., & Barkensjo, A. (2005). Relationship quality, relationship marketing, and client perceptions of the levels of service quality of charitable organisations. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 16, 81-106.
- Berinsky, A. J., Huber, G. A., & Lenz, G. S. (2012). Evaluating online labor markets for experimental research: Amazon.com's Mechanical Turk. *Political Analysis*, 20, 351-368.

- Berkowitz, L. (1972). Social norms, feelings, and other factors affecting helping and altruism. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 6, 63-108.
- Berry, L. L. (1980). Services marketing is different. *Business*, 30, 24-29.
- Berry, L. L. (1983). Relationship Marketing. In L. L. Berry., G. L. Shostack, & G. D. Upah (Eds.), *Emerging perspectives on services marketing*, (pp. 25-58). Chicago, IL: American Marketing Association.
- Berry, L. L. (1995). Relationship marketing of services - growing interest, emerging perspectives. *Journal of the Academy of marketing science*, 23, 236-245.
- Billing, J., Holt, D., & Smith, J. (1985). Athletic fund-raising: Exploring the motives behind private donations. Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina Press.
- Birch, D., & Veroff, J. (1966). *Motivation: A study of action*. Belmont, CA: Brooks Cole.
- Bollen, K. A. (1989). *Structural equations with latent variables*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Branscombe, N. R., & Wann, D. L. (1991). The positive social and self concept consequences of sports team identification. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, 15, 115-127.
- Braunstein, J. R., & Zhang, J. J. (2005). Dimensions of athletic star power associated with Generation Y sports consumption. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, 6, 37-62.
- Brennan, L., & Brady, E. (1999). Relating to marketing? Why relationship marketing works for not-for-profit organisations. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 4, 327-337.
- Brenner, S. N., & Molander, E. A. (1977). Is the ethics of business changing? *Harvard Business Review*, 58, 54-65.

- Buhrmester, M., Kwang, T., & Gosling, S. D. (2011). Amazon's Mechanical Turk a new source of inexpensive, yet high-quality, data?. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 6, 3-5.
- Burnett, K. (2002). Relationship fundraising: A donor based approach to the business of raising money. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Burnett, J. J., & Wood, V. R. (1988). A proposed model of the donation decision process. In E. Hirschman, J. N. Sheth (Eds.), *Research in consumer behavior. Volume 3* (pp. 1-47). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Charitynavigator. (2013). Retrieved April 14 from: <http://www.charitynavigator.org/>
- Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. London ; Thousand Oaks: Sage publications.
- Churchill, G. A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16, 64-73.
- Clarkson, M. B. E. (1991). Defining, evaluating, and managing corporate social performance: A stakeholder management model. In J. E. Post (Ed.), *Research in corporate social performance and policy* (pp. 331-358). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Clary, E. G., Snyder, M., Ridge, R. D., Copeland, J., Stukas, A. A., Haugen, J., & Miene, P. (1998). Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: A functional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, 1516-1530.
- Clotfelter, C. T. (2001). Who are the alumni donors? Giving by two generations of alumni from selective colleges. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 12, 119-138.
- Coghlan, A., & Filo, K. (2013). Using constant comparison method and qualitative data to understand participants' experiences at the nexus of tourism, sport and charity events. *Tourism Management*, 35, 122-131.

- Coke, J. S., Batson, C. D., & McDavis, K. (1978). Empathic mediation of helping: A two-stage model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 36, 752-766.
- Costello, A. B., & Osborne, J. W. (2005). Best practices in exploratory factor analysis: Four recommendations for getting the most from your analysis. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, 10, 1-9.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.
- Crosby, L. A., Evans, K. R., & Cowles, D. (1990). Relationship quality in services selling: An interpersonal influence perspective. *Journal of Marketing*, 54, 68-81.
- Crosby, L. A., & Stephens, N. (1987). Effects of relationship marketing on satisfaction, retention, and prices in the life insurance industry. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24, 404-411.
- Davis, S. (2013, January 17). Why Lance Armstrong's brand is beyond repair. Retrieved from <http://www.forbes.com/sites/scottdavis/2013/01/17/getting-lanced-why-lance-armstrongs-brand-is-beyond-repair/#40125fa06419>
- De Cremer, D., & Van Lange, P. A. (2001). Why prosocials exhibit greater cooperation than proselves: The roles of social responsibility and reciprocity. *European Journal of Personality*, 15, 5-18.
- DeVellis, R. F. (2011). *Scale development: Theory and applications*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.
- Donaldson, T., & Preston, L. E. (1995). The stakeholder theory of the corporation: Concepts, evidence, and implications. *Academy of Management Review*, 20, 65-91.

- Dorsch, M. J., Swanson, S. R., & Kelley, S. W. (1998). The role of relationship quality in the stratification of vendors as perceived by customers. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 26, 128-142.
- Dovidio, J. F. (1984). Helping behavior and altruism: An empirical and conceptual overview. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 17, 361-427.
- Eisenberg, N., & Fabes, R. A. (1990). Empathy: Conceptualization, measurement, and relation to prosocial behavior. *Motivation and Emotion*, 14, 131-149.
- Eisenberg, N., & Miller, P. A. (1987). The relation of empathy to prosocial and related behaviors. *Psychological Bulletin*, 101, 91-119.
- Eisenberg, N., Miller, P. A., Schaller, M., Fabes, R. A., Fultz, J., Shell, R., & Shea, C. L. (1989). The role of sympathy and altruistic personality traits in helping: A reexamination. *Journal of Personality*, 57, 41-67.
- Esteve, M., Di Lorenzo, F., Inglés, E., & Puig, N. (2011). Empirical evidence of stakeholder management in sports clubs: The impact of the board of directors. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 11, 423-440.
- Fabrigar, L. R., Wegener, D. T., MacCallum, R. C., & Strahan, E. J. (1999). Evaluating the use of exploratory factor analysis in psychological research. *Psychological Methods*, 4, 272-299.
- Filo, K. R., Funk, D. C., & O'Brien, D. (2008). It's really not about the bike: Exploring attraction and attachment to the events of the Lance Armstrong foundation. *Journal of Sport Management*, 22, 501-525.

- Filo, K. R., Funk, D. C., & O'Brien, D. (2009). The meaning behind attachment: Exploring camaraderie, cause, and competency at a charity sport event. *Journal of Sport Management, 23*, 361-387.
- Filo, K., Funk, D. C., & O'Brien, D. (2011). Examining motivation for charity sport event participation: A comparison of recreation-based and charity-based motives. *Journal of Leisure Research, 43*, 491-518.
- Fink, J. S., Parker, H. M., Brett, M., & Higgins, J. (2009). Off-field behavior of athletes and team identification: Using social identity theory and balance theory to explain fan reactions. *Journal of Sport Management, 23*, 142-155.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1977). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Fletcher, G. J. O., Simpson, J. A., & Thomas, G. (2000). The measurement of perceived relationship quality components: A confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 26*, 340-354.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*, 39-50.
- Fournier, S. (1998). Consumers and their brands: Developing relationship theory in consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research, 24*, 343-353.
- Freeman, R. E. (1984). *Strategic management: A stakeholder approach*. Boston, MA: Cambridge University Press.
- Funk, D. C., & James, J. D. (2001). The psychological continuum model: A conceptual framework for understanding an individual's psychological connection to sport. *Sport Management Review, 4*, 119-150.

- Funk, D. C., & James, J. D. (2006). Consumer loyalty: The meaning of attachment in the development of sport team allegiance. *Journal of Sport Management*, 20, 189-217.
- Furnham, A. (1995). The just world, charitable giving and attitudes to disability. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 19, 577-583.
- Garbarino, E., & Johnson, M. S. (1999). The different roles of satisfaction, trust, and commitment in customer relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, 63, 70-87.
- George, W. R. (1977). The retailing of services: A challenging future. *Journal of Retailing*, 53, 85-98.
- Gladden, J. M., Mahony, D. F., & Apostolopoulou, A. (2005). Toward a better understanding of college athletic donors: What are the primary motives? *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 14, 18-30.
- Grönroos, C. (1981). Internal marketing - An integral part of marketing theory. In J. H. Donnelly & W. R. George (Eds.), *Marketing of Services* (pp. 236-238). Chicago, IL: American Marketing Association.
- Grönroos, C. (1995). Relationship marketing: The strategy continuum. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 23, 252-254.
- Guadagnoli, E., & Velicer, W. F. (1988). Relation to sample size to the stability of component patterns. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103, 265-275.
- Guy, B. S., & Patton, W. E. (1989). The marketing of altruistic causes: Understanding why people help. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 6, 19-30.
- Gwinner, K. P., Gremler, D. D., & Bitner, M. J. (1998). Relational benefits in services industries: The customer's perspective. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 26, 101-114.

- Halal, W. E. (1990). The new management: Business and social institutions in the information age. *Business in the Contemporary World*, 2, 41-54.
- Hinkin, T. R., Tracey, J. B., &ENZ, C. A. (1997). Scale construction: Developing reliable and valid measurement instruments. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 21, 100-120.
- Hoelter, J. W. (1983). The analysis of covariance structures goodness-of-fit indices. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 11, 325-344.
- Hoffman, M. L. (1984). Interaction of affect and cognition in empathy. In C. E. Izard, J. Kagan, & R. B. Zajonc (Eds.), *Emotions, cognition, and behavior* (pp. 103-131). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Horton, J. J., Rand, D. G., & Zeckhauser, R. J. (2011). The online laboratory: Conducting experiments in a real labor market. *Experimental Economics*, 14, 399-425.
- Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 6, 1-55.
- Kaiser, H. F. (1970). A second generation little jiffy. *Psychometrika*, 35, 401-415.
- Kaiser, H. F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, 39, 31-36.
- Kent, A., & Walker, M. (2010). Testing a schema for strategic corporate philanthropy in the sport industry. *International Journal of Sport Management*, 11, 1-26.
- Kihl, L. A., Leberman, S., & Schull, V. (2010). Stakeholder constructions of leadership in intercollegiate athletics. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 10, 241-275.
- Kim, M., & Walker, M. (2013). The influence of professional athlete philanthropy on donation intentions. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 13, 1-23.

- Kim, M., & Zhang, J. J. (2014). *Impact of relationship quality on donor loyalty: A case of professional sport-related charitable nonprofit organizations*. Presentation delivered at the annual conference of the North American Society for Sport Management. Pittsburgh, PA.
- Kim, M., & Zhang, J. J. (2016). *Assessing donor motivation in professional sports from the stakeholder perspective*. Presentation delivered at the annual conference of the North American Society for Sport Management, Orlando, FL.
- Kim, Y. K., Trail, G., & Ko, Y. J. (2011). The influence of relationship quality on sport consumption behaviors: An empirical examination of the relationship quality framework. *Journal of Sport Management*, 25, 576-592.
- Kim, Y. K., Trail, G. T., Woo, B., & Zhang, J. J. (2011). Sports consumer-team relationship quality: Development and psychometric evaluation of a scale. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, 12, 57-74.
- Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Knox, S., & Gruar, C. (2007). The application of stakeholder theory to relationship marketing strategy development in a non-profit organization. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 75, 115-135.
- Ko, Y. J., Rhee, Y. C., Walker, M., & Lee, J. H. (2013). What motivates donors to athletic programs: A new model of donor behavior. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 20, 1-24.
- Kotler, P., & Armstrong, G. (1999). *Principles of marketing*. Upper Saddle River, NJ : Prentice Hall.

- Krebs, D. L., & Miller, D. T. (1985). Altruism and aggression. In G. Lindzey & E. Aronson (Eds.), *The handbook of social psychology* (pp. 1-71). New York, NY: Random House.
- Kreiner, P., & Bhambri, A. (1991). Influence and information in organization-stakeholder relationships. In J. E. Post (Ed.), *Research in corporate social performance and policy* (pp. 3-36). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Krueger, R. F., Hicks, B. M., & McGue, M. (2001). Altruism and antisocial behavior: Independent tendencies, unique personality correlates, distinct etiologies. *Psychological Science*, 12, 397-402.
- Lee, S. P., Heinze, K., Babiak, K., & Juravich, M. (2011). *Athlete philanthropy, motives, drivers, and intentions*. Presentation delivered at the annual conference of the North American Society for Sport Management. London, ON, CA.
- Leopkey, B., & Parent, M. M. (2009). Risk management issues in large-scale sporting events: A stakeholder perspective. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 9, 187-208.
- Leslie, L. L., & Ramey, G. (1988). Donor behavior and voluntary support for higher education institutions. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 59, 115-132.
- Levitt, T. (1981). Marketing intangible products and product intangibles. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 22, 37-44.
- Mahony, D., Gladden, J., & Funk, D. (2003). Examining athletic donors at NCAA division I institutions. *International Sports Journal*, 7, 9-27.
- McDonald, M. A., & Milne, G. R. (1997). A conceptual framework for evaluating marketing relationships in professional sport franchises. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 6, 27-32.
- McClintock, C. G., & Allison, S. (1989). Social value orientation and helping behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 19, 353- 362.

- McGowan, R., & Mahon, S. J. J. F. (2009). Corporate social responsibility in professional sports: An analysis of the NBA, NFL, and MLB. *Academy of Business Disciplines Journal*, 1, 45-82.
- McKeever, B. (2015, December 15). The nonprofit sector in brief 2015: Public charities, giving, and volunteering. Retrieved from <http://www.urban.org/research/publication/nonprofit-sector-brief-2015-public-charities-giving-and-volunteering>
- McMillan, J. H. (2002). *Educational research: Fundamentals for the consumer* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Messick, D. M., & McClintock, C. G. (1968). Motivational basis of choice in experimental games. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 4, 1-25.
- Meyers, L. S., Gamst, G., & Guarino, A. J. (2006). *Applied multivariate research: Design and interpretation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Morgan, R. M., & Hunt, S. D. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 58, 20-38.
- National Center for Charitable Statistics. (2015, December 15). Quick facts about nonprofits. Retrieved from <http://nccs.urban.org/statistics/quickfacts.cfm>
- National Basketball Association. (n.d.). *Atlanta Hawks Foundation*. Retrieved June 26, 2016 from <http://www.nba.com/hawks/community/atlanta-hawks-foundation/>
- Nickell, G.(1998). The Helping Attitudes Scale. Presentation delivered at the 106th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, San Francisco, CA.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Oliver, R. L. (1999). Whence consumer loyalty?. *Journal of Marketing*, 63, 33-44.
- Palmatier, R. W., Dant, R. P., Grewal, D., & Evans, K. R. (2006). Factors influencing the effectiveness of relationship marketing: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Marketing*, 70, 136-153.
- Paolacci, G., Chandler, J., & Ipeirotis, P. G. (2010). Running experiments on amazon mechanical Turk. *Judgment and Decision Making*, 5, 411-419.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Berry, L. L. (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *Journal of Marketing*, 49, 41-50.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Berry, L. L. (1988). SERVQUAL: A multiple-item scale for measuring consumer perceptions of service quality. *Journal of Retailing*, 64, 12-37.
- Parent, M. M. (2008). Evolution and issue patterns for major-sport-event organizing committees and their stakeholders. *Journal of Sport Management*, 22, 135-164.
- Parent, M. M., Rouillard, C., & Leopkey, B. (2011). Issues and strategies pertaining to the Canadian governments' coordination efforts in relation to the 2010 Olympic Games. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 11, 337-369.
- Parent, M. M., & Séguin, B. (2007). Factors that led to the drowning of a world championship organizing committee: A stakeholder approach. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 7, 187-212.
- Parvatiyar, A., & Sheth, J. N. (2001). Customer relationship management: Emerging practice, process, and discipline. *Journal of Economic and Social research*, 3, 1-34.

- Petty, R. E., Unnava, R., & Strathman, A. J. (1991). Theories of attitude change. In T. S. Robertson & H. H. Kassarian (Eds.), *Handbook of consumer behavior* (pp. 241–280). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Polit, D. F., & Hungler, B. P. (1995). *Nursing research: Principles and methods* (5th Ed.). Philadelphia, PA: Lippincott.
- Ribal, J. E. (1963). Character and meanings of selfishness and altruism. *Sociology and Social Research*, 47, 311-321.
- Reizer, A., & Mikulincer, M. (2007). Assessing individual differences in working models of caregiving: The construction and validation of the mental representation of caregiving scale. *Journal of Individual Differences*, 28, 227-239.
- Romer, D., Gruder, C. L., & Lizzadro, T. (1986). A person–situation approach to altruistic behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 1001-1012.
- Rummel, R. J. (1970). *Applied factor analysis*. Evanston, IL: Northwestern University Press.
- Rushton, J. P., Chrisjohn, R. D., & Fekken, G. C. (1981). The altruistic personality and the self-report altruism scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 2, 293-302.
- Sargeant, A. (1999). Charitable giving: Towards a model of donor behaviour. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15, 215-238.
- Sargeant, A. (2001). Relationship fundraising: How to keep donors loyal. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 12, 177-192.
- Sargeant, A., & Jay, E. (2004). Building donor loyalty: The fundraiser's guide to increasing lifetime value. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Sargeant, A., & Woodliffe, L. (2007). Gift giving: An interdisciplinary review. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 12, 275-307.

- Schwab, D.P. (1980). Construct validity in organization behavior. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (pp. 3-43). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Shabbir, H., Palihawadana, D., & Thwaites, D. (2007). Determining the antecedents and consequences of donor-perceived relationship quality: A dimensional qualitative research approach. *Psychology & Marketing*, 24, 271-293.
- Sheth, H., & Babiak, K. M. (2010). Beyond the game: Perceptions and practices of corporate social responsibility in the professional sport industry. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 91, 433-450.
- Sheth, J. N., & Parvatiyar, A. (1995). The evolution of relationship marketing. *International Business Review*, 4, 397-418.
- Snelgrove, R., & Wood, L. (2010). Attracting and leveraging visitors at a charity cycling event. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 15, 269-285.
- Sparvero, E., & Kent, A. (2014). Sport team nonprofit organizations: Are sports doing well at "doing good"? *Journal of Applied Sport Management*, 6, 98-121.
- Sports Philanthropy Project. (n.d.). Retrieved February, 20, 2009 from <http://www.sportsphilanthropyproject.com>
- Staurowsky, E. J., Parkhouse, B., & Sachs, M. (1996). Developing an instrument to measure athletic donor behavior and motivation. *Journal of Sport Management*, 10, 262-277.
- Stevens, J. (1996). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences* (3rd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

- Tainsky, S., & Babiak, K. (2011). Professional athletes and charitable foundations: An exploratory investigation. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, 9, 133-153.
- Tom, G., & Elmer, L. (1994). Alumni willingness to give and contribution behavior. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 8, 57-62.
- Tower, J., Jago, L., & Deery, M. (2006). Relationship marketing and partnerships in not-for-profit sport in Australia. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 15, 167-180.
- Tschirhart, M., & Bielefeld, W. (2012). *Managing nonprofit organizations*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Tsiotsou, R. (2006). Investigating differences between female and male athletic donors: A comparative study. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 11, 209-223.
- Van de Mortel, T. F. (2008). Faking it: Social desirability response bias in self-report research. *Australian Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 25, 40-48.
- Van Lange, P. A. M. (1999). The pursuit of joint outcomes and equality in outcomes: An integrative model of social value orientation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77, 337-349.
- Van Lange, P. A. M., Bekkers, R., Schuyt, T. N., & Vugt, M. V. (2007). From games to giving: Social value orientation predicts donations to noble causes. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 29, 375-384.
- Van Vugt, M., Van Lange, P. A. M., & Meertens, R. M. (1996). Commuting by car or public transportation? A social dilemma analysis of travel mode judgements. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 26, 373-395.

- Venable, B. T., Rose, G. M., Bush, V. D., & Gilbert, F. W. (2005). The role of brand personality in charitable giving: An assessment and validation. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 33, 295-312.
- Verner, M., Hecht, J., & Fansler, A. (1998). Validating an instrument to assess the motivation of athletics donors. *Journal of Sport Management*, 12, 123-137.
- Walker, M., & Kent, A. (2009). Do fans care? Assessing the influence of corporate social responsibility on consumer attitudes in the sport industry. *Journal of Sport Management*, 23, 743-769.
- Wang, J., & Dewhirst, H. D. (1992). Boards of directors and stakeholder orientation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 11, 115-123.
- Wang, R. T., Ho, C. M., & Zhang, J. J. (2012). Examining the effects of relationship quality and calculative commitment on sport consumer behaviors for intercollegiate athletics. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics*, 5, 301-328.
- Waters, R. D. (2008). Applying relationship management theory to the fundraising process for individual donors. *Journal of Communication Management*, 12, 73-87.
- Webb, D. J., Green, C. L., & Brashear, T. G. (2000). Development and validation of scales to measure attitudes influencing monetary donations to charitable organizations. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28, 299-309.
- Weinstein, S. (2009). *The complete guide to fundraising management* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Wiersma, W. (2000). *Research methods in education: An introduction*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

- Won, D., & Park, M. (2010). Motivating factors influencing college students' participation in charity sport events. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, 8, 296-321.
- Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioral consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing*, 60, 31-46.
- Zwick, W. R., & Velicer, W. F. (1982). Factors influencing four rules for determining the number of components to retain. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 17, 253-269.