2-1-2022

Examining the Prevalence of Burnout Among Golf Operations Employees in Canada

Sheldon Taylor Fetter
University of Windsor

Examining the Prevalence of Burnout Among Golf Operations Employees in Canada

By

Sheldon Taylor Fetter

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
through the Department of Kinesiology
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Master of Human Kinetics
at the University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

2022

Examining the Prevalence of Burnout Among Golf Operations Employees in Canada

by

Sheldon Taylor Fetter

APPROVED BY:

_____

K. Brykman
Odette School of Business

_____

S. Gee
Faculty of Human Kinetics

_____

J. Dixon, Advisor
Faculty of Human Kinetics

January 24, 2022

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby certify that I am the sole author of this thesis and that no part of this thesis has been published or submitted for publication.

I certify that, to the best of my knowledge, my thesis does not infringe upon anyone's copyright nor violate any proprietary rights and that any ideas, techniques, quotations, or any other material from the work of other people included in my thesis, published or otherwise, are fully acknowledged in accordance with the standard referencing practices. Furthermore, to the extent that I have included copyrighted material that surpasses the bounds of fair dealing within the meaning of the Canada Copyright Act, I certify that I have obtained a written permission from the copyright owner(s) to include such material(s) in my thesis and have included copies of such copyright clearances to my appendix.

I declare that this is a true copy of my thesis, including any final revisions, as approved by my thesis committee and the Graduate Studies office, and that this thesis has not been submitted for a higher degree to any other University or Institution.

ABSTRACT

This project examined the prevalence of burnout among golf operations employees across Canada and the effects of various antecedents and outcomes associated with the burnout phenomenon. A multiple regression analysis revealed significant relationships between burnout and post-secondary education, job role, and the average number of hours worked. Using path analysis, significant relationships were also found between job satisfaction and burnout, turnover, and organizational commitment, burnout and turnover, and organizational support and organizational commitment. A revised version of Walters and Raybould's (2007) conceptual model of burnout introduced non-mediated relationships between the antecedents and outcomes of burnout, furthering our understanding of the burnout phenomenon. The results of this study stress the importance of organizational support and job satisfaction, and how these antecedents can influence the burnout, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions of golf operations employees.

DEDICATION

Mom and Dad,

For always believing in me, nurturing my love of learning, pushing me to always strive for more, and providing me with every opportunity. I am forever grateful for you both.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This document would not have been made possible if it were not for some very important people. This page recognizes the individuals that have made significant contributions to my graduate experience.

Dr. Jess C. Dixon – for being an outstanding advisor and mentor. For teaching me resilience and grit in a time like no other. Your ability to pivot and adapt your learning and teaching environment so that your support and open-door policy continues to be felt whether we are in person or online, is a true testament to the person and advisor you are. Words cannot describe how thankful I am for all the opportunities you have provided me with over the past several years during both my undergraduate and graduate degrees. Your support and encouragement have helped develop me into the researcher that I am, and for that I will always be grateful.

Dr. Sarah Gee – for your willingness to be the internal reader of my committee and supporting me throughout my undergraduate and graduate degrees.

Dr. Kyle Brykman – for your insight, expertise, and suggestions that helped make my document stronger.

Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council – for funding this project.

Mom, Dad, and Jaydon – for your unwavering love, support, and encouragement throughout this whole journey.

Jordan – for always making me laugh even when times are hard, loving me endlessly, and supporting me through it all.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Introduction

North America is considered the largest market for golf in relation to both supply and demand (Breitbarth et al., 2018). The golf industry is an $84 billion business in the United States (US) alone (National Golf Foundation [NGF], 2019). In 2020, 36.9 million Americans of at least 6 years of age were reported to have played golf. After the industry had seen seven years of approximately 2 million first time golfers, there were a record-breaking 3 million first-time golfers in 2020 (NGF, 2021). Furthermore, 17 million Americans indicated that they did not play golf in 2020 but were interested in playing golf on course in the future (NGF, 2021). The National Golf Foundation (2021) noted that the key to sustaining this growth is the retention of golfers.

Further North, The National Golf Course Owners Association (NGCOA) Canada reported impressive increases in their 2020 golf season as well, despite experiencing a late start due to the COVID-19 pandemic and government closures (Golf Canada, 2020). The *NGCOA Canada Rounds Played Report* for the month of July demonstrated a 25.5% increase in rounds played year-over-year, with every province in Canada experiencing a substantial increase in the number of golf rounds played (Golf Canada, 2020). Moreover, "the game of golf accounts for an estimated $18.2B of Canada's Gross Domestic Product, which is up 14% from the $15.9B reported in 2014" (National Golf Course Owners Association Canada [NGCOA], 2020, ¶ 8). The golf industry in Canada employs an estimated 150,000 full-time, full-year employees (NGCOA, 2020). This number increases to approximately 249,000 employees when including indirect and induced employment. Furthermore, the golf industry provides ample job opportunities for youth,

as 48% of employees identify as students (NGCOA, 2020). From the evidence provided above, the golf industry is experiencing considerable growth and has a tremendous impact on the Canadian and North American economies.

The golf industry is also becoming recognizable as a part of the larger hospitality and tourism industries (Fjelstul, 2007). In particular, the combination of golf and club management represent a unique sector of the hospitality industry that is gaining increased recognition (Fjelstul & Tesone, 2008). Golf management includes various career paths such as "in golf pro shops, retail settings, golf equipment and apparel companies, golf driving range operations, golf resort operations, and golf events" (Fjelstul & Tesone, 2008, p. 694). Alternatively, club management careers include jobs related to "city, yacht, university, military, beach, resort, and athletic clubs" (Fjelstul & Tesone, 2008, p. 694). The human resource responsibilities of a golf club (including, but not limited to recruiting, training, and compensation) are overseen by the general manager but may be delegated to other departmental managers (Barrows & Ridout, 2010).

While there has been a slight increase in published research regarding clubs and their management in the past several years, critical areas such as recreation, in particular golf and the important role it has in clubs, has received minimal or no attention at all (Barrows & Ridout, 2010). The research in this field often focuses on training and turnover, but there are many other areas to be examined (Barrows & Ridout, 2010). Perkins et al. (2010) discussed the technical and marketing research available on the development of golf but noted the limited attention the golf industry has received by social scientists and researchers in the humanities. Researchers who have studied burnout in the sport industry demonstrate the phenomenon is heightened due to long work hours,

little organizational support, job demands that are difficult to meet, and a lack of feedback from supervisors (Gustafsson et al., 2016). Due to the uniqueness of the golf industry and the dearth of existing research in this area, this project examined the prevalence of burnout among golf operations employees across Canada and the effects of various antecedents and outcomes associated with the burnout phenomenon.

Literature Review

The Golf Club

Golf clubs are not simple businesses, and many include more than golf itself, including various other sports (e.g., tennis, curling, swimming) and hospitality services (Dickson & Koenigsfeld, 2018). Golf clubs vary from small, locally owned courses, to established country clubs, and platinum-level resorts (Fjelstul, 2007). They typically operate as one of three club types: private, semi-private, or public (Perdue, 1997), and have a specific seasonality in Canada and northern parts of the United States (Scott & Jones, 2006). Golf courses in these regions most often operate from April through November, depending on the weather each year (Scott & Jones, 2006).

Due to the unique business of golf clubs, trained professionals are needed to manage them effectively and efficiently (Dickson & Koenigsfeld, 2018). For this study, the golf operations department, which is managed by the director of golf, was the focal context. The director of golf has many important roles at a golf club. They are responsible "for member and guest satisfaction, sales and revenue management and the financial performance of the department. The management of golf carts, bag room, locker room, golf shop, special tournaments and events can all fall within their list of responsibilities" (Dickson & Koenigsfeld, 2018, p. 57). In some instances, the director of

golf is also a teaching professional, but most often they part from that aspect of the job when becoming a director of golf (Dickson & Koenigsfeld, 2018). A certified golf professional, often called a 'golf pro,' is the person(s) who teaches lessons and performs club fittings. Depending on the club, they often work shifts and assist with retail sales in the golf shop. Additionally, to help manage the large number of responsibilities in the golf operations department, some clubs will also have a golf shop/pro shop manager in place as well (Dickson & Koenigsfeld, 2018). The various job roles and responsibilities of the golf operations department are indicative of the complex work environment in which these individuals are employed.

In addition to the complex work environment employees are subjected to, it has been found that managers in the hospitality industry are often challenged by extracting the most out of their few employees to turn the largest possible profit (Poulston, 2009). Employees in the hospitality industry are often subject to poor treatment from both customers and managers, particularly in private golf clubs as the atmosphere is dependent on familiarity and providing the ultimate member experience (Gustafson, 2002). Moreover, the hospitality and golf industries require employees to work long hours, with little pay and training (Gustafson, 2002; Poulston, 2005). There are often shortages in staff, constraints on time, and an overload of work in the hospitality industry (Lo & Lamm, 2005). These factors contribute to an environment of stress (Poulston, 2009), which may trigger burnout experiences among employees.

Burnout

Burnout has been explored in many industries since the 1970s, originating in the field of health. A psychiatrist by the name of Freudenberger (1975), considered by many

to be the founder of this field of research, studied the emotional process endured by employees in an alternative health care context and labelled his findings with a single term: *burnout*. There were various opinions regarding what burnout was in these early years. However, in 1981, Maslach and Jackson operationally defined the term as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do 'people work' of some kind" (p. 99). These authors further broke down burnout syndrome into a process consisting of three core components: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and inefficacy.

The first component of burnout syndrome is heightened levels of *emotional exhaustion* that occur as employees' emotional resources are drained, resulting in them feeling unable to work due to their depleted mental states (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Exhaustion is said to only reflect the dimension of stress and does not explain a person's feelings towards their work. A second component of burnout syndrome is *depersonalization*, formerly known as cynicism, which is defined as "an attempt to put distance between oneself and service recipients by actively ignoring the qualities that make them unique and engaging people" (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 403). Depersonalization occurs more towards others as an employee becomes increasingly emotionally exhausted (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The final component of burnout is *inefficacy* or reduced personal accomplishment, in that employees start to view themselves and their work negatively and become dissatisfied with their accomplishments at work (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 2001). Employees who report high levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and low levels of personal accomplishment are at risk of experiencing burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

The definition and components of burnout have been expanded upon over the past 40 years. Exhaustion remains the central aspect of burnout as it is the most physically visible part of the syndrome (Maslach et at., 2001). Due to exhaustion being the most physically visible sign of burnout, it is also the most highly reported and researched of the three components that were initially proposed by Maslach and Jackson (Maslach et al., 2001). Maslach and Jackson's (1981) definition of burnout has been criticized in recent years for its specificity to people who do "human service work" and the factors that are said to cause burnout are also "associated with human service work" (Kristensen et al., 2005, p. 193). As more scholars began to research this phenomenon, they realized that burnout could occur in any job type (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). Thus, Schaufeli and Greenglass (2001) redefined burnout "as a state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion that results from long-term involvement in work situations that are emotionally demanding" (p. 1). This definition expanded the concept of burnout to include all fields of work, including and beyond the health field.

Burnout in the Sport and Hospitality Industries

Researchers who have studied burnout in the sport industry demonstrate the phenomenon is heightened due to long work hours, little organizational support, job demands that are difficult to meet, and a lack of feedback from supervisors (Gustafsson et al., 2016). Burnout research in the sport literature has tended to focus on coaches, athletes, and officials, but it has been recommended that further research is needed to examine those who work in other sport occupations to gain a better understanding of burnout experiences (Goodger et al., 2007; Lee & Chelladurai, 2018). Additionally, research in the hospitality industry shows that poor work conditions and the lack of

perceived support from the organization towards its employees can lead to organizations' overlooking the well-being of employees, including experiences of burnout (Anderson et al., 2001; Tabacchi et al., 1990; Zohar, 1994). Zohar (1994) uncovered that jobs in the hospitality industry are some of the most stressful occupations due to conflict with and ambiguity in one's role, a heavy workload, and lack of autonomy in decision making. The occurrence of role conflict is most common as staff members are often faced with demands from customers and management that are not in alignment (Chung & Schneider, 2002; Ross & Boles, 1994). Moreover, the hospitality industry is often known for its labour shortages, undesirable working hours, high pressure environments, and high turnover rate (Buick & Thomas, 2001).

Furthermore, Zeytinoglu et al. (2005) explored the retail environment and found that job insecurity, low pay, unpredictable hours, and the shorter style of shifts, or split shifts, contributed to stress felt by employees, increased turnover, and workplace conflict. Similar findings have been demonstrated in the golf industry, where turnover was a result of the number of hours employees worked, how much they were compensated, and the experience of conflict with their supervisors (Gustafson, 2002). Due to the nature and working conditions of these industries, the various factors present can potentially lead golf operations employees to experiencing burnout.

Hypothesis 1: There will be a positive relationship between the average number of hours employees work during golf season and burnout.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a negative relationship between the perceived fairness in employees' compensation and burnout.

Conservation of Resource Theory

For the purposes of this study, the conservation of resource theory (COR) was utilized, as it has been widely employed in the study of 'burnout' among employees. COR is a motivational theory, commonly cited in organizational psychology and organizational behaviour research, that suggests people have an instinctive need to acquire resources and conserve them for optimal functioning (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Hobfoll (1988) defined resources "as objects, states, conditions, and other things that people value" (as cited in Halbesleben et al., 2014, p. 1335). Some examples of resources include promotion opportunities, decision making power, level of autonomy, rewards, contingencies, and social support (Hobfoll, 1989; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Resources hold varying degrees of power and value to people and can differ between individuals as they are related to their personal situations and experiences (Halbesleben et al., 2014). The value individuals instill in certain resources can increase the perceived level of fit between an employee and their organization (Halbesleben et al., 2014).

COR theory has become a leading model for understanding burnout and the various processes it entails (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Shirom, 2003). The main tenet of COR theory is that "individuals (and groups) strive to obtain, retain, foster, and protect those things they centrally value" (Hobfoll et al., 2018, p. 106). According to the COR model of burnout, stress and burnout can be experienced when an individual feels their resources are threatened (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2001; Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). This threat may arise from work demands, a potential loss of resources related to work (e.g., unemployment), or an unequal return of resources after an individual has invested their resources (e.g., if an employee invests their time in helping a co-worker

and the co-worker does not reciprocate). The threat to resources is initially viewed as a stressor, but if resources continue to be lost, specifically after a great resource investment, it is said to lead to burnout (Hobfoll, 2001). Typically, individuals are more concerned about avoiding resource loss versus resource gain. It is more likely that demands (e.g., time pressure) will lead to burnout than an individual's resources will protect them from it (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993).

COR theory is comprised of four principles. The first principle explains how losing a resource is more psychologically harmful to an individual than it is beneficial for them to gain that lost resource back (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Shirom (1989) found that individuals who experience resource loss at work are more likely to experience burnout as a result. The second principle states that in order to protect against resource loss, recover from any potential losses, and to further gain resources, a person needs to invest their resources strategically (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Thirdly, when the potential of resource loss is high, resource gains increase in importance and value. Finally, the fourth principle explains that when an individual's resources are stretched thin, they become defensive and enter a protective state where they may behave in an irrational or aggressive fashion (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

Furthermore, COR theory suggests three corollaries, which are specific predictions that help explain strategies that may help individuals cope with stressful situations at either the individual or organizational level. The first corollary explains that those who have more resources are less likely to experience resource loss and are in a state of possible resource gain. Moreover, those who have fewer resources are more susceptible to resource loss and are less likely to gain further resources (Hobfoll et al.,

2018). The second corollary notes how powerful resource loss can be in comparison to resource gain. The stress that individuals can endure because of this loss can potentially trigger a rapid downward spiral effect where further losses may occur. Finally, corollary three explains how resource gain can spiral upwards but is often slower and of less magnitude in comparison to resource loss and typically takes time to develop (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Resource depletion is a core facet of job burnout and Shirom (1989) found that COR theory is of specific relevance when studying how various stressors lead to burnout. COR theory suggests that an individual who experiences one or more of the three components of burnout is at a greater inherent risk to experiencing all of the components and further, experiencing a resource loss spiral (Hobfoll, 1998).

In addition to COR theory, an adapted version of Walters and Raybould's (2007) conceptual model of burnout (Figure 1) helped guide this research. This model presents a visualization of the burnout phenomenon and its various dimensions. The model separates antecedents of burnout into *role stressors* (e.g., role overload, role conflict) and *mediating factors* (e.g., organizational support, personality factors), which correspond with the demands and resources of COR theory, respectively. Role stressors (i.e., demands) and mediating factors (i.e., resources) are shown to influence burnout and its three respective components (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization/cynicism, inefficacy/reduced personal accomplishment). Further, the model highlights the impact of burnout on various *individual* and *organizational outcomes* (Walters & Raybould, 2007). Specifically, burnout is shown to mediate the antecedents and outcomes in the model.

Antecedents of Burnout

Over the past several decades, researchers have identified three categories of antecedents to burnout: organizational, occupational, and individual (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Shirom, 2003). Beginning at the *organizational* level, studies have indicated that there are numerous organizational situational factors and resources, or lack thereof, that can lead to burnout in employees such as: ambiguity in one's job role, role conflict, work overload (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993), resistance to change (Srivastava & Agrawal, 2020), style of leadership (Vullinghs et al., 2020), lack of organizational support (Srivastava & Agrawal, 2020), lower levels of autonomy, and perceived unfairness at work (Maslach et al., 2001).

At the *occupational* level, burnout predictors were originally focused on the role stressors or demands placed on an employee by their clients in the human services sector (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001). Specifically, it was hypothesized that the emotional stressors placed upon employees who do 'people work' had a unique relationship with burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). However, this hypothesis was not supported; instead, it was found that "common job-related stressors (such as workload, time pressure, or role conflicts) correlated more highly with burnout than client-related stressors (such as problems in interacting with clients)" (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 408). These findings demonstrated how prevalent burnout may be in occupations that are not highly investigated by researchers in this field.

Lastly, at the *individual* level, personal factors including demographics, personality characteristics, and attitudes toward work have been utilized to determine which employees may or may not experience burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993;

Maslach et al., 2001). Individual level findings have led scholars to believe that these are the weakest indicators of job burnout, due to the relationships between personal factors and burnout being smaller in size in comparison to burnout and situational factors (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998; Maslach et al., 2001). In contrast, Swider and Zimmerman (2010) highlighted the importance of including predictors at the individual-level for the roles they play in the process of burnout.

Furthermore, a study by Ahola et al. (2006) investigated the role of various socio-demographic factors on burnout in a sample from the general population, including "gender, age, education, type of employment, work experience, socio-economic status (SES), working time, and marital status" (Ahola et al., 2006, p. 11). Their results revealed a positive relationship between burnout and age for both men and women. Relationships between burnout and education, SES, and work experience were found specifically among women. Women who had completed comprehensive schooling showed lower levels of burnout than those who had not, and those who identified themselves as 'blue-collar' demonstrated higher levels of burnout than other women in the workforce. Moreover, women who indicated they worked more than 16 years in the same career demonstrated higher levels of burnout than those with less experience (Ahola et al., 2006). Further, the authors' found men who were married or co-habiting demonstrated fewer symptoms of burnout than men who were single, widowed, or divorced (Ahola et al., 2006). These findings highlight that relationships do exist between burnout and demographic factors and should be further explored in an industry-specific context.

Hypothesis 3: Those who have completed post-secondary education (i.e., university degree or college diploma) will have lower levels of burnout than those who do not.

The role of work-family conflict (WFC) and family-work conflict (FWC) among sport industry employees is becoming increasingly recognized (Taylor et al., 2019; Weight et al., 2021). WFC and FWC are umbrella terms used to describe a person's work and family responsibilities and the conflicting roles that may arise due to the fixed amount of time in a day, thereby forcing an individual to choose between focusing on their work over their family or their family over their work, respectively (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). There are numerous challenges that have been displayed in many industries related to WFC and FWC; however, the conflict becomes increasingly apparent in industries with a culture of high pressure, extremely long work hours, and high performance expectations, all of which are antecedents of burnout and have been witnessed in the sport industry (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). Research conducted on sport coaches and trainers indicated that they experience high levels of WFC and FWC (Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Graham & Dixon, 2017; Mazerolle et al., 2018).

Weight et al. (2021) studied employee experiences and the impacts of WFC and FWC, burnout, workaholism, and engagement in the sport industry. These authors utilized an archetype approach whereby participants were categorized into one of five groups: 'early-career support staff' (mean age of 27.64 years); 'mid-career, no children, flexibility' (mean age of 29.71 years); 'midcareer, no flexibility,' with some participants having children (mean age of 33.06 years); 'midcareer married parents,' who are parents and have children living at home, mostly married, and have a flexible work schedule

(mean age of 38.89 years), and; 'late career senior leader,' comprised of participants with jobs such as athletic directors, and head coaches (mean age of 52.61 years). A key finding of this study was that 'early-career support staff' experienced the highest levels of burnout and WFC among the groups of participants[1]. This finding is alarming as the hospitality industry employs a high proportion of people under the age of 25 (Poulston, 2008), with 48% of golf industry employees identifying as students (NGCOA, 2020). A secondary finding was that participants in the 'midcareer, no flexibility' archetype expressed heightened levels of WFC, burnout, and workaholism, and average amounts of FWC and work engagement (Weight et al., 2021).

Hypothesis 4: There will be a negative relationship between employees' age and burnout.

Hypothesis 5: Employees who are in a relationship will demonstrate higher levels of burnout than those who are single, widowed, or divorced.

Hypothesis 6: There will be a positive relationship between the number of dependents (i.e., children and/or other family members) and burnout.

Past research suggests that organizations in hospitality often fail at addressing problems related to the well-being of employees, such as experiences of burnout, due to work and how supported or valued their employees feel by their leaders (Anderson et al., 2001; Tabacchi et al., 1990; Zohar, 1994). When employees receive resources that they consider to be of high value, it creates a strong sense of organizational support and employees feel an obligation to the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Additionally, Yadav and Rangnekar (2015) found when employees

[1] These findings contrast those of Ahola et al. (2006), which suggest the experiences of employee burnout may be industry specific.

felt supported, they were more motivated to work at a higher performance level and had more positive attitudes and behaviours towards their organizations. Furthermore, Walters and Raybould (2007) examined front line hospitality employees and the relationship between burnout and perceived organizational support (POS). The authors found a negative relationship between exhaustion and cynicism and POS. This finding further suggests that the more support employees received from their organization, the less likely they were to feel exhausted and cynical (Walters & Raybould, 2007).

Hypothesis 7: There will be a negative relationship between employees' perceived organizational support and burnout.

Job satisfaction has also been shown to have both direct and indirect effects on burnout experiences (Kalliath & Morris, 2002). Wu et al. (2021) explored the relationship between stress experienced by employees at work on various components of burnout and the mediating effects of job satisfaction and social support. They found a positive correlation between job stress and emotional exhaustion and cynicism, but a negative correlation with professional inefficacy (Wu et al., 2021). These findings indicate "the higher the level of job stress, the greater the degree of job burnout" (Wu et al., 2021, p. 207). Wu et al. (2021) further demonstrated "that job stress has an indirect effect on job burnout through job satisfaction" (p. 207). Specifically, job stress can potentially result in employees adopting negative behaviours and attitudes, which is seen to have a negative relationship with job satisfaction. Further, the authors found that the greater the level of job stress experienced, the lower the level of POS, which is related to increased job dissatisfaction and can further lead to job burnout (Wu et al., 2021).

Hypothesis 8: There will be a negative relationship between employees' job satisfaction and burnout.

Outcomes of Burnout

Employee burnout continues to be a highly researched topic due to its impact on individuals and organizations (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Lee & Ashforth, 1993; Taylor et al., 2019; Zohar, 1997). At the *individual level* there are five categories of symptoms of burnout: physical (e.g., including fatigue, headaches, gastro-intestinal issues), emotional (e.g., depression, anxiety, irritability), behavioural (e.g., absenteeism, substance use), interpersonal (e.g., difficulty concentrating on clients), and attitudinal (e.g., development of negative attitudes in general) (Kahill, 1988). At the *organizational level*, burnout is related to increased turnover intention, reduced levels of commitment from employees, and decreased job satisfaction and performance (Maslach et al., 2001). While the most common negative side effect of employee burnout is decreased job performance (Maslach, 1982), the most serious outcome is the increased intention of employees quitting their jobs (Marchand & Vandenberghe, 2016; Ogungbamila et al., 2014).

Employees in hospitality are often found to have conflicting demands placed upon them by their managers and customers, which places considerable strain on them and can trigger various antecedents and outcomes of burnout (Chung & Schneider, 2002; Ross & Boles, 1994). Ambiguity in one's role arises when an employee does not understand the expectations of the job (Ross & Boles, 1994). Faulkner and Patiar (1997) investigated front-line hospitality workers and found that dealing with ambiguous situations was one of the most common forms of stress. Further, during peak hours, a manager may not be readily available to help answer any questions an employee may have (Ross & Boles,

1994). This is seen to possibly result in decreased personal efficacy, a core component of burnout (Deery & Shaw, 1997). The repeated occurrence of these role stressors can cause employees to not meet organizational expectations and evoke numerous symptoms of role strain (Zohar, 1994). These symptoms include reduced job satisfaction, decreased organizational commitment and job performance, absenteeism, a poor attitude directed at the job, increased anxiety, and increased feelings of tension (Zohar, 1994). These symptoms demonstrated from role strain, are highly correlated with the symptoms of burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Vallen, 1993; van Dierendonck et al., 1998).

Hypothesis 9: There will be a negative relationship between employee burnout and organizational commitment.

The increased prevalence of burnout can further lead to employee turnover. High rates of employee turnover have been found within the hospitality industry (Barrows & Ridout, 2010). Gustafson (2002) investigated annual rates of turnover at various private golf clubs across America and the reasons causing employees at these clubs to leave their jobs. Their results demonstrated a mean turnover rate of 75.16%, which was often seen as a function of "compensation, number of hours worked, and conflict with supervisor" (Gustafson, 2002, p. 110). Specifically, these results indicated employees will leave their jobs for opportunities to earn higher incomes elsewhere. Furthermore, the number of hours worked was stressed, as it was not uncommon for employees in clubs to work 50 to 60 hours per week, or more, in peak season. Lastly, 87% of club managers noted the labour shortage was critical and they thought about it almost daily (Gustafson, 2002).

Hypothesis 10: There will be a positive relationship between employees who experience high levels of burnout and turnover intentions.

After reviewing the current literature, it became apparent there was a dearth of research regarding the well-being of golf industry employees. Specifically, there was a lack of research regarding the prevalence of burnout among employees in golf operations. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine the prevalence of burnout among golf operations employees across Canada and the effects of various antecedents and outcomes associated with the burnout phenomenon. The unique working conditions and environment of the sport and hospitality industries makes studying golf operations employees of interest to sport management researchers and industry professionals due to the combination of burnout antecedents that are present in the industry.

Method

Population and Sampling Method

Employees of golf operations departments across Canada were recruited to participate in an online survey about burnout experiences and various antecedents and outcomes of this syndrome. Those invited to participate included those who work in golf shops (e.g., directors of golf, golf professionals, golf shop managers, golf shop clerks, starters, course marshals), locker rooms (e.g., locker room attendants), and back shops (e.g., back shop attendants, cart attendants, and club cleaners). Participants were at least 16 years of age and able to give their consent to participate.

Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) explained how recruiting samples is difficult in this field of research due to the 'healthy-worker effect.' This effect is explained as a downfall of burnout research as when recruiting participants, there is a possibility that those who experienced burnout have already left the organization. To help overcome this

effect, participant recruitment commenced in mid-August, which corresponds with the peak of the Canadian golf season.

This study employed purposive sampling, whereby participants were selected based on specific criteria, and snowball sampling, where those who were eligible to participate were asked to refer others who may be eligible (Andrew et al., 2011). The Professional Golfers' Association (PGA) of Canada maintains an online searchable database which was used to identify as many golf professionals as possible. Each golf professional was sent a recruitment email with survey details, including a link to the online survey, based on their publicly available email address. Golf professionals were asked to share the survey information with other eligible employees. There are approximately 3,700 golf professionals affiliated with the PGA of Canada, and 2,346 golf facilities across Canada (Golf Canada, 2015). The Acting Head of the Department of Kinesiology (Dr. Sarah Woodruff) was also asked to distribute survey details on the department's social media platforms (e.g., LinkedIn, Facebook) to promote participant recruitment among students and/or alumni who may work in golf operations.

Key Variables and Data Collection

To complete this investigation, an online questionnaire, hosted by Qualtrics, was distributed to eligible participants via email and social media platforms. Burnout, the primary dependant variable of the study, was measured using the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OBI), which consists of 16-items (Demerouti et al., 2010). The OBI was chosen as the most suitable measurement tool due to the items being framed both positively and negatively to measure two of the core components of burnout: disengagement from work and exhaustion (Demerouti et al., 2010). Disengagement from

work encompasses both inefficacy/reduced personal accomplishment and depersonalization/cynicism, as it refers to a person distancing themselves from their work and the relationships they have with employees and their jobs (Demerouti et al., 2010). Participants were asked to rate their experiences on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree,' (Demerouti et al., 2010). The OBI is utilized broadly and has demonstrated an acceptable internal reliability, with Cronbach's alpha (α) scores ranging from 0.74 to 0.87 for exhaustion and 0.76 to 0.83 for disengagement (Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005).

Furthermore, several antecedents of burnout, including, POS, perceived fairness of compensation for work done, and job satisfaction, were investigated. Additionally, two perceived outcomes of burnout, organizational commitment and turnover intention, were examined. POS was measured using a shortened version of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS), consisting of three items (Wo et al., 2015). This shortened version has been utilized in previous research and demonstrated a high internal reliability (α = 0.93; Wo et al., 2015). Perceived fairness of compensation for work done was measured using a single-item (e.g., "I am compensated fairly for the work that I do"), as a single-item measure is a valid approach in research regarding stress and well-being (Elo et al., 2003). Further, the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire – Job Satisfaction Sub-scale (MOAQ-JSS), consisting of 3-items, was used to measure job satisfaction (Cammann et al., 1979). The MOAQ-JSS has also demonstrated an acceptable internal reliability in previous research (α = 0.84; Bowling & Hammond, 2008). Organizational commitment was measured using the revised 18-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), consisting of three scales: affective,

continuance, and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The median reliabilities for these scales are 0.85, 0.79, and 0.73, respectively (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Lastly, turnover intention was measured using a 3-item scale by Michaels and Spector (1982), which has shown a high internal reliability in previous research (α = 0.89; Carmeli & Freund, 2009). All scales were measured using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree.'

Demographic information was also collected from participants, including their gender, age, highest level of education completed, years worked in golf operations, relationship status, number of dependents (i.e., children and/or other family members). Specific factors relating to the job were also collected, including the type of golf course (i.e., private, semi-private, public), specific job position, and the typical number of hours worked in a week during peak season. Finally, Johnson (2005) stated five percent or more of survey participants carelessly answer scale items. To help mitigate this risk, various scale items were reverse coded within the survey to ensure scale validity.

Data Analyses

Once the survey was closed, the data were cleaned, ensuring all questionnaires were complete. All scaled response instruments (i.e., OBI, SPOS, MOAQ-JSS, OCQ, 3-item turnover intentions scale) were tested for their internal reliabilities using Cronbach's alpha. The data were also tested to ensure they did not violate any multivariate assumptions and there were no immediate concerns. Descriptive statistics were computed using SPSS 27.0. Means and standard deviations were calculated for the following demographic variables: age, number of dependents (i.e., children and/or other family members), years worked in golf operations, and the typical number of hours worked in a

week during peak season. Furthermore, frequencies were calculated for the remaining demographic variables: gender, highest level of education completed, relationship status, the type of golf course (i.e., private, semi-private, public), and the specific job position.

To test *Hypotheses 1, 3, 4, 5,* and *6,* a multiple linear regression analysis was performed. Hours of work, age (in years), number of dependents (i.e., children and/or other family members), were measured as continuous variables, while highest level of education completed, and relationship status were measured categorically. A dummy variable was utilized to test *Hypothesis 5*, whereby 1 equaled 'in a relationship' (i.e., married, living common-law, and not married and not living common-law) and 0 equaled 'other' (i.e., single, divorced, separated, and widowed). All analyses were carried out using SPSS 27.0.

Furthermore, a path analysis was conducted to test *Hypotheses 2, 7, 8, 9,* and *10* using AMOS to determine the strength of the following relationships: antecedents (i.e., perceived fairness of compensation for work done, POS, job satisfaction) to burnout, and burnout to organizational outcomes (i.e., organizational commitment and turnover intention). Path analysis is "a type of structural equation modelling used to examine a set of simultaneous linear relationships between variables" (American Psychology Association, 2020, ¶ 1). The maximum-likelihood method of parameter estimation was utilized as it is the most used discrepancy function and is based on multivariate normality (Whittaker, 2016). Finally, a path diagram was employed to illustrate these relationships, which were compared to the conceptual model of burnout.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Following 650 initial emails, and 638 reminder emails, a total of 156 surveys were received. Of the 156 survey responses, 44 were removed due to incompleteness or ineligibility, resulting in 112 usable responses from golf operations employees (91 men; 21 women). On average, participants were 38.12 (*SD* = 13.33) years of age and worked 15.81 (*SD* = 11.48) years in the industry, held a college diploma or university degree (80.40%), were married or common law (67.00%), and had 0.82 (*SD* = 1.08) children and other dependents. Furthermore, 41.10% of participants worked in private clubs, held a management or golf professional title (86.60%), and worked an average of 50.26 (SD = 16.78) hours per week during peak season.

Moreover, respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that they were fairly compensated (*M* = 3.22, *SD* = 1.19), neither agreed nor disagreed that they perceived they had support from their organization (*M* = 3.69, *SD* = 0.94), agreed they were satisfied in their jobs (*M* = 4.12, *SD* = 0.77), neither agreed nor disagreed that they were committed to their organization (*M* = 3.20, *SD* = 0.58), and disagreed that they had turnover intentions (*M* = 2.19, *SD* = 1.05) and burnout experiences (*M* = 2.59, *SD* = 0.59). Furthermore, all scales demonstrated acceptable internal reliabilities ($\alpha > 0.70$). For more detailed information about the participants of this study and scaled response items, please see Tables 1 and 2.

Finally, all variables were tested to ensure they did not violate any multivariate assumptions. Job satisfaction demonstrated a positively skewed distribution (kurtosis = 2.61), which is not surprising given that employees of golf clubs typically have high job

satisfaction overall (Groch, 2015). However, this was not a concern given that multiple linear regression is typically robust enough to account for these minor fluctuations (Pituch & Stevens, 2016). All other multivariate tests of assumptions were met.

Regression Analysis

All bivariate correlations were statistically significant and in their anticipated directions. In particular, job satisfaction was highly correlated with turnover intention (r = -0.80, $p < 0.001$), POS ($r = 0.75$, $p < 0.001$), and organizational commitment ($r = 0.72$, $p < 0.001$). Burnout was most strongly correlated with turnover intentions ($r = 0.68$, $p < 0.001$), and compensation with perceived organizational support ($r = 0.63$, $p < 0.001$). For further details regarding the bivariate correlations please see Table 3.

A multiple linear regression was performed to test *Hypotheses 1*, *3*, *4*, *5*, and *6*. The regression model was significant ($R^2 = 0.24$, $F(13, 111) = 2.43$, $p = 0.007$) and demonstrated that some of the independent variables successfully predicted burnout among participants. Specifically, in support of H_1, the regression results demonstrated a positive relationship between the average number of hours worked and burnout ($p = 0.007$). Further, in support of H_4, these results showed employees with university degrees were significantly more likely to experience burnout than those who did not ($p = 0.028$); this was also true for those with college diplomas but to a less significant degree ($p = 0.052$). Moreover, the regression revealed those who work in management ($p = 0.016$) or golf professional roles ($p = 0.012$) are significantly less likely to experience burnout than employees who work in other golf operations capacities. Lastly, those who work in private golf clubs were also more likely to experience burnout than employees of other club types ($p = 0.053$). For complete regression results please see Table 4.

Path Analysis

Finally, a path analysis was conducted to empirically test the relationships among several variables in the adapted version of Walters and Raybould's (2007) conceptual model of burnout. The initial path analysis revealed poor overall fit ($X^2(7, N = 112) = 122.63$, $p < 0.001$; CFI = 0.72; RMSEA = 0.39). Nevertheless, the relationship among job satisfaction and burnout was found to be significant, in support of H_8 ($ß = -0.40$, $p < 0.001$), as were the relationships between burnout and turnover intentions, which supported H_{10}, ($ß = 1.21$, $p < 0.001$) and organizational commitment, in support of H_9 ($ß = -0.44$, $p < 0.001$). For further details regarding this path analysis, please see Figure 2.

Using a theory-based approach, three modifications were made to the adapted model in hopes of improving the overall fit. The revised model introduced additional significant paths from job satisfaction to turnover ($ß = -0.84$, $p < 0.001$), job satisfaction to organizational commitment ($ß = 0.44$, $p < 0.001$), and organizational support to organizational commitment ($ß = 0.15$, $p < 0.015$). This revised model demonstrated a much better fit ($X^2(4, N = 112) = 3.09$, $p = 0.543$; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = 0.000) than the initial model. However, with the addition of these three new paths that directly link some of the antecedents with the outcomes, the relationship between burnout and organizational commitment (H_9) was no longer significant in the revised model ($ß = 0.072$, $p = 0.40$). A depiction of this revised model is included in Figure 3.

Discussion

This study examined the prevalence of burnout among golf operation employees across Canada and the effects of various antecedents and outcomes associated with the burnout phenomenon. An online survey via Qualtrics was employed to carry out this

research study. The survey required participants to respond to a series of demographic questions and scaled response items that yielded the data for the statistical analysis.

Several hypotheses were developed to help guide this study; the results of the multiple linear regression and path analyses supported four of these hypotheses, and partially supported one other. First, the regression analysis revealed a significant positive relationship between the average number of hours employees work during the golf season and burnout (H_1). This finding is consistent with previous research (Gustafsson et al., 2016) that found burnout in the sport industry is heightened due to long work hours, and other mediating factors. The current findings suggest this issue is still ongoing. From a theoretical perspective, employees who perceive time as a valuable resource and feel threatened by having to work extended hours may be at risk of experiencing stress, which may lead to burnout (Hobfoll, 2001). From a practical standpoint, managers may want to limit the number of hours that golf operations employees work to help prevent them from experiencing burnout and its side effects.

Second, the regression analysis uncovered a significant positive relationship between those who have completed post-secondary education (i.e., university degree or college diploma) and burnout (H_3). Specifically, those who indicated they had a university degree (and to a lesser extent, a college diploma) were more likely to experience burnout than those who did not. This result is contrary to what was hypothesized and differs from previous research by Ahola et al. (2006) who found the effect of education on burnout was significant at the multivariate level for both men and women. However, their univariate post-hoc tests revealed the effect was only significant for women. Given that 81% of the sample in the current study was men, in comparison to

50% in the Ahola et al. (2006) study, this discrepancy may have contributed to the disparate findings. Moreover, Farshi and Omranzadeh (2014) found that those with a bachelors or master's degree had moderate levels of exhaustion on the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educator Survey, particularly in comparison to those who held a Ph.D., who demonstrated a much higher level of burnout. These authors expressed that they could not compare or elaborate on their findings because there is limited research in the area of education level and burnout.

Third, the path analysis uncovered a significant negative relationship between employees' job satisfaction and burnout (H_8), demonstrating that the more satisfied employees are with their jobs, the less likely they are to experience burnout. This is similar to research by Kalliath and Morris (2002), who found job satisfaction to have both direct and indirect effects on burnout. From a theoretical perspective, employees who obtain adequate resources (e.g., rewards, level of autonomy) will feel more satisfied in their jobs and are, therefore, less likely to experience burnout. In contrast, those whose resources are lacking or being threatened may be at risk of feeling less satisfied in their jobs and may experience burnout. From a practical perspective, if golf operations employers can ensure their employees are satisfied with their jobs, it is less likely that employees will experience burnout. Furthermore, Bateman and Organ (1983) suggested employees who are satisfied in their jobs tend to perform at higher levels, providing another reason why job satisfaction among employees is crucial.

Fourth, the path from burnout to turnover intentions indicated a positive significant relationship (H_{10}). Thus, the more burnt-out employees feel, the higher their intention to leave their job. Employee turnover is often high in the hospitality industry

(Gustafson, 2002), which can be detrimental to golf clubs as their members find comfort being around employees they have come to know (Barrows & Ridout, 2010). High annual turnover rates could be decreased if employers are aware of the antecedents of burnout and how to prevent them (Gustafson, 2002). Further, from a theoretical standpoint, if employers can ensure their employees have adequate resources (e.g., role clarity, promotion opportunities), this may reduce their likelihood of experiencing burnout. If employers can avoid their employees from experiencing burnout, then they may reduce the risk of employees leaving their jobs.

Finally, the initial path analysis demonstrated a significant negative relationship between employee burnout and organizational commitment, in support of H_9. However, the significance of this relationship was lost once new pathways were introduced in the revised model. Thus, this hypothesis was only partially supported. The null findings of the revised model contradict previous research that suggests the repeated occurrence of role stressors (i.e., role ambiguity, role conflict) can cause employees to not meet organizational expectations and evoke numerous symptoms of role strain, including decreased organizational commitment and job performance, among others (Zohar, 1994).

The statistical analyses uncovered several additional null results. Specifically, the regression analysis revealed no significant relationship between employees' age and burnout (H_4). According to Weight et al. (2021), those who were considered 'early-career support staff' in the sport industry, with a mean age of 27.64 years, experienced the highest levels of burnout. Due to 48% of golf industry employees identifying as students (NGCOA, 2020), this was hypothesized to be the case in the current study as well. However, since the mean age of the current sample was 38.12 years of age, which better

corresponds with the ‘midcareer married parents’ category of the Weight et al. (2021) study where only an ‘average’ amount of burnout was found, perhaps the current results are not entirely surprising.

Further, the regression results did not support the hypothesis that employees who were in a relationship would demonstrate higher levels of burnout than those who are single, widowed, or divorced (H_5). There was also no significant relationship between the number of dependents (i.e., children and/or other family members) and burnout (H_6). These results contradict findings by Taylor et al. (2019) and Weight et al. (2021) who found WFC and FWC to have an influential impact on burnout. WFC and FWC can often force individuals to choose between focusing on their work over their family or vice-versa (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The contrasting results of the current study may be due to 55% of the current sample indicating they have no dependents, and the mean number of dependents being low (M = 0.82, SD = 1.08). In this case, the recruitment method of the study may have delimited the ability to obtain responses from a broader sample of golf operations employees.

Additionally, the path analysis revealed no significant relationships between perceived fairness in compensation and burnout (H_2) or POS and burnout (H_7). The mean scores of 3.22 (SD = 1.19) and 3.69 (SD = 0.94) suggest the golf operations employees surveyed in this study have neutral feelings regarding their compensation and organizational support. This may suggest that organizations in the Canadian golf industry are aware of and proactively addressing the well-being of their employees. This somewhat contradicts findings in the broader hospitality industry by Anderson et al. (2001), Tabacchi et al. (1990), and Zohar (1994), who indicated organizations are

generally poor at addressing problems related to the well-being of employees. While significantly high correlations exist between these antecedents and burnout, they are also highly correlated with one another as well as with job satisfaction, which was found to be a significant predictor of burnout. Thus, the variance that might otherwise have been attributable to these factors may be nullified by having job satisfaction in the model. With a larger sample size, these results may have been different.

The revised path analysis identified three additional significant relationships between the antecedents and outcomes of Walters and Raybould's (2007) adapted model. The first of these significant relationships was among job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Specifically, the more satisfied golf operations employees are with their jobs the more likely they are to be committed to their organization. This finding is consistent with previous research by Ahmad and Raja (2021) that suggest the more satisfied employees are in their jobs the more committed they are to their organizations.

A significant negative relationship was also found among job satisfaction and turnover intentions. This is similar to previous research that demonstrated job dissatisfaction is a large contributor to employee turnover in numerous workplace settings (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Hom & Kinicki, 2001). Employee turnover leaves employers in a costly position, as they then need to recruit, hire, and train new staff to replace those they have lost (Cascio, 2000). Furthermore, satisfied employees can lead to more satisfied customers, which is of high importance, specifically in a private golf club setting where service expectations are high (Gustafson, 2002; Namasivayam, 2005).

Finally, a significant positive relationship was found between POS and organizational commitment. In this case, employees who felt they were supported by

their organizations were more likely be committed to them. This finding aligns with research by Ross and Boles (1994) who suggested the support provided by supervisors and managers can reduce strains experienced by employees, such as role ambiguity and role conflict. This finding emphasizes the importance of employers supporting their employees to further ensure they stay committed to the organization.

For the purposes of this study, the conservation of resource theory (COR) was utilized, as it has been widely employed in the study of 'burnout' among employees. COR is a motivational theory, commonly cited in organizational psychology and organizational behaviour research, that suggests people have an instinctive need to acquire resources and conserve them for optimal functioning (Hobfoll et al., 2018). This is demonstrated by the significant positive relationships between the antecedents of organizational support and job satisfaction and the outcome of organizational commitment. Specifically, employees who are provided with adequate resources are shown to be more committed to their organizations. Furthermore, the significant negative relationships between job satisfaction and both burnout and turnover intentions suggest if employees do not have the necessary resources to be satisfied in their jobs, this will lead to greater burnout and higher turnover intentions (both directly and indirectly).

Moreover, COR theory is comprised of three corollaries. The first corollary explains that those who have more resources are less likely to experience resource loss and are in a state of possible resource gain. Furthermore, those who have fewer resources are more susceptible to resource loss and are less likely to gain further resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). The second corollary notes how powerful resource loss can be in comparison to resource gain. The stress that individuals may endure because of resource

loss can potentially trigger a rapid downward spiral effect where further losses may occur (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Finally, corollary three explains how resource gain can spiral upwards but is often slower and of less magnitude in comparison to resource loss and typically takes time to develop (Hobfoll et al., 2018). The first corollary was demonstrated in the results of the regression analysis as those who work in management or golf professional roles are less likely to experience burnout than employees who work in other golf operations capacities, as they may have access to more resources such as higher compensation and a flexible work schedule. The second corollary was demonstrated by the significant positive relationship found between burnout and turnover intentions, whereby employees who are experiencing burnout have higher intentions to leave the organization, and perhaps exit the golf industry altogether. The third corollary is difficult to demonstrate in a cross-sectional study and may require a longitudinal design to adequately investigate it.

To the best of my knowledge, this is the first study to test the conceptual model of burnout from Walters and Raybould (2007). Furthermore, to my knowledge there are only two other studies in sport management that have utilized COR theory. Although the adapted conceptual model of burnout (Walters & Raybould, 2007) did not demonstrate a strong model fit, the revised model did. This revised model introduced non-mediated relationships between the antecedents and outcomes of burnout, furthering our understanding of the burnout phenomenon. Furthermore, these findings uniquely add to the sport management literature in response to calls by Goodger et al. (2007) and Lee and Chelladurai (2018) for more burnout research in sport-specific contexts.

From a practical perspective, the current study highlights the importance of organizational support and job satisfaction, and how these factors can influence the burnout, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions of golf operations employees. Thus, employers should take the time to understand the needs of their employees and ensure they have the proper resources (e.g., compensation, flexible work schedule) to mitigate negative behavioural and organizational outcomes. Moreover, it was found that the higher the number of hours worked, the more likely employees were to experience burnout. Therefore, employers should be wary of how many hours their employees are working, as long days are not uncommon in the hospitality and golf industries (Gustafson, 2002). Lastly, employees with university degrees (and to a lesser degree, college diplomas) were more likely to experience burnout. Thus, golf operations employers should ensure their employees are provided with the proper resources to meet their individual needs, as many employees in this study indicated they had completed a university degree or college diploma and are therefore at higher risk of experiencing burnout.

Limitations and Future Directions

Acknowledging that this may be the first study to test the conceptual model of burnout from Walters and Raybould (2007), there are a few limitations that ought to be considered. First, the results of the current study demonstrate where significant relationships exist between variables and the directionality of them. However, the directional causation inferred from the conceptual model may in fact be the opposite and the arrows in the figure may plausibly go in the opposite direction to what are theorized. Future research is needed to help tease out the true nature of the relationships among the

many variables in the revised model. Further, due to the uniqueness of the golf industry and golf clubs, literature was sought out and applied from many different fields to inform the hypotheses of this study. Similarly, all the scales that were utilized to collect the data for this study have been widely used but were derived from various other fields of research. Consequently, the hypotheses were both formulated and tested with information and methods from differing fields, that may have otherwise led to different outcomes.

Moreover, participant recruitment extended later in the golf season than originally planned due to a low initial response rate, and engagement from employees in the golf industry proved difficult to obtain. In total, 1,288 recruitment emails were sent to 650 prospective participants and 112 complete survey responses were received, equaling a 17.2% response rate. Van Mol (2017) noted that online surveys often receive a response rate below 10%. This suggests that the 17.2% response rate of the current study was moderate in comparison. The response rate may have been higher had the survey not been conducted during a pandemic, where the mental health and well-being of adults is seen to be diminishing (O'Connor et al., 2021). This may be particularly true for those working in the golf industry, which has experienced exponential growth over the past two years because of the COVID-friendly nature of its activities (Beditz, 2021). Further, Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) explained how recruiting samples is difficult in this field of research due to the 'healthy-worker effect.' Thus, those who experienced burnout may have already left the organization or been less inclined to participate, which may have resulted in a misrepresentation of how golf operations employees may actually experience burnout.

Moving forward, further research is needed in other sport-specific contexts to gain a better understanding of whether these results are specific to the golf industry or are generalizable to the larger sport and/or hospitality industries. Moreover, further research may be necessary to re-examine the relationships among demographic variables such as age, relationship status, and dependents on burnout, as the hypotheses were based on a much broader sample than what was ultimately ascertained. In particular, additional research is needed to investigate the relationship between education and burnout to help reconcile the disparate results of this and other previous studies. Additionally, a follow-up study should be conducted using qualitative methods to gain additional insight into the burnout phenomenon in this context. Over 1,200 emails were sent directly to CPGA professionals as they are the only email addresses of golf operations employees listed in a public domain. Consequently, at least 87% of the current sample were CPGA professionals. Employing focus groups or semi-structured interviews may help further understand the prevalence of burnout among golf operations employees and provide access to a broader sample from which insights may be derived.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the golf operations employees surveyed in this study neither agreed nor disagreed that they were fairly compensated, had support from their organization, or were committed to their organization, agreed they were satisfied in their job, and disagreed that they had turnover intentions and burnout experiences. This study brings forth a few novel contributions to the sport management literature. First, the revised version of Walters and Raybould's (2007) model of burnout introduces three new paths, thereby furthering our understanding of the phenomenon. In particular, the results of this

study demonstrate that burnout does not always mediate the relationship between the antecedents and outcomes, and that antecedents may link directly to various organizational outcomes. Secondly, this is only the third study in the sport management field to utilize COR theory, demonstrating its versatility and relevance to behavioural research in the field. Lastly, this study helps to fill a void in the literature regarding the working conditions and well-being of employees working in the golf industry. The working conditions and environment brought about at the nexus of the sport and hospitality industries makes studying golf operations employees of interest due to the unique combination of burnout antecedents that may be present.

REFERENCES

Ahmad, M. R., & Raja, R. (2021). Employee job satisfaction and business performance: The mediating role of organizational commitment. *Vision: The Journal of Business Perspective*, *25*(2), 168–179. https://doi.org/10.1177/0972262920985949

Ahola, K., Honkonen, T., Isometsä, E., Kalimo, R., Nykyri, E., Koskinen, S., Aromaa, A., & Lönnqvist, J. (2006). Burnout in the general population: Results from the Finnish Health 2000 Study. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, *41*(1), 11–17. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00127-005-0011-5

American Psychology Association. (2020). Path analysis. In *APA dictionary of psychology*. https://dictionary.apa.org/path-analysis.

Anderson, B. A., Provis, C., & Chappel, S. J. (2001). When it's just too hard to smile! *Australian Journal of Hospitality Management, 8*(2), 69–72.

Andrew, D. P. S., Pedersen, P. M., & McEvoy, C. D. (2011). *Research methods and design in sport management*. Human Kinetics.

Barrows, C., & Ridout, M. (2010). Another decade of research in club management: A review of the literature in academic journals for the period 1994–2005. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, *19*(5), 421–463. https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2010.482825

Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship." *Academy of Management Journal*, *26*(4), 587–595. https://doi.org/10.2307/255908

Beditz, J. (2021, December 16). *We did it... We will beat last year's rounds*. National Golf Foundation. https://www.thengfq.com/covid-19/#perspective

Bowling, N. A., & Hammond, G. D. (2008). A meta-analytic examination of the construct validity of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire Job Satisfaction Subscale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *73*(1), 63–77. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2008.01.004

Breitbarth, T., Kaiser-Jovy, A., & Dickson, G. (2018). Global golf business and management. In T. Breitbarth, A. Kaiser-Jovy, & G. Dickson (Eds.), *Golf business and management: A global introduction* (pp. 3-19). Routledge.

Buick, I., & Thomas, M. (2001). Why do middle managers in hotels burn out? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *13*(6), 304–309. https://doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000005968

Cammann, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, D., & Klesh, J. (1979). The Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire [Unpublished manuscript]. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Carmeli, A., & Freund, A. (2009). Linking perceived external prestige and intentions to leave the organization: The mediating role of job satisfaction and affective commitment. *Journal of Social Service Research*, *35*(3), 236–250. https://doi.org/10.1080/01488370902900873

Cascio, W. F. (2000). *Costing human resources: The financial impact of behavior in organizations* (4th ed). South-Western College Pub.

Chung, B. G., & Schneider, B. (2002). Serving multiple masters: Role conflict experienced by service employees. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *16*(1), 70–87. https://doi.org/10.1108/08876040210419424

Cordes, C. L., & Dougherty, T. W. (1993). A review and an integration of research on job burnout. *Academy of Management Review*, *18*(4), 621–656. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1993.9402210153

Cropanzano, R., Rupp, D. E., & Byrne, Z. S. (2003). The relationship of emotional exhaustion to work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(1), 160–169. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.1.160

Deery, M. A., & Shaw, R. N. (1997). An exploratory analysis of turnover culture in the hotel industry in Australia. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *16*(4), 375–392. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0278-4319(97)00031-5

Demerouti, E., Mostert, K., & Bakker, A. B. (2010). Burnout and work engagement: A thorough investigation of the independency of both constructs. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *15*(3), 209–222. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019408

Dickson, G., & Koenigsfeld, J. P. (2018). Golf club management and hospitality. In T. Breitbarth, A. Kaiser-Jovy, & G. Dickson (Eds.), *Golf business and management: A global introduction* (pp. 53-67). Routledge.

Dixon, M. A., & Bruening, J. E. (2007). Work–family conflict in coaching I: A top-down perspective. *Journal of Sport Management*, *21*(3), 377–406. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.21.3.377

Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I. L., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(3), 565–573. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.3.565

Elo, A. L., Leppänen, A., & Jahkola, A. (2003). Validity of a single-item measure of stress symptoms. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment & Health, 29*(6), 444–451. https://doi.org/10.5271/sjweh.752

Farshi, S. S., & Omranzadeh, F. (2014). The effect of gender, education level, and marital status on Iranian EFL teachers' burnout level. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature, 3*(5), 128–133. https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.3n.5p.128

Faulkner, B., & Patiar, A. (1997). Workplace induced stress among operational staff in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 16*(1), 99–117. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0278-4319(96)00053-9

Fjelstul, J. (2007). Competencies and opportunities for entry level golf and club management careers: Perceptions from the industry. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 19*(3), 32–38. https://doi.org/10.1080/10963758.2007.10696895

Fjelstul, J., & Tesone, D. V. (2008). Golf and club entry level management competencies. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 20*(6), 694–699. https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110810892245

Freudenberger, H. J. (1975). The staff burnout syndrome in alternative institutions. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research & Practice*, *12*(1), 73–82. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0086411

Golf Canada (2015). *Golf facilities in Canada: The definitive report of golf facilities and development in Canada.* https://golfcanada.ca/app/uploads/2015/07/NGF-GOLF-CANADA_ENGLISH-Final-July8.pdf

Golf Canada. (2020, September 5). *NGCOA Canada releases golf data from 2020 rounds played.* https://www.golfcanada.ca/articles/ngcoa-canada-releases-golf-data-2020-rounds-played/

Goodger, K., Gorely, T., Lavallee, D., & Harwood, C. (2007). Burnout in sport: A systematic review. *The Sport Psychologist*, *21*(2), 127–151. https://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.21.2.127

Graham, J. A., & Dixon, M. A. (2017). Work–family balance among coach-fathers: A qualitative examination of enrichment, conflict, and role management strategies. *Journal of Sport Management*, *31*(3), 288–305. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.2016-0117

Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, *10*(1), 76–88. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1985.4277352

Groch, J. M. (2015). Motivating golf employees in Southwest Florida. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, *16*(4), 408–426. https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2015.1090259

Gustafson, C. M. (2002). Employee turnover: A study of private clubs in the USA. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 14*(3), 106–113. https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110210424385

Gustafsson, H., Lundkvist, E., Podlog, L., & Lundqvist, C. (2016). Conceptual confusion and potential advances in athlete burnout research. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 123*(3), 784–791. https://doi.org/10.1177/0031512516665900

Halbesleben, J. R. B., & Buckley, M. R. (2004). Burnout in organizational life. *Journal of Management, 30*(6), 859–879. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jm.2004.06.004

Halbesleben, J. R. B., & Demerouti, E. (2005). The construct validity of an alternative measure of burnout: Investigating the English translation of the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory. *Work & Stress*, *19*(3), 208–220. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370500340728

Halbesleben, J. R. B., Neveu, J. P., Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., & Westman, M. (2014). Getting to the "COR": Understanding the role of resources in conservation of resources theory. *Journal of Management, 40*(5), 1334–1364. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314527130

Hobfoll, S. E. (1988). *The ecology of stress*. Hemisphere.

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist, 44,* 513-524.

Hobfoll, S. E. (1998). *Stress, culture, and community: The psychology and philosophy of stress.* Plenum Press.

Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied Psychology*, *50*(3), 337–421. https://doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00062

Hobfoll, S. E., & Freedy, J. (1993). Conservation of resources: A general stress theory applied to burnout. In W. B. Schaufeli, C. Maslach, & T. Marek (Eds.), *Professional burnout: Recent developments in theory and research.* Taylor & Francis.

Hobfoll, S. E., Halbesleben, J., Neveu, J.-P., & Westman, M. (2018). Conservation of resources in the organizational context: The reality of resources and their consequences. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *5*(1), 103–128. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032117-104640

Hom, P. W., & Griffeth, R. W. (1991). Structural equations modeling test of a turnover theory: Cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *76*(3), 350–366. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.76.3.350

Hom, P. W., & Kinicki, A. J. (2001). Toward a greater understanding of how dissatisfaction drives employee turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, *44*(5), 975–987.

Johnson, J. A. (2005). Ascertaining the validity of individual protocols from web-based personality inventories. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *39*(1), 103–129. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2004.09.009

Kahill, S. (1988). Symptoms of professional burnout: A review of the empirical evidence. *Canadian Psychology*, *29*(3), 284–297. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0079772

Kalliath, T., & Morris, R. (2002). Job satisfaction among nurses: A predictor of burnout levels. *The Journal of Nursing Administration*, *32*(12), 648–654. https://doi.org/10.1097/00005110-200212000-00010

Kristensen, T. S., Borritz, M., Villadsen, E., & Christensen, K. B. (2005). The Copenhagen Burnout Inventory: A new tool for the assessment of burnout. *Work & Stress, 19*(3), 192–207. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370500297720

Lee, R. T., & Ashforth, B. E. (1993). A further examination of managerial burnout: Toward an integrated model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *14*(1), 3–20. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030140103

Lee, Y. H., & Chelladurai, P. (2018). Emotional intelligence, emotional labor, coach burnout, job satisfaction, and turnover intention in sport leadership. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 18*(4), 393–412. https://doi.org/10.1080/16184742.2017.1406971

Lo, K., & Lamm, F. (2005). Occupational stress in the hospitality industry: An employment relations perspective. *New Zealand Journal of Employment Relations*, *30*(1), 23–47.

Marchand, C., & Vandenberghe, C. (2016). Perceived organizational support, emotional exhaustion, and turnover: The moderating role of negative affectivity. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *23*(4), 350–375. https://doi.org/10.1037/str0000020

Maslach, C. (1982). *Burnout: The cost of caring.* Prentice Hall.

Maslach, C., & Goldberg, J. (1998). Prevention of burnout: New perspectives. *Applied and Preventive Psychology, 7*(1), 63–74. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0962-1849(98)80022-X

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Occupational Behavior, 2*(2), 99–113. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030020205

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (1997). *The truth about burnout: How organizations cause personal stress and what to do about it.* Jossey-Bass.

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*(1), 397–422. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.397

Mazerolle, S. M., Pitney, W. A., Goodman, A., Eason, C. M., Spak, S., Scriber, K. C., Voll, C. A., Detwiler, K., Rock, J., Cooper, L., & Simone, E. (2018). National Athletic Trainers' Association position statement: Facilitating work-life balance in athletic training practice settings. *Journal of Athletic Training, 53*(8), 796–811. https://doi.org/10.4085/1062-6050-51.11.02

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*. SAGE Publications, Inc. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781452231556

Michaels, C. E., & Spector, P. E. (1982). Causes of employee turnover: A test of the Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 67*(1), 53–59. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.67.1.53

Namasivayam, K. (2005). Connecting organizational human resource practices to consumer satisfaction: Outlining a potential causal mechanism. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 16*(3), 253–270. https://doi.org/10.1108/09564230510601396

National Golf Foundation. (2019, April). *NGF's 2019 Golf Industry Report Overview*. https://www.thengfq.com/2019/04/ngf-releases-2019-golf-industry-report/

National Golf Foundation. (2021). *Golf industry facts.* https://www.ngf.org/golf-industry-research/

National Golf Course Owners Association (2020). *We are golf releases economic impact of golf in Canada (2019).* https://www.ngcoa.ca/news/5740/we-are-golf-releases-economic-impact-of-golf-in-canada-2019

O'Connor, R. C., Wetherall, K., Cleare, S., McClelland, H., Melson, A. J., Niedzwiedz, C. L., O'Carroll, R. E., O'Connor, D. B., Platt, S., Scowcroft, E., Watson, B., Zortea, T., Ferguson, E., & Robb, K. A. (2021). Mental health and well-being during the COVID-19 pandemic: Longitudinal analyses of adults in the UK COVID-19 Mental Health & Wellbeing study. *The British Journal of Psychiatry*, *218*(6), 326–333. https://doi.org/10.1192/bjp.2020.212

Ogungbamila, B., Balogun, A. G., Ogungbamila, A., & Oladele, R. S. (2014). Job stress, emotional labor, and emotional intelligence as predictors of turnover intention: Evidence from two service occupations. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 5*(6), 351-357. https://doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2014.v5n6p351

Perdue, J. (1997). *Contemporary club management*. The Educational Institute of the American Hotel and Lodging Association.

Perkins, C., Mincyte, D., & Cole, C. (2010). Making the critical links and the links critical in golf studies: Introduction to special issue. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, *34*(3), 267–271. https://doi.org/10.1177/0193723510378560

Pituch, K. A., & Stevens, J. (2016). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences: Analyses with SAS and IBM's SPSS* (6th ed.). Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.

Poulston, J. (2005). Constructive dismissals in hospitality: Perceived incidence and acceptance. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, *6*(1), 11–26. https://doi.org/10.1300/J149v06n01_02

Poulston, J. (2008). Hospitality workplace problems and poor training: A close relationship. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *20*(4), 412–427. https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110810873525

Poulston, J. M. (2009). Working conditions in hospitality: Employees' views of the dissatisfactory hygiene factors. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, *10*(1), 23–43. https://doi.org/10.1080/15280080902716993

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(4), 698–714. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.4.698

Ross, L. E., & Boles, J. S. (1994). Exploring the influence of workplace relationships on work-related attitudes and behaviors in the hospitality work environment. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *13*(2), 155–171. https://doi.org/10.1016/0278-4319(94)90036-1

Schaufeli, W. B., & Enzmann, D. (1998). *The burnout companion to study and practice: A critical analysis.* Taylor & Francis.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Greenglass, E. R. (2001). Introduction to special issue on burnout and health. *Psychology & Health*, *16*(5), 501–510. https://doi.org/10.1080/08870440108405523

Scott, D., & Jones, B. (2006). The impact of climate change on golf participation in the Greater Toronto Area (GTA): A case study. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *38*(3), 363–380. https://doi.org/10.1080/00222216.2006.11950083

Shirom, A. (1989). Burnout in work organizations. In C. L. Cooper, & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology 1989* (pp. 25–48). John Wiley & Sons.

Shirom, A. (2003). Job-related burnout: A review. In J. C. Quick, & L. E. Tetrick (Eds.), *Handbook of occupational health psychology.* (pp. 245–264). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/10474-012

Srivastava, S., & Agrawal, S. (2020). Resistance to change and turnover intention: A moderated mediation model of burnout and perceived organizational support. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, *33*(7), 1431–1447. https://doi.org/10.1108/JOCM-02-2020-0063

Swider, B. W., & Zimmerman, R. D. (2010). Born to burnout: A meta-analytic path model of personality, job burnout, and work outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *76*(3), 487–506. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2010.01.003

Tabacchi, M., Krone, C., & Farber, B. (1990). Workplace and social support in ameliorating managerial burnout in the food and beverage industry. *Hospitality Research Journal*, *14*(2), 553–560. https://doi.org/10.1177/109634809001400258

Taylor, E. A., Huml, M. R., & Dixon, M. A. (2019). Workaholism in sport: A mediated model of work–family conflict and burnout. *Journal of Sport Management*, *33*(4), 249–260. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.2018-0248

Vallen, G. K. (1993). Organizational climate and burnout. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 34*(1), 54–59. https://doi.org/10.1177/001088049303400110

van Dierendonck, D., Schaufeli, W. B., & Buunk, B. P. (1998). The evaluation of an individual burnout intervention program: The role of inequity and social support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(3), 392–407. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.83.3.392

Van Mol, C. (2017). Improving web survey efficiency: The impact of an extra reminder and reminder content on web survey response. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology, 20*(4), 317–327. https://doi.org/10.1080/13645579.2016.1185255

Vullinghs, J. T., De Hoogh, A. H. B., Den Hartog, D. N., & Boon, C. (2020). Ethical and passive leadership and their joint relationships with burnout via role clarity and role overload. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *165*(4), 719–733. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-4084-y

Walters, G., & Raybould, M. (2007). Burnout and perceived organisational support among front-line hospitality employees. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 14*(2), 144–156. https://doi.org/10.1375/jhtm.14.2.144

Weight, E. A., Taylor, E., Huml, M. R., & Dixon, M. A. (2021). Working in the sport industry: A classification of human capital archetypes. *Journal of Sport Management,* 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.2020-0070

Whittaker, T. A. (2016). Structural equation modeling. In K. A. Pituch, & J. P. Stevens (Eds.), *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences* (6th ed.). Taylor & Francis.

Wo, D. X. H., Ambrose, M. L., & Schminke, M. (2015). What drives trickle-down effects? A test of multiple mediation processes. *Academy of Management Journal*, *58*(6), 1848–1868. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2013.0670

Wu, F., Ren, Z., Wang, Q., He, M., Xiong, W., Ma, G., Fan, X., Guo, X., Liu, H., & Zhang, X. (2021). The relationship between job stress and job burnout: The mediating effects of perceived social support and job satisfaction. *Psychology, Health & Medicine*, *26*(2), 204–211. https://doi.org/10.1080/13548506.2020.1778750

Yadav, M., & Rangnekar, S. (2015). Supervisory support and organizational citizenship behavior: Mediating role of participation in decision making and job satisfaction. *Evidence-Based HRM: A Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship*, *3*(3), 258–278. https://doi.org/10.1108/EBHRM-04-2014-0014

Zeytinoglu, I. U., Lillevik, W., Seaton, B., & Moruz, J. (2005). Part-time and casual work in retail trade: Stress and other factors affecting the workplace. *Relations Industrielles*, *59*(3), 516–544. https://doi.org/10.7202/010923ar

Zohar, D. (1994). Analysis of job stress profile in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *13*(3), 219–231. https://doi.org/10.1016/0278-4319(94)90022-1

Zohar, D. (1997). Predicting burnout with a hassle-based measure of role demands. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *18*, 101–115.

TABLES

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*α*
Age	38.12	13.33	
Years worked in the industry	15.81	11.48	
Total dependents	0.82	1.08	
Average hours worked	50.26	16.78	
Burnout	2.59	0.59	0.89
Perceived organizational support	3.69	0.94	0.90
Job satisfaction	4.12	0.77	0.89
Perceived fairness of compensation	3.22	1.19	
Organizational commitment	3.20	0.58	0.85
Turnover intention	2.19	1.05	0.90

Note. Scores for burnout, perceived organizational support, job satisfaction, perceived fairness of compensation, organizational commitment and turnover intentions can range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Table 2

Frequencies

Variable		Frequency	Percent
Education			
	College graduate	34	30.40
	High school graduate	2	1.80
	Some college	7	6.30
	Some university	13	11.60
	University graduate	56	50.00
Job Position			
	Management	50	44.60
	Golf Professional	47	42.00
	Other	15	13.40
Club Type			
	Private	46	41.10
	Semi-private	37	33.00
	Public	21	18.80
	Other	8	7.10
Relationship Status			
	Married	58	51.80
	Living common-law	17	15.20
	Not married and not living common law	9	8.00
	Divorced	1	0.90
	Widowed	1	0.90
	Single	25	22.30
	Prefer not to say	1	0.90
Gender			
	Man	91	81.30
	Woman	21	18.80

n = 112

Table 3

Bivariate Correlations

Variable		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Burnout	1.00					
2	Perceived Organizational Support	-0.56**	1.00				
3	Job satisfaction	-0.66**	0.75**	1.00			
4	Perceived fairness of compensation	-0.48**	0.63**	0.53**	1.00		
5	Organizational commitment	-0.45**	0.64**	0.72**	0.46**	1.00	
6	Turnover intention	0.68**	-0.65**	-0.80**	-0.53**	-0.60**	1.00

Note. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 4

Summary of Linear Regression Results

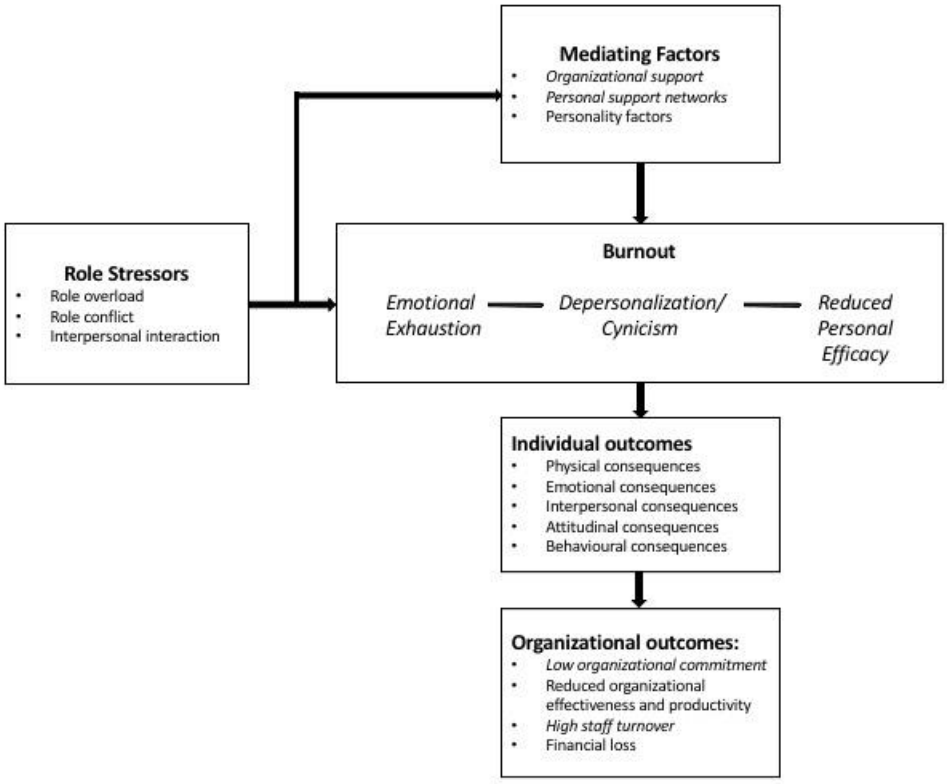
	Unstandardized B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	*t*	Sig.
(Constant)	2.269	0.325		6.984	< 0.001
University	0.346	0.155	0.296	2.224	0.028
College	0.338	0.172	0.265	1.964	0.052
Management	-0.685	0.279	-0.582	-2.459	0.016
Golf pros	-0.585	0.228	-0.494	-2.565	0.012
Total dependents	0.025	0.067	0.046	0.375	0.708
Married or common-law	-0.02	0.155	-0.015	-0.128	0.899
Private club	0.438	0.223	0.368	1.961	0.053
Semi-private club	0.353	0.223	0.284	1.584	0.116
Public club	0.449	0.24	0.3	1.875	0.064
Gender	-0.206	0.141	-0.138	-1.468	0.145
Hours	0.012	0.004	0.341	2.74	0.007
Years worked in the industry	-0.002	0.008	-0.048	-0.29	0.772
Age	-0.008	0.007	-0.184	-1.151	0.253

Dependent Variable: Oldenburg Burnout Inventory mean scores

FIGURES

Figure 1

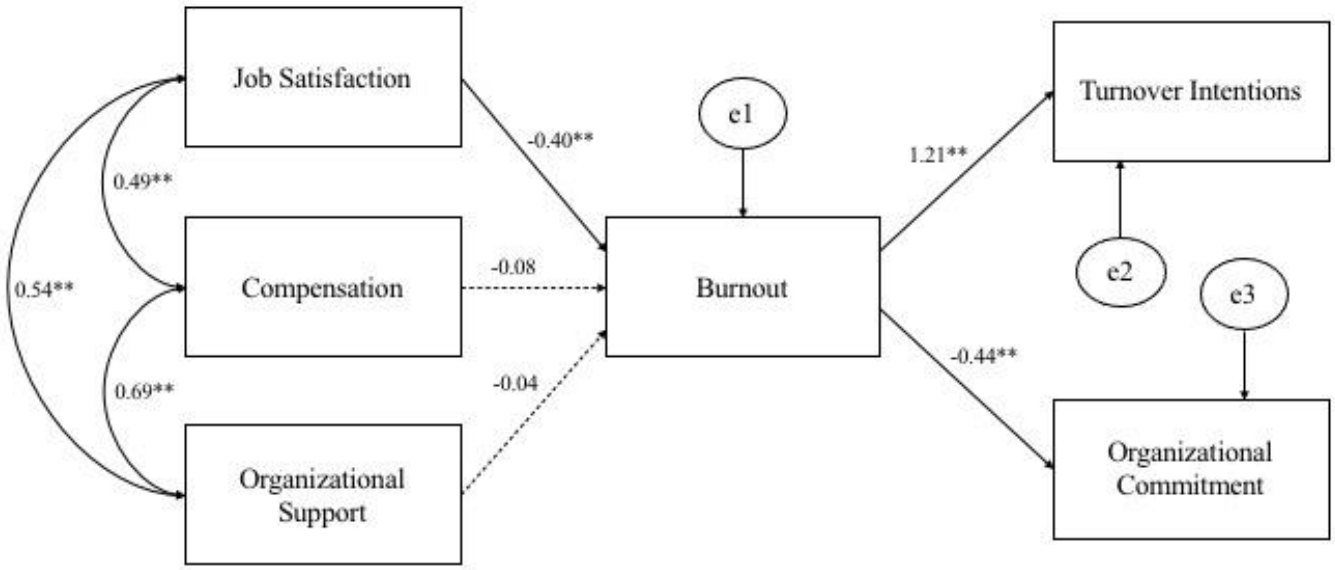
A Conceptual Model of Burnout



Note. Adapted from Walters and Raybould (2007). Italicized items were tested in the path analysis.

Figure 2

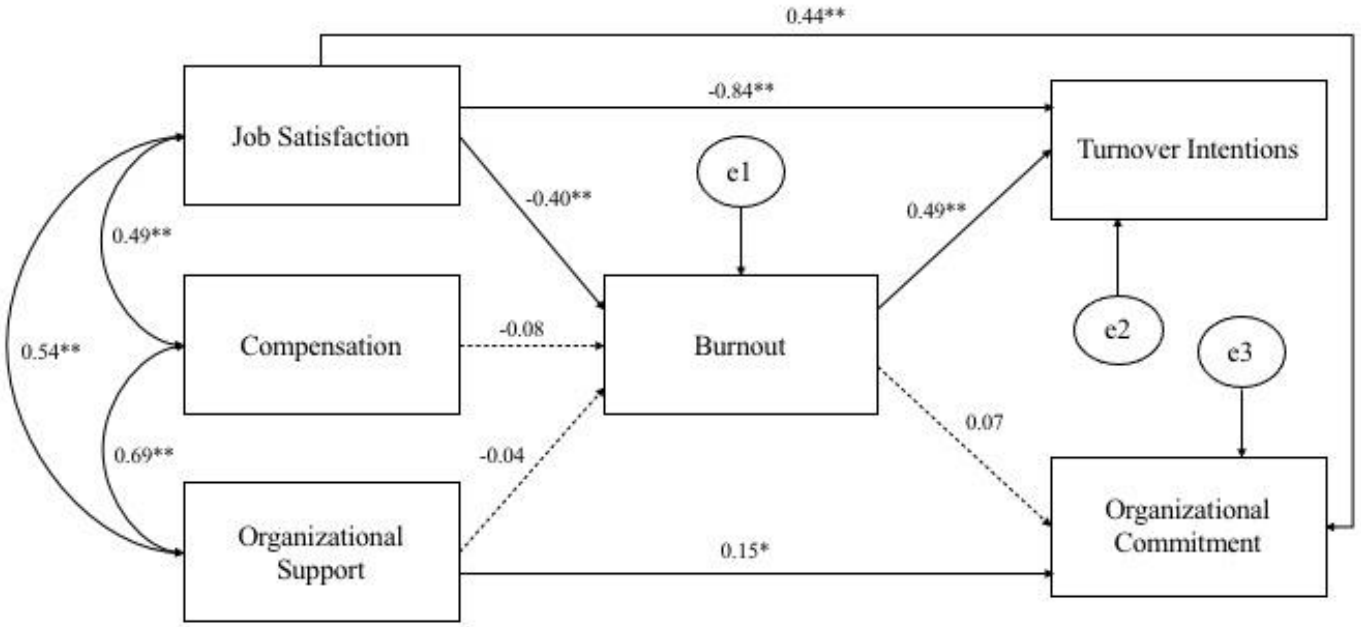
An Adapted Conceptual Model of Burnout



Note. Model adapted from Walters and Raybould (2007). Solid lines indicate significant relationships ($p < 0.05$) and hatched lines indicate non-significant relationships.

Figure 3

A Revised Conceptual Model of Burnout



Note. Model adapted from Walters and Raybould (2007). Solid lines indicate significant relationships ($p < 0.05$) and hatched lines indicate non-significant relationships.

EXTENDED LITERATURE REVIEW

The Golf Club

Golf clubs are not simple businesses, and many include more than golf itself, including various other sports (e.g., tennis, curling, swimming) and hospitality services (Dickson & Koenigsfeld, 2018). Golf clubs vary from small, locally owned courses, to established country clubs, and platinum-level resorts (Fjelstul, 2007). They typically operate as one of three club types: private, semi-private, or public (Perdue, 1997), and have a specific seasonality in Canada and northern parts of the United States (Scott & Jones, 2006). Golf courses in these regions most often operate from April through November, depending on the weather each year (Scott & Jones, 2006).

Due to the unique business of golf clubs, trained professionals are needed to manage them effectively and efficiently (Dickson & Koenigsfeld, 2018). In order to successfully fulfill their roles, Koenigsfeld et al. (2012) suggested that effective general managers of golf clubs should demonstrate ten managerial competencies consisting of golf operations, maintenance of the facility, human resources and legal, leadership and interpersonal relations, food and beverage operations, club governance, sports and recreation, accounting and finance, marketing and membership, and strategic management. In addition to the general manager, there are typically five core positions, otherwise referred to as ‘components,’ within a golf club’s structure: membership services manager, director of golf, golf course superintendent, food and beverage manager, and business manager (Robbins & Judge, 2013). These core positions are most often governed by a board of directors (Dickson & Koenigsfeld, 2018). Golf clubs utilize “work specialization,” whereby work activities are departmentalized under the six core

positions of a golf club and are divided into specific job tasks (Dickson & Koenigsfeld, 2018, p. 55). Employees tend to master a specific part of a job, instead of learning all aspects of the job, which is thought to enhance employee productivity as the scope of their job is narrower (Dickson & Koenigsfeld, 2018).

For this study, the golf operations department, which is managed by the director of golf, will be focal context. The director of golf has many important roles at a golf club. They are responsible "for member and guest satisfaction, sales and revenue management and the financial performance of the department. The management of golf carts, bag room, locker room, golf shop, special tournaments and events can all fall within their list of responsibilities" (Dickson & Koenigsfeld, 2018, p. 57). In some instances, the director of golf is also a teaching professional, but most often they part from that aspect of the job when becoming a director of golf (Dickson & Koenigsfeld, 2018). A certified golf professional, often called a 'golf pro,' is the person(s) who teaches lessons and performs club fittings. Depending on the club, they often work shifts and assist with retail sales in the golf shop. Additionally, to help manage the large number of responsibilities in the golf operations department, some clubs will also have a golf shop/pro shop manager in place as well (Dickson & Koenigsfeld, 2018). The various job roles and responsibilities of the golf operations department are indicative of the complex work environment in which these individuals are employed.

In addition to the complex work environment employees are subjected to, it has been found that managers in the hospitality industry are often challenged by extracting the most out of their few employees to turn the largest possible profit (Poulston, 2009). Employees in the hospitality industry are often subject to poor treatment from both

customers and managers, particularly in private golf clubs as the atmosphere is dependent on familiarity and providing the ultimate member experience (Gustafson, 2002). Moreover, the hospitality and golf industries require employees to work long hours, with little pay and training (Gustafson, 2002; Poulston, 2005). In particular, low pay is often witnessed in golf operations departments, as an average full time 'golf pro' in Ontario, Canada earns $16.81 per hour (Indeed, 2021), which is only $2.56 more than the provincial minimum wage (Government of Ontario, 2021), while seasonal staff are often paid minimum wage (Foscarin, 2018). As well, there are often shortages in staff, constraints on time, and an overload of work in the hospitality industry (Lo & Lamm, 2005). These factors contribute to an environment of stress (Poulston, 2009), which may trigger burnout experiences among employees in golf operations departments.

Burnout

Burnout has been explored in many industries since the 1970s, originating in the field of health. A psychiatrist by the name of Freudenberger (1975), considered by many to be the founder of this field of research, studied the emotional process endured by employees in an alternative health care context and labelled his findings with a single term: *burnout*. There were various opinions regarding what burnout was in these early years. Approximately a year after Freudenberger's (1975) findings, a social psychologist by the name of Maslach (1976) began studying human service employees and their emotions in the workplace (Maslach et al., 2001). However, in 1981, Maslach and Jackson operationally defined the term as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do 'people work' of some kind"

(p. 99). These authors further broke down burnout syndrome into a process consisting of three core components: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and inefficacy.

The first component of burnout syndrome is heightened levels of *emotional exhaustion* that occur as employees' emotional resources are drained, resulting in them feeling unable to work due to their depleted mental states (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Exhaustion is said to only reflect the dimension of stress and does not explain a person's feelings towards their work. Exhaustion is an instinctive response and is a driving factor in a person's actions both emotionally and cognitively to disengage from their work. This response is thought to possibly be the body's way of coping with the overload from work (Maslach et al., 2001).

A second component of burnout syndrome is *depersonalization*, formerly known as cynicism, which is defined as "an attempt to put distance between oneself and service recipients by actively ignoring the qualities that make them unique and engaging people" (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 403). Depersonalization occurs more towards others as an employee becomes increasingly emotionally exhausted (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Distancing is found to be the most common reaction to increased levels of exhaustion and it is suggested that a relationship exists between exhaustion and depersonalization as they are often seen frequently together in the burnout literature across various settings (Maslach et al., 2001).

The final component of burnout is *inefficacy* or reduced personal accomplishment, in that employees start to view themselves and their work negatively and become dissatisfied with their accomplishments at work (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 2001). Employees who report high levels of emotional exhaustion and

depersonalization and low levels of personal accomplishment are at risk of experiencing burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Golembiewski and Munzenrider (1981, 1984) and Golembiewski (1989) challenged this process and suggested another conceptualization. Specifically, these authors contended that depersonalization is needed to reduce feelings of personal accomplishment, and serious decreases in personal accomplishment are necessary for increased levels of emotional exhaustion. Additionally, some researchers used both Maslach and Jackson's (1981) and Golembiewski's (1989) models to understand their research and specific aspects of burnout syndrome (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). Swider and Zimmerman (2010) further suggested a third conceptualization may be possible by combining the Maslach and Jackson (1981) and Golembiewski (1989) models. These alternative conceptualizations demonstrate the need for further research in the field of burnout as there may be various processes of burnout.

The early construct of burnout and its discriminant validity was questioned as it seemed quite similar to previously established constructs of depression and job satisfaction (Maslach et al., 2001), and did not have a clear distinction from the notion of stress (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Ganster and Schaubroeck (1991) challenged that burnout is a form of stress; a chronic response pattern to work deemed as stressful and that includes a high amount of interpersonal interaction. During the development of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), Maslach and Jackson (1981) found burnout to be similar to depression and anxiety (Maslach et al., 2001). However, subsequent empirical studies using the MBI found a distinction between burnout and depression (Bakker et al., 2000; Glass & McKnight, 1996; Leiter & Durup, 1994). Notably, these studies determined that burnout is an issue related specifically to the workplace, whereas

depression can be related to any aspect of one's life. These results supported earlier research by Freudenberger (1983) and Warr (1987) who suggested burnout was more specific to a job role and situation than was depression. Shirom (1989) noted that burnout has been studied as a pattern of various responses to stressors that are faced at work. Further, in 1993, Cordes and Dougherty determined that "burnout represents a particular type of job stress, in which, a pattern of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment (strains) result from a variety of work demands (stressors), especially those of an interpersonal nature" (p. 625).

The definition and components of burnout have been expanded upon over the past 40 years. Exhaustion remains the central aspect of burnout as it is the most physically visible part of the syndrome (Maslach et at., 2001). Due to exhaustion being the most physically visible sign of burnout, it is also the most highly reported and researched of the three components that were initially proposed by Maslach and Jackson (Maslach et al., 2001). Maslach and Jackson's (1981) definition of burnout has been criticized in recent years for its specificity to people who do "human service work" and the factors that are said to cause burnout are also "associated with human service work" (Kristensen et al., 2005, p. 193). As more scholars began to research this phenomenon, they realized that burnout could occur in any job type (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). Thus, Schaufeli and Greenglass (2001) redefined burnout "as a state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion that results from long-term involvement in work situations that are emotionally demanding" (p. 1). This definition expanded the concept of burnout to include all fields of work, including and beyond the health field.

Burnout in the Sport and Hospitality Industries

Researchers who have studied burnout in the sport industry demonstrate the phenomenon is heightened due to long work hours, little organizational support, job demands that are difficult to meet, and a lack of feedback from supervisors (Gustafsson et al., 2016). Furthermore, studies have shown personality type (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010), leadership style (Vullinghs et al., 2020), workaholism (Taylor et al., 2019), work-family conflict (WFC), and family-work conflict (FWC) to have influential roles in burnout experiences (Taylor et al., 2019; Weight et al., 2021). Burnout research in the sport literature has tended to focus on coaches, athletes, and officials, but it has been recommended that further research is needed to examine those who work in other sport occupations to gain a better understanding of burnout experiences (Goodger et al., 2007; Lee & Chelladurai, 2018).

Additionally, research in the hospitality industry shows that poor work conditions and the lack of perceived support from the organization towards its employees can lead to organizations' overlooking the well-being of employees, including experiences of burnout (Anderson et al., 2001; Tabacchi et al., 1990; Zohar, 1994). Zohar (1994) uncovered that jobs in the hospitality industry are some of the most stressful occupations due to conflict with and ambiguity in one's role, a heavy workload, and lack of autonomy in decision making. The occurrence of role conflict is most common as staff members are often faced with demands from customers and management that are not in alignment (Chung & Schneider, 2002; Ross & Boles, 1994). Moreover, the hospitality industry is often known for its labour shortages, undesirable working hours, high pressure environment, and high turnover rate (Buick & Thomas, 2001). Gustafson (2002) found

the issue of turnover is apparent in private clubs in America and managers are faced with trying to keep current employees and market the club as a favourable place to work.

Managers in hospitality are often challenged by the expectation of turning the largest possible profit with the fewest number of employees. If managers and supervisors can retain labour for a low cost, they are often rewarded (Poulston, 2009). However, this process can bring forth tensions between employees and their management team (Poulston, 2009). Those who work on the front line are often paid the least and work the hardest, and the emphasis of utilizing these employees to reach organizational goals can result in the exploitation of these workers (Poulston, 2009). However, the literature demonstrates strong indications that if management can meet the needs of employees, they will also meet the needs of the organization, and employees who are satisfied are more likely to be of higher value and productivity (Davies et al., 2001) and will stay with the organization longer (Bowen et al., 1999; Buick & Muthu, 1997; Chiang et al., 2005; Davies et al., 2001; Ghiselli et al., 2001; Lo & Lamm, 2005).

Furthermore, Zeytinoglu et al. (2005) explored the retail environment and found that job insecurity, low pay, unpredictable hours, and the shorter style of shifts, or split shifts, contributed to stress felt by employees, increased turnover, and workplace conflict. Similar findings have been demonstrated in the golf industry, where turnover was a result of the number of hours employees worked, how much they were compensated, and the experience of conflict with their supervisors (Gustafson, 2002). Due to the nature and working conditions of these industries, the various factors present can potentially lead golf operations employees to experiencing burnout.

Conservation of Resource Theory

For the purposes of this study, the conservation of resource theory (COR) was utilized, as it has been widely employed in the study of 'burnout' among employees. COR is a motivational theory, commonly cited in organizational psychology and organizational behaviour research, that suggests people have an instinctive need to acquire resources and conserve them for optimal functioning (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Hobfoll (1988) defined resources "as objects, states, conditions, and other things that people value" (as cited in Halbesleben et al., 2014, p. 1335). Some examples of resources include promotion opportunities, decision making power, level of autonomy, rewards, contingencies, and social support (Hobfoll, 1989; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Resources hold varying degrees of power and value to people and can differ between individuals as they are related to their personal situations and experiences (Halbesleben et al., 2014). The value individuals instill in certain resources can increase the perceived level of fit between an employee and their organization (Halbesleben et al., 2014).

COR theory has become a leading model for understanding burnout and the various processes it entails (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Shirom, 2003). The main tenet of COR theory is that "individuals (and groups) strive to obtain, retain, foster, and protect those things they centrally value" (Hobfoll et al., 2018, p. 106). According to the COR model of burnout, stress and burnout can be experienced when an individual feels their resources are threatened (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2001; Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). This threat may arise from work demands, a potential loss of resources related to work (e.g., unemployment), or an unequal return of resources after an individual has invested their resources (e.g., if an employee invests their time in helping a co-worker

and the co-worker does not reciprocate). The threat to resources is initially viewed as a stressor, but if resources continue to be lost, specifically after a great resource investment, it is said to lead to burnout (Hobfoll, 2001). Typically, individuals are more concerned about avoiding resource loss versus resource gain. It is more likely that demands (e.g., time pressure) will lead to burnout than an individual's resources will protect them from it (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993).

COR theory is comprised of four principles. The first principle explains how losing a resource is more psychologically harmful to an individual than it is beneficial for them to gain that lost resource back (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Shirom (1989) found that individuals who experience resource loss at work are more likely to experience burnout as a result. The second principle states that in order to protect against resource loss, recover from any potential losses, and to further gain resources, a person needs to invest their resources strategically (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Thirdly, when the potential of resource loss is high, resource gains increase in importance and value. Finally, the fourth principle explains that when an individual's resources are stretched thin, they become defensive and enter a protective state where they may behave in an irrational or aggressive fashion (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

Furthermore, COR theory suggests three corollaries, which are specific predictions that help explain strategies that may help individuals cope with stressful situations at either the individual or organizational level. The first corollary explains that those who have more resources are less likely to experience resource loss and are in a state of possible resource gain. Moreover, those who have fewer resources are more susceptible to resource loss and are less likely to gain further resources (Hobfoll et al.,

2018). The second corollary notes how powerful resource loss can be in comparison to resource gain. The stress that individuals can endure because of this loss can potentially trigger a rapid downward spiral effect where further losses may occur. Finally, corollary three explains how resource gain can spiral upwards but is often slower and of less magnitude in comparison to resource loss and typically takes time to develop (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Resource depletion is a core facet of job burnout and Shirom (1989) found that COR theory is of specific relevance when studying how various stressors lead to burnout. COR theory suggests that an individual who experiences one or more of the three components of burnout is at a greater inherent risk to experiencing all of the components and further, experiencing a resource loss spiral (Hobfoll, 1998).

In addition to COR theory, an adapted version of Walters and Raybould's (2007) conceptual model of burnout (Figure 1) helped guide this research. This model presents a visualization of the burnout phenomenon and its various dimensions. The model separates antecedents of burnout into *role stressors* (e.g., role overload, role conflict) and *mediating factors* (e.g., organizational support, personality factors), which correspond with the demands and resources of COR theory, respectively. Role stressors (i.e., demands) and mediating factors (i.e., resources) are shown to influence burnout and its three respective components (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization/cynicism, inefficacy/reduced personal accomplishment). Further, the model highlights the impact of burnout on various *individual* and *organizational outcomes* (Walters & Raybould, 2007). Specifically, burnout is shown to mediate the antecedents and outcomes in the model.

Antecedents of Burnout

Over the past several decades, researchers have identified three categories of antecedents to burnout: organizational, occupational, and individual (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Shirom, 2003). Beginning with the *organizational* level, studies have indicated that there are numerous organizational situational factors and resources, or lack thereof, that can lead to burnout in employees such as: ambiguity in one's job role, role conflict, work overload (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993), resistance to change (Srivastava & Agrawal, 2020), style of leadership (Vullinghs et al., 2020), lack of organizational support (Srivastava & Agrawal, 2020), lower levels of autonomy, and perceived unfairness at work (Maslach et al., 2001). Karasek (1979) and Karasek and Theorell (1990) explained through the demand-control model, an environmentally based stress-management model of strain, that heightened work demands, and lower levels of job control led to detriments in a person's well-being. Consistently achieving high job demands with a lack of clarity in one's role negatively affects an employee's resources, ultimately resulting in strain, fatigue, and burnout. This negative affect further highlights the importance of organizational resources and the impact they have on employees' experiences of burnout syndrome.

At the *occupational* level, burnout predictors were originally focused on the demands placed on an employee by their clients in the human services sector (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001). Specifically, it was hypothesized that the emotional stressors placed upon employees who do 'people work' had a unique relationship with burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). However, this hypothesis was not supported; instead, it was found that "common job-related stressors (such as workload,

time pressure, or role conflicts) correlated more highly with burnout than client-related stressors (such as problems in interacting with clients)" (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 408). These findings demonstrated how prevalent burnout may be in occupations that are not highly investigated by researchers in this field.

Lastly, at the *individual* level, personal factors including demographics, personality characteristics, and attitudes toward work have been utilized to determine which employees may or may not experience burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001). Individual level findings have led scholars to believe that these are the weakest indicators of job burnout, due to the relationships between personal factors and burnout being smaller in size in comparison to burnout and situational factors (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998; Maslach et al., 2001). In contrast, Swider and Zimmerman (2010) highlighted the importance of including predictors at the individual-level for the roles they play in the process of burnout.

Furthermore, a study by Ahola et al. (2006) investigated the role of various socio-demographic factors on burnout in a sample from the general population, including "gender, age, education, type of employment, work experience, socio-economic status (SES), working time, and marital status" (Ahola et al., 2006, p. 11). Their results revealed a positive relationship between burnout and age for both men and women. Relationships between burnout and education, SES, and work experience were found specifically among women. Women who had completed comprehensive schooling showed lower levels of burnout than those who had not, and those who identified themselves as 'blue-collar' demonstrated higher levels of burnout than other women in the workforce. Moreover, women who indicated they worked more than 16 years in the same career

demonstrated higher levels of burnout than those with less experience (Ahola et al., 2006). Further, the authors' found men who were married or co-habiting demonstrated fewer symptoms of burnout than men who were single, widowed, or divorced (Ahola et al., 2006). These findings highlight that relationships do exist between burnout and demographic factors and should be further explored in an industry-specific context.

Organizations have a responsibility to fulfill the needs of their stakeholders, with employees being a core component of this (Carroll, 1991; Donaldson & Preston, 1995). Guest (2017) explains how important the well-being of employees is to leaders of an organization, and that employee well-being is an ethical concern. Due to the negative consequences of burnout for both employees and organizations, the ability to manage and prevent burnout is viewed as a large ethical topic for leaders (Vullinghs et al., 2020). Vullinghs et al. (2020) explored the relationship between ethical and passive leadership with burnout, through role clarity and role overload. These authors argued that ethical leadership can reduce strain on employees by allowing them more freedom and control over their workload and feel less pressure from demands. In comparison, passive leadership increases the level of strain on employees by reducing the perception of control and increasing the perception of pressure from demands (Vullinghs et al., 2020).

Through ethical leadership employees are provided role clarity, as these leaders provide employees with guidance and model desired behaviours (Brown et al., 2005; Den Hartog, 2015; Kalshoven et al., 2011). Ethical leaders attempt to distribute the workload in a fair manner and to those who are capable of each aspect, thereby reducing any feelings of work overload (Barling & Frone, 2017). Vullinghs et al. (2020) found a "negative relationship of ethical and a positive relationship of passive leadership with

follower burnout" (p. 729). Furthermore, their findings demonstrated that the relationships between leadership styles and burnout experiences are mediated by the level of clarity in the job role and the amount of overload from the role on the employee (Vullinghs et al., 2020).

The relationship between an employee and their job is very important, as it can lead to many different outcomes, both at work and in their personal lives. Workaholics are people who are consumed by their vocation; it becomes a large part of who they are as a person, and they often perform tasks above and beyond their job description. There are positive outcomes of workaholism such as an increased likelihood of job promotion, but there are many negative outcomes in the form of stress, burnout, decreased health, and affecting the home life and families of these employees (Clark et al., 2016). Various industries have been shown to idolize the concept of workaholism, and consider it a social norm, pushing employees to accomplish beyond the requirements of the job (Harpaz & Snir, 2003; Schaufeli et al., 2009). The sport industry is no exception, and consists of a culture of sacrifice, extreme competitiveness, and high pressure to win, which formulates an optimal environment for workaholism (Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Graham & Dixon, 2014; Mathner & Martin, 2012; Weight et al., 2015).

Previous studies on burnout found the characteristics of workaholism to be quite similar to the antecedents of burnout. Workaholics tend to involve themselves so deeply in their work, taking on more than they can handle, and ultimately creating an unhealthy relationship between their work and personal life (McMillan et al., 2003). These unhealthy relationships often become unclear, as workaholics become emotionally attached to their work and struggle to detach, possibly due to the work demands they

encounter from their job (Spence & Robbins, 1992). Those who experience workaholism have also reported a lack of support at work, which is another antecedent of burnout, and can lead to a toxic work environment (Anagnostopoulos et al., 2016; Lafrenière et al., 2011). These conditions associated with workaholism are potentially putting employees at risk of future burnout (Bakker et al., 2011).

A study by Taylor et al. (2019) examined the relationship between workaholism and burnout in employees working in intercollegiate athletics in the United States. They found a positive correlation between workaholism and burnout, which confirms previous research from the business literature (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Furthermore, they found a relationship among workaholism and burnout that depends upon WFC. Lastly, they found a significant correlation between the gender and relationship status of the participants and their indicated levels of FWC and WFC. There is a growing realization of the pressures endured by people who work in the sport industry, and a new understanding that employees have a threshold where their work engagement will turn to overcommitment and possibly lead to eventual work burnout (Anagnostopoulos et al., 2016). These findings are important for the sport management literature and fill an important gap within it, as the majority of studies investigating burnout in this industry have focussed on coaches, athletes, and officials (Goodger et al., 2007; Lee & Chelladurai, 2018).

The role of WFC and FWC in employees in the sport industry is becoming increasingly recognized (Taylor et al., 2019; Weight et al., 2021). WFC and FWC are umbrella terms used to describe a person's work and family responsibilities and the conflicting roles that may arise due to the fixed amount of time in a day, thereby forcing an individual to choose between focusing on their work over their family or their family

over their work, respectively (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). There are numerous challenges that have been displayed in many industries related to WFC and FWC; however, the conflict becomes increasingly apparent in industries with a culture of high pressure, extremely long work hours, and high performance expectations, all of which are antecedents of burnout and have been witnessed in the sport industry (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). Research conducted on sport coaches and trainers indicate that they experience high levels of WFC and FWC (Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Graham & Dixon, 2017; Mazerolle et al., 2018).

Weight et al. (2021) extended the current literature that discusses employee experiences and the impacts of WFC and FWC, burnout, workaholism, and engagement at work into the sport industry with participants from the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) athletic departments and by utilizing an archetype approach. There were five employee archetypes that participants were categorized into. The first archetype was 'early-career support staff,' with a mean age of 27.64 years (Weight et al., 2021). The authors found this group to have "moderate amounts of WFC, workaholism, and burnout and lower levels of work engagement and FWC" (Weight, et al., 2021, p. 5). This archetype experienced the highest levels of burnout and WFC among the groups of participants. The second archetype was titled 'mid-career, no children, flexibility,' and encompassed employees around 29.71 years of age. This group demonstrated lower levels of burnout and FWC but indicated increased levels of work engagement. Thirdly, the 'midcareer, no flexibility' archetype had a mean age of 33.06 years, with some participants having children. Participants in this group expressed heightened levels of WFC, burnout, and workaholism, and average amounts of FWC and work engagement.

The fourth archetype was ‘midcareer married parents,’ which included employees with a mean age of 38.89 years, who are parents and have children living at home, mostly married, and have a flexible work schedule. This group of participants reported increased levels of work engagement and FWC, and average amounts of workaholism and burnout. The final archetype was named ‘late career senior leader’ and was comprised of participants with jobs such as athletic directors, and head coaches, with a mean age of 52.61 years. This archetype was found to have “the highest levels of work engagement and lowest levels of burnout, workaholism, and WFC and FWC” (Weight et al., 2021, p. 11). A key finding of this study was that ‘early-career support staff’ experienced the highest levels of burnout and WFC among the groups of participants[2]. These findings are alarming as the hospitality industry employs a high proportion of people under the age of 25 (Poulston, 2008), with 48% of golf industry employees identifying as students (NGCOA, 2020). A secondary finding was that participants in the ‘midcareer, no flexibility’ archetype expressed heightened levels of WFC, burnout, and workaholism, and average amounts of FWC and work engagement (Weight et al., 2021).

Past research suggests that organizations in hospitality often fail at addressing problems related to the well-being of employees, such as experiences of burnout, due to work and how supported or valued their employees feel by their leaders (Anderson et al., 2001; Tabacchi et al., 1990; Zohar, 1994). When employees receive resources that they consider to be of high value, it creates a strong sense of organizational support and employees feel an obligation to the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Additionally, Yadav and Rangnekar (2015) found when employees

[2] These findings contrast those of Ahola et al. (2006), which suggest the experiences of employee burnout may be industry specific.

felt supported, they were more motivated to work at a higher performance level and had more positive attitudes and behaviours towards their organizations. Furthermore, Walters and Raybould (2007) examined front line hospitality employees and the relationship between burnout and perceived organizational support (POS). The authors found a negative relationship between exhaustion and cynicism and POS. This finding further suggests that the more support employees received from their organization, the less likely they were to feel exhausted and cynical (Walters & Raybould, 2007).

Golf clubs are categorized as service organizations, as their goal is to serve the needs of the golfing community (Groch, 2015). Thus, the recruitment and retention of qualified employees who can meet the demands of golfers are the core component of the organization's successful operation (Groch, 2015). Bateman and Organ (1983) demonstrated that employees who are satisfied in their jobs tend to perform at higher levels. Furthermore, Harter et al. (2002) found a strong positive relationship between the satisfaction levels of employees and customers. Job satisfaction has also been shown to have both direct and indirect effects on burnout experiences (Kalliath & Morris, 2002). Wu et al. (2021) explored the relationship between stress experienced by employees at work on various components of job burnout and the mediating effects of job satisfaction and social support. They found a positive correlation between job stress and emotional exhaustion and cynicism, but a negative correlation with professional inefficacy (Wu et al., 2021). These findings indicate "the higher the level of job stress, the greater the degree of job burnout" (Wu et al., 2021, p. 207). Employees who experience job stress may experience a decrease in support resources and feel as if their relationships and support systems are deteriorating. Further, those who experience a lack of support are

less likely to be engaged in their job, which can make them even more susceptible to experiencing burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2016; Saijo et al., 2018). Wu et al. (2021) further demonstrated "that job stress has an indirect effect on job burnout through job satisfaction" (p. 207). Specifically, job stress can potentially result in employees adopting negative behaviours and attitudes, which is seen to have a negative relationship with job satisfaction. Additionally, the authors found that the greater the level of job stress experienced, the lower the level of perceived social support, which is related to increased job dissatisfaction and can further lead to job burnout (Wu et al., 2021).

Theories of personality explain how the reaction and interpretation of an individuals' environment can be affected by their disposition (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). Swider and Zimmerman (2010) studied the relationship between personality traits listed in the five-factor model (i.e., neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness; Goldberg, 1990), a personality inventory, the three dimensions of job burnout, and various work outcomes. These authors noted that individual level factors regarding burnout are not researched as often as organizational and occupational level factors. However, an individual's personality can typically be considered stable, particularly when comparing it to one's workload, which can be considerably unstable. Due to an individual's personality often being stable and their workload often being unstable, Swider and Zimmerman (2010) argued that individual level factors are more important in the process of burnout than the literature states. Their findings demonstrated that those who were deemed higher in neuroticism and lower in agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extraversion were more likely to experience job burnout (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). Additionally, they studied the impacts of job

burnout on work outcomes, such as absenteeism, performance on the job, and turnover. The results showed that employees who were more likely to experience job burnout were also more likely to participate in negative work outcomes (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010).

Outcomes of Burnout

Employee burnout continues to be a highly researched topic due to its impact on individuals and organizations (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Lee & Ashforth, 1993; Taylor et al., 2019; Zohar, 1997). At the *individual level* there are five categories of symptoms of burnout: physical (e.g., including fatigue, headaches, gastro-intestinal issues, insomnia), emotional (e.g., depression, anxiety, irritability), behavioural (e.g., absenteeism, substance use), interpersonal (e.g., difficulty concentrating on clients), and attitudinal (e.g., development of negative attitudes in general) (Kahill, 1988). At the *organizational level*, burnout is related to increased turnover intention, reduced levels of commitment from employees, and decreased job satisfaction and performance (Maslach et al., 2001). While the most common negative side effect of employee burnout is decreased job performance (Maslach, 1982), the most serious outcome is the increased intention of employees quitting their jobs (Marchand & Vandenberghe, 2016; Ogungbamila et al., 2014).

Employees in hospitality are often found to have conflicting demands placed upon them by their managers and customers, which places further strain on them and can trigger various antecedents and outcomes of burnout (Chung & Schneider, 2002; Ross & Boles, 1994). Ambiguity in one's role arises when an employee does not understand the expectations of the job (Ross & Boles, 1994). Faulkner and Patiar (1997) investigated front-line hospitality workers and found that dealing with ambiguous situations was one

of the most common forms of stress. Further, during peak hours, a manager may not be readily available to help answer any questions an employee may have (Ross & Boles, 1994). This is seen to possibly result in decreased personal efficacy, a core component of burnout (Deery & Shaw, 1997). The repeated occurrence of these role stressors can cause employees to not meet organizational expectations and evoke numerous symptoms of role strain (Zohar, 1994). These symptoms include reduced job satisfaction, decreased organizational commitment and job performance, absenteeism, a poor attitude directed at the job, increased anxiety, and increased feelings of tension (Zohar, 1994). These symptoms demonstrated from role strain, are highly correlated with the symptoms of burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Vallen, 1993; van Dierendonck et al., 1998). Ross and Boles (1994) suggested the support provided by supervisors and managers can reduce strains felt by employees related to the job such as role ambiguity and role conflict. Various studies support this claim as findings have demonstrated that leadership and supervisory behaviours can increase the clarity of one's role (Hampton et al., 1986; Johnson et al., 1989).

The increased prevalence of burnout can further lead to employee turnover, which can be described as the process of a job position becoming voluntarily or involuntarily vacated by an employee, and then hiring and training a new employee to fill that vacancy. The replacement of an employee forms a cycle which is known as turnover (Woods, 1992). Turnover is a highly researched topic, although no specific antecedents or models have been found to cause turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). High rates of employee turnover have been a trend found within the hospitality industry (Barrows & Ridout, 2010). The main organizational goal of golf clubs is to satisfy their members and golfers,

and these individuals find comfort being around employees they have come to know over time, in comparison to numerous employees who are employed for a short period of time (Barrows & Ridout, 2010). Gustafson (2002) investigated annual rates of turnover at various private golf clubs across America and the reasons causing employees at these clubs to leave their jobs. Their results demonstrated a mean turnover rate of 75.16%. Clubs that hosted employee socials, had opportunities for promotion, flexible scheduling, a high sense of club loyalty, and few labour shortages were seen to have lower turnover rates. Turnover was often seen as a function of "compensation, number of hours worked, and conflict with supervisor" (Gustafson, 2002, p. 110). Specifically, these results indicated employees will leave their job for an opportunity to earn a higher income elsewhere. Furthermore, the number of hours worked was stressed, as it was not uncommon for employees in clubs to work 50 to 60 hours per week, or more, in peak season. Lastly, 87% of club managers noted the labour shortage was critical and they thought about it almost daily (Gustafson, 2002).

A recent study by Srivastava and Agrawal (2020) examined the intention of turnover by employees during a time when resistance to change was experienced. They further investigated "the mediating role of burnout in the relationship of resistance of change to turnover intention and the moderating role of perceived organizational support in this relationship" (Srivastava & Agrawal, 2020, p. 1431). The process of change can be seen in organizations during downsizing, outsourcing, restructuring, or mergers and acquisitions, which can often lead to job burnout (Srivastava & Agrawal, 2020). An increase in workload is often seen when such organizational changes occur (Chênevert et al., 2019) and most often employees do not understand or want to accept the change,

which can result in burnout (Oreg, 2003). Srivastava and Agrawal (2020) utilized the job-demand resources model that proposes working conditions can be separated into either job demands or job resources and are distinctively related to certain outcomes (Demerouti et al., 2001). When implementing change in an organization, it can require more effort from employees due to the new environment and as a result it can trigger outcomes such as burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001). Srivastava and Agrawal (2020) found that organizational changes with limited resources and an increased demand for personal resources will result in stress among employees. Moreover, employees experiencing heightened levels of stress due to evolving needs for resources in the new environment, who are met with a lack of resources to complete these job demands, will result in burnout and lead to possible turnover (Srivastava & Agrawal, 2020).

Conclusion

After reviewing the current literature, it is apparent there is a dearth of research regarding the golf industry and the well-being of its employees. Specifically, there is a lack of research regarding the prevalence of burnout among employees in golf operations. Thus, the purpose of this study is to examine the prevalence of burnout among golf operations employees across Canada and the effects of various antecedents and outcomes associated with the burnout phenomenon. The unique working conditions and environment of the sport and hospitality industries make studying employees of golf operations departments of interest to sport management researchers and industry professionals due to the combination of burnout antecedents that are present in the industry.

REFERENCES

Ahola, K., Honkonen, T., Isometsä, E., Kalimo, R., Nykyri, E., Koskinen, S., Aromaa, A., & Lönnqvist, J. (2006). Burnout in the general population: Results from the Finnish Health 2000 Study. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, *41*(1), 11–17. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00127-005-0011-5

Anagnostopoulos, C., Winand, M., & Papadimitriou, D. (2016). Passion in the workplace: Empirical insights from team sport organisations. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, *16*(4), 385–412. https://doi.org/10.1080/16184742.2016.1178794

Anderson, B. A., Provis, C., & Chappel, S. J. (2001). When it's just too hard to smile! *Australian Journal of Hospitality Management, 8*(2), 69–72.

Bakker, A. B., Albrecht, S. L., & Leiter, M. P. (2011). Key questions regarding work engagement. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *20*(1), 4–28. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2010.485352

Bakker, A. B., Schaufeli, W. B., Demerouti, E., Janssen, P. P. M., Van Der Hulst, R., & Brouwer, J. (2000). Using equity theory to examine the difference between burnout and depression. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping, 13*, 247–268.

Barling, J., & Frone, M. R. (2017). If only my leader would just do something! Passive leadership undermines employee well-being through role stressors and psychological resource depletion. *Stress and Health: Journal of the International Society for the Investigation of Stress*, *33*(3), 211–222. https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2697

Barrows, C., & Ridout, M. (2010). Another decade of research in club management: A review of the literature in academic journals for the period 1994–2005. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, *19*(5), 421–463. https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2010.482825

Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship". *Academy of Management Journal*, *26*(4), 587–595. https://doi.org/10.2307/255908

Bowen, D. E., Gilliland, S. W., & Folger, R. (1999). HRM and service fairness: How being fair with employees spills over to customers. *Organizational Dynamics*, *27*(3), 7–23. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0090-2616(99)90018-9

Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *97*(2), 117–134. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2005.03.002

Buick, I., & Muthu, G. (1997). An investigation of the current practices of in-house employee training and development within hotels in Scotland. *The Service Industries Journal*, *17*(4), 652–668. https://doi.org/10.1080/02642069700000039

Buick, I., & Thomas, M. (2001). Why do middle managers in hotels burn out? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *13*(6), 304–309. https://doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000005968

Carroll, A. B. (1991). The pyramid of corporate social responsibility: Toward the moral management of organizational stakeholders. *Business Horizons*, *34*(4), 39–48.

Chênevert, D., Kilroy, S., & Bosak, J. (2019). The role of change readiness and colleague support in the role stressors and withdrawal behaviors relationship among health care employees. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, *32*(2), 208–223. https://doi.org/10.1108/JOCM-06-2018-0148

Chiang, C. F., Back, K. J., & Canter, D. D. (2005). The impact of employee training on job satisfaction and intention to stay in the hotel industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, *4*(2), 99–118. https://doi.org/10.1300/J171v04n02_06

Chung, B. G., & Schneider, B. (2002). Serving multiple masters: Role conflict experienced by service employees. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *16*(1), 70–87. https://doi.org/10.1108/08876040210419424

Clark, M. A., Michel, J. S., Zhdanova, L., Pui, S. Y., & Baltes, B. B. (2016). All work and no play? A meta-analytic examination of the correlates and outcomes of workaholism. *Journal of Management*, *42*(7), 1836–1873. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314522301

Cordes, C. L., & Dougherty, T. W. (1993). A review and an integration of research on job burnout. *Academy of Management Review*, *18*(4), 621–656. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1993.9402210153

Cropanzano, R., Rupp, D. E., & Byrne, Z. S. (2003). The relationship of emotional exhaustion to work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(1), 160–169. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.1.160

Davies, D., Taylor, R., & Savery, L. (2001). The role of appraisal, remuneration and training in improving staff relations in the Western Australian accommodation industry: A comparative study. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 25*(7), 366–373. https://doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000005837

Deery, M. A., & Shaw, R. N. (1997). An exploratory analysis of turnover culture in the hotel industry in Australia. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *16*(4), 375–392. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0278-4319(97)00031-5

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(3), 499–512. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.499

Den Hartog, D. N. (2015). Ethical leadership. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *2*(1), 409–434. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032414-111237

Dickson, G., & Koenigsfeld, J. P. (2018). Golf club management and hospitality. In T. Breitbarth, A. Kaiser-Jovy, & G. Dickson (Eds.), *Golf business and management: A global introduction* (pp. 53-67). Routledge.

Dixon, M. A., & Bruening, J. E. (2005). Perspectives on work-family conflict in sport: An integrated approach. *Sport Management Review*, *8*(3), 227–253. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1441-3523(05)70040-1

Dixon, M. A., & Bruening, J. E. (2007). Work–family conflict in coaching I: A top-down perspective. *Journal of Sport Management, 21*(3), 377–406. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.21.3.377

Donaldson, T., & Preston, L. E. (1995). The stakeholder theory of the corporation: Concepts, evidence, and implications. *Academy of Management Review*, *20*(1), 65–91. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1995.9503271992

Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I. L., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(3), 565–573. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.3.565

Faulkner, B., & Patiar, A. (1997). Workplace induced stress among operational staff in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *16*(1), 99–117. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0278-4319(96)00053-9

Fjelstul, J. (2007). Competencies and opportunities for entry level golf and club management careers: Perceptions from the industry. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, *19*(3), 32–38. https://doi.org/10.1080/10963758.2007.10696895

Foscarin, A. (2018, April 24). *Golf's wage war.* https://scoregolf.com/feature/golfs-wage-war/

Freudenberger, H. J. (1975). The staff burnout syndrome in alternative institutions. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research & Practice*, *12*(1), 73–82. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0086411

Freudenberger, H. J. (1983). Burnout: Contemporary issues, trends, and concerns. In B. A. Farber (Ed.), *Stress and burnout in the human service professions.* (pp. 23–28). Pergamon Press.

Ganster, D. C., & Schaubroeck, J. (1991). Work stress and employee health. *Journal of Management, 17*(2), 235–271. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639101700202

Ghiselli, R. F., La Lopa, J. M., & Bai, B. (2001). Job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and turnover intent: Among food-service managers. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, *42*(2), 28–37. https://doi.org/10.1177/0010880401422002

Glass, D. C., & McKnight, J. D. (1996). Perceived control, depressive symptomatology, and professional burnout: A review of the evidence. *Psychology & Health*, *11*(1), 23–48. https://doi.org/10.1080/08870449608401975

Goldberg, L. R. (1990). An alternative "description of personality": The Big-Five factor structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 59*(6), 1216–1229. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.59.6.1216

Golembiewski, R. T. (1989). A note on Leiter's study: Highlighting two models of burnout. *Group & Organizational Studies*, *14*, 5–13.

Golembiewski, R. T., & Munzenrider, R. (1981). Efficacy of three versions of one burn-out measure: MBI as total score, sub-scale scores, or phases? *Journal of Health and Human Resources Administration, 7*, 228–246.

Golembiewski, R. T., & Munzenrider, R. (1984). Phases of psychological burn-out and organizational co-variants: A replication using norms from a large population. *Journal of Health and Human Resources Administration*, *7*, 290–323.

Goodger, K., Gorely, T., Lavallee, D., & Harwood, C. (2007). Burnout in sport: A systematic review. *The Sport Psychologist*, *21*(2), 127–151. https://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.21.2.127

Government of Ontario. (2021). *Minimum wage.* https://www.ontario.ca/document/your-guide-employment-standards-act-0/minimum-wage

Graham, J. A., & Dixon, M. A. (2014). Coaching fathers in conflict: A review of the tensions surrounding the work-family interface. *Journal of Sport Management*, *28*(4), 447–456. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.2013-0241

Graham, J. A., & Dixon, M. A. (2017). Work–family balance among coach-fathers: A qualitative examination of enrichment, conflict, and role management strategies. *Journal of Sport Management*, *31*(3), 288–305. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.2016-0117

Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, *10*(1), 76–88. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1985.4277352

Groch, J. M. (2015). Motivating golf employees in Southwest Florida. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, *16*(4), 408–426. https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2015.1090259

Guest, D. E. (2017). Human resource management and employee well-being: Towards a new analytic framework. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *27*(1), 22–38. https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12139

Gustafson, C. M. (2002). Employee turnover: A study of private clubs in the USA. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *14*(3), 106–113. https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110210424385

Gustafsson, H., Lundkvist, E., Podlog, L., & Lundqvist, C. (2016). Conceptual confusion and potential advances in athlete burnout research. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, *123*(3), 784–791. https://doi.org/10.1177/0031512516665900

Halbesleben, J. R. B., & Buckley, M. R. (2004). Burnout in organizational life. *Journal of Management, 30*(6), 859–879. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jm.2004.06.004

Halbesleben, J. R. B., Neveu, J. P., Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., & Westman, M. (2014). Getting to the "COR": Understanding the role of resources in conservation of resources theory. *Journal of Management*, *40*(5), 1334–1364. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314527130

Hampton, R., Dubinsky, A. J., & Skinner, S. J. (1986). A model of sales supervisor leadership behavior and retail salespeople's job-related outcomes. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *14*(3), 33–43. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02723262

Harpaz, I., & Snir, R. (2003). Workaholism: Its definition and nature. *Human Relations*, *56*(3), 291–319. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726703056003613

Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Hayes, T. L. (2002). Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(2), 268–279. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.2.268

Hobfoll, S. E. (1988). *The ecology of stress*. Hemisphere.

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist, 44*, 513-524.

Hobfoll, S. E. (1998). *Stress, culture, and community: The psychology and philosophy of stress.* Plenum Press.

Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied Psychology*, *50*(3), 337–421. https://doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00062

Hobfoll, S. E., & Freedy, J. (1993). Conservation of resources: A general stress theory applied to burnout. In W. B. Schaufeli, C. Maslach, & T. Marek (Eds.), *Professional burnout: Recent developments in theory and research.* Taylor & Francis.

Hobfoll, S. E., Halbesleben, J., Neveu, J.-P., & Westman, M. (2018). Conservation of resources in the organizational context: The reality of resources and their consequences. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *5*(1), 103–128. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032117-104640

Indeed. (2021, March 9). *How much does a golf professional make in Ontario?* https://ca.indeed.com/career/golf-professional/salaries/Ontario

Kahill, S. (1988). Symptoms of professional burnout: A review of the empirical evidence. *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie Canadienne*, *29*(3), 284–297. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0079772

Kalliath, T., & Morris, R. (2002). Job satisfaction among nurses: A predictor of burnout levels. *The Journal of Nursing Administration*, *32*(12), 648–654. https://doi.org/10.1097/00005110-200212000-00010

Kalshoven, K., Den Hartog, D. N., & De Hoogh, A. H. B. (2011). Ethical leadership at work questionnaire (ELW): Development and validation of a multidimensional measure. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(1), 51–69. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.12.007

Karasek, R. A. (1979). Job demands, job decision latitude, and mental strain: Implications for job redesign. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 24*(2), 285–308.

Karasek, R. A., & Theorell, T. (1990). *Healthy work: Stress, productivity, and the reconstruction of working life.* Basic Books.

Koenigsfeld, J. P., Kim, S., Cha, J., Perdue, J., & Cichy, R. F. (2012). Developing a competency model for private club managers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31*(3), 633–641. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2011.08.007

Kristensen, T. S., Borritz, M., Villadsen, E., & Christensen, K. B. (2005). The Copenhagen Burnout Inventory: A new tool for the assessment of burnout. *Work & Stress, 19*(3), 192–207. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370500297720

Lafrenière, M.-A. K., Jowett, S., Vallerand, R. J., & Carbonneau, N. (2011). Passion for coaching and the quality of the coach–athlete relationship: The mediating role of coaching behaviors. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *12*(2), 144–152. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychsport.2010.08.002

Lee, R. T., & Ashforth, B. E. (1993). A further examination of managerial burnout: Toward an integrated model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *14*(1), 3–20. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030140103

Lee, R. T., & Ashforth, B. E. (1996). A meta-analytic examination of the correlates of the three dimensions of job burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(2), 123–133. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.81.2.123

Lee, T. W., & Mitchell, T. R. (1994). An alternative approach: The unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover. *Academy of Management Review, 19*(1), 51–89. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1994.9410122008

Lee, Y. H., & Chelladurai, P. (2018). Emotional intelligence, emotional labor, coach burnout, job satisfaction, and turnover intention in sport leadership. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 18*(4), 393–412. https://doi.org/10.1080/16184742.2017.1406971

Leiter, M. P., & Durup, J. (1994). The discriminant validity of burnout and depression: A confirmatory factor analytic study. *Anxiety, Stress, & Coping, 7*(4), 357–373. https://doi.org/10.1080/10615809408249357

Lo, K., & Lamm, F. (2005). Occupational stress in the hospitality industry: An employment relations perspective. *New Zealand Journal of Employment Relations, 30*(1), 23–47.

Marchand, C., & Vandenberghe, C. (2016). Perceived organizational support, emotional exhaustion, and turnover: The moderating role of negative affectivity. *International Journal of Stress Management, 23*(4), 350–375. https://doi.org/10.1037/str0000020

Maslach, C. (1976). Burned-out. *Human Behavior, 5*, 16–22.

Maslach, C. (1982). *Burnout: The cost of caring.* Prentice Hall.

Maslach, C., & Goldberg, J. (1998). Prevention of burnout: New perspectives. *Applied and Preventive Psychology, 7*(1), 63–74. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0962-1849(98)80022-X

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Occupational Behavior, 2*(2), 99–113. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030020205

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (1997). *The truth about burnout: How organizations cause personal stress and what to do about it.* Jossey-Bass.

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2016). Understanding the burnout experience: Recent research and its implications for psychiatry. *World Psychiatry, 15*(2), 103–111. https://doi.org/10.1002/wps.20311

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *52*(1), 397–422. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.397

Mathner, R. P., & Martin, C. L. L. (2012). Sport management graduate and undergraduate students' perceptions of career expectations in sport management. *Sport Management Education Journal*, *6*(1), 21–31. https://doi.org/10.1123/smej.6.1.21

Mazerolle, S. M., Pitney, W. A., Goodman, A., Eason, C. M., Spak, S., Scriber, K. C., Voll, C. A., Detwiler, K., Rock, J., Cooper, L., & Simone, E. (2018). National Athletic Trainers' Association position statement: Facilitating work-life balance in athletic training practice settings. *Journal of Athletic Training, 53*(8), 796–811. https://doi.org/10.4085/1062-6050-51.11.02

McMillan, L. H. W., O'Driscoll, M. P., & Burke, R. J. (2003). Workaholism: A review of theory, research, and future directions. In C. L. Cooper, & I. T. Robertson (Eds.),

International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (Vol. 18, pp. 167–189). Wiley.

National Golf Course Owners Association (2020). *We are golf releases economic impact of golf in Canada (2019)*. https://www.ngcoa.ca/news/5740/we-are-golf-releases-economic-impact-of-golf-in-canada-2019

Ogungbamila, B., Balogun, A. G., Ogungbamila, A., & Oladele, R. S. (2014). Job stress, emotional labor, and emotional intelligence as predictors of turnover intention: Evidence from two service occupations. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 5*(6), 351-357. https://doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2014.v5n6p351

Oreg, S. (2003). Resistance to change: Developing an individual differences measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(4), 680–693. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.4.680

Perdue, J. (1997). *Contemporary club management*. The Educational Institute of the American Hotel and Lodging Association.

Poulston, J. (2005). Constructive dismissals in hospitality: Perceived incidence and acceptance. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, *6*(1), 11–26. https://doi.org/10.1300/J149v06n01_02

Poulston, J. (2008). Hospitality workplace problems and poor training: A close relationship. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *20*(4), 412–427. https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110810873525

Poulston, J. M. (2009). Working conditions in hospitality: Employees' views of the dissatisfactory hygiene factors. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, *10*(1), 23–43. https://doi.org/10.1080/15280080902716993

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(4), 698–714. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.4.698

Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. (2013). *Organizational behavior* (15th ed). Pearson.

Ross, L. E., & Boles, J. S. (1994). Exploring the influence of workplace relationships on work-related attitudes and behaviors in the hospitality work environment. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *13*(2), 155–171. https://doi.org/10.1016/0278-4319(94)90036-1

Saijo, Y., Yoshioka, E., Hanley, S. J. B., Kitaoka, K., & Yoshida, T. (2018). Job stress factors affect workplace resignation and burnout among Japanese rural physicians. *The Tohoku Journal of Experimental Medicine*, *245*(3), 167–177. https://doi.org/10.1620/tjem.245.167

Schaufeli, W. B., Bakker, A. B., van der Heijden, F. M. M. A., & Prins, J. T. (2009). Workaholism, burnout and well-being among junior doctors: The mediating role of role conflict. *Work & Stress*, *23*(2), 155–172. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370902834021

Schaufeli, W. B., & Greenglass, E. R. (2001). Introduction to special issue on burnout and health. *Psychology & Health*, *16*(5), 501–510. https://doi.org/10.1080/08870440108405523

Schaufeli, W. B., Leiter, M. P., & Maslach, C. (2009). Burnout: 35 years of research and practice. *Career Development International*, *14*(3), 204–220. https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430910966406

Scott, D., & Jones, B. (2006). The impact of climate change on golf participation in the Greater Toronto Area (GTA): A case study. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *38*(3), 363–380. https://doi.org/10.1080/00222216.2006.11950083

Shirom, A. (1989). Burnout in work organizations. In C. L. Cooper, & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology 1989* (pp. 25–48). John Wiley & Sons.

Shirom, A. (2003). Job-related burnout: A review. In J. C. Quick, & L. E. Tetrick (Eds.), *Handbook of occupational health psychology.* (pp. 245–264). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/10474-012

Spence, J. T., & Robbins, A. S. (1992). Workaholism: Definition, measurement, and preliminary results. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *58*(1), 160–178. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa5801_15

Srivastava, S., & Agrawal, S. (2020). Resistance to change and turnover intention: A moderated mediation model of burnout and perceived organizational support. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, *33*(7), 1431–1447. https://doi.org/10.1108/JOCM-02-2020-0063

Swider, B. W., & Zimmerman, R. D. (2010). Born to burnout: A meta-analytic path model of personality, job burnout, and work outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *76*(3), 487–506. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2010.01.003

Tabacchi, M., Krone, C., & Farber, B. (1990). Workplace and social support in ameliorating managerial burnout in the food and beverage industry. *Hospitality Research Journal*, *14*(2), 553–560. https://doi.org/10.1177/109634809001400258

Taylor, E. A., Huml, M. R., & Dixon, M. A. (2019). Workaholism in sport: A mediated model of work–family conflict and burnout. *Journal of Sport Management, 33*(4), 249–260. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.2018-0248

Vallen, G. K. (1993). Organizational climate and burnout. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, *34*(1), 54–59. https://doi.org/10.1177/001088049303400110

van Dierendonck, D., Schaufeli, W. B., & Buunk, B. P. (1998). The evaluation of an individual burnout intervention program: The role of inequity and social support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *83*(3), 392–407. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.83.3.392

Vullinghs, J. T., De Hoogh, A. H. B., Den Hartog, D. N., & Boon, C. (2020). Ethical and passive leadership and their joint relationships with burnout via role clarity and role overload. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *165*(4), 719–733. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-4084-y

Walters, G., & Raybould, M. (2007). Burnout and perceived organisational support among front-line hospitality employees. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 14*(2), 144–156. https://doi.org/10.1375/jhtm.14.2.144

Warr, P. B. (1987). *Work, unemployment, and mental health*. Oxford University Press.

Weight, E. A., Cooper, C., & Popp, N. K. (2015). The coach-educator: NCAA Division I coach perspectives about an integrated university organizational structure. *Journal of Sport Management*, *29*(5), 510–522. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.2014-0006

Weight, E. A., Taylor, E., Huml, M. R., & Dixon, M. A. (2021). Working in the sport industry: A classification of human capital archetypes. *Journal of Sport Management*, 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.2020-0070

Woods, R. H. (1992). *Managing hospitality human resources*. Educational Institute of the American Hotel & Motel Association.

Wu, F., Ren, Z., Wang, Q., He, M., Xiong, W., Ma, G., Fan, X., Guo, X., Liu, H., & Zhang, X. (2021). The relationship between job stress and job burnout: The mediating effects of perceived social support and job satisfaction. *Psychology, Health & Medicine*, *26*(2), 204–211. https://doi.org/10.1080/13548506.2020.1778750

Yadav, M., & Rangnekar, S. (2015). Supervisory support and organizational citizenship behavior: Mediating role of participation in decision making and job satisfaction. *Evidence-Based HRM: A Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship*, *3*(3), 258–278. https://doi.org/10.1108/EBHRM-04-2014-0014

Zeytinoglu, I. U., Lillevik, W., Seaton, B., & Moruz, J. (2005). Part-time and casual work in retail trade: Stress and other factors affecting the workplace. *Relations Industrielles*, *59*(3), 516–544. https://doi.org/10.7202/010923ar

Zohar, D. (1994). Analysis of job stress profile in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *13*(3), 219–231. https://doi.org/10.1016/0278-4319(94)90022-1

Zohar, D. (1997). Predicting burnout with a hassle-based measure of role demands. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *18*, 101–115.

VITA AUCTORIS

NAME:	Sheldon Taylor Fetter
PLACE OF BIRTH:	Windsor, ON
YEAR OF BIRTH:	1997
EDUCATION:	Kingsville District High School, Kingsville, ON, 2015
	University of Windsor, B.H.K., Windsor, ON, 2019
	University of Windsor, M.H.K., Windsor, ON, 2022