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Effectiveness in Sport on Micro and Meso Management Level

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"Organizations, teams, and individuals make the difference"

(Dressler, 2004, p.2)

Dressler, S. (2004). *Strategy, organizational effectiveness and performance management: from basics to best practices*. Boca Raton, Floria: Universal Publishers.

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SAMENVATTING

Het doel van dit doctoraatsonderzoek bestond erin om meer kennis te verwerven over het concept “organizational effectiveness” in het wetenschapsgebied sportmanagement. De complexiteit van het concept werd in de verf gezet door effectiviteit te benaderen op micro en meso managementniveau. De twee studies op micro managementniveau hebben betrekking op persoonlijke effectiviteit en behandelden de conventionele gedachte dat leiders of managers van belang zijn en dat ze een significante impact hebben op de effectiviteit van de organisatie. Deze papers onderzochten of een trainersontslag in voetbal tijdens het seizoen effectief is om team prestaties te verbeteren. De eerste studie evalueerde de gemiddelde team resultaten van vier wedstrijden voor en na trainersontslag. De data suggereerden dat nieuwe trainers niet in staat zijn om korte termijn prestaties te verbeteren na een trainerswissel tijdens het seizoen. De tweede studie onderzocht of een trainerswissel tijdens het seizoen een impact heeft op team kwaliteit en/of op thuisvoordeel. Beide variabelen werden gekwantificeerd door doelpuntenverschillen. De tijdspanne van deze studie was het volledige seizoen. De resultaten gaven aan dat een regressie model met een team specifieke verandering in team kwaliteit het beste model is om de verwachte doelpuntenverschillen te voorspellen. De meerderheid van de coaches waren in staat om team kwaliteit te verbeteren na een wissel. Deze verbeterde team kwaliteit resulteerde in de meeste gevallen in een stijging van het team in de finale ranking. Deze bevindingen werden bediscussieerd in het kader van “learning theories”. Er wordt geargumenteerd dat coaches of “veldmanagers” van belang zijn maar dat er tijd nodig is om een eventueel leereffect te genereren. De twee studies op het meso managementniveau hadden als doel om het concept organisatorische effectiviteit en bestuurseffectiviteit in sportclubs nader te onderzoeken. De derde paper presenteerde een twee niveaus concurrerend waardemodel om organisatorische effectiviteit te meten. Gezien de aard van sportclubs als non-profit organisaties is de onderliggende gedachte dat organisatorische effectiviteit bestaat uit management en programma effectiviteit. De resultaten suggereerden dat organisatorische effectiviteit in sportclubs van teamsporten wordt gepercipieerd als een multidimensioneel concept. Er werden twaalf management en negen programma dimensies van effectiviteit weerhouden. In het algemeen werd de atmosfeer in de club beschouwd als het meest effectief. Bestuursleden en sportleden gaven aan dat hun sportclub niet effectief is in het aanwerven van bestuursleden, coaches en sportleden. De vierde paper focuste zich op de vereiste competenties van voortreffelijke bestuursleden van sportclubs. De resultaten suggereerden dat

bestuursleden zowel cognitieve, emotionele als sociaal intelligente competenties zouden moeten bezitten om aanzien te worden als een voortreffelijk bestuurslid. Bestuursleden van sportclubs die een scala van deze competenties bezitten hebben meer kans om aanzien te worden als effectief, en hebben meer kans om de bestuurseffectiviteit en de organisatorische effectiviteit van hun sportclub te verbeteren. Als conclusie stellen we dat de studies van deze thesis meer inzicht geven in de verschillende aspecten die bijdragen om persoonlijke als organisatorische effectiviteit te verbeteren. De studies benadrukten de complexiteit om persoonlijke en organisatorische effectiviteit te adresseren en ze geven het belang aan van de "manager" in sportclubs.

SUMMARY

The purpose of this doctoral thesis was to extent the existing knowledge regarding the concept of "organizational effectiveness" in sport management science. The thesis highlighted the complexity of the concept by attending effectiveness at micro and meso management level. The two studies at micro management level referred to personal effectiveness and aimed to address the conventional wisdom that leaders or managers do matter and have a significant impact on organizational effectiveness. These papers assessed whether mid-season coach turnover in soccer is effective in improving team performances. The first study evaluated the four game average results before and after coach turnover. The data suggested that new coaches are not able to improve short-term performances after mid-season coach turnover. The second study assessed whether mid-season coach turnover has an impact on team quality and/or home team advantage. Both variables were expressed in terms of goal differences. The time frame of this study was the whole competition season. Results pointed to a regression model allowing for team specific change in team quality to predict the expected goal difference. The majority of the coaches was able to improve team quality after turnover. In most cases, the improved team quality under the new coach resulted in an increase of the team in the final ranking. These findings are discussed in reference to learning theories. It is suggested that coaches or field managers do matter but that time is required to obtain a possible learning effect. The two studies at meso management level aimed to address the concept of organizational effectiveness and board effectiveness in sports clubs. The third paper presented a two-level competing values framework to measure organizational effectiveness. The hidden theoretical thought, given the nature of sports clubs as nonprofit organizations, is that organizational effectiveness is constituted of management and program effectiveness. Results suggested that organizational effectiveness in sports clubs of team sports is perceived as a multidimensional concept. Twelve management and nine program effectiveness dimensions were retained. Overall, the atmosphere was perceived as most effective. Board members and sports members indicated that their sports club is not effective in acquiring board members, coaches and sports members. The fourth paper focused on the required competencies of outstanding performing board members of sports clubs. The results suggested that board members should possess cognitive, emotional and social intelligence competencies in order to be perceived as an outstanding performing board member. Board members of sports clubs who possess a range of these competencies are more likely to be

perceived as effective, and are more likely to enhance board effectiveness and overall effectiveness of their sports club. In conclusion, the studies of this thesis contributed to enhance our understanding of different topics related to achieve personal and organizational effectiveness. The studies highlighted the complexity of addressing personal and organizational effectiveness and pointed to the importance of the "manager" in sports clubs.

PART 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION AND OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

"Doing well in today's world−and even doing good−requires that we all learn to think like managers, even if that's not what we're called."

(Magretta, 2003, p.3)

Magretta, J. (2003). *What Management is. How it works and why it's everyone's business.* London: Profile Books LTD.

1. Introduction: the true genius of management

A former teacher Latin once said that the world is like a treadmill that spins faster and faster. We do live in a competitive and complex world. The increasing globalization adds to the complexity of our lives. Friedman (2006) highlighted three waves of globalization. The dynamic force in the first globalization was the globalization of countries. The dynamic force in the second globalization was the globalization of companies and the unique force in the third globalization was the power for individuals to collaborate and compete globally. Today you're playing with your children in a small village somewhere in a small country that is called Belgium, tomorrow you're in a meeting in London while having a teleconference with colleagues in Asia, and two days later you're exploring the culinary kitchen in Washington. Friedman (2006) labeled the phenomenon allowing individuals and small groups to go global so easily and seamlessly the "flat-world platform", or, referring to the title of the book, the world is flat. Management is needed more than ever in our flattening world. Joan Magretta (2003) encapsulated in a crystal clear way the true genius of management: "Turning complexity and specialization into performance" (p. 2). Management helps us to see the forest for the trees. Understanding the whole situation, the art to translate complexity into simplicity in order to do the right job is basically the raison d'être of management. Whether you're a sports coach, sports teacher, musician, nurse, baker, or top manager, management is everywhere. Western society is mainly dominated by mixed economies that combine capitalism with interventionist government regulation and social programs (Shafritz, 1992). Such a worldview puts a high value on performances. In order to survive in Western society, humans within organizations go with the stream of performing to succeed in "doing well in today's world". Management is indispensable to make an organization perform. One of the features of human species is their ability to manage.

Management is a relatively young discipline that found its origin in the mid-nineteenth century (Magretta, 2003). Its popularity, however, has resulted in an overwhelming amount of books and literature addressing different topics of organizations. The complexity of management science has increased confusion more than ever about what management is. As a result, there exist several definitions of management. In the AMA management handbook, management is defined as "the process of getting things done through people" (Hampton, 1994, p. 3). According to Montana and Charnov (2000) a more current and more appropriate definition of management is "management is working with and through people to accomplish

the objectives of both the organization and its members" (p. 2). This definition emphasizes both the importance of the human being in the organization and the importance of result accomplishment. Crozier and Friedberg (1980) stated that humans within organizations are actors who coexist in a network of power relationships and who seek to increase their power by participating in power games with other actors in the organization. An organization as a social construct has the goal of promoting cooperation among autonomous actors, each of whom have goals and interests which may be different from those of other actors. The organization makes cooperation among its members possible by inhibiting the negotiating power of the actors and restricting the strategies that are available for them to use in achieving their goals. The organization channels the actors to choose outcomes that are beneficial to achieve the goals of the organization. Nizet and Pichault (1995) also addressed the importance of the power games of internal actors within organizations. These politic games are permanently enacted by the various internal stakeholders in order to legitimate their positions.

None of the management definitions, however, restrict management as being an exclusive property of business organizations. "If we want better communities and a better world for our children, we need a clear-headed understanding of how management performs in the nonprofit sector" (Magretta, 2003, p. 3). Management, thus, is also relevant in the field of education, health care, charity, and sport.

Organizational effectiveness is probably the oldest line of inquiry that has addressed the heart of what management stands for: performing. The quest what causes an organization to be more effective than its neighbour lies at the centre of effectiveness research. Uncovering the unique features of effective organizations is the major challenge for organizational evaluation (Cameron, 1980). Until today, there remain a lot of difficulties in conceptualizing organizational effectiveness (Cameron, 1986; Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000). Organizational researchers use different paradigms to conceptualize effectiveness, increasing the struggle to develop a general effectiveness model. Although there is no universal agreement what constitutes organizational effectiveness (Walton & Dawson, 2001), effectiveness has been dominating our worldview for many years. The absence of a clear and universal accepted definition perpetuates the use of the concept in a wide variety of meanings, depending on the particular perspectives of the user. "Effectiveness of an online computer-tailored physical activity intervention in a real-life setting" (Spittaels, De Bourdeaudhuij, Brug, & Vandelanotte, 2007), "The retrieval effectiveness of web search engines: considering results descriptions" (Lewandowski, 2008), "The seven habits of highly effective people" (Covey, 1990), even today the word effectiveness has been, and yet is, used in several contexts.

Research that shifts the boundaries around the concept of effectiveness is, therefore, essential and vital for the true purpose of management: successfully performing.

Although effectiveness and sport inextricably have been allied since the origin of sport, the scientific approach of the concept in sport management has only been addressed since the nineteen eighties (e.g., Chelladurai, 1987; Chelladurai, Szyszlo, & Haggerty, 1987; Frisby, 1986). The state of affairs in sport management theory is comparable to those in organizational theory. There is also much confusion about the concept and about the way how to address effectiveness in sport management science. However, both sport management and organizational literature subscribe to a multidimensional approach of effectiveness (Chelladurai, 1987; Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Gillespie, 1999). Being effective is more than only achieving goals. The shift from a unidimensional to a multidimensional approach emphasises the complexity of the concept.

2. Effectiveness and sport

Much of the confusion about what shapes effectiveness is due to terminological imprecision (Baruh & Ramalho, 2006). Shenhav, Shrum and Alon (1994) stated that the literature is blessed and plagued by a number of semantically related terms, such as "organizational effectiveness", "organizational performance", "organizational efficiency", "organizational outcomes", "organizational productivity", and "organizational success". No researcher, however, would argue that these different flags cover the same cargo. For example, McCabe and Dutton (1993) attributed to effectiveness a perceptive measure, while performance referred to an objective measure. Hart and Quinn (1993) associated performance with economic and market measures, while effectiveness was related to noneconomic or stakeholder measures. Others (e.g., Burke & Litwin, 1992; Sutton, 1999) used the concepts effectiveness and performance as synonyms for organizational outcomes. Both the conceptual fog and the use of different operational definitions and measures increase confusion and indistinctness about what effectiveness really is. According to Glunk and Wilderom (1999), the application of the concepts effectiveness and performance are rooted in different research traditions. Organizational effectiveness has been predominantly addressed in organizational theory, while performance has been especially used in strategy research.

This thesis focused on the effectiveness quest that has been addressed under the umbrella of organizational theory. Dressler (2004) stated that "organizational effectiveness is a phenomenon that can be applied to all different types of groups, teams, and, of course, business organizations" (p. 1). This implicates that organizational effectiveness is not merely restricted to organizations. Organizational effectiveness is also relevant for teams, groups, and even individuals. As such, this thesis highlights the complexity of the concept by addressing effectiveness in sport at the micro and meso management level. Effectiveness at the micro management levels deals with effectiveness of individuals (further referred to personal effectiveness), whereas effectiveness at the meso management levels deals with organizational and board effectiveness.

Effectiveness is an issue that always has been present in sport, especially on the sports field. The most extreme approach of effectiveness in sport is winning or losing the game. The ultimate goal in competitive sports is to win the contest and to be the best in his/her sports discipline. This winning-is-everything attitude has been, and still is, the dominant paradigm in sport. During the 1996 Atlanta Summer Olympics, Nike ran the ad campaign "You don't win

silver, you lose gold". Although Nike was criticized for going against the Olympic spirit, the slogan illustrates that the dominant school of thought in sports is the goal approach. In this model, achieving the postulated goals is the ultimate criterion of effectiveness (Etzioni, 1960). One of the most extreme consequences of being ineffective in this approach can be observed in soccer with its multiple coach turnovers. The micro management level deals with the effectiveness of a soccer coach turnover[1]. The job of the coach in team sports is to produce a winning team. The coach has to face the challenge to transform a group of individual players into a collective and vigorous block. Senge (1999) stressed that neither the assumption that a group of talented individual learners within organizations automatically results in a learning team, nor the assumption that a group of talented athletes automatically produces a brilliant sports team, is true. According to Sharp, Hides and Bamber (2000), it may take time before a high performance team is achieved. Understanding personality preferences, communication skills and interpersonal relationships were found to be enablers of high performance teams. Teams have to learn how to play together. The coach is the person who is supposed to get this job done. Therefore, the term "field manager" or "soccer manager" is often used. To get the job done is also expected from business leaders and chief executive officers (CEO's). Sport examples are frequently used in management as a metaphor since sport is comprehensible and accessible to a lot of people. Bolchover and Brady (2006), however, argued that soccer is more than just a metaphor. They argued that it is the model to confront modern business organizations with crucial management issues. "What soccer provides is a pure model of corporate management where only best practice succeeds" (Bolchover & Brady, 2006, p. 8). There is no such extreme environment than the soccer game where coach effectiveness is so visible and so tangible as expressed by the performances of the team. The well-known statement "from hero to zero" reflects that coaches often balance on a slackrope since their fate is mainly dependent on performances and on the mercy of several stakeholders. Coaches who find no favour in the eyes of the dominant stakeholders run the risk of coach dismissal. Since CEO's are urged for increased and sustainable growth in share performance, "business leaders are arriving where football managers have always been, at the mercy of a constituency of disparate and demanding stakeholders" (Bolchover & Brady, 2006, p. 5). Coach turnovers are a frequently occurring phenomenon which are often executed because of bad performances (Salomo & Teichmann, 2000). Assessing the effectiveness of coach turnovers is

[1] The terms soccer and football are often used interchangeably. We will use the term soccer as much as possible to avoid confusion with American football.

therefore essential and its study will provide useful information for both sport and management.

The meso management level of this thesis refers to organizational effectiveness and to board effectiveness of community sports clubs. These organizations are often ignored as study object by organizational theorists (Koski, 1995). This lack of attention seems unfair since the voluntary nonprofit sport sector plays a significant economic role in society (Davies, 2004) and since nonprofit organizations are urged for professionalization (Rojas, 2000). The study of organizational effectiveness is a vital element to improve professional work. Furthermore, effectiveness research that focuses on the distinctive features of sport organizations might enhance and enrich our understanding of what is organizational effectiveness in sport organizations, and, as a result, of what it signifies in sport management. Besides the insights about effectiveness in management and organizational literature, the nonprofit effectiveness literature provides a useful addendum to understand the similarities and differences between business organizations and nonprofit organizations such as sport organizations. A line of inquiry within the nonprofit effectiveness literature is the focus on board effectiveness. Several nonprofit studies found a relationship between board effectiveness and organizational effectiveness (Brown, 2005; Herman & Renz, 2000). Most nonprofit organizations are administered by volunteer boards. These boards are critical assets in the overall performance of their organizations (Herman & Renz, 2004; Iecovich, 2004). Their board members generally engage on a voluntary basis, without being paid for their commitment. Boyatzis (1982) argued that organizations need competent managers to reach the organization's objectives both efficiently and effectively. Brown (2007) stated that the same is true for nonprofit organizations. Competent board members are vital for board effectiveness since board members can bring knowledge, skills, relationships, and money into the nonprofit organization (Brown, 2007). Thus, since board effectiveness is important to enhance organizational effectiveness, a focus on board effectiveness, and more specifically on the board member, is legitimate. The focus within the meso management level of this thesis is on the concept of organizational effectiveness in sports clubs and on competencies of voluntary board members of sports clubs.

3. Effectiveness in sport on micro management level

3.1. The origin of coach turnover research

Initial coach turnover studies originated from a management scientific approach (e.g., Allen, Panian, & Lotz, 1979; Brown, 1982; Eitzen & Yetman, 1972; Gamson & Scotch, 1964; Grusky, 1963, 1964; Pfeffer & Davis-Blake, 1986). For more than 50 years, researchers attempt to determine whether leaders or managers within business organizations do matter and whether they have an impact on performances. It is expected that the CEO positively influences organizational outcomes. The leader or manager is held accountable for the performances of the organization. Leaders or managers who do not meet the performance goals of their organization run the risk of managerial dismissal. Since managerial dismissal happens quite often, its study has not been neglected (Kesner & Sebora, 1994). As a result, the effect of managerial change on organizational performance has been, and still is, widely studied (e.g. Denis & Denis, 1995; Hill, 2005; Karaevli, 2007; Lieberson & O'Connor, 1972; Parker & Skitmore, 2005). In a review article on leader succession, Giambatista, Rowe and Riaz (2005) stated that succession research remains a viable and fruitful avenue for scholars. Although this line of inquiry has evolved and although the field was found to be in a mature phase, the authors concluded that succession research was quite fragmented across disciplines. A popular setting in succession research is sports since succession research in business organizations often struggles with contentious performance measures. By taking the sport setting as a sample, methodological disadvantages of heterogeneity among business organizations diminish because sports clubs have similar goals, similar size and similar structures (Cannella & Rowe, 1995; Gouldner, 1954). There is no or less ambiguity about which performance outcome needs to be measured. Field managers or coaches are expected to perform with the team on the field and to win games (Rowe, Cannella, Rankin, & Gorman, 2005). The most common performance construct is team performances and these are the standard to what coaches are evaluated on. In addition, performance indicators in team sports are reliable, accurate, and easily available. The strong internal validity of sport related research provides a fertile territory in which to investigate managerial dismissal (Cannella & Rowe, 1995; Giambatista et al., 2005). The relative clean construct validity of well-designed sport studies combined with strong internal validity even has the potential for contributing to

external validity and adds to the generalizability of succession findings (Giambatista et al., 2005). The advantages of the sport context caused that early succession research used sport as a setting to study the effect of managerial dismissal. Even today, it is argued that the sport setting in succession research is a vital part in strategic management and leadership theory (Giambatista et al., 2005; Rowe et al., 2005).

Although the foundation of succession research has been laid through the work of business scholars, sport and sport management scholars have also addressed the effectiveness of coach turnover (e.g., Bennet, Phillips, Drane, & Sagas, 2003; Curtis, Loy, & Hillen, 1986; Fabianic, 1984, 1994; McTeer & White, 1995; Salomo & Teichmann, 2000; Theberghe & Loy, 1976). Salomo and Teichmann (2000) argued that the relationship between coach turnover and organizational performance is an important question in sport management. Bennett et al. (2003) confirmed this fertile ground of inquiry arguing that this kind of research provides useful information for coaching professionals and other practitioners. Moreover, since the sport field has evolved towards a multi-billion dollar professional sport industry, its significance is beyond question.

3.2. Theories in coach turnover research

There are three dominant theories that explain the effect of coach turnover on subsequent performance (Kesner & Sebora, 1994). These theories originated in the exchange discussions between the managerial succession studies of Grusky (1963, 1964) and Gamson and Scotch (1964).

First, the common-sense theory states that the manager or the coach is of major influence on organizational effectiveness or on team performance. The coach is seen as the key player in the overall results of the team. Consequently, the coach is held accountable when his/her team is under-performing. Replacing the coach is therefore thought as the best option when the team is performing poorly. This theory expects that the new coach will improve team performance since the successor has the benefit that he/she can avoid the errors of the predecessor and since the successor is expected to be more capable of coaching the team. There is no reason to expect a decrease in team performance after coach turnover. Teams that have acquired a competent coach will have the prosperity to perform effectively over a long period and will be faced with few coach turnovers. Teams that were not so fortunate in the choice of coach will have bad team performances and, consequently, will be

faced with multiple coach turnovers. Guest (1962) and Mentzer (1993) attributed the positive impact of a turnover to a 'novelty' effect, i.e., the replacement of a known failure and the new and fresh outlook of the successor.

Second, the vicious-circle theory also states that the coach is of major influence on team performances. The coach is fired because of bad team performances. However, in contrast to the common-sense theory, this theory does not assume that a new coach will positively influence team performances. Instead, this theory accepts the reciprocal effect of a coach turnover. Bad performances frequently cause a coach turnover resulting in a number of interrelated and unwanted consequences. Coach turnover affects the old patterns of behavior within the team. It is likely that the internal structure of the team is changed since team players have to adapt to the successor's coaching style and approach. As a result, the original internal relationships in the team are disrupted and new informal coalitions arise. The resulting lower team stability produces lower morale. This results in a destabilizing force which leads to further team ineffectiveness and to a decline in team performances. The vicious circle continues.

The third dominant explanation, the ritual scapegoating theory, assumes that the field manager or the coach has a minimal impact on team performances. The coach is a relatively unimportant link in the performance outputs of the team. The club's overall policy is seen as far more important for team performance outputs. This theory states that a well organized scouting system for the production of talent is the most important long-run determinant of team performance. The coach is concerned with day-to-day tactical decisions and he/she is supposed to have minimal participation in the management functions and decisions. Since this theory assumes that the supply of talented players is the most important determinant of team performances, the manipulation of this talent by the coach will only have a minimal impact. Consequently, a coach turnover has no impact on subsequent performances. Dismissing a field manager is a convenient and anxiety-reducing means of placating frustrated stakeholders or a means to deflect attention from other shortcomings. The club's management has a strong stake in maintaining the myth of coach responsibility to display blame away from themselves. This theory also states that slumps or periods of deteriorating performance are temporary but unavoidable.

More recently, Rowe et al. (2005) explained the effect of succession on subsequent performance by shifting their theoretical lenses to the concepts of organizational learning (Crossan, Lane, & White, 1999) and time compression diseconomies (Dierickx & Cool, 1989). The underlying phenomenon of interest in this organizational learning framework is

strategic renewal. Organizations are assumed to strive for strategic renewal by changing their managers or leaders. Organizational learning is seen as a central means to achieve strategic renewal. The organizational learning framework contains four related processes—intuiting, interpreting, integrating and institutionalizing—that take place at the individual, group and organizational levels (for details see Crossan et al., 1999). The learning process of intuiting, interpreting, integrating and institutionalizing requires time to take place in organizations. Organizational learning is a dynamic process that occurs over time. It takes time for leaders to accumulate organization-specific knowledge and to facilitate learning. Leaders who accelerate the learning process in order to learn in less time than required increase the likelihood of performance decrements. This logic suggests that new leaders or managers, regardless their capability, are unable to acquire immediate positive effects on subsequent performances. Over time, successors have the potential to carry out institutional changes that positively and significantly affect performances. Rowe et al. (2005) applied this theory in team sports and stated that, within team sports, the positive impact of coach turnover occurs through the process of individual and group learning, especially through the process of intuiting, interpreting and integrating. This theory is appropriate when a long-term design is used.

3.3. Empirical results

Some succession studies found evidence to support the ritual scapegoating theory (e.g., Cannella & Rowe, 1995; Eitzen & Yetman, 1972), whereas other studies argued the common-sense theory was more appropriate (e.g., Bennet et al., 2003; Fabianic, 1984; McTeer & White, 1995; Pfeffer & Davis-Blake, 1986). Few studies empirically supported the vicious-circle theory (e.g., Brown, 1982). However, more recent sport studies that considered a within-season turnover found support for the ritual scapegoating theory (e.g. Audas, Dobson, & Goddard, 2002; Bruinshoofd & ter Weel, 2003; de Dios Tena & Forrest, 2006). Comparing empirical results is difficult since coach turnover studies used different methodological approaches. The several emphases researchers focused on when studying the effect of coach turnover add to the complexity of the topic. For example, some studies concentrated on voluntary versus involuntary coach turnovers (e.g., Audas, Dobson, & Goddard, 1999), on within-season versus between-season successions (e.g., Rowe et al., 2005), or on comparing the results with a control group (e.g., Bruinshoofd & ter Weel, 2003). Moreover, Gamson and Scotch (1964) pointed out that the findings might be an artifact of the

conditions that produce a decline in performance. While Gamson and Scotch defined this statistical artifact as a slump-ending effect, it is better known as regression to the mean. Regression to the mean occurs in a repeated-measures design when a non-random sample is selected on the basis of extreme values. When the two measurements are not perfectly correlated, the second measurement will probably have less extreme scores. An observed change might then erroneously be attributed to an intervention. Gamson and Scotch (1964) explained this statistical effect as follows:

> "If we compared average rainfall in the month preceding and the month following the performance of the Hopi rain dance, we would find more rain in the period after. The dance is not performed unless there is a drought, so such a comparison would be misleading." (p. 71)

Several authors discussed the effect of regression to the mean on performances (e.g., Audas et al., 2002; Nevill, Holder, Atkinson, & Copas, 2004; Rowe et al., 2005; Salomo & Teichmann, 2000). After controlling for regression to the mean, most studies (Bruinshoofd & ter Weel, 2003; Curtis et al., 1986) found no succession effect. However, Salomo and Teichmann (2000) and Audas et al. (2002) found a negative impact on team performances.

Early succession studies used simple statistical methods to detect the performance effect of coach turnover. Fabianic (1994) used the proportion of games won as the effectiveness measure by baseball teams. Results showed that managerial turnover was generally preceded by poor team performance. Overall, teams entered a slump, changed their coach and improved performance up to thirty days after turnover. Finally, team performance returned to the performance level consistent with prior slump performances. Team improvements of outside managerial replacements exceeded those of inside managerial replacements. McTeer and White (1995) also found that mid-season coach turnover has a significant short-term impact (i.e., the segment of the current season before and after coaching change) on team performance in four major team sports (baseball, basketball, football and hockey). The performance measure was winning percentage and a proportion of points gained. There was no significant performance improvement considering changes in performances for the seasons before and after the season of turnover. McTeer and White (1995) concluded that coaches have a minimal long-term impact on team performance. Audas, Dobson and Goddard (1997) studied coach turnover in four divisions of English soccer. Although upper divisions face more intense public scrutiny, the findings revealed that coach turnover occurred more rapidly in lower soccer divisions. Audas et al. (1997) could only partially explain this result by pointing out the specific relegation and promotion rules in

English soccer. In order to control for the regression effect, the authors compared teams that experienced a coach turnover with teams that had an identical pattern of results but which did not change their coach. Using a time frame of 18 matches before and after turnover, the results indicated that, after turnover, teams with coach turnover recovered less quickly than teams of the control group. Coach turnover had its peak in the months October, January and April. In another study, Audas, Dobson and Goddard (1999) found that October and November are the months with maximum risk of turnover.

More recent coach turnover studies used individual match results as the performance measure to detect the performance effect of coach turnover. Audas et al. (2002), using ordered probit regression, found that, on average, soccer teams that changed their field manager under-performed over the following three months compared with teams that did not change their coach. The results suggested that the threat of relegation is a significant factor in triggering managerial change. The increase in the variance of performance post-departure supported the theory that changing a field manager represents a gamble to improve results, even though the average effect is negative. Bruinshoofd and ter Weel (2003) found similar results. The board best does not change their coach when the team is experiencing a performance dip (i.e., a decline in performances). Up to four games after coach turnover, the control group achieved a performance level that was higher compared to the turnover group. Thus, field managers who would have been allowed to stay would have done slightly better than the successor. Bruinshoofd and ter Weel (2003) concluded that the shock effect does not exist and that the coach is often assigned as the scapegoat.

Within the framework of coach turnover, few studies focused on other variables such as game location, team quality, coaching experience or coaching ability. Many studies have proven the existence of home team advantage in sports (e.g., Clarke & Norman, 1995; Courneya & Carron, 1992; Nevill & Holder, 1999; Pollard & Pollard, 2005). Coach turnover studies that controlled for a possible home team advantage effect or coach turnover studies that focused on home or away performances are, however, scarce. As well, some studies focused on the relationship between team quality and home team advantage (e.g., Bray, Law, & Foyle, 2003; Madrigal & James, 1999), but these studies did not consider the effect of coach turnover on both variables. Cannella and Rowe (1995) proved that coaching ability most strongly affects performance when a turnover occurs in a high rivalry context, whereas ability had no effect on team performance under conditions of low rivalry. Coaching experience had no impact on team performance after succession. Koning (2003) addressed the issue of sample selectivity in soccer by controlling for both team quality and home team

advantage in his regression model. Since the old and the new coach do not face the same opponents, quality differences among teams may have an impact on team performances. In addition, the old and new coach may play on a different number of home grounds. Therefore, Koning (2003) stated that comparing the number of points per game between the old and new coach is insufficient to detect the real impact of coach turnover on subsequent performances. Koning (2003) defined a coach turnover as successful if both the change in team quality and the change in home team advantage are positive. The results were rather mixed. Except for one season of five, there was no significant positive coaching effect. Team performance did not always improve when a coach is changed within the season. However, there was some evidence that the defensive skills of the team improve when the new coach takes over. Koning (2003) explained this result arguing that new coaches adopt an "avoid losses" strategy rather than an "aggressive winning" strategy. De Dios Tena and Forrest (2006) examined the causes and consequences of managerial turnover in the Spanish Soccer League using an ordered probit model of match results. The data suggested that the threat of relegation is a key trigger of deciding to change the field manager. The authors also contributed to the debate of coach turnover by raising the hypothesis that crowd support is important in the determination of match outcomes when a coach turnover occurs. The study went therefore further into the assumption of Koning (2003) that home team advantage influences performances after coach turnover. In the short-term, new coaches appeared to have made a modest but positive impact on team performances. This effect was entirely attributed to an improvement in home results. De Dios Tena and Forrest (2006) concluded that the effect of home team advantage and the role of crowd support is important in the determination of match outcomes.

Rowe et al. (2005) studied the impact of leader succession on organizational performance using a sample of major league hockey teams. Since the study addressed a long-term perspective, the learning theory was appropriate to indicate whether learning takes time and, as a result, to indicate whether performances increase over the long-term. Teams that experienced a within-season coach turnover performed worse in the current season than teams that did not change their coach. Teams with previous-season change of coach had better performances than teams that did not have previous-season successions. Teams with previous-season change of coach also performed better than teams having between-season change of coach. Teams having between-season change of coach performed better than teams having within-season change of coach. Rowe et al. (2005) stated that the longer coaches have to intuit, interpret, integrate, and institutionalize, thus, to develop organization-specific skills, the better performances will be.

This review of coach turnover studies revealed that the effect of coaching change on performance has been widely studied. Researchers addressed the topic with different methodological perspectives and with different point of views. There exist two main debates in coach turnover research. First, there is the between-season versus the within-season coach turnover dilemma. Koning (2003) and McTeer and White (1995) argued that the focus on mid-season coach turnover is more relevant in soccer, as the composition of teams in soccer usually changes significantly between seasons. Nonetheless, some studies concentrated on between-season turnovers (e.g. Allen, Panian, & Lotz, 1979; Rowe et al., 2005; Scully, 1995). Although there are several reasons for changing coaches, mid-season change is often associated with poor performance (Rowe et al., 2005), and is considered to be a way to reap short-term dividends (Audas et al., 2002; Salomo & Teichmann, 2000). Therefore, de Dios Tena and Forrest (2006) stated that studies assessing performance changes in the season(s) following turnover are more relevant to the assessment of between-season coach turnover than to the assessment of mid-season coach turnover. The second dilemma in coach turnover research concerns the comparison of results between a turnover group and a control group (where no coach turnover has taken place). Bruinshoofd and ter Weel (2003) distinguished between effectiveness and efficiency of a coach turnover. Effectiveness of a coach turnover signifies that performances under the new coach are better compared to performances under the old coach. Efficiency of a coach turnover indicates that the effect of a turnover is the cheapest way to obtain the possible effect of a turnover. The lowest cost alternative in sports is not changing the coach. Audas et al. (2002) argued that a comparison of results of studies that constructed a control group is heavily dependent on the selection criteria and on the methodologies used to construct the control. However, in order to detect the real effect of a coach turnover, both the effectiveness and the efficiency should be examined.

Besides the different opinions and different theoretical and methodological lenses of how to address coach turnover research, there is a consensus about two issues. First, coach turnover methodology should deal with regression to the mean since the sample of coach turnovers is selected non-randomly and since sequences of results in sports are determined purely ad random (Audas et al., 1997). Second, most researchers agree that bad results are the major determinant of coach turnover (Audas et al., 1999; Bruinshoofd & ter Weel, 2003; Cannella & Rowe, 1995; Salomo & Teichmann, 2000). Fizel and D'Itri (1999) found that especially winning percentage is the key criterion used to change the coach. The complexity of addressing coach turnover research offers a fertile laboratory for further ongoing research

that strives for substantial improvements in theory and methodology, and, as a result of these endeavors, to keep the field progressing.

3.4. Synthetic summary

1. Coach turnover research originated from a management scientific approach.
2. There are three dominant theories: the common-sense, the vicious-circle and the ritual scapegoating theory.
3. There is a shift to focus on other theories such as organizational learning theory.
4. Bad results are the major determinant of coach turnover.
5. The effect of regression to the mean should be considered in coach turnover research.
6. Research evolved from simple statistical methods towards methods that allowed to analyze individual match results.
7. There is no consensus about the coach turnover effect.
8. Few studies focused on the effect of coach turnover on home team advantage and team quality.

4. Effectiveness in sport on meso management level

4.1. Organizational effectiveness

4.1.1. Organizational effectiveness in organizational theory

Note: The journal to which the empirical paper that dealt with the subject organizational effectiveness has been submitted (part3, chapter3), demanded a detailed literature review and a profound theoretical focus. Therefore, parts in this section are repeated in the introduction of the paper "Management and program effectiveness in Belgian sports clubs".

The study of organizational effectiveness is one of the oldest topics in management and organizational theory. Knowing what are the unique elements of effective organizations is the key to transform ineffective organizations to successful and effective organizations (Cameron, 1980). Goodman and Pennings (1977) argued that effectiveness is the central theme in organizational theory. Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) added that "…. the literature on organizational effectiveness is simply a grounded version of the literature on organizational analysis" (p. 370). Even today, popular management books such as Collins (2001) bestseller "Good to Great" in se deal with the effectiveness question.

The study of organizational effectiveness is a highly complex matter (Cameron, 1980, 1986; Chelladurai, 1987). There are a lot of difficulties in conceptualizing organizational effectiveness which resulted in the lack of conceptual consistency (Strasser, Eveland, Cummins, Deniston, & Romani, 1981). The main reason for discrepancies in theoretical and empirical approaches of organizational effectiveness is due to the absence of a universal definition and, consequently, to the lack of an ultimate criterion to measure effectiveness (Cameron, 1978). Strasser et al. (1981) defined a criterion as a measurable phenomenon for which one can determine the value of the organization. As a result of this conceptual indistinctness, different models have been developed to measure organizational effectiveness (Schmid, 2002). Different models with their relating criteria reflect different values and preferences of schools of thought concerning organizational effectiveness (Walton & Dawson, 2001). The several alternatives to measure organizational effectiveness reflect that organizational effectiveness means different things to different people (Forbes, 1998; Shilbury

& Moore, 2006). The best known models are the goal model (Etzioni, 1960; Price, 1972; Scott, 1977), the system resource model (Yuchtman & Seashore, 1967), the internal process approach (Pfeffer, 1977; Steers, 1977), the multiple constituency model (Connolly, Conlon, & Deutsch, 1980; Tsui, 1990; Zammuto, 1984), and the competing values approach (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981, 1983).

The goal model, the system resource model, and the internal process approach originated from a unidimensional perspective to conceptualize organizational effectiveness. The goal model is the oldest and most widely applied model in the study of organizational effectiveness. There are several variations of the goal model (e.g., Campbell, 1977; Price, 1968; Scott, 1977), but most researchers accept Etzioni's definition (1960) of effectiveness as the degree to which an organization realizes its goals. The closer the output meets the goals of the organization, the more effective the organisation is (Cameron, 1980). This model assumes that organizations have clear, identifiable goals, and that goals are stable and measurable over time. However, these assumptions are often problematic (Cameron, 1980; Herman & Renz, 1999). The (open) system resource approach (Seashore & Yuchtman, 1967; Yuchtman & Seashore, 1967) was born as an alternative to overcome the limitations of the goal models. Several variations with specific emphasis of the system approach were developed (e.g. Georgopolous & Tannenbaum, 1957; Steers, 1975). In general, the system resource model of Yuchtman and Seashore (1967) is widely accepted as the leading approach of organizational effectiveness within the system models. Effectiveness is defined here as the firm's ability to exploit its environment in the acquisition of scarce and valued resources to sustain its functioning. A key element in the definition of effectiveness is resources of the organization. Yuchtman and Seashore (1967) defined resources as "generalized means, or facilities, that are potentially controllable by social organizations and that are potentially usable—however indirectly—in relationships between the organization and its environment" (p. 900). Organizations are effective when they succeed in acquiring the needed resources from the external environment. The bargaining position of organizations with regard to the acquisition of resources is the criterion of organizational effectiveness. Resources are the focus of competition between organizations and this competition leads to a universal hierarchical differentiation among organizations. The internal organizational processes model is the third effectiveness approach. Advocates of this model argued that the existing models of organizational effectiveness do not include determinants of organizational health and success. Organizational effectiveness is associated with the internal characteristics of the organization, such as internal functioning, information flow, trust, integrated systems and smooth

functioning (Cameron, 1980; Shilbury & Moore, 2006). The dominant criteria of effectiveness that are used in this model are the internal organizational activities or practices. Effectiveness is defined in terms of a process instead of an end state (Steers, 1977). The internal process model is appropriate when the internal processes and procedures are linked to the outputs (Cameron, 1980). Variations of the internal process model are the organizational development approach (Beckhard, 1969), the organizational health models (Bennis, 1966), or Likert models (Likert, 1967).

Chelladurai and Haggerty (1991) drew a distinction between the goal, the system resources, and the process model on the one hand and the multiple constituencies model on the other hand. According to Chelladurai and Haggerty, the former three applied a unidimensional perspective and a focus on what should be evaluated. The fourth model, the (strategic) multiple constituencies approach (Connolly et al., 1980), applied a multidimensional perspective and a focus on who should evaluate rather than what should be evaluated. This model found a growing sense of interest during the 1970s. The model recognized that organizations have multiple constituents or stakeholders who evaluate effectiveness in different ways. The various constituents define the criteria to evaluate effectiveness. Connolly et al. (1980) argued that the previous models—the goal approach and the different systems approaches—are inadequate because they only use a single set of criteria to evaluate organizational effectiveness. Chelladurai and Haggerty (1991) argued that the multiple constituencies approach subsumes the three unidimensional models of effectiveness. Many approaches of the multiple constituency model have been developed throughout literature (e.g. D'Aunno, 1992; Kanter & Brinkerhoff, 1981; Tsui, 1990; Zammuto, 1984). In accordance with Connolly et al. (1980), Cameron (1981) argued that the unilateral view of some effectiveness models ignores the complexity of organizational effectiveness. Effectiveness models should capture multiple dimensions. Today, there is a wide agreement that organizational effectiveness requires a multidimensional approach (Chelladurai, 1987; Forbes, 1998; Herman, 1990; Herman & Renz, 1999; Kalliath et al., 1999; Shilbury & Moore, 2006; Sowa, Selden, & Sandfort, 2004). The most rigorous and influential multidimensional approach is the competing values approach (CVA) of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, 1983).

The CVA is an attempt to identify the shared criteria that academics use to evaluate organizational effectiveness. Multidimensional scaling was applied to identify the basic value dimensions that academics use to conceptualize organizational effectiveness. The results suggested that individuals evaluate organizational effectiveness based on three super ordinate value continua. The first dimension is organizational focus: an internal (micro focus on the

development of people in the organization) versus an external focus (macro focus on the development of the organization itself). The second dimension is related to organizational structure: a concern for flexibility versus a concern for control. The third dimension is related to organizational outcomes: a concern for means (important processes) versus a concern for ends (final outcomes). Each dimension represents values that influence criteria used in assessing effectiveness. Each criterion in the construct of organizational effectiveness reflects various combinations of these values. The combination of the first two value continua (or 'axes'), organizational focus and organizational structure, produces four cells. The combination with the third axe, means and ends, reveals that eight cells represent four basic models of organizational effectiveness (see Figure 1). The human relations model has an internal focus and flexible structure. The open system model has an external focus and an emphasis on flexibility. The rational goal model places an emphasis on control and has an external focus. The internal process model has an internal focus and places an emphasis on control and stability. The overall conclusion is that organizational researchers share an implicit theoretical framework about organizational effectiveness composed of three value dimensions. Moreover, the four models express different and sometimes opposite value dimensions. However, this does not imply that they are mutually exclusive. The CVA highlights that opposing values exist in organizations and that organizations embrace each dimension to some degree.

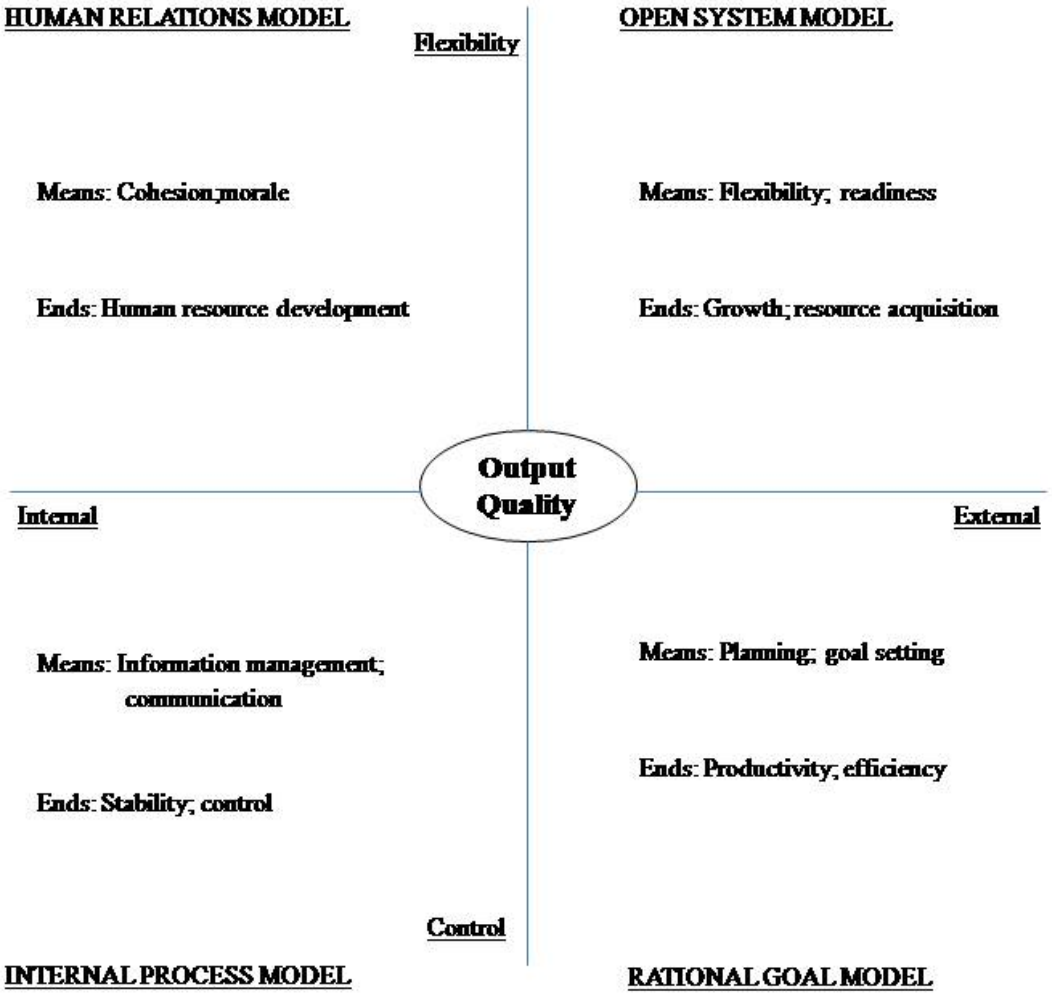

Figure 1. The Competing Values Approach

(Reprinted by permission. Quinn, R.E. and Rohrbaugh, J. 1983 (March). A spatial model of effectiveness criteria: Towards a competing values approach to organizational analysis. *Management Science*, 29: 363-377. Copyright 2009, the Institute for Operations Research and the Management Sciences, 7240 Parkway Drive, Suite 300, Hanover, Maryland 21076, USA.)

Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) assessed the psychometric properties of two CVA instruments using multitrait-multimethod analysis and multidimensional scaling. Both techniques provided support for the validity of the framework. Kallaith, Bluedorn and Gillespie (1999) validated the CVA using structural equation modelling. The results also supported the viability of the theoretical framework. Although the CVA was originally designed to measure effectiveness, the framework has been extensively used in many areas of organizational research such as organizational culture (e.g. Colyer, 2000; Quinn & Spreitzer,

1991; van Muijen & Koopman, 1994; van Muijen et al., 1999), organizational climate (e.g. Patterson et al., 2005), leadership and organizational behaviour (e.g. Denison, Hooijberg, & Quinn, 1995), and organizational transformations (Hooijberg & Petrock, 1993). A criticism on the CVA is that it reflects effectiveness value judgements of academics and organizational theorists. The CVA explored how academics think about the effectiveness construct. Although Quinn (1984) argued that managers also use these dimensions when evaluating social action, and although this claim received empirical support from Rohrbaugh (1981), perceptions of effectiveness criteria among academics and managers may well diverge. Walton and Dawson (2001) explored the claim whether managers and academics share the same effectiveness construct. The results suggested that executives' perceptions of effectiveness differed strongly from those of academics. They shared one common dimension (internal versus external focus). However, they differed on the salience of that dimension, the number of underlying value dimensions and the relevance of ease of control.

4.1.2. Nonprofit organizational effectiveness

After the call of academics arguing that the study of organizational effectiveness in nonprofit organizations (NPOs) has not received enough attention (Herman, 1990; Williams & Kindle, 1992), the topic has gained more interest in the nonprofit science in recent years (Forbes, 1998; Sowa et al., 2004). Besides the academic revival, practitioners in nonprofit organizations realized that being critical in the NPOs performance is important to warrant the survival of these organizations (Rojas, 2000). In addition to the pressure of profit institutions to capture the previously considered domain of NPOs, funders of nonprofit institutions showed an increased interest in their effectiveness (Herman & Renz, 2004; Rojas, 2000). As a result, NPOs are urged to be accountable for their performances.

However, if measuring organizational effectiveness is a thorny task in organizational theory, it may be to be even more troublesome in the nonprofit literature due to the different nature of NPOs (Sowa et al., 2004). Baruh and Ramalho (2006) argued that:

> "The distinction between for-profit and NPOs is deceitfully simple. The primary purpose of the former—its raison d'être— is 'profit' while NPOs have other reasons to justify their permanence building on the organization's mission, which is the bedrock of NPOs." (p. 43)

Although NPOs do have financial concerns, profit making is not the goal of NPOs. Notwithstanding, Casteuble (1997) argued that they are not-for-loss either. The multidimensionality of nonprofit organizations' social goals exceeds the mere financial ones, which must also not be overlooked. In addition, NPOs have often ambiguous goals and they often offer intangible services (Herman, 1990; Schmid, 2002). The distinction between profit and nonprofit organizations questions the application of the same effectiveness criteria. From the analysis of 149 scholarly publications that studied organizational effectiveness or organizational performance, Baruh and Ramalho (2006) concluded that business organizations focus mostly on economic and financial criteria, whereas NPOs have a preference for human and societal outcomes and internal social issues. The distinction between profit and nonprofit organizations seems to reflect in the choice of effectiveness criteria. The results of studies (e.g., Baruh & Ramalho, 2006; Parhizgari & Gilbert, 2004) measuring effectiveness on both types of organizations provide strong rationale to question the use of the same effectiveness criteria when evaluating organizational effectiveness in profit and nonprofit organizations.

Forbes (1998) reviewed empirical nonprofit organizational effectiveness studies in the time span from 1977 to 1997. His conclusion was that the construct has been conceptualized in a variety of ways. The goal, the system, the process and the multiple constituencies model were all used to conceptualize organizational effectiveness. Even among studies that used the same theoretical approach, the methodologies used tended to differ between studies. Accumulation and integration of effectiveness studies is therefore difficult. During the last two years of the time frame, most studies applied a new approach to conceptualize effectiveness: an emergent or social constructionist approach. In this approach, effectiveness is viewed as stakeholder judgments formed in processes of sense making. The meaning of effectiveness is created by the people involved, the meaning is specific to the context in which it was created, and the meaning can evolve or change since the actors continuously interact. Interactions within and among organizations lead to the development of the criteria to evaluate organizational effectiveness. Herman and Renz (1999) stated that theoretical and conceptual papers contribute to our understanding of organizational effectiveness in NPOs and that this understanding may be a means to shape the concept in an inconclusive and muddled field. The authors distilled six theses about nonprofit organizational effectiveness. First, nonprofit organizational effectiveness is always a matter of comparison. Second, nonprofit organizational effectiveness is multidimensional. Third, boards of directors make a difference in the nonprofit organizational effectiveness. Fourth, more effective NPOs are

more likely to use correct management practises. Fifth, nonprofit organizational effectiveness is a social construction. And sixth, program outcome indicators as measures of nonprofit organizational effectiveness are limited and can be dangerous. Rojas (2000) reviewed the most important models of nonprofit organizational effectiveness. He concluded that the CVA is the most viable model for measuring organizational effectiveness among nonprofit and profit organizations. The CVA possesses instrument validity, reliability and breadth of empirical research to suggest a high degree of confidence in estimating measurements of organizational effectiveness across sectors. More recently, Sowa et al. (2004) introduced a multidimensional and integrated model of nonprofit organizational effectiveness (MIMNOE) which is founded on five principles. First, there are multiple effectiveness dimensions, with management and program effectiveness being main dimensions. Second, each primary dimension is composed of two subdimensions: capacity and outcomes. Third, researchers should collect both objective and perceptual measures of effectiveness. Fourth, the effectiveness model should allow for organizational and programmatic variations within a systematic structure. Fifth, the analytical tool should capture multiple levels of analysis and model interrelationships between the dimensions of organizational effectiveness.

This review indicates that there is no scholarly consensus about how to conceive and to measure nonprofit organizational effectiveness. Notwithstanding this lack of agreement, scholars (Herman, 1992; Herman & Renz, 1997) stated that organizational effectiveness is an important and meaningful construct that is worthwhile to study. Researchers should take the challenge to develop conceptions and indicators that ground the distinctiveness of nonprofit organizational effectiveness in order to keep the field progressing (Herman & Renz, 1999). New approaches may highlight new possible criteria for evaluating effectiveness (Baruh & Ramalho, 2006).

4.1.3. Organizational effectiveness in sport management

Note: The journal to which the empirical paper that dealt with the subject organizational effectiveness has been submitted (part3, chapter3), demanded a detailed literature review and a profound theoretical focus. Therefore, parts in this section are repeated in the introduction of the paper "Management and program effectiveness in Belgian sports clubs".

Organizational effectiveness has also been studied in the area of sport management. Most researchers (e.g, Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1991; Koski, 1995; Papadimitriou & Taylor,

2000) subscribed to a multidimensional approach of organizational effectiveness. The topic has been especially studied in National Sport Organizations (NSOs). Frisby (1986) studied the relationship between the goal and system model in Canadian National Sport Governing Bodies. The results revealed a moderate correlation between the goal and system model indicating that both models measure separate aspects of effectiveness. The authors suggested that both models should be combined in order to more adequately represent organizational effectiveness. Chelladurai (1987) presented the input-throughput-output cycle which was based on an open systems view of organizations. This framework integrated the system resources, process and goal model. The focus was, respectively, on the input, throughput and output sectors of an organization. The multiple constituencies approach in the cycle represented the dependency on the various interest groups. Chelladurai, Szyszlo and Haggerty (1987) developed a scale of NSO effectiveness based on the open systems view. The scale resulted in 26 items that represent six dimensions: input-human resources, input-monetary resources, throughput-mass, throughput-elite, output-mass, and output-elite. Both volunteer and professional administrators perceived effectiveness as a multidimensional construct and they were congruent in perceiving which effectiveness dimensions were more critical. Koski (1995) applied the input-throughput-output cycle to Finnish sports clubs. The five dimensions of effectiveness that were identified and examined are the ability to obtain resources, internal atmosphere, efficiency of the throughput process, realization of aims, and general level of activity. All dimensions except internal atmosphere were intercorrelated. Rural sports clubs were less effective than urban clubs. Participation-oriented sports clubs were less effective than achievement-oriented and multipurpose clubs in the ability to obtain resources and in the general level of activity. Participation-oriented sports clubs, however, were more effective on the dimension internal atmosphere. Some researchers used the multiple constituencies approach as theoretical perspective to study NSO effectiveness (Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1991; Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000). While Chelladurai and Haggerty (1991) focused on process effectiveness between volunteer and professional NSO administrators, Papadimitriou and Taylor (2000) identified the dimensional structure of effectiveness criteria as defined by different constituencies of Hellenic NSOs. The five-factor structure—caliber of board and external liaisons, interest in athletes, internal procedures, long-term planning and sports science support—supported the multidimensional nature of the effectiveness construct. Psychometric evidence suggested that the scale is valid (Karteroliotis & Papadimitriou, 2004). Although Chelladurai and Haggerty (1991) only found partial support that voluntary and professional administrative members have different effectiveness perceptions, Papadimitriou

and Taylor (2000) concluded that different constituent groups hold different perceptions of effectiveness. Shilbury and Moore (2006) used the CVA as theoretical framework to address effectiveness in Australian NSOs. Ten effectiveness factors that represent the four CVA models were retained: flexibility, resources, planning, productivity, information, stability, cohesive workforce-harmony, cohesive workforce-motivation, skilled workforce-professional, and skilled workforce-volunteer. High correlations between the four quadrants of the CVA raised the issue of discriminatory validity. The data did not support a model with ten manifest factors loading on four latent variables. The data suggested a model with ten manifest factors that loaded directly on and contributed to organizational effectiveness as a latent construct.

This literature review revealed that a lot of work remains to be done in the study of effectiveness in sport management. Researchers applied different theoretical foci to attend to the topic. Besides the consensus that effectiveness should be addressed as a multidimensional construct, there is no common view about its theoretical approach. Although it is utopia to obtain unanimity concerning organizational effectiveness, further research might explore new avenues to enhance our understanding in this research area.

4.1.4. Synthetic summary

1. Organizational effectiveness is a highly complex matter and has been mainly studied in business organizations.
2. There are a lot of difficulties in conceptualizing organizational effectiveness which resulted in the lack of conceptual consistency.
3. There is no universal definition of organizational effectiveness.
4. The best known unidimensional models are the goal model, the system resource model and the internal process approach.
5. The best known multidimensional models are the multiple constituency model and the competing values approach.
6. Effectiveness addressed in nonprofit organizations and in sport organizations mainly focused on the theories presented in overall management science.
7. Overall, there is a consensus that effectiveness research should be addressed as a multidimensional construct.

8. There is a strong rationale to question the use of the same effectiveness criteria in profit and nonprofit organizations due to the different nature of both kind of organizations.

4.2. Board effectiveness

Note: The journal to which the empirical paper that dealt with the subject board effectiveness has been submitted (part3, chapter4), demanded a detailed literature review and a profound theoretical focus. Therefore, parts in this section are repeated in the introduction of the paper "Identifying Competencies of Volunteer Board Members of Community Sports Clubs".

4.2.1. Relationship board effectiveness and organizational effectiveness

One of the most fundamental assumptions of the normative literature on boards in NPOs is that the performance of boards is a condition for improving organizational effectiveness of NPOs (Herman & Renz, 1997, 2004). Jackson and Holland (1998) partially provided empirical support for this assertion since only moderate correlations were found between the financial performance measure and various board practices. Green and Griesinger (1996) provided stronger evidence to support the relationship. Nonprofit organizational effectiveness was correlated with various board performance measures such as strategic planning, board development, resource development, financial management, and conflict resolution. Herman and Renz (1997) found that, from a socially constructed perspective, board effectiveness is the most important determinant of organizational effectiveness. This was supported by Herman and Renz (2004) who found that different stakeholders continue to perceive board and organizational effectiveness as correlated. In another study, Herman and Renz (1998) found a very strong correlation between especially effective and especially less effective NPOs and judgments of organizational effectiveness. Herman and Renz (2000) also found a relationship between nonprofit organizational effectiveness and board effectiveness. These authors found that especially effective nonprofit organizations have more effective boards and that these boards use significantly more recommended board practices. Brown (2005) found that overall board effectiveness as measured with the BSAQ scale is positively associated with perceptions of organizational performance and with net revenue.

There is an increasing number of empirical studies supporting the assumption that board and organizational effectiveness are correlated. The causal relationship—whether board effectiveness causes organizational effectiveness—is, however, less clear (Herman & Renz, 2004).

4.2.2. Studies on boards in nonprofit organizations

Early nonprofit literature on boards was dominated by a prescriptive style of authorship (e.g., Carver, 1990; Ducca, 1996; Houle, 1989; O'Connell, 1985). This literature prescribes standards about how a board ought to perform and offers guidelines for the roles of the board and the executive (Bradshaw, Murray, & Wolpin, 1992; Hoye & Cuskelly, 2003a; Miller-Millesen, 2003). Herman (1989) reviewed the prescriptive literature and concluded that there is a great deal of similarity between the different prescriptive models. Although some prescriptive standards for boards are still useful today, this practitioner-oriented kind of literature has been criticized for its lack of systematic empirical evidence (Cornforth, 2001; Jackson & Holland, 1998).

Starting in the 1990s, empirical nonprofit studies focusing on the competencies, roles and responsibilities of volunteer boards began to emerge (e.g., Green, Madjidi, Dudley, & Gehlen, 2001; Iecovich, 2004; Inglis, Alexander, & Weaver, 1999; Jackson & Holland, 1998). Inglis et al. (1999) developed an inverted pyramid approach that identified three main activities of the board: strategic activities, resource planning and operations. The measurement instrument contained fourteen items that were generated from the relevant nonprofit literature. Of the fourteen items on board roles and responsibilities, seven were rated as high in importance: responding to community needs, ensuring a mission and vision, developing and assessing long-range plans and overall strategy, setting financial policy, setting policy from which paid staff and program volunteers can deliver programs and services, developing collaborations and partnerships, and evaluating the executive director/CEO's performance. This framework suggested that strategic activities are the core tasks of a board, proceeding down to resource planning and then to operations. Jackson and Holland (1998) developed the Board Self-Assessment Questionnaire (BSAQ), a 65-item questionnaire to assess six dimensions of board competency: interpersonal, analytical, political, strategic, contextual and educational. These six dimensions captured the elements necessary to effective governance. In a study of nonprofit hospital boards, McDonagh (2008)

found that the six competencies of the BSAQ are all important for effective boards. Strategic focus in particular was found to be related to the measure of organizational effectiveness.

Different constituents do make judgments about the board and the organizational effectiveness of their organization (Callen, Klein, & Tinkelman, 2003; Herman, Renz, & Heimovics, 1997). Empirical studies found differences in judgments by various constituents assessing roles and responsibilities of boards. Green et al. (2001) examined whether board members and executive directors differed in how they perceive what board members should do and what they currently did. The perceptions of board members and executive directors were significantly different in terms of what boards should do, especially in the areas of setting mission and policy, strategic planning, financial management and dispute resolution. Iecovich (2004) compared perceptions of board roles and responsibilities by chairpersons and by executive directors. Chairpersons perceived that boards were more involved in roles relating to fiscal areas and relationships with the task environment than perceived by executive directors.

Some studies focused on individual board member performance. Preston and Brown (2004) found a positive relationship between board member performance and affective commitment or the sense of being emotionally attached to the organization. Executive directors perceived board members who were emotionally attached to the nonprofit organization as more actively involved and as highly valuable. Board members who reported strong affective commitment indicated being actively engaged in board member behaviors such as donating more hours to the organization, having better meeting attendance, serving on more committees and making larger financial contributions to the nonprofit organization. Being committed and being engaged in board member behaviors were factors that affected perceptions of board member performance. Brown (2007) studied whether using recommended recruitment, board member orientation, and evaluation practices results in more competent board members and leads to better board performance. Both executive directors and chairpersons shared the perception that board development practices lead to more capable board members and that the presence of these board members affects board performance.

4.2.3. Studies on boards in nonprofit sport organizations

In most western countries, almost all sporting competitions are organized by nonprofit sport organizations. The common feature of these organizations is their nonprofit goal to offer

sporting opportunities for their members. Although numerous sport organizations still operate only with volunteers, government grants have transformed some of the solely volunteer-administered sport organizations into sport organizations with professional paid staff supported by a cadre of volunteers (Schulz & Auld, 2006; Shilbury & Moore, 2006). There is an increasing body of research focusing on and contributing to our understanding of boards in nonprofit sport organizations. Researchers are interested in a broad area of topics such as board-executive relationships (e.g., Auld & Godbey, 1998; Hoye & Cuskelly, 2003a, 2003b), role ambiguity and leadership (e.g., Inglis, 1997b; Schulz & Auld, 2006), cohesion and norms (e.g., Doherty & Carron, 2003; Doherty, Patterson, & Van Bussel, 2004), and organizational structure and change (e.g., Kikulis, 2000). Only a few studies (Hoye, 2007; Inglis, 1997a, 1997b; Papadimitriou, 1999; Shilbury, 2001) focused on competencies, roles and responsibilities of boards in nonprofit sport organizations.

Inglis (1997a) offered initial findings on board roles of amateur sport organizations. The measurement instrument covers 17 roles that were derived from Murray, Bradshaw and Wolpin's (1991) study on Canadian nonprofit boards and from the normative literature. Factor analysis revealed four factors of board roles, which she labeled "role of mission", "role of planning", "role of executive director" and "role of community relations". The role of setting policy from which paid staff and program volunteers can deliver programs and services did not load on any of the four factors. The results suggested that board roles of amateur sport organizations are in line with those described in the nonprofit normative literature and with those found in empirical studies on nonprofit boards. Executive directors, board presidents and volunteer board members homogeneously rated the importance of the four factors. Volunteer board members, however, rated the performance of the board on planning, community relations and setting policy significantly higher than did the executive directors. Shilbury (2001) addressed nine board roles that referred to Inglis (1997a) factors "role of planning", "role of community relations", and "role of setting policy". The results showed that board members of Victorian sport organizations rated the importance of all board roles higher than executives did. Both groups, however, showed agreement on the board roles that they considered as more important. In addition, both groups of respondents indicated that the board role of strategy will be more important in the future. Board members also indicated that their sport experience and knowledge of the state sporting organization were the most important special skills they brought to the board. Executive directors also believed that sport experience was their most important expertise, followed by policy development. This was supported by Inglis (1997b), who identified good citizenship, which covers sport experience

and knowledge of the sport, as the most important expertise and reason for board involvement. Papadimitriou (1999) addressed the issue in Greek national sport organizations. Semi-structured interviews were carried out with five constituent groups: board members, paid administrative staff, technical staff, national team athletes and state representatives. The various constituents tended to agree that motivated, competent and influential board members are a prerequisite to improve the effective operation of an organization. However, there were also differences between the various constituents. Board members and administrative staff indicated that less tangible assets (strong motivation, personality traits, values and positive attitudes) are more important for board member effectiveness, whereas elite athletes perceived familiarity with the sport as most relevant. Technical staff associated more tangible attributes such as familiarity with the sport, being intelligent, being able to make sensible decisions and being able to influence public and state opinions for sport issues with the effectiveness of volunteer sport boards. In a study of country race clubs without paid staff, Hoye (2007) found that affective commitment, the sense of being emotionally attached to the organization, was a significant predictor of perceived board member performance. Time spent on board roles, measured by number of hours, was also found to predict perceived board member performance.

4.2.4. Synthetic summary

1. Empirical studies support the assumption that board effectiveness and organizational effectiveness are correlated.
2. Nonprofit board effectiveness evolved from research that was prescriptive in nature towards research that was based on empirical results.
3. The main focus of nonprofit and sport studies was roles and responsibilities of volunteer boards.
4. There are differences in judgments by various constituents assessing roles and responsibilities of volunteer boards.

5. Objectives and outline of the thesis

This thesis emphasized the complexity of effectiveness by approaching the concept from different perspectives. More specifically, effectiveness in sport is addressed at micro and meso management level. The aim of this thesis was to extend the existing knowledge on personal effectiveness (micro level), board effectiveness (meso level), and organizational effectiveness (meso level) in sport in order to contribute to and to shape the future paradigms used in the line of inquiry of effectiveness.

Despite the lack of a universal definition, the basis of this thesis is that organizational effectiveness is a multidimensional concept. Any definition of effectiveness in this context should emphasize its multidimensionality. The hunt for such a definition brought us back to Georgopolous and Tannenbaum (1957), who stated that organizations should be treated as social systems. Organizational effectiveness should be approached from the point of view of the system itself, from the total organization in question. This perspective was similar to Chelladurai's (1987) view which subscribed to an open systems view of organizations. The input-throughput-output model integrated the system resources, the process, and goal model. This model is comparable with the CVA of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, 1983) that incorporated four models of effectiveness: the goal, system resources, process, and human relations model. Whereas the focus of the process model in Chelladurai's (1987) open systems view was on the throughputs such as structural variables and human variables, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, 1983) considered the processes and the humans within organizations as separate matters. This thesis subscribed to the CVA as paradigm to conceptualize organizational effectiveness. The corresponding definition of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, p. 138) that "organizational effectiveness is a value-based judgment about the performance of an organization", is a valuable definition. To our opinion, the definition does not adequately represent the multidimensionality of the concept. The definition of Georgopolous and Tannenbaum (1957) reflects better the multidimensionality and the complexity of the effectiveness concept. Therefore, organizational effectiveness was defined as "the extent to which an organization as a social system, given certain resources and means, fulfills its objectives without incapacitating its means and resources and without placing undue strain upon its members" (Georgopolous & Tannenbaum, 1957, p. 535). In this definition, the four models of the CVA are reflected.

The micro management level refers to personal effectiveness and deals with the effectiveness of coach turnover in soccer. Since the ultimate goal in soccer competition is winning the game, this field of research can be traced back to the goal model which is still the dominant school of thought in competitive sports. The definition above is thus also relevant in this context since coaches are expected to fulfill the organization's sports objectives, given certain resources and means. In Chapter 1, we attempted to determine the short-term effectiveness of mid-season coach turnover in soccer. A short-term focus in mid-season coach turnover is appropriate since bad team results are the major determinant of mid-season coach turnover, and since this sudden act is a means to invert bad performances in the short-term (Audas et al., 2002). Besides answering the question whether new coaches are able to improve short-term performances compared to the predecessor (thus whether they are effective), we also addressed the efficiency question in coach turnover research. Efficiency signifies that the effect of coach turnover could not have been obtained in any cheaper way than changing the coach.

In Chapter 2, we examined the effect of mid-season coach turnover on team quality and on home team advantage. Only few studies (e.g., de Dios Tena & Forrest, 2006; Koning, 2003) focused on the effect of coach turnover on team quality and/or on home team advantage. This paper extended Koning's (2003) work by estimating two additional models. Furthermore, this manuscript contributed to the literature by evaluating the effectiveness of the new coach with regard to whether his potential ability to improve team quality and/or home team advantage also results in a better position of the team in the final ranking.

The meso management level focused on a) presenting a new theoretical organizational effectiveness approach with empirical study applied to sports clubs, and b) addressing board effectiveness in sports clubs by studying competencies of board members. In Chapter 3, a two-level competing values approach is presented that addresses the concept of organizational effectiveness in sports clubs. First, the application of the CVA as theoretical framework in sport organizations is limited. Second, effectiveness research that used sports clubs as a sample is scarce. This inattention seems groundless, as nonprofit sports clubs also cannot evade the pressure for handling a professional approach in order to ensure accountability and effectiveness (Shilbury & Moore, 2006). Thus, this manuscript contributed to our existing knowledge of organizational effectiveness by differentiating between management and program level to conceptualize organizational effectiveness in sports clubs.

In Chapter 4, a more narrow approach of looking at effectiveness is employed. The focus in this paper was the individual board member within sports clubs and this research can

be traced back to the human relations model. Boyatzis (1982) argued that organizations not only need managers, they need competent managers to reach the organization's objectives both efficiently and effectively. Brown (2007) emphasized that this statement is also applicable to nonprofit organizations. Nonprofit organizations need competent board members to enhance board effectiveness. Since several studies (e.g., Herman & Renz, 1997; Herman & Renz, 2004) found a correlation between board effectiveness and organizational effectiveness, improving board effectiveness is beneficial for the overall organizational effectiveness of the organization. There is a lack of research focusing on boards of nonprofit sports clubs. Doherty et al. (2004) stated that volunteer boards and executive committees are the pillars of sports clubs. Hoye (2007) stated that previous research mainly focused on the assessment of the board, and that the assessment of individual volunteer board member performance has received little attention. Therefore, as we aimed to address the issue of board effectiveness in sports clubs, we focused on the individual board member by addressing competencies of volunteer board members in sports clubs.

In part 4 of this thesis, the main findings of the four manuscripts are discussed. We situate the overall results and conclusions of our studies by reflecting on the related literature, by highlighting the practical implications of our findings, by addressing the limitations of the current works and by outlining the potential avenues for future research.

This thesis is a collection of manuscripts that are published, under editorial revision, or that are submitted for publication in peer reviewed scientific journals. Consequently, all manuscripts were written to stand alone. This may lead to some discontinuity or minor inconsistencies in editorial style due to the specific submission guidelines of the journals.

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PART 2

EFFECTIVENESS IN SPORT ON MICRO MANAGEMENT LEVEL

"Management doesn't get more transparent than in the world of football, where managers lead their teams under intensely stressful conditions. Those in the dugout are publicly judged week in week out, with the evidence of their effectiveness plain to see. This is management where you're only as good as your last victory, and your job is constantly on the line."

(Bolchover & Brady, 2006)

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Chapter 1

Short-Term Effects of Mid-Season Coach Turnover on Team Performance in Soccer

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Abstract

The coaching carousel or coach turnover is an extreme but frequently occurring phenomenon in soccer. This study examined the effect of mid-season coach turnover on subsequent short-term team performance. In general, the purpose of mid-season coach turnover is to improve results in the short-term. Therefore, the period of four games before and four games after the date of turnover was the focus of this paper. We analyzed the effect of mid-season coach turnovers by examining data from 8392 Belgian soccer games in the first, second and third national divisions. We found that many of the teams whose performance declined over approximately two months dismissed their coach. Within four games under the management of a new coach, team performance improved. However, further analyses revealed that this increase is due to regression to the mean and cannot be attributed to the new coach. A control group comprising teams that had an equal performance dip but did not dismiss their coach showed a similar improvement. We conclude that coach turnover in Belgian soccer is neither an effective nor efficient means to improve team performance in the short-term.

Keywords: Replacement, Changing Coach, Performance change, Team sports

Introduction

The present study addressed the issue of short-term performance effects of mid-season coach turnover in soccer. Although there are several reasons for changing coaches, mid-season change is often associated with poor team performance (Rowe, Cannella, Rankin, & Gorman, 2005), and is considered to be a way to reap short-term dividends in terms of performance improvements (Audas, Dobson, & Goddard, 2002; Salomo & Teichmann, 2000). Koning (2003) and McTeer and White (1995) argued that the focus on mid-season coach turnover is relevant in soccer, as the composition of teams in soccer usually changes significantly between seasons.

Three succession theories are relevant in explaining the effect of mid-season coach turnover on performance over the short or long-term (Gamson & Scotch, 1964). According to the common sense theory, the coach is held accountable when the team is underperforming and thus, a coaching turnover is likely to occur. According to the common sense theory, coach turnover is expected to have a positive effect on subsequent performance because the new coach can benefit by avoiding the mistakes of the predecessor. According to the vicious circle theory, performance continues to decline following the coaching turnover. Coaching turnover, which is caused by poor performance, disrupts internal relationships in an organization. This destabilization leads to a further decline in performance. The third explanation is the ritual scapegoating theory, which assumes that a turnover has no impact on performance. Changing a coach is a convenient means of placating frustrated stakeholders since performance depends largely on the quality of the team. There are empirical studies that found evidence to support the ritual scapegoating theory (Cannella & Rowe, 1995; Eitzen & Yetman, 1972). Other empirical studies argued that the common sense theory was more appropriate (Bennet, Phillips, Drane, & Sagas, 2003; Fabianic, 1984; McTeer & White, 1995; Pfeffer & Davis-Blake, 1986). Few studies have empirically supported the vicious-circle theory (Brown, 1982).

Based on mixed research results, the question remains whether a mid-season coach turnover has an effect on subsequent performance. Therefore, the goal of this study was to examine the effect of mid-season coach turnover on subsequent short-term team performance. The purposes of this study were a) to examine whether mid-season coach turnover improved results in the short-term, and, b) to examine whether performances of teams that experienced a coach turnover were better compared with teams that did not have a coach turnover. The

succession theories (common sense, vicious circle and scapegoating theory) were used as the frameworks for interpreting the results.

Methods

Measurement of Performance

Our data consisted of game outcomes of Belgian male soccer teams that played in the highest national division, the second national division, and the third national division A from the 1998–1999 season to the 2002–2003 season. Data were obtained using secondary sources such as soccer journals, newspapers, and Internet soccer Websites. This research was approved by the institutional review board of the faculty of Medicine and Health Science at the Ghent University.

We defined "short-term" as a span of four games prior to and following a coaching change (Bruinshoofd & ter Weel, 2003). The performance measure was the average performance of four games measured by the points gained. A win was rewarded with three points and a draw with one point. No points were awarded when the team lost the game. The advantages of the performance measure are threefold. First, we obtained a performance measure that can decline in case of a series of bad performances. Second, the performance measure is not too sensitive to sporadic losses or wins in a series of wins or losses. Third, abrupt performance declines or increases are smoothed out. Thus, the first purpose was to study whether team performance improved in the four games after the turnover compared to the four games prior to the turnover.

The Construction of the Control and Turnover Group

The second purpose of this study was to compare performances of teams that had a coach turnover (turnover group) with performances of teams that did not have a coaching change (control group). We applied the method of Bruinshoofd and ter Weel (2003) to construct our control group. In order to define criteria to identify teams having the same performance pattern as the turnover group, periods of performances were analyzed starting from eight weeks before a coaching change. A period (T-) was the average performance of four games. Thus, T-1 was the average performance of the four games just before the coaching turnover, i.e., games one through four. Period T-2 was the average performance of

games two through five before the turnover. Period T-5 was the average performance of the fifth through the eighth game before the turnover. Figure 1 presents team performance levels of the five periods before the coach turnover for the three national divisions of the turnover group. The graph shows that there are three important features that are equal for the turnovers in the three divisions. Firstly, the performance level before turnover at period T-5 was low. Secondly, over the five subsequent periods, team performance sharply declined in all three divisions. Thirdly, the level of performance before the date of turnover was low. The second and third national divisions had higher performance levels compared to the first national division. To build our control group, we converted the features of the three national divisions into measurable criteria as follows:

- The level of team performance five periods prior to turnover (T–5) might not exceed 1.25 points for the first national division, 1.40 points for the second national division, and 1.30 points for the third national division.
- During the five periods prior to turnover, team performance level must decline by 30% or more.
- A team performance level of at least 0.5 points was required for the period just before coach turnover (T–1).

A pattern of performances that comply with these criteria was identified as a performance dip. Game outcomes of eight games were necessary in identifying performance dips. Therefore, we only included turnovers and dips if the performances of eight games before the turnover or the virtual date of turnover were available. Similarly, since our performance measure to assess the effect of a coaching turnover was the average performance of four games after the turnover, we only included turnovers and dips if game outcomes of four games after the real or virtual date of turnover were available. Teams appointing an interim coach for a few games or teams having more than one change of coach during the season were excluded from the analysis. For teams with no coaching turnover, only the first dip that was identified was included in the control group. We identified 95 teams with a mid-season coach turnover, of which 72 complied with our criteria. Fifty teams without a coach turnover but with a performance dip were included in the control group. Thus, game outcomes of 72 teams with coach turnover and game outcomes of 50 teams with a performance dip without a coaching turnover were included in our sample. All divisions had similar numbers of included performance dips and turnovers. Overall, the coach turnovers that were analyzed were involuntary turnovers; that is, the club fired the coach. In five cases, the coach left

voluntarily (one in the first, two in the second, and two in the third national division); that is, the coach resigned. In the secondary sources, allusions were made that these turnovers were not so involuntary as coaches claimed. Team performances of these coaches were bad so that it is likely that the coach might save his honour and resign, or, the board has left the coach to choose between involuntary or voluntary turnover. Therefore, the data of these turnovers were retained.

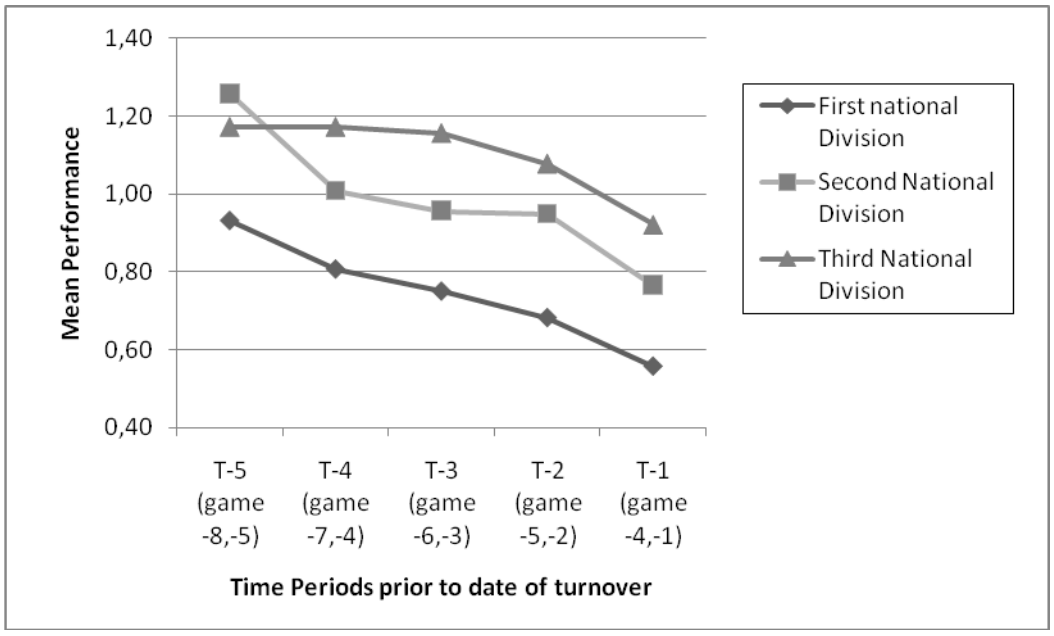

Figure 1. Mean team performance levels of the five time periods prior to turnover for the three national divisions of the turnover group.

Statistics

Repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the effects on mean team performance levels over time. Post hoc analysis of detected differences was examined using the Scheffé F-test. *F*-values, *p*-values, and partial eta squared values (η_p^2) as a measure of effect size are provided. The independent sample *t*-test was used to detect differences in mean performance levels between both groups. All analyses were performed using SPSS 12.0. Statistical significance was set at $p < .05$. Results are controlled for regression to the mean.

Results

Validity of the Control Group

Means and standard deviations are presented in Table 1. Repeated measures ANOVA, with periods T-5 (games five through eight before the turnover) and T-1 (games one through four before the turnover) as within-subject factor and group as between-subjects factor, revealed neither a significant group effect nor a significant time × group interaction effect (see model 1 of Table 2). The independent sample *t*-test revealed no significant difference (t (118) = 1.75, $p > .05$) between the mean performance levels starting from the first game of a team in a season to the real or virtual date of turnover of the turnover (M = 1.04, SD = 0.47) and control group (M = 1.16, SD = 0.28). Moreover, no significant difference (t (120) = -0.32, $p >$ .05) was found for the mean points gained during the previous season between the turnover (M = 1.44, SD = 0.43) and control group (M = 1.42, SD = 0.41). These results support the validity of our control group.

Effect of Mid-Season Coach Turnover on Team Performance

T–1 refers to the four games just before the real or virtual date of turnover, and T+4 refers to the four games just after the date of turnover. Model 2 of Table 2 shows that there is a significant time effect for the turnover group (F = 9.92, $p < .01$, η_ρ^2 = 0.13) and for the control group (F = 164.66, $p < .001$, η_ρ^2 = 0.78). Moreover, there is a significant group effect (F = 4.78; $p < .05$, η_ρ^2 = 0.04) and significant time × group interactions (F = 17.45; $p < .001$, η_ρ^2 = 0.13). The control group achieves a mean team performance level over four games of 1.53 (SD = 0.50) compared to 1.09 (SD = 0.68) for the turnover group.

Regression to the Mean

In Model 3 of Table 2, we filtered the original data for the effect of regression to the mean. A strong regression effect means that unusually low or high scores will be followed by scores that tend to be closer to the mean. We calculated the performance levels caused by regression. If the performance recovery after a dip or turnover is due to regression, we would notice that the scores after the date of turnover tend toward the mean. To calculate the regression scores, we used the regression line:

$$Y = r * x + (1 - r) * \bar{x}.$$

The correlation coefficient was obtained by calculating correlations between the four-game performance averages. Data for all the teams with a change of coach within the season were omitted. Correlations were calculated for 154 cases and an overall mean correlation was obtained. The mean correlation coefficient between a four-game performance average and another four-game performance average is 0.20 (*SD* = 0.06). The overall mean performance of all teams less the turnover group is 1.50 (*SD* = 0.37) and is used as the mean performance for the control group. The overall mean performance of the turnover group is 1.12 (*SD* = 0.39). Inserting these values in the regression line yields the following:

For the control group: $Y = 0.20 * x + (1 – 0.20) *1.50$
For the turnover group: $Y = 0.20 * x + (1 – 0.20) *1.12$

Model 3 (see Table 2) presents the original and the regression scores for period T+4. The regression scores were obtained by inserting the initial mean performance scores of T–1 into the regression line. As mentioned in the previous section, periods T–1 and T+4 do not overlap and refer to the four games immediately prior to and following coach turnover. If the coach turnover had a real effect on team performance, we would expect a significant difference between the original and the regression data. Model 3 reveals a significant group effect ($F = 37.30$, $p < .001$, $\eta_\rho^2 = 0.24$). There is also a significant time effect for the control group ($F = 8.07$, $p < .01$, $\eta_\rho^2 = 0.14$). The original mean team performance levels in period T+4 of the control group ($M = 1.53$, $SD = 0.50$) are significantly higher compared to the mean performance levels based on regression ($M = 1.33$, $SD = 0.03$). There is no significant difference between the original mean performance levels in period T+4 of the turnover group ($M = 1.09$, $SD = 0.68$) and the mean performance levels based on regression ($M = 1.04$, $SD = 0.12$).

Table 1. Means and standard deviations for the turnover and control group at different time periods.

	Turnover group (N = 72)	Control group (N = 50)
Time period	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
T-5 (game five through eight before turnover)	1.14 (0.68)	1.16 (0.15)
T-1 (game one through four before turnover)	0.74 (0.60)	0.64 (0.13)
T+4 (game one through four after turnover)	1.09 (0.68)	1.53 (0.50)
T+4 explained by regression	1.04 (0.12)	1.33 (0.03)

Table 2. Repeated measures ANOVA for three models.

	Turnover group (N = 72)		Control group (N = 50)		Overall					
Model	F time	η_ρ^2	F time	η_ρ^2	F time	η_ρ^2	F group	η_ρ^2	F time x group	η_ρ^2
Model 1 (T-5 and T-1)	13.71***	0.17	1067.34***	0.96	64.09***	0.35	0.35	0.003	1.03	0.009
Model 2 (T-1 and T+4)	9.92**	0.13	164.66***	0.78	81.02***	0.41	4.78*	0.040	17.45***	0.13
Model 3 (T+4 and T+4 explained by regression)	0.41	0.006	8.07**	0.14	4.97*	0.040	37.30***	0.24	1.75	0.014

* p<.05 ** p<.01 *** p<.001

Discussion

The aim of this study was to examine the short-term effects of mid-season coach turnover on team performance in soccer teams. Since mid-season coach turnover is an extreme event with a primary goal of quickly reversing a trend of bad performances (Audas et al., 2002; de Dios Tena & Forrest, 2006; Salomo & Teichmann, 2000), it is relevant to study especially the short-term effects of mid-season coach turnover on team performance.

Approximately two months prior to coach turnover, team performance sharply declined, after which many clubs changed their coach. Mean team performances increased after turnover. Our first analysis suggested that changing a coach had a positive effect on team performance. However, accepting the positive effects of changing a coach without controlling for regression to the mean might result in interpretations of the data that are misleading. Several authors pointed out that empirical investigations studying the link between coach turnover and subsequent performance should control for the effect of regression to the mean (Audas et al., 2002; Nevill, Holder, Atkinson, & Copas, 2004; Rowe et al., 2005; Salomo & Teichmann, 2000). After controlling for regression to the mean, most studies (Bruinshoofd & ter Weel, 2003; Curtis, Loy, & Hillen, 1986) found no evidence of a positive effect. However, Salomo and Teichmann (2000) and Audas et al. (2002) found a negative impact on team performance. In contrast to most other studies, which included the prior season's performance (Brown, 1982; Cannella & Rowe, 1995; Pfeffer & Davis-Blake, 1986; Rowe et al., 2005), or excluded match results (Gamson & Scotch, 1964) to control for regression, we calculated the regression effect and compared these data with the original. Results showed no significant difference between mean performances four games before and four games after the turnover. In other words, it can be concluded that the data showed no short-term effect of coach turnover. Our second purpose was to compare performances of teams that changed their coach with those that did not. Our control group significantly improved relative to the results before the virtual turnover. This positive effect was maintained after controlling for regression to the mean. Statistical analysis revealed that both groups had comparable performance patterns before turnover and, therefore, suggested the validity of our control group. Our results were in line with studies that used specific criteria to select the control group. Audas, Dobson, and Goddard (1997) found that English soccer clubs that changed their coach performed worse immediately after the turnover than those that retained their coach. The results of Bruinshoofd and ter Weel (2003) revealed that the coach turnover did not lead to an improvement in team

performance. Moreover, the control group recovered more rapidly to the mean performance than the turnover group.

These results indicated that it is unlikely for most teams to have immediate performance increases after a mid-season coach turnover. Since most mid-season coach turnovers have a short-term objective, changing the coach might not always be the best way of dealing with a performance dip. Since performance did not increase significantly after turnover, the common sense and vicious circle theories seem not to be the explanatory theories. Our results are more in line with the ritual scapegoating theory since no significant increase in performance has occurred after the turnover. Sacrificing the coach might be a gesture of giving in to dissatisfied stakeholders. It is more likely that team quality is a more important factor in determining short-term team performances (Audas et al., 2002).

Figure 1 showed that, for the turnover group, mean team performance levels prior to turnover in the first national division are lower compared to mean team performance levels in the second and third national division. An explanation might be that the majority of turnover teams in the first national division are weaker teams, thus, having inferior results in the first place. When the results of these teams keep going down, relegation might become a threat. Turnover might than be a gamble to reverse this trend and to avoid relegation. On the other hand, it might be that there are more turnover teams in the second and third national division that have a chance to promote to a higher division. Promotion is not possible in the first national division. It might be that qualification for the Champions League or the UEFA-cup is less a reason to change the coach. As such, the turnover group in the first national division might especially consist of teams that face threat of relegation. The turnover group in the second and third national division might consist of both teams that face threat of relegation and teams that face threat of missing promotion to a higher division. De Dios Tena and Forrest (2006) studied coach turnover in the Spanish top division. They found that relegation is a significant cause of instigating coaching change whereas failing to be a top team is not statistically significant. However, further research is necessary to ground our assumptions.

A limitation of our study is that we did not consider the effect of home team advantage and team quality. Although de Dios Tena and Forrest (2006) did not find strong results for the impact of crowd support on the determination of match outcomes after coach turnover, they suggested that future research should distinguish between home and away performances. The impact on team quality might give more insight into the real effects of a coach on team performance. We did not have data on coaching experience or coaching ability. It might be that more experienced coaches have better performances than less experienced coaches.

Further research should incorporate these possible determinants. Moreover, as we used a short-term time frame, we were not able to indicate whether performances would increase over longer periods of time. A new theoretical framework has been proposed by Rowe et al. (2005) to explain the impact of leader succession on performance on the long-term. The theoretical focus was organizational learning (Crossan, Lane, & White, 1999) and time compression diseconomics (Dierickx & Cool, 1989). Organizational learning is a dynamic process that occurs over time. It takes time for leaders to accumulate organization-specific knowledge and to facilitate learning among the players (for more information see Crossan et al., 1999; Rowe et al., 2005). The results showed that performances of major league hockey teams significantly improved in the long-term (e.g., next season). Although our results do not contradict the learning theory, our results did not allow the support of the learning theory as an appropriate framework since this approach requires a long-term perspective. Further research should focus on different time frames to study whether learning theories are relevant in explaining the effect of a coach turnover.

In conclusion, the results showed that changing the coach to improve performances in the short-term is not the most appropriate way of dealing with a performance dip in soccer. Teams that did not carry out a turnover and that had the same performance pattern as the turnover group significantly improved after a performance dip. Future research using both qualitative and quantitative approaches are needed to fully understand the effect of coach turnover on team performance.

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Chapter 2

The Effectiveness of Coach Turnover and the Effect on Home Team Advantage, Team Quality and Team Ranking

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Abstract

The effectiveness of coach turnover on team performance is widely discussed in the literature due to the indirect impact of a team's performance on a club's revenues. This study examines the effect of coach turnover within a competition season by focusing on the change in team quality and the change in home team advantage under the new coach. The change in team quality or home team advantage can vary according to the team (team specific) or might be an independent quantity (non-team specific). We estimated nine possible regression models, given no change, team specific change and non-team specific change in quality or home team advantage. The data are match results of Belgian male soccer teams playing in the highest national division during seven seasons. Results point to a team specific effect of a new coach on a team's quality. This paper further contributes by evaluating the new coach's success with regard to whether his ability to improve team quality also results in a better position of the team in the final ranking. A new coach will be able to improve the ranking of the team if the improved team quality under the new coach renders a positive team quality.

Keywords: Managerial change; Home team advantage; Team performance; Team quality; Regression model, Individual match data, Team ranking

Introduction

Although performances on the field are the prime interest of sport teams, professional sports is big business and sport performances will have, directly or indirectly, an impact on the financial revenues of soccer clubs. Obtaining lucrative sponsorship contracts, the amount of revenues from broadcasting rights and proceeds from merchandising are mainly dependent on how well teams are performing. Strong teams will probably have more revenues than weaker teams. Moreover, based on their performances in national leagues and cup competitions, clubs qualify for the lucrative Champions League (a highly valued European competition with only a selected number of European teams) or the UEFA-Cup (the second most important international competition for European soccer clubs). The quality of the team indirectly affects the amount of revenues that allow clubs to acquire highly talented players and thus, to improve performances (Koning, 2000). The economics of professional team sports has received a lot of attention in literature (Chatterjee, Wiseman, & Perez, 2002; Dawson, Dobson, & Gerrard, 2000; Szymanski & Smith, 1997).

Coaches are held responsible for the performances of their team. The task of the coach is to train the players in order to win games and to end as highly as possible into the final league ranking (Koning, 2003). Disappointing performances not only will result in a lower final ranking than previously expected, but they indirectly affect the amount of revenues of the club. If the coach is not able to fulfill the performance expectations, clubs might consider to fire the coach. Coach turnovers are a frequently occurring phenomenon in professional sports. Most researchers agree that bad results are the major determinant of a turnover (Audas et al., 1999; Salomo & Teichmann, 2000). By changing coach, clubs hope to bring about improvement in performance (Audas et al., 1999; Salomo & Teichmann, 2000) and to increase the position of the team in the league ranking.

Amongst team sports, the effect of coach turnover on team performance has been widely studied. Most studies examined the effectiveness of dismissing the coach by focusing on outcome of games or on winning percentages (Audas et al., 1999; Bennet et al., 2003; Bruinshoofd & ter Weel, 2003). More recent approaches are based on econometric modeling of individual match results (Audas et al., 2002; de Dios Tena & Forrest, 2006; Dobson & Goddard, 2001; Koning, 2003). These approaches take into account the quality of the opposing team and avoid problems of how to construct a control group.

This study adopts the econometric approach modeling of individual match results. We studied the effect of coach turnover within a season on team quality and home team

advantage. Change in team quality and change in home team advantage are expressed in function of expected goal differences. First, we expected a relationship between team quality and team performance. The higher the quality of the team, the better the performances. It is reasonable to assume that the composition of a team remains more or less constant within a season. Therefore, we assume that any quality changes after a coach turnover might be attributed to the effect of hiring a new coach. Second, many studies have proven the existence of home team advantage (Nevill & Holder, 1999; Pollard & Pollard, 2005). Crowd support is an important determinant in the home advantage literature (Carron, Loughhead, & Bray, 2005). De Dios Tena and Forrest (2006) suggested that crowd support is also relevant in the process of managerial dismissal. We assume that any home team advantage changes after a coach turnover might be attributed to the effect of home crowd. In that case, the home crowd may become an important stakeholder to deal with.

Literature on the effect of coach turnover on team quality and home team advantage is scarce. Some studies focused on the relationship between team quality and home team advantage without considering the effect of coach turnover (Bray et al., 2003; Madrigal & James, 1999). Only two papers addressed the effect of coach turnover within the season on team quality and/or home team advantage (de Dios Tena & Forrest, 2006; Koning, 2003). Koning (2003) estimated a regression model using goal differences to examine if there was a significant turnover effect on the change in team quality and home team advantage. The model corrected for any bias due to the non-random schedule of play by incorporating the quality of the opponent team. Koning (2003) defined a coach turnover as successful if both the change in team quality and the change in home team advantage were positive. Except for one season of five, there was no significant positive coach effect. De Dios Tena and Forrest (2006) contributed to the debate of managerial change in soccer by raising the hypothesis that crowd support is important in the determination of match outcomes when a coach turnover occurs. Their probit model splits up the impact of a coach turnover into an effect on home performances and into an effect on away performances. The results suggested that new coaches have a modest positive impact on the match results played at the home stadium.

Similar to Koning (2003), our study examines the effect of coach turnover by focusing on the change in team quality and the change in home team advantage under the old and new coach. Change in team quality and change in home team advantage are expressed in function of expected goal differences. The change in team quality can vary according to the team (team specific) or might be an independent quantity (non-team specific). Likewise, the improvement in home team advantage might vary with the team (team specific) or might be independent

(non-team specific). Given no change, team specific change and non-team specific change for both team quality and home team advantage, there are nine possible regression models that can be estimated (see Table 1). Koning (2003) estimated only seven of these nine possible regression models, omitting models with team specific change on one dimension and non-team specific change on the other dimension. This paper rectifies this omission by also estimating models allowing for a) team specific change in team quality and non-team specific change in home team advantage and b) non-team specific change in team quality and team specific change in home team advantage.

Apart from extending Koning's work (2003) by estimating two additional models, this paper contributes to Koning's paper (2003) by assessing the model's practical value. Koning (2003) defines the success of a new coach in terms of a simultaneous improvement in home team advantage and team quality, as inferred from the goal difference regression model. Given the financial relevance of the team's final ranking, we investigate the relationship between the goal difference model's parameters and the new coach's ability to improve the team's position in the final ranking. It is important to notice that an improvement in quality and/or improvement in home team advantage resulting in a higher expected goal difference might not result in an improvement in ranking. In short, the (change in) team quality and (change in) home team advantage are expressed in function of expected goal difference. In contrast, the ranking is based on whether a team wins a game (3 points), draws (1 point) or looses (0 points). Hence, for the ranking, only the sign of the goal difference matters, not its size. For example, imagine that a team's quality under the new coach improves from 1 to 2, meaning that the team under the new coach is expected to win from an average team on neutral ground with two goals difference. Winning with a larger goal difference from an average team does not necessarily imply that the team wins more games and hence increases in ranking. Therefore, unlike Koning (2003), this paper aims to gap the bridge between the new coach's ability to change a team's quality and/or its home team advantage and his ability to improve the team's ranking.

Data

Our data consist of the match results of Belgian male soccer teams playing in the highest national division during seasons 1998–1999 to 2004–2005. Data were obtained using secondary sources such as soccer journals, newspapers and internet soccer websites. We identified 45 within-season coach turnovers upon the seven seasons.

Before presenting the models estimated on the data, we briefly describe the characteristics of European soccer which matter when modeling goal differences per match as a way to assess the effect of coach turnover. In European soccer, the competition schedule is fixed and known at the start of the competition season. The competition is balanced so that every team competes against each other team twice: once at home and once away. A win is rewarded with three points and a draw with one point. No points are awarded when the team loses the game. A model estimating the coach effect should correct for any bias caused by the non-random order of play and quality differences of opponents faced under the old and new coach (Koning, 2003). Therefore, the model should include an explanatory variable that corrects for the quality of the opposing team. Models that are based on individual match-level data allow this.

Results

Model selection

The focus of this paper is the change of two parameters after coach turnover: team quality and home team advantage. The model that we used is an extension of the model of Clarke and Norman (1995) and Koning (2003).

Analogous to Koning (2003), we restricted our attention to within-season coach turnovers. Given that the composition of a team stays more or less constant during a season, any changes in performances can be attributed to the change of coach. Hence, all regression models are estimated for each season separately as it is unreasonable to assume that the composition of a team remains constant between seasons. The first regression estimates Clarke and Norman's model (1995) to predict the goal difference for each single game within a season. The goal difference D_{ij} is the number of goals scored by the home team i minus the number of goals scored by the away team j. This goal difference D_{ij} is explained by the home team advantage of team i playing home, the difference in quality between the home team i and the away team j (θ_i - θ_j) and a mean zero error term with constant variance ε_{ij}:

$$D_{ij} = h_i + \theta_i - \theta_j + \varepsilon_{ij} \qquad (1)$$

h_i can be interpreted as the expected win margin if team i would play at home against a team of equal quality, θ_i - θ_j = 0. To identify all parameters in Equation 1, a restriction is

imposed on the quality parameters, $\Sigma_i\ \theta_i = 0$. As such, the quality parameters indicate deviations from a hypothetical average team with quality 0. θ_i is the expected goal difference if team *i* would play against the average team on neutral ground. If D_{ij} is positive, home team *i* is expected to win. However, if D_{ij} is negative, the opponent team *j* is expected to win the game.

Similar to Koning (2003), Clarke and Norman's model (1995) is extended to allow measuring the effect of coach turnover on team performance. More specifically, the effect of coach turnover on the quality of the team and its home team advantage are investigated. After all, similar to Koning (2003), the team quality and home team advantage are assumed to be dynamic during the season and potentially affected by a coach turnover. The change in quality of a team might vary according to the team (team specific) or might be an independent quantity (non-team specific). Likewise, the change in home team advantage might vary with the team (team specific) or might be an independent quantity (non-team specific). Non-team specific change in home team advantage and non-team specific change in team quality imply that the amount of change for all teams in a season is assumed to be equal.

For teams that changed a coach, we included a team specific/non-team specific change in home team advantage (k_i or k) and/or a team specific/non-team specific change in team quality after coach turnover (ψ_i or ψ). For example, Equation 2 expresses the home team advantage for team *i* under the new coach (superscript *n*) as the sum of the home team advantage of team *i* under the old coach (superscript o) and a non-team specific change in home team advantage due to coach turnover. Note that both the change in home team advantage (k_i or k) and the change in team quality (ψ_i or ψ) can be negative, zero, or positive. Thus, for example, team quality under the new coach can be negative ($\theta_i^n \leq 0$), zero ($\theta_i^n = 0$), or positive ($\theta_i^n \geq 0$).

$$h_i^n = h_i^0 + k \qquad (2)$$

$$h_i^n = h_i^o + k_i \qquad (3)$$

$$\theta_i^n = \theta_i^o + \psi \qquad (4)$$

$$\theta_i^n = \theta_i^o + \psi_i \qquad (5)$$

Table 1 lists the basic Clarke and Norman model (no change in home team advantage and no change in team quality; lower right corner), the six models estimated by Koning (2003) and two new models (models in *italics*). Contrary to Koning (2003), we also tested the non-team specific change in home team advantage versus team specific change in team quality and vice versa.

Table 1. Different regression models estimated per season. Equations are given for a home team *i* that changed coach and plays against opponent *j* who did not change coach.

	Change in team quality		
Change in home team advantage	Team specific	Non-team specific	No change
Team specific	$D_{ij}= h_i^0+k_i+\theta_i^0+\psi_i-\theta_j+\varepsilon_{ij}$; (k_i, ψ_i)	*$D_{ij}= h_i^0+k_i+\theta_i^0+\psi-\theta_j+\varepsilon_{ij}$; (k_i, ψ)*	$D_{ij}= h_i^0+k_i+\theta_i-\theta_j+\varepsilon_{ij}$; (k_i)
Non-team specific	*$D_{ij}= h_i^0+k+\theta_i^0+\psi_i-\theta_j+\varepsilon_{ij}$; $(k ;\psi_i)$*	$D_{ij}= h_i^0+k+\theta_i^0+\psi-\theta_j+\varepsilon_{ij}$; (k, ψ)	$D_{ij}= h_i^0+k+\theta_i-\theta_j+\varepsilon_{ij}$; (k)
No change	$D_{ij}= h_i^0+\theta_i^0+\psi_i-\theta_j+\varepsilon_{ij}$; (ψ_i)	$D_{ij}= h_i^0+\theta_i^0+\psi-\theta_j+\varepsilon_{ij}$; (ψ)	$D_{ij}= h_i+\theta_i-\theta_j+\varepsilon_{ij}$; (h, θ)

Table 2 presents a summary of the nine different regression models estimated for each of the seven seasons. The last two columns present the results for the two new models. Column k_i, ψ reports a regression model fixing the change in team quality to be equal across all teams with coach turnover but allows for team specific change in home team advantage. Column k, ψ_i imposes the constraint that the change in home team advantage is equal for all teams that changed a coach but allows for team specific change in team quality.

Table 2. Summary of regression models for seven soccer seasons.

	h, θ	k_i	ψ_i	k_i, ψ_i	k	ψ	k, ψ	k_i, ψ	k, ψ_i
1998/1999									
R^2	0.2787	0.2888	0.3111*	0.3241	0.2814	0.2854	0.2854	0.2941	0.3114*
Adj.R^2	0.1855	0.1818	0.2075	0.2075	0.1856	0.1901	0.1871	0.1849	0.2049
k					0.4837		-0.0546		-0.2122
ψ						0.5955	0.6240	0.7262	
1999/2000									
R^2	0.3420	0.3738	0.3881*	0.3944	0.3471	0.3534*	0.3535	0.3781	0.3883*
Adj.R^2	0.2570	0.2714	0.2881	0.2733	0.2600	0.2672	0.2646	0.2736	0.2855
k					0.5683		0.0957		0.1136
ψ						0.7030*	0.6569	0.5392	
2000/2001									
R^2	0.3939	0.4439*	0.4529*	0.4744*	0.3992	0.4142*	0.4144*	0.4566*	0.4530*
Adj.R^2	0.3157	0.3505	0.3611	0.3642	0.3191	0.3361	0.3338	0.3629	0.3587
k					0.4957		-0.1096		
ψ						0.8103*	0.8638*	0.7980*	
2001/2002									
R^2	0.3860	0.4082	0.4285*	0.4353*	0.3956*	0.4050*	0.4052*	0.4174*	0.4290*
Adj.R^2	0.3067	0.3166	0.3401	0.3328	0.3151	0.3257	0.3233	0.3247	0.3381
k					0.7719*		0.1102		0.2184
ψ						0.8320*	0.7767*	0.7637*	
2002/2003									
R^2	0.3812	0.3865	0.3917	0.3954	0.3812	0.3841	0.3856	0.3906	0.3934
Adj.R^2	0.2975	0.2929	0.2989	0.2942	0.2928	0.2962	0.2949	0.2946	0.2979
k					0.1073		-0.6451		-0.7128
ψ						0.5314	0.8669	0.8397	
2003/2004									
R^2	0.3533	0.3798	0.3696	0.3935	0.3628*	0.3585	0.3629	0.3799	0.3740
Adj.R^2	0.2698	0.2811	0.2694	0.2778	0.2778	0.2730	0.2753	0.2785	0.2716
k					0.7347*		0.6578		0.6610
ψ						0.4344	0.0938	0.0739	
2004/2005									
R^2	0.4087	0.4151	0.4157	0.4237	0.4087	0.4143	0.4166	0.4225	0.4178
Adj.R^2	0.3323	0.3221	0.3227	0.3138	0.3299	0.3362	0.3364	0.3281	0.3226
k					0.0507		-0.4177		-0.4024
ψ						0.4305	0.6404	0.6191	

* indicates that model is significantly different from the Clarke and Norman (h, θ) model at $\alpha = 0.05$.

For the Clarke and Norman model (h, θ), we tested for normality, multicollinearity, and heteroscedasticity. For all seasons, the Q-Q plot of the residuals indicated that the residuals are normally distributed. No multicollinearity problem was observed as the condition index for each season is well below 20, i.e., taking values from the interval [2.51, 2.66]. For all seasons, a heteroscedasticity test rejected the hypothesis of errors that are dependent of the regressors with probability in range [0.55, 0.82].

To test which of the models significantly outperform another model, general F-testing was applied to the regression results per season. Table 3 provides the number of seasons for which the model in the row and the model in the column significantly differ at $\alpha = 0.05$. First, for all seasons we tested whether any of the extensions significantly outperform the basic Clarke and Norman model (h, θ); see column 1 in Table 3. Additional F-tests (Table 4) were performed to select the best model among the models significantly differing from the Clarke and Norman model (h, θ).

Table 3. Number of seasons out of seven for which models significantly differ at $\alpha = 0.05$ using F-tests.

	h, θ	k_i	ψ_i	k_i, ψ_i
k_i	1			
ψ_i	4			
k_i, ψ_i	2			
k	2	1		
ψ	3		3	
k, ψ	2			1
k_i, ψ	2			1
k, ψ_i	4		0	0

Table 4: Results of *F*-tests for the models in column per season.

	ψ_i versus h, θ	k, ψ_i versus h, θ	ψ_i versus ψ	k, ψ_i versus ψ_i
1998/1999	F(2.5, 5, 266) = 0.04*	F(2.10, 6, 265) = 0.05*	F(2.48, 4, 266) = 0.04*	F(0.12, 1, 265) = 0.73
1999/2000	F(2.48, 8, 263) =0.01*	F(2.20, 9, 262) = 0.02*	F(2.13, 7, 263) = 0.04*	F(0.09, 1, 262) = 0.77
2000/2001	F(3.14, 9, 262) <= 0.001*	F(2.48, 10, 261) = 0.01*	F(2.32, 8, 262) = 0.02*	F(0.05, 1, 261) = 0.82
2001/2002	F(3.29, 6, 265) = 0.01*	F(2.84, 7, 264) = 0.01*	F(2.18, 5, 265) = 0.06	F(0.23, 1, 264) = 0.63
2002/2003	F(1.36, 3, 236) = 0.26	F(1.18, 4, 235) = 0.32	F(1.47, 2, 236) = 0.23	F(0.75, 1, 269) = 0.39
2003/2004	F(0.98, 7, 264) = 0.45	F(1.09, 8, 263) = 0.37	F(0.77, 6, 267) = 0.59	F(1.85, 1, 263) = 0.17
2004/2005	F(0.45, 7, 264) = 0.87	F(0.51, 8, 263) = 0.85	F(0.11, 6, 267) = 0.99	F(0.95, 1, 263) = 0.33

*$p < 0.05$

First, for four out of seven seasons, both the model with team specific change in team quality (ψ_i) and the model with same change in home team advantage and team specific change in team quality (k, ψ_i) significantly outperform the basic model of Clarke and Norman (h, θ). Second, additional F-tests allow to select from the two remaining models: (ψ_i) and (k, ψ_i). From Table 4 we learn that the model with same change in home team advantage and team specific change in team quality (k, ψ_i) never significantly outperforms a model including only team specific change in team quality (ψ_i). This finding is in favour of the (ψ_i) model rather than the (k, ψ_i) model. Moreover, for three out of seven seasons, the model allowing for team specific change in team quality (ψ_i) significantly outperforms the model with non-team specific change in team quality (ψ). The best model in this study to predict the expected goal difference is Clarke and Norman's model extended with team specific change in team quality (ψ_i):

$$D_{ij} = h_i + \theta_i + \psi_i - \theta_j + \varepsilon_{ij} \qquad (6)$$

Assessing coach turnover success

Inferring coach turnover success from the goal difference regression model

Starting from his best model (k, ψ), Koning (2003) defined a coach turnover as successful if both the change in non-team specific home team advantage and the change in non-team specific quality are positive: ($k > 0$) and ($\psi > 0$). Our best model (ψ_i) does not include change in home team advantage but includes a team specific change in quality (see Equation 6). As such, our measure of coach turnover success is team specific and it is only defined by a positive team specific change in team quality: $\psi_i > 0$. Over the seven seasons 36 out of 45 teams improved their quality after coach turnover. For 8 of these 36 teams the quality improvement was significant at α=0.05 (an additional 5 teams at α=0.10) as reflected by the significance of the ψ_i parameter in the regression models.

Practical interpretation of model parameter estimates

Translating our goal difference regression model in usable practical information is essential to facilitate its use within management decision making. For the team management the main reason for appointing a new coach is either to avoid relegation, either to become a divisional champion or to qualify for the lucrative Champions League or the UEFA-Cup. In these cases, quality improvement under the new coach not resulting in an increase in the final ranking is practically less relevant to the team management.

Therefore, in a next step, we interpret the model parameters of Equation 6 with regard to whether the coach is able to improve the team's ranking. The change in ranking is expressed as the difference between the final ranking and the team's ranking after the last game played under the old coach. 24 out of 36 teams which improved team quality succeeded in achieving a better final ranking, irrespective of whether the change in team quality was significant. The association between the change in quality ψ_i and change in ranking was tested by assessing the significance of the asymmetric Somer's d_{yx} association statistic. The change in quality ψ_i (as estimated by Equation 6) was recoded as a dummy *inc_qua* taking value '1' if the quality improved ($\psi_i > 0$) and value '0' if the quality under the new coach stayed equal or had decreased ($\psi_i \leq 0$). Likewise, the change in ranking was also coded as a dummy *inc_rank* taking value '1' if the team's final ranking improved under the new coach and taking value '0' if the team's final ranking decreased or stayed equal. The Somer's d_{yx} statistic indicates a

significant positive relationship between change in quality and change in ranking (Somer's d_{yx} = 0.5556, p=0.0010, N=45).

Next, we test for a moderation effect of the quality under the new coach θ_i^n upon the association between change in quality ψ_i and change in ranking under the new coach (Table 5 and Table 6). From Equation 4 and Equation 6, it seems important that the change in quality results in a *positive* team quality under the new coach ($\theta_i^n > 0$). After all, only when team quality is positive, the team is expected to score more than the average team on neutral ground (cf. interpretation of θ_i). The association between change in quality and change in ranking turned out to be weaker and no longer significant when controlled for a negative or zero team quality under the new coach, i.e. $\theta_i^n \leq 0$ (Somer's d_{yx}= 0.2571, p=0.0856, N=22). When the new coach is able to improve the quality but the new quality remains negative, the team is still expected to score less than an average team on neutral ground. If the new coach had improved team quality and the new team quality is zero, the team is expected to draw against an average team on neutral ground. In both situations, the probability to improve the team's ranking is small. In contrast, the association between change in quality ψ_i and change in ranking given a positive team quality under the new coach (i.e. $\theta_i^n > 0$) is still significant and even more pronounced than without correcting for the moderation effect (Somer's d_{yx} = 0.8571, p=0.0528, N=23 versus Somer's d_{yx}=0.5556 unconditional). To conclude, whether the new coach will be able to improve the ranking of the team depends on whether the improved team quality renders a *positive* team quality.

Is the goal difference regression model as in Equation 6 practical relevant? Yes. Starting from the model parameters of the goal difference regression model in Equation 6, a new coach is expected to be able to improve the team's ranking if he/she is able to improve the quality, i.e. $\psi_i > 0$, and if he/she is able to render a positive team quality, i.e. $\theta_i^n > 0$.

Table 5. Association between the change in team quality and change in ranking corrected for positive team quality (d_qua_n=1) under the new coach using Somer's d_{vx} association statistic.

	Change in ranking (inc_rank)		
	Decreased/stayed equal	Increased	Total
Change in team quality (inc_qua)	N %	N %	N %
Decreased/stayed equal	2 100.00%	0 0.00%	2 8.70%
Increased	3 14.29%	18 85.71%	21 91.30%
Total	5 21.74%	18 78.26%	23 100.00%

Table 6. Association between the change in team quality and change in ranking corrected for negative team quality (d_qua_n=0) under the new coach using Somer's d_{vx} association statistic.

	Change in ranking (inc_rank)		
	Decreased/stayed equal	Increased	Total
Change in team quality (inc_qua)	N %	N %	N %
Decreased/stayed equal	6 85.71%	1 14.29%	7 31.82%
Increased	9 60.00%	6 40.00%	15 68.18%
Total	15 68.18%	7 31.82%	22 100.00%

Discussion

Model selection: discussion

Koning's model (2003) included non-team specific change in home team advantage and non-team specific change in quality. Our best model (see Equation 6) does not indicate that a change in a team's home advantage under the new coach substantially contributes to predict match goal differences. The absence of *team specific* change in home team advantage might be explained by Clarke and Norman's (1995) finding that home team advantage only has a borderline significant *team* effect. The absence of a *non-team specific* change in home advantage can also be explained by Clarke and Norman (1995). As (the change in) quality affects a team's performance every match, and (the change in) home team advantage only for half the matches, the importance of (the change in) home team advantage for predicting goal differences will always be inferior to the predictive importance of (the change in) quality. Irrespective of the number of times that a team's home team advantage effect is accounted for, the magnitude of the home team advantage has been shown to be about three times as small as the effect of team quality (Clarke & Norman, 1995). Finally, recall that the general F-testing retained the (γ_i) and the (k, γ_i) models as models outperforming the original Clarke and Norman model (1995). The (γ_i) model was preferred to the (k, γ_i) model because there was no significant difference between both models as proved by the F-test. All in all, there might be a small effect of the new coach on a team's home team advantage, but the latter has only limited value in predicting goal differences and as a result a team's performance or ranking.

Apart from this econometric explanation for the absence of home team advantage change, it's our belief that the change in home team advantage resulting from a change in coach could only be a second-order effect. Such a second-order effect could perhaps result from a new coach bringing bigger attendances through improved team quality and thus more crowd support.[1]

Assessing coach turnover success: discussion

Our results seem to indicate that there is a stronger coach effect than reported by Koning (2003). Koning (2003) discovered that, except for one season (1993-1994), coach turnovers had no positive effect as the new coaches were unable to improve both team quality

and home team advantage. According to our results, 36 teams out of 45 experienced a positive coach turnover effect as reflected by a quality improvement. However, a straight comparison of our results to those of Koning (2003) is unfair. Restricting the coach effect to be team independent, Koning (2003) rephrases the research question 'Is there a significant coach effect for team *i* that changed coach?' to 'Is there a significant coach effect for *all* teams that changed coach?' It's clear that the odds of finding significant coach effects under our research question (first question) are much higher than under Koning's research question (last question).

Bridging the gap between science and practice, we investigated the relationship between the goal difference regression model's parameters and the new coach's ability to improve a team's ranking. 24 of the 36 teams that improved team quality succeeded in achieving a better final ranking. Association analyses revealed that a new coach is likely to be able to improve the ranking of the team if he/she improves the team quality ($\psi_i > 0$) and renders a *positive* team quality ($\theta_i^n > 0$). The results suggest that a team's management could assess the new coach's ability to improve ranking from initial estimates of the goal difference regression model.

Conclusion

This study investigated the effect of coach turnover within a competition on the change in home team advantage and the change in team quality under the new coach using regression models that predict goal differences. Koning (2003) estimated only seven of nine possible regression models. This paper also estimated the two omitted models allowing for non-team specific change in home team advantage versus team specific change in team quality and vice versa. The results point to a team specific effect of a new coach on a team's quality. Conversely, Koning's model (2003) included non-team specific change in home team advantage and non-team specific change in quality. Given that we reach a different best model, further research is warranted to detect the best regression model predicting goal differences irrespective of the data characteristics.

Similar to Koning (2003), the goal difference regression model is employed to assess the success of the new trainer. For *some* teams there is a significant coach effect as reflected by a positive team specific change in team quality under the new coach. For other teams there was no significant coach effect. Conversely, Koning (2003) only finds a coach turnover effect

for one season for *all* teams as reflected by both a positive non-team specific change in quality and a positive non-team specific change in home team advantage.

This paper further contributes to Koning's paper (2003) by giving interpretation to the model parameters with regard to the new coach's ability to improve the position of the team in the final ranking. A new coach will be able to improve the ranking of the team if the improved team quality under the new coach renders a *positive* team quality. The association between the quality parameters of the regression model ($\psi_{i,}$ θ_i^n) and the change in ranking under the new coach demonstrates the practical value of the goal difference model to evaluate the effectiveness of coach turnovers.

The current paper raises several interesting questions for further research. First, rather than measuring the association between the regression parameters ($\psi_{i,}$ θ_i^n) of the goal difference model, future research could use the regression parameters ($\psi_{i,}$ θ_i^n) to predict a team's absolute change in ranking (continuous outcome) or a team's ability to improve in ranking or not (binary outcome). By estimating the goal difference model on all games under the old coach and some but not all (e.g. four) games under the new coach for team *i*, an initial estimate of ($\psi_{i,}$ θ_i^n) is obtained which in turn can be used to predict the expected change in ranking for team *i*. This way, a club's management could measure the new coach's success shortly after coach turnover, allowing to detect the need to fire the new coach if the expected change in ranking would turn out to be negative or insufficient. Second, further research could assess the effectiveness of a coach turnover in terms of final ranking by simulating the probability distribution of the final ranking if there would have been no coach turnover. The final ranking can be presented as a percentile of that probability distribution[2]. Third, our results have shown that coach turnover is successful if the new coach is able to increase the team quality and if the new team quality is positive. Future research should address under what conditions (team characteristics, coach characteristics, …) the new coach is able to do so. Fourthly, a Monte Carlo analysis could test for short-term persistence effects. Of special interest to the coach turnover literature is whether the negative persistence effect as found by Dobson and Goddard (2003) for dl/w reversals; a sequence of consecutive draws or losses is reversed by a win, could be explained by a coach turnover effect. Fifth, further research might question whether the current points system (3-1-0 points if the team wins/draws/loses) adequately reflects a team's quality. The association between change in team quality and change in ranking turned out to be weak and no longer significant when controlled for a negative or zero team quality under the new coach. Thus, if the goal difference is better compared to the predecessor (eg. losing with less goals against), the team has increased in

team quality. But it is less likely that this will be reflected in the final ranking. Therefore, further research should study whether a ranking system based on goal differences might be more appropriate to reflect team quality. Another possibility is to reconsider the current points system, e.g. adding a goal difference coefficient to reward more team quality as expressed in goal differences.

Endnote

[1] We would like to thank one of the anonymous reviewers for mentioning this potential second-order effect.
[2] We would like to thank one of the anonymous reviewers for mentioning this future research avenue.

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PART 3

EFFECTIVENESS IN SPORT ON MESO MANAGEMENT LEVEL

"Being effective as individuals and organizations is no longer optional in today's world -- it's the price of entry to the playing field"

(Covey, 2004)

Covey, S. R. (2004). *The 8th Habit: From Effectiveness to Greatness*. New York: Simon and Schuster

Chapter 3

Management and Program Effectiveness in Belgian Sports Clubs

Note: parts of the introduction section of this paper are comparable to parts presented in the general introduction section of this thesis

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Abstract

Although organizational effectiveness has been studied for many years, there is little empirical evidence documenting how people perceive effectiveness of sports clubs. The purpose of this study was to investigate effectiveness perceptions of board members and sports members of sports clubs. Specifically, management and program effectiveness was explored using the competing values approach as theoretical framework. The sample consisted of 823 board and sports members of Belgian sports clubs. Results showed that both board and sports members rated the dimension atmosphere at management and program level as the most effective factor in sports clubs. Board members perceived that their sports club was less effective in acquiring board members, coaches and other volunteers. The dimensions atmosphere and acquiring board members and coaches were significant predictors of the overall success score of the club at management level. The dimension satisfaction, competition goal, acquiring sports members, and information and communication were significant predictors at the program effectiveness level. The theoretical and practical implications of the findings are discussed.

Keywords: Organizational effectiveness, Program effectiveness, Management effectiveness, Competing values approach, Sports clubs

Introduction

Organizational effectiveness is one of the basic constructs in management and organizational theory (Baruh & Ramalho, 2006; Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1991; Goodmann & Pennings, 1980). Discovering distinguishing features between effective and ineffective organizations is the major challenge for organizational evaluation and the topic is as old as organizational research itself (Cameron, 1980; Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Gillespie, 1999; Shilbury & Moore, 2006). Goodman and Pennings (1977) argued that effectiveness is the central theme in the study of organizational analysis, and, that a theory of organizations should include the study of the effectiveness construct. Despite the extensive academic interest that has been given to organizational effectiveness (Campbell, 1977), there still remains confusion and controversy about what constitutes organizational effectiveness and how it should be measured. The lack of a universal definition sharpens this problem. The different methods and scales used to measure organizational effectiveness reflect that organizational effectiveness means different things to different people (Forbes, 1998; Shilbury & Moore, 2006).

This conceptual equivocality is especially reflected in the nonprofit effectiveness literature since nonprofit organizations have often ambiguous goals and offer intangible services (Herman, 1990; Schmid, 2002). Baruh & Ramalho (2006) argued that the primary purpose of profit organizations is profit, while the bedrock of nonprofit organizations is their mission. From the analysis of 149 scholarly publications that studied organizational effectiveness or organizational performance, Baruh & Ramalho (2006) concluded that business organizations focus mostly on economic and financial criteria, whereas nonprofit organizations have a preference for human and societal outcomes and internal social issues. The distinction between profit and nonprofit organizations seems to reflect in the choice of effectiveness criteria. Caution is therefore needed when applying organizational effectiveness models to nonprofit organizations.

The current study addressed the issue of effectiveness in sports clubs, of which the majority are nonprofit organizations that are administered by volunteers. Studies that investigated organizational effectiveness in sport organizations use different theoretical approaches and are limited in application (Shilbury & Moore, 2006). The increased pressure on sport organizations to be businesslike, professional, and accountable, highlights the need for research on effectiveness (Shilbury & Moore, 2006). We studied effectiveness by focusing on management and program effectiveness. The purpose of this study was to investigate how

two constituents, board members and sports members of sports clubs, perceived the level of management and program effectiveness in their sports club. No previous study has been found that studied management and program effectiveness in sports clubs. This paper made a specific contribution to the sport management literature by providing a better understanding of effectiveness in sports clubs.

Effectiveness Research

Effectiveness research in organizational theory

Various models and theoretical approaches have been developed to assess organizational effectiveness. Different models with their relating criteria reflect different values and preferences of schools of thought concerning effectiveness (Walton & Dawson, 2001). The best known models are the goal models (Etzioni, 1960; Price, 1972; Scott, 1977), the system resource model (Yuchtman & Seashore, 1967), the internal process approach (Pfeffer, 1977; Steers, 1977), the multiple constituency model (Connolly, Conlon, & Deutsch, 1980; Tsui, 1990; Zammuto, 1984) and the competing values approach (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981, 1983).

The goal model is the oldest and most widely applied model in the study of organizational effectiveness. There are several variations of the goal model, but most researchers accept Etzioni's definition (1960) of effectiveness as the degree to which an organization realizes its goals. The closer the output meets the goals of the organization, the more effective the organisation is (Cameron, 1980). This model assumes that organizations have clear, identifiable goals, and that goals are stable and measurable over time. However, these assumptions are often problematic (Cameron, 1980; Herman & Renz, 1999). The (open) system resource approach (Seashore & Yuchtman, 1967; Yuchtman & Seashore, 1967) was born as an alternative to overcome the limitations of the goal models. Several variations with specific emphasis of the system approach were developed (e.g. Georgopolous & Tannenbaum, 1957; Steers, 1975). In general, the system resource model of Yuchtman and Seashore (1967) is widely accepted as the leading approach of organizational effectiveness within the system models. Effectiveness is defined here as the firm's ability to exploit its environment in the acquisition of scarce and valued resources to sustain its functioning. Organizations are effective when they succeed in acquiring the needed resources from the external environment. Resource dependency theory states that the environment contains

scarce and valued resources essential to organizational survival (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). The internal organizational processes model is the third effectiveness approach. Advocates of this model argue that the existing models of organizational effectiveness do not include the determinants of organizational health and success. Organizational effectiveness is associated with the internal characteristics of the organization, such as internal functioning, information flow, trust, integrated systems and smooth functioning (Cameron, 1980; Shilbury & Moore, 2006). The internal processes model is appropriate when the internal processes and procedures are linked to the outputs (Cameron, 1980). The fourth model is the (strategic) multiple constituencies approach (Connolly et al., 1980). This model recognizes that organizations have multiple constituents or stakeholders who evaluate effectiveness in different ways. The various constituents define the criteria to evaluate effectiveness. Similar to the system approach, many approaches of the multiple constituency model are developed throughout literature (e.g. D'Aunno, 1992; Kanter & Brinkerhoff, 1981; Tsui, 1990; Zammuto, 1984).

Cameron (1981) argued that the unilateral view of these models ignores the complexity of organizational effectiveness. Effectiveness models should capture multiple dimensions. Today, there is a wide agreement that organizational effectiveness requires a multidimensional approach (Chelladurai, 1987; Forbes, 1998; Herman, 1990; Herman & Renz, 1999; Kalliath et al., 1999; Shilbury & Moore, 2006; Sowa, Selden, & Sandfort, 2004). The most rigorous and influential multidimensional approach is the competing values approach (CVA) of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, 1983).

The CVA is an attempt to identify the shared criteria that academics use to evaluate organizational effectiveness. Multidimensional scaling was applied to identify the basic value dimensions that academics use to conceptualize organizational effectiveness. The results suggested that individuals evaluate organizational effectiveness based on three super-ordinate value continua. The first dimension is organizational focus: an internal (micro focus on the development of people in the organization) versus an external focus (macro focus on the development of the organization itself). The second dimension is related to organizational structure: a concern for flexibility versus a concern for control. The third dimension is related to organizational outcomes: a concern for means (important processes) versus a concern for ends (final outcomes). Each dimension represents values that influence criteria used in assessing effectiveness. Each criterion in the construct of organizational effectiveness reflects various combinations of these values. The combination of the first two value continua (or ‘axes’), organizational focus and organizational structure, produces four cells. The

combination with the third axe, means and ends, reveals that eight cells represent four basic models of organizational effectiveness. The human relations model has an internal focus and flexible structure. The open system model has an external focus and an emphasis on flexibility. The rational goal model places an emphasis on control and has an external focus. The internal process model has an internal focus and places an emphasis on control and stability. The overall conclusion is that organizational researchers share an implicit theoretical framework about organizational effectiveness composed of three value dimensions. Moreover, the four models express different and sometimes opposite value dimensions. However, this does not imply that they are mutually exclusive. The CVA highlights that opposing values exist in organizations and that organizations embrace each dimension to some degree.

Effectiveness research in sport management research

Organizational effectiveness has also been studied in the area of sport management. Most researchers (e.g, Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1991; Koski, 1995; Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000) subscribed to a multidimensional approach of organizational effectiveness, and the topic has been especially studied in National Sport Organizations (NSOs). Frisby (1986) studied the relationship between the goal and systems model in Canadian National Sport Governing Bodies. The results revealed a moderate correlation between the goal and system model indicating that both models measure separate aspects of effectiveness. The authors suggested that both models should be combined in order to more adequately represent organizational effectiveness. Chelladurai (1987) presented the input-throughput-output cycle which was based on an open systems view of organizations. This framework integrated the system resources, process and goal model. The focus was, respectively, on the input, throughput and output sectors of an organization. The multiple constituencies approach in the cycle represented the dependency on the various interest groups. Chelladurai, Szyszlo and Haggerty (1987) developed a scale of NSO effectiveness based on the open systems view. The scale resulted in 26 items that represent six dimensions: input-human resources, input-monetary resources, throughput-mass, throughput-elite, output-mass, and output-elite. Both volunteer and professional administrators perceived effectiveness as a multidimensional construct and they were congruent in perceiving which effectiveness dimensions were more critical. Koski (1995) applied the input-throughput-output cycle to Finnish sports clubs. The five dimensions of effectiveness that were identified and examined are the ability to obtain

resources, internal atmosphere, efficiency of the throughput process, realization of aims, and general level of activity. All dimensions except internal atmosphere were inter-correlated. Rural sports clubs were less effective than urban clubs. Participation-oriented sports clubs were less effective than achievement-oriented and multipurpose clubs in the ability to obtain resources and in the general level of activity. Participation-oriented sports clubs, however, were more effective on the dimension internal atmosphere. Some researchers used the multiple constituencies approach as theoretical perspective to study NSO effectiveness (Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1991; Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000). While Chelladurai and Haggerty (1991) focused on process effectiveness between volunteer and professional NSO administrators, Papadimitriou and Taylor (2000) identified the dimensional structure of effectiveness criteria as defined by different constituencies of Hellenic NSOs. The five-factor structure—caliber of board and external liaisons, interest in athletes, internal procedures, long-term planning and sports science support—supported the multidimensional nature of the effectiveness construct. Psychometric evidence suggested that the scale is valid (Karteroliotis & Papadimitriou, 2004). Although Chelladurai and Haggerty (1991) only found partial support that voluntary and professional administrative members may have different effectiveness perceptions, Papadimitriou and Taylor (2000) concluded that different constituent groups hold different perceptions of effectiveness. Shilbury and Moore (2006) studied effectiveness of Australian NSOs using the CVA as theoretical framework. Ten effectiveness factors that represent the four CVA models were retained: flexibility, resources, planning, productivity, information, stability, cohesive workforce-harmony, cohesive workforce-motivation, skilled workforce-professional, and skilled workforce-volunteer. High correlations between the four quadrants of the CVA raise the issue of discriminatory validity. Therefore, the data did not support a model with ten manifest factors loading on four latent variables. The data suggested a model with ten manifest factors that loaded directly on and contributed to organizational effectiveness as a latent construct.

This literature review revealed that a lot of work remains to be done in the study of effectiveness in sport management. Different researchers applied different theoretical foci to attend to the topic. Besides the consensus that effectiveness should be addressed as a multidimensional construct, there is no common view about its theoretical approach. Although it is utopia to obtain unanimity concerning effectiveness, further research might explore new avenues to enhance our understanding in this research area. Sport organizations such as sports clubs are very diverse in size and structure (Thiel & Mayer, 2009). Much of the

sporting activities are delivered through nonprofit organizations, and hence, the study what constitutes an effective sport organization is warranted.

Theoretical framework

Our theoretical model applied the CVA at management and program level. The combined theoretical framework allowed to understand the complexity of organizational effectiveness. The major strength of the CVA is that it encapsulates four major models of organizational effectiveness: the human relations approach, the internal process approach, the open systems approach and the rational goal approach. Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) indicated that they built a framework that would apply to all organizations, from profit to nonprofit. Although the CVA subscribes a general paradigm of organizational effectiveness, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) stated that the operationalization of the criteria may vary from organization to organization. This rationale was supported by Baruh and Ramalho (2006) who found that business and nonprofit organizations prefer different effectiveness criteria. Therefore, we generated appropriate criteria at management and program level and within the four domains of the CVA using an inductive approach.

Sowa and colleagues (2004) addressed the idea that nonprofit organizational effectiveness should discern between levels or units of analysis when measuring organizational effectiveness. They argued that there are multiple levels forming the organization. The primary and distinct levels encompassing nonprofit organizations are their management core and the programs that they deliver. The authors posited that nonprofit organizational effectiveness comprises a management and program level. In this line, previous studies have suggested that a distinction in effectiveness levels might be warranted. For example, Patti's (1985, 1987) model, which was developed to understand effectiveness in human service agencies, identified service effectiveness as one of four performance dimensions. Cho (2007) argued that the terms 'service effectiveness' and 'program effectiveness' are used interchangeably in social welfare organizations. Herman and Renz (2004) noticed that the increased interest in nonprofit organizational effectiveness by governments and other funders has focused on program outcomes and program evaluation. However, in an earlier study, Herman and Renz (1998) stated that program outcome evaluations do not include all the dimensions that are relevant to overall organizational effectiveness. In accordance with these assertions, we distinguished between two levels to

study effectiveness, management and program, since this distinction might better reflect the nature of many nonprofit sport organizations.

Sport management research that has used the CVA as theoretical framework is limited. Considering the research sample, we identified only one study that focused on organizational effectiveness in sports clubs (Koski, 1995). Notwithstanding, the majority of sports clubs are nonprofit organizations, Koski (1995) stated that they are often disregarded by organizational theorists. This inattention seems groundless, as nonprofit sports clubs cannot evade the pressure for handling a professional approach in order to ensure accountability and effectiveness. Moreover, the nonprofit sports sector plays a significant economic role (Davies, 2004). To date, no study has been found that examined the effectiveness of sports clubs by studying the effectiveness at two units of analysis. Thus, in accordance with our theoretical framework, the specific aims of this study were: (a) to explore management and program effectiveness of sports clubs as perceived by two constituent groups, board members and sports members, (b) to examine, within the rational goal approach, how the two constituent groups attached importance to the emerged goals of sports clubs, and, (c) to explore which management and program effectiveness dimensions predict the overall success score of sports clubs.

Method

Instrument

Management and program effectiveness. We assessed management and program effectiveness with a measure developed especially for this study. This measure was theoretically grounded and consistently specified the frame of reference. Therefore, the development of the two-level competing values questionnaire consists of two major parts.

First, we identified appropriate dimensions using an inductive approach. We carried out an extensive review of the sports effectiveness literature to identify effectiveness dimensions that specified our frame of reference and that were applicable across a range of sports clubs. Dimensions were generated on two levels of analysis: management and program, within the four domains of the CVA. Management level refers to organizational issues and management actions of the administrators and assistants. Program level refers to the service(s) or program(s) provided by the organization. The rational goal model refers to the extent to which the objectives or goals of the organization are achieved. The open systems model refers to the extent to which the organization acquires resources to warrant its functioning. The

human relations model refers to the extent to which the organization is concerned with well-being and development of its members. The internal process model refers to the extent to which the internal processes are organized within the organization. Where no fitting dimension could be found in the literature, we identified an appropriate one. Fourteen semi-structured interviews with board members and four semi-structured interviews with sports members from various sports clubs were conducted to identify deficiencies in the dimension pool. The main questions addressed were: Does the competing values approach adequately reflect the effectiveness construct in sports clubs and is the identified pool of dimensions suitable for measuring organizational effectiveness in sports clubs? As a result, twelve management dimensions were identified: within the rational goal model: financial goal, social goal, and societal goal; within the open systems model: financial resources, human capital, sport accommodation, and sport material; within the human relations model: atmosphere and education; within the internal process model: stability, communication, and information. The ten program dimensions identified were: within the rational goal model: competition goal, recreation goal, societal goal, and safety; within the open systems model: human capital: sports members; within the human relations model: satisfaction, atmosphere, and education; within the internal process model: communication and information.

Second, different items per dimension were generated for each of the proposed management and program effectiveness dimensions. During a series of meetings the research team screened the instrument for its face validity. Appropriate changes were made to the instrument to ensure that the instrument was being properly interpreted. In addition, the revised instrument was subsequently sent to four board members and four sports members of sports clubs with the invitation to complete the questionnaire and to give comments and suggestions on the wording and phrasing of items. As a result of the pilot testing, modifications were made to the wording of some questions. The total effectiveness inventory consisted of 107 items of which 56 were located at management level and 51 at program level. The response format used was a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = absolutely disagree to 7 = absolutely agree.

Importance of goals. Six different goal dimensions for the management and program effectiveness scale emerged from the pilot study. Respondents were asked to give a numeric score on 20 to indicate how they perceived the importance attached to each of the six goals in their sports club. The six goals were the financial, competition, recreation, social, societal and safety goal.

Overall success score of the club. Respondents were asked to give a numeric score on 100 to indicate how successful they perceived their sports club. Respondents were asked to answer the question "Generally, how successful is my sports club?".

Data collection

Stratified random sampling was used to collect data from board members and sports members from sports clubs. It was our purpose to gather data from one board and one sports member of a sports club. First, a member of the research team contacted the sports club and explained the purpose of the study. Respondents were asked if they were willingly to participate. Only few respondents indicated that they did not prefer to participate. As a result, postal questionnaires were sent to 749 board members and 749 sports members, which belonged to 206 basketball, 165 volleyball, 141 indoor soccer, 95 five-a-side football, 57 handball, 50 korfball and 35 power ball clubs. One month after contacting the clubs and distributing the questionnaires, non-respondents were contacted again in order to participate in the study. Board members received the full 107 items of the management and program effectiveness inventory scale. Sports members were asked to complete only the program effectiveness scale (51 items) since it was plausible that they were not familiar with the management issues of their sports club. As a result, questionnaires were obtained from 431 board members and 392 sports members, constituting a response rate of respectively 57.54% and 52.34%.

Data analysis

Descriptive statistics were calculated for the sample of respondents. Exploratory factor analysis was used to delineate the dimensionality of the management and program effectiveness scale. The purpose of exploratory factor analysis is to reduce the set of observed variables into a much smaller and simpler structure by discovering the pattern of relationships among the variables. Factor analysis with principal component extraction and varimax rotation was conducted by using the data of the sample of board members. Only items that fulfilled the following criteria were included in the final factor structure: (a) the cut-off criterion to determine the factors was the Kaiser criterion (1974): only extracted factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 were retained, (b) only items with communalities higher than .40

and factor loadings higher than .40 were retained, (c) items with cross loadings of .40 or higher were removed (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2004). Our sample size was adequate since a minimum of five, preferable ten observations per variable is recommended for factor analysis (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). Reliability analysis using chronbach's alpha was used to confirm the internal consistency of the resulting factors. Descriptive statistics were calculated for the emerged management and program effectiveness dimensions.

Independent sample *t*-tests were calculated to determine any differences in perceptions of program effectiveness dimensions between board and sports members. Independent sample *t*-test were conducted to determine any differences in perceptions of importance of goals between board and sports members. A rank-order correlation analysis (Spearman's Rho) was applied to test the association of the ranks of the importance of goals between board and sports members.

Regression analyses were conducted to identify the management and program effectiveness dimensions that predicted the overall success score of the sports club. Multicollinearity was tested using collinearity statistics. In the three multiple regressions, the tolerance values for each independent variable were above 0.10 and the variance inflation factor (VIF) values for each independent variable were below 10. These findings indicated that multicollinearity was not a problem (Belsley, Kuh, & Welsch, 1980). Significance for all analyses was set at $p < .05$. Statistics were performed using SPSS 15.0.

Results

Sample

Descriptive statistics of the sample are presented in Table 1. The mean age of board members was 45.51 years (*SD* = 11.52) and the majority were male (83%). Most board members served as secretary or chairperson. Almost 65% of the board members spent between 1 and 10 hours each week on their club. The mean age of sports members was 27.25 (*SD* = 7.33) years and 75% were male. Sports members participated in their sports for on average 14.87 years (*SD* = 6.62). The majority of the sports members played in the elite team of their sports club. For both board members and sports members, almost half of their clubs participated on divisional competition level.

Table 1. Description of the Sample

Board members (*N* = 431)		Sports members (*N* = 392)	
	%		*%*
Gender		Gender	
Male	83.53	Male	75.51
Female	16.47	Female	24.49
Age		Age	
0-20	0.46	0-20	17.60
21-30	11.60	21-30	54.08
30-40	19.72	30-40	22.70
40-50	35.27	40-50	5.10
> 50	32.95	> 50	0.51
Sports		Sports	
Volleybal	21.81	Volleybal	22.19
Korfball	7.89	Korfball	8.93
Five-a-side football	10.67	Five-a-side football	10.97
Indoor soccer	15.78	Indoor soccer	14.54
Power ball	6.03	Power ball	6.38
Handball	8.35	Handball	8.67
Basketball	29.47	Basketball	28.32
Position in club		Team	
Chairperson	31.09	Elite team (male)	66.67
Secretary	59.16	Elite team (female)	18.72
Treasurer	4.18	Elite team (mixed)	8.46
Board member	5.57	Second team (male)	1.03
Time spent on club		Second team	0,26
1-5	41.96	Youth team	1.79
6-10 uur	23.54	Other	3.08
11-15 uur	15.15		
16-20 uur	9.79		
> 20	9.56		
Clubs level		Clubs level	
National	33.49	National	37.77
Division (flemish)	52.05	Division (flemish)	48.37
Provincial	14.22	Provincial	13.04
Other	0.24	Other	0.82

Factor analysis of the management and program effectiveness scale

Two principal component analyses with varimax rotation were carried out on respectively the management and program effectiveness scale to examine the underlying dimensions using the sample of board members. The final factor solution of the management effectiveness scale is presented in Table 2. Sixteen items of the management effectiveness scale did not meet a factor loading criterion and were excluded for further analysis. After these adjustments, factor analysis yielded twelve factors representing 40 items that explained 79.05% of the variance. The final twelve factors were labeled: Financial goal, Social goal, Societal goal , Human capital: other volunteers , Human capital: board members and coaches , Sport accommodation , Sport material , Atmosphere , Education, Stability, Communication , and Information. Chronbach's alpha's ranged from $\alpha = .68$ to $\alpha = .92$, and were considered to be satisfactory (Mueller, 1986; Nunnally, 1970).

The final factor solution of the program effectiveness scale is presented in Table 3. Twelve items of the program effectiveness scale did not meet a factor loading criterion and were excluded for further analysis. After these adjustments, factor analysis yielded nine factors representing 39 items that explained 68.95% of the variance. The final nine factors were labeled: Competition goal, Recreation goal, Societal goal, Safety, Human capital: sports members, Satisfaction, Atmosphere, Education, Information and communication. Chronbach's alpha's ranged from $\alpha = .77$ to $\alpha = .92$, and were considered to be satisfactory (Mueller, 1986; Nunnally, 1970).

Table 2. Factor Structure of Management Effectiveness Variables

Factors Management Effectiveness	Loadings	Communalities	% of variance	Reliability Alpha
Factor 1: Social goal			18.05	.91
Organizing social activities is an important goal in our club	.89	.85		
Organizing social activities is an important part in the daily functioning of our club	.86	.85		
Our club attaches a lot of importance to social activities	.82	.82		
Our club organizes yearly a lot of social activities	.71	.76		
Factor 2: Financial goal			10.89	.83
Our club has a positive financial result	.89	.85		
Our club is financially healthy	.84	.80		
Our club keeps to its estimated budgeting	.84	.77		
Our club has more revenues than expenditures	.79	.70		
Factor 3: Atmosphere			9.09	.88
There is an enthusiastic atmosphere in our club	.88	.88		
There is a sense of belonging in our club	.85	.82		
The atmosphere in our club is motivating	.79	.80		
The atmosphere in our club is relaxed	.64	.65		
Factor 4: Stability			7.55	.86
There is no large fluctuating member composition of the board	.87	.78		
There is no large fluctuating member composition of the different committees	.87	.82		
There is no large fluctuating member composition of volunteers	.81	.74		
There is no large fluctuating member composition of coaches	.75	.65		
Factor 5: Sport material			5.93	.92
Our club has sufficient qualitative and modern own sporting material to practice sports	.96	.94		
Our club has sufficient own sporting material to practice sports	.92	.90		
Our clubs can use qualitative sporting material to practice its sports	.90	.89		
Factor 6: Sport accommodation			5.41	.84
Our club utilizes the sports accommodation on its preferred sporting hours	.82	.82		
It is difficult for our club to obtain enough sporting hours in the sports accommodation*	.80	.74		
Acquiring a sporting accommodation is a difficult task for our club*	.80	.76		

Our club obtains yearly enough sporting hours in the sports accommodation	.71	.72		
Factor 7: Human capital: other volunteers			4.85	.90
It is easy for our club to find volunteers who weekly help with the organization of the training sessions	.87	.87		
It is easy for our club to find volunteers who help on club activities (e.g., member diner, party,…)	.85	.85		
It is easy for our club to find volunteers who help on official games	.84	.84		
Factor 8: Human capital: board members and coaches			4.24	.79
It is easy for our club to acquire qualified coaches	.92	.92		
It is easy for our club to acquire experienced coaches	.87	.86		
It is easy for our club to acquire competent board members	.65	.68		
Factor 9: Societal goal			3.71	.88
A board member or a coach can be suspended if he/she violates societal desired behavior (e.g., violence, theft,…)	.88	.83		
A board member or a coach can be dismissed if he/she violates societal desired behavior (e.g., violence, theft,…)	.87	.82		
A board member or a coach can be reprimanded if he/she violates societal desired behavior (e.g., violence, theft,…)	.72	.66		
Factor 10: Education			3.44	.68
Board members or coaches are supported to retrain and educate themselves	.80	.77		
Board members or coaches are obliged to retrain and educate themselves	.72	.77		
Our club finances the retraining and education of board members and coaches	.69	.61		
Factor 11: Information			3.19	.89
The report of a board meeting is sent to board members and coaches	.94	.93		
The report of a board meeting is accessible to board members and coaches	.92	.91		
Factor 12: Communication			2.68	.71
There are few misunderstandings in our club due to unclear agreements	.81	.72		
The communication in our club is well organized	.81	.63		
The provision of information is very well organized within our board	.60	.64		
Total variance explained			79.05	

*items are reversed before the scale is calculated

Table 3. Factor Structure of Program Effectiveness Variables

Factors Program Effectiveness	Loadings	Communalities	% of variance	Reliability Alpha
Factor 1: Societal goal			22.79	.92
A sports member can be suspended if he/she violates societal desired behavior (e.g., violence, theft,…)	.86	.80		
A sports member can be reprimanded if he/she violates societal desired behavior (e.g., violence, theft,…)	.83	.76		
A sports member can be suspended if he/she violates rules of fair play	.82	.74		
A sports member can be dismissed if he/she violates societal desired behavior (e.g., violence, theft,…)	.82	.71		
A sports member can be reprimanded if he/she violates rules of fair play	.82	.77		
A sports member can be dismissed if he/she violates rules of fair play	.76	.67		
Factor 2: Atmosphere among members			10.70	.86
There is a close connection among our sports members	.82	.81		
There is a sense of belonging among our sports members	.76	.65		
There is a good atmosphere among our sports members	.76	.72		
There is a healthy sense of competition among our sports members	.74	.68		
There are few frictions among our sports members	.61	.57		
Factor 3: Human capital: sports members			8.19	.88
Our club has to do a lot of efforts to acquire new sports members*	.86	.77		
Our club maintains every year sufficient sports members	.85	.80		
Our club has to do a lot of efforts to acquire new competition sports members*	.85	.73		
Our club acquires every year sufficient new sports members	.82	.76		
Factor 4: Competition goal			6.23	.83
Our competition team is successful in comparison with its opponents	.82	.74		
In general, our sports club is successful in competition	.80	.76		
Our club achieved the overall desired competition goal	.74	.70		
Our competition team succeeds in achieving its competition goal	.70	.55		
Factor 5: Satisfaction			5.76	.78
Our club has only satisfied sports members	.79	.76		
Our sports members are completely satisfied about the training sessions	.73	.65		
Our club receives few complaints of sports members	.68	.60		

Our sports members are completely satisfied about the club's operations	.68	.64		
Factor 6: Recreation goal			4.54	.83
First and foremost, our club attaches importance to amusement during training sessions	.83	.74		
Our club attaches more importance to amusement and pleasure than to the instruction of techniques and skills	.80	.71		
Our club attaches more importance to amusement and pleasure than to performances	.78	.66		
First and foremost, the training sessions are fun	.77	.68		
Factor 7: Safety			4.29	.80
Unsafe sporting material is not used	.83	.73		
Unsafe sporting material is replaced immediately	.83	.77		
Our cub only uses safe sporting material	.75	.71		
Safety is an absolute priority in our club	.56	.55		
Factor 8: Education			3.61	.77
Every year, our club organizes retraining for its sports members	.82	.73		
Our club attaches a lot of importance to additional retraining for its sports members	.78	.66		
Every year, our club organizes additional sports trainings for its sports members	.70	.58		
Every year, our club organizes club contests and competitions for its sports members	.62	.49		
Factor 9: Information and communication			2.85	.80
The provision of information is very well organized within our competition team	.76	.72		
There are few misunderstandings due to unclear agreements within our competition team	.68	.61		
Communications within our competition team is very well organized	.65	.68		
The coach informs the sports members sufficiently about his decisions	.42	.50		
Total variance explained			68.95	

*items are reversed before the scale is calculated

Management and program effectiveness

Table 4 presents the means and standard deviations for the management effectiveness dimensions and the program effectiveness dimensions. The most highly perceived management effectiveness dimensions are atmosphere (*M* = 5.91, *SD* = 0.82), societal goal (*M* = 5.86, *SD* = 1.19), and sport material (*M* = 5.69, *SD* = 1.22). Human capital: board members and coaches had the lowest mean (*M* = 3.56, *SD* = 1.52) which suggests that board members did not perceive that their club was effective on this dimension. The perception of board members about the dimension education was not very pronounced as the mean was around average (*M* = 4.18, *SD* = 1.49). For program effectiveness, board members perceived that their club was most effective on the dimension atmosphere (*M* = 5.82, *SD* = 0.66), followed by safety (*M* = 5.81, *SD* = 0.91), and information and communication (*M* = 5.52, *SD* = 0.81). Similarly, sports members also perceived that their club was most effective on the program effectiveness dimension atmosphere (*M* = 5.90, *SD* = 0.80), followed by safety (*M* = 5.64, *SD* = 0.99), and information and communication (*M* = 5.38, *SD* = 0.99). Both board and sports members had similar perceptions about the program dimensions that were rated as less effective. Board members did not perceive that their club was effective on the recreation goal (*M* = 4.02, *SD* = 1.45) and on education (*M* = 4.16, *SD* = 1.57) since the means were around average. Sports members also did not perceive that their club was effective on the program effectiveness dimensions education (*M* = 4.05, *SD* = 1.66) and recreation goal (*M* = 4.06, *SD* = 1.46).

The independent sample *t*-test revealed significant differences in effectiveness perceptions between board members and sports members for societal goal, safety, satisfaction, and information and communication. Board members perceived that their sports club was more effective on these four dimensions than sports members.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for the Management and Program Effectiveness Factors

	Board members (N = 431)		Sports members (N = 392)				
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Factors Management Effectiveness							
Financial goal	5.52	1.25					
Social goal	4.93	1.49					
Societal goal	5.86	1.19					
Human capital: other volunteers	4.46	1.50					
Human capital: board members and coaches	3.56	1.52					
Sport accommodation	4.58	1.63					
Sport material	5.69	1.22					
Atmosphere	5.91	0.82					
Education	4.18	1.49					
Stability	5.37	1.21					
Communication	5.17	1.16					
Information	5.14	1.73					
Factors Program Effectiveness							
Competition goal	5.13	1.16	5.18	1.32	-0.58	775	.56
Recreation goal	4.02	1.45	4.06	1.46	-0.37	811	.71
Societal goal	5.60	1.18	5.23	1.27	4.19**	768	< .01
Safety	5.81	0.91	5.64	0.99	2.58**	806	< .01
Human capital: sports members	4.56	1.37	4.50	1.37	0.60	802	.55
Satisfaction	5.24	0.90	5.05	1.08	2.63**	760	< .01
Atmosphere among members	5.82	0.66	5.90	0.80	-1.57	755	.12
Education	4.16	1.57	4.05	1.66	0.90	735	.37
Information and communication	5.52	0.81	5.38	0.99	2.20*	758	.03

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Importance of goals

Table 5 presents perceptions of importance attached to six goals in sports clubs. Both board members and sports members perceived the financial goal in their sports club as most important, followed by the recreation goal and the social goal. The independent sample *t*-test revealed a significant difference between board members (M = 16.83, SD = 3.97) and sports members (M = 16.00, SD = 3.58) for the importance attached to the financial goal ($t(817)$ = 3.15, $p < .01$), between board members (M = 16.39, SD = 2.87) and sports members (M = 15.68, SD = 3.22) for the importance attached to the recreation goal ($t(814)$ = 3.32, $p < .01$), and between board members (M = 16.11, SD = 2.68) and sports members (M = 15.29, SD = 3.06) for the importance attached to the social goal ($t(819)$ = 4.08, $p < .001$). There was also a significant difference between board members (M = 15.38, SD = 3.28) and sports members (M = 13.98, SD = 3.68) for the importance attached to the societal goal ($t(819)$ = 5.77, $p < .001$), and between board members (M = 14.78, SD = 3.81) and sports members (M = 13.88, SD = 4.10) for the importance attached to the safety goal ($t(816)$ = 3.27, $p < .01$).

Spearman's Rho revealed a significant correlation (r = 0.94; $p < .01$) between the importance of goal rankings between board members and sports members. Correlations between the importance attached to the six goals are presented in Table 6. Overall, correlations are weak. There are some moderate correlations (recreation-social goal; safety-social goal; safety-societal goal; social-societal).

Table 5. Differences in Perceptions Attached to Importance of Goals Between Board Members and Sports Members Using the Independent Sample t-test

Goals	Board members (N = 431)		Sports members (N = 392)				
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Financial goal	16.83	3.97	16.00	3.58	3.15**	817	.002
Competition goal	14.79	3.20	15.09	3.18	-1.37	818	.170
Recreation goal	16.39	2.87	15.68	3.22	3.32**	814	.001
Social goal	16.11	2.68	15.29	3.06	4.08**	819	<.001
Societal goal	15.38	3.28	13.98	3.68	5.77**	819	<.001
Safety	14.78	3.81	13.88	4.10	3.27**	816	.001

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Table 6. Correlations between importance of six goals (N = 823)

	Financial goal	Competition goal	Recreation goal	Social goal	Societal goal	Safety
Financial goal	-	0.21**	-0.06	0.15**	0.23**	0.27**
Competition goal	0.21**	-	-0.17**	0.01	0.16**	0.11**
Recreation goal	-0.06	-0.17**	-	0.46**	0.19**	0.17**
Social goal	0.15**	0.01	0.46**	-	0.52**	0.44**
Societal goal	0.23**	0.16**	0.19**	0.52**	-	0.63**
Safety	0.27**	0.11**	0.17**	0.44**	0.63**	-

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Predictors of overall success score of the club

Three multiple regressions were carried out to detect which effectiveness dimensions significantly predict the overall success score of the sports club (Table 7). The first multiple regression was conducted using the sample of board members. The dimensions of the management effectiveness scale were the independent variables and the overall success score of the club was the dependent variable. Results showed a significant regression ($F(12, 431) = 6.72$, $p < .001$). The management effectiveness dimensions collectively accounted for 17.70% of the variance. Results showed that the dimension human capital: board members and coaches ($\beta = 0.24$, $p < .001$) and the dimension atmosphere ($\beta = 0.32$, $p < .001$) were significant predictors of the overall success score of the sports club.

The second multiple regression was performed using the sample of board members and the dimensions of the program effectiveness scale as independent variables. The overall success score of the club was the dependent variable. Results showed a significant regression ($F(9, 431) = 18.21$, $p < .001$). The program effectiveness dimensions collectively accounted for 30.20% of the variance. The dimensions competition goal ($\beta = 0.29$, $p < .001$) and satisfaction ($\beta = 0.25$, $p < .001$) had the largest effect on the overall success score. The dimensions human capital: sports members ($\beta = 0.10$, $p < .05$), and information and communication ($\beta = 0.12$, $p < .05$) were also found to be significant predictors of the overall success score of the sports club.

The third multiple regression was conducted by using the sample of sports members. The dimensions of the program effectiveness scale were the independent variables and the

overall success score of the club was the dependent variable. Results showed a significant regression ($F(9, 392) = 25.36$, $p < .001$). The program effectiveness dimensions accounted for 39.40% of the variance. The dimensions competition goal ($\beta = 0.25$, $p < .003$) and human capital: sports members ($\beta = 0.24$, $p < .001$) had the largest effect on the dependent variable. Satisfaction ($\beta = 0.16$, $p < .01$), education ($\beta = 0.13$, $p < .01$) and information and communication ($\beta = 0.16$, $p < .05$) were also found to be significant predictors of the overall success score of the club.

Table 7. Results from Multiple Regressions using Management and Program Effectiveness Dimensions to Predict Overall Success Score of the club

Predictors	Board members (N = 431)					Sports members (N = 392)				
	B	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*p*
Factors management effectiveness										
(Constant)	53.72	4.18		12.87**	<.001					
Financial goal	0.10	0.36	0.02	0.29	.770					
Social goal	0.06	0.33	0.01	0.19	.851					
Societal goal	-0.43	0.40	-0.06	-1.09	.277					
Human capital: other volunteers	-0.18	0.32	-0.03	-0.55	.581					
Human capital: board members and coaches	1.27	0.31	0.24	4.07**	<.001					
Sport accommodation	-0.28	0.27	-0.06	-1.04	.300					
Sport material	0.03	0.36	0.00	0.07	.942					
Atmosphere	3.16	0.60	0.32	5.28**	<.001					
Education	0.12	0.30	0.02	0.40	.692					
Stability	-0.32	0.34	-0.05	-0.92	.359					
Communication	0.61	0.39	0.09	1.55	.122					
Information	0.20	0.25	0.04	0.78	.434					
Factors program effectiveness										
(Constant)	42.64	4.12		10.34**	<.001	40.12	3.54		11.33**	<.001
Competition goal	2.11	0.36	0.29	5.87**	<.001	1.72	0.32	0.25	5.45**	<.001
Recreation goal	-0.33	0.29	-0.05	-1.15	.252	0.23	0.31	0.04	0.75	.45
Societal goal	-0.28	0.35	-0.04	-0.80	.425	-0.43	0.34	-0.06	-1.28	.20
Safety	-0.42	0.47	-0.04	-0.90	.368	-0.05	0.46	-0.01	-0.11	.91
Human capital: sports members	0.62	0.28	0.10	2.23*	.027	1.62	0.30	0.24	5.34**	<.001
Satisfaction	2.29	0.51	0.25	4.50**	<.001	1.39	0.52	0.16	2.68**	.008
Atmosphere among members	1.08	0.73	0.08	1.49	.137	0.87	0.63	0.08	1.38	.168
Education	0.03	0.25	0.01	0.13	.893	0.72	0.26	0.13	2.83**	.005
Information and communication	1.21	0.59	0.12	2.04*	.042	1.50	0.60	0.16	2.51*	.012

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Discussion

Theoretical distinction

The present study contributed to the field of effectiveness by considering effectiveness at two levels of analysis, a management and a program level. Previous sport management studies have considered organizational effectiveness by addressing only one unit of analysis (e.g., Koski, 1995; Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000; Shilbury & Moore, 2006). Papadimitriou and Taylor (2000) identified five factors, whereas Shilbury and Moore (2006) identified ten factors to measure effectiveness. Both studies focused on national sport organizations. Koski (1995) identified five factors that measured effectiveness in sports clubs. However, these studies did not made a distinction between sports related and management related issues. Sowa et al. (2004) argued that nonprofit organizational effectiveness should comprise a management and program level. We argued that this distinction is appropriate for addressing organizational effectiveness in sports clubs. The majority of sports clubs are nonprofit organizations that are administered by volunteers and that offer intangible services to their members. The volunteer board is responsible for the everyday organization within the sports club. The intangible services such as sports originate from the dedication of coaches and sports members. Since these variables refer to different levels, we subscribe the theoretical premise of Sowa et al. (2004) to differentiate between management and program effectiveness. Since no appropriate measurement scale exists, we developed an instrument to measure management and program effectiveness in sports clubs. Both the sample of board members and sports members subscribed to a multidimensional approach of effectiveness in sports clubs. This was reflected in the emergence of 12 management and 9 program effectiveness dimensions that resulted from the factor analyses. The measurement instrument can be applied by practitioners to assess the level of effectiveness in their organization. However, further research is necessary to confirm the validity and reliability of the measurement instrument. We used exploratory factor analysis to explore the possible underlying factor structure of a set of observed variables. By using exploratory factor analysis, we identified the underlying factor structure according to how participants respond. Further research might verify the factor structure that emerged from this study using confirmatory factor analysis. In addition, discriminant function analysis may be used to determine which variables discriminate between two or more constituent groups.

Perceptions of effectiveness

Board members considered the atmosphere in their sports club as most effective, both at management and program level. They also perceived atmosphere as a significant predictor of the overall success score of the sports club. At the program level, sports members also considered the dimension atmosphere as most effective. Board members perceived that their sports club was not effective in acquiring human resources such as board members, coaches and other volunteers, and acquiring board members and coaches was found to have a significant effect on whether board members perceived their sports club to be successful or not. This result supported Seippel's (2004) findings who found that lack of volunteers and lack of leaders and trainers were the most important obstacles of Norwegian sports clubs in order to offer their members a better supply of activities in the future. Cuskelly (2005) found that there was especially a decline in volunteer career lengths and in median annual hours contributed per volunteer. Effective management of volunteer resources is an area that should be given more attention since the pressure increases for more professionalization in sport organizations that are administered by volunteers (Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, & Darcy, 2006; Kim, Chelladurai, & Trail, 2007). Cuskelly et al. (2006) found evidence that human resource management (HRM) planning practices were linked with fewer perceived problems in volunteer retention. In our study, the dimension education of board members and coaches was perceived as not effective. Thus, research that focuses on the necessary education programs for volunteers and on indispensable HRM practices might be excellent tools to increase volunteer retention.

In addition, it is plausible that an increased attention to education and to HRM practices also might have a positive effect on the commitment of volunteers and on the competencies of volunteers. Cuskelly, McIntyre and Boag (1998) stated that organizational commitment of volunteers is critical to the effective organization, i.e., the extent to which sport organizations achieve their goals. Organizational commitment is a form of affective attachment to an organization. Since volunteers are not remunerated for their services, their involvement and commitment to the sports club depends on their affective state, thus, the benefits of volunteering are value-based (Cuskelly et al., 1998). In a study on country race clubs, Hoye (2007) found that affective commitment was a significant predictor of perceived board member performance. Time spent on board roles, measured by number of hours, was also found to predict perceived board member performance. Balduck, Van Rossem and Buelens (2009) found that commitment, involvement and motivation are perceived to be

important competencies of outstanding performing board members. Thus, committed board members positively affect board member performance. Moreover, it is assumed that organizational effectiveness and board effectiveness is correlated (Herman & Renz, 2000). Especially effective nonprofit organizations have more effective boards and these boards use significantly more recommended board practices. Balduck et al. (2009) found that outstanding performing board members should possess cognitive, emotional intelligence and social intelligence competencies. Thus, if education and HRM practices lead to more committed board members and to more competent board members, this might be an excellent vehicle in enhancing overall effectiveness since committed and competent board members contribute to increase board member performance, which in turn contributes to board effectiveness and overall effectiveness. Further research should test these assumptions.

Nichols and Shepherd (2006) suggested that sports clubs may provide an important role in the lives of those who are not actively involved any more in sports, but whose identity is still associated with the sport or with the club. In our study, board and sports members rated the social goal in their sports clubs as the third most important goal, suggesting that the social benefits of being a member of a sports club is an important trigger for sports membership and volunteering (Taylor et al., 2003). This is also reflected in the result that atmosphere and satisfaction were significant predictors in the overall success score of the club.

Although board members and sports members had similar perceptions about which effectiveness program dimensions were seen as most effective and as most ineffective, there were also some differences in perceptions of program effectiveness dimensions. Board members considered the effectiveness of the program dimensions safety, societal goal, satisfaction, and information and communication higher than sports members did. This finding supported results of Papadimitriou and Taylor (2000) who found that there was no consensus in effectiveness perceptions between different interest groups of Hellenic NSOs. Other studies (e.g., Callen, Klein, & Tinkelman, 2003; Herman & Renz, 1997) supported the statement that different constituents do make different judgments about effectiveness. According to stakeholder theory (Freeman & Phillips, 1996; Phillips, Freeman & Wicks, 2003) and in accordance with the thoughts of Crozier and Friedberg (1980), stakeholders or constituent groups can affect or are affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives. An understanding of the different motives, claims, judgments or perceptions of important stakeholders is therefore important to warrant the objectives of the organization and finally, to warrant its survival. Our measurement model can be used as a practical tool allowing that different constituent groups judge the effectiveness of their sports clubs by using

the management and/or program effectiveness scale. This information is useful to understand how different constituents perceive the effectiveness of their sports clubs and to understand which effectiveness dimensions they consider as most important. Accordingly, the board of the sports club can set up strategies and can take actions to improve effectiveness in their sports club.

Importance of sports clubs' goals

Board members and sports members significantly differed in their perceptions attached to the importance of goals of sports clubs. Board members rated the importance attached to the financial, recreation, social, societal and safety goal higher than sports members did. This was in contrast to findings of Trail and Chelladurai (2000) who found that students of intercollegiate athletics perceived five performance goals – visibility and prestige, financial security, winning, entertainment, and national sport development – as more important than faculty members. In our study, both board members and sports members rated the importance attached to the competition goal similarly. Besides differences in perceptions attached to importance of goals, it was somewhat surprising that both board and sports members rated the financial goal as the most important goal in sports clubs. This finding suggested that financial resource acquisition and administering finances is a crucial element in the sports clubs' functioning. Since sports clubs often have limited financial resources, such as membership and sponsoring, effectiveness of sports clubs might be partially dependent on the ability to obtain financial resources. Jackson and Holland (1998) found moderate correlations between their financial performance measure and various board practices, suggesting that finances are important to achieve organizational effectiveness. Although board members and sports members significantly differed in their perceptions attached to the importance of sports clubs' goals, the rankings of the importance of goals between board members and sports members did not differ. Thus, although board members had higher means on the six goals compared to the means of sports members, both groups ranked the six goals more or less similar.

Predictors of overall success score of sports clubs

At the management level, atmosphere and acquiring board members and coaches were found to be significant predictors of whether board members perceived the sports club to be successful. At the program level, both board members and sports members indicated that

fulfilling the competition goal was the most important predictor. Both groups of respondents also indicated that satisfaction and human capital were significant predictors. Thus, although sports clubs are embedded in leisure activities, respondents indicated that sports clubs should first and foremost obtain their competition goal in order to be perceived as successful. However, since sports are associated with leisure time, participation in sports clubs should also add to amusement and distraction of both board and sports members. Therefore, sports clubs should consider to focus also on recreational sporting activities for sports members who are not interested in participating in competition.

Limitations

Besides the contributions to the effectiveness literature, we have to recognize a number of limitations. First, the sample was limited to sports clubs of team sports so that generalization of the results should be dealt with caution. Most of these sports clubs participate in official competition. Further research should assess program and management effectiveness in other samples such as sports clubs of individual sports, recreational sports clubs or NSOs. Second, this study only focused on board members and sports members. Since our study supported the finding that different constituencies have different effectiveness perceptions, perceptions of other stakeholders such as sponsors, officials, parents or members of local authorities might be considered as well. Third, the cross-sectional design of our study did not allow to pass judgments on changes in effectiveness perceptions over time. Fourth, common method bias could be an issue since responses were gathered from the same source using the same measurement instrument. Harman's single factor test was used to address the issue of common method variance. The items of the final model were loaded into principal components exploratory factor analysis and the unrotated factor solution was examined. Substantial common method variance was absent since neither a single factor emerged from the factor analysis, nor one general factor accounted for the majority of the covariance among the measures (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In addition, respondents anonymity was assured, we assured that there were no right or wrong answers and we asked the respondents to answer as honestly as possible. There were also some items that did not have the same response format. These items had to be reversed. Although these measures diminish common method bias, its total absence has not been proven. Fifth, we gathered data from one board and one sports member from a sports club. Further research should test for the interrater reliability in order to reveal whether respondents within a group share the same

perceptions and opinions about the effectiveness of their sports club. Sixth, in accordance with the theoretical framework, a distinction was made between program and management effectiveness as two separate levels of analysis. Therefore, we do not have insight into possible interaction effects between the management and program level when predicting the overall success score of the club. Further research might deal with possible interaction effects when predicting an overall score of the sports club.

Conclusions

Effectiveness studies are necessary since the pressure to increase professionalization in sports clubs denotes that sports clubs are forced to provide a service that is more comparable to private and public sectors (Nichols et al., 2005). Nonprofit organizations such as sports clubs have to be critical in their performances to secure the survival of their organizations (Rojas, 2000). Sports clubs are urged to be accountable for their performances (Shilbury & Moore, 2006). This study contributed to the effectiveness quest by focusing on the management and program effectiveness level (Sowa et al., 2004). This split up was supported by the distinction between for-profit and nonprofit organizations. The raison d'être of the former is profit while the raison d'être of the latter is built on their mission (Baruh & Ramalho, 2006). Although nonprofit organizations do have financial concerns, profit making is not their primary goal. Cameron and Quinn (2006) stated that no one framework is comprehensive and that there is no such thing as good or wrong. Frameworks should be valid for the organization one studies and should integrate the dimensions that are relevant for the organization. Our conceptual perspective and its measurement scale offered a different perspective to consider effectiveness. It can be used by practitioners as a practical tool to measure the level of effectiveness on the different management and program dimensions, and subsequently, it can be used as a means to tune the sports clubs' policy. The results of this study indicated that perceived social benefits of sports clubs is an important trigger for sports membership or volunteering as a board member. This research contributed to confirm the conventional wisdom that sport as a social institution is worthwhile, responsible, and good for people.

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Chapter 4

Identifying Competencies of Volunteer Board Members of Community Sports Clubs

Note: parts of the introduction section of this paper are comparable to parts presented in the general introduction section of this thesis

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Abstract

This study contributes to the emerging empirical studies on roles and responsibilities of boards in nonprofit organizations by identifying competencies of volunteer board members. We identified how two types of constituents—volunteer board members and sports members—perceived competencies of volunteer board members in community sports clubs. We used the repertory grid technique to draw cognitive maps and to reveal the perceived reality of these constituents. Our results suggest that constituents within a group share similar perceptions of competencies of outstanding performing board members, whereas they agree less on perceptions of poor performing board members. This study reveals that cognitive (e.g., having a long-term vision, having professionalism), emotional (e.g., being reliable, being honest), and social intelligence (e.g., listening to others, being jovial/nice to be with) competencies are necessary to be perceived as an outstanding performing board member.

Keywords: Competencies, Boards, Cognitive maps, Board member, Emotional intelligence

Introduction

Volunteer boards of nonprofit organizations are critical assets in the overall performance of their organizations (Brown, 2005, 2007; Herman & Renz, 2000, 2004; Iecovich, 2004). They consist of members engaging on a voluntary basis, without being paid for their commitment. The effectiveness of these boards, however, has long been considered problematic (Cornforth, 2001; Herman & Renz, 2004). For example, Harris (1999) argued that either boards interfere too much in management operations or, contrarily, that they do not get involved enough. As a result, there is a growing interest in the study of nonprofit board effectiveness and board performance that focuses on the roles and responsibilities of volunteer boards. Our study addressed the requirements for being an effective volunteer board member in terms of competencies rather than discussing the roles and responsibilities of volunteer board members. Competencies are important to study because board members who possess the necessary skills and knowledge as well as personality traits are assumed to be more effective (Leblanc, 2005; Lee & Phan, 2000). Therefore, it is important that nonprofit organizations look for the necessary competencies when recruiting new board members or when evaluating present board members. We define a competency as "an underlying characteristic of a person in that it may be a motive, trait, skill, aspect of one's self-image, social role, or a body of knowledge which results in superior performance" (Boyatzis, 1982, p. 21). We studied how two constituent groups, volunteer board members and sports members of a community sports club, perceived the required competencies of volunteer board members of sports clubs. Repertory grid technique (RGT) was used, a cognitive mapping technique that allows researchers to elicit individuals' perceptions of reality or mental models.

In the first section, we analyze the nonprofit literature on roles and responsibilities of boards and we discuss the relevant literature in nonprofit sport organizations. In the second section, we clarify our theoretical focus. In the third section, we describe our sample and explain our methodological choices. In the fourth section, we present the results of the empirical study and in the fifth section, we discuss our results, draw conclusions, and point to limitations of this study.

Literature Review

Studies on Boards in Nonprofit Organizations

Early nonprofit literature on boards was dominated by a prescriptive style of authorship (e.g., Carver, 1990; Ducca, 1996; Houle, 1989; O'Connell, 1985). This literature prescribes standards about how a board ought to perform and offers guidelines for the roles of the board and the executive (Bradshaw, Murray, & Wolpin, 1992; Hoye & Cuskelly, 2003a; Miller-Millesen, 2003). Herman (1989) reviewed the prescriptive literature and concluded that there is a great deal of similarity between the different prescriptive models. Although some prescriptive standards for boards are still useful today, this practitioner-oriented kind of literature has been criticized for its lack of systematic empirical evidence (Cornforth, 2001; Jackson & Holland, 1998).

Starting in the 1990s, empirical nonprofit studies focusing on the competencies, roles, and responsibilities of volunteer boards began to emerge (e.g., Green, Madjidi, Dudley, & Gehlen, 2001; Iecovich, 2004; Inglis, Alexander, & Weaver, 1999; Jackson & Holland, 1998). Inglis et al. (1999) developed an inverted pyramid approach that identified three main activities of the board: strategic activities, resource planning, and operations. The measurement instrument contained 14 items that were generated from the relevant nonprofit literature. Of the 14 items on board roles and responsibilities, 7 were rated as high in importance: responding to community needs, ensuring a mission and vision, developing and assessing long-range plans and overall strategy, setting financial policy, setting policy from which paid staff and program volunteers can deliver programs and services, developing collaborations and partnerships, and evaluating the executive director/CEO's performance. This framework suggested that strategic activities are the core tasks of a board, proceeding down to resource planning and then to operations. Jackson and Holland (1998) developed the Board Self-Assessment Questionnaire (BSAQ), a 65-item questionnaire to assess six dimensions of board competency: interpersonal, analytical, political, strategic, contextual, and educational. These six dimensions captured the elements necessary to effective governance. In a study of nonprofit hospital boards, McDonagh (2008) found that the six competencies of the BSAQ are all important for effective boards. Strategic focus in particular was found to be related to the measure of organizational effectiveness.

Different constituents do make judgments about the board and the organizational effectiveness of their organization (Callen, Klein, & Tinkelman, 2003; Herman, Renz, &

Heimovics, 1997). Empirical studies found differences in judgments by various constituents assessing roles and responsibilities of boards. Green et al. (2001) examined whether board members and executive directors differed in how they perceive what board members should do and what they currently did. The perceptions of board members and executive directors were significantly different in terms of what boards should do, especially in the areas of setting mission and policy, strategic planning, financial management, and dispute resolution. Iecovich (2004) compared perceptions of board roles and responsibilities by chairpersons and by executive directors. Chairpersons perceived that boards were more involved in roles relating to fiscal areas and relationships with the task environment than perceived by executive directors.

Some studies focused on individual board member performance. Preston and Brown (2004) found a positive relationship between board member performance and affective commitment or the sense of being emotionally attached to the organization. Executive directors perceived board members who were emotionally attached to the nonprofit organization as more actively involved and as highly valuable. Board members, who reported strong affective commitment, indicated being actively engaged in board member behaviors such as donating more hours to the organization, having better meeting attendance, serving on more committees, and making larger financial contributions to the nonprofit organization. Being committed and being engaged in board member behaviors were factors that affected perceptions of board member performance. Brown (2007) studied whether using recommended recruitment, board member orientation, and evaluation practices results in more competent board members and leads to better board performance. Both executive directors and chairpersons shared the perception that board development practices lead to more capable board members and that the presence of these board members affects board performance.

This review indicates that research on boards in nonprofit organizations moved from a prescriptive style of authorship towards studies that were grounded with empirical evidence. The main focus of these nonprofit studies were roles and responsibilities of volunteer boards.

Studies on Boards in Nonprofit Sport Organizations

In most western countries, almost all sporting competitions are organized by nonprofit sport organizations. The common feature of these organizations is their nonprofit goal to offer sporting opportunities for their members. Although numerous sport organizations still operate only with volunteers, government grants have transformed some of the solely volunteer-

administered sport organizations into sport organizations with professional paid staff supported by a cadre of volunteers (Schulz & Auld, 2006; Shilbury & Moore, 2006). There is an increasing body of research focusing on and contributing to our understanding of boards in nonprofit sport organizations. Researchers are interested in a broad area of topics such as board–executive relationships (e.g., Auld & Godbey, 1998; Hoye & Cuskelly, 2003a, 2003b), role ambiguity and leadership (e.g., Inglis, 1997b; Schulz & Auld, 2006), cohesion and norms (e.g., Doherty & Carron, 2003; Doherty, Patterson, & Van Bussel, 2004), and organizational structure and change (e.g., Kikulis, 2000). Only a few studies (Hoye, 2007; Inglis, 1997a, 1997b; Papadimitriou, 1999; Shilbury, 2001) focused on competencies, roles, and responsibilities of boards in nonprofit sport organizations.

Inglis (1997a) offered initial findings on board roles of amateur sport organizations. The measurement instrument covers 17 roles that were derived from Murray, Bradshaw, and Wolpin's (1991) study on Canadian nonprofit boards and from the normative literature. Factor analysis revealed four factors of board roles, which she labeled *role of mission*, *role of planning*, *role of executive director*, and *role of community relations*. The role of setting policy from which paid staff and program volunteers can deliver programs and services did not load on any of the four factors. The results suggested that board roles of amateur sport organizations are in line with those described in the nonprofit normative literature and with those found in empirical studies on nonprofit boards. Executive directors, board presidents, and volunteer board members homogeneously rated the importance of the four factors. Volunteer board members, however, rated the performance of the board on planning, community relations, and setting policy significantly higher than did the executive directors. Shilbury (2001) addressed nine board roles that referred to Inglis's (1997a) factors, namely, role of planning, role of community relations, and role of setting policy. The results showed that board members of Victorian sport organizations rated the importance of all board roles higher than executives did. Both groups, however, showed agreement on the board roles that they considered as more important. In addition, both groups of respondents indicated that the board role of strategy will be more important in the future. Board members also indicated that their sport experience and knowledge of the state sporting organization were the most important special skills they brought to the board. Executive directors also believed that sport experience was their most important expertise, followed by policy development. This was supported by Inglis (1997b), who identified good citizenship, which covers sport experience and knowledge of the sport, as the most important expertise and reason for board involvement. Papadimitriou (1999) addressed the issue in Greek national sport organizations.

Semi-structured interviews were carried out with five constituent groups: board members, paid administrative staff, technical staff, national team athletes, and state representatives. The various constituents tended to agree that motivated, competent, and influential board members are a prerequisite to improve the effective operation of an organization. However, there were also differences between the various constituents. Board members and administrative staff indicated that less tangible assets (strong motivation, personality traits, values, and positive attitudes) are more important for board member effectiveness, whereas elite athletes perceived familiarity with the sport as most relevant. Technical staff associated more tangible attributes such as familiarity with the sport, being intelligent, being able to make sensible decisions, and being able to influence public and state opinions for sport issues with the effectiveness of volunteer sport boards. In a study of country race clubs without paid staff, Hoye (2007) found that affective commitment, the sense of being emotionally attached to the organization, was a significant predictor of perceived board member performance. Time spent on board roles, measured by number of hours, was also found to predict perceived board member performance.

The studies on boards in sport organizations mainly focused on roles and responsibilities of boards. The results of these studies are in line with those found in nonprofit literature. According to Brown (2007), the identification of competencies of board members in nonprofit organizations has been lacking. Obtaining competent and capable board members is, however, vital for board performance as they can bring knowledge, skills, relationships, and money into the nonprofit organization (Brown, 2007). The present study attempts to fill this research void by addressing competencies of volunteer board members in community sports clubs. Volunteer boards and executive committees are the pillars of community sports clubs (Doherty et al., 2004). The boards are responsible for the strategy, formulation, and execution of decisions, as there are no paid staff members in the majority of community sports clubs.

Theoretical Background

We used the conceptual framework of Boyatzis (2008) to categorize the elicited competencies. Boyatzis identified three factors—individual competencies, job demands, and organizational environment—that add to effective job performance. In our study, we focus on the individual competencies factor. Individual competencies comprise motives, traits, self-image, social role, skills, and knowledge and they indicate what a person is capable of doing

(Williams, 2008). The individual competencies consist of three clusters, cognitive, emotional, and social intelligence competencies, and they differentiate outstanding from average and bad performers. A cognitive intelligence competency is defined as "the ability to think or analyze information and situations that leads to or causes effective or superior performance" (Boyatzis, 2008, p. 8). Emotional intelligence competency is defined as "the ability to recognize, understand, and use emotional information about oneself that leads to or causes effective or superior performance" (Boyatzis, 2008, p. 8), and includes self-awareness and self-management competencies. Social intelligence competency is defined as "the ability to recognize, understand and use emotional information about others that leads to or causes effective or superior performance" (Boyatzis, 2008, p. 8), and comprises social awareness and relationship management competencies. Competencies can be developed because people are able to change their moods, behaviors, and self-image. It is argued that differentiating competencies distinguish superior from average performers (Boyatzis, 2008; Spencer & Spencer, 1993; Williams, 2008).

Methodology

Participants

A convenience sampling method was used to identify volunteers who were willing to participate in the study. At least one board member and one sports member from the same sports club had to participate. A total of 26 volunteer board members and 28 sports members of 23 different sports clubs (soccer, athletics, tennis, table tennis, volleyball, basketball, gymnastics, dance, handball, badminton, swimming, and cycling) participated in the study. This resulted in 54 in-depth repertory grid interviews. This sample is sufficient because a size of 15 to 25 interviewees generates sufficient constructs to approximate the universe of meaning surrounding a given situation (Easterby-Smith, 1980). The mean age of volunteer board members was 47.04 (*SD* = 11.55) years and they had participated as a volunteer board member in their current club for an average 7.52 (*SD* = 6.67) years. Seventy percent (or 18 respondents) were men and 30% (or 8 respondents) were women. Nine respondents served as chairperson, 5 served as secretary, 1 served as treasurer and 11 were board members. The mean age of sports members was 23.64 (*SD* = 3.97) years. Seventy-nine percent (or 22 respondents) were men and 21% (or 6 respondents) were women. Sports members

participated in their sports for an average 14.29 (*SD* = 4.16) years, and they were active in their current club for an average 6.96 (*SD* = 5.36) years.

Cognitive Mapping Techniques

The goal of this study was to elicit respondents' cognitive maps of competencies of volunteer board members. The intention in drawing a cognitive map is to describe an individual's or a collectivity's mental model or conscious perception of reality (Fiol & Huff, 1992). Several methods for eliciting cognitive maps exist such as classic interviews, semi-structured interviews (e.g., RGT), and the self Q-test for causal mapping. We chose RGT to elicit volunteer board and sports club members' perceptions of competencies of volunteer board members. RGT is a valid and rigorous technique that minimizes researcher bias compared to other cognitive mapping techniques (Hodgkinson, 1997; Wright, 2004). RGT is appropriate for analyzing the composition of mental models and for comparing people's mental models (Hodgkinson, 2005; Tan & Hunter, 2002). RGT allows eliciting competencies that are not revealed using other methods (Huff, 1990). RGT also has many applications within different disciplines, especially in management research (Tan & Hunter, 2002).

Repertory Grid Technique (RGT)

RGT is based on Kelly's (1955) "personal construct theory" which views people's actions as being determined by how they understand situations and people. This theory posits that bipolar constructs are the prime mechanism used by individuals to organize and interpret the mass of stimuli that confronts them. Bipolar constructs can be seen as basic facets of a person's cognitive appraisal of the environment. According to Kelly (1955), bipolar constructs are finite in number and their genre depends on the topic or objects to which they apply. Examples of bipolar constructs are good versus bad, happy versus sad, white versus gray.

Method

In our research, the relevant environment consisted of different types of volunteer board members of sports clubs. The bipolar constructs were not given but elicited from the respondents themselves by using Kelly's original procedure for eliciting constructs, the triadic

minimum context form[1]. First, respondents were asked to think of real volunteer board members they actually knew: three outstanding performing volunteer board members of a community sports club, three average performing volunteer board members of a community sports club, and three poor performing volunteer board members of a community sports club. In RGT methodology, these nine volunteer board members are labeled elements. Elements can be objects, other people, things, or ideas (Kelly, 1955, p. 137). Examples of elements are brands of products, names of persons or concepts. Neimeyer and Hagans (2002) suggested that the dataset is richer, more differentiated, and more consistent when respondents themselves provide the elements.

Second, the initials of the elements (or the volunteer board members) and the group (outstanding performing, average performing, or poor performing volunteer board member) were written on blank cards. A card-sort exercise was performed to elicit bipolar constructs. Respondents were informed that the goal of the study was to identify competencies of volunteer board members. Respondents then were asked to select at random three cards or three elements. This is called a triad. Respondents were asked to identify "any way in which any two of these elements (volunteer board members) are alike in some way, yet different from the third element (volunteer board member)". Respondents had to take all elements in the triad into consideration. This leads to better differentiation of bipolar constructs (Hagans, Neimeyer, & Goodholm, 2000). An elicited bipolar construct, as for example "honest vs. liar", is a competency that respondents used to differentiate between outstanding performing, average performing, and poor performing volunteer board members. Triading was repeated until respondents did not mention new constructs. There is no minimum or maximum number of triads. According to Kelly (1955), a number of triads between 7 and 10 is most common. For more details on different RGT eliciting methods, see Hagans et al. (2000) and Neimeyer, Bowman, and Saferstein (2005)[2].

Third, if respondents did not understand the card-sort exercise, a cue or example was given. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, and Holman (1996) warned for giving cues or examples, because cues or examples imply the researcher's cognitive structure. Therefore, the example that we used to illustrate was simple and had nothing to do with the researched topic: "Suppose two of the elements (or board members) are wearing red clothes and the third element (or board member) is wearing black clothes. Identify the two alike elements from the third element and explain why. You could argue that the two alike elements love the red color because they are wearing red clothes and you could argue that the third element loves the

black color because this person is wearing black clothes". The bipolar construct in this case is "loving red color versus loving black color". We repeated this example if cues were needed.

Fourth, the elicited bipolar constructs were inventoried on grid sheets. Afterwards, these elicited bipolar constructs were used to perform the content analysis which is described in detail in the results section. After triading, respondents were asked to rate on a 7-point Likert-type scale how the elicited bipolar constructs applied to each of the nine elements (or board members). When a construct elicited from the two alike elements was applicable to the element, a rating toward 7 was appropriate. When a construct elicited from the single element was applicable to the element, a rating toward 1 was appropriate. This rating allowed us to study the association between the elicited constructs and the elements, and was used to perform the variability analysis (Easterby-Smith et al., 1996). Analyses were performed using SPSS15 and Idiogrid software.

Results

The rating process resulted in 54 two-dimensional matrices (based on the grid) of numerical values. This 9*n matrix, where 9 is the number of elements and n is the number of bipolar constructs, was subjected to content analysis and to calculation of basic and explorative statistical analysis. In total, 852 bipolar constructs were elicited by the 54 respondents, such as "being creative/boring", "being manipulative/honest", "being democratic/dictatorial", and "having experience/having no experience". Board members elicited 416 bipolar constructs and sports members elicited 436 bipolar constructs. The number of bipolar constructs produced per respondent varied between 8 and 30 (M = 15.78; SD = 6.08). There was no significant difference, $t(52) = 0.60$; $p = 0.80$, between the number of bipolar constructs produced between volunteer board members (M = 16.00; SD = 6.50) and sports members (M = 15.57; SD = 5.76), which indicates that both constituents share the same cognitive complexity (Ginsberg, 1989). Cognitive complexity refers to the degree of intricacy involved in making assumptions about what are outstanding performing, average performing and poor performing volunteer board members of sports clubs. It is described as how multifaceted a respondent perceives the domain he or she is assessing and interpreting. For example, a low cognitive complexity implies that one uses few constructs to interpret the world.

Content Analysis

A content analysis was performed to compare the cognitive maps across individuals. Content analysis summarizes the different meanings in the respondents' grids by categorizing these meanings and by counting similarities and differences within each category (Neuendorf, 2002).

First, all elicited bipolar constructs were listed into an inventory. Second, Janckowicz's (2003) categorization procedure was applied to reduce the set of elicited bipolar constructs into construct categories which refer to the same competency. Thus a construct category or competency is a collection of similar bipolar constructs. Two researchers independently performed the categorization procedure. The categorization procedure is a two-stage process, of developing categories from the data and allocating the bipolar constructs to the construct categories. Category labels were not identified beforehand. The coders categorized the elicited bipolar constructs of the inventory into freely chosen construct categories or competencies. Bipolar constructs that were unclassifiable were categorized into a miscellaneous category.

Third, the categorization of both coders was compared and measures of interrater agreement were calculated. The miscellaneous category was not considered for the calculation of interrater agreement. It was not possible to calculate traditional interrater agreement scores such as Cohen's Kappa because the categories were not specified in advance. Thus, we calculated a measure of agreement for the board member data and for the sports member data as set out by Janckowicz (2003). Of the 416 elicited bipolar constructs of the board member data, both coders allocated 297 identical bipolar constructs to the same created construct categories. This resulted in an interrater agreement score of 71.40% (297/416). If we only selected the bipolar constructs of the construct categories that both coders agreed on, 407 constructs were left. Of these 407 bipolar constructs, both coders allocated 297 identical bipolar constructs to the same construct categories. This resulted in an interrater agreement score of 72.97% (297/407). Of the 436 elicited bipolar constructs of the sports member data, both coders allocated 269 identical bipolar constructs to the same created construct categories. This resulted in an interrater agreement score of 61.70% (269/436). If we selected only the bipolar constructs of the construct categories that both coders agreed on, 394 constructs were left. Of these 394 bipolar constructs, both coders allocated 269 identical bipolar constructs to the same construct categories. This resulted in an interrater agreement score of 68.27%

(269/394). These findings indicated that the content analysis may be considered reliable (Janckowicz, 2003).

Fourth, after the individual categorization procedure, disagreements between the coders were resolved by discussion. The coders negotiated until 100% agreement was reached on the final categorization and on the labels of the construct categories. These data were used in further analyses. For clarity, we only reported the construct categories that referred to competencies of outstanding performing board members (e.g., for the bipolar construct category "being honest/being a liar", the construct being honest is presented.) Table 1 presents the construct categories or competencies, the frequency of elicited bipolar constructs per construct category, and the frequency of respondents eliciting the construct category.

The construct categories or competencies that board members most frequently used to judge outstanding performing volunteer board members of community sports clubs are "time spent or hard-working" (61.54%), "listening to others" (61.54%), "having good communication skills" (57.69%), "being motivated" (50.00%), "being jovial, nice to be with" (50.00%), and "club interest vs. egoism/self interest" (50.00%). The construct categories or competencies that sports members most frequently used to judge outstanding performing volunteer board members of sports clubs are "being honest" (67.86%), "time spent/hard-working" (57.14%), "listening to others" (50.00%), "having a long term vision" (46.43%), "well-liked" (46.43%), "being jovial/nice to be with" (46.43%), "having charisma" (46.43%), and "being modest" (46.43%). Respectively 42.31% and 26.92% of the board members used the construct category "dealing with stress" and "representing the club" as a discriminating competency when evaluating volunteer board members, while these construct categories were not elicited by any sports member. On the other hand, respectively 46.43% and 32.14% of the sports members used the construct category "having charisma" and "having good relations with sports members" as a discriminating competency when evaluating volunteer board members, whereas none of the board members elicited these construct categories. Significant differences (based on Pearson's chi-square test, corrected by Yates' correction for continuity for small data, seen as when at least one cell of the table had an expected frequency less than 5) were found between the number of board members (n = 10) and sports members (n = 19) for "being honest," $\chi 2$ (1, N = 54) = 4.69, p = 0.03; between board members (n = 8) and sports members (n = 1) for "having passion for club," $\chi 2$ (1, N = 54) = 5.36, p = 0.02; between board members (n = 4) and sports members (n = 13) for "being modest," $\chi 2$ (1, N = 54) = 6.02, p = 0.01; and between board members (n = 7) and sports members (n = 1) for "having administrative knowledge," $\chi 2$ (1, N = 54) = 4.12, p = 0.04.

Table 1. Frequency count (N) and percentage (%) of perceived competencies of outstanding performing board members

	Sample of board members (N = 26)					Sample of sports members (N = 28)				
	Elicited constructs		Board members		P90*	Elicited constructs		Sports members		P90*
Construct category/competency	N	%	N	%		N	%	N	%	
Listening to others	26	6,25%	16	61,54%		23	5,28%	14	50,00%	x
Time spent/hard-working	29	6,97%	16	61,54%	x	25	5,73%	16	57,14%	x
Having good communication skills	24	5,77%	15	57,69%	x	13	2,98%	9	32,14%	x
Being reliable	16	3,85%	14	53,85%	x	13	2,98%	13	46,43%	x
Club interest vs. egoism/self-interest	19	4,57%	13	50,00%	x	13	2,98%	12	42,86%	x
Being motivated	20	4,81%	13	50,00%		13	2,98%	9	32,14%	x
Being jovial, nice to be with	20	4,81%	13	50,00%	x	17	3,90%	13	46,43%	x
Having professionalism	12	2,88%	12	46,15%	x	11	2,52%	11	39,29%	
Having creative ideas	14	3,37%	12	46,15%	x	15	3,44%	11	39,29%	
Having a strong personality	13	3,13%	11	42,31%	x	8	1,83%	8	28,57%	
Having a long term vision	13	3,13%	11	42,31%	x	18	4,13%	13	46,43%	x
Dealing with stress	13	3,13%	11	42,31%	x	0	0,00%	0	0,00%	
Taking initiative	10	2,40%	10	38,46%		8	1,83%	8	28,57%	
Having authority	10	2,40%	10	38,46%	x	20	4,59%	12	42,86%	
Degree of presence at manifestations	11	2,64%	10	38,46%	x	6	1,38%	6	21,43%	x
Being Honest	13	3,13%	10	38,46%	x	26	5,96%	19	67,86%	x
Being a team player	9	2,16%	9	34,62%		6	1,38%	6	21,43%	
Being precise/punctual	10	2,40%	9	34,62%		20	4,59%	11	39,29%	
Being competent	14	3,37%	9	34,62%	x	10	2,29%	9	32,14%	x
Having passion for the club	8	1,92%	8	30,77%	x	1	0,23%	1	3,57%	x
Having professional knowledge	10	2,40%	8	30,77%	x	12	2,75%	12	42,86%	x

Continue

Construct category/competency	Sample of board members (N = 26)					Sample of sports members (N = 28)				
	Elicited constructs		Board members		P90*	Elicited constructs		Sports members		P90*
	N	%	N	%		N	%	N	%	
Well-liked	12	2,88%	8	30,77%	x	18	4,13%	13	46,43%	x
Representing the club	7	1,68%	7	26,92%	x	0	0,00%	0	0,00%	
Administrative knowledge	7	1,68%	7	26,92%	x	1	0,23%	1	3,57%	
Being concerned with financial issues	12	2,88%	7	26,92%		9	2,06%	9	32,14%	x
Having experience	6	1,44%	6	23,08%		9	2,06%	9	32,14%	x
Being sport minded	11	2,64%	6	23,08%	x	19	4,36%	12	42,86%	x
Taking responsibility	5	1,20%	5	19,23%		8	1,83%	8	28,57%	x
Dearing to say what is on one's mind	5	1,20%	5	19,23%	x	2	0,46%	2	7,14%	x
Being straight forward	4	0,96%	4	15,38%		8	1,83%	7	25,00%	
Obliging/helpful	4	0,96%	4	15,38%		7	1,61%	6	21,43%	x
Being modest	7	1,68%	4	15,38%		16	3,67%	13	46,43%	
Having commercial flair	7	1,68%	4	15,38%	x	13	2,98%	9	32,14%	
Varia	3	0,72%	3	11,54%		2	0,46%	2	7,14%	
Having discretion	3	0,72%	3	11,54%	x	4	0,92%	4	14,29%	x
Being just, righteous	6	1,44%	3	11,54%		8	1,83%	6	21,43%	x
Having self-knowledge	2	0,48%	2	7,69%		0	0,00%	0	0,00%	
Dealing with temptations	1	0,24%	1	3,85%		5	1,15%	4	14,29%	x
Winning the game	0	0,00%	0	0,00%		3	0,69%	2	7,14%	
Having good relationships with sports members	0	0,00%	0	0,00%		9	2,06%	9	32,14%	x
Having charisma	0	0,00%	0	0,00%		17	3,90%	13	46,43%	x
Total	416					436				

* P90: 90th percentile was taken as cut-off point to identify the most discriminating bipolar constructs and construct categories

Variability Analysis

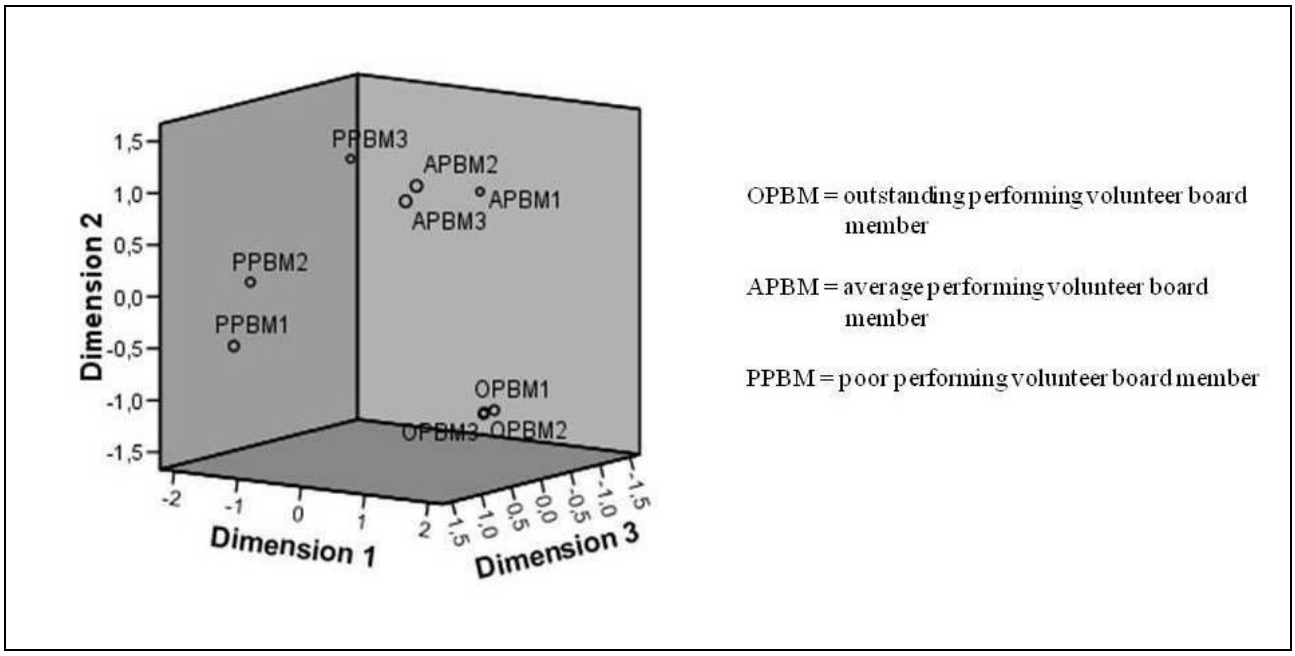
Variability analysis or the analysis of the spread of ratings of each bipolar construct is an indication of the importance of that construct (Rogers & Ryals, 2007). Neimeyer and Hagans (2002) argued that the more extreme the given ratings, the more important or discriminating the construct is in one's perception space. Constructs with a high variability have a high spread of ratings, thus, the respondent differentiates strongly between the constructs in judging the elements. Such a differentiation indicates the high importance of that construct (Rogers & Ryals, 2007). To analyze variability (Bonarius, 1977), original ratings were recoded (scores 1, 2, and 3 were recoded into 7, 6, and 5. The rating 4 was kept unchanged.) Thus, strongly discriminating or extreme ratings had high new scores, whereas non-discriminating or mediocre ratings had low new scores. Next, the sum of ratings was calculated for each bipolar construct. The higher the score, the more important or discriminating the bipolar construct is in one's perception space. The 90th percentile was taken as cut-off point to identify the most discriminating bipolar constructs (Rogers & Ryals, 2007). For the sample of board members, total scores that ranged between 58 and 63 felt within the 90th percentile. For the sample of sports members, total scores that ranged between 59 and 63 felt within the 90th percentile. Results (Table 1) revealed that the most frequently used competencies that emerged from the content analysis are also the most discriminating competencies. Examples are "time spent/hard-working", "having good communication skills", "being jovial/nice to be with", "clubs interest vs. egoism/self-interest". Only board members perceived "having administrative knowledge", "representing the club", and "dealing with stress" as discriminating competencies, whereas sports members perceived "having charisma", "having good relationships with sports members", and "listening to others" as discriminating competencies.

Weighted Multidimensional Scaling

A three-way scaling or Weighted Multidimensional Scaling (WMDS) was used to draw a multidimensional space for each sample of constituents (*further* referred to as group-spaces).Multidimensional scaling refers to techniques where the structure in a set of data is represented graphically by the relationships between a set of points in a space (Wijnen, Janssens, De Pelsmacker, & Van Kenhove, 2008). Its purpose is to transform judgements of similarity into distances represented in a multidimensional space. It allows the researcher to

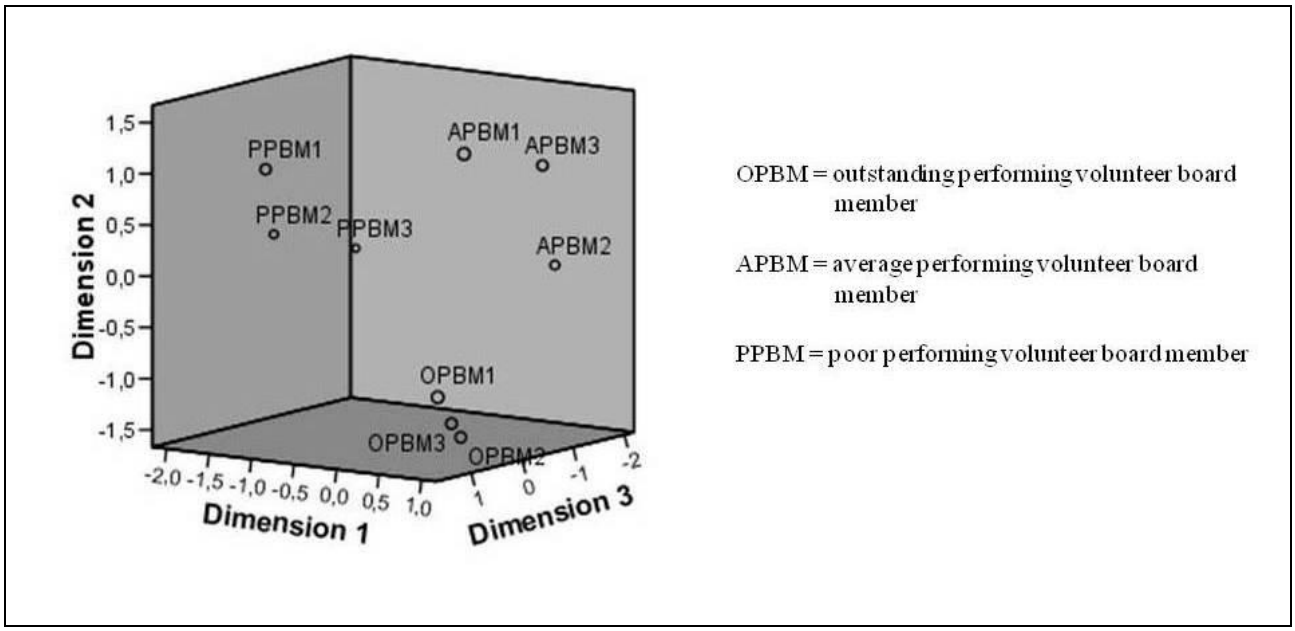
determine the perceived relative image or key dimensions of a set of objects (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). WMDS means concretely that a group space is formed by the union of all the dimensions that the subjects use, spanned by a fixed set of shared common dimensions. Each subject differentially weights or attaches a relevance to each of the fixed dimensions. Individual source weights show how individuals (or subgroups) deviate from the collective representation or group space. The group space then must be seen as effectively a compromise between the various individuals' personal configurations. The WMDS was based on Euclidean distances for elements of the individual RGT matrices (see Hair et al., 1998). Three dimensional group-spaces for both the sample of board members and the sample of sports members were withheld. The explained variance of the group-space of the sample of board members accounted for 59.00% and the explained variance of the group-space of the sample of sports members accounted for 53.00%. Figures 1 and 2 show the three-dimensional group-spaces for the two samples of constituents[3]. These group-spaces indicate how the nine elements (three outstanding performing, three average performing and three poor performing volunteer board members) are positioned toward each other. Overall, the three different groups of elements in the group-space of both constituents clustered together. In the group-space of the sample of board members, the smallest Euclidean distances were found between the three elements representing outstanding performing board members (ranging from 0.13 to 0.16) on the one hand, and between the three elements representing average performing board members (ranging from 0.21 to 2.21) on the other hand. Within the group of poor performing board members, the Euclidian distances were more dispersed (ranging from 1.08 to 2.50). However, the elements still clustered together. The group-space of the sample of the sports members showed a similar pattern. The smallest Euclidean distances were found between the three elements representing outstanding performing board members (ranging from 0.17 to 0.83). Euclidean distances were more dispersed within the group of average performing board members (ranging from 1.34 to 2.49), and within the group of poor performing board members (ranging from 1.10 to 2.53). Nonetheless, elements still clustered together.

Figure 1. Three-dimensional group-space (Euclidean distance model) of the sample of board members



N=26; Stress = 0.23; RSQ = 0.59; ALSCAL Level = ordinal untie

Figure 2. Three-dimensional group-space (Euclidean distance model) of the sample of sports members



N=28; Stress = 0,21; RSQ =0,53; ALSCAL Level = ordinal untie

Discussion

The goal of this study was to identify how two types of constituents perceived competencies of volunteer board members in community sports clubs. RGT was applied to draw the cognitive maps of these two groups of constituents, board members and sports members.

We used WMDS to draw the group-space of each sample of constituents. These group-spaces revealed whether constituents shared a similar cognitive map of competencies of outstanding performing, average performing and poor performing board members. The results indicated that, within a sample of constituents, the individual cognitive maps of competencies of outstanding performing board members are similar. In both samples, the Euclidian distances are more dispersed for the perception of competencies of average and poor performing board members. This suggests that constituents within a sample have a wider variability of views on their perceptions of competencies of average and poor performing board members. These findings are similar to findings made by Walton (1986), who found that there was more consensus about the prototypical attributes of successful firms than of unsuccessful firms. Moreover, leadership research also suggested that conceptions about effective leaders are clearer than those about ineffective leaders (Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984). Leadership categorization theory, which focuses on prototypical leader schemas and the categorization of potential leaders, stated that people categorize stimuli based on its similarity to an abstraction or prototype (Dickson, Resick, & Hanges, 2006). Leadership perception is the process of comparing the leader to an abstract leadership prototype (Fraser & Lord, 1988). WMDS revealed that the prototype of an outstanding performing board member is more or less similar within the sample of board members and sports members. This implicates that board members who highlight the competencies of prototypical board members may improve perceptions of themselves (Fraser & Lord, 1988), and, as a result, may improve satisfaction among its members. In addition, Fraser and Lord (1988) stated that controlling leadership perceptions may be an important tool to increase perceived influence and social power.

Content analysis disclosed 41 different competencies of volunteer board members of community sports clubs. Both board members and sports members have a high cognitive complexity to interpret competencies of volunteer board members. The results showed that outstanding performing board members of sports clubs should possess differentiated competencies. These competencies can be classified within Boyatzis' (2008) three clusters of

competencies: cognitive, emotional, and social intelligence competencies (see appendix Table 2). Both groups of constituents agreed on the cognitive competencies such as having professionalism and the ability to define strategies (e.g., having a long-term vision). The self-management emotional intelligence competencies (e.g., being reliable and being honest), and the social intelligence competencies, such as being jovial/nice to be with, empathy (e.g., listening to others) and service orientation (e.g., clubs interest vs. egoism/self-interest) were also perceived as distinguishing competencies of outstanding performing board members. Our results indicated that a focus on solely cognitive competencies fails to describe the full range of attributes, traits, and skills that are associated with outstanding performing board members. Previous nonprofit studies (e.g., Iecovich, 2004; Inglis, 1997a; Inglis et al., 1999; Shilbury, 2001) explored roles and responsibilities of boards that originated from a merely cognitive approach. We also found that the roles as revealed by Inglis (1997a) such as mission, planning (including finance) and community relations are important in the judgments of what makes outstanding performing board members. Previous nonprofit studies, however, did not focus on emotional or social intelligence roles and responsibilities of board members. In early competency literature, Katz (1955) brought up that effective managers should possess certain "human skills". For a long time, scholars have acknowledged that "human" and "people" skills are relevant in managerial competency research. Its significance, however, has often been relegated to secondary status (Berman & West, 2008). When the concept of emotional intelligence was introduced (i.e., Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997), a new focus on the emotional intelligence competencies was born. In addition, social intelligence competencies have also been put forward as a differentiating factor in success (Williams, 2008).

Our findings confirm previous results (e.g., Dreyfus, 2008; Hopkins & Bilimoria, 2008; Williams, 2008) suggesting that possessing cognitive competencies such as technical abilities, strategic skills or financial skills is not enough to be an outstanding performing board member. Emotional and social intelligence competencies are important pillars in perceptions of competencies. Outstanding performing or highly capable board members should have cognitive competencies along with emotional and social intelligence competencies. Outstanding performing board members are able to be aware of (self-awareness) and to manage (self-management) their own emotions effectively. Outstanding performing board members have the ability to be aware of and to anticipate to others' needs and feelings (social awareness), and to manage their relationships effectively (relationship management). In addition, our results indicated that commitment (e.g., having passion for the

club), involvement (e.g., time spent/hard-working), and motivation are also perceived to be important competencies of outstanding performing board members. Literature suggested that commitment and involvement are predictors of board member performance (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Hoye, 2007; Preston & Brown, 2004). Ferkins, Shilbury, and McDonald (2005) indicated that motivation of individual board members to join boards is an essential theme in sport governance.

There were also striking differences between the two groups of constituents. Board members, in contrast to sports members, perceived the cognitive competency "having administrative knowledge" as a competency of outstanding performing board members. Both groups perceived emotional and social intelligence competencies, but they differed in nature. Board members reported that outstanding performing board members should be motivated, have passion, know themselves, be able to communicate effectively, represent the club, and be able to deal with stress. Along this line, Papadimitriou (1999) also reported that board members attached a lot of importance to motivation and passion. Board members perceived having administrative knowledge, representing the club and dealing with stress as discriminating competencies compared to sports members. Sports members, on the other hand, perceived outstanding performing board members as charismatic, honest, modest, well-liked, and sport-minded. They also perceived it as important that board members have a good relationship with sports members. Charisma and having good relationships with sports members are discriminating competencies that board members did not perceive. Papadimitriou (1999) also found that elite sports members associated "being familiar with the sport" as an important competency for board effectiveness. The perception of sports members that board members should be charismatic is an interesting finding. Charisma has been mainly addressed in leadership theory. Taking a leadership role has been identified as one of the responsibilities of board members (Hoye, 2006; Inglis, 1997b; Soucie, 1994). House (1977) suggested that charismatic leaders are exceptionally self-confident, are strongly motivated, and have strong conviction in the moral correctness of their beliefs. Leaders with these personality traits are theoretically expected to be more persistent in the face of obstacles and thus to be more effective (House & Aditya, 1997). Charismatic leaders articulate a powerful vision that motivates people toward change and that appeals to people's emotions and self-esteem (Emrich, Brower, Feldman, & Garland, 2001; Seyranian & Bligh, 2008). Followers form a strong emotional attachment and have a high sense of confidence in the charismatic leader (Seyranian & Bligh, 2008). As a result, it is more likely that sports members perceive charismatic board members as more capable. The differences in the views of both constituents

could be explained by the nature of their own involvement and by the links the persons have with the board (Herman & Renz, 1997; Papadimitriou, 1999). Moreover, perceptions of outstanding performing board members might also be influenced by the focus on their own needs (Inglis, 1997a; Shilbury, 2001; Trail & Chelladurai, 2000) and access to information (Hatfield, Wrenn, & Bretting, 1987; Inglis, 1997a). The large age difference might also explain partly the different perceptions between sports members and board members. For example, because sports members are mainly interested in their sports, it seems reasonable that they associate outstanding performing board members with being sport-minded. As role models are important in the lives of young people, they might look to charismatic board members as role models. Board members, on the other hand, probably have a lot of other responsibilities besides their task of board member. This might explain the perception of dealing with stress as a competency for outstanding performing board members.

Different groups of constituents have often different interests and objectives. Stakeholder theory claims that the legitimate interests of those groups and individuals who can affect or are affected by the organization's activities must be taken into account (Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1994; Freeman, Wicks & Parmar, 2004). Venkataraman (2002) stated that, at some level, stakeholder interests have to be join to propel the organization forward and to allow generating outstanding performance. Crozier and Friedberg (1980) stated that organizations make cooperation among its members possible by inhibiting the negotiating power of the constituents in order to achieve the goals of the organization. Thus, board members should be aware that the differences in the perceived competencies of board members might be an expression of the different interests of the constituents.

Conclusions and Limitations

"As Aristotle said: there is only one way to get it right, but many ways to go wrong" (Furley, 1999, p. 120). Our results indicated that individual cognitive maps of the competencies of outstanding performing volunteer board members within a constituent group are similar, whereas the cognitive maps of average performing and poor performing board members are more diverse. This suggests that, within a constituent group, board members and sports members have the same perception of what is a right way to administrate a sports club. An interesting avenue for further research is to study whether highlighting the ways in which board members match the expectations toward them improves satisfaction among its

members. Further research might also focus on the ways to change the actual competencies of board members toward the preferred competencies, because this might be an effective way to increase satisfaction and commitment.

The advantage of the RGT method is that we were not limited to using predetermined constructs. As a result, our findings corroborate only to some extent the results of nonprofit studies using a different method. This study revealed that cognitive, emotional and social intelligence competencies are necessary to be perceived as an outstanding performing board member. The elicited competencies of board members of sports clubs were categorized according to the conceptual framework of Boyatzis (2008). Boyatzis scheme differentiated outstanding from average and bad performers based on three clusters of competencies.

Our methodology allowed to reveal a broad range of competencies and did not to intend to identify the competencies that are exclusively attributed to outstanding performing board members. We used the conceptual framework of Boyatzis to categorize the elicited competencies within the three clusters (cognitive, emotional, social). Since we used the conceptual framework of Boyatzis to categorize the elicited competencies rather than to identify the unique competencies of outstanding performing board members, we were not able to answer the question whether there are unique competencies of board members of sports clubs. Further research might reveal what are the competencies within the three clusters that are differentiating outstanding from average performing board members.

The implications of this study need to be tempered by an understanding of its limitations. First, the nature of the sample limits the generalization of the findings. Further research is needed to test whether the competencies that emerged from this study also emerge in other contexts. We did not differentiate between perceptions of male or female respondents, nor between perceived competencies of male or female board members. Because occupation has also been found to be a differentiating variable its non inclusion might be another limitation of this study. Second, the use of RGT as an elicitation technique generates idiosyncratic responses that accentuate surface level differences in cognition. Idiosyncratic responses are the more apparent responses instead of the real ones. Therefore it may be that there will be an overemphasis in differences in mental models of the involved interviewees. Third, Nicolini (1999) argued that an attempt to uncover meaningful and relevant data about what people think may be hampered by the unwillingness of members to disclose sensitive opinions to researchers who are strangers to them. However, as precautions concerning confidentiality were taken and confidentiality was communicated to the respondents, this limitation only holds in part. Fourth, we did not focus on team characteristics of boards. Payne,

Benson and Finegold (2009) found that attributes contributing to high-performing teams also contribute to the effectiveness of corporate boards. Applying a team perspective might also enhance our understanding of boards and their relationship to effectiveness. However, Pye and Pettigrew (2005) argued that one type or style of boards does not necessarily equate to effectiveness in all contexts. Forbes and Milliken (1999) stated that boards of profit and nonprofit organizations might have different team characteristics since the tasks of nonprofit boards differ from those of for-profit boards. Besides the focus on individual competencies of nonprofit boards, knowledge about team characteristics of those boards might also enhance our understanding and knowledge of how nonprofit boards contribute to board effectiveness and to organizational effectiveness.

Brown (2007) acknowledged that determining the skills and competencies needed in a board is important in the process of securing competent or capable board members. He also stated that there is a lack of research that attempts to define and assess desirable competencies for board members in nonprofit organizations. This study responded to this call. However, there remains a great deal of work to do. Further research should focus on different samples and different nonprofit organizations to capture the full range of competencies for outstanding performing board members. This might result in validated measurement tools that help practitioners in the recruitment, selection, and orientation of new board members, as well as in the evaluation of present board members. To enhance board effectiveness, it is important that boards are aware of different constituents' expectations and the competencies of their board members. This knowledge may lead to board composition in which motivation, commitment, and development facilitate organizational effectiveness (Taylor, Darcy, Hoye, & Cuskelly, 2006).

Endnote

[1]. Two major methods exist to come up with elements (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Holman, 1996): supply of elements and elicitation of elements. Supply of elements signifies that the researcher provides the elements. This is recommended when the researcher wants to test a theory (Kaish & Gilad, 1991). Eliciting elements involves that the research participant provides the elements. For the present research the latter was used. It has been argued that elicitation of elements leads to more differentiation and consistency (Neimeyer & Hagans, 2002).

[2]. Other "instructional sets" to elicit constructs exist. Two major key variations in the process of eliciting constructs are considered. The first variation concerns the number of elements (one, two, three or all elements) considered in each sort. The second variation concerns the specific commando for eliciting implicit construct poles: difference (e.g., Kelly, 1955) or opposite (Epting, Suchman, & Nickerson, 1971). Each instructional set has its pro's and contra's. For an overview we refer to Neimeyer et al. (2005), and Neimeyer and Hagans (2002).

[3]. It is not possible to define the three dimensions of the common group-spaces. WMDS calculates stimulus coordinates which can be considered as factor loadings. In our study, the stimulus coordinates pertain to elements or persons who are represented in the minds of our respondents (outstanding performing, average performing, and poor performing board members of community sports clubs). Thus it is not possible to interpret and label the dimensions.

Appendix

Table 2. Perceived competencies of outstanding performing board members of sports clubs ranked according to Boyatzis three clusters of competencies

Three clusters of competencies	Perceived competencies of outstanding board members
Cognitive	Having creative ideas
	Having a long term vision
	Having professionalism
	Having professional knowledge
	Having administrative knowledge
	Being concerned with financial issues
	Having commercial flair
	Being sport minded (knowing the sport)
	Being precise/punctual
	Winning the game(knowing how)
Emotional	
Self-management	Being modest
	Being reliable
	Being motivated
	Dealing with stress
	Taking initiative
	Being honest
	Taking responsibility
	Being straight forward
	Time spent/hard-working
	Having discretion
	Being just, righteous
	Dealing with temptations
	Having passion for the club
Self-awareness	Having self-knowledge
Social	
Relationship management	Having good communication skills
	Being jovial, nice to be with
	Having a strong personality
	Having authority
	Being a team player
	Well-liked
	Obliging/helpful
	Having good relationships with sports members
	Having charisma
	Dearing to say what is on one's mind
	Degree of presence at manifestations (relationship)
Social awareness	Listening to others
	Club interest vs. egoism/self-interest (service orientation)
	Representing the club (service orientation)
Threshold*	Having experience
	Being competent

Varia is not recorded

*threshold competencies: competencies that both outstanding and average performers should possess

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PART 4

REFLECTIONS AND PERCEPTIONS

"Effective managers and professionals in all walks of live have to become skilled in the art of "reading" the situations they are attempting to organize or manage."

(Morgan, 1997)

Morgan, G. (1997). *Images of organization*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

1. Introduction

This thesis presents four empirical studies that intended to contribute to the existing knowledge of personal and organizational effectiveness. The first two manuscripts studied effectiveness at a micro management level and dealt with the effectiveness of coach turnover in soccer. This kind of research provides useful information for both sports and organizational theory. The economic impact sport generates inevitable contributed to the increased interest that sports scientists and sports practitioners showed for this line of inquiry. In addition, studying the impact of coach turnover on sport performances adds to the ultimate goal of competitive sports, i.e., increasing the chance to win the game. Initial and current leader succession studies in organizational theory used sports as a functional sample to study the impact of leaders or managers on organizational performances. Thus, besides the relevance the study of coach turnover has for the domain of sports, it has managerial relevance as well. The synonym "field manager" that is often attributed to the coach indicates the managerial significance.

The third and fourth paper studied effectiveness at a meso management level. The third study focused on enhancing our understanding of organizational effectiveness in sports clubs. Organizational effectiveness addresses the true goal of management: making an organization perform and, thus, constituting the effective organization. In this paper, we presented a two-level competing values framework to look at organizational effectiveness in sports clubs. The fourth paper, on the other hand, shedded light on an important stakeholder of sports clubs, the board member, who is supposed to have a crucial task in enhancing the effectiveness of the organization.

In the final section of this thesis, we summarize the key findings from the empirical studies, discuss these in light of related research, and highlight the implications for theory and research. We consider the limitations and the avenues for future research, as well as the implications for practice. We conclude with some final reflections.

2. Effectiveness in sport on micro management level

2.1. Main findings

The first paper analyzed the short-term effects of mid-season coach turnover in Belgian soccer. We studied the effectiveness question, i.e., whether team performance improved in the four games following coach turnover compared to the four games prior to the change. In addition, the efficiency question was also addressed, i.e., whether teams that experienced a coach turnover outperformed teams that did not have a coach turnover. A control group constructed with thoroughly made up statistical analyses enabled to answer the efficiency question. An eye-ball interpretation of the results suggested the positive effect of coach turnover on subsequent short-term team performance. However, our data might be affected by regression to the mean since they mainly comprised extreme values from a stochastic environment. After filtering the original results for the regression effect, the analyses revealed no significant evidence to attribute the performance recovery following a change of coach to his/her successor. The performance improvement after turnover was due to regression to the mean. The analyses rejected the hypothesis of the effectiveness of coach turnover. Our second research question concerned the efficiency of a coach turnover. What would happen if the club did not change the coach? The short-term performances of the control group significantly improved after the virtual date of turnover compared to performances before the virtual date of turnover. The results of the control group after turnover were better compared to those of the turnover group. This positive effect was upheld after controlling for regression to the mean. In conclusion, our study revealed that a mid-season coach turnover is neither effective nor efficient to improve short-term team performances in soccer.

The second paper profoundly focused on mid-season coach turnover by considering the possible effect of coach turnover on home team advantage and team quality. Our paper extended previous work of Koning (2003) by estimating additional regression models to detect the coach turnover effect. The change in home team advantage and team quality are expressed in function of expected goal differences. Nine different regression models were estimated, dependent on the team specific or the non-team specific change in home team advantage or team quality. In addition to Koning's (2003) paper, we interpreted the practical

value of our best regression model by analyzing the relationship between the goal difference model's parameters and the new coach's ability to improve the position of the team in the final ranking. This paper adds to the existing literature on coach turnover by bridging the gap between the new coach's ability to positively affect home team advantage and/or team quality and his/her ability to improve the team's final ranking. Results showed that the best model to predict the expected goal difference is the basic Clarke and Norman (1995) model extended with team specific change in team quality. Home team advantage had only limited impact in predicting goal differences and was not withheld as a significant predictor of goal differences in case of coach turnover. Thus, our model to assess coach turnover success is a model allowing for team specific change in team quality. Results revealed that 36 out of 45 teams with coach turnover improved team quality after turnover. For 13 of these teams the improvement was significant. The second objective of this paper was to translate the findings of the goal difference regression model into practical information. It is commonly accepted that bad performances are the main reason for coach turnover (Audas et al., 1999; Bruinshoofd & ter Weel, 2003; Cannella & Rowe, 1995; Salomo & Teichmann, 2000). Changing coach might be a means to avoid relegation, to qualify for the Champions League or the UEFA-cup, or to become a divisional champion. In these cases, the ability of the new coach to improve team quality should also result in an increase of the position of the team in the final ranking. Results showed that 24 out of 36 coach turnover teams which improved team quality increased their position in the final ranking after coach turnover, irrespective of whether the change in team quality was significant. Analyses revealed that the ability of the new coach to improve the ranking of the team depends on his ability to achieve a positive team quality.

2.2. Reflections: coaches do matter

Contradictorily, the results of the first study rejected the hypothesis that, on average, new coaches are able to improve short-term performances. The results of the second study, on the other hand, subscribed that new coaches do matter since new coaches were able to affect team quality. The results of the first paper are in line with existing literature (e.g., Audas et al., 1997; Bruinshoofd & ter Weel, 2003). Mid-season coach turnover is not the best alternative of dealing with a performance dip if the objective is to reap short-term

performances. It is unlikely for most teams to achieve an immediate performance boost after a mid-season coach turnover. Our results supported the ritual scapegoating theory (Gamson & Scotch, 1964), i.e., the coach is blamed for bad team performances and, consequently, the coach is the scapegoat who pays for inferior performances. Audas et al. (2002) stated that, within this theory, performance ultimately depends on the quality of the players. Thus, coaches who have more talented players compared to the other teams, are more likely to achieve excellent results. Although the chance that more talented players within a team might result in better performing teams compared with less talented teams, we argue that this reasoning only partially holds. We all know underperforming talented teams. Thus, there might be other factors that affect team performances. An important and determinant factor might be the coach. Coach turnover research starts from the assumption that the coach is responsible for the performances of the team. The second study suggested that a model with team specific change in team quality is the determinant factor to predict goal differences in case of coach turnover. The time frame of the study comprised the whole season. The majority of the new coaches succeeded in improving team quality after turnover, for instance, the goal difference declined in case of games lost or the goal difference increased in case of games won. These findings suggest that coaches do matter. Audas et al. (2002) found a negative coach turnover effect over three months. The authors explained their results arguing that new coaches use new tactics or new strategies and that it may take time to adapt to a new playing or coaching style. In this line, Rowe et al. (2005) introduced the organizational learning theory to frame the coach turnover effect. Basically, Rowe and colleagues stated that organizational learning is a means to achieve strategic renewal that occurs over time. Coaches have the ability, over time, to carry out changes that will positively and significantly affect team performances. The long-term perspective of the study supported the conceptual arguments. However, given the nature of team sports, the team itself might be the most appropriate level of analysis to understand team sports results. Burke et al. (2006) stated that the strongest effect of leaders in groups is team learning. Mid-season coach turnover is a disruptive event that does not necessarily lead to further deterioration in team performance. The new coach has to build a cohesive strategy for the remaining season, has to enhance the players' team skills, and has to teach them to play as a team. This process requires time. As Peter Senge (1999) expressed:

> "It cannot be stressed too much that team learning is a team skill. A group of talented individual learners will not necessarily produce a learning team, any more than a group of talented athletes will produce a great sports team. Learning teams learn how

to learn together." (p. 257)

Wilson (1999) argued that learning is part of the process of change and adaptation to different circumstances, and he stated that learning eventually produces some observable effect. Yukl (2009) stated that learning is an important determinant of long-term performance and organization's survival. Learning is an interactive and iterative process (Wilson, 1999). When a coach turnover occurs, the new coach does not need to teach the players how to play but he needs to teach the team how to play as a team and how to adapt to changing situations. Salas, Stagl and Burke (2004) stated that each individual has to adjust and coordinate his actions to the actions of other team members for obtaining effective team performance. Montanari, Silvestri and Gallo (2008) found that team stability and longevity of team relationships were beneficial for team performance. Team stability referred to a type of synchronicity, i.e., team members learn how their teammates play and, as a result, they are able to interact in a synchronous way. Moreover, since coach turnovers go hand in hand with disruptive effects such as lower morale, lower self-esteem, and tensions between players, the ability of the new coach to enhance cohesion will also affect team learning. In a meta-analysis study on team learning, Burke and colleagues (2006) found that empowerment behaviors (i.e., coaching, monitoring, feedback, and so on) accounted for nearly 30% of the variance in team learning. Although the relevance of the time component in learning theories and in organizational theory has been recognized (Ancona, Goodman, Lawrence, & Tushman, 2001; Burke et al., 2006; Giambatista, 2004; Hambrick & Fukutomi, 1991; Senge, 1999; Wilson, 1999), time has received little attention in organizational (Ancona et al., 2001; Zaheer, Albert, & Zaheer, 1999) and succession literature (Giambatista, 2004; Hambrick & Fukutomi, 1991).

Tuckman's (1965) forming-storming-norming-performing model adds to explain how learning occurs through group development. The model has become the basis of many team development models that intended to describe behaviors of teams. The forming stage consists of a process of orientation, testing, and dependency. The boundaries of interpersonal and task behaviors are identified through testing, as well as the establishment of dependency relationships with group members and leaders. The storming stage is characterized by conflict and polarization in which different ideas compete for consideration. This stage is inevitable for the growth of the team and some teams never leave this stage. The norming stage is characterized by the development of cohesiveness, new standards, new roles, new values, and new rules. Work habits are developed and behaviors of team members are adjusted to each other so that teamwork seems natural and fluid. The performing process is the stage in which the team is able to function as a unit. The structural issues such as role development have

been settled and the group energy is regularized into the task. It is likely that teams that experienced a coach turnover have never left the storming stage. The appointment of a new coach is likely to result in a new storming stage since it is likely that new coaches affect the existing norms and dynamics of the team. It is the job of the coach to guide the team through the different stages. It is also inevitable that time is needed to move through the four stages of group development and to achieve a learning effect. In conclusion, the results of the second study supported the hypothesis that coaches do matter since most new coaches after a turnover were able to affect goal differences when considering the whole season. The results of the first study revealed that it is unlikely to achieve short-term team performances, which underpins the assumption that building a learning team requires time.

2.3. Reflections: the right people on the right place

In addition to the reflections above, Jim Collins' bestseller (2001) "Good to Great" provides some additional insights to explain what basically the job of managers, leaders, and similarly, coaches is in order to transform their organization or team from good to great: "If we get the right people on the bus, the right people in the right seats, and the wrong people off the bus, then we'll figure out how to take it someplace great." (p. 41). In essence, this expression sheds light on the true purpose of coaches in order to produce a winning team: to get the right players on the field and to get the right players on the right positions on the field. In addition, coaches are expected to forge close and long-lasting ties among the players so that individual actions are adjusted and coordinated to team members' actions (Montanari et al., 2008). Consequently, a team of talented players without a talented coach sometimes fails to produce a winning team and sometimes fails to achieve great performances. Canella and Rowe's (1995) study suggested that coaching ability most strongly affects performance when a coach turnover occurs under conditions of high rivalry. Moreover, Collins (2001) argued that, while having the right people on the bus, the assumption of motivating and managing people largely fades away. The right people on the right place are driven by inner motivation to achieve the best performances. The drawback of this reasoning is that, if a talented coach has the wrong people, the wrong players in the team, it doesn't matter to outline the right direction, it is likely that he/she is unable to produce a winning team. This might also explain

why some soccer teams always perform inferior. Having a great vision without great people is irrelevant.

Coaches have to place the right players on the right positions on the field who are aligned with the direction in which the game is headed for and whose skills, abilities and experiences the coach has incontestable confidence in. This means that the players on the field have to understand the vision, the goal and the expectations of the coach, and that they have to be willingly to work for and to be accountable for their endeavors. Stephen Covey (2004) reported that the execution quotient questionnaire with 23.000 US residents revealed some remarkable findings. Only 37% of the respondents indicated that they had a clear understanding of what their organization is trying to achieve and why. Only 1 in 5 respondents was enthusiastic about their team's and organization's goals and only 1 in 5 respondents indicated that they had a clear line of sight between their tasks and their team's and organization's goals. The sport metaphor used to spice up the sequel of the seven habits (see Covey, 1990) points to the true challenge sport coaches have to face:

> "If, say, a soccer team had these same scores, only four of the eleven players on the field would know which goal is theirs. Only two of the eleven would care. Only two of the eleven would know what position they play and know exactly what they are supposed to do. And all but two players would, in some way, be competing against their own team members rather than the opponent." (Covey, 2004, p. 3)

2.4. Reflections: the coach turnover carousel

Our results confirmed previous studies that the average short-term coach turnover effect is non-existent. Nonetheless the learning concept added to explain the lack of a short-term impact, why is mid-season coach turnover such a common occurrence in soccer? We tackle three possible explanations. The first possible explanation has been addressed previously, i.e., the coach is the scapegoat who is sacrificed in order to appease dissatisfied stakeholders, or to deflect attention from other deficiencies in the soccer club. Many coaches acknowledge that this is part of the game. The second possible explanation is that the statistical analyses of coach turnover studies are based on average effects. The results reflect sample averages. Thus, coach turnovers are on average not effective. There are always exceptions to the rule. Audas et al. (2002) found that a change of coach increases the

variability of performance up to 10 matches after turnover. A higher variance might increase the probability of obtaining an extreme positive coach turnover effect. The board may belief that they can outperform the average effect if they make an effective coach turnover by selecting the right successor (Audas et al., 2002). Especially in cases where relegation is a threat, a speculation on a possible effect of the variance might sometimes be a justifiable gamble. Although the short-term positive effect is, on average, non-existent, it is not a uniform fact. If the successor is able to achieve immediate and extreme improvements in team performance, and thus, if relegation was avoided, the gamble to change the coach has been effective. Even if the coach turnover was ineffective, relegation was likely to occur when the coach was not changed. The third possible explanation is being blind to statistical regression. Our results (and other studies such as Bruinshoofd & ter Weel, 2003; Curtis et al., 1986) revealed that the short-term performance improvement after turnover was due to regression. However, many stakeholders such as the board of the club, supporters, media, etc. are not aware of the impact of this effect. In many cases, they do observe team performance improvements after turnover. But this increase would also have been occurred if the coach was retained.

2.5. Limitations and directions for further research

The limitations and suggestions for further research of the two coach turnover studies should be recognized. In both studies, we did not have insight into coaching experience or coaching ability. Since we suggested in the reflections above that coaches do matter, coaching ability or coaching experience should have an impact on the size of the coaching effect. The findings of Canella and Rowe (1995) showed that coaching experience had no impact on team performance, while there was evidence that coaching ability most strongly affected team performance after a coach turnover. Further research might focus on different operationalizations of coaching ability such as education, tactical knowledge, motivational abilities etc. The results of the second study showed that coach turnover is successful if the new coach is able to increase team quality and if the new team quality is positive. Future research should address under what conditions (team characteristics, coach characteristics, …) the new coach is able to do so. For example, which type of coach is able to improve results on the short term after coach turnover and which type of coach is able to maintain homogeneous

results over a long term period? Which team characteristics are important to obtain positive results?

Since we used in the first study a short-term perspective, our results did not allow to ground our perspectives on team learning. The second study considered a longer time frame than the first study but the research design focusing on goal differences was also too weak to fully give empirical support to the concepts of learning and time. The perspectives on team learning and coaching ability, however, offer a fruitful laboratory for ongoing research. In contrast to the dominant quantitative research approaches in coach turnover research, a qualitative research design might be more appropriate to test the assumptions of team learning. A qualitative research design allows to focus on the processes of team learning when a coach turnover occurs. Which processes cause that teams are learning? What are the actions and processes that new coaches implement when they enter the team after coach turnover? Do they believe that there is a learning effect? What is the minimum time required to obtain a learning effect? If a learning effect occurs, what is the mean duration of such an effect?

Our results revealed that, in the first study, the control group outperformed the turnover group in the short-term. The results in the second study revealed that, in some cases, new coaches are able to be effective in terms of improving in the final ranking. Since we did not have a control group in the second study, we were not able to assess the effectiveness of a coach turnover in terms of final ranking by simulating the probability distribution of the final ranking if there would have been no coach turnover. What would be the effect on team quality and on the final ranking for teams having the same performance pattern as the turnover group before turnover but without executing turnover? In addition, since we measured the association between the regression parameters of the goal difference model and the final ranking, we were not able to predict a team's change in ranking. What would be the absolute change in ranking given a certain change in team quality?

Finally, perhaps the most intriguing question for both theory and practice is when a coach should be changed, i.e., under which conditions (position in ranking, team budget,...) is it justifiable to change the coach? If the club carries out a coach turnover under certain conditions, what would be the expected effect on team performances, on the position in the final ranking, on team spirit, etc.? Since soccer teams are often assumed to be public estate, further research could study the coach turnover effect using a stakeholder approach, i.e., what would be the effect of coach turnover on the attitude and perceptions of different stakeholders such as supporters and sponsors, and what would be the effect on broadcasting ratings, spectator density, image, etc.? Is there a positive or a negative effect on broadcasting ratings

when a team changes the coach? Is there a positive or a negative effect on spectator density when the coach is replaced? Our research contributed to enhance our knowledge about the effect of coach turnover on performances. The postulated questions, however, indicate that a lot of research remains to be done.

2.6. Practical implications

There are some practical implications that arise out of the two coach turnover studies. Our results suggested that, on average, successors have no significant short-term impact on improving team performances. However, the results revealed that most new coaches were able to affect goal differences when the whole season was considered. This indicates that coaches do matter. We posited the results from a learning perspective. Even from a simple common-sense reasoning, one would argue that time is an essential element in the capability of coaches to be effective. If the goal of the soccer board is to obtain short-term dividends when the team is experiencing a performance dip, a coach turnover should be carefully considered. In general, the successor will be unable to have an immediate positive impact on team performances. Learning takes time. However, if the stake is very high, i.e., an almost unavoidable threat of relegation, coach turnover might be the gamble worth since the variance in performances of teams with coach turnover is higher compared to teams that did not have a coach turnover. Therefore, coaches and the board of soccer clubs should adopt a long-term perspective instead of the common short-term perspective that is still dominant in Belgian soccer clubs. This implicates that goals should be set over a long-term instead of considering season by season. As a consequence, since the coach and the players are the most valuable means to produce the sports and to achieve the goals, soccer clubs should recruit players and coaches for a long-term. This enables the coach to go through the different stages of Tuckman's (1965) model with his team and to enhance group development. Building to group development in order to achieve a learning effect requires time. It is likely that a team sooner or later faces a period of bad performances. If the club decides to work further with the same coach, it is likely that the team will recover more quickly from bad performances than if the coach would be replaced. In addition, adopting a long-term perspective might also influence the selection and recruiting process of players. Empirical evidence suggested that organizational culture influences an organization's effectiveness (Cameron and Freeman, 1991; Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991; Gregory et al., 2009). Therefore, soccer clubs should, in

accordance with their long-term perspective, educate and train youth players with the goal to select them for the first team. Since these players are insiders who are familiar with the culture of the club, it is possible that they will integrate more easily into the team compared to outsider players. Finally, soccer clubs should set goals that are realistic for them. Both a talented coach and talented players are necessary to achieve great performances.

If we reflect beyond the observable outcomes of our research and if we shed light on the possible impact of coach turnovers, boards should reconsider a few issues. First, what are the financial consequences of executing a coach turnover? Are any negative financial consequences defendable given the social value sports has towards society? Second, what message does the board send out in society when executing a coach turnover? Is it an act of social corporate responsibility and social corporate behavior? What is the impact of coach turnover on the perception of the level of professionalization of soccer clubs? Does the multiple coach turnovers nurture the mass consumption environment of a few developing countries? Since soccer clubs, as social institutions, are inevitably urged to become truly responsible, practitioners should face these fundamental questions when considering the decision to change the coach.

3. Effectiveness in sport on meso management level

3.1. Main findings

The meso management level focused on addressing effectiveness in sports clubs. The third study conceptually approached organizational effectiveness by extending the level of analysis of the competing values approach of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, 1983). Organizational effectiveness was investigated at two levels of analysis: the management and the program level. The sample comprised of board members and sports members of Belgian sports clubs. The results of the pilot testing and the factor analyses confirmed that organizational effectiveness is perceived as a multidimensional concept. Twelve management and nine program effectiveness dimensions were retained. Both board and sports members considered the dimension atmosphere in their sports club as most effective. Board members indicated that their sports club was not effective in acquiring volunteers such as board members and coaches. Board members and sports members differed in the importance they attached to six predefined goals of sports clubs (financial, recreation, social, societal, safety, competition). Besides the importance of the competition goal, board members rated the importance of the club's other goals significantly higher than sports members did. Both board and sports members perceived that the financial goal was the most important goal of sports clubs, followed by the recreation goal and the social goal. We also studied what were the significant predictors of the overall success score of the club. The significant predictors on management level were the dimensions atmosphere and the ability to acquire board members and coaches. The significant predictors on program level were the dimensions competition goal, satisfaction, information and communication and the ability to acquire sports members.

The fourth paper focused on the management level of sports clubs by addressing the required competencies of board members. A repertory grid technique was used to elicit the cognitive maps of board members and sports members in how they perceived the required competencies of volunteer board members. The results were framed within Boyatzis' (2008) individual competencies framework. Content analysis disclosed 41 different competencies, indicating the high cognitive complexity to interpret competencies of board members. The individual cognitive maps of competencies of outstanding performing board members within the sample of board members and sports members were similar. The findings revealed that

board members should possess cognitive, emotional and social intelligence competencies in order to be perceived as an outstanding performing board member. Besides possessing cognitive competencies such as having professionalism and having a long-term vision, outstanding performing board members should be able to be aware of and to manage their own emotions effectively. In addition, outstanding performing board members should possess relationship management competencies and social awareness competencies, i.e., be aware of and anticipating to others' needs and feelings. There were also some differences in perceptions of competencies between the two groups of constituents. Board members attached more importance to the competencies dealing with stress, being motivated, having passion, being able to communicate effectively and representing the club. Sports members, on the other hand, attributed to outstanding performing board members the competencies being honest, modest, charismatic, will-liked, sport-minded, and having good relationships with sports members. These differences in the views of both constituent groups could be explained by the nature of their own involvement and by a focus on their own needs.

3.2. Reflections: sports clubs as social institutions

Both the third and fourth paper contributed to the existing literature. The third paper presented a new theoretical approach and measurement instrument to measure organizational effectiveness in sports clubs. The fourth paper attempted to fill the research void of competencies of volunteer board members and also contributed to the line of inquiry of organizational effectiveness as a correlation has been found between board effectiveness and organizational effectiveness (Brown, 2005; Herman & Renz, 2000, 2004). Sowa and colleagues (2004) stated that nonprofit organizational effectiveness comprises a management and program level. However, no previous empirical study has been found that distinguishes between management and program level. The lack of a distinction between management and program effectiveness might be quite peculiar since it has been argued that enhancing board effectiveness is beneficial for enhancing overall nonprofit organizational effectiveness (Herman & Renz, 2000). The management level in our theoretical framework is comparable to the board level of the studies that focused on measuring board effectiveness. In addition, Herman and Renz (1998) stated that, although there is an increased focus on program outcomes assessment, they do not include all the dimensions that are relevant to measure

overall nonprofit organizational effectiveness. These discussions indicate that both the board and the programs of nonprofit organizations are fundamental aspects in the concept of nonprofit organizational effectiveness. The sample of sports clubs in our studies are nonprofit organizations. Accordingly, the claim of Baruh and Ramalho (2006) that there is a difference in raison d'être between for-profit and nonprofit organizations resulting in the use of sometimes different effectiveness criteria is also applicable to most sport organizations which are embedded in the nonprofit sector. Similar with the thoughts of Sowa and colleagues (2004), we argue that a distinction between management and program level to measure nonprofit organizational effectiveness in sport organizations is therefore more appropriate.

Sports clubs are social institutions. Zeigler (2007) stated that the recognition of sport as one of human kind's most fundamental social institution is beyond question. Nevertheless, Zeigler (2007) critically asked "what evidence do we have that sport as a social institution is really making a positive contribution to society" (p. 297), or expressed differently, "the king must prove (to society) that he is sufficiently clothed to justify our continuing support" (p. 298). Our effectiveness research contributed to prove the conventional wisdom that sport as a social institution is worthwhile, responsible, and enriching for people since the results of the third study revealed that both board and sports members attached a lot of importance to the recreation and social goal of sports clubs. The results also revealed that acquiring volunteers and sports members is a thorny task for most sports clubs. Volunteer boards and executive committees are the pillars of community sports clubs (Doherty et al., 2004). Sports clubs without capable board members and other volunteers may falter and stumble to demonstrate that sports clubs, as social institutions, have become truly responsible. There is evidence showing that there is a lack of and a declining of volunteering in sports (Cuskelly, 2005; Seippel, 2004; Wymer & Starnes, 2001). Kim et al. (2007) stated that over 16.5 million Americans volunteer in sport and recreation. Based on estimations of the number of Americans who volunteered in sport and recreation, Chelladurai (2006) surmised that the economic worth of sport volunteering in America exceeds $50 billion. These figures indicate that most sport organizations would not survive without the contributions of volunteers. In order to retain volunteers, effective management of volunteer resources is an area that should be given more attention (Cuskelly et al., 2006). There is a slow but increased interest for this kind of research (e.g., Cuskelly et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2007). Our fourth paper contributed to this line of inquiry. As mentioned previously, getting the right people on the bus and the right people in the right seats is the first step to transform an organization from good to great (Collins, 2001). It is therefore essential to have insight into the actual and required

competencies of board members of sports clubs. Entrusting a board member with the right competencies the right job or task, will increase the probability of effective management. It may also increase the probability of longer-lasting volunteer participation since it is likely that getting the right people in the right seats increases commitment, and, accordingly, board member performance (Hoye, 2007). Spreitzer and Mishra (2002) reported that loyalty, affective commitment, organizational attachment, and reduced turnover was fostered by empowerment. Moreover, there also has been found a link between empowerment and organizational effectiveness (Laschinger, Finegan, & Samian, 2000). Kim et al. (2007) noted that the influence of empowerment in reducing turnover might be stronger for volunteers since they are not remunerated for their efforts. Their volunteer retention model showed that person-task fit, person-organizing fit, and managerial treatment explained 46.8% of variance in empowerment. Empowerment explained 13.5% of variance in intention to continue volunteering. These results indicated that there has to be a match between the competencies of volunteers (e.g., board members) and the requirements of a task or job (person-task fit). In addition, volunteers have to possess the same goals of the organization, moreover, they have to subscribe the goals of the organization (person-organizing fit), and they have to be clearly informed about the organization's goals (managerial treatment) in order to feel empowered. Reflecting on these findings, our competencies paper may provide useful insights to enhance the person-task fit of volunteer board members. Moreover, the third paper revealed that board members and sports members attach importance to certain goals. Communicating the goals and values of the organization to both board and sports members might be beneficial to increase the person-organization fit of these constituents, and, as a result, to decrease board and athlete turnover. There is evidence that the acquisition and retention of human capital have a strong impact on business results (Yukl, 2008). The same might be true for nonprofit organizations such as sports clubs. However, further research should test these assumptions.

3.3. Reflections: when is the organization effective

Although the two effectiveness papers give further insight into the complexity of organizational effectiveness, some questions remain unanswered. Perhaps the most fundamental question that arises out of paper three is when the sports club is effective. We did not present a minimal score or objective criterion that defines when the organization is

effective. To our opinion, this seems hard to do and presenting such a criterion might result in misinterpretations of the purpose of measuring organizational effectiveness with the two-level competing values framework. The results of the two-level competing values framework are perceptions of constituents. Practitioners can use the measurement instrument to measure perceptions of constituents regarding the program and management effectiveness of the sports club. The results offer useful information to reflect on the weaknesses and strengths of the organization and should be used accordingly. Stephen Covey offered some useful quotes to reflect on the "when is your organization effective" quest. In his famous book, Covey (1990) focused on the habits of highly effective people. Covey stated that "many people seem to think that success in one area can compensate for failure in other areas. But can't it really?…True effectiveness requires balance, and your tools needs to help you create and maintain it." (Covey, 1990, p. 161). Organizational effectiveness is considered being a multidimensional concept. Accordingly, we argue that the answer to the question "when is your organization effective" is likely to be "multidimensional". Hence, we subscribe that the quote of Covey (1990) might also be applicable to organizations. The same might be true for sports clubs: "Many sports clubs seem to think that success in one area can compensate for failure in other areas. But can't it really?... True effectiveness requires balance, and your tools needs to help you create and maintain it". Balance might be the right answer to the question when the sports club is effective. Sports clubs can use our effectiveness measurement instrument to reflect on their level of balance of organizational effectiveness. It provides insight in the effectiveness dimensions that are judged as less effective or as highly effective. Sports clubs that aim to a level of organizational effectiveness should work on the less effective dimensions in order to achieve a level of balance. In addition, sports clubs that strive for a level of "greatness" (Collins, 2001) should ameliorate all effectiveness dimensions both at program and management level, but always keeping balance in mind. Yukl's (2008) definition of organizational effectiveness for a nonprofit organization subscribes the balance that is required: "The extent to which it provides valuable social and economic benefits to society at an acceptable cost, as well as the value of its assets and its long-term survival as an institution" (p. 718). However, keeping in mind that our research did not present a criterion when a sports clubs might be considered as effective, these reflections should be dealt with caution.

3.4. Limitations and directions for further research

Besides the contributions both papers offer to the effectiveness literature, we have to recognize a number of limitations. In addition, we present some suggestions for further research. Since the samples of respondents in both papers were limited in number, generalization of the results should be dealt with caution. In order to enhance generalization of the results, both studies should be replicated in other contexts and samples, e.g., individual versus team sports, recreational versus competitive sports, or national sport organizations. Do board members and sports members of different kind of sports clubs (e.g. individual versus team sports, recreational versus competitive sport) perceive the effectiveness of their sports club differently? Do board members and sports members of different kind of sports clubs emphasize different goals of sports clubs?

Moreover, we did not differentiate in both studies between perceptions of respondents with different socio-demographic profiles such as age, gender, occupation or education. Are there competency differences between male and female board members? Is education or occupation a determinant of having certain kinds of competencies? Both studies only focused on perceptions of board members and sports members. Agle and colleagues (2008) stated that, from a stakeholder perspective, societal institutions are never completely free to act as independent entities. Zeigler (2007) argued that the increasing development of the social institution of competitive sport results in sport management societies. Thus, sport management society has also been confronted with social control mechanisms to govern its people, organizations and institutions. Our studies only have focused on perceptions of two stakeholders of sports clubs. Sports clubs, as social institutions living within sport management society, are daily confronted with demands of several stakeholders such as sponsors, officials, parents, members of local authorities etc. Extending the effectiveness papers to other stakeholder samples might provide useful information that helps sports clubs to acquire a profound insight in the different demands and perceptions about a sports club's effectiveness and about the required competencies of their board members. These perspectives might aid sports clubs to meet and to deal with the different stakeholder demands to perpetuate the survival of their organization. For example, are boards of sports clubs that are perceived as professional capable to acquire more resources than boards of sports clubs that are perceived as less professional? Are these boards more capable to obtain sponsorships compared with less competent boards? Both studies applied a cross-sectional research design.

Therefore, both papers fail to make conclusions about changes in perceptions over time. It might be, for example, that the increasing demand for professionalization affects the ideal profile of board members over time. Do different stakeholders such as board members, sports members and parents perceive that competencies of board members have changed over time? It might also be that there is a change in importance attached to the effectiveness dimensions since sports clubs, as social institutions, are liable to societal changes in the world. What are the changes attached to effectiveness dimensions over time? Common method bias could be especially an issue in the third effectiveness paper since responses were gathered from the same source using the same measurement instrument (Straub, Boudreau & Gefen, 2004). It was less an issue in the fourth paper since the repertory grid technique is a method that allows to elicit cognitive maps. However, the results in this study might be affected by the unwillingness of members to disclose sensitive opinions to researchers who are strangers to them (Nicolini, 1999). In this line, our results might be affected by social desirability bias. Although anonymity was assured in both studies, such bias cannot be totally ruled out. In both studies, we presented the average results of board members and sports members. We did not test for differences in perceptions within a constituent group. Further research should test for the interrater reliability in order to reveal whether respondents within a group share the same perceptions and opinions about their sports club's effectiveness and about the required competencies of board members.

Results of current research offer opportunities for further research. The focus on organizational effectiveness in sport management research has declined over the last years. This lack of interest seems undeserved. Organizational effectiveness still is the main thing in all studies of organizations. We hope that our research revives the debate about what constitutes effectiveness in sport organizations. Further research should address the conceptual proposition of different levels of analysis to measure organizational effectiveness in sport organizations and other nonprofit organizations. Our measurement instrument used subjective data, i.e., perceptions of board members and sports members. Further research should identify objective indicators to measure the several dimensions at program and management level. In addition, further research might focus on the question when a sports club is effective. Is balance, as we suggested in previous section, the right answer or are there other standards that should be taken into account when answering this fundamental question?

The lack of research that studied competencies of board members in nonprofit organizations has already been identified (Brown, 2007). Our study responded to this call. The study elicited cognitive maps of what are outstanding performing board members of

sports clubs. The results might be a useful guideline to develop and validate a questionnaire that captures the full range of competencies in order to expand the study to large samples. In addition, researchers should develop useful and easily applicable tools that help practitioners in the recruitment, selection and orientation of new board members, as well as in the evaluation of present board members.

3.5. Practical implications

There are several practical implications that arise out of the two effectiveness papers. First, practitioners such as board members of sports clubs should realize that effectiveness requires a multidimensional approach. A solely focus on one effectiveness dimension is inadequate to claim that the organization, as social institution, is truly responsible. However, this does not imply that the organization cannot emphasize certain effectiveness dimensions more than others. Certainly they can, but always keeping in mind that balance is required. The same reasoning is true for the level of analysis. An unbalanced relationship between effectiveness at management and program level should be avoided. Our measurement instrument can be applied by practitioners to reveal how different stakeholders perceive the effectiveness of the sports clubs on different levels and dimensions. The results can serve as an input to determine the policy of the sports club. For example, the sports club can adopt strategies and can take actions to diminish the sports club's weaknesses that arise out of the effectiveness measurement instrument. Second, sports clubs should match the organization's goals with athlete goals in order to reduce sports member turnover. For example, sports clubs may offer alternatives such as recreational sporting activities for sports members whose sportive goals do not correspond with the competitive goals of their club. It might be that a lot of people are willingly to participate in sports or any type of physical activity but that they are frightened of the competitive spirit that wraps around team sports. Third, sports clubs should make investments into their human capital in order to warrant the survival of the organization. Since board members are very important for the expansion and development of the sports club, it is crucial to get the right board members on the bus and to get the right board members in the right seats (Collins, 2001). Mapping competencies of board members is a useful aid to do so. Our study revealed that a lot of competencies are required to be perceived as an outstanding performing board member. However, it is less likely to find board members who posses all of these competencies. Thus, boards should consist of board members who

posses different kind of competencies. Moreover, different board member roles require different competencies. For example, the chairman should have different kind of competencies than, for example, the treasurer. If board members are assigned the right tasks or job, it is likely to empower board members and to decrease board member turnover. Our study gives insight into the expectations that different constituencies claim towards competencies of board members. Boards of sports clubs can list these competencies and make a comparison with the actual competencies of their board. This may serve as a basis to select or recruit new board members who strengthen the board with their required competencies.

4. Final reflections

The papers at the micro management level were carried out in a profit-oriented context, whereas the papers at the meso management level were carried out in a non-profit oriented context. One could question whether the different contexts do matter and whether they affect the results and conclusions. The goal of this thesis was to extent the existing knowledge regarding effectiveness. Throughout the thesis, we highlighted the importance of the human being within sport organizations. We reflect on these issues.

First, the outcome produced by competitive sports are games. The result of a game in soccer is a win, draw or loss. The stakes in national soccer teams, especially in profit-oriented sports clubs, are very high since the results are often related with financial consequences. The winning attitude is very apparent in all levels of competition and in all kinds of competitive sports. The popularity of soccer in Europe, however, causes that the pool of players and coaches is larger compared to other sports. If there are more coaches and the stakes are very high, it is more likely that coaches will be replaced when results fall too short. If the stakes are low, for example in a sports club at provincial level, than the chance that the coach will be replaced when results are bad, is insignificant. Second, the salary and prestige of being a coach at national soccer level is high. As a consequence, being a coach of a national soccer team is a popular job. But the places are limited. Thus, if there are more coaches willingly to do the job than there are vacancies, the board of these teams has the luxury to choose. This is less the case in other levels of competition. The reality today is that many sports clubs suffer to find capable coaches for youth teams and the senior team at the lower levels (e.g. provincial level). Therefore, it is less likely that a bad coach will be replaced. Moreover, the stakes are less, thus, the pressure to replace the coach is lesser. Although the board of these teams perhaps would like to replace coaches that are unable to achieve good results, these sports clubs cope with a lack of coaches. Third, studying the effect of coach turnover on team performances is often used as a case to study the effectiveness of leaders or managers in business organizations. Sports is a popular setting since business organizations often struggle with contentious performance measures. The same might be true in sports clubs. Sports clubs also need competent leaders or managers. Therefore, the coach turnover studies partially support the studies at the meso management level that suggest that the management level, represented by board members, is also important to achieve organizational effectiveness.

One of the most well respected management gurus, Henri Mintzberg, criticized his own and colleagues' scientific work arguing that "when researchers can only talk to each other, then they ultimately serve nobody" (Mintzberg, 1982, p. 249). Weese (1995) reflected on the same litmus test for the domain of sport management: did sport management academics reflect on and communicate the implications of their research to sports and sport management practitioners? Weese hoped so but was not convinced that sport management academics could positively confirm the question: "At the end of the day, can we say that we have any impact on the field of sport management?" (Weese, 1995, p. 241). Sport management academics should take the challenge to keep a healthy balance in contributing to both theory and practice (Zeigler, 2007). Reflecting on our own activities and scientific work over the past six years, can we say, at the end of this thesis, that we succeeded in translating this scientific research to practice by offering a point of view in the practicality and relevancy of this thesis? We have given some practical implications within the discussion of the micro and meso management level. In this part, we will discuss the implications beyond the two levels and consider the practical implications with a retrospect to the introduction section.

We started this thesis by highlighting the impact of globalization on management. In the sport management Earle F. Zeigler Lecture, Thibault (2009) discussed the globalization of sport. While sport has always comprised an international focus, it is uncontestable that sport is globalized. Nonetheless globalization has been beneficial for sport in many ways, sport has also been confronted with flags of inconvenient truths such as a widening chasm between rich and poor societies, the increasing flow of mercenary athletes whose origin or country of birth is no longer a limitation to compete in name of money, the increased involvement and pressure of global media, the environmental impact of sport, an increasing individualization, and so on. Many of these inconvenient truths are affecting professional and amateur sports, e.g., the ecological footprint related to sport, the commoditization and commercialization of sport and the increased migration of athletes and coaches. It is very obvious that commercialization and migration of both athletes and coaches have affected the soccer world. But other (amateur) sports clubs are also sensitive to these drawbacks. For example, our results showed that acquiring sports members and volunteers is a concern for many sports clubs. The issue here is that all sport organizations have to consider the positive and negative consequences of globalization. They have to think about the ways to address and to deal with the issues confronting them in the global or flat-world in order to achieve what is demanded from social institutions, to become worthwhile and truly responsible (Zeigler, 2007).

Our results showed that coaches do matter. Our results showed that board members do matter. Our results showed that sports members do matter. In summary, people do matter. Human resource management research pointed out that human capital is an important determinant of organizational performance (Yukl, 2008). Every member of the organization contributes to organizational effectiveness (Miller, 2004). The management definition of Montana and Charnov (2000), "management is working with and through people to accomplish the objectives of both the organization and its members" (p. 2), reflects that it's all about people. People are the bedrock of all organizations. The increasing world's complexity and competitiveness demands that organizations constantly raise the bar of their effectiveness in all areas such as leadership, productivity, adaptation to change, process improvement, and capability enhancement (Chien, 2003). The pressure to survive and prosper in today's turbulent world causes that we forget too often that human beings are no robot-like. People have limits regarding pressure, desires, needs, capabilities, etc. Covey (1990) expressed this as follows: "You simply can't think efficiency with people. You think effectiveness with people and efficiency with things" (p. 169). This is, in particular, true for sport organizations which are driven by the dedication of so many volunteers and sports members. Effectiveness at management level is working with and through board members, effectiveness at program level is working with and through sports members. Thus, sports clubs should think about what is effectiveness in their organization, how to place their effectiveness in the close environment and in the flattening world, and how the people within the organization contribute to achieve this level of effectiveness. Only when sport organizations reflect on their effectiveness and on the people within the organization, they will be able to jump over the bar and lift themselves up to a level of "greatness". Perhaps the ultimate level of greatness of sport organizations as social institutions is the power of sport to bring people together. These enormous managerial challenges sport organizations are facing enhance step by step the awareness that all sport organizations should make the journey towards the ultimate recognition of the importance of the "manager" (Bolchover & Brady, 2006).

5. References

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PART 5

APPENDIX – LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

"People are why those managers are there, and they know it and live it."

(Peters and Waterman, 2004)

Peters, T.J. & Waterman, R.H. (2004). *In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Best-Run Companies.* New York: HarperBusiness Essentials.

1. Publications

1.1. Doctoral thesis articles – A1

Balduck, A. L., Buelens, M. & Philippaerts, R. (2009). Short-Term Effects of Mid-Season Coach Turnover on Team Performance in Soccer. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport* (manuscript accepted for publication).

Balduck, A. L., Prinzie, A., & Buelens, M. (2009). The Effectiveness of Coach Turnover and the Effect on Home Team Advantage, Team Quality and Team Ranking. *Journal of Applied Statistics* (manuscript accepted for publication).

Balduck, A. L., Buelens, M., & Maes, M. (2009). Management and Program Effectiveness in Belgian Sports Clubs. *Journal of Sport Management* (manuscript under revision).

Balduck, A. L., Van Rossem, A., & Buelens, M. (2009). Identifying Competencies of Volunteer Board Members of Community Sports Clubs. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* (manuscript accepted for publication).

1.2. Other articles – A1

Balduck, A. L., & Jowett, S. (2009). Psychometric Properties of the Belgian Coach Version of the Coach-Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q). *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports* (manuscript accepted for publication).

Balduck, A. L., Jowett, S., & Buelens, M. (2009). Factorial and Predictive Validity of the Belgian Athlete version of the Coach-Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q). *International Journal of Sport Psychology* (manuscript submitted for publication).

Cardon, G., Philippaerts, R., Lefevre, J., Matton, L., Wijndaele, K., Balduck, A. L., et al. (2005). Physical Activity Levels in 10-to 11-year-olds: Clustering of Psychosocial Correlates. *Public Health Nutrition*, *8*(7), 896-903.

De Bourdeaudhuij, I., Philippaerts, R., Crombez, G., Matton, L., Wijndaele, K., Balduck, A. L., et al. (2005). Stages of Change for Physical Activity in a Community Sample of Adolescents. *Health Education Research*, *20*(3), 357-366.

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1.3. Published in international peer reviewed journal – A2

Balduck, A. L., & Maes, M. (2009). The Impact of The 2007 Arrival of a Stage of the Tour de France on the City of Ghent: Comparisons of Residents' Perceptions of Pre- and Post-event. *European Sport Management Quarterly* (manuscript under revision).

1.4. Published in national peer reviewed journal – A3

Balduck, A. L. (2005). Informatisering in de non-profit sportsector. Een vergelijkende studie 1999-2004. Echo, 12(2), 1-21.

Balduck, A. L., Buelens, M., & Philippaerts, R. (2005). Voetbaltrainers zijn rituele zondebokken. Dug-Out, 31, 36-38.

1.5. Author of a book – B1

Balduck, A. L., Buelens, M., & Maes, M. (2007). *Handboek Sportmanagement*. Leuven: LannooCampus.

2. Conference presentations

2.1. Publications in conference proceedings

Balduck, A. L., & Maes, M. (2008). The impact of the 2007 arrival of a stage of the Tour de France on the city of Ghent: comparisons of residents' perceptions of pre- and post-event. Book of Abstracts "Management at the heart of sport", 16th Congress of the European Association for Sport Management, Heidelberg: September 10-13.

Balduck, A. L., & Buelens, M. (2005). The relationship between organizational structure and effectiveness in Belgian soccer clubs. Book of abstracts "The power of sport", 13th Congress of the European Association for Sport Management, Newcastle: September 7-10.

Balduck, A. L., & Buelens, M. (2006). The effectiveness of a coach turnover in soccer: The effect of home team advantage and team quality. Book of abstracts "Sport World United", 14th EASM European Sport Management Congress, Nicosia: September 6-9.

Balduck, A. L., Parmentier, A., & Buelens, M. (2004). Research methodology in the domain of sport management: preliminary results of the current state. Book of abstracts "Innovation in Co-operation", 12th European Sport Management Congress, Ghent: September 22-25.

2.2. Presentations at conferences

Balduck, A. L., & Buelens, M. (2008). A two-level competing values approach to measure nonprofit organizational effectiveness. Paper presented at the 24th European Group for Organizational Studies (EGOS), Amsterdam: July 10–12.

Balduck, A. L., & Buelens, M. (2008). A Two-level Competing Values Approach to Measuring Nonprofit Organizational Effectiveness. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Meeting, Anaheim: August 8-13.

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Balduck, A. L., & Buelens, M. (2005). The relationship between organizational structure and effectiveness in Belgian soccer clubs. Paper presented at the 13th Congress of the European Association for Sport Management, Newcastle: September 7-10.

Balduck, A. L., & Buelens, M. (2006). The effectiveness of a coach turnover in soccer: The effect of home team advantage and team quality. Paper presented at the 14th EASM European Sport Management Congress, Nicosia: September 6-9.

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3. Working paper Series, Faculty of Economics and business administration, Ghent University

Balduck, A. L., & Buelens, M. (2007). Does sacking the coach help or hinder the team in the short term? Evidence from Belgian soccer. Working paper series, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, Ghent University, 2007/430, pp. 1-26

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Balduck, A. L., Buelens, M., & Maes, M. (2009). Management and Program Effectiveness in Belgian Sports Clubs Working paper series, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, Ghent University, 2009/, pp. 1-26

Balduck, A. L., Prinzie, A., & Buelens, M. (2008). The effectiveness of coach turnover and the effect on home team advantage, team quality and team ranking. Working paper series, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, Ghent University, 2008/535, pp. 1-26

Balduck, A. L., Van Rossem, A., & Buelens, M. (2009). Identifying Competencies of Volunteer Board Members of Community Sports Clubs. Working paper series, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, Ghent University, 2009/559, pp. 1-35