

ORGANIZATIONAL CAPACITY DOMAINS OF UNITED STATES
OLYMPIC AND PARALYMPIC NATIONAL GOVERNING BODIES IN THE
UNITED STATES: AN INTEGRATED REVIEW AND FRAMEWORK

by

MARY ELIZABETH CHAMBERS

A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Sport Management
in the Graduate School of
Troy University

MAY, 2021

DISSERTATION ACCEPTANCE PAGE

ORGANIZATIONAL CAPACITY DOMAINS OF UNITED STATES OLYMPIC AND
PARALYMPIC NATIONAL GOVERNING BODIES IN THE UNITED STATES:
AN INTEGRATED REVIEW AND FRAMEWORK

Submitted by Mary Elizabeth Chambers in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in Sport Management
in the Graduate School of
Troy University

Accepted on behalf of the Faculty of the Graduate School by the Dissertation committee:

 _____	March 26, 2021 _____
Dissertation Chair	Date
 _____	3/26/2021 _____
Dissertation Committee member	Date
 _____	03/24/2021 _____
Dissertation Committee member	Date
 _____	4/15/2021 _____
Director/Chair of School/Department	Date
 _____	4/15/2021 _____
Dean of the College	Date
 _____	4/16/21 _____
Associate Provost and Dean of Graduate School	Date

Abstract

Organizational Capacity Domains of United States Olympic and Paralympic National Governing Bodies in the United States: An Integrated Review and Framework

Mary Elizabeth Chambers

Globally, national sport governing bodies (NSGBs) are undergoing enormous pressure to make transformational change due to the acceleration of technology, changes in societal values and other environmental forces. Profitable financial models are fading into obsolescence as the sport product, its related content and revenue streams migrate to a digital space. Communication and governance strategies must adapt to accommodate increased demand for diversity, inclusion, transparency and authenticity as technology gives key stakeholders the ability for two-way dialogue, commanding a greater voice and influence on these highly visible, high profile sport organizations. Given the diverse set of stakeholders that NSGBs serve, acquiring the organizational capacity (OC) to set and achieve goals and sustain a competitive position is a complex task. This project addresses the dearth of knowledge on nonprofit NSGBs in the United States. It identifies and describes dimensions of OC currently found in the literature. Using capacity models from multiple disciplines, USOPC governance documents, Congressional commissions and independent legal reports, this enquiry proposes an extended, reconceptualized interpretation of OC domains, contextualized to US NSGBs. It is a foundation for future studies by identifying domains which most strongly contribute to fulfilling purpose and achieving goals. *Keywords: integrated review, organizational capacity, NGB, national governing body, NSGB, nonprofit sport organization, United States Olympic Committee, United States Olympic and Paralympic Committee, USOC, USOPC.*

HUMAN OR ANIMAL SUBJECTS REVIEW FORM

for

MARY ELIZABETH CHAMBERS

Organizational Capacity Domains Of United States Olympic And

Paralympic National Governing Bodies In The United States:

An Integrated Review And Framework

This research project has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board and approved as follows (the appropriate block must be checked by either the Dissertation Chair or the Chair of the Institutional Review Board):

- Neither humans nor animals will be used and this research is certified exempt from Institutional Review Board review by the Dissertation committee chair.
- Human participants will be used and this research is certified exempt from Institutional Review Board review by the Chair of the Institutional Review Board.
- Human participants will be used and this research was reviewed and is approved by the Institutional Review Board.
- Animal participants will be used and this research was reviewed and is approved by the Animal Research Review Board.

 _____ Signature of Dissertation Committee Chair	<u>3-26-2021</u> Date
 _____ Signature of School/Department Director/Chair	<u>4/15/2021</u> Date
 _____ Signature of Chair of Institutional Review Board	<u>4/16/21</u> Date

Institutional Review
Board

Adams Administration
LL Rm 11 A
Troy, AL 36082

334-808-6294 Office
334-670-3912 Fax

<http://www.troy.edu/institutionalreview>



February 22, 2021

Mary Chambers
Troy University

Dear Researcher(s),

The Institutional Review Board has reviewed your project: Organizational Capacity of United States Olympic and Paralympic (Protocol #2021002007), and has determined it falls into the exempt category, meaning your research does not require IRB approval. However, if there are changes with your protocol placing participants at risk, you are responsible for immediately informing the IRB of these changes.

Please let me know if you have questions or if I can be of additional assistance.

Sincerely,

James Mouser

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "James Mouser".



Copyright by

Mary Elizabeth Chambers

May, 2021

This dissertation may not be reprinted without express written permission of the author.

Dedication and Acknowledgements

I dedicate this project to the special people in my life whose unfailing love and support helped me achieve this milestone. I want to express my deepest gratitude to my husband Matt Chambers. Your love, support, belief and investment in me and my talents enabled me to bloom. Thank you, Erika, your artistic talent keeps me inspired to create and sense of humor keeps me light-hearted. Thank you, Erinn, your leadership, passion to compete, tenacity, and perseverance in the face of adversity inspires me to step out of my comfort zone and keep going, no matter what. Thanks to my brother Mike, who taught me the value of asking great questions...and paying attention to the answers. To my mom Karen Mazzeo, who lent a listening ear when I needed to talk, and finally to my father, Richard Mazzeo. I hope to honor your memory in my pursuit of knowledge and wisdom.

There are also so many people from Troy who I am grateful for their help along this incredible journey. With the help of these experts, I have learned to be a scholar! Truly, it takes a village, and I am grateful for my academic village. First and foremost, thank you Chella. Your expertise, kindness, wisdom, and friendship has been a joy throughout my learning experience. I hope to be even a fraction of the scholar that you are. Thank you, Dr. Win Koo, your advice and wisdom seemed to always offer what I needed and timely insight inspired and helped me to round the final turn in this race. Thank you, Dr. Christina Martin, truly you are a leader among scholars in sport management and I have enjoyed learning from your positive, professional example. Thank you for being a cheerleader not only for my efforts, but also for all the doctoral students in this program. Thank you, Dr. Tammy Esteves “Dr. E.” for your support and

your creative teaching methods...it has helped me become a pracademic, and like you, I hope to also become an edupreneur...I have learned so much from your expertise and look forward to helping others with what I've learned. Thank you, Jay Brandes, for your incredible knowledge regarding research and the library – truly you are a master of your craft. So many resources you tracked down when I was at the end of the internet and out of ideas...and you found them within minutes...every time. Thank you, Skip Busby – your IT skills have been so valuable and helpful throughout the times when I needed to stay connected. A very special thanks for going above and beyond to help keep my data safe and protected. And finally, to the Troy Hospitality Tourism Sport Management program in general...to reference the TED Talk ideas of Brittany Packnett Cunningham, thank you for providing students in this program the *permission, community* and *curiosity* to achieve and learn and blossom as scholars... three basic elements she proposes of confidence. With the academic support and personal nurturing of this academic village, I am confident in myself and my scholarly abilities to make a difference in this world.

My experience at Troy has been a time of personal growth in many ways, and I thank everyone I've listed for helping me grow.

Mary Beth

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract	4
List of Tables	xii
List of Figures	xiii
List of Abbreviations	xiv
I. CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
Introduction	1
Technology, Transformational Change and Sport	3
Organizational Capacity and Sustained Success	7
USOPC Reform and Its Influence on NSGB Organizational Capacity	10
Why an Integrated Literature Review?	14
Need for an Updated, Contextually Relevant Organizational Capacity Model	15
Project Purpose	16
II. CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE	19
Review of Literature	19
What is Organizational Capacity, and Why is it Important?	19
Importance of Organizational Capacity in Sport	20
Theories Used to Explain Organizational Capacity	21
Organizational Capacity from a Systems Theory Perspective	27
Defining Organizational Capacity	30
Using Systems Theory to Define Organizational Capacity	37
Domains Within Organizational Capacity	40
Differentiating Key Terms – Capacity / Capability / Competency	48
Prominent Models of Organizational Capacity	50
McKinsey (2001)	51
Honadle (1981)	53
Hall, et al., (2003)	55
Connolly and York (2003)	56
Bryan (2011)	59
Organizational Capacity Varies by Organization Type	61
Organizational Capacity of NPOs and For-Profit Organizations	61
Organizational Capacity Among NPOs	64
Organizational Capacity of Sport NPOs	65
Context of US National Governing Bodies	66

Unique Features of NSGBs.....	66
Core Functions of NSGBs	67
Mission and Purpose of NSGBs	71
Paradox of Purpose(s) of NSGBs	73
NSGBs Are Multi-Level, Multi-Disciplinary, Multi-Dimensional	77
Multi – Level.....	77
Multi – Disciplinary	79
Multi - Dimensional.....	85
Context of United States Olympic and Paralympic Committee	86
The US Olympic System Differs from Global Counterparts	86
Mission, Purposes and Capacities of the USOPC.....	87
USOPC Influence on NSGB Functions	88
Organizational Capacity Research in Nonprofit Sport	90
Approaches to Research on Organizational Performance of NSGBs.....	92
Research Topics Surrounding NSGBs	93
Efforts to Empirically Validate OC Models in NSGB Contexts.....	98
Developing an Organizational Capacity Model for US NSGBs.....	100
Definition of NSGB	100
Key Success Factors (Outcomes, KPIs).....	103
Empirical Study of Organizational Capacity of US NSGBs.....	104
III. RESEARCH METHODS	106
Research Methods.....	106
Purpose of Study.....	106
Research Question	110
Research Methodology	111
Step One – Understanding Best Practice in Theory Development	111
Step Two - Theory – Defined.....	112
Step Three - What Does a Good Theory Do? What is its Purpose?.....	114
Research Design –An Integrative Review	115
IV CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS	124
Results.....	124
Proposed Domains of the <i>FOCUSS</i> Model.....	124
Human Capital and Human Process Capacity	128
Financial Capacity	131

Infrastructure and Communication Capacity	133
Information Communications Technology (IT) Capacity.....	135
Knowledge and Learning Capacity	137
Stakeholder Relationship Quality Capacity	140
Collaborative Capacity.....	142
V. DISCUSSION.....	146
Discussion.....	146
Theories and Assumptions of the <i>FOCUSS</i> Model.....	146
Driving Questions in the Development of the <i>FOCUSS</i> Theory	149
Goal of Theory Development for the <i>FOCUSS</i> Model.....	151
Forwarding a Meaningful Theoretical Contribution With <i>FOCUSS</i>	152
Problems and Paradox with the Theory Development Process	155
Generalizability and Validity of <i>FOCUSS</i> Model.....	156
A Theory of Fruits.....	156
Limitations of Theorizing OC in NSGBs	159
Future Studies	160
References	165

List of Tables

Table 1	36
Definitions of Organizational Capacity	
Table 2.	42
Hall, et al. (2003) Capacity Model Domains – Resource Perspective	
Table 3	45
Shumate, et al. (2017) Capacity Model Domains – Process Perspective	
Table 4	81
Doherty, et al., (2014) Organizational Capacity Model	

List of Figures

Figure 1.....	24
Stakeholder Relationships (Golensky, 2016, p. 27)	
Figure 2.....	25
Stakeholders of Sport (Geeraert, Alm, & Groll, 2013)	
Figure 3.....	43
Hall, et al. (2003) Model of Organizational Capacity	
Figure 4.....	52
McKinsey & Company Capacity Model (2001)	
Figure 5.....	54
Honadle (1981) Capacity Building Model	
Figure 6	58
Connolly & York (2003) Model of Organizational Capacity	
Figure 7.....	76
Key Stakeholders of a Sport Organization	
Figure 8.....	78
Factors Which Influence NSGB Success (De Bosscher & De Knop. 2003)	
Figure 9.....	84
De Bosscher, et al. (2003) 9 Pillars of NSGB Success	
Figure 10.....	98
Millar and Doherty, (2016) Capacity Building Process Model	
Figure 11.....	113
Bacharach's Model of a Theory (Bacharach, 1989)	
Figure 12.....	127
Framework of Organizational Capacity in US Sport (<i>FOCUSS</i>), Chambers (2021)	

List of Abbreviations

AAC – Athlete Advisory Council
BSBC – Birkbeck Sport Business Center
CSO – Community Sport Organization
DAZN – A digital media company platform
DNA – Deoxyribonucleic Acid
HCHP – Human Capital and Human Process
HCHP-Human Capacity Human Process
ICT – Information Communication Technology
IF – International Federation
iGen – Individuals born between 1995 and 2012
IOC – International Olympic Committee
IP – Intellectual Property
IT – Information Technology
JFK – John F. Kennedy
KPI – Key Performance Indicators
KSF – Key Success Factors
MSO – Management Support Organizations
NASCAR – North American Stock Car Automobile Racing
NCAA – National Collegiate Athletics Association
NGB – National Governing Body
NGO – Non-Governmental Organization
NHRA – National Hot Rod Association
NOC – National Organizing Committee
NPO – Non-profit Organization
NSGB – National Sport Governing Body
NSNVO – National Survey of Nonprofit and Voluntary Organizations
NSO – National Sport Organization
OC – Organizational Capacity
PEST – Political, Economic, Social, Technological
PESTLE - Political, Economic, Social, Technological, LEgal
POSDCORB – Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting & Budgeting
SPLISS - Sport Policy Factors Leading to International Sporting Success
SWOT – Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats
TSOASA – Ted Stevens Olympic and Amateur Sport Act of 1978
UK – United Kingdom
UNDP – United Nations Development Programme
USACK – USA Canoe / Kayak
USAG – USA Gymnastics
USOC – United States Olympic Committee
USOPC – United States Olympic and Paralympic Committee
WADA – World Anti-Doping Agency
WWE – World Wrestling Entertainment

I. CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

“Do what you can, with what you’ve got, where you are” (Roosevelt, 1913, p. 327). These words of wisdom, penned by the 26th President of the United States (US), Theodore Roosevelt, over 100 years ago in the context of building a nation, reflect the importance that government leaders have given to the idea of building organizational capacity. Presidents and politicians repeatedly have acknowledged the value that sport brings to society – as a means for personal development; as a means for team building and camaraderie among neighbors or employees of an organization; as a means of building a sense of community for municipalities; as a means for showing national pride for a country; and as a vehicle to foster global peace for the world.

Leaders have long taken an interest in sport due to its impact on life for these reasons, but also for its ability to influence ideologies, economies and political relationships at individual, municipal, state, national and international levels. In founding the National Collegiate Athletics Association (NCAA) in 1904, President Roosevelt sought to establish a governing body which could serve as an ethical overseer of collegiate athletics. JFK acknowledged the unique needs of the sport industry when he signed into law the Sports Broadcast Act of 1961. By doing so, he authorized legal and financial structures which enabled the sport industry to begin collectively building capacity within its sector. This presidential action was the first of many others which provided sport governing bodies financial and other mechanisms which solidified financial inputs, increased league stability by fostering parity among teams within a league, and enabled sport organizations to generate stable sources of long-term income.

By signing Title IX in 1972, Richard Nixon kicked open the door of sports organizations to women and to those with disabilities, marking a significant milestone for diversity and inclusion. Jimmy Carter, in an act of political opposition to the Soviet Empire, used his presidential authority to boycott the 1980 Moscow Olympics, and subsequently was joined by 60 countries across the globe in their unified expression of disapproval for Soviet conduct at the time. During the Regan years, legislators and the President passed laws such as the 1984 Cable Act and the 1986 Tax Act, which further fortified financial mechanisms in sport. Likewise, the Olympic movement within the US has been heavily impacted and influenced by Congressional action when it enacted the Amateur Sports Act in 1978, giving the US Olympic and Paralympic Committee (USOPC) its charter, along with full authority over amateur sport in the US. As one can well note, issues connected to the organizational capacity of sport organizations have been at the top echelons of leadership decisions in the US for a very long time.

As nonprofit, membership-based sport organizations, the USOPC and its member National Sport Governing Bodies (NSGBs) touch millions of people every day. The sports governed by NSGBs represent a component of modern life which is as common to society as politics, religion and the weather. Their activities serve as a means for families and friends to connect; their special events are a mechanism for communities to come together, to generate publicity and generate economic impact. NSGBs recognize that sport is a powerful means to impart valuable life lessons to the next generation and to achieve individual, local, regional and national goals (Shilbury and Ferkins, 2011). Together, US NSGBs sanction hundreds of thousands of local, regional and national programs that develop individual abilities and foster participation and interest of millions

of Americans – from the beginner or casual participant to the most elite and dedicated athletes – our Olympic heroes. Herein lies the capacity challenge. As members of the USOPC, these NSGBs are charged with the duty to ethically and effectively govern their membership, sanction local, regional and national competitions, quickly and fairly resolve conflicts, develop elite level talent, and promote and grow their respective sports among the general population. As apical organizations, these NSGBs function at the top of a domestic sport governance hierarchy and they must effectively cater to an entire spectrum of participation, from the youngest of children enrolled in grassroots programs, to athletes who compete at the pinnacle of global achievement (Norlander, 2018). They must successfully navigate relationships with global organizations like the World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) and International Federations (IFs) which globally govern their respective sports. Also, many NSGBs within the US have strategic, formal connections to national professional sport leagues and collegiate governing bodies as a means to acquire and develop resources and athletic talent. Such relationships place demands (at times unexpectedly) upon these NSGBs (Norlander, 2018). To exhibit sustained success, NSGBs require exemplary leadership, governance, networking, collaboration, resource acquisition and information sharing. Since NSGBs in the US receive little, if any, government funding, they must also procure the financial and other resources and capital required to achieve these goals.

Technology, Transformational Change and Sport

As more and more elements of life migrate to a digital platform, sport organizations like the US NSGBs must adapt and embrace change to develop new systems, structures, and financial models just to survive. Social media has enhanced and

diversified the means by which members communicate within their organization and to external stakeholders, so the internet's innate values of trust, transparency, authenticity, and decentralized control (Berners-Lee, 2010; Wheeler, 2013) have become critical elements for companies of all kinds to accept and embrace to realize sustained success.

Web 2.0 and social media have redefined how sport organizations attract, retain, grow and manage their customers, members, business partners, board members, staff and other key stakeholders. Effective deployment of information technology using analytics and big data have enabled organizations to institute variable ticket pricing practices to maximize ticket income and develop complex customer relationship management practices. At one point not long ago, resale of tickets was deemed scalping, however Stub Hub (and companies like this who operate within the secondary ticket market) have legitimized this practice and have redefined how organizations package, price and sell ticket inventory. Additionally, they have redefined how and with whom sport organizations compete for ticket sales. As technology and digital capabilities enable sport entities (and fans for that matter!) to produce their own content and bypass traditional forms of media content delivery such as television, print and radio, an erosion is taking place of non-digital, established primary revenue streams that the sport industry in the US has relied upon for well over half of a century. The emergence of e-sports, along with changes in various state laws to permit sports betting, are just two ways sport organizations are influenced by technology as they work to embrace change, innovate and find new money in these enormous, global consumer markets. Television and cable companies that pay rights fees to sport organizations such as the US NSGBs are seeing customers cut expensive cable subscriptions in search of more affordable, a la carte

content, or content on mobile devices, and as a result it has sent sport media organizations searching far and wide to develop digital ways to recapture these customers (Lombardo & Broughton, 2017). With costs of attendance skyrocketing, many people are opting to consume sporting events at locations outside a venue. Content is migrating to the internet, which up until now has been an evasive revenue stream for organizations to monetize. Amazon, DAZN and YouTube are now vying with traditional media outlets to bid for the global broadcast rights for content delivery.

In addition to a voracious appetite for digital content, the Millennial and iGen generations have also heightened pressure on companies they patronize to demonstrate a corporate social responsibility element regarding how they do business (Yim, 2015). Consequently, the US NSGBs and their elite athletes have realized that they can monetize this desire by serving as highly visible, emotionally engaging community relations platforms for corporate America. This ability, however, requires a value system and actions which are consistent with peak performance and void of scandal and controversy. To sustain success over time, US NSGBs and their athletes must exemplify an upstanding reputation and demonstrate an authenticity and a transparency which withstands considerable public scrutiny. Monetizing intellectual property assets based upon Millennial and iGen fan base preferences, new ticket sales models and new trends in content delivery represent key revenue streams for high profile sport entities such as the USOPC and the larger NSGBs (USA Gymnastics, USA Track and Field, etc.).

It is a daunting task for NSGBs to successfully develop, deliver and sustain programs and activities to such a diverse spectrum of stakeholders. US NSGB leaders acknowledge that a disconnect exists within and among their stated values, policies,

organizational systems and stakeholder needs. Unfortunately, when gaps occur, participant risk increases, programs are delivered at less-than-optimal levels and goals are less likely to be achieved. Given the disruptive changes that technology and other environmental forces are exerting, NSGBs are being coerced both internally and externally to seek a means to innovate business practices and improve governance, organizational structures, program delivery and mission fulfillment to better serve and protect its members. NSGBs which exhibit poor capacity for decision making, display weak leadership or lack the ability to implement policy and uphold ethical standards will negatively impact clubs, members, and elite athletes across the entire country. Such organizations are also at risk of failure, should poor decisions become egregious, leaders seek self-serving motives, or weak policies fail to protect those most vulnerable. For example, as a result of policy failure, poor leadership and dismal decisions made by USA Gymnastics (USAG) and USOPC leaders, the safety and well-being of hundreds of USA Gymnastics members were compromised by predatory individuals within the system who went unchecked for an extended period of time. As a result of the public outcry from actions of the former USAG team doctor and lack of investigation and corrective measures by leaders in place at the time, both the USOPC and USA Gymnastics (USAG) fired top executives and purged their board of directors (Fischer, 2018b). The fallout from this policy failure impacted hundreds of thousands of current USAG members across the US because USAG was at risk to lose its status as a USOPC NSGB (US Olympic and Paralympic Committee, 2018). There are few (if any) entities who possess the OC to assume the role to govern gymnastics within the US. In response to this scandal and subsequent coercive change mandates from Congress and key stakeholders,

the USOPC established a subcommittee within its board of directors with the express purpose to rethink the structure of the relationships that it holds with its NSGBs (Fisher, 2018a). Other capacity-related problems experienced by smaller NSGBs – such as USA Canoe/Kayak (USACK) for example – while not due to corruption or abuse, are equally as detrimental to an organization’s success and risk organizational failure or decertification (which happened in the case of USACK; now American Canoe is the officially recognized canoe and kayak NSGB in the US). Such negative outcomes take place when top executives and board members fail to demonstrate effective leadership, succumb to power struggles, fail to develop and implement strong policy and fail to effectively govern. Negative outcomes occur when senior executives fail to acquire or appropriately deploy scarce resources, strengthen weak structures, or fail to improve the efficiency of poorly functioning processes (Buchanan, 2017). In both of the above-mentioned instances, the programs and events that NSGBs facilitate touch millions of fans, participants and members across the US. When NSGBs fail to effectively set goals and achieve their purpose and mission, stakeholders across the organization are negatively impacted. In many situations, the search for scarce resources devolves to infighting among stakeholders, power struggles among leaders and a toxic culture within the organization emerges as members lose trust and group identity as an organization.

Organizational Capacity and Sustained Success

The USOPC and its member NSGBs are under immense pressure to quickly implement change at this very moment; a transformation being demanded by key stakeholders due to violations of trust which senior executives and board members have made. One only need look at the Sports Business Journal front cover to see that

organizational capacity, organizational change, strategic leadership, strategic communications and emerging media, and training and development of the USOPC and its member NSGBs are truly front-page news (Fischer, 2019). In addition, several related, unfortunate news stories demonstrate that these issues need to be addressed in a systemic way, as similar abuses are taking place in multiple NSGBs (Betz, 2018). As a consequence of the USA Gymnastics complaint, a transition in the CEO and Board Chair leadership roles occurred, and newly appointed executives are under immense pressure to change the organizational culture and functions within this organization to influence change to prevent such future occurrences. Maximizing OC is a means by which the USOPC member NSGBs can fulfill their mission, achieve goals and sustain positive outcomes for members, clubs, and the communities in which they participate and operate. It also reduces risks connected to inefficient acquisition and use of resources and lessens the probability of negligent, or worse, intentionally unethical decisions.

Technology is ushering in third-order, transformational change in financial models and operating practices. In other words, organizations are changing how they change and innovate. Such technological trends greatly impact how sport organizations operate, who their competitors are, how they generate revenue, how they keep current fans engaged and attract new fans; these trends impact each and every facet of how a sport organization is structured, the goals it sets, values it holds, people it hires, financial decisions it makes, technology it uses, social capital and stakeholder relationships it builds, collaborative efforts it pursues and with what entities it pursues collaboration. US NSGBs have traditionally been patriarchal, male-dominated, inflexible, and non-transparent. As such, these organizations are ill equipped to adapt to mounting pressures and demands from

these nascent internal and external constituents. New stakeholders are emerging, requiring a shift in values and business practices across every business industry and every sector (public, private, nonprofit). To endure, sport managers must take action to develop their company's OC to achieve goals. They must master new abilities to attract and develop resources, turning these resources into sustained competitive outcomes. Unlike their global peers, US NSGBs do not receive federal funding or infrastructural support. They must rely on emerging revenue streams in order to generate income, adding considerable pressure from new stakeholders for transformational, third order change.

NSGBs can be a powerful means for individuals, communities, regions and countries to achieve goals when high levels of OC are successfully sustained. Due to their mission, purposes and organizational structure, these specialized entities can be viewed as capacity builders of US sport. NSGBs are chosen by the USOPC because they are organizations which display the greatest ability to most effectively govern, promote and grow their respective Olympic sport in the US and deliver elite athletes for competition in the Olympic Games. These organizations are expected to possess the required capacity, resources and infrastructure to consistently deliver favorable outcomes on specifically agreed upon purposes and goals. These favorable outcomes require an ability to effectively manage a complex stakeholder network and require certain levels of OC. US NGBs also require an ability to learn and change as an organization. Change efforts thus far have had limited success due to organizational inertia, inflexible hierarchical structures and the promulgation of value systems and norms which reflect a priority on athletic achievement above other elements such as athlete safety, diversity, inclusion, and broader stakeholder needs. Also, those seeking to improve an

organization's capacity must first have an awareness of the current circumstances. OC is a complex construct to assess due to its multi-dimensional nature (Winand, Zintz, Bayle and Robinson, 2010).

USOPC Reform and Its Influence on NSGB Organizational Capacity

One would be remiss in discussing NSGB OC without acknowledging the substantial transition that is taking place at the very top of the US Olympic system, since ultimately this reform is designed to also transform and reorient the values, culture, priorities and organizational structures within all US Olympic member organizations. Transformational change is happening at the apex of this system as a result of coercive external forces following the controversy surrounding USA Gymnastics and from subsequent Congressional reports and legal findings of various forms of athlete abuse (Energy and Commerce Committee, 2018; Ropes and Gray, 2018; U.S. Senate Committee on Commerce, Science and Transportation, Subcommittee on Manufacturing, Trade and Consumer Protection, 2019). Because Congress is the entity that created the USOPC by virtue of the Amateur Sports Act of 1978, signed into law by then President Jimmy Carter, it has the authority to modify the USOPC charter and dictate the means by which the Olympic movement is implemented within the US. These powerful stakeholders are demanding immediate and permanent systemic change – compelling the USOPC to completely reform itself and all its related members, from the top down and from the inside out, or face severe consequences. These key stakeholders are calling for a complete shift of the organization's culture, values, structures, and the very way that the Olympic movement functions within the US. Ultimately these external, coercive forces will also greatly impact the values, structure and systems of its member NSGBs, as these

key stakeholders are demanding greater oversight and increased accountability measures of all facets of the Olympic system within the US – NSGBs included. An early result of these coercive change initiatives transitioned the top USOPC staff and USOPC board leadership. The new leaders within the USOPC took heed of these key voices and commissioned its own inquiry in an effort to initiate change. They put into place a 10-member commission – led by a sport management practitioner expert and comprised of an Athlete Advisory Council (AAC) member, current Olympians and Paralympians, Olympic alumni, summer and winter NSGB representatives, a youth organization representative, independent counsel and a USOPC board member. The Athlete and NGB Engagement Commission – also known as the Borders Commission – was created in 2018 with the purpose to develop tactical recommendations for systemic change. The USOPC instructed the Commission to examine the various Congressional and legal reports, make inquiries of their own among the Olympic community and forward its own findings in terms of the status of the Olympic movement within the US. The Borders Commission (2019) final report expressed the need – and made specific tactical recommendations – for transformational change of the USOPC and its member NSGBs, calling for increased oversight, accountability, reporting and for a culture and values shift of the USOPC and its NSGB members and affiliates. In July of 2019, after nine months of inquiry and deliberation, the Borders Commission (2019) forwarded recommendations to the USOPC, including suggested modifications to the TSOASA. These suggestions, if accepted and implemented, will transform organizational culture and values, structures and internal operations of the USOPC. Due to the nature of the recommendations, these changes will also initiate transformative change upon the USOPC members and affiliates.

Some of the strongest recommendations involve shifting the focus of the USOPC to center around athlete well-being and safety, and in doing so, these recommendations propose to elevate the governance role of the USOPC within the system to protect these primary stakeholders. As an example, the Borders Commission (2019) recommended that the USOPC go beyond recognizing NSGBs, proposing that a certification process be created for NSGBs to submit to, adhere to, and document compliance to in order to maintain its membership status as an NSGB within the USOPC system. It seems as though members of the Borders Commission came to a similar conclusion as Chelladurai (1987) and Chelladurai and Chang (2000), when they forwarded recommendations which direct the organization's focus on the group for whose benefit an organization primarily exists. This perspective is known as the multiple-constituency model of effectiveness of organizations, and most highly values measures based on preferences and values of internal and external organisational participants (Papadimitriou, 2001).

Shortly after the Borders Commission report was released in July of 2019, the USOPC proposed and approved bylaw amendments effective January 1, 2020 which delineate certification processes, procedures and policies which NSGBs must adhere to and/or develop by or before January of 2021. These proposed amendments were released in August of 2019, thus giving NSGBs an 18-month notice to implement changes. NSGBs that do not comply to these increased oversight and policy revisions prior to the deadline risk decertification and expulsion from the USOPC. Coercive external forces such as these are certain to transform NSGBs in terms of the means by which their purposes and core functions are lived out. Due to the USOPC's power to revoke NSGB membership status, these certification standards changes will impact and transform

NSGB organizational values, priorities and organizational capacities needed to retain their status as a USOPC member organization.

In addition to bylaw amendments which strengthen USOPC oversight and governance its system, the USOPC revised its vision and mission statements and incorporated core principles as part of its strategic plan moving forward (USOPC, 2019). These revisions center the words and language of the organization around servicing athletes and protecting their well-being and safety. Success in making these deep changes will depend upon tactics utilized to implement the changes, as it can be an uphill challenge for new leaders to modify processes which have become institutionalized and change deeply seated beliefs and values of long-term followers. Given the internal and external stakeholder pressures to reform, the USOPC has begun a massive effort to overhaul itself inside and out in many ways – in governance, its organizational culture, its structural relationships with NSGBs, its revision of strategic plans, establishment of individual, organizational and systemic accountability procedures and institutions, levels of transparency, and more – any one of which is a substantial feat to effectively accomplish, let alone all at once. It certainly seems as though an updated, contextually relevant model which NSGB leaders could look to for best practices to hone strengths and shore up weaknesses to set and achieve goals and fulfill its purpose would be of value, which is why this research project has been undertaken.

Why an Integrated Literature Review?

According to scholars, (Boote and Beile, 2005; Cooper, 1998; Snyder, 2019; Torraco, 2005, 2016, Webster and Watson, 2002), integrated literature reviews are a useful tool when scholars are seeking to reconceptualize former models or extend knowledge and introduce new ideas. According to Snyder (2019), integrative reviews can form the foundation of a new conceptual model; they are a unique breed of research method in which new knowledge is created (Torraco, 2005). And, when studying more widely researched topics, integrative reviews expand a theoretical foundation to foster further development of a topic (Snyder, 2019). Development of theory is a central activity in organizational research (Eisenhardt, 1989, p.532). In her article, she articulates the inductive process of theory development and the pivotal role of literature in this activity. As the subject of organizational capacity has gained attention from various fields, in parallel, the knowledge base has also grown, evolved and diversified. Researchers from a myriad of disciplines have studied the fundamental elements of organizational capacity, some forwarding new conceptual models, and others seeking to map specific models to a new context. As a result, research on organizational capacity has become diversified and segmented. Integrated literature reviews offer a means by which scholars can reconcile and clarify variation, discord, and divergent research within the literature (Cooper, 1988; Snyder, 2019; Torraco, 2005, 2016). The tactics used in an integrative review enable new frameworks and perspectives to emerge from more mature topics (Torraco, 2005). Using various forms of synthesis, integrative reviews create new understandings and perspectives around a subject matter – in this case that of OC of US NGBs. Sport scholars have raised the idea that an extant literature review of this topic is

due (O'Boyle and Hassan, 2014). It is for these primary reasons why the author wrote an integrated literature review of organizational capacity within a sport context.

Need for an Updated, Contextually Relevant Organizational Capacity Model

Given the disruptive changes that both internal and external forces are exerting, NGB leaders are seeking a means to coordinate, innovate and improve program delivery, internal processes and communications to grow its member base and better service and protect current members. In one sense, these specialized, unique organizations can be viewed as capacity builders of sport, and therefore an OC model contextually relevant to this industry would be of great value to aid efforts to fulfill their mission. Several non-profit OC models exist, each of which define capacity using different dimensions. Some models have emerged from the non-profit sector, some from management and business, some from public administration, and still other models emerged from governmental studies and education. Each defines capacity differently, as some place the greatest emphasis on resources, some place priority on processes, some on outcomes, and others define organizational capacity in an entirely distinctive way, choosing instead to view capacity as a collection of abilities which are put into action. Very few of these models have been contextualized to sport, and none of which to a US context. Sport management scholars have sought to create their own models to articulate the specific and unique capacities needed by NSGBs across the globe that produce elite level talent and achieve goals for international sporting success (De Bosscher and De Knop, 2003). Prior studies in sport that do exist generally have not examined NSGBs needs from a multi-level perspective, targeting only the IF, NOC, or NSGB level or else they focus their study at the grass roots level of individual clubs and members. A broader

framework is needed which accounts for the apical nature of this network and defines the contexts, components, and capacity needs which are unique to sport, and further, unique to each level within the network. A need exists to model the requisite capacities of local, regional and national entities, which depicts the organizational capacity domains of an entire NSGB system within the United States. The framework must not only take into consideration prerequisites, needs and contexts that are specific to non-profit organizations, but it must also incorporate the nuances of the sport industry within the US. Specifically, this model must reflect the structures of the sport system within the US, and more important, it must factor in constraints, mandates and compliance requirements put into place by Congress and the USOPC. Meeting performance standards of these two key stakeholders are of utmost importance to establishing and sustaining a designation as an NSGB within the United States. An OC model that reflected such contexts would help NSGBs to attract and retain the millions of Americans and tens of thousands of clubs that start to participate in organized sport in the United States. A model contextually specific to US NSGBs and that connects gaps between levels would be of great benefit for US NSGBs to initiate needed transformational change and sustainable growth.

Project Purpose

The pandemic of 2020 has instigated disruptive, transformational change on the sport industry, in every industry segment and along the entirety of the Olympic sport development pipeline. As a result, a framework of how sport organizations along this pipeline function within the US is needed. In addition, US Olympic and Paralympic Committee stakeholders in the last 36 months have ushered in a tidal wave of change upon the entirety of this apex organization, demanding change to organizational

leadership, values, structure, and the ways and means by which resources are allocated among members. It is a time of intense organizational change and reformation for the US Olympic and Paralympic system. To a much greater degree, society is demanding that organizations become more open, transparent, diverse, and able to adapt to changing circumstances. This expectation requires organizations to aspire to become values-driven, learning organizations, capable of successfully adapting to changing environs. An updated, contextually specialized model of OC that helps foster the organizational development of US NGBs would be an extremely helpful tool. US NGB leaders could use such a model as a best-practice comparison to aid self-assessment and strategic efforts for sustained success. Drawing upon ideas in sport management, education, management, public administration and the non-profit sector, this integrated review proposes various capacities which are relevant to NGBs in the US; it proposes an integrated and extended model of USOPC and member NGBs' needed capacities, to set a starting point from which to develop these special organizations for sustained success.

Research is non-existent in the context of US Olympic and Paralympic sport, and an integrated framework is needed from which to advance knowledge within this area. This literature review examines several models being used within sport and updates, integrates and extends the domains of those found in recent use. Many models currently in use are in need of revision, as they do not include, or address elements related to the emergence of social media and technological advancements of the last 20 years. They do not fully articulate the technological capabilities and impacts of two-way stakeholder communication, nor do they explain the nature of collaboration that is subsequently required, based on all the above. The purpose of this integrated literature review is to

address the dearth of knowledge surrounding the OC needs of nonprofit NSGBs within the US. It seeks to review, critique and synthesize OC literature and reconceptualize the topic to include domains found in related social disciplines, modernizing the model and placing it in the context of modern sport. It identifies, defines, categorizes and describes contextually relevant dimensions of OC and proposes an updated model for nonprofit Olympic sport in the United States. This effort assimilates knowledge from an academic and practitioner world and forwards an updated perspective of the context and ecosystem that the USOPC and its member NGBs are currently navigating. Concepts from public administration, management, education and health care have been drawn into this model to explore how best practice from these disciplines are of value in a non-profit sport context. The model is formed using information not only from academic research over the past 20 years; it also integrates information and research pertaining to OC from management, public administration, information technology and other industries to reconceptualize and modernize a model and framework of OC upon which future studies can emerge. USOPC governance documents, Congressional reports and independent investigative reports of the USOPC guide the formation of US-specific key success factors and establish a sport-specific context to the model. This outcome of this effort is a proposed model of OC domains required by nonprofit sport governing bodies in the US to set and achieve goals and fulfill their mission. It hopes to serve as a first step of many to establish an instrument which helps the USOPC and its member NSGBs examine systemic strengths and weaknesses and formulate strategy for future sustained success.

II. CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of Literature

What is Organizational Capacity, and Why is it Important?

Business and management scholars, public administration scholars, academicians and practitioners in many disciplines have studied organizational capacity for decades (Baser and Morgan, 2008; Christensen and Gazley, 2008; Connolly and York, 2002; Hall, et al., 2003; Honadle, 1981; Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan, 2013; McKinsey, 2001). It is important to understand the nuances of organizational capacity because knowledge of these constructs helps more readily identify and benchmark a company's strengths and weaknesses, surpluses and deficits in various dimensions of personnel and corporate function. Strategically building an organization's capacity enables it to adapt to and survive changes in its internal and external environments, fulfill its mission and sustain a competitive advantage over time. Organizational capacity has become particularly important to non-profit organizations as funders and stakeholders require ever-increasing accountability for their investments, seeking benchmarked progress and evidence of an ability to successfully follow through with the intent of grant awards, fulfill its mission and meet goals (Andersson, Faulk and Stewart, 2015; Christensen and Gazley, 2008). When leaders identify an organization's capacities, they more clearly visualize potential and develop better strategies which define, build, measure and sustain what it views as success. They can assess effectiveness and sustain competitive performance. Knowledge of capacities enables leaders to develop the skills, processes, structures and systems within, among and between organizational dimensions and levels; managers can better coordinate company functions to strengthen and unify efforts to achieve its mission.

Importance of Organizational Capacity in Sport

Organizational capacity is also important in the sport industry. Much is changing in this industry's ecosystem, requiring leaders to innovate new ways of doing business. Digital technologies – for example virtual and augmented reality – and the emergence of e-sports are redefining how, where and when people experience and engage in sport activities. The collaborative capacity of Web 2.0, along with social media and other emerging technologies has changed how fans support their teams and has given them a greater voice. Web 2.0 has given businesses an important marketing tool as big data and analytics technology improves. Millennial fans have proven difficult for sport organizations to predict and aging fan bases are less appealing to corporate sponsors (Lombardo and Broughton, 2017). COVID-19, in just mere weeks, brought this entire industry to its knees. These are just a few of the many trends currently impacting global sport organizations, inducing an era of uncertainty and transformational change to all the traditional means of doing business and revenue streams. As technology escalates the rate and nature of change, capacity-development is becoming an increasingly important concept for survival for nonprofit organizations (NPOs). NPOs within the sport industry are not exempt from these pressures. These unique NPOs are experiencing the same pressures as their professional sport counterparts, however they must navigate these challenges while striving to effectively govern heterogeneous state, regional, and local club organizations. These organizations must effectively deliver services to members within their system who represent the entire spectrum of athletics performance and participation. At the same time, these NPOs must effectively interact with global sport governing bodies and international sport federations, as well as international

organizations such as the World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA), which oversees drug testing on elite athletes. This wide variety of stakeholders requires sport NPOs to set goals which at times seem dichotomous to one other and as a result, the USOPC and its member NSGBs have a difficult challenge ahead. To survive this transition, they are being forced to develop new capabilities, capacities, and capacity-development strategies in response to almost daily technological advances which, in prior generations, were mere fragments of a sci-fi television show. The exogenous and endogenous forces exerted on NSGBs as a result of technology are here to stay and have caused a permanent, seismic shift in how effective companies operate. It is important to understand an organization's capacity to deal with these forces, and thus strategize and evaluate ways to build and fortify an organization's capacity to sustain successful outcomes over time.

Theories Used to Explain Organizational Capacity

Scholars use various theories to understand and examine organizational capacity. Researchers such as Kanfer (1990) have explored organizational behavior using motivation theory, seeking to recognize differences between behavior and performance. In her study, Kanfer (1990) attempted to predict or explain the impact of an individual's motivation to complete complex duties over time. The theory of the firm, used by Lam and Lundvall (2006), helps understand why learning is an integral and critical component of an organization's ability to form strategy. Shumpeter's (1911) theory of economic development articulates the interdependence and impact of political, economic, social and technological influences on organizational capacity, while Reade (2010) used agency theory, and Pirson and Milhotra (2011) used stakeholder theory to understand the influence of collaboration and organizational trust on organizational performance.

Complexity theory, as found by Mischen and Jackson (2008), can help companies implement intra- and interorganizational policy to improve performance. Process theory and structuration theory, used by Pettigrew, (1992) and Sminia, (2009) respectively, are metatheories employed to explain innovation and change within an entity. Performance theory, used by Kanfer, (1990) offers managers opportunities to include a larger number of performance indicators that identify individual differences such as abilities and task comprehension, as well as environmental factors such as task demands and situational restrictions; which according to Franks (1999), task demands and situational restrictions are a key constraint of an organization (or person's) ability to succeed.

According to Golensky, (2016), two theories which are commonly utilized by NPOs to examine organizational capacity and frame the context of the situation include political economy theory and stakeholder theory. Both theories have relevance to the context at hand for the USOPC member NSGBs. Political economy theory considers an organization's goals and structure and stresses the importance of interrelationships of exogenous and endogenous political and economic forces on the organization (Golensky, 2016). In addition, political economy theory recognizes the impact of an organization's culture on decisions that are made, as in some cases decisions are made not based upon opportunity cost, or some politically neutral criteria, but instead upon patterns of ingrained behavior, norms of the company, or assumptions made of the organization; thus, this phenomenon reflects organizational inertia within a system. Political economy theory also takes into account formal and informal authority and examines behaviors of the internal actors using leadership, authority and influence to make decisions. Finally, political economy theory factors in the external political and economic dynamics that

influence key decisions and strategy regarding essential resources. According to Golensky, (2016), “This approach postulates that economic and political forces, structures, pressures and constraints are among the most significant motivators of change and are key factors shaping directions of change” (p.24). In contemplation of the current status of the USOPC member NGBs, one certainly recognizes a highly political environment which involves strong internal and external forces – from the IOC, international sport federations, the US government, its own member NGBs, the athletes and clubs of such organizations, each with specific needs. In addition, we see that in the case of USAG, past decisions were influenced by values held, organizational structures, organizational culture, and decision making based upon patterns of behavior, not necessarily what was in the best interest (or safety) of key constituents or of its requirement to uphold its commitment to effectively serve its stated purposes.

Another theory that is utilized by sport management academics to examine organizational capacity is stakeholder theory (Ferkins, Shilbury and McDonald, 2009). Stakeholder theory is commonly cited in the nonprofit literature as well (Golensky, 2016). Using this theory, clients, staff, board, funders, regulatory agencies, partners each give something to – and receive something from – the organization (Golensky, 2016, p.27). In this situation, each stakeholder influences decision making based upon what it gives and receives. According to Golensky, (2016), the primary stakeholders of an NPO include clients, staff, the board, funders, regulatory agencies, and nonprofit community partners. In Golensky’s (2016) view, clients give purpose to and receive services from an organization. Staff give loyalty and productivity and receive employment and professional growth. The board gives legitimacy to an external environment and receives

recognition and reward. Funders give financial support and receive efficiency and effectiveness. Regulatory agencies give approval when they perceive quality. Nonprofit community partners give resources in exchange for resources. A diagram which reflects what each stakeholder group gives and receives can be found in Figure 2 below.

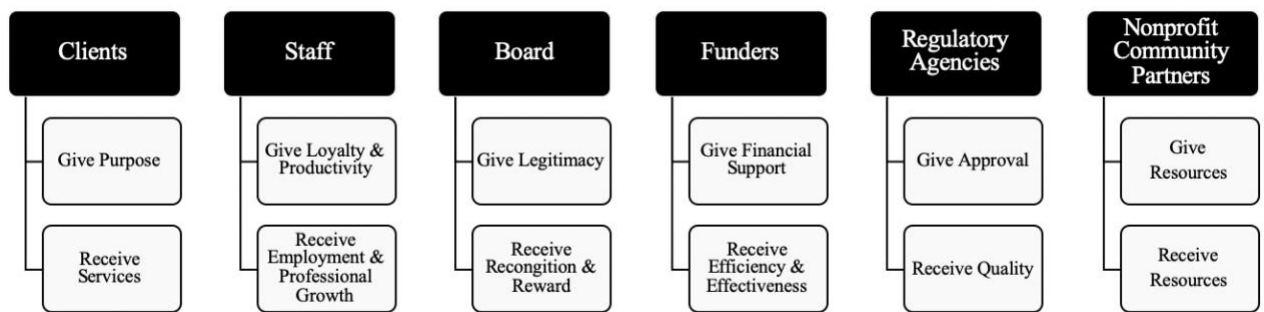


Figure 1 Stakeholder Relationships (Golensky, 2016, p. 27)

According to Geeraert, Alm and Groll, (2013), the key constituents of sport organizations include the general public; players, athletes and members; leagues and clubs; fans; sponsors and business partners; partner organizations and member organizations and the government. A depiction of these stakeholders can be viewed in Figure 3.

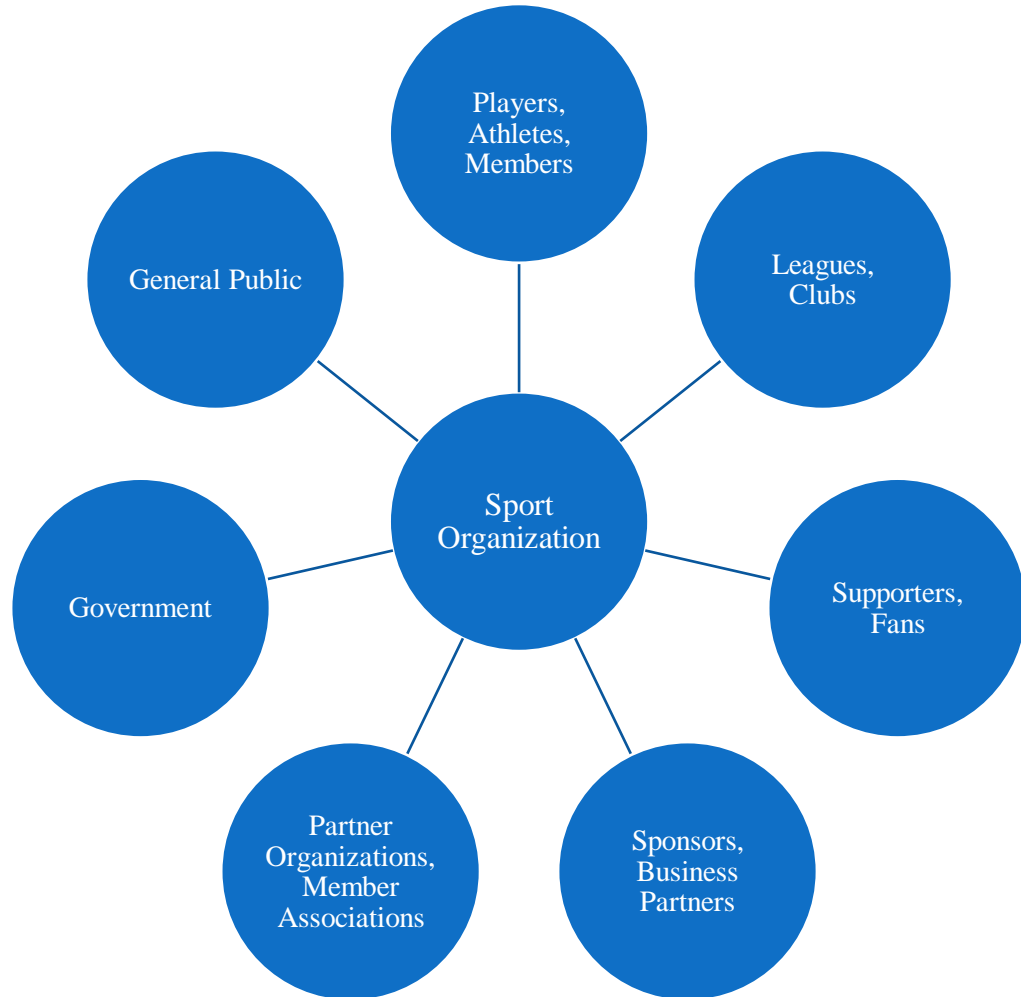


Figure 2 Stakeholders of Sport Organizations- Geeraert, Alm, & Groll, (2013)

In reviewing the directives given by Congress to the USOPC, and by extension its member NGBs via the Amateur Sports Act (1978) (also known as the Ted Stevens Act), one recognizes the mandate to incorporate relevant stakeholder needs into the mission and purpose of these organizations. From a political economy theory perspective, it seems as though these external and internal forces are stepping forward as “significant motivators” of change, and these forces are joining together (Congress, the athletes, the general public) to demand reforms that seem to be greatly needed.

Systems theory, used by Baser, et al., (2008) to examine organizational capacity, is a grandiose lens through which to integrate many theories and view the organization as a whole. Underlining this point, as recent as December 20, 2018, the House of Representatives’ Energy and Commerce Committee released its report of its findings on a year-long investigation related to ‘system-wide’ policy and governance failures by both the USOPC and its member NSGBs to protect athletes. The executive summary of this 133-page report noted widespread abuse in the Olympic community and also acknowledged “a system that had failed them (the athletes) – regardless of the sport” (p.3). In addition to the strongly condemning statements concerning the systemic failures and misdirected values, it specifically identified inconsistencies in policy throughout the NSGBs and a struggle the USOPC had in its efforts to maintain minimum standards of diversity within NSGBs. In this brief excerpt we see familiar organizational capacity terms. We see a conception of the Olympic community (i.e. the USOPC and its member NGBs) as a system which must effectively collaborate and integrate its processes and systems; we see the critical importance of a value system that must align with governance and decision making; we see the vital importance of strong policies throughout the

system, and a strong belief by an influential external constituent of an organization's responsibility to protect its key stakeholders from harm.

Truly the USOPC and its member NSGBs are under immense pressure to change their ways and means of fulfilling their missions. It seems as though organizational capacity is an increasingly important concept for these organizations to evaluate and assess as a means to implement meaningful, sustainable, and permanent third-order change in how they operate. Together, use of such a wide variety of theories as those mentioned above to understand dimensions of organizational capacity and organizational performance paints a descriptive picture of organizations and offers explanations for how they function at macro, meso and micro levels. Combined, findings from the studies mentioned above can begin to articulate individual elements and features contained within an organization as it is an open system.

Organizational Capacity from a Systems Theory Perspective

Many scholars now interpret organizational capacity using a systems theory perspective (Baser, et al., 2008; Honadle, 1981; Harsh, 2012; Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan, 2013), defining it not only based upon types of capital and the resources or technical aptitudes needed for sustained success, but also based upon traits exhibited within a dynamic, intricate system. These scholars forward a much more complex interpretation of the construct, defining capacity in terms of both individual and collective technical skills, behaviors, motivations, values, structures, processes and outcomes displayed within a multi-dimensional, multi-level system (Andersson, Faulk and Stewart, 2015; Aragón, 2010; Baser, et al. 2008; Connolly and York, 2003; Harsh, 2010; Honadle, 1981). It is such an interpretation that this integrated review proposes for

a sport context. Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan (2013) reference a paradigm shift in capacity building which occurred during the mid-1990s, linking initiatives to systems thinking, and recommend that capacity building be examined “in the background of interlinked levels” (p. 30). Interpreted as a paradigm, systems theory offers much insight to those examining organizational functions and behaviors. When seeking to understand organizational capacity, systems theory sheds light on the reasons why and how companies evolve and sustain themselves over time. First forwarded by biologist von Bertalanffy (1975), management scholars identified with systems theory by analogizing an organization to a living organism. Systems theory can be used to explain many facets of organizational capacity by looking to the properties of an open system which von Bertalanffy (1975) identified. From a management perspective, systems theory recognizes the organization as an open, human system that operates like a living organism. It recognizes that the organization requires resources (inputs) which move through the system (throughputs) and end up as outputs (or byproducts) and performance is measured by assessing outcomes. It acknowledges that to survive, the organization must use feedback to adapt to changes or forces in the environment. Biological organisms use DNA, among other mechanisms, as a coding structure which determines how to respond to environs and inputs; in organizations, this coding structure is its organizational culture (values, beliefs, behaviors, artefacts, etc.) and the policies, procedures and systems put into place by leaders.

The characteristics of open systems, which if examined and deconstructed in a sport context relative to the USOPC and its member NSGBs, give leaders key guideposts for building and strengthening successful organizations which are more able to adapt to

its environs and successfully compete and survive over time. There are five primary attributes of an open system, all of which can be observed in organizational function regardless of the industry, and all of which influence levels of organizational capacity in a context specific to the organization. These five primary attributes include: a) dynamic morphology – cycles of activity which perpetually open and close due to internal and external triggers; b) dynamic homeostasis – internal balancing mechanisms which work to keep the organization stable; c) negative entropy, meaning that the organization's systems specialize and become more complex over time (we are certainly seeing this trend as technology advances); d) equipotentiality – which states that systems within an organization begin as undifferentiated and similar, each equally capable and ready to take on specific functions and over time able to transform into specialized subsystems which enable adaptation and success; and e) equifinality – the organization as an open system is aiming for a defined outcome and will compensate and reconfigure itself from forces which disrupt its inputs (Voss, 1997a).

As systems become more complex, iterations of systems theory – complexity theory and chaos theory – can be recognized. Using complexity theory, one observes increased resilience within an adaptive system, and also emergence, a greater ability for new attributes to appear. Chaos theory can be used to explain how non-linear patterns form within the organization, intensifying the need for / use of some inputs and reducing the influence of others based upon how these inputs are grouped or valued. In chaos theory, we also see elements of the butterfly effect, instances where one tiny action has enormous impact – one need only look to social media and the impacts of individual tweets that go viral, to see examples of this effect. In addition, there is increased

coordination with other systems both internally and externally as systems evolve and finally, one notes that more complex organizations change the way they change (also known as meta change) (Voss, 1997b). All of these attributes within an organization can be easily recognized within the sport context in recent years, and therefore organizational capacity of US NSGBs is researched and explained in this project by using systems theory and its related cousins, complexity theory and chaos theory. The definition of capacity proposed here incorporates elements of systems theory and the constructs within the proposed model emerge from examining organizational capacity from a systems theory perspective.

Defining Organizational Capacity

In general, organizational capacity has been defined in the literature as an organization's ability to meet goals and fulfill its mission (Andersson, et.al. 2016; Honadle, 1981). Much controversy exists, however, among the management, public administration and nonprofit literature regarding a specific definition of this important idea. Despite continued study, no formally agreed-upon organizational capacity definition exists (Andersson, et.al., 2016; Baser, et al., 2008; Bryan, 2011; Christensen and Gazley, 2008; Honadle, 1981; Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan, 2013). Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan (2013), like Honadle (1981) and Christensen and Gazley (2008), also doubt an agreed upon definition is forthcoming, stating "the term capacity bristles with different meanings and interpretations depending on who uses it and in what context it is used. It is a broad based, all-inclusive concept lending itself to varied interpretations and operationalizations" (p. 27). Ultimately, to define capacity, Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan (2013) cite the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

definition of capacity as: “the abilities, behavior, values and relationships that will help organizations, groups and individuals at any level of society to execute their tasks and accomplish their development activities over a period of time” (Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan, 2013, p. 28). Consistent with Christensen and Gazley (2008), and Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan (2013), Honadle (1981) articulates multiple perspectives from which definitions of capacity arise and she identifies underlying assumptions from which each is derived. In each instance, she questions and critiques the perspective, explaining why it fails to capture the entire concept of capacity due to some broad assumption, inherent bias, omission, or flaw in logic. Based upon the variety of definitional meanings described in her discussion, Honadle (1981) firmly doubts that a “consensus definition” will ever exist. Instead, Honadle (1981) proposes a general framework which is comprised of four domains. The domains within Honadle’s (1981) model include definitional characteristics, administrative practices, institutions, and organizational requirements. She proposes a progression of thought through which organizations must follow in order to complete a cycle of capacity building (which she equates with capacity), and which includes the following steps: a) anticipate change, b) make policy c) develop programs, d) attract resources, e) absorb resources, f) manage resources, g) evaluate what organization did, how well it completed the activity, and the current levels of action. In the end, Honadle (1981) avoids articulating a specific definition, and notes that:

Definitions of capacity vary in the extent to which they specify the activities that should be performed versus the results that are sought. One could argue, however, that a “capable” organization has the capacity to achieve all kinds of

results, hence capacity building is only concerned with building organizational means (p. 577).

In this statement, Honadle (1981) equates capacity and capacity building. What is agreed upon and acknowledged is that organizational capacity is a multi-dimensional, multi-level, multi-disciplinary, context dependent construct (Baser, et al., 2008; Christensen and Gazley, 2008, Connolly and York, 2002; Hall, et al. 2003).

Using an integrated review of various industries and interpretations of organizational capacity, this writing strategically examines related research to develop a model of organizational capacity that is specific to the US NGB context. De Bosscher, et al. (2006), through their research, proposed various levels at which sport organizations function – the micro (the athlete), the meso (the organization), and the macro (the external environment) – and in their studies have come to the conclusion that these levels also interact such that no one element can be buffered from social and cultural contexts and therefore the elements of the sport context should be perceived and evaluated as a whole. So, in addition to multiple levels, dimensions and disciplines, it is proposed that components of organizational capacity in a sport context must also reflect an integration of such elements within the model. One of the primary tenets of systems theory aligns with such an understanding, in that it states that the whole of the system is more than the mere sum of its individual parts. This interpretation of a sport organization – that no one element is separate from the context of the whole – is clearly visible in this regard.

In their review of literature of organizational capacity, Christensen and Gazley (2008) identify substantial discord among scholars to define organizational capacity. Several disagreements they found which occur include how some scholars interchange

the terms capacity, capability, and capacity-building, and some do not. They note disagreement among scholars regarding whether definitions of organizational capacity have ubiquitous latent components that are found in all organizations, or if capacities are attributes specific to each organization; they note contradictory opinions as to the depth of complexity of capacity as a multi-dimensional construct (Christensen and Gazley, 2008). In addition, Christensen and Gazley (2008) note differences among definitions in terms of scope – observing that in some instances, capacity is used to depict both the end result, as well as the means to an end. In their analysis, they found differences in terms of proximity of capacity, identifying instances where capacity was defined as entirely internal to an organization, and in other definitions, capacity included external elements.

Finally, Christensen and Gazley (2008) discovered definitions which assigned both tangible (quantitative), and intangible (qualitative) dimensions. Similar to Honadle (1981) who suggests that broad categories of activities together comprise the framework of capacity, Christensen and Gazley (2008) and Baser, et al. (2009) describe capacity not in concrete terms, but as an aggregate of activities, structures, resources and skills which function together. After reviewing the various definitions, Christensen and Gazley (2008) incorporate four frameworks they found in their research– all four of which connect their respective constructs with predictions of performance – to craft an interpretation of capacity, which they depict “as a function of: (1) organizational infrastructure, (2) human resources, (3) financial resources and management systems and (4) political and market characteristics of the external environment” (p. 268).

To offer an example of this line of thinking, one might consider the ideas of sport management scholars Hinings, Thibault, Slack and Kikulis (1996). In their discussion on studying the influence of values on an organization's structure and its success, Hinings, et al. (1996) reference systems theory and the methods behind its rationale, citing ideas presented by Phillips (1972), which state that to examine an element of a system separate from the other parts is to destroy what it is...thereby asserting that action and culture within an organization are connected. Further, Hinings et al. (1996) give an example by defining the idea of 'husband'. In this example, the concept of 'husband' cannot exist without the idea of 'wife', or the corresponding activities, relationships and interactions. Thus, to explain what a husband is, without the idea of 'wife', is to destroy the meaning and understanding of 'husband' (Hinings, et al., 1996). Organizational behavior theorists Chimezie and Osigweh (1989) reinforces this strategy in his excerpt on concept fallibility, stating that defining concepts by explaining them in terms of others serves a critical purpose of revealing interrelationships between ideas and provides 'meaning-laden classifications' that lead researchers to develop variables (Chimezie, et al., 1989, p. 581). That being said, this project takes the recommendation of Chimezie, et al. (1989), and embraces the same logic of Hinings, et al. (1996) and Phillips (1972), Honadle (1981) and Christensen and Gazley (2008), who all endorse the idea that organizational capacity is best understood by not only defining what it is, but also by explaining what it does. Defining elements of organizational capacity not only requires a definition of what it is, but by nature of the definition also requires an explanation of the corresponding activities, relationships, and interactions of how these elements function within the systems of an organization. Scholars who hold this type of understanding of

organizational capacity utilize language which expresses organizational capacity as “a function of”. In this way, these scholars acknowledge the need for a nuanced definition which articulates more than just the summation of individual parts. Table 1 provides examples of various definitions of organizational capacity found in the literature.

Table 1

Definitions of Organizational Capacity

Perspective	Author	Key Elements of Definition	Definition
Resource Based	Hall, et al. (2003)	Refers to an ability to perform Linked to various forms of capital References potential Multidimensional	<i>Capacity is a function of an organization's ability to draw on or deploy a variety of types of organizational capital.</i>
Process Based	Schumate, et al. (2017)	Emphasize capacity as an ability to perform a process.	<i>The processes, practices, and people that the organization has at its disposal that enable it to produce, perform, or deploy resources to achieve its mission.</i>
Outcome Based	Wandersman & Chien (2012)	Guided by a logic model containing tools, training, technical assistance, and quality assurance/quality control.	<i>Ability to achieve a performance standard; includes human, fiscal, and technical capacities</i>
Capabilities	Baser, et al. (2008)	Five Central Characteristics: 1. Empowerment & Identity 2. Collective Action 3. Systems Phenomenon 4. Potential State 5. Creates Public Value	<i>"That emergent combination of individual competencies and collective capabilities that enables a human system to create value".</i>
	Honadle (1981)	Definitional Characteristics 1. Anticipate & Influence Change 2. Informed, Intelligent Decisions 3. Develop Programs/Implement Policy 4. Attract & Absorb Resources 5. Manage Resources 6. Evaluate Activity to Guide Future	<i>While Honadle offers a framework, she avoids a specific definition, which is the crux of her article. She explains the various "conceptual problems" regarding various definitions.</i>

Using Systems Theory to Define Organizational Capacity

Using systems theory, which states that a system is more than the mere sum of its parts, one begins to find insight for a new type of definition of organizational capacity. One which describes not only the components of organizational capacity, but which also includes a description of associated activities which by nature also contribute to the definition. Such understandings are already embraced by sport management scholars (Winand, Zintz, Bayle and Robinson (2010); Madella, Bayle and Tome, (2005)). Following this logic, therefore, when seeking to define what organizational capacity is, to ascertain the full context of the situation, one also must define the corresponding relationships and interactions attached thereto.

After considerable contemplation of the many definitions and models of organizational capacity, it seems as though definitions which seek merely to articulate the individual components of organizational capacity fall short to accomplish their goal, as they incompletely explain this two-part understanding. Like Christensen and Gazley (2008), Phillips (1972), Hinings, et al. (1996) Honadle (1981), and many others who believe that organizational capacity and organizational systems are defined not only by what they are, but how they function, this project proffers that to successfully define organizational capacity, one must identify and explain both parts. One must not only define what organizational capacity is; one must also understand that the activities themselves help to define the concept. In defining organizational capacity, it is the author's view that a definition of this construct should take a multi-dimensional, multi-level, multi-disciplinary, context dependent view and acknowledge the organization as a system, containing sub-systems and as part of a meta-system of other organizations. For

preliminary purposes of this research, and to extend the logic behind these and many other scholars, the proposed definition of non-profit organizational capacity is:

The collective and enabling abilities, knowledge, skills, behaviors, attitudes, values, relationships, activities, processes and structures of diverse individuals, groups and systems within an organization to: 1) attract resources, 2) collaborate, 3) learn and apply knowledge, 4) develop flexible mechanisms, 5) make effective, ethical decisions and, 6) efficiently execute tasks. Together, these elements empower an institution to strategically adapt to its internal and external environs and set and achieve goals which fulfill its vision and mission over a sustained period of time.

Thus, in this definition there exists several parts – one which explains what organizational capacity *is* in terms of parts and pieces, one which explains what it *does*, and finally an acknowledgement of the integration between internal and external contexts and the *outcomes* produced. One should also note that in this definition, Franks' (1999) understanding of 'institution' is used. Franks (1999) believes that institutions are more than mere organizations, in that they are 'stable, valued, recurring patterns of behavior' which sustain over time and deliver a valued service to key constituents. These patterns apply not only to norms and policy which govern human interactions, but also to organizations which assume specific responsibilities (such as an NSGB in sport). This definition is unique from prior definitions in that unlike former characterizations, these relationships that exist within OC, those included in the 'function of' segments of this idea, are explicitly articulated. It is also important to note that in the author's definition, capacity building is considered a *separate idea* from capacity and is described as *best*

practice to develop capacity, based upon the context. Capacity building is modeled by explaining the successful integration of people and deployment of activities, structures and systems of an organization, based upon systemic constraints and the context of the organization's industry and ecosystem. The theoretical foundation for this definition emanates from the organizational capacity definitions proposed by Baser, et al. (2009), Bryan, (2011), Connolly and York, (2003), Franks, (1999), Hall, et al. (2003), Hinings, (1996), and UNDP (2009).

Domains Within Organizational Capacity

Adding to the lack of consensus surrounding how organizational capacity is *defined*, contrasting perspectives also exist regarding how organizational capacity should be empirically understood. This review will closely examine and integrate these perspectives to extend an updated interpretation to the sport context. Scholars hold differing opinions of how organizational capacity as a construct should be conceived and what elements comprise organizational capacity. Domains (also called dimensions) are defined based upon the underlying theories and viewpoints used to formulate the definition of capacity. In an attempt to categorize these perspectives, both Bryan (2011), and Christensen and Gazley, (2013) noted that scholars interpret and thus operationalize the construct as either resources, otherwise stated as inputs, (Hall, et al. 2003; Doherty, Misener and Cuskelly, 2013), processes (through puts) (Sowa, et al., 2004; Wandersman, et al., 2012), or outcomes (Brown, et al., 2015; Bryan, 2011; Christensen and Gazley, 2008). Still there are some scholars who interpret capacity models in yet an entirely different way. These proposed frameworks are multi-dimensional, multi-level, and multi-disciplinary, and the domains included in these proposed frameworks and models reflect more complex dynamics that extend beyond the acquisition and transformation of resources into tangible outcomes (Baser, et al., 2008; Connolly, 2003; Honadle, 1981; Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan, 2013).

Academics who understand capacity as *resources* assert that it is comprised of inputs for an organization and result in a fundamental ability to accomplish the work of an organization (Bryan, 2011). Included in this type of framework is an emphasis on ability to attract tangible and intangible resources. The domains used in models in which

authors have this interpretation of capacity highlight elements which reference various forms of capital and include such types as knowledge, technical, human resources, financial resources and structural resources, such as those proposed in Hall, et al. (2003), and used by a multitude of sport management organizational capacity scholars. Table 2 lists domains of this model, and Figure 3 presents a visualization of this model.

Table 2

Hall, et al. (2003) Capacity Model Domains - Resource Perspective

Domain	Elements
Human Resources	Competencies Knowledge Skill Talents Know How
Financial Resources	Expenses Revenues Assets Liabilities
Relationships & Networks	Clients Members Funders Collaborators Donors Suppliers Customers
Infrastructure	Internal Processes Culture Products relating to day-to-day operations IT Databases/Manuals
Planning & Development	Planning Research Development Strategic Planning
Environmental Constraints	Economy Political Legal Public trust Societal values & needs Demographics Competitors (business, other NPOs, government) Physical environment
Access to Resources	Human Technological Capital Information Public Support
Historical Factors	Past Behavior Effectiveness Norms / Values

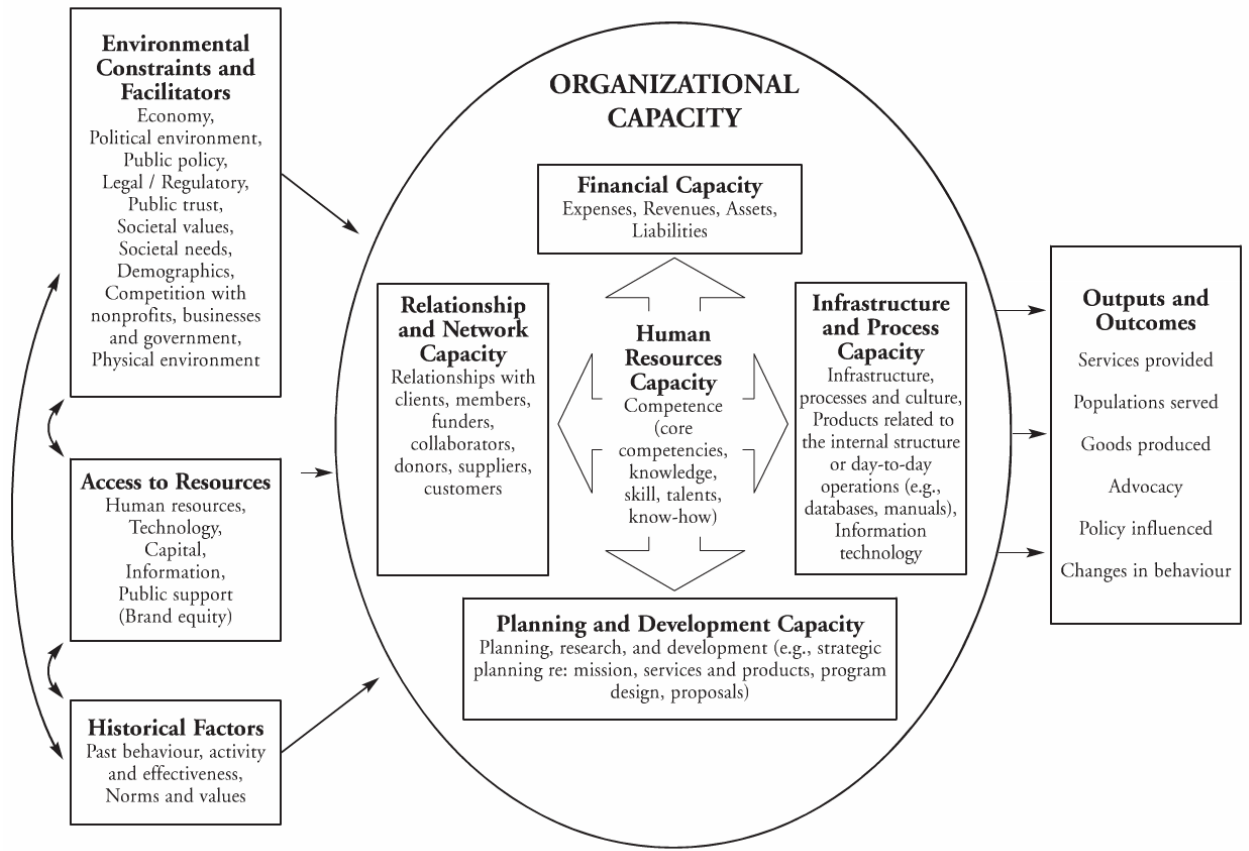


Figure 3 Hall, et al. (2003) Model of Organizational Capacity

Scholars such as Sowa, et al. (2002) and Shumate, et al. (2017) who interpret capacity as *processes*, or through puts, understand the construct to be an organization's ability to absorb, utilize and transform resources, and is also known to some as management capacity (Bryan, 2011). Domains included in these types of models articulate an organization's ability to effectively implement processes and deliver programs and services. Table 3 depicts an example of domains one might find in this type of framework.

Table 3 Shumate, et al. (2017) Capacity Model Domains – Process Perspective

Domain	Critical Element
Financial Management	Financial Plans Cash Reserves Budget Monitored Qualified Financial Staff Financial Reports Used Quarterly Reports Created Multiple Funding Sources Long Term Financial Resources Documented Procedures
Adaptive Capacity	Many Staff Involved in Decision Making Shared Values Committed Staff Positive Conflict Resolution Collaborative Problem Solving Supportive of Peers
Strategic Planning	Activities Implemented Reflect the Plan Strategic Plans Followed Long Term Strategic Plan in Place Strategic Plan is Forward Oriented Board Revisits Plan Annually Strategic Plan Centered on Mission
External Communication	IT Regularly Used w/ Stakeholders Cause Related Fund-Raising Activities PR Campaign Organization Info Disseminated Regularly to Public Ability to Develop Key Messages to Prospects Experience Developing Campaigns
Board Leadership	Board Members Committed to Vision Board Members Accessible to Employees Good Working Relationship w/ Staff Board Takes Regular Steps to Stay Informed Board Examines All Sides Before Deciding Board Learns From Errors
Operational Capacity	Performance Indicators are Identified Quarterly Regular Reports External Evaluation of Programs Measurable Objectives Set
Mission Orientation	Donors Committed to Mission Stakeholders Share Common Vision Mission Statement Provides Direction Community Identifies Organization w/ Mission Statement
Staff Management	Employees Have Information to Complete Jobs Management Provides Regular Training Managers Have Proper Skills Staff Receives Mentorship

Scholars such as Christensen and Gazley (2008) posit that capacity should be framed as *outputs* and they operationalize these ideas by linking specific attributes of an organization to organizational effectiveness and positive outcomes on performance. In this interpretation, both realized and potential capacity is acknowledged (Bryan, 2011). Domains in these frameworks involve quantitative metrics which make a connection between activities within the organization and organizational performance. As an example, Ingraham, et al. (2003, p.15) perceive capacity to be an “interlinkage of organizational resources, characteristics of management, and policy results”, thus in these models there is a beginning, middle and endpoint. There is controversy surrounding this interpretation of capacity, however, as much dispute exists on how organizational effectiveness is defined (Chelladurai, Szyszlo and Haggerty, 1987).

There are some researchers who interpret capacity in a yet entirely different way, not as resources, processes or outcomes, but as a *broad framework*; some interpretations include various organizational levels (sometimes referred to in the literature as context), each of which has its own capacities and domains, and other models in this category interpret capacity as a set of abilities, the subscales of which relate to an ability, as opposed to a resource, process, or outcome (Connolly and York, 2003; Honadle, 1981; Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan, 2013; McKinsey, 2001). Lusthaus (1995), gives a good example of this type of understanding when he states:

Capacity in a system is comprised of static and dynamic parts – latent capacities waiting to be utilized, or emergent elements which exhibit continual adaptation and motion. For strategies to become operational, they need to be communicated, explained, processed, and revised according to feedback from stakeholders, both

internal and external. From the board on down, all members of the organization need to work toward making the institution's strategy a reality. Implementing strategy requires matching resources and activities to objectives and, if required, scaling activities to fit resource constraints (human, financial, technological, infrastructure) (Lusthaus, 1995, p. 31).

In this quote, Lusthaus' (1995) reliance on systems theory to create this definition is evident. We see his references to dynamic and latent capacities, emergence and continual adaptation and motion, feedback, integrating goals, resources and strategy, and scaling (referenced by Franks (1999) in his description of capacity). All elements previously described as elements found in a human system. As another example, within Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan's (2013) capacity discussion, they indicate that dimensions of capacity differ based upon one of three levels: individual, organizational and nation/state/system. In the Krishnaveni et al. (2013) paradigm, individual capacity building involves training and development. It includes strengthening a variety of individual skills such as leadership, training, public speaking and organizing. Organization-level capacity involves elements such as mission, culture, strategy, processes and infrastructure, information, and various forms of resources. National or system-level capacity entails legal and regulatory competencies, accountability, strong governance, policy framework strengthening and development, and devolution of power to local government with the aim to improve governance (Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan, 2013). In their view, the primary differentiating factor within the system is the level at which the effort takes place, not the nature of the ability or the resources. These ideas have already transferred into a sport context, as we see the multi-levels of an NGB

organization delineated in a similar way within the SPLISS model forwarded by De Bosscher and De Knop (2006). Where this model falls short, however, is that it is athlete-centric in its view on the micro level. NGBs must also have capacities to service the non-elite-athlete individuals as well when looking at the micro-levels of an organization. Capacities connected to the non-competition side of the organization also make a significant contribution to the overall success of the organization.

As can be observed by these examples, wide variance exists in how scholars define, understand, interpret and in turn research the domains of organizational capacity. This enquiry examines many of these highly regarded existing models of organizational capacity to propose a revised model to practitioners at the USOPC and its member NSGBs – one which accurately depicts this niche, non-profit context of the sport industry, and even more specifically, this model represents non-profit sport organizational capacity within the US.

Differentiating Key Terms – Capacity / Capability / Competency

In discussions and research on organizational capacity, one frequently hears the terms capacity, capability, and competency. As with many facets of defining and understanding organizational capacity, there is controversy among scholars as to whether or not these terms are interchangeable (Christensen & Gazley, 2008; Krishnaveni & Aravamudhan, 2013) it is important to understand the nature of the ideas around and within these terms. Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan (2013) take the same view as Honadle (1981) and make no distinction between these terms. They declare that recent scholars have deemed these terms to be interchangeable, however Christensen and Gazley (2008) believe a distinction exists between capacity and capability. Franks (1999)

and Baser, et al. (2009) share the viewpoint that these terms in fact do differ. They interpret capability as the skills and knowledge of individuals (Franks, 1999), or skills, mindset and motivation of individuals or a group of people (Baser, 2009) to do the jobs given to them. Further, both Franks (1999) and Baser et al. (2009) view capability as a talent, skill or resource, static or dormant, dependent upon capacity to be used.

Capacity, on the other hand, according to Baser (2009) and Franks (1999) is action. It is forward motion. It is when the talent, skill, or resources are effectively absorbed and deployed. Baser, et al. (2009) believes capacity as a construct is comprised of a collection of abilities, all of which are needed for sustained success. Franks (1999) articulates capacity as an ability to perform, and in his understanding, this ability is contingent upon the scope of the task, the resources needed and the context in which the responsibilities must be performed. When examining articles and projects, it is of vital importance to discern the author's interpretations of capacity, capability and capacity development to understand whether or not these terms are deemed distinct or synonymous, as it directly impacts how (and if) these constructs ultimately are deconstructed individually (or not). Such definitions of capacity, capability and competency also determine the logic behind how these ideas are empirically isolated and the means by which these ideas are operationalized and statistically measured.

Prominent Models of Organizational Capacity

Over the past several decades, scholars have forwarded various capacity models for consideration and evaluation as organizational capacity building increases in importance (Baser, et al., 2008; Bryan, 2011; Christiansen and Gazley, 2008; Connolly and York, 2003; Hall, et al. 2003; Honadle, 1981; McKinsey, 2001). No longer are these ideas applied only to aid nonprofit organizations (NPOs) within developing countries. As technology advances the rate and nature of change and globalizes internal and external forces, organizations in all sectors and industries are seeking to improve their ability to adapt to changing environments and sustain a competitive advantage (Franks, 1999). As a result, several capacity models have emerged from management companies and charitable foundations who have commissioned an analysis (McKinsey, 2001; TCC Group, 2010, UNDP, 2009). Because these models vary in terms of how capacity is perceived, they identify, organize, benchmark and value elements of corporate function differently as well. In short, domains of these models reflect an author's definition of capacity held, and the domains operationalize the approach to capacity building that is endorsed. This next discussion highlights several models found in the literature and among nonprofit practitioners.

McKinsey (2001)

One of the most well-known organizational capacity models was developed by management consulting firm McKinsey and Company. It was created in 2001 and emerged from a project designed for Venture Philanthropy Partners. For this project, McKinsey sought to craft a definition of nonprofit organizational capacity, along with an easily administered self-assessment tool. After completing case studies on 13 NPOs of various sizes and sectors, they arrived at a framework (depicted in Table 6 and Figure 6). In their report, McKinsey and Company (2001) reference three lessons learned from this study: resetting aspirations and strategy is often a first step to capacity improvement; that good management is critical, and that leadership is part of this lesson. Finally, McKinsey and Company (2001) emphasize the need for patience to permit change to take place and set appropriate expectations. Their model contains seven domains: aspirations, strategy, organization skills, human resources, systems and infrastructure, organizational structure, and culture. It is a self-administered tool that contains 58 items. In their report, they acknowledge that their 'grid' is not a scientific tool and should not be used as one. What is of importance to note also is that iterations of the McKinsey (2001) have been tested within a sport context (Essilfie & Chelladurai (2016); indicating a willingness of sport scholars to embrace the research ideas from these disciplines, and as such this project is a continuation and extension of this trend.



Figure 4 McKinsey & Company Capacity Model (2001)

Honadle (1981)

Honadle's (1981) capacity framework is widely cited by scholars in public administration (e.g., Christensen and Gazley, 2013). Her framework describes four core components of capacity: a) definitional characteristics, b) administrative practices, c) institutions, and d) organizational requirements. According to Honadle (1981) definitional characteristics include an ability to foresee and affect change, an ability to make educated, shrewd decisions, the ability to cultivate programs which are then implemented, abilities to attract, absorb, and manage resources, and finally, these definitional characteristics include an ability to assess current activities to strategically direct future action. Administrative practices involve activities such as planning, organizing staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting – commonly known within the management realm as POSDCORB (Honadle, 1981). Institutions in Honadle's (1981) view are the “established way of doing things” (p. 578). These established ways involve implementing activities which in turn become systemic norms or conventions. Organizational requirements, according to Honadle (1981), refer to the threshold of acceptance an organization sets for both adequate performance and measures of demand. In essence there must exist pre-determined benchmarks or other recognized indicators, such that the organization can collect data in order to ascertain organizational capacity levels. Honadle (1981) recommends a set process for organizations to follow to build capacity which includes an organization's ability to a) anticipate change, b) make policy, c) develop programs which implement these policies, d) attract resources which fund these programs, e) absorb resources which have been attracted, f) manage the resources which have been attracted and absorbed, g) evaluate the activities in terms of what is

being done, how well it is being done, and the current activity levels. Answers to this evaluation serve as inputs which enable the organization to anticipate change and thus, the circular cycle repeats. What is of interest this article is a conceptual piece, containing no formally proposed means of operationalization or measurement. See Figure 7 below for details.

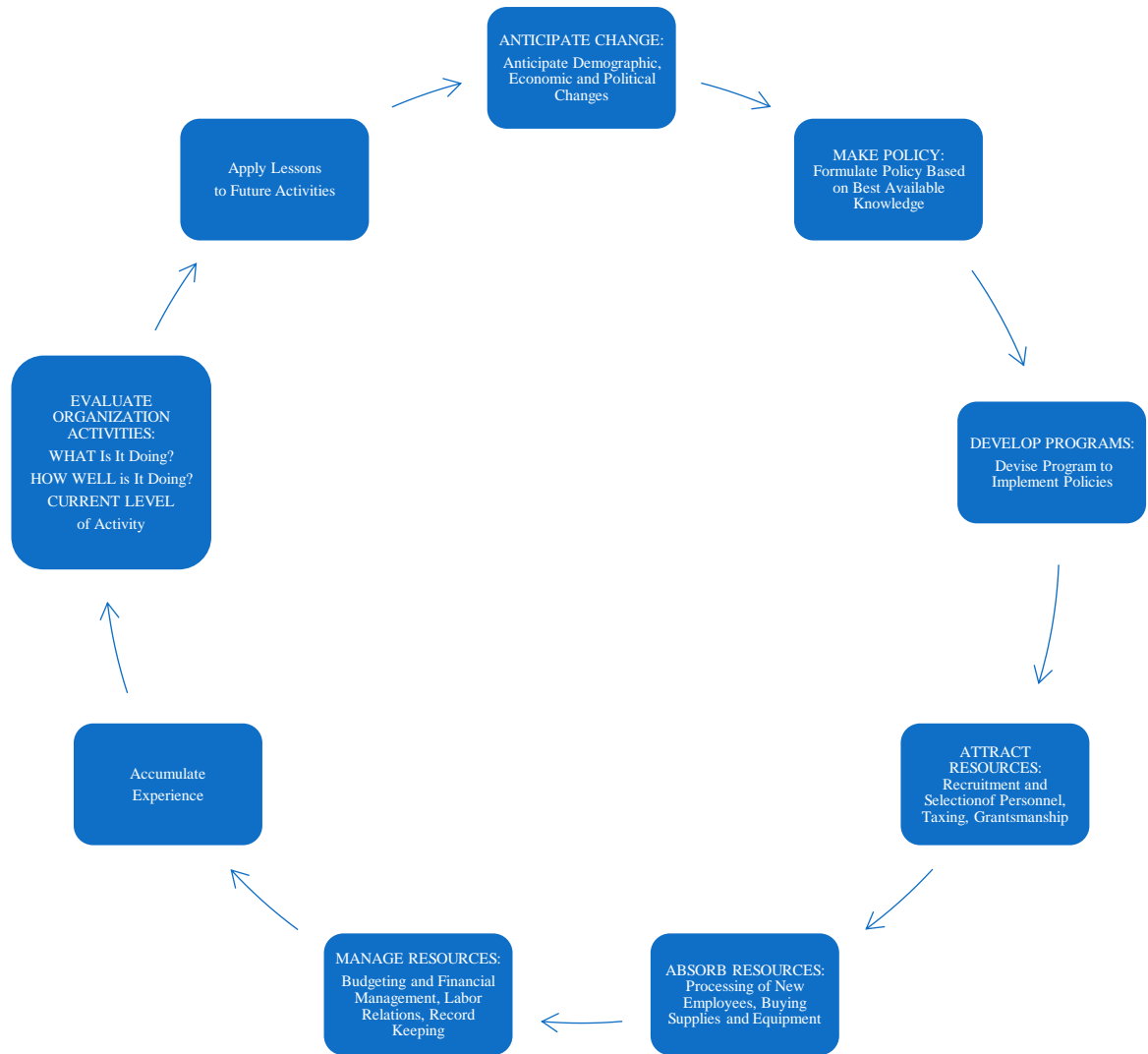


Figure 5 Honadle (1981) Capacity Building Model

Hall, et al., (2003)

The next model arose from scholars in Canada and is widely cited by OC scholars within sport management. Hall, et al. (2003) completed a capacity study of Canadian nonprofit and voluntary organizations as part of a larger research initiative. This study was the first and qualitative portion of The National Survey of Nonprofit and Voluntary Organizations (NSNVO). NSNVO was commissioned by the Canadian Voluntary Sector Initiative, a joint venture between the Canadian government and its voluntary sector, with the mission to expand what was known about Canadian nonprofit and voluntary organizations. Its objectives were first, to offer an initial evaluation to identify areas where capacity improvements were needed, and second, to collect extensive information about the breadth, types and services comprised within the voluntary sector in Canada. Hall, et al. (2003) created a conceptual framework based upon focus group discussions with over 300 leaders across 11 different nonprofit sub-sectors. In this model, three fundamental types of capacity are identified, each is defined based upon the resources needed. These capacity types include human resources capacity, financial capacity, and structural capacity, which is in turn subdivided into three forms: relationship and network capacity, infrastructure and process capacity, and planning and development capacity. The model is previously shown above in Figure 3. In this model, there is no mention of learning, or of adaptation. In addition, the NSNVO study references a subsequent project to extend initial findings, however, attempts to locate this study were unsuccessful. A key item to note regarding this model is that this study examined 14 sectors of non-profit organizations. After seeing that capacity could be examined in this way across multiple disciplines, and that this breadth of context was being readily

accepted by the sport management academy, it provided an insight to the author to continue the search across related industries in the US to find resources regarding organizational capacity, organizational capacity building, organizational capacity development, and organizational performance.

Connolly and York (2003)

The next model for discussion emerged from a project conducted inside the US by Connolly and York (2003). These management consultants were hired to evaluate the David and Lucile Packard Foundation's grantmaking programs, which target aid toward management support organizations (MSOs) and field-building organizations. Framed by change theory, this study surveyed MSOs, and held discussion groups and individual interviews with industry experts and practitioners.

At the exterior perimeter of this model, one notes political, economic, social and technological forces which impact an organization – easily recognizable as the “PEST” analysis one would encounter when completing a SWOT analysis to identify an organization's opportunities and threats. Some management models refer to this type of analysis as “PESTLE” and include a legal component to the analysis. In the Connolly and York (2003) model, instead of a legal reference, they refer to regulatory forces. Moving inward, the next circle within the Connolly and York (2003) model identifies five categories of key resources: time, facilities, human, technology, finances and program design. Connolly and York (2003) define key resources as those which are vital and directly support the programs and services delivered. At the interior circle of the model, one finds the capacity domains: adaptive, leadership, management and technical. Adaptive capacity, according to Connolly and York (2003), involves “monitoring,

assessing and responding to internal and external changes” (p. 3) and is comprised of networking/collaborating, assessing organizational effectiveness, evaluation of program and services and planning. Management capacity ensures that organizational resources are effectively and efficiently used; Leadership capacity involves visioning, inspiring, prioritizing, decision making, directing, innovating, and modeling. The final component of capacity in this model is technical, and it involves “doing the work of the organization” (p. 3) and involves technology, accounting, budgeting, fundraising, facility maintenance and development, marketing, communications, evaluation and research and legal elements. Amidst the model, Connolly and York (2003) also recognize spokes on a wheel, located at the very heart of the model, which delineate the organization’s culture: the structures, rituals, values, beliefs, history and language contained at the heart of the organization. This model is visually the most complex depiction of capacity of all those mentioned above. According to Connolly and York (2003), the most important capacities for an organization to have are adaptive and leadership. The interesting part of this model is that nowhere in the model does it discuss goal setting, mission, or purpose. The language which comes closest to these terms is “visioning”, which resides in the leadership capacity construct, however one might construe visioning as a very general, broad concept, (as vision statements usually are) whereas mission is connected to specific organizational purposes or reasons for being, and goal setting is connected to quantifiable objectives set toward fulfilling the mission. When the very definition of organizational capacity is an organization’s ability to set and achieve goals, in this sense, the model seems remiss in overlooking inclusion of these constructs. In addition, it identifies program design as a key resource, which one might argue instead that program design is a

skill set of individuals or even an outcome of such skills, not a resource to be drawn from. This model is depicted in Figure 6 below.

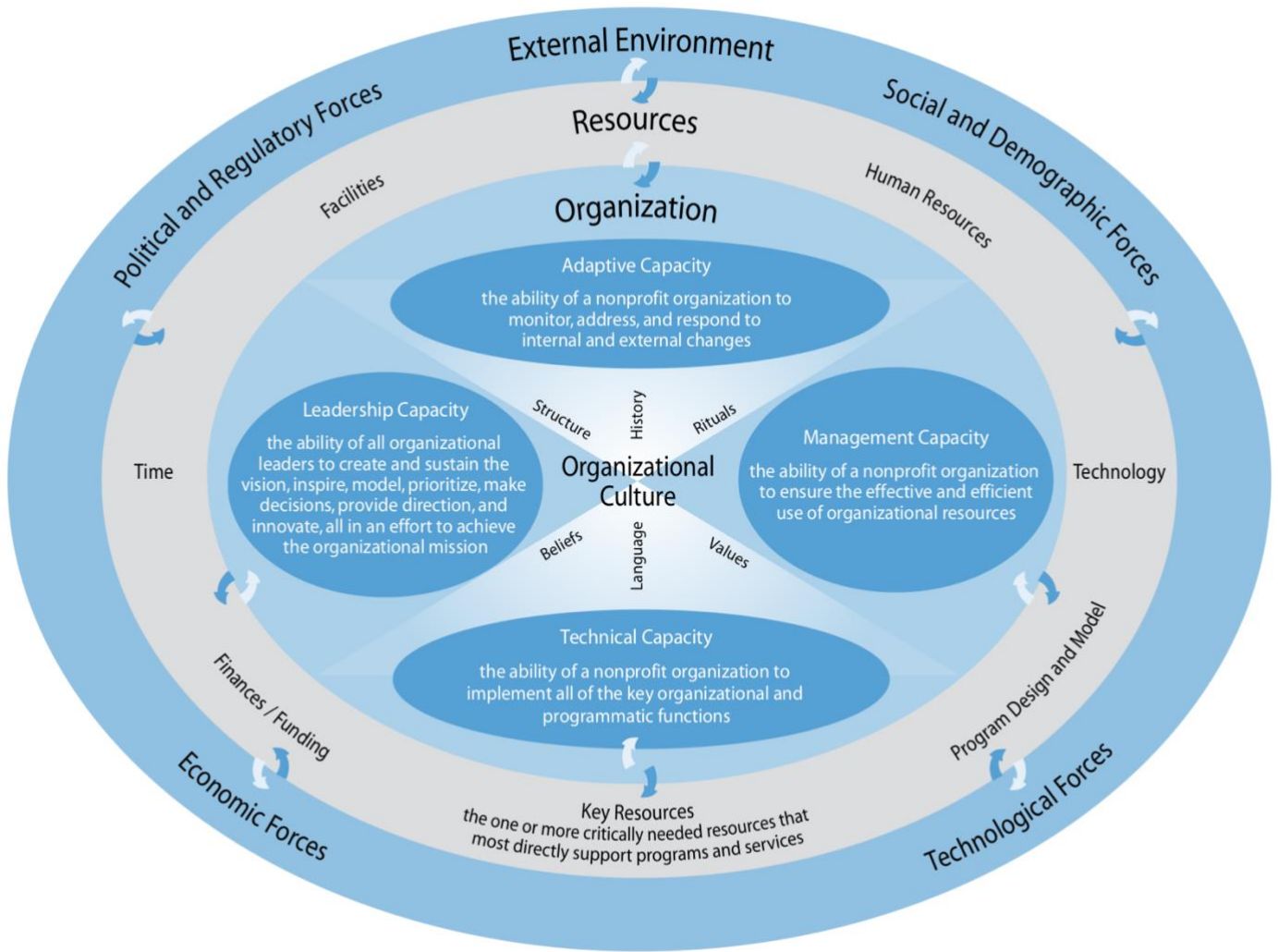


Figure 6 Connolly & York (2003) Model of Organizational Capacity

An important idea to understand is that the models discussed thus far have emerged along a similar timeline – around the turn of the millennium, and prior to the emergence of social media. These models are widely cited across business, management, public administration and non-profit circles, as well as within sport management, and it is for these reasons the aforementioned models were selected for inclusion in this review.

Bryan (2011)

The final model that is included in this review is here because while perhaps not as widely cited, it served as an inspiration for the proposed organizational capacity model in this project. The model proposed by Bryan (2011) emerged from the public administration literature and the social services industry. Proposed a decade following McKinsey and Company's pyramid, and nearly a decade following Hall et al. (2003), Bryan's (2011) model contains components recognized within previously mentioned frameworks, however the content and structure of the domains which emerged from this study define organizational capacity in a way that lends itself to be extended to a non-profit sport context within the US. In addition, the domains reflect an acknowledgement of the emergence and influence of social media. In her study of the juvenile justice system in Virginia, Bryan (2011) ascertained that organizational capacity is comprised of six dimensions: 1) human resource, defined as "having adequate staff with the professional expertise and skills to effectively do the work associated with the reform effort at both the organization and system level" (Bryan, 2011, p. 62); 2) financial resource, defined as "the ability to adequately fund the ongoing reform effort at the organization and system level" (Bryan, 2011, p. 62), 3) knowledge, defined as "the ability to integrate new ideas and practices within the organization" (Bryan, 2011, p. 62); 4)

information technology, defined as “the ability to utilize data to inform policy and practice at the organization and system level” (Bryan, 2011, p. 62); 5) stakeholder commitment, defined as “the ability to garner support from key stakeholders for the reform effort” (Bryan, 2011, p. 62); and finally, 6) collaborative capacity, defined as the extent to which collaborative processes are utilized in the change effort” (Bryan, 2011, p. 62). This last model has organized the dimensions of capacity in such a way that it identifies and explains capacity in a multi-dimensional, multi-level model, different from those previously described because of its readily visible systems theory approach, as well as its acknowledgement of change and learning and the importance of stakeholders and collaboration in the organization’s efforts to change and grow. In that sense, this model demonstrates promise, in terms of extension to a US NGB context, which is why it has been included in this review.

Organizational Capacity Varies by Organization Type

Organizational Capacity of NPOs and For-Profit Organizations

In general, the goals and purposes of NPOs and for-profit organizations differ, thus their organizational capacity needs differ as well. Since goals by nature define the needs and actions required to achieve them, and since these goals, needs and actions differ between public and private entities and among organizations, in turn there are many ways in which organizational capacity differs for nonprofit organizations from their for-profit and governmental counterparts. To offer a deeper perspective on differences between professional and non-profit sport organizations, a brief review of differences between for-profit organizations and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) would be prudent. Although they operate across different industries and display different vision and mission statements, one of the primary goals for all for-profit organizations is to generate a profit. These organizations can be classified as public (and as such have stockholders, etc. and their documents therefore are required to be publicly disclosed on a regular basis), or privately held companies. NPOs, on the other hand, fill a gap which exists between for-profit companies and government entities. According to Golensky (2016), “the distinguishing feature of American NGOs, what makes them so important in the grand scheme of things, is their institutional culture developed over time, which incorporates ‘values, resources, organizational technologies, legal infrastructure, and styles of leadership’” (p.4). These organizations carry out functions that public and private sector entities do not. They often are first responders to societal issues, as NPOs do not have the same restrictions placed on their organization as those in the public or private sectors, thus they can take greater risks to test new ideas and processes (Golensky,

2016). These values, resources, organizational technologies, legal infrastructure and leadership styles must be factored into any sort of organizational capacity framework, else those seeking to change the organization will overlook key attributes which fundamentally define how these organizations operate.

In order to further frame this understanding, it is important to also understand the legal and tax structures under which the various forms of nonprofit organizations operate. According to Golensky, (2016), nonprofit organizations are established by a matter of law. For example, the USOPC is chartered by Congress, which by establishing a law (the Amateur Sports Act of 1978), created and empowered this organization with the sole authority over sport within the US. NPOs have Articles of Incorporation, a document which articulates the organization's mission, purpose, goals and objectives, signed by those who form the nonprofit. In terms of a legal structure, NPOs have a voluntary board of directors who are voting members who are held accountable that the organization will fulfill its mission and direct its funds toward these initiatives (Golensky, 2016). In addition, NPOs may choose to have members with legal voting ability as a balancing mechanism to safeguard that the board is not the exclusive governing authority (Golensky, 2016). Regarding corporate procedure, NPOs utilize bylaws as a means of operational guidance. Bylaws are precise instructions as to how the organization officially conducts business, makes decisions and implements policy. They contain specific details regarding how the organization functions, including details of committee structures, when the fiscal year begins and ends, frequency and procedure of meetings, instructions for amending bylaws, protection against loss and damage, etc. (Golensky, 2016). In pursuit of nonprofit status, an organization must seek and acquire a tax-exempt

designation by meeting a purpose specifically identified in government requirements.

There are various types of NPOs, among a variety of sectors. Public charities comprise the largest segment of nonprofits, consisting of religious, educational, arts and cultural, and human service organizations, to name but a few. The USOPC and its member NSGB's purposes are ones specifically recognized by the government – to foster national or international amateur sports competition. After confirming its tax-exempt status, in order to begin operation, an NPO must meet three additional important criteria. First, they must ensure that none of its earnings are directed to any private shareholder or individual; second, they are forbidden to conduct activities which propose, influence, support or oppose legislation; and finally, in order to affirm they are a charitable organization (and not a private foundation), NPOs must meet at least one of four criteria (Golensky, 2016). In the case of a sport NSGB, the relevant criterion that they fulfill is that they “receive income from the conduct of activities in furtherance of the organization's exempt purpose” (Golensky, 2016, p.7). In addition, there are definitive distinctions between for-profit and non-profit boards. Shilbury (2001) identifies the board's purpose for existence as a key distinction, in that for-profit boards exist to create, maximize and protect the wealth of shareholders, whereas a non-profit board exists to achieve a myriad of goals which are connected to protecting service-to-mission principles. These boards, unlike their for-profit counterparts, have a different legal status and are usually more involved in operational functions. Differences between for-profit and non-profit organizations can also be observed when comparing measures of efficiency and effectiveness, the visible metrics of organizational capacity. For-profit organizations regard financial values and assets as key indicators of organizational

performance, whereas this emphasis on financial outcomes is much less prevalent in NPOs, instead choosing a focus on whether or not heterogeneous stakeholder needs are met, and purposes are fulfilled.

Organizational Capacity Among NPOs

It is important to understand that within the NPO designation of public charities, organizations are further segmented into public-serving and member-serving organizations. This fact is important to note, as each NPO has a different purpose, mission or motive for existing. When motives differ, so does the resulting activities, and subsequently so does the trajectory of the outcomes of an organization. Public-serving charities include such sub-sectors as those established for religious or spiritual purposes, educational institutions, arts and culture organizations, and those that provide human services. It is in this category that the egalitarian mission of the USOPC mandates would fall. Chelladurai (1987) asserts that the purpose of service organizations is to provide value to a specific clientele “who are in ‘contact’ with the organization” (Chelladurai, 1987, p. 38). According to Golensky (2016), 2006 revenues for public-serving charities exceeded \$1 trillion, with assets valued at over \$2 trillion. They are classified as 501c (3) organizations under the US tax code. This is the designation given to the USOPC and upon preliminary inspection, it seems that this is the designation of USOPC member NSGBs as well. Member-serving NPOs are a second category of NPOs that serve specific constituents who in many cases pay dues in exchange for programs and services. It is in this category that the elite missions of the USOPC member NSGBs fall. According to Chelladurai, “the main managerial concern in such associations is to ensure that the values and needs of the membership are not overlooked, and that their democratic

rights are not usurped” (Chelladurai, 1987, p. 38). According to Golensky, (2016), NCCS 2006 estimates calculated that mutual benefit NPOs have an estimated \$3.5 billion in revenue and \$900 billion in assets. These member-serving NPOs are further segmented into more than 30 sub-classifications.

Organizational Capacity of Sport NPOs

One such NPO classification that is relevant to the sport industry is the 501(c)(6) designation which includes business leagues. The IRS deems this type of organization as “an association of individuals who have a common business interest and not to engage in a regular business...for profit” (Golensky, 2016, p. 9). Chambers of commerce, boards of trade, and professional associations qualify under this section, and as such, professional sport league entities fall in this category. Under this interpretation, leagues are viewed as a trade association. Before concluding that these organizations are exempt from paying taxes, it is important to remember that terms of taxes paid, each individual member of this trade association (i.e. the team) is a for-profit, tax paying entity and pays taxes on their individual business profits. Due to nuances of the sport industry, over the past 60 years Congress has granted monopolies (as it has done by issuing the USOPC its charter) and passed laws permitting certain functions of the sport industry establish NPO structures to operate as a cartel; for example, the Sports Broadcasting Act of 1961 permitted teams within a league to aggregate their ability to negotiate television rights, and as a result this decision enabled teams to create and heavily leverage a primary revenue stream that sport leagues of all kinds in the US have relied upon ever since. In a similar vein, by giving the USOPC the exclusive right to leverage the intellectual property for the US Olympic and Paralympic efforts via the TSOASA, in essence

Congress deemed the USOPC a legal monopoly and monopsony on this non-profit sector of sport and have directed the USOPC to use this designation as a means to fund its mission. As one can note from these examples, the very act of structuring the NPO in a specific way such as presented, it begins to define the capacities needed (and due to the structures, those capacities also which are not needed) by the NPO to sustain and thrive.

Context of US National Governing Bodies

Unique Features of NSGBs

Bayle and Robinson (2007) examined and analyzed NSGBs, seeking to explain these uniquely structured organizations and concluded that due to four traits, NSGBs can be considered a 'hybrid' organization. Unlike fully commercial (i.e. professional) sport organizations who seek to earn a profit, NSGBs have a social orientation. Second, NSGBs are comprised of both paid staff and volunteers. Third, they acknowledge a 'mixed economy' regarding funding sources, and finally, both national and international sport systems regulate NSGB affairs. Bayle and Robinson (2007) also note a networked structure within NSGBs, observing vertical and horizontal connections that must be maintained by the NSGB between regional organizations and local clubs in order to promote growth of the sport and to optimize opportunities to identify, develop and train elite athletes for national and international competition. Chelladurai and Zintz, (2015) refer to this structure as 'apical', in that NSGBs function at the apex of the respective sport within their home countries. Within the constraints of this networked context, the NSGB is charged with the responsibility to manage many different stakeholder expectations. They must grow and promote their respective sport within its country and reach out the masses, as well as possess the skill and management ability to develop

talent and produce elite athletes for national and international competitions. As entertainment sport becomes more popular and profitable, and rules have changed in terms of professional athlete participation, NSGBs find that they also must integrate with professional sport organizations as they work to develop and procure talent. Given this very complex ecosystem, NSGBs are faced with a diverse assortment of stakeholders, each with unique needs and demands. They are unique organizations in that NSGBs must cater to the entire spectrum of interest and involvement within their industry. It has become a complex environment in which they must successfully govern and operate.

Core Functions of NSGBs

Related to the primary purposes of an NSGBs, Leeds Metropolitan University, in conjunction with Wharton Consulting, conducted a study of the Central Council of Physical Recreation (an association of governing / representative organizations within the UK) with the desire to better understand the fiscal needs of NSGBs. In the process of conducting this study, they developed funding profiles and identified core functions of these important facilitators of sport. In this study, participants indicated that their core tasks revolved around the following themes: development, governance, activity and service (Leeds, n.d.). In contemplating the core functions of NSGBs within the US, it makes sense to examine both the requirements of the USOPC for selection as an NSGB, and also an NSGB's greatest resource – its current members and potential participants. Within the public administration literature, according to Golensky's (2016) stakeholder model, members give an NPO its mission and purpose. Applying this perspective to examine NSGBs, it is therefore vital to understand the reasons behind why individuals participate in the various levels of a particular sport, and thus these reasons should

influence the established purpose(s) of the organization. In the sport management literature, Chelladurai (2012) introduces three types of sport and he articulates three classifications of participants within various sport organizations. Various leadership styles, he contends, are required to address the wide variety of needs that sport participants have. He labels these disciplines within sport organizations as elite, egalitarian and entertainment sport, each with its own unique purpose, type of participant it attracts, and means by which participant involvement is sustained. According to Chelladurai (2012), the sport industry attracts participants, athletes and spectators. Those desiring to participate in sport engage in the opportunity for the purpose to have fun and maximize pleasure (egalitarian sport), whereas athletes engage in sport for the purpose to compete and to pursue excellence (elite sport). Chelladurai (2012) introduces a third form of sport – entertainment – and defines it as spectator sport. Individuals who participate in this form of sport engage for the purpose of being entertained. The latter participants are an important segment due to the size of the global television and digital media audiences, and the revenue connected to these rights. For the USOPC and its member NSGBs, the revenue connected to the intellectual property rights is critical, since the US government does not fund the USOPC or its members. Instead, it enables the USOPC to leverage exclusive marketing rights to fund its purposes. As a result, the spectator segment is also of great importance to the US Olympic system. Each participant group should be considered a stakeholder of the US NSGB ecosystem.

Egalitarian sport participants are engaged in their sport activity; however, they take part for the sake of play. This sort of participation is non-exclusive and invites everyone to join the activity. The purpose of this participation is for pleasure and

participants engage for the sake of the experience. According to Chelladurai, (2012), these individuals participate for the intrinsic gratification. Members participate in a variety of settings and participation is not contingent upon whether or not specialized instructors are involved. To cater to this sort of participant and develop client relationships, sport organizations should seek to attract members in local communities, governments, social clubs, schools and use local media to engage their desire to enjoy themselves (Chelladurai, 2012). The USOPC and NSGB purposes which require increased awareness and public participation in sport strive to engage this participant.

Elite participants, in contrast, are exclusionary. This form of sport is constrained to highly talented participants who meet a benchmarked standard of performance, and those who cannot meet those demands are not included. Participants train long and hard to develop skills under the supervision of trained coaches in specialized facilities, using specialized equipment and training. In contrast to egalitarian sports, effective implementation of elite sport initiatives depends upon distant resources (such as those found at regional, national and international sport governing bodies) in order to fulfill its purpose and meet the participant needs (Chelladurai, 2012). To identify these sorts of participants and develop client relationships, sport organizations “farm” their prospects, taking extensive amounts of time to nurture, train and develop these individuals for excellence (Chelladurai, 2012). It is this primary group of individuals to whom the USOPC is currently re-orienting itself to service.

Those who participate in entertainment sport do so to watch elite participants, for the purpose of being entertained. In terms of identifying the participants (and spectators), sport organizations deploy a “hunting” strategy, in which individuals are recruited or

drafted from other places and, as Chelladurai, (2012) states, ‘paraded’ around for those to view. Increased focus on sports by society has motivated NSGBs in various sports to maximize the financial and promotion opportunities tied to staging contests and exhibitions of their elite participants. In closing comments, Chelladurai (2012) explains the various stages of participant development that NSGBs must recognize and administer when managing their affairs. He notes several transitions through which participants naturally progress as they move from egalitarian to elite and then to entertainment sport. These transitions require various tactics in leadership and coaching, and thus NSGBs must be sensitive to these needs and accommodate them so to foster greater national and international success within their sport. For example, in soccer, one hears language surrounding ‘a pipeline’ of progress from the very young to the elite. Moving athletic talent effectively along this pipeline from casual participation to elite performance requires specific elements at each phase along the progression, in terms of coaching, facilities, sport medicine and marketing, to name a few. Modern-day NSGBs are unique from their traditional business counterparts, in that they must cater to each of these above-mentioned groups identified by Chelladurai (2012). With such a broad array of member and stakeholder needs, Chelladurai’s (2012) participant framework can be used to help NSGBs craft their activities, processes, organizational and governance structures to navigate this divergent set of demands.

Connecting these ideas to organizational strategy, Shilbury and Ferkins (2011) assert that sophisticated language which reflects NSGB strategic priorities must be rephrased such that ‘lower’ levels within the network more easily accept and implement strategic priorities. In both situations, leadership and strategic initiatives must adapt to

connect with the audience at hand to foster an efficient flow of talent through a pipeline and meet evolving and diverse needs of participants. Reinforcing this idea, according to Bayle & Robinson (2007), a main responsibility of an NSGB is to forge strong bonds among the elements which comprise its system.

Mission and Purpose of NSGBs

It is also important to examine NSGB missions and purposes, as both reflect motivations and means. For example, since NSGBs are not targeting to earn a profit as a primary goal, their motivations and means to secure financial resources and set goals for financial outcomes look very different from their for-profit counterparts. NPOs such as NSGBs seek to earn revenue in order to fulfill a mission that is tied to service, to deliver effective programs and to grow their impact, whereas public, for-profit companies have a very strong pressure from owners to develop capacities tied to generating the greatest dividends for their stockholders; private companies seek to increase the capacities that will increase the profits of the private owner(s).

Even within the context of NPOs, member-serving NPOs will develop capacities designed with service to specific individuals in mind, whereas NPOs who serve the public or have a broad society-serving mission (such as the USOPC who as part of its mission seeks to improve interest and participation in all levels of sport across the country) will target capacities which enable them to meet goals, both broadly (i.e. sport for all) and narrowly (i.e. sport for Olympians) defined. Large NSGBs require acute fundraising and sponsorship implementation capabilities so they can finance activities and satisfy key partnerships which help to subsidize their operations. They need strong capabilities related to effective branding, marketing and communication, to increase

awareness and popularity of athletes and offer services and programs which promote grass roots sport participation. Their capacities must support and strengthen dozens, if not thousands, of member clubs and their staff, volunteers and programs. NSGBs require strong networking and stakeholder relationship management abilities due to the incredibly diverse number of stakeholders that exist within their ecosystem. They must leverage information technology to enhance communication between its members, maximize the medicine and training tools behind developing elite talent and connect their athlete development programs through its member NSGBs. Finally, they require the collaborative means (drawing together many capabilities) to integrate and activate these abilities to accomplish their purpose.

It is therefore imperative to properly identify a starting point and have specific goals and objectives based on that information. Individuals within the system must exhibit an openness to change and support a value structure which aligns with stated mission and goals. In addition, elements which align corporate function with these values and goals are required; effective leadership, ethical decision making, goal setting, strategy, governance, evaluation and organizational learning (when aligned with the values and goals of the organization) activate the mechanisms for change within the system. Such differences in purpose, mission, goals and context among NPOs mean that the strategies used to achieve their goals will differ, the resources used (or not used) will differ, and as such different capabilities (the skills, resources and motivations) are needed. In addition, since much of what is done in this specific sector requires a proactive search for funding (hopefully from diverse revenue streams), reliance on government funding

that one might find in the public sector is much less prevalent. Within NPOs, one sees varying motivations, stakeholders, missions and goals.

Paradox of Purpose(s) of NSGBs

The ability to balance the needs of such diverse stakeholders is an important capability for NSGBs to possess. Navigating this balance requires a complete understanding of each group, and an ability to effectively prioritize the resources and support – and the timing and delivery of such resources and support – to serve each. NSGBs must facilitate what Chelladurai (2012) articulates as the three manifestations of sport: professional, elite and egalitarian (grassroots). In addition, according to Chelladurai (1987), three sub-systems exist within an NSGB – including institutional, managerial and technical – and together they are responsible to oversee these three manifestations (elite, professional, grassroots). Each subsystem brings with it its own capacity requirements and requires involvement from various sub-systems. For example, the technical subsystem must effectively deliver programs which service each of the three manifestations – professional, elite and grassroots – initiatives. This “matrix” of sorts requires NSGBs to possess a complex assortment of skill sets, resources and capacities, and simultaneously deploy strategies appropriate to each segment of this matrix.

Effective and efficient progress toward mission fulfillment and goal achievement within this diverse ecosystem requires the development and use of key capabilities within the capacity domains, which when used together broaden the options available to an organization to achieve key outcomes. These capabilities include an ability to commit and engage at the proper time with the proper stakeholder, an ability to relate and attract various needed resources and support for the appropriate program, an ability to balance

diversity and coherence within the organization, an ability to adapt and self-renew, and finally an ability to carry out technical, service delivery and logistical tasks (Baser, et al., 2009). Effective and efficient function within an NSGB can be compared to a perpetual juggling act, while at the same time walking a tightrope. The tightrope represents the focused vision and mission and forward path the organization must take toward an end goal, and yet the juggling and balancing act which must take place along the way to keep all stakeholders happy, to maintain a minimum acceptable level of satisfaction, in order to remain on the narrow path and not proverbially fall off. That said, according to Winand, et al. (2010), such attempts (to balance stakeholder objectives while walking a tight rope of strategy) are not independent from beliefs and actions of individual actors within the organization – and as a result organizational performance should be understood as a social construction. These scenarios reflect simultaneous contradictions and manifest themselves as strategic and political scenarios in need of resolution. Endemic and naturally divergent tension exists between elite and mass sport, between paid staff and volunteers, between a sponsor's commercial needs and the organization's societal responsibilities. Balance is essential, between the needs of a few elite athletes and the needs of the many who comprise the participant base, both of which are needed for ultimate success. NSGBs of all sorts must balance the duality of needs. They must balance the need to strengthen a pipeline of development for elite performance, against the need to cast a wide net to promote interest and participation at grassroots levels. Such dichotomies among stakeholders serve as rugged terrain for NSGBs to navigate when seeking to fulfill their mission and purpose. Papadimitriou (2007) noted that NSGBs must accomplish activities across multiple domains, pursue multiple goals and function

with a strategy to meet the needs of divergent groups, while navigating a fluid external environment with heightened expectations. Research completed by Skinner et al. (1999) and Robinson and Minikin, (2011) demonstrated the impact that external stakeholders have on NSGB priorities, revealing that organizations which depend on fewer revenue streams are more likely to take on less relevant programs (thus yielding to the demands of the funder) than counterparts who are more self-sustaining and have diverse, reliable funding sources. NSGBs which function with weaker systems (i.e. fewer people, less money, vague policies or little two-way communication) are more financially reliant on the USOPC or other powerful external stakeholders. They risk adopting objectives misaligned with their mission, and risk taking on unsustainable activities. According to Shilbury and Ferkins (2011), it is a difficult task for NSGBs to navigate the balance between “the business-like delivery of sport and its inherent play-like features” (p.109). Needs along the entirety of the spectrum must be met, with limited resources. This pressure to effectively navigate these differences has been increasingly magnified as sport has become an important facet of everyday life, manifesting itself as a mechanism for individuals to escape the pressures of everyday life, and for nations to improve their global reputation both economically and politically. Figure 7 below shows several key stakeholders that NSGBs must manage (Alm, 2013).



Figure 7 - Key Stakeholders of a Sport Organization (Alm, 2013).

NSGBs Are Multi-Level, Multi-Disciplinary, Multi-Dimensional

Within international sport, continually increasing standards have initiated a global competition between 'systems.' More and more, athlete and team success depend on an NSBGs systemic ability to leverage all relevant resources toward an increase in performance capacity to the benefit of elite sport performance outcomes. (De Bosscher, et al., 2006). NSGBs with strong competitive structures at all levels are likely to see elite level international success. The power of an NSGBs domestic structure comes from the passion and number of participants and its ability to create mature, competition-hardened athletes, ready to compete in international competitions (Robinson & Minikin, 2011).

Multi – Level

The idea that sport organizations exist at multiple levels and should be studied as such is theoretically supported by many sport management scholars (Chelladurai, 1987; Chelladurai, 2012; Chelladurai and Zintz, 2015; Ferkins, et al., 2009; Siegfried, et al., 2015). De Bosscher, et al., (2006) acknowledge an interaction between three layers (individual, meso and macro), explaining that none of the elements of the organization can be totally extrapolated from social and cultural contexts. Organizational capacity scholars across multiple academic fields have also indicated that organizations exist and should be examined at multiple levels (Bayle and Robinson, 2007; Christensen and Gazley, 2008; Harsh, 2012; Harsh and Mallory, 2013; Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan, 2013). It seems from these and many other studies, that capacity of NSGBs should be viewed as a multi-level construct, with specific capacity needs at each level.

Bayle and Robinson (2007) identify three levels of company analysis in their writings: micro-analytical (individual participants), macro-analytical (interactions between the

organization and its external environment) and configurational (i.e. systemic factors of the organization itself) approaches that scholars have taken when examining NSGBs around the globe. Likewise, De Bosscher, et al. (2003) identified that needs and inputs vary within the NSGB, based upon micro (athlete or member or spectator), meso (NSGB) and macro (country, economy, societal) levels at which these organizations function. In their commentary, they propose a framework of various levels, shown below.

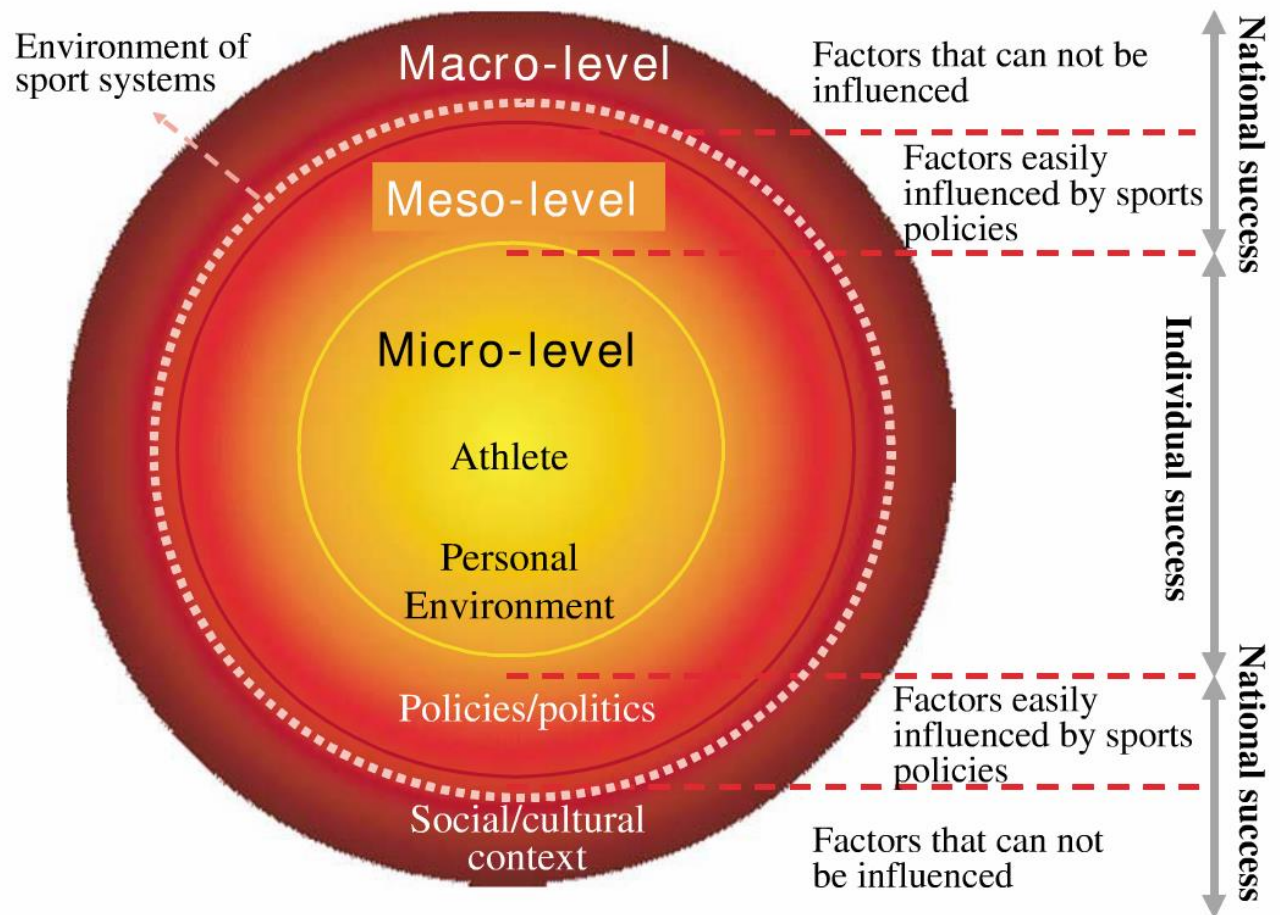


Figure 8 Factors Which Influence NSGB Success (De Bosscher & De Knop, 2003).

Multi – Disciplinary

As with the idea of multi-level, sport academicians also agree that organizational capacity in sport organizations is a multi-disciplinary construct and acknowledge the importance of understanding the nuances of each discipline within the sport context. Chelladurai (2015) defines these three disciplines within sport as mass, elite and entertainment – each with its own set of needs, stakeholders and strategies required for success. Because the USOPC and its member NSGBs are specifically and explicitly tasked with fulfilling purposes connected to each of these populations by way of the TSOASA, this study strives to dissect and assess the various elements of organizational capacity needed for each discipline of sport within the US.

Capacity Requirements of the Mass Program

Charged with the purpose to promote and grow their sports, NSGBs, via community sport programs are expected to deliver both social and individual benefits, for example youth development and community cohesion programs (Misener and Doherty, 2009). NSGBs also serve as sanctioning bodies for local, regional and national events across the country, thus they must have a capacity to manage duties pertaining to these functions. Doherty, et al. (2013) perceive community sport organizations to be a fundamental element of NSGB organizations. It is at the grass roots level where interest in a sport first begins, and as such it is an important segment of the population that must be serviced. According to Doherty, et al. (2013, p 125s),

“community sport clubs are an important type of membership association formed around a social contract between people with a common interest in (a particular) sport. The interests of individual members, and thus the collectivity, are served by

the mandate of the local soccer, baseball, rowing club, and so forth, to provide members with recreation and competitive programs that focus on both individual and sport development”.

Using focus groups with 51 sport club presidents within Ontario, Canada, they identified the primary strengths and challenges that influence Canadian CSOs to achieve their goals. Within the human resources capacity, Doherty, et al, (2013) identified that enthusiasm, human capital, a common focus, sufficient volunteers, volunteer continuity, volunteer succession and development and support were critical elements. Stable revenues and expenses, alternate funding sources, and fiscal responsibility were key for financial capacity. Infrastructure capacity was comprised of formalization, communication and facilities. Planning and development capacity entailed strategic planning, creative planning, and plan implementation. Finally, external relationships required a personal connection, partner engagement, balanced and dependable relationships and bureaucratic partners (Doherty, et al., 2013). Elements contained in this model are listed in Table 4 below:

Table 4 – Doherty et al., (2014) Organizational Capacity Model

Capacity dimension	Critical elements
Human resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enthusiasm Human capital Common focus Sufficient volunteers Volunteer continuity Volunteer succession Development and support
Finance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stable revenues Stable expenses Alternate sources of revenue Fiscal responsibility
Infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Formalization Communication Facilities
Planning and development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strategic planning Creative planning Plan implementation
External relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Personal connection Engagement with partners Balanced relationships Dependable relationships Bureaucratic partners

Capacity Requirements of the Elite Program

In terms of elite participants, De Bosscher, et al. (2006) identified seven characteristics of elite sport systems and recommend NSGBs have these elements in place for optimum success in attracting and developing elite athletes: 1) acknowledgement of physical education and sport in constitutional law, 2) an ability to detect talent early 3) high training frequency, embedded in the schools, 4) training and credentials of professional coaches 5) funding mechanisms 6) high importance given to scientific research, and finally 7) a strong network for sport medicine (De Bosscher, et al., 2006). In addition, as part of a study to identify what NSGBs need in order to perform well on an international stage, they cited ten required elements:

1. A clear understanding about the role of the different agencies involved and an effective communication network that maintains the system.
2. Simplicity of administration through common sporting and political boundaries.
3. An effective system for the statistical identification and monitoring of the progress of talented and elite athletes.
4. Provision of sports services to create an excellence culture in which all members of the team (athletes, coaches, managers, scientists) can interact with one another in a formal and informal way.
5. Well-structured competitive programmes with ongoing international exposure.
6. Well-developed and specific facilities with priority access for elite athletes.
7. The targeting of resources on a relatively small number of sports through identifying those that have a real chance of success at world level.

8. Comprehensive planning for each sports' needs.
9. A recognition that developing excellence has costs, with appropriate funding for infrastructure and people.
10. Lifestyle support and preparation for life after sport. (De Bosscher & De Knop, 2003, p. 195-196).

In addition, they identify key elements for NSGB success, deemed '9 pillars' for international success upon which NSGBs should build their programs. According to De Bosscher and De Knop, (2006) organizational level performance factors are heavily influenced by sports policies and politics, and they assert that elite athletes have a greater probability to achieve competition goals when policy and investment decisions made in elite sport are effective. De Bosscher and De Knop (2003) posit that most elite athletes "find their roots" in a sport-for-all context. While this might be the case in countries outside of the US, trends in youth sport within the US indicate otherwise (Chalk, 2017). In the US, many athletes find their roots through highly structured club sport activities which exist outside of an academic experience, commonly referred to as 'pay to play'. Once "identified" as skilled, many of these individuals seek opportunities in college athletics programs via scholarships. It is through collegiate athletic experiences that highly talented athletes seek professional or Olympic opportunities. The shortcoming of the De Bosscher, et al. (2003) model is that its focus is almost entirely on the needs of an elite performance athlete. Little, if any, mention of the egalitarian population that must also be served is given within this framework, which is depicted below.

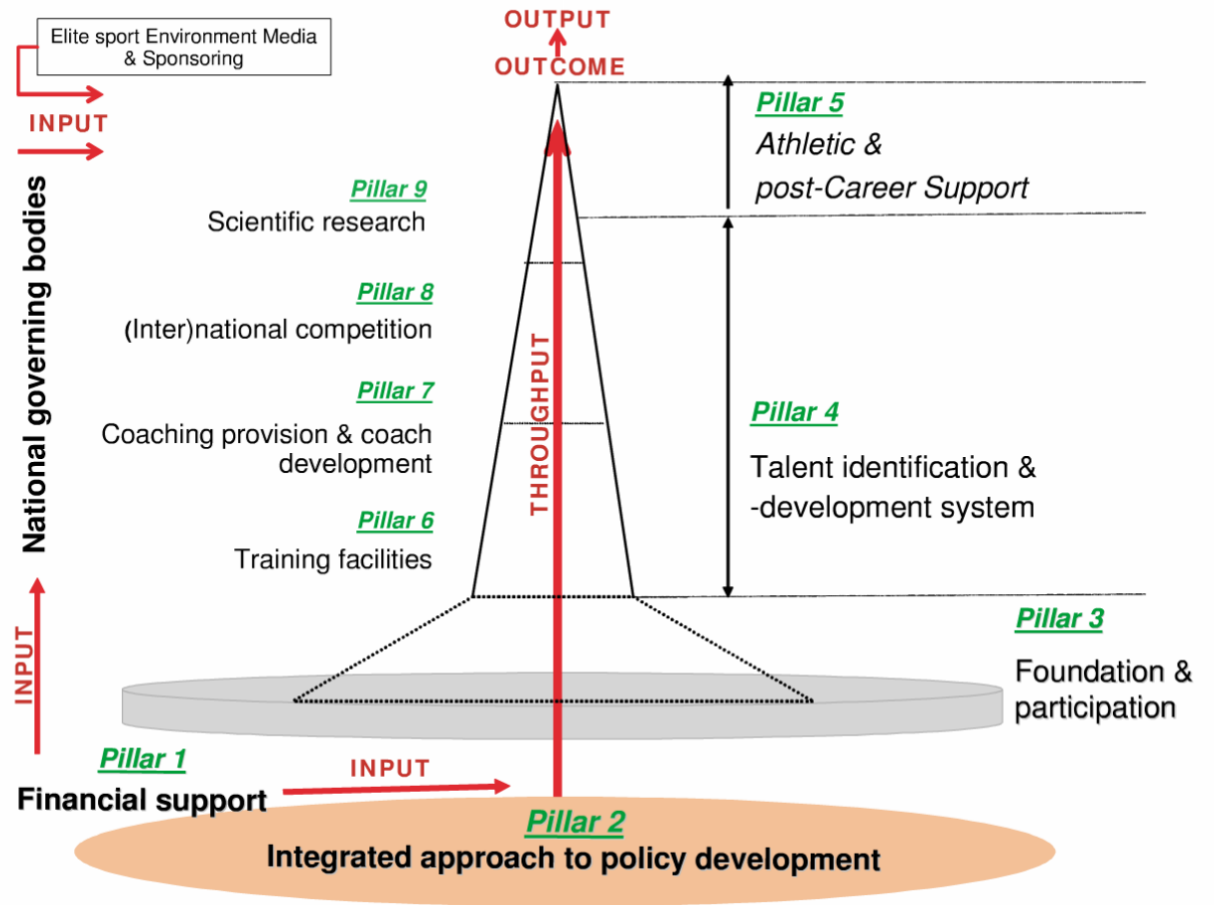


Figure 9 De Bosscher, et al. (2003) 9 Pillars of NSGB Success

Multi - Dimensional

Finally, organizational capacity is widely conceived as a multi-dimensional concept by sport management, business and management and public administration academicians alike (Bryan, 2011; Christensen and Gazley, 2013; Hall et al., 2003; Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan, 2013; Madella, et al., 2005; Misener and Doherty, 2014). Due to the many various objectives these organizations have related to finances, sport, and society, Madella, et al. (2005) believe the NSGB context to be multidimensional. For example, scholars agree that human resource capacity is a domain within organizational capacity, however elements of human resource capacity exist which are relevant to club and grass roots levels, and which are not as important at the national / elite level and vice versa. Prior studies in sport management have focused on specific stakeholders, whereas this study seeks to articulate the capacity needs of a broader range of its stakeholders (including its club/regional/elite programs) within each domain. It examines the capacity requirements of the NSGB system as a whole. In general, domains related to finance, human resources, IT, communication and collaboration (also referred to in the literature as relationships or networking) are domains that sport management scholars have identified that NSGBs need. At each level of the NSGB, and within each discipline, capacity dimensions include level- specific activities related to human resources, finance, information technology (IT), communication, knowledge and learning, collaboration, and stakeholder relationship quality. In addition, each domain is further comprised of more than one construct. As an example, it has been found in the marketing research literature (and is being proposed here) that stakeholder relationship quality is a construct comprised of three elements – commitment, trust among partners, and satisfaction. So not only is

organizational capacity comprised of many dimensions, but also the dimensions themselves are comprised of elements which must address the variety of stakeholders involved. Organizational capacity is a complex construct indeed.

Context of United States Olympic and Paralympic Committee

The US Olympic System Differs from Global Counterparts

When examining organizational capacity, scholars agree that one must factor the NSGBs national context into the framework, as it impacts every dimension of its function. This is certainly the case when one takes a closer look at NSGBs within US. First, and perhaps of greatest difference, unlike most other NOCs and NSGBs around the world, Olympic organizations within the US do not receive government subsidies. Instead of financial or infrastructure support, by virtue of the 1978 Amateur Sports Act, revised in 1998 to be the Ted Stevens Olympic and Amateur Sports Act (TSOASA), the USOPC was given by Congress the exclusive right to utilize the intellectual property (IP) surrounding the US Olympic efforts. In turn, the USOPC uses its power and this federally protected designation to generate revenue to leverage these rights to use the marks via donor, fundraising and sponsorship, partnership and NSGB agreements. Similarly, revenue streams US NSGBs also do not rely on federal support. Instead, NSGB income is primarily derived from membership dues, sponsorship and rights fees, and special events. Larger NSGBs earn media rights fees for their top tier national events, however many mid and smaller NSGBs have greater difficulty successfully leveraging their IP assets in this way due to the production costs involved. Differences in funding sources from global counterparts means that different stakeholders are also involved and as such the capacity needs differ from the rest of the world's NSGBs. For

example, domestic NSGBs who secure large sponsorship agreements must have an ability to find, implement, execute and benchmark results of large sponsorship agreements, whereas smaller NSGBs or those with reduced opportunities for this revenue stream will most likely have a diminished or less developed capacity in this area. It again leaves one to wonder about the nature of the nuanced capacity needs of the USOPC and its member NSGBs, especially given the negative publicity and call for governance restructuring by the public and the US government as a result of the latest scandals.

Mission, Purposes and Capacities of the USOPC

When seeking to understand the context of an NSGB within the US, one must first reflect on the organization which connects the NSGB's operations to the Olympic movement, namely the USOPC. The USOPC has been entrusted the authority by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the US government to select the NSGBs who in turn develop and promote the athletes who ultimately compete on the US Olympic and Paralympic Teams. As such, the USOPC is a critical external stakeholder that NSGBs must satisfy. The USOPC is recognized by Congress as a 501c (3) NPO as a result of the TSOASA. This legislation officially recognizes the USOPC as the exclusive entity which is entrusted with fielding the US Olympic Team it also articulated exclusive ownership rights of the USOPC to various forms of intellectual property (IP) that is connected to its purposes. This law establishes the USOPC as essentially a monopoly and monopsony within the US as it relates to Olympic talent and granted the USOPC sole authority to establish agreements with various NSGBs in the US. The USOPC is the only organization authorized to grant the pathway by which athletes earn a position to compete on the United States Olympic and Paralympic Team.

The USOPC's charter requires it to have (or be able to develop) the capacity to set goals on a national and international scale which guide and direct NSGBs; this charter mandates that the USOPC coordinate, develop, promote and support amateur athletic activity across the entire country for all sports; foster collaborative relationships among stakeholders of all levels (from the individual member to the global sport governing body); effectively govern amateur activity; identify talent; promote and encourage physical fitness and public participation in amateur athletics; amateur athletic program development; swiftly resolve conflict; facility and event management; advocate for participation in physical fitness and amateur athletics; develop and disseminate technical information for coaches regarding coaching and physical training, equipment design, performance analysis; support research and development regarding sport medicine and sport safety (safety can have many interpretations here). It does seem that they require a broad and deep set of capacities in order to effectively achieve the variety of goals that would naturally be connected to these capacities. More important (and relevant to the study at hand), this list gives insight to the nature of the NSGBs which the USOPC then selects to help them implement these purposes. Selected NSGBs must have similarly broad and deep abilities within their respective sports to successfully integrate into the global Olympic system.

USOPC Influence on NSGB Functions

US NSGBs are greatly influenced by the USOPC in terms of their formally established purposes, duties, responsibilities, authorities and functions. This influence is due to USOPC mandates specifically articulated in the TSOASA that require its member NSGBs commit to uphold specific common values, fulfill specific functions, and meet

specific minimum standards of service. These mandated elements in turn are evidenced via specifically articulated purposes within NSGB governing documents as they seek to align with this apex Olympic organization. According to Birkbeck Sport Business Center (BSBC), NSGBs play a variety of roles, have many responsibilities, and are considered to be “custodians of their sport” (n.d., p.1). In this report, BSBC identifies five primary functions which an NSGB fulfills for its sport: strategic planning, promotion of their respective sport, rule and regulation oversight, increasing participation, and talent development. Global competition between countries is increasing, for many reasons. According to De Bosscher, et al. (2006), NSGBs which maintain a static investment in sport risk falling behind organizations which strategically plan, and as a key recommendation for global success, the authors advise that NSGBs emphasize comprehensive planning for success. Deloitte & Touche (2003) conducted a study of NSGBs in the United Kingdom (UK) and assembled purposes of NSGBs which are fulfilled via strategic planning. These purposes include:

promoting the sport; managing rules and regulations of the sport, including anti-doping; administering officials of the sport; establishing and maintaining links with the international governing body / federation; encouraging participation; developing talent; developing elite athletes; organizing and hosting competitions (Deloitte & Touche, 2003, p. 24).

From these lists and recommendations, one notes similar desired outcomes between NSGBs in various countries. What makes the search for peak and sustained organizational capacity different among NSGBs across the world is the internal and external environments that each organization must navigate within its country. Such

contexts cause very diverse constraints which each organization must overcome in order to achieve intended goals. Thus, to reiterate, requisite capabilities and capacities are specific to the industry, to the company, and the context in which the organization exists. Organizational capacity needs depend upon current capabilities and capacities displayed, and those which are missing or latent. Identification of organizational capacity needs should take place using a validated capacity model and assessment tool.

Organizational Capacity Research in Nonprofit Sport

Unlike businesses in other industries, Olympic governing bodies such as the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and its member National Olympic Committees (NOCs) showcase their results via broadcast television and social media for billions of individuals to see during the Winter and Summer Olympic Games. Not many other (if any) industries stage as high profile or widely followed events as these global sport organizations. Such publicity and attention places immense pressure on these IFs, NOC's and NSGBs to produce the pinnacle of athletic achievement...the best of the best that their country can deliver. Technology advancements have ushered in transformational change in many facets of how sport organizations do business, from how they attract casual participants, find and train elite athletes, promote their sports to the public and build a base of engaged fans. Changes have occurred regarding how sport organizations distribute content, the means by which they sell tickets and sponsorships, and how communication and collaboration among employees and stakeholders takes place. Advances in medicine and fitness have modified and improved training and treatment approaches for athletes and have increased IF's abilities to utilize technological tools to identify athletes who are illegally enhancing their performance. Siegfried, et al. (2015)

identified from the sport management literature seven challenges NSGBs face, including a) substantial growth of international competition in top-level sports, b) an increasing differentiation of sport activities which draws new groups, c) a growing need for professional (i.e. paid) staff to deliver services as volunteers are unable or unwilling to perform them d) an increased need for a service orientation, flexible membership forms and quality management, e) emerging forms of communication and media, f) a need to cooperate with new stakeholders and institutions for funding, and g) given that these prior six induce a shift in priorities, NSGBs (with the exception of the US) must still obtain a majority of their funding from the government. With such exogenous and endogenous pressures placed on these sport organizations, it is predictable that former structures and ways of doing business will change. According to Shilbury and Ferkins (2011), these trends require new governance structures and greater strategic capacity, and capacity building in general to efficiently manage these increasingly complex environments and challenges. It is evident from reading trade journals in sport and completing a review of scholarly literature that research on sport organization capacity is needed to help these specialized organizations achieve success and maintain a competitive advantage. Grigaliūnaitė and Eimontas (2018) assert that in the wake of this evolution, a need has arisen for these sport NPOs to transform from amateur organizations to a professionalized institution. Siegfried, et al. (2015) agree, stating “these challenges create the impression that sport federations need to establish contemporary management structures and programmes to accomplish their work more efficiently and to adequately meet the expectations of a complex and dynamically changing environment” (p. 408).

Approaches to Research on Organizational Performance of NSGBs

Beginning to ascertain an organization's capacity and its ability to set and achieve goals is a difficult task. Given the multi-level, multi-dimensional, multi-disciplinary context earlier referenced, sport scholars are beginning to utilize broader methods to examine and explain NSGB performance. Bayle and Robinson (2007), in their review of literature on organizational performance, found that few scholars have examined NSGBs holistically. In their point of view, understanding the interaction of various elements within this hybrid NSGB ecosystem is complex, difficult to understand and as a result the nuances of how various NSGB organizational elements interact, organizational performance assessment requires a multi-criteria approach. During their review of literature, they discovered three primary perspectives sport scholars have taken to examine NSGBs – the first of which arises from a micro-analytical perspective, one where there is a focus on actors' behavior within the organization. In this perspective one finds themes related to decision-making, and power and conflict, for example. In this research strategy, scholars examine individual(s) and their impact on the organization and are able to showcase examples of power coalitions, use of various forms of power, and organizational inertia (Bayle and Robinson, 2007). A second research perspective they encountered comes from what Bayle and Robinson (2007) deem as a macro-analytical perspective, one in which scholars' study either relationships between the external environment and the organization, or the external environment and actors' behavior. These perspectives are more systemic in their approach to understand organizational functioning. Shortcomings exist in this body of research however, because it is difficult to connect macro ideas found in these types of studies to metrics of organizational

performance. A third means by which scholars have examined NSGBs is through a configurational approach, one which examines strategy, organizational structure, management systems, or the organization's culture (Bayle and Robinson, 2007, p. 251). In this genre of research, scholars such as Chelladurai and Zintz (2015) seek to define connections and integrations between internal and external components of an organization. The strength of this style enables the researcher to understand change that occurs, as well as strategic and structural prerequisites needed for peak performance. Bayle and Robinson (2007) created an interesting framework for consideration, one which examines NSGBs both strategically and operationally. In this model, the strategic structure of an organization determines its potential, whereas the operational function of the NSGB determines actual performance. This study will utilize a systemic approach to explore and theorize the concepts at hand.

Research Topics Surrounding NSGBs

A prominent line of NSGB research that one does find in the sport management literature entails the professionalization (also called modernization) of national sport organizations (NSOs) (Bayle and Robinson, 2007; Chelladurai, 1987; Deloitte & Touche, 2003; Geeraert et al., 2014; Grigaliūnaitė and Eimontas, 2018; Robinson and Minikin, 2011; Shilbury and Ferkins, 2011; Siegfried, et al., 2015; Skirstad and Chelladurai, 2011; Slack and Hinings, 1992). In literature which emanates outside the US, one frequently hears the term NSO to reference national organizations which have representation in the Olympic movement. For purposes of this discussion, the term NSGB will be used to describe organizations in the US who are members of the USOPC, and who provide athletes from their membership via national competitions to represent their NF in world

championships on behalf of the US and who also are forwarded to serve as members of the US Olympic and Paralympic Teams.

From a systems theory perspective, professionalization can be interpreted as when organizations exhibit negative entropy (specializing functions) and equipotentiality (moving from less structure to more complex relationships). Both topics are present in the sport management literature. According to Grigaliūnaitė and Eimontas (2018), “sport has evolved as an important economic activity and wealth creator as it functions at individual, organizational, and national levels of a country” (p.18). In their view, the definition of sport has evolved from merely a physical or leisure activity pursued for pleasure or improved health to entail and require business activities. According to Businesswire.com (2019), the size of the global sport business industry grew to 488.5 billion dollars in 2018, with projections to grow to 614.1 billion by 2022 (statistics released pre-COVID-19). Global sport is an enormous business. Grigaliūnaitė and Eimontas (2018) also note an increased pressure for NSGBs to produce a profit, offer high quality products and services, sustain and broaden consumer interest, and serve as role models – given limited time and financial means. Similar to other scholars, they acknowledge that NSGBs operate at multiple levels and stress the importance for NSGBs to exhibit effective governance as a means to successfully mitigate problems and efficiently fulfill its mission. Shilbury and Ferkins (2011) reference ‘professional management’ and ‘volunteer administration’ as two important ideas to reflect upon when seeking to understand the optimal function of organizations at various levels, explaining that as local and regional offices of NSGBs become structurally distant from a home office, greater strategic and operational gaps begin to exist, as volunteers (and not

professional sport managers) are increasingly relied upon at the local levels to deliver the sport product.

In a similar thread, Skirstad and Chelladurai (2011) examined external influences on sport organizations in their study of a Norwegian soccer club. They discussed various mimetic, coercive and normative forces which exerted themselves on a sports club and explained how these forces influenced club decisions to modify internal workings toward more professionalized processes and structures. In addition, in their findings and discussion, Skirstad and Chelladurai (2011) demonstrated how a successful sport club was able to effectively cater to the seemingly dichotomous values and needs among the various constituent groups by modifying its governance structure. In a similar vein, Shilbury and Ferkins (2011) posit that the end result of adapting modernized governance practices might also increase the efficiency and coordination of sport opportunities. They also believe that contemporary governance practices favorably impact training opportunities for athletes who seek to represent their country; in addition, these practices encourage increased participation levels by the broader community populations (Shilbury and Ferkins, 2011). As technology mandates the use of new innovations to find and connect with fans and manage processes within their organization, professionalization of the various functions is an important means by which NSGBs can maintain a competitive advantage, and “avert major crises, and respond to stakeholder concerns” (Shilbury and Ferkins, 2011, p.117).

Many sport management scholars acknowledge these changes taking place over the past decades within the sport industry and have researched NSGBs and NPOs on a variety of topics including National Olympic Committees (NOCs) (Geeraert, et al., 2014;

Winand, et al., 2010), professionalization (Chelladurai, 1987, 2012; Siegfried, et al., 2015), governance and strategy (Ferkins, et al., 2005; Ferkins, et al., 2009; Geeraert, et al., 2014; Grigaliūnaitė and Eimontas, 2018; Robinson and Minikin, 2011; Shilbury and Ferkins, 2011), elite level performance needs (Bayle and Robinson, 2007, De Bosscher et al., 2006), and community club requirements (Doherty, et al. 2013; Millar and Doherty, 2016; Misener and Doherty, 2009). These nonprofit sport organizations (NSOs) are a unique form of NPO. Bayle and Robinson (2007) acknowledge several sport management scholars who confirm that examination of organizational performance in sport, much like its 'traditional' business siblings, requires a multi-criteria approach. According to Misener and Doherty, (2009, p. 458) "by virtue of their multidimensional nature, capacity-based studies hold the key to understanding organizational reforms more completely than traditional measures of effectiveness". Chelladurai (1987) concurs with this view, stating that multi-dimensional measures of effectiveness are required in order to accurately ascertain the situation. Similar sentiment regarding capacity research exists within scholars who study non-sport NPOs. Sowa, et al. (2004, p. 712) writes: "Scholars of nonprofit organizations have argued that the characteristics of these organizations, such as their unique financial and legal status and their goals based on social values, make discussions about how to conceptualize organizational effectiveness even more complex". So, upon closer examination, it appears as though the same conundrum which exists within business, management and public administration literatures is also present in sport NSGB capacity research – that consensus on what can explain or predict organizational performance (in an NSGB context) is difficult to obtain, and a search is

underway instead for a framework which might explain peak performance in this highly specialized, yet broadly influential context.

Anticipating a need for empirical modeling of organizational capacity in sport, several sport management scholars such as Essilfie and Chelladurai (2016) and Doherty, et al. (2013) picked up the gauntlet and accepted the challenge to map these ideas into a sport context. The most prominent line of organizational capacity research within the sport management field has been driven primarily by Canadian scholars (Doherty, et al. 2013; Millar and Doherty, 2016; Misener and Doherty, 2009). Beginning in 2009, Misener and Doherty (2009) released a qualitative study which examined community sport organizations (CSOs) in Canada. Utilizing the capacity model forwarded by Hall, et al., (2003), these scholars confirmed the need for a multidimensional strategy when examining organizational capacity at the community sport level, and they discerned that within the Hall, et al. (2003) model, human resources and planning and development capacities were of highest importance for CSOs. Subsequently, Doherty, et al. (2013) extended this research by developing a capacity framework for CSOs, and they further refined key elements contained within Hall, et al., (2003) previously identified dimensions. Finally, in 2016, Millar and Doherty (2016) extended their prior research and proposed a capacity building framework to further reinforce, define and explain the means by which CSOs most effectively build their capacity. This framework can be viewed in Figure 10.

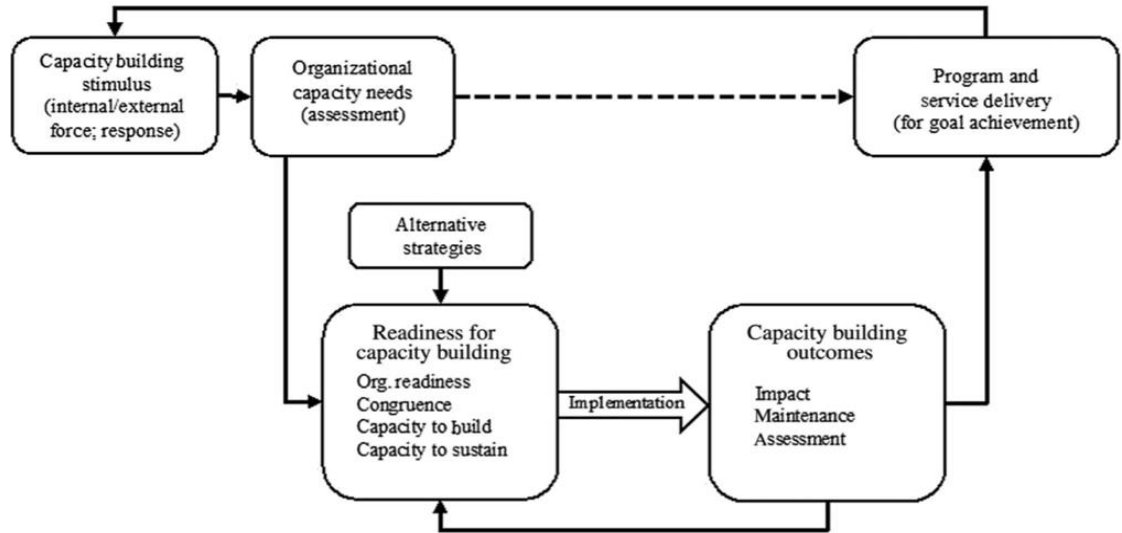


Figure 10 Millar and Doherty, (2016) Capacity Building Process Model

Efforts to Empirically Validate OC Models in NSGB Contexts

In the past several years, scholars (Essilfie and Chelladurai, 2016; Despard, 2017; Shumate, et al., 2017) have begun to add quantitative support to these conceptual frameworks, empirically testing these models for merit (intrinsic value) and worth (extrinsic value). Essilfie and Chelladurai (2016) began to place quantitative data behind the model designed by McKinsey, (2001) to empirically validate measures of organizational capacity in the sport context. In their commentary, they recommended that the instrument which emanated from their research be further tested for external validity among a broader range of organizations. In addition, these ideas are being tested in the sport management field. Using Hall, et al. (2003), sport management scholars have begun to add to the organizational capacity literature (Clutterbuck, 2018; Doherty, et al., 2013; Doherty and Cuskelly, 2020; Essilfie and Chelladurai, 2016; Millar and Doherty, 2016; Misener and Doherty, 2009; Misener and Misener, 2017; Wicker and Breuer, 2014), conducting research and applying these ideas to a sport context. To date, the

research regarding sport capacity is primarily focused at one level – either at the community level, or at a national level (i.e., both are not examined as parts of a whole), and the research has been conducted on targets outside of the US. Many of the above-mentioned studies and capacity projects developed their models utilizing qualitative methods or were derived from conceptual thoughts, therefore a need exists to quantitatively examine organizational capacity, to render further support from a complimentary perspective for the composition of constructs of these models. More research is needed to extend knowledge and develop the assessment tools which NSGBs in the US have at their disposal to strengthen organizational capacity.

It is interesting to note that in the sport management scholarly literature, authors from many countries across the globe have analyze these complex ideas, examining them for patterns and predictions in contexts pertaining to sport. What is curious, however, is that there is truly a *dearth* of research surrounding the USOPC and its member NSGBs. In conducting a search for literature surrounding organizational capacity and related areas, there were *no scholarly studies of any kind* regarding organizational capacity of non-profit sport organizations found to emanate from within the US, and none to have utilized the US Olympic and Paralympic Committee, or a member NSGB as a research target. The present study seeks to extend the understanding of the models presented in this chapter, integrating elements of management models, public administration models, and sport governance models, to forward an organizational capacity model which might be found to be empirically applicable to an NSGB context within the US.

Developing an Organizational Capacity Model for US NSGBs

The situations referenced above allude to an urgent need that these important organizations have to model organizational capacity in a context relevant to the US. These organizations need a framework which guides leaders' ability to understand and ascertain their organization's ability to set and achieve goals. When setting any goal, it is critical to understand the starting point, as it enables leaders to formulate priorities and strategies. This research seeks to deliver a first step toward the development of a tool to help the parts of a complex system align its diverse components behind a common greater initiative. An assessment of an organization's capacity to achieve points to strengths upon which to capitalize and weaknesses to be fortified through external assistance, or internal improvement. Moreover, if institutionalized into a regular process, use of an instrument offers a tailored, yet standardized tool for NSGBs to benchmark improvement and obtain critical feedback from key constituents. Learning organizations need a reliable feedback loop, and this project hopes to be a solid first step toward building a reliable instrument which would provide detailed feedback regarding organizational performance.

Definition of NSGB

When seeking to articulate the domains of an organizational capacity framework representative of US NSGBs, an important point of order is to define what constitutes an NSGB, relative to the model. This definition is essential, as it specifically points to the population of organizations to which this framework is designed to aid. In the instance of NSGBs in the US, due to the variety of legal and financial structures that exist, some NSGBs have been created by powers above individual members (or outside their

influence). For example, the National Collegiate Athletics Association (NCAA) was created as a result of actions taken and commissions formed by President Theodore Roosevelt in response to negative incidents that took place in college athletics at the turn of the 20th century. NASCAR, an example of a for-profit NSGB, is a private company, owned by one family, the “members” of which are authorized participants who pay a fee for a membership license and who can be expelled at the decision of NASCAR. The X-Games and World Wrestling Entertainment (WWE) are similar to NASCAR, in that they too are for-profit, privately held companies. The National Hotrod Association (NHRA), similar to NASCAR, was started by one person, however unlike the aforementioned organizations, it has become a non-profit NSGB within motorsport. In the case of the Olympic movement within the US, Congress birthed the USOPC by when it legislated the Amateur Sports Act of 1978, and it was signed into existence by then President Jimmy Carter. So, while the USOPC is financially independent from the government, by definition the USOPC has been chartered by Congressional legislation and is formally scrutinized by Congress every four years. As is readily apparent, NSGBs within the US exist in many forms, and have emerged through various means. When considering the definition of NSGB in the Olympic context, many sources exist in the literature to which one can look for further insight. Siegfried, et al., (2015) explain that sport federations represent one or more sports, advocate for their sport’s best interests in society and to international sport organizations, they promote competitive sports, organize competitions, championships and sport events, and articulate the rules and regulations which govern them (Siegfried, et al., 2015). Chelladurai and Zintz (2015) add to this description and define an NSGB as an apical, interorganizational network, legally independent and

autonomous from government. Further, they explain that these networks have convergent and divergent interests, and they are created by members. For this study it is important to understand how the USOPC defines an NSGB since this definition and these expectations are a direct reflection of the organizations it selects and certifies to participate in the Olympics and other international competitions on behalf of the US. USOPC bylaws clearly delineate a description of general and Olympic NSGB member requirements, stating that member NSGBs are those that play an important role the administration of one or more sports or competitions in Olympic, Pan American or Paralympic Games. Further, the USOPC defines Olympic sport organizations as those amateur sports organizations that are recognized and certified by the USOPC as NSGBs for sports that the IOC has approved to participate in medal sports at either an upcoming Olympic Games or in the immediate past Olympic Games. An NSGB recognized by the USOPC can also be an entity that governs sports that are widely practiced in the US. Within the USOPC bylaws, it specifically states that purely commercial or political organizations are ineligible for membership. (USOPC Bylaws, 2020). This study will focus on NSGBs recognized by the USOPC that compete on the Olympic program. Deloitte & Touche (2003) define an NSGB as an organization which:

“prepares and implements a vision and strategic plan; promotes the sport; manages rules and regulations, administers officials; establishes and maintains links with the international governing body / federation; encourages participation; develops talent and elite athletes; and organises and hosts competitions” (Deloitte & Touche, 2003, p. 8).

The Deloitte & Touche (2003) definition of an NSGB will be utilized in this study.

Key Success Factors (Outcomes, KPIs)

When tackling the task of modeling organizational capacity needs of US NSGBs, it is also imperative to keep in mind key success factors (KSFs) that NSGBs need to effectively satisfy the diverse collection of stakeholders and fulfill the motley set of purposes connected to achieving their overall mission. Some organizational capacity scholars refer to KSFs as outputs or outcomes (Hall, et al., 2003; Misener and Doherty, 2009). In the practitioner world, one might see the term KPI – key performance indicators. Using the definition forwarded by Madella, Bayle, and Tome (2005, p. 207), performance represents an “ability to acquire and process human, financial and physical resources” to achieve organizational goals”. Sport management scholars, through qualitative and quantitative studies of various levels within an NSGB, have identified multiple key success factors NSGB sport organizations need at levels within the system in order to have the capacity to set and achieve goals and fulfill their mission (Chelladurai and Zintz, 2015; De Bosscher and De Knop, 2006; Deloitte & Touche, 2003; Deloitte & Touche, 2013; Doherty, et al., 2013; Madella, et al., 2005; Taks, et al., n.d.; Robinson and Minikin, 2011). In general, the sport management literature tells us that NSGBs require a very strong ability to network and collaborate; they require the human resource capacity to attract and retain professional and elite level employees, volunteers (i.e. board members), athletes, coaches and clubs; financial capacity to generate revenue is needed since government funding is not available for these organizations; NSGBs require a strong board and ability to govern an organization consisting of very diverse members and stakeholders, each with different and at times opposing interests. To sustain a competitive advantage in global sport, NSGBs must

implement policies which increase accountability, enhance transparency of internal functions and improve performance; they require a diverse set of technical capacities which encompass elements connected to athlete development, marketing, management, accounting, analytics, and more. Each segment of sport participants (mass, elite, etc.) and each level within the system (participant, club, state/region, national and international) imposes its own set of unique demands. In order for stakeholders to engage to their fullest potential, diverse capacities are required of an NSGB.

Empirical Study of Organizational Capacity of US NSGBs

Thus, to reiterate, much change in terms of technological advances has happened since top organizational capacity models have been developed around the turn of the millennium. Coupled with other external forces such as COVID-19 and the impact of inquiries due to athlete abuses within the US Olympic system, these disruptive influences have intensified a need for extended, context specific models of organizational capacity that NSGBs can use in reform efforts. Requisite capabilities and capacities required of NSGBs are specific to the industry, to the company, and the to the situational context in which the organization exists. Organizational capacity needs of an organization depend upon current capabilities and capacities displayed, and those which are missing or latent. Because there is a dearth of scholarly studies regarding the organizational capacity of NSGBs within the US, a study is needed to help these sport organizations set and achieve goals and fulfill their mission. Searches for studies which examined US NSGBs were unsuccessful. Of the very few studies identified, only one article even mentioned US NSGBs or the USOPC as a research target, and this study at the time had not yet occurred; the author merely referenced that the study was ongoing (and subsequent

attempts to find the completed study were unsuccessful). It seems as though the USOPC member NSGBs would greatly benefit from a study to help them understand, define and further develop their organizational capacity within this unique and valuable system.

III. RESEARCH METHODS

Research Methods

Purpose of Study

Much is changing in our world at a rate and scale not experienced before. The emergence of Web 2.0, innovations in technology and in social media are a few of many influences which have increased pressure for change in the ways which companies operate. COVID-19 drastically accelerated this shift and augmented the disruption, such that organizations and individuals unable to effectively pivot into a digital space were simply left behind. Third order change (changing how we change) has become the norm since this global pandemic hit our world. Tools, structures, processes and financial models are changing as more functions have been coerced to the web. Individuals have an increased ability to communicate at a scale not seen before. The ability to share data, information and knowledge on a global scale from an individual level increases the power of an individual and it brings a value structure of transparency, authenticity and integrity that people expect and demand from companies and individuals they work for and do business with. As a result, much is changing in the sport industry and while they claim a tax exemption, NSGBs are not exempt from such changes and expectations.

In the wake of incidents involving USAG and other NSGBs, key stakeholders began to apply greater pressure on the USOPC and its member NSGBs to reform their values and business structures; members seek more transparent governance and trends toward professionalization are causing discord due to the diverse stakeholder needs. Extremely negative findings from two separate investigations regarding the USOPC and USAG were released within days of each other in December 2018 by the US House of

Representatives, Energy and Commerce Committee, (2018) and by Ropes & Gray, the law firm independent investigators hired to track and evaluate the turn of events within USAG (McPhee and Dowden, 2018). Both reports call for systemic reforms of the USOPC and its member NSGBs. On the heels of these reports, in January 2019, legislation was introduced to Congress to form a committee to assess the USOPC and its member NSGBs in terms of structure, activities, and goals and propose reforms (Strengthening US Olympics Act, 2019). Since the USOPC was created by and is accountable to Congress, if enacted, this bill would entirely transform the USOPC and its NSGBs. The USOPC chartered its own investigation as well, creating the Borders Commission. This Commission was comprised of sport practitioner experts, current and former athletes, Olympians, Paralympians, those in youth sport, NSGB representatives, and an independent counsel. Following a nine-month inquiry, the Borders Commission forwarded eleven recommendations for reform and change to the USOPC system (Borders Commission, 2019).

The USOPC and its member NSGBs are uniquely structured and unlike their third sector counterparts. A difficult challenge to navigate, they are charged by the US Congress with the responsibility to oversee and administer all elements of amateur sport, including a duty to set and achieve national goals; coordinate and develop activity directly related to international amateur competition; promote productive working relationships among sports entities; and exercise exclusive control over all issues related to US participation in the Olympic, Paralympic and Pan American Games (USOPC Bylaws, 2020). The USOPC and its member NSGBs must govern an extraordinarily heterogeneous population of clubs and service the entire spectrum of participants – from

the participant with no skill at all, to the highly skilled elite Olympian; from the casual spectator to the highly committed participant, while growing the sport interests of the general public. According to Papadimitriou (2007), this broad diversity causes conflict due to the variation in goals, capacities and delivery systems required to satisfy these needs and achieve goals. On the contrary, Skirstad and Chelladurai, (2011) studied examples in which these various needs existed in harmony. US Olympic leaders acknowledge a disconnect within and among their systems and when gaps occur, unfortunately, athlete safety is at risk and programs are delivered at less-than-optimal levels. Given the disruptive changes that technology and other internal and external forces exert on these organizations, NSGB leaders seek a means to coordinate, innovate and improve program delivery processes and communications to better service and protect its members. Such a diverse set of members and goals require a complex combination of capacities. It is imperative that organizations understand their capacity needs, strengthen those required and improve ability to achieve their established goals.

Many sport scholars have acknowledged the importance of a strong system as a foundational element of international sport success (De Bosscher and De Knop, 2006; Rapilla, 2008; Robinson and Minikin, 2011; Truyens, et al., 2016). Rapilla (2008) attributes successful Olympic outcomes to the effective development of a sport system, and further, she recommends that Olympic organizations “get their infrastructure right to ensure an outcome of successful performance” (Rapilla, 2008, p. 9). Truyens, et al., (2016) assert a complex arrangement of various forms of resources required for successful elite programs, explaining that the human, physical and organizational (i.e.,

infrastructure) resources are the foundation and form the ‘building blocks of countries’ competitive position” (Truyens, et al., 2016, p. 568).

There is a dearth of research regarding organizational capacity of NPSOs in the US, specifically with regard to the USOPC and its member NSGBs. Management consultants, along with capacity builders and foundations from other industry segments within the third sector have developed models and assessment tools for nonprofits, however their use within a nonprofit *sport* context has been limited. Additionally, these models were developed prior to 2008 when the world shifted due to the emergence of advances in technology – including social media and the ensuing two-way communication capabilities and the ability to globally interact from a one-to-many situation. Research regarding organizational capacity in sport and related topics emanates primarily from Europe, Australia and Canada, however there are no known studies to have examined the USOPC or its NSGBs. The ways in which the NOC and its member NSGBs function in the US is entirely different from any other country in the world, and as such, a model which is contextualized to US sport is needed. The purpose of this study is to extend current knowledge of organizational capacity and articulate the domains of organizational capacity, relative to NSGBs within the US. Using Anderson and Krathwohl’s (2001) revision of Bloom’s Taxonomy, the specific purpose of this integrated literature review is to ascend through these levels of thought to formulate a new understanding of OC in a non-profit sport context. It is the goal of this review to *specify* the domains of OC, *contextualized* to a nonprofit sport ecosystem, *conceptualized* as a relevant framework, with domains extended into a *process* which functions together. Finally, using theory development strategies, this review *abstracts* an understanding of

these organizational capacity domains specifically to a US Olympic context. This framework defines, classifies, and explains the domains of organizational capacity of US NSGBs. It represents a first step toward operationalizing these capacity domains required of US NSGBs and proposes a theoretically founded model by which US NSGBs can begin to assess domains of capacity and strategize to survive disruptive change influences and the transformation of society following Web 2.0.

Research Question

According to many scholars there is a lack of reliable and valid organizational capability and capacity assessment tools (Despard, 2017; Shumate, 2017). Research studies conducted to develop capacity models within a sport context have been primarily qualitative in nature and a need exists to complement this perspective and develop and test a quantitative measure for use within the nonprofit sport context. Using Hall, et al. (2003) and capacity models developed by McKinsey (2001), sport management scholars have begun to add to the organizational capacity literature in a sport context (Clutterbuck, 2018; Doherty and Cuskelly, 2020; Doherty, et al., 2013; Essilfie and Chelladurai, 2016; Misener and Doherty, 2009). This integrated review aimed to develop a contextually relevant organizational capacity model for nonprofit sport in the US. Otherwise stated, to borrow ideas from Tsoukas' (1989) commentary on the validity of ideographic study to formulate valid research explanations, this dissertation sought to define and understand organizational capacity needs of US NSGBs and further, to understand the inherent generative mechanisms specific to this context. The research question for this project therefore was:

- Given increased global competition, the goals and objectives mandated by Congress and the current USOPC bylaws, and given the increased pressure for athlete safety and well-being from internal stakeholders, what are the dimensions of organizational capacity needed by US NSGBs?

Research Methodology

Step One – Understanding Best Practice in Theory Development

The focus of this project was to utilize an integrative review, along with strategic thinking, to ascertain and propose a revised and updated model of OC that is mapped to a very specific niche – NSGBs within the United States. As an initial step, it is important for researchers to have a deep grasp of the effective thinking strategies required in theory development. As one top organizational behavior theorist asserts, “during the theory development process, logic replaces data as the basis for evaluation (Whetten, 1989, p. 491). Thus, in this next segment, the logic used to develop this model is described and forwarded as theoretical data for this project, and it is for this reason why information on proper theory construction is included in the research method section. To begin developing and extending a theory of OC contextualized to USNGBs, the author looked to seminal experts in organizational behavior theory development to understand what a “good theory” is, what it does, (and what it does not or cannot do) and finally to understand the elements that comprise a good theory. Authors such as Bacharach, (1989), Dubin (1978), Eisenhardt, (1989), Chimezie, et al. (1989), Tsoukas (1989), Van de Ven (1989), Weick (1989) and Whetten (1989) offer definitions, explanations, instructions, and recommendations for organizational behavior scholars who wish to build theoretical models that are effective foundations that facilitate empirical study.

These authors are widely noted for their thinking – both in management theorizing articles, and some, such as Van de Ven (1989), Weick (1999), and Whetten (1989) in particular, are easily recognized as intellectual leaders (all were reviewers and/or editors of reputable scholarly management journals). Some (Weick, 1999) are also cited by those noting best practice examples of integrative literature reviews (Torraco, 2016). It is for these reasons that this specific set of thinkers were utilized to offer guidance in terms of best practice for theory construction in this project.

Step Two - Theory – Defined.

When starting to develop or extend a theory, it is important to begin with an understanding of what even a theory is, so that one knows exactly what the outcome of the thinking should reflect. According to organizational behavior theorists Whetten (1989) and Dubin (1978), a model and a theory are synonymous, thus this project – in developing a model – is also forwarding a theory of OC. Bacharach (1989) explains that a theory illustrates relationships between concepts and uses assumptions and constraints as boundaries of thought. Further, he clarifies that a theory is a “linguistic device” that arranges ideas in an intricate, pragmatic context. Bacharach (1989) then analyzes the components of theory, separating theory into its basic parts and forwards a visual model stating that it is “a system of constructs and variables in which constructs are related to each other by propositions and variables are related to each other by hypotheses. The whole premise is bounded by the theorist's assumptions” (Bacharach, 1989, p.498).

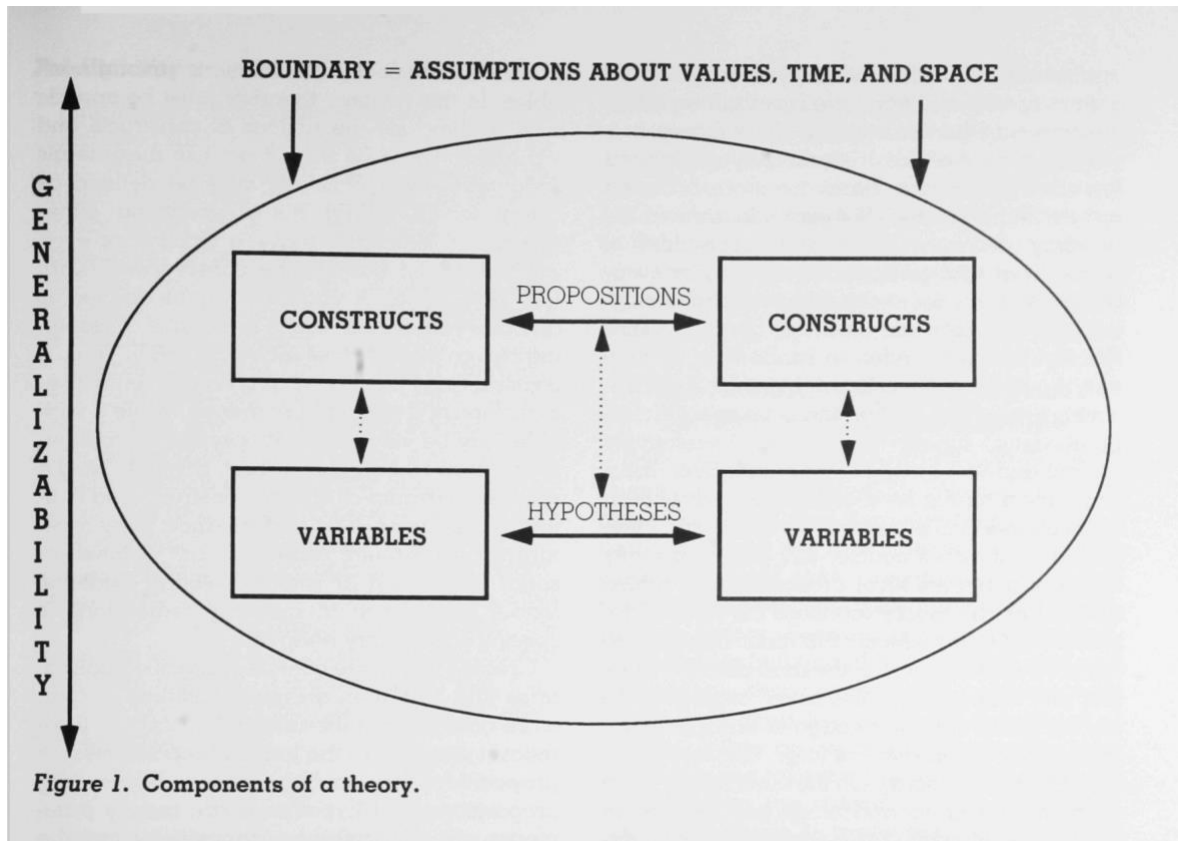


Figure 11 Model of a Theory (Bacharach, 1989)

This chapter and the next articulates all of the above: relationships of concepts, explanation of assumptions and identification of other elements which serve as boundaries for this theoretical project. According to Chimezie, et al. (1989) the need for precise concept definition exists in organizational science. He stresses their importance by explaining their role as “building blocks of science upon which propositions are based” maintaining that “scientific knowledge only exists when propositions are organized in a systematic way so that we can perceive their interrelations” (Chimezie, et al., 1989, p. 579-580) In this project, when defining the theory and the outcome deliverable of this exercise, the author sought to first identify important, updated and relevant constructs and variables of OC in general; second, to recognize the assumptions and constraints of systems theory as they relate to values, time and space; and third, to

ascertain the relationships and complexities of these concepts in a USNGB context. The author sought to define and understand the constructs of OC and forward propositions between OC constructs and develop a foundation that enables its variables to be subsequently operationalized with meaningful and relevant hypotheses. The proposed theory crafted through this project (i.e. the *FOCUSS* model) is bounded by assumptions of systems theory and uses updated constructs found in OC literature. It contextualizes the model using variables and metrics found in academic research across management, public administration education, and health; it utilizes practitioner documents which measure OC and organizational performance of USNSGBs.

Step Three - What Does a Good Theory Do? What is its Purpose?

After identifying experts for best practice and grasping a concept of what constitutes good theory, one must then develop the theory's purpose. Bacharach (1989) explicitly states a theory's twofold purpose is to concisely organize and clearly communicate ideas. As guest editor for a special edition on theory construction in *Academy Management Review*, Van de Ven (1989) describes what a good theory will accomplish. He asserts that a primary purpose for scholars in management, health, education and social work is to develop ideas which expand scientific knowledge that can be applied in practice Van de Ven (1989). The interesting and exciting idea here is that the abovementioned disciplines (management, health, education and social work) were exactly those utilized in this project to identify updated constructs of OC, validating the logic (i.e. the method) behind why it was acceptable to go beyond the sport management literature in a search to identify the constructs of the *FOCUSS* model. In addition, the primary OC models currently in use by sport management scholars are also grounded in

models found in these above disciplines, so inquiry into these disciplines for further insight and inspiration is a currently accepted strategy. Van de Ven (1989) offers best practice advice, stating that strongly conceived theories also demonstrate an in-depth awareness of the problems that practitioners face and advance knowledge relevant to the discipline and profession (p. 486). He explains that strong theoretical contributions guide scholars toward critical research questions and educate those in the management profession. The *FOCUSS* model enables many guiding questions to emerge for sport scholars. In addition, further study of this model can enumerate a scale to operationalize model domains which in turn would offer tools for practitioners of sport management to educate and inform their practice. Because there are elements of this model which seek to capture an understanding of the demographics of the target organization(s) and key success factors within the context, the *FOCUSS* model also enables for this in-depth awareness of issues faced by practitioners (which Bacharach (1989) references).

Research Design –An Integrative Review

According to Torraco (2016) integrative literature reviews “provide review and critique to resolve inconsistencies in the literature and provide fresh, new perspectives on the topic” (p. 405). In addition, Torraco acknowledges a need for this type of literature review as the knowledge base on a topic (such as organizational capacity) grows and diversifies. Integrative literature reviews have an ability to synthesize and reconceptualize what is known on the subject through strategic critique and review (Torraco, 2016). Torraco (2016) forwards that one of five stated purposes of an integrative literature review is to reconceptualize the topic when current interpretations are recognized as out of date or otherwise problematic, and a reconceptualization is

needed. It is the author's view that current interpretations of OC are incomplete and do not factor in changes which have taken place in technology (thus strengthening the referent power of stakeholders, increasing the importance of collaboration, and enabling forms of communication that up until Web 2.0 were impossible). Given the previously mentioned conflicting interpretations of OC, according to organizational theorist Eisenhardt (1989), when conflict exists in the extant literature, researchers have a twofold opportunity – to examine the various perspectives and increase the confidence in findings, and also seize an opportunity to assume a more “frame breaking mode of thinking, resulting in deeper insight of not only the current literature, but also in emerging theories” (Eisenhardt, 1989, p. 544). Conflicting findings such as what is found among current definitions in OC are the exact situations to which Eisenhardt (1989) refers. These scenarios are those which drive researchers to uncover more generalized understandings of a concept, in the hope to discover a clarified, sharper theory of OC. According to Eisenhardt (1989), reconciliation of divergent ideas through the exercise of such theoretical activity as a literature review enables diverse understandings to coalesce into a single theoretical perspective, simultaneously raising both the theoretical level and the generalizability of results (p. 544). In her view, patterns and relationships discovered across diversely understood concepts increases confidence in the validity of what is observed and strengthens the theoretical scope of the phenomenon under review (Eisenhardt, 1989). Eisenhardt (1989) contends that use of conflicting realities found in the literature can “unfreeze” a researcher's bias and free their thought from what she refers to as armchair deduction and incremental studies. Use of the literature to draw insight on emergent theory also gives direction on readily measured constructs (which

have already undergone scrutiny) and thus can give rise to hypotheses which can be verifiable and proven false. When one connects an emergent theory to previously studied constructs using conflicting extant literature, if done well, the opportunity exists to elevate the concept's theoretical level, improve its internal validity and generalizability, and it sets the stage for further corroboration in future study. The goal of this review was to examine the concept of organizational capacity with the intent to develop a parsimonious definition, contextualized to US NSGBs.

Torraco (2016) acknowledges the effectiveness of using a thematic structure to organize an integrative review on subjects such as organizations as systems and systems theory. He asserts that this sort of structure in an integrated review offers 'coherence and clarity' of what is reviewed and affords the writer the ability to showcase the relationships of central concepts and how they form a cohesive idea (Torraco, 2016, p. 415). It is for all of these reasons that an integrative review was completed.

Definition of FOCUSS Constructs

Over the past thirty years, sport management scholars have sought to analyze, identify and articulate components of peak performance for NSGBs in an attempt to identify a prescriptive recipe for best practice. Unfortunately, a silver bullet has evaded identification, for a number of reasons. Divergent opinions exist regarding the core purposes and primary individuals best served by NSGBs; scholars across all disciplines disagree on definitions and metrics of organizational effectiveness and disagree on the very definition of organizational capacity itself. Sport researchers have identified a conglomeration of elements needed for NSGB success and the discipline needs an updated framework in which all these ideas can be organized. In an attempt to assemble

these diverse ideas into a common ground as well as present a more broadly defined understanding of organizational capacity that can be used in a sport context, the *FOCUSS* model is presented for consideration.

The sport management and capacity-related literature was extensively reviewed for best practice recommendations and empirically validated measurement scales, to articulate and translate organizational capacity requirements of NSGBs into a US-based context. Clues were found which helped construct this model in terms of key success factors, human resources and human skills, financial needs, infrastructure and communication requirements, stakeholder support and collaborative effort that NSGBs worldwide need to achieve wide participant interest and international competitive success. Theoretical insight for model domains and constructs came from noticing trends and commonalities between and among scholars and practitioners in highly regarded sport management literature, validated empirical studies, corporate and administrative reports and documents from governing bodies in sport, education, business, public administration, management, computer science and health care.

FOCUSS Framework Development

According to Hinkin (1998) a well-researched theoretical foundation that articulates the content domain is a vital preliminary step when developing empirically sound measures. The process to conduct such research takes time and effort if one is to succeed in developing solid scales (Hinkin, 1995). Theoretical research is important to complete because according to Hinkin (1995), true covariance relies upon how well researcher operationalizes the unobservable constructs. Heeding this sage advice, therefore, this dissertation represents the first step in the process of developing an

instrument and it involved a substantial literature review which canvassed seminal conceptual and empirical sport management articles regarding organizational capacity, effective governance, effectiveness and peak performance at both the elite and community levels of NSGBs and Olympic organizations.

In terms of the strategies used to select articles for this review, the author sought to identify seminal and trusted thinkers in the sport management, management, education, healthcare, and public administration disciplines. Articles (and authors) that were either frequently cited or were found to be empirically valid were most strongly considered for inclusion in the review. In addition, when an author was discovered to have written multiple articles on a subject, a search took place for other material written by the individual, for deeper understanding on a preliminarily vetted idea. In addition, theorists searching to extend knowledge in contexts which reflected organizational similarities to an NSGB structure were also explored (i.e. contexts in which there are extremely diverse stakeholders –such as in public administration, or in circumstances in which a strong need for collaboration for success exists, such as in healthcare). Given the author’s practitioner experience with the USOPC system as an intern at the USOPC with USA Wrestling, as a press operations volunteer for the Atlanta Committee for the Olympic Games (ACOG) in the 1996 Olympic Games, and as Marketing Director for one of the USOPC member NSGBs, her perspective and experience of organizational function of this system also was drawn upon. When ideas were encountered and deemed to be of value to the US NSGB context, they were also raised up for consideration and inclusion.

Search ceased in individual sections of the model when it was perceived that the understanding of the topic would most likely not be affected by additional material. In

reading each article, an initial review of the abstract took place, and if key words, methods or concepts were identified (see the section on FOCUSS Framework Development below) a closer read took place of the article in its entirety. During the close read, the author was attuned to the definitions made, assumptions articulated, positions forwarded, conclusions drawn, and theoretical perspective from which the article was derived. In addition, references used by each author that were deemed pertinent and central to the article's position were also investigated for further understanding of concepts and rationale used to form the theory. In many cases, new sources for this integrative review were discovered following a deeper investigation of an article's sources. Due to the nature of the information (in that it relates to current events), much of the detail that was discovered and documents which were found on the context of the USOPC and its NSGBs was derived from the author's social media (LinkedIn) and organizational websites. Researcher decisions, in terms of inclusion and exclusion of articles in this study, involved a reflection on the utility of the source as well as its significance or centrality to the concept at hand. At the onset of the project, the author relied upon a set of approximately 18 articles across various disciplines, provided by an advisor to initiate the quest for deeper understanding of OC in general. This collection of articles demonstrated in a very stark way that concepts of OC which have been accepted in sport management come from all different disciplines (management, social work, sport, public administration, etc.) and thus the search for an OC definition and framework should emulate such diversity in its search for insight.

A search across all of the Troy University library databases was conducted for key words and phrases which reflected organizational capacity and the proposed domains

within the model – key words such as ‘nonprofit capacity measures’, ‘performance measures’, ‘capacity measures’, ‘strategic outcomes’, ‘professionalization’, ‘organizational capacity’, ‘capacity’, ‘national governing body’, ‘NGB’, ‘national sport organization’ and ‘NSO’, to name but a few. In addition, the researcher used ReadCube (updated version is called Papers) to offer recommendations from its internal algorithm based on the researcher’s past searches. These queries identified over one hundred articles from across multiple industries, including management, business, education, healthcare, sport management, and non-profit management which were used as references in this proposal. During the course of this extensive literature review to craft domain definitions and subsequently develop and identify the constructs, the articles were vetted by selecting empirically validated studies, frequently cited or seminal conceptual pieces and corporate reports from reputable scholars and organizations within business management, public administration, nonprofit administration, human resource management, education and healthcare (such as the UNDP or Deloitte & Touche, for example). In addition, an internet search was conducted as it relates to USOPC policy and governance documents and resulted in identification of publicly available corporate reports, governance documents and NSGB evaluations from the USOPC. To construct the model domains, the key success factors and the demographic elements, the author narrowed the article selection for final consideration to 121 articles (conceptual and empirical, along with corporate reports and internal USOPC documents). The information found provided critical insight of the theoretical domain of organizational capacity within a US NSGB context. Following a close read of these articles and documents, 33 sources were ultimately selected as the foundation for the model. These

articles and studies, along with recommendations from Congressional and recent independent reports were used to reflect a context specific to US nonprofit sport.

Definition of Key Success Factors (aka KSFs, Outcomes, KPIs)

In this model, the KSFs are those elements which the USOPC, NSGBs and other key Olympic stakeholders deem as showcasing success within the US NSGB context. Key success factors constitute benchmarks and metrics (referred to in other studies as outcomes) that internal and external stakeholders would consider as evidence of NSGB success. KSFs are indicators that the organization is meeting or exceeding the goals that it sets and is fulfilling its mission to serve its constituents. The theoretical foundation for these components comes from key scholars and organizations within sport management, including: the Borders Commission (2019); Chelladurai, et al., (2015); De Bosscher, et al. (2006); Essilfie, et al., (2016); Geeraert, Alm and Groll, (2014); Madella, et al. (2005); Robinson and Minikin (2011); Taks, et al. (n.d.); Truyens, et al., (2016); TSOASA (1978) and the USOPC Bylaws (2020) and compliance audits (USOPC, 2020).

Definition of Demographics

This section of the model proposes to capture information about the individual, the organization, and the system itself, with a future intent that a quantitative instrument designed from these constructs would enable regression analysis in a myriad of combinations. Ideally, a quantitative instrument developed from this model would be taken by staff and volunteers at every level along a pipeline, thus painting a stippled image ... one in which the individual “dots” are comprised of people showcasing efforts in tandem with each other (or not), and empirical analysis would then demonstrate strengths and weakness and trends at various levels and across an organizational pipeline. Due to the number and nature of the constructs proposed here, this segment when brought forth in a quantitative instrument enables simultaneous granular analysis at a micro-level, (specific to an individual), meso-level (specific to an organization) and macro-level (systemic) analysis of an entire NGB or even an Olympic pipeline. The author designed and includes this domain with the intent that it would eventually enable analysis based on job (staff or volunteer), winter or summer program, grass roots, state or national level, etc. Due to the nature of this domain, a cross-section assessment of the system could be made based on a myriad of filters, thus enabling researchers to examine and identify dominant capacities needed in any number of combinations. Constructs proposed in this section emulate measurement strategies found in sport management articles (De Bosscher & De Knop, 2006; Essilfie & Chelladurai, 2015), corporate reports (Deloitte & Touche, 2003; TCC Group, 2010; UNDP, 2009) internal documents currently in use by US NGBs (USOPC NGB Audit reports) and USOPC NGB IRS 990 forms.

IV CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Results

Proposed Domains of the *FOCUSS* Model

The proposed framework contains KSFs, Demographics, along with seven capacity domains that US NSGBs need to effectively fulfill their mission and achieve goals. Some of the proposed domains do not exist in former OC models and therefore this model should be perceived as an extension of earlier models, as most if not all of the capacity frameworks found in the literature (from all disciplines) originated in a pre-Web 2.0 time. In other words, these early models of organizational capacity were developed prior to the emergence of social media and the disruptive organizational change that has transpired due to recent advances in mobile and digital technology. These technological developments have had immense impact on organizational capacity and have shifted an emphasis to demand strong capabilities in specific domains so individuals and organizations can maintain a competitive position. Social and other forms of emerging media have drastically improved individual communication and collaborative abilities; hardware and software advances in computer technology have transformed the nature and depth of insights possible from big data, and changes which have occurred as a result of abilities to connect and to distribute content via mobile devices have turned the sport industry upside-down in terms of content distribution and products available for consumers to purchase. These advances have also redefined how people are hired, created new revenue streams, opened up new means to connect with and inform fans, and have increased abilities in many other ways.

When articulating the specific domains of the model, it is important to recall the definition of the word capacity, as it relates to this study. According to Baser, et al., (2009) capacity is defined as “an emergent combination of individual competencies, collective capabilities, assets and relationships that enables a human system to create value.” In other words, in this model, capacity is understood to be more than just having resources of various kinds. Capacity references a current or latent ability to find / acquire / possess resources, and then also through the effort of those in the organization, the ability to then do something with these resources and abilities to create value. It is important to note and understand this difference. It may be that an organization has financial wealth at one point, but inability of the workers (whether paid or volunteer) to effectively manage, maintain and sustain the acquisition and management of resources will ultimately result in lack. One need only look at young professional athletes who receive a windfall in the first few years of their professional career, only to lose it all once the proverbial financial spigot is turned off. Individuals and organizations who have the capacity to effectively absorb their wealth and manage it well have the ability to sustain capacity and navigate the internal and external forces which influence it over time. In this model, OC is defined as the collective of knowledge, skills, abilities, behaviors, attitudes, values, relationships, resources, processes and structures which enable an organization to strategically adapt to external and internal forces and fulfill its vision and mission over a sustained period of time. For further details on the derivation of this definition, please reference the review of literature in Chapter 2.

With that said, the domains in this model include Human Capital and Human Process Capacity, Financial Capacity, Infrastructure and Communications Capacity, Information Communications Technology Capacity (IT), Stakeholder Relationship Capacity, Knowledge and Learning Capacity, and Collaborative Capacity. These domains function as vital systems within an organization. Just as the systems within a human body are integrated and interact to sustain life and health in a person, it is similar to consider the functions and interrelationships of the capacity domains within an organization. Each domain has an important and unique function and makes a strong contribution toward the well-being of the company, and each also exerts an influence on the other capacity domains. If the capacity in one domain is weakened, all other domains suffer. Likewise, if the capacity in a domain is strong, it fosters success in others. The domains of the model proposed in this study can be viewed in Figure 12 below.

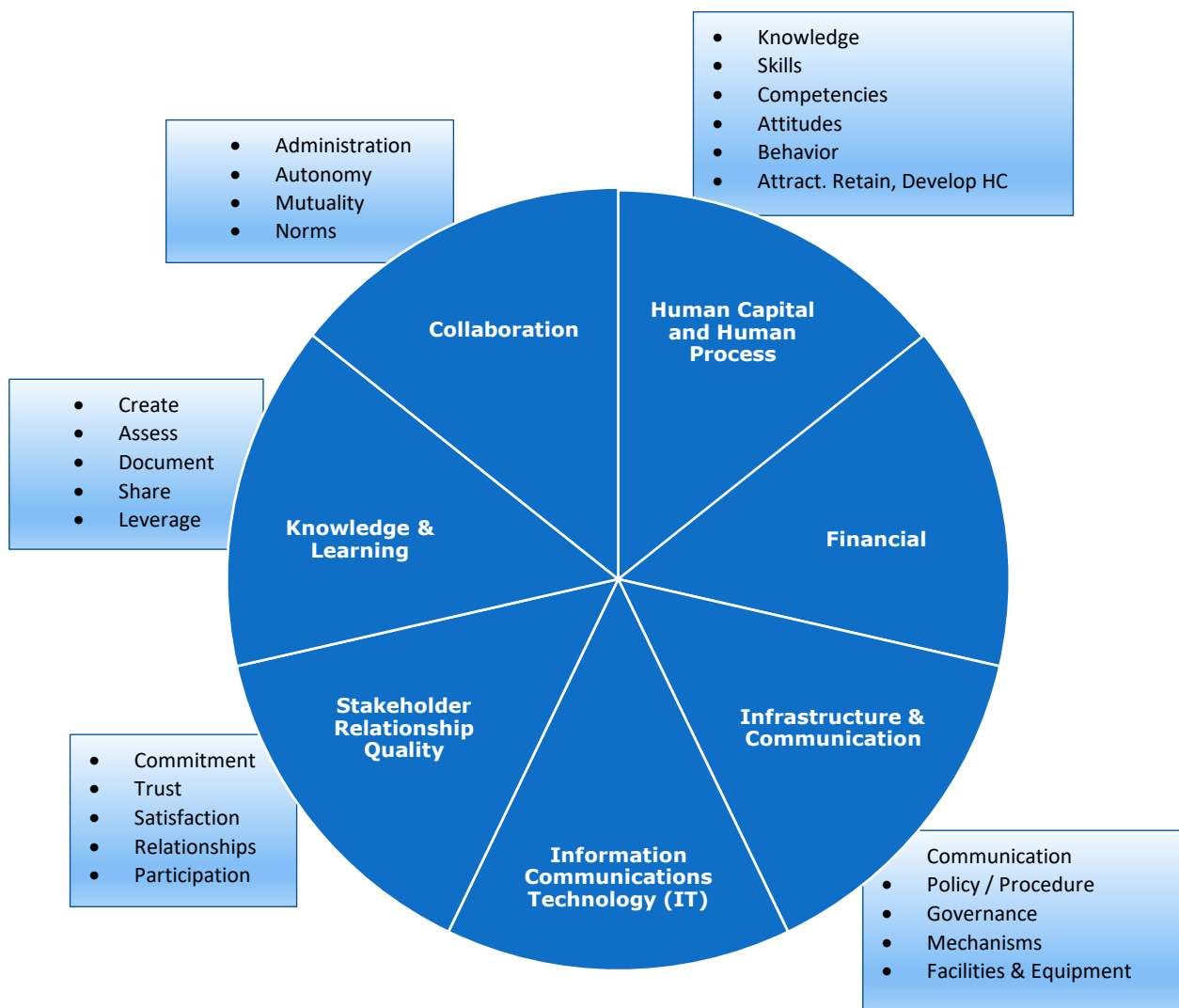


Figure 12 Framework of Organizational Capacity Domains in US Sport (FOCUSS), Chambers, (2021)

Human Capital and Human Process Capacity

The first domain of the proposed model is Human Capital and Human Process Capacity (HCHP) and is deemed by most scholars as the capacity domain of highest impact on an organization. HCHP capacity is defined here as business and competition staff and volunteers and their individual and collective knowledge, skills, competencies, attitudes, and behavior. Unlike other capacity models, following the integrative review, *it is also* the ability of the organization to attract, retain and develop said individuals to fulfill goals at the organization and system level. The importance of Human Capital and Human Process (HCHP) capacity in the model cannot be overstated. In other models, this domain is referred to as Human Resource Capacity (HRC). Comparison of all other models reveals that HRC is included in the organizational capacity construct in one form or another (Bryan, 2011; Doherty et al., 2014; Hall, et al. 2003; McKinsey & Company, 2001), with most models asserting that the HRC is the most influential of all domains within the organizational capacity construct. Various definitions of HRC exist. The proposed model includes two different but vital forms of capacity as it relates to the people who work within the organization. The first component is understood in the same way as Hall, et al. (2003), in that it comprises paid and non-paid individuals, their competencies, knowledge, attitudes and behavior. Bryan (2011) similarly defines HRC as “adequate staff with the professional expertise and skills to effectively do the work associated with the reform effort at both the organization and system level” (Bryan, 2011, p. 62). This first component of the proposed domain is human capital itself – and in this view it is a resource of the organization. However, similar to the capacity definition referenced earlier (Baser, et al., 2009), this model perceives capacity to be comprised of

not only assets, but also abilities of the organization that are connected to the human capital resource. This second section is where the *FOCUSS* model revises and updates current interpretations of this domain. The second component in the proposed model extends the Hall, et al. (2003) and Doherty, et al. (2014) and Bryan, (2011) models, draws ideas from the strategic human resource management (SHRM) literature, and relates to the methods an organization uses to attract, incentivize and retain employees (Franks, 1999; Wright, et al., 2001). Franks (1999), Wright, et al. (2001) and Robinson and Minikin (2011) make a clear distinction between human capital and human resources, and this distinction is adopted within the proposed model. Further, human capital capacity exists when an organization possesses exceptional human talent that is filled with productive potential, whereas human process capacity exists as a system of activities which foster the mutual alignment of interests of the organization and its human capital. This process of activities and resulting alignment of interests is of utmost importance to building a talented, loyal group of followers (Wright, et al., 2001). It is posited that both facets of human capacity are needed to maximize and sustain outcomes of paid and non-paid workforce. Further, this 'people management system involves three parts: skills, behaviors, and a system of practices by which all are managed (Wright, et al., 2001). They assert that to sustain competitive advantage, 'superior positions' are required in all three. This assertion is based on common sense logic that states that the skills and behaviors do not generate value unless paired together. In other words, absent the skills, the behaviors cannot be demonstrated, and the value of skills is not apparent unless the behaviors are seen (Wright, et al., 2001). Without an organizational system which aligns itself with highly skilled human capital, the people will not remain with the organization.

The theoretical foundation for these components comes from sport and capacity scholars and organizations, including: Birkbeck Sport Business Center. (n.d.); Bryan, (2011); Chelladurai, et al., (2015); De Bosscher, et al., (2006); Deloitte & Touche, (2003); Franks, (1999); Taks, et al. (n.d.); TSOASA, (1998); USOPC Bylaws, (2020); Wright, (2001).

Financial Capacity

The second domain within the proposed model is Financial Capacity. It is defined as the ability of an organization to attract, retain, manage and develop requisite financial and physical resources to fulfill mission and purpose at a system level. There are various components to this construct, and many scholars' interpretations of financial capacity have been used to formulate this model's definition. Again, extending the Baser, et al., (2009) capacity definition from above into a financial context, financial capacity in this proposed model is therefore comprised not only possession of the necessary financial resources to do business (the assets), but it is also an ability to take these needed financial resources and attract, retain, manage and develop them to fulfill the organization's mission. In this sense, an organization may have assets of its own, but in and of itself these assets are not financial capacity. For an organization to have financial capacity, it also needs an ability to acquire the requisite financial resources and in turn manage them to sustain operations, meet established goals and fulfill a mission over a sustained period of time. In terms of what financial capacity "looks like" within the literature, scholars have measured the financial capacity of local clubs and consistent expenses over time (Doherty and Cuskelly (2020), an ability to capitalize on a variety of funding sources and having an ability to develop cash reserves (Taks, et al., n.d.). Bryan, (2011) measured financial capacity in NPOs as an ability to fund existing programs, an ease in attracting funding for new programs, and an adequacy in meeting current service demands. Chelladurai and Zintz (2015) explain that financial success for NSGBs involve generating sufficient sponsorship dollars, negotiating media contracts, securing licensing dollars and generating revenue from ticket sales and events, such that these activities

support the system. In their SPLISS model, De Bosscher and De Knop (2006) explain that financial success for elite programs means to have sufficient financial and lifestyle support for elite athlete programs, sufficient grants and sponsorship for elite programs, financial independence from the National Olympic Committee (NOC), and explains that funding is effectively targeted over four-year cycles toward specific goals that have a legitimate chance for success on a world stage. The USOPC Bylaws (2020) require US NSGBs to demonstrate the financial operational capacity to administer their sport, demonstrated by an ability to formulate a budget and maintain accurate accounting records, by GAAP standards. Survey items, metrics and benchmarks from all of the abovementioned scholars and governing bodies have informed the understanding and ultimately the definition of financial capacity for this model. So, to reiterate, financial capacity for the proposed model is understood as the ability of an NSGB to attract, retain, manage and develop requisite financial resources to fulfill mission and purpose at a system level. For US NSGBs, this means a demonstration of financial capacity at a national, regional, state and local level. It includes capacity of the various levels of the system, to include clubs, state / regional associations, and the NSGB headquarters. The theoretical foundation for this domain comes from key scholars and organizations, including: Birkbeck Sport Business Center. (n.d.); Bryan, (2011); Chelladurai and Zintz, (2015); De Bosscher, et al., (2006); Taks, et al. (n.d.); TSOASA, (1998); USOPC Bylaws, (2020).

Infrastructure and Communication Capacity

Infrastructure and Communication capacity (I&C) is the fourth domain in the model and contains tangible and intangible components. It is defined as an organization's ability to efficiently and effectively develop, implement, maintain and adapt the communication channels, policies, process flows and legislative framework which direct day-to-day operations, facilitate planning, development and action on strategic plans. *It is also* the facilities and equipment required to fulfill its mission. Similar to other scholars' interpretations, this domain is the largest and most complex of the proposed domains, categorized within six sub domains. Infrastructure in this sense, in an organization, is comprised of tangible and intangible elements. Franks (1999) states that without a supportive policy and legislative framework (i.e. an enabling environment), no organization has the capacity to perform effectively, regardless of how capable the individuals are within it. He further explains that an enabling environ requires a clear statement of and understanding of policies, and popular support for their implementation. So, in addition to clearly written and straightforward policies, a level of understanding and a favorable opinion of such is still required of the individuals that work/volunteer with the organization. Applying this idea to the NSGB context, infrastructure therefore refers to tangible elements including the facilities and equipment required, along with intangible elements that include policies, decisions, governance, strategic planning, workflow, role structure, delegation of work, and more. Frequently in the sport management literature, the importance of effective policy and structures is stressed (Chelladurai and Zintz, 2015; De Bosscher and De Knop, 2006; Shilbury and Ferkins, 2011). Effective and efficient structures and processes are critical if NSGBs are to meet

expectations of the variety of stakeholders and still fulfill the purpose of each individual sport discipline. Inefficient and ineffective infrastructure constitutes drag throughout all dimensions of the system and hinders the organization's ability to fully achieve. Given the diversity of stakeholders in the US Olympic ecosystem, the diversity of facilities, equipment, decisions and processes needed to move the system forward, it is important to for NSGBs to adhere to Franks (1999) advice, and have clearly understood, clearly stated and widely and strongly supported policies and procedures if they are to balance the dichotomy of stakeholder needs. At one end of a spectrum, NSGBs must offer, promote and facilitate sport as accessible for people from all groups to participate, one in which sport resources are shared for many to enjoy, and they must seek to facilitate sport facilities/activities in locations where citizens can readily access them. At the other end of their stakeholder pipeline, NSGBs must also effectively service highly skilled elite athletes who require specialized coaches, facilities, training and medicine - elements not easily made available to any but a very narrow segment of the population. The theoretical foundation for these components comes from key scholars and organizations including: Alm, et al. (2013); Birkbeck Sport Business Center. (n.d.); Bryan, (2011); Chelladurai et al., (2015); De Bosscher, et al., (2006); Doherty, et al. (2020), Hall, et al., (2003), Taks, et al. (n.d.); TSOASA, (1998); USOPC Bylaws, (2020).

Information Communications Technology (IT) Capacity

The third domain of the model is Information Communications Technology, commonly referred to in practitioner's terminology as (IT). It is defined as all technologies combined that allow people and organizations to interact in the digital world, utilizing data to inform policy and practice at the organization and system level. In the proposed model, IT is defined as all technologies combined that allow people and organizations to interact in a digital world, utilizing data to inform policy and practice at the organization and system level. Similar to other domains of capacity in the model, this definition includes not only the information and technology as resources, but it also includes the ability to leverage both in a digital world to inform policy and business best practice. Paily (n.d.) describes IT as all technologies that together enable people and organizations to interact in a digital world; it is all the technologies and actions comprised in creating, storing, transmitting, retrieving, displaying, processing information and collaborating with others. It includes an entire spectrum of technology, from landline telephones, analog radio and television broadcasts, to mobile and wireless platforms, artificial intelligence, and big data. Bryan (2011) refers to this domain as technical/data capacity and defines it as "the ability to utilize data to inform policy and practice at the organization and system level" (Bryan, 2011, p. 62). Some have articulated the components of IT to include cloud computing, software, hardware, transactions, communications technology, data and internet access (Rouse, Ferguson and Pratt, n.d.). Rouse, et al. (n.d.), concurs with Paily (n.d.) in the belief that IT is more than the list of components, it also involves the application of such technologies, and in this sense, these interpretations align with the proposed model of organizational capacity. IT can be

utilized for economic, societal and interpersonal gain, and has greatly modified the jobs that are available, how we communicate with each other (and the magnitude of the message); it has changed how we are able to learn and has “revolutionized all parts of the human experience” in our daily life (Rouse, et al., n.d.). One only need examine the impact of the recent coronavirus pandemic on our existence to understand the importance of an ability to leverage IT in order to navigate and survive such an abrupt, disruptive shift to an online, digital world. Schools (and students) and small businesses (and customers) that effectively and efficiently made the shift in their business models to digital platforms and e-commerce have weathered this terrible storm and fared much better outcomes than those without technology or reliant on brick and mortar, analog systems. Hackler and Saxton (2007) found many benefits for NPOs who invested in a strategic deployment of IT capacity, specifically with respect to sustainability in financial areas, in use of strategic communications and in building relationships with stakeholders, and in building and strengthening collaborations and partnerships – all of which are included as domains within this proposed model. The proposed capacity model includes IT as its own domain within organizational capacity and purports this domain as an extension of other capacity models due to the significant changes in our world that have occurred since the emergence and growth of Web 2.0, social media, e-commerce, big data around 2008. The theoretical foundation for this domain comes from Bryan, (2011); DeLone & McLean, (1992), Hackler and Saxton, (2007); Rouse, et al. (n.d.).

Knowledge and Learning Capacity

The next domain in the model is Knowledge and Learning Capacity (K&L) and is defined as an organization's ability to create, assess, document, share and leverage knowledge to fulfill its mission. It is demonstrated by an organization's ability to integrate new ideas and practices within the organization. (Bryan, 2011, p. 62).

Knowledge sharing is the process of transmission, communication, interaction and coordination of knowledge or skills, which help improve the organizational productivity; it is the capacity of absorbing, innovating and sustaining competitive advantage (Beltrame, 2018). This domain encompasses five sub-domains. Since the mid-1970s, the emergence of technology has increasingly impacted society. Advances in this regard since the invention of the internet in 1990 and especially since the appearance of social media in 2008 have redefined our capacities and abilities to work, play, learn, shop and complete even the most routine tasks in daily life. As society continues to advance, a shift is taking place, moving from an analog, brick and mortar way of existence, to an internet-centric, cloud-based platform that is mobile and digital. This shift has increased the importance of an organizations' abilities to acquire and leverage information and apply it for competitive advantage. As with other domains, applications of K&L capacity impact each and every other proposed capacity domain. As an example, IBM CEO Ginny Rometty revealed that with the help of artificial intelligence (AI), IBM can now identify, with 95% accuracy, individuals who are about to leave the organization. As a result, when these individuals are identified, the IBM HR department deploys organizational alignment mechanisms such as those referred to by Franks, (1999) and Wright (2001) to intervene and identify the skills, training, promotion, raises and the like

that these people desire, and has saved IBM almost \$300 million in retention costs (Rosenbaum, 2019). When contemplating the financial effects on HR such these due to the integrated application of K&L capacity, one might begin by understanding differences between seemingly similar, yet very distinct elements within this domain – data, information and knowledge. Rashman, Withers and Hartley (2009, p. 271) explain: “data are an ordered sequence of given items; information is a context-based arrangement of items; and knowledge depends on the ability to draw distinctions and exercise judgement, based on an appreciation of context or theory or both”. In a simplistic example relative to formulating elite athletic teams, data might comprise the statistical performance of individual athletes within an NSGB pipeline, whereas information in turn places these athletes together in the context of a team based on their position, and knowledge then uses this context to formulate strategy based on the strengths and weaknesses as a team and the specific opponent. In this sense, an organization’s ability to collect data is not the same as its ability to place the data points in context (create information) or begin to draw conclusions, exercise judgement and then formulate decisions and strategy (create knowledge). Rashman, et al. (2009) assert that the context and purpose of an organization shapes its learning strategies, processes and outcomes, and this idea has significant consequence when put in an NSGB organizational context. Just as the financial goals differ from their for-profit counterparts, NPOs face unique obstacles, have different motivations and processes for learning, and set different goals for knowledge acquisition due to pressure from a myriad of stakeholders (Rashman, et al., 2009). As a niche NPO, NSGBs are not exempt from this pressure, and as a result organizational learning and knowledge is critical to managing stakeholder expectations and member

needs. According to Harsh (2012), organizational learning occurs when there are processes in place which facilitate the creation, assessment, documentation and sharing of knowledge. It is proposed that an integral connection exists between the K&L and infrastructure capacities of an organization. The theoretical foundation for this segment comes from many scholars and sport organizations, including: Beltrame, (2018); Birkbeck Sport Business Center. (n.d.); Bryan, (2011), DeLone, et al. (1992); Chelladurai, et al. (2015), Harsh, et al. (2012).

Stakeholder Relationship Quality Capacity

The sixth domain within the proposed model is Stakeholder Relationship Quality Capacity (SHRQ) and has five proposed sub-scales. It is defined here as an ability to garner support by building, reinforcing and sustaining engaged, trustworthy, committed relationships with its key stakeholders. Stakeholder relationships are an empirically demonstrated idea within the marketing and sport marketing literature. Due to the vital importance of marketing to the US NGB function, this idea was included in the model. It has been empirically demonstrated to be comprised of commitment, trust and satisfaction, and is also a topic frequently referenced in the nonprofit and Olympic literature, which is why it is proposed to be part of this domain. It is proposed that these same elements can articulate this idea within an NGB context. Two additional sub-domains – relationships and participation – have been added to reflect the context of an NGB network. Key stakeholders exert a coercive influence on NSGBs. Considering the USOPC accreditation standards and USCSS policy mandates pertaining to member safety that NSGBs must satisfy (to name a few), along with the previously referenced internal dichotomy of needs between the mass and elite programs, SHRQ is an important element of an NSGB operating context that must be successfully managed, which is why it is proposed as a separate domain in this model. To effectively achieve goals and fulfill mission, NSGBs must ensure that a very diverse and at times competing set of stakeholder needs are met and must safeguard that the corresponding relationships remain intact and strong. In most of the validated and firmly established capacity models which have been reviewed in this reflection, stakeholders wield an important place. Hall, et al. (2003) articulates this element as a subscale of infrastructure capacity, labeling it as

Network and Relationship capacity. In the proposed framework, SHRQ is posited to be a critical capacity that NSGBs need for success.

Marketing scholars have measured stakeholder relationship quality and it is well documented to include commitment, trust and satisfaction as validated variables, and as such it is proposed that these elements be extended to an NSGB context. Reflecting on ideas forwarded by Chelladurai and Zintz (2015), that an NSGB serves as an apical organization and must service multiple levels of stakeholders within a system, having SHRQ that is based on committed, trusting and satisfied members can most certainly be argued as a competitive advantage. An organization's ability to garner support from key stakeholders by building, reinforcing and sustaining engaged, trustworthy, committed relationships empowers its social capital and along with it, the resources of all sorts that flow back and forth between such relationships. SHRQ involves trust, transparency, accountability and an ability to elicit favorable outcomes for all from the relationship between parties. Bryan (2011, p. 62) defines stakeholder commitment capacity as the “ability to garner support from key stakeholders for the reform effort”. For an NSGB, it involves garnering the support of board members, IFs, the USOPC, US Congress, the NCAA (as applicable), state and regional organizations, local clubs, individual members, the NSGB Council, Athlete Advisory Council (AAC), the IOC, WADA, USCSS, to name just a few of the many stakeholders. The theoretical foundation for these components comes from key scholars and organizations including: Bryan, (2011); Chelladurai et al., (2015); De Bosscher, et al., (2006); Dlacic, et al. (2018); Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner and Gremler, (2002), Kim, Trail, and Ko (2011); Madella, et al. (2005); TSOASA, (1998).

Each of these scholars and organizations asserts the important role that positive stakeholder relationships must play in an NGBs effective function.

Collaborative Capacity

The final domain in the proposed model is collaboration capacity. It is defined as the ability of an autonomous or semi-autonomous organization to use collaborative processes to share and receive human, financial, data and knowledge resources with partner organizations to improve to their ability to fulfill mission. The domain was captured in five proposed sub-domains which have been empirically validated in other industries, conceptually recommended within sport, and are being proposed here for their applicability to the US NSGB context. Collaboration within a system is important when seeking efficient and effective achievement of outcomes with limited resources such as time, money, etc. By nature, NSGBs are political organizations in which individuals and groups assert for power and resources (Fletcher and Arnold, 2011; Papadimitriou, 2007; Sharpe, 2006; Winand, et al., 2010), and in many situations, members with conflicting agendas may not demonstrate collaborative tendencies due to the dichotomy of needs and priorities which exist between NSGBs elite and grassroots programs and initiatives. This jockeying for prominence and capital among stakeholders causes drag on an organization's systems, reduces effectiveness and efficiency and hinders an organization's ability to meet goals and fulfill its mission. When resources are directed (by means of political assertions of a few) toward initiatives and outcomes which undermine overall success, the entire organization suffers, thus it is imperative for an NSGB to facilitate collaborative activities within and among its internal and external stakeholders. Despite this tension, Chelladurai and Zintz (2015) assert that as an apical organization, two

primary functions of NSGBs are to foster cooperation among key stakeholders and facilitate better coordination of independent activities among its members. In a separate study, Chelladurai and Skirstad (2011) studied a circumstance in which seemingly diverse member goals were achieved by the club through the use of innovative ideas as it related to organizational structures. Many sport scholars have asserted that a strong pipeline of talent development is required for international success (De Bosscher and De Knop, 2006; NZOCGA, 1994; Robinson & Minikin, 2011). Effective development of this pipeline requires collaboration between levels, members, clubs, coaches; it requires sharing and receiving financial and capital resources for funding and facilities (Robinson & Minikin, 2011). In a recent interview with insidersport.com, USA Weightlifting CEO and Executive Director Phil Andrews had this to say about collaboration in a COVID-19 world: “Collaboration with other federations and governing bodies to share knowledge and resources is also critical to ensure long-term survival” (Daniels, 2020). In this conversation, Andrews asserts the importance of many of the proposed domains within this model, including collaboration, and knowledge and learning. These academicians and practitioners agree on the idea that collaboration among members is an important idea for NSGBs to remember when developing strategy and capacity to achieve, and these assertions are why collaborative capacity is proposed as a domain within this model. In contemplating the importance of collaborative activity within an NSGB and envisioning what collaboration might look like, one might reflect on Johnson and Johnson’s (2005) ideas on social interdependence theory – which explains the behaviors and rationale behind cooperative, competitive and individualistic interactions among individuals and groups within an organization. Social interdependence theory explains

that the way that goals are structured determines the ways in which people interact and behave with each other. When social interdependence is positive, people demonstrate cooperation, encouraging others and helping the overall effort to achieve. When demonstrating negative social interdependence, people compete, and discourage or block each other's efforts (Saunders, et al., 2000). This idea suggests that to maximize outcomes, NSGBs would be advised to structure the goals of their organization in a way such that positive interdependence is encouraged and rewarded.

When seeking to operationalize this capacity dimension within an NSGB, one might look to the health care industry literature for insight. According Thompson, Perry and Miller (2009, p.4) "one of the principal administrative dilemmas affecting the ability to get things done in a collaboration is managing the inherent tension between self and collective interests". As an example, in complex medical procedures, effective collaboration is a high stakes process, and many times successful outcomes mean the difference between life and death. Effective collaboration in this setting also results in expedited activities, and thus one result of effective collaboration is increased income (surgical teams that collaborate effectively complete the procedures faster and by completing them more efficiently can complete more procedures, and in turn generate greater income). According to health care scholars Thompson, et al., (2009, p. 3),

"collaboration is a process in which autonomous or semi-autonomous actors interact through formal and informal negotiation, jointly creating rules and structures governing their relationships and ways to act or decide on the issues that brought them together; it is a process involving shared norms and mutually beneficial interactions".

In their study, Thompson, et al., (2009) validated effective collaboration as comprised of governance, administration, autonomy, mutuality and norms. One can certainly recognize these elements present within the Chelladurai and Skirstad (2011) study, which is one reason why components of the Thompson, et al. (2009) model is proposed to contribute to the collaboration construct in this model. A key advantage of collaboration is knowledge exchange, which is one reason why it has been placed in the model. Transfer of knowledge between organizations is a strategy that creates value and sustainable competitive advantage (Beltrame, et al., 2018). Organizations that can transmit and leverage knowledge across organizational boundaries (like those which exist within an NSGB membership) can fortify many advantages – reduced failure, increases in productivity, modification of old and introduction of new organizational routines which create and innovate management practices (Beltrame, et al., 2018). Bryan (2011, p. 62) defines collaborative capacity as “the extent to which collaborative processes are utilized in the change effort”. In this definition, capacity development is interpreted as a change initiative, which is a common viewpoint among capacity scholars. The theoretical foundation for these components comes from key scholars and government documents including Bryan, (2011); Chelladurai, et al. (2015); TSOASA (1998); Thompson, et al. (2009).

V. DISCUSSION

Discussion

Theories and Assumptions of the *FOCUSS* Model

At the onset of any research project, articulating assumptions and defining terms is a critical exercise. It serves to explain the values and beliefs held by the researcher and is the precursor to steps toward operationalizing which constructs are identified, and in turn it identifies the related constructs which are chosen for measurement. This next segment discusses the underpinning assumptions and theories on which this model is constructed. As a means to do this, Bacharach's (1989) commentary on organizational theories serves as a wonderful guide. In his writings on establishing criteria to evaluate construction of organizational theories, Bacharach (1989) makes an important observation; that a theory is restricted by the implicit values held by the researcher. Such values, he contends, are unique to the theorist and are based upon ideologies held or life experiences. Bacharach (1989) concludes that theories cannot be compared based on underpinning values, as contrasting opinions only demonstrate a "collision of values" (p. 498). In this study of the USOPC and its member NSGBs, systems theory is the underlying lens by which company function will be examined. Use of this theory means that certain phenomenon which take place within an organization can be anticipated and explained because it is acting like a system, as if it is a living organism. Use of systems theory in this study therefore means that we are seeking to identify specific characteristics of systems (and by default then, not seeking characteristics and phenomenon which might be found and explained by using other theories). When using systems theory, researchers look for phenomenon in an open system such as: dynamic

morphology (opening and closing cycles of activity, such as progression of athletes through a development process, or the timing of budget cycles in relation to the Olympics, or annual competitions, etc.); equifinality (i.e. different means can be used to obtain the same goal, such as hiring more staff, or if finances are unavailable, recruiting talented volunteers instead); dynamic homeostasis (attempts for the organization to remain balanced, such as how USA Weightlifting is now hosting virtual combines and iterations of crowdfunding to find athletes and raise funds for local clubs as an adaptation to the COVID-19 virus); negative entropy (systems become more complex over time, such as what we see happening with big data and analytics); and equipotentiality (movement from indistinct to specialized functions) as a means to explain organizational behavior. It means we look for these recognized elements of an open system to explain how an NSBG works and based upon our findings, we make recommendations. In general, assumptions such as these are based upon specific theories and direct the researcher to look for and benchmark certain activities and functions within an organization in order to explain its activity. Bacharach (1989) continues his explanation, stating that temporal and spatial boundaries contained in theories constrain the use of the theory to specific times or units of analysis. This idea means that temporal boundaries, according to Bacharach (1989) identify or explain the timing of certain findings, whereas spatial boundaries would constrain the companies or entities to which the theory can be applied. This explanation gives us the understanding then, that when contemplating temporal boundaries within systems theory, if we observe and benchmark systems within an organization which are not very distinct, they must therefore be in the early stages of formation, (or they are underdeveloped) whereas if we see specialized functionality,

enough time has passed within this organization to permit the skills to develop and structures to form into processes, which in turn should institutionalize the function of the phenomenon studied. In this sense, time is used within systems theory to gauge the progression of the activity, and it is a factor in the anticipation of what will (or should, or might) take place next and when. If not yet observed, the data can guide the researcher to make recommendations to obtain favorable outcomes. The use of systems theory in this study constrains spatial boundaries to the context of NSGBs within the US.

Using details identified in the non-profit literature, Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan (2013) offer recommendations of various capacity elements which should be assessed at the variety of levels of an NPO, and they seem to parallel those identified by sport academics De Bosscher, et al. (2006) contained within the levels (micro, meso, macro) of an NSGB sport context. Krishnaveni and Aravamudhan (2013) recommend that capacity measures of a system should include an examination of regulatory structures, policies, and resource positions (among others). In looking at the sport management literature for best practice in these areas then, we could utilize De Bosscher, et al. (2006) recommended “9 pillars” to discern recommended resource positions to look for in sport, along with the research of Ferkins, Shilbury and McDonald (2009) which identifies elements of good governance in sport to benchmark an organization’s capacity to effectively govern itself, form policy and interact with the actors within the global Olympic system. For variables which measure successful program design at the community level we would look to the research and findings of Doherty and Cuskelly, (2020) and Misener and Doherty, (2009), as this research is focused on the grassroots, community level sport. Research from education and learning identifies eight

characteristics of a learning organization, which give us some of the variables to look for within the knowledge and learning construct. These are but a few examples of the myriad of research studies which have come together to identify and measure the proposed constructs and variables of the domains within this model.

Driving Questions in the Development of the *FOCUSS* Theory

According to Weick (1989) driving questions are critical when developing theory. He asserts that when scholars use problem solving as a primary driver of thought, the end product is inherently restricted since not all theory emanates from a response to solve a problem. He further states that finding a solution to a problem itself does not fully capture all the reasons why an idea might be retained when developing a theory. He asserts that other ‘conjectures’ such as plausibility, coherence, elegance, simplicity and usefulness are overlooked when scholars resort to problem solving as their primary thought focus. Instead, he recommends that theorists interpret theory construction as a ‘sensemaking’ activity (Weick, 1989). In a separate writing, Weick (1995) explains that theorizing uses thinking activities ‘like abstracting, generalizing, relating, selecting, explaining, synthesizing, idealizing’ (Weick, 1995, p.389). For the *FOCUSS* model, all of these thinking activities took place in order to revise and formulate the model. The driving questions held by the researcher involved *abstracting* the elements of OC from a variety of industries; developing an understanding of which constructs have been *generalized* across industries and therefore possibly applicable to sport management; *relating* together constructs from other countries as it ubiquitously connects to NSGB sport performance, *synthesizing* ideas from non-profit organizations to build an updated, *idealized* context for non-profit sport governing body performance in the US.

In that same vein of thought, of understanding the driving questions behind the theorizing process, Bacharach (1989) offers grammatical advice that one can readily see used by educators who specialize in deepening student knowledge acquisition, and developing essential questions (Cash, 2011; McTighe and Wiggins, 2013). Bachrach advises that scholars use more theoretical question stems of ‘how’, ‘why’ and ‘when’ to fully articulate a model and go beyond answering the question of ‘what’. To offer further explanation, he makes key distinctions between theory and three elements which are misconstrued as theory – typologies, raw data and metaphors. In his account, Bacharach (1989) notes a key difference between theory and the three above-mentioned elements is that the latter (typologies, raw data, and metaphors) fall short of theory because they stop at answering the question ‘what’. Bacharach (1989) insists that to be of use in organizational behavior theory construction, metaphors ‘must go beyond description and be a useful heuristic device’ (p. 497). He asserts that depictions made in a metaphor must aid the emergence of specific propositions and hypotheses about what is studied. In turn what is to be evaluated on its theoretical merit are the propositions and hypotheses which emerge from the metaphor. Theories, according to Bacharach (1989), Weick (1989), and Whetten (1989), in addition to the question ‘what’, also answer the questions of how, why and when. In all these question stems, the context of the phenomenon is key. Theorists must examine and account for what comes first and what came second, and with all these thinkers, a higher value is placed on diagrams and hypotheses over lists and data. For an explanation of the ‘how’, ‘why’, and ‘when’ of the *FOCUSS* model, please refer to the segment to come which covers Theories and Assumptions.

Goal of Theory Development for the *FOCUSS* Model

In addition to first following best practice of organizational behavior theory experts, second, defining the components of the theory to be developed and third, utilizing quality driving questions to direct the thought process, it is also important set a goal for the theory which is developed. Whetten (1989) recommends that researchers ensure that what is approved as good theory “includes a plausible, cogent explanation for why we should expect certain relationships in our data” (Whetten, 1989, p. 491). He states that theory construction should set a goal to “project researchable propositions which force an author to think about the concrete applications of new or revised thinking, and increase the likelihood that subsequent research will constitute valid tests of the author's core arguments” (Whetten, 1989, p. 492). The *FOCUSS* model emerged from a significant need which has emerged in the practitioner world of USNSGBs as a result of transformational change that is taking place. The constructs contained in the *FOCUSS* model forward a plausible, cogent explanation of the relationships between OC domains and of data which would arise from empirical study (see section on Future Studies). This model is already fostering further inquiry in the author’s mind regarding the concrete applications which could emerge from this model revision.

Whetten (1989) also advises that good theories are context-sensitive, meaning that they address who is involved, where the theory is applicable, and situations in which the theory is appropriate to utilize. The *FOCUSS* model seeks to understand what is taking place in an organization by recognizing where and when elements of organizational performance take place (where as in literally geographically where, but also where in terms of at what level within the organization, and in which discipline (recreational, elite,

or entertainment). For example, the *FOCUSS* model enables scholars to contemplate organizational performance on a grass roots, regional, or national level (where), on a micro (athlete), meso (organization), or macro (systemic) level. This second example is also an example of yet another ‘where’ type question. Using the ideas connected to systems theory and chaos theory that put organizational activity on a timeline (newer functions are less structured and less specialized), the *FOCUSS* model enables an examination of the ‘when’ of OC. The *FOCUSS* model explains the ‘what’, ‘how’ and ‘why’ of the USNSGB context and tees up for further study an examination of specific elements of context (who, where, when) using the KSFs and demographic elements found in the model.

Forwarding a Meaningful Theoretical Contribution With *FOCUSS*

Whetten (1989) postulates that one way to show the merit of a new model is to articulate how it impacts accepted relationships between the variables. The *FOCUSS* model, unlike other models of organizational capacity, conceptualizes USNGBs as a system of multi-level, multi-dimensional, multi-disciplinary organizations. Previous studies in sport have centered on a single level (grass-roots, or national headquarters) of an NGB, and the *FOCUSS* model is designed to simultaneously examine the system at a granular level (even down to the individual person), and yet also examine the system in its entirety. Based on the premise that relationships are at the center of theory, Whetten (1989) values theoretical insights which not only add a new variable to a model, but through its addition, the understanding of the phenomenon shifts because concept maps have been reorganized. The *FOCUSS* model is a valuable theoretical contribution, as it forwards new variables within the organizational capacity domains of Collaboration,

Stakeholder Relationship Quality and Knowledge & Learning. It also reorganizes the concepts with additions to the Human Resource domain via its inclusion of Human Process, and in doing all of this, alters how the concept map of OC is understood and examined. In addition, by adding the demographics and KSFs, the model is teed up to isolate and evaluate a littany of contexts within the system.

When articulating the value of a theoretical contribution, Whetten (1989) states that for a theorist to explain ‘why’ is the most fruitful (but the most difficult) means to do so. He justifies that an explanation of ‘why’ asks theorists to find and adopt perspectives found outside of the discipline, altering thought in a way that confronts commonly held rationales and currently endorsed models (Whetten, 1989). He asserts that new theories should demonstrate why models currently in use are outdated or in need of revision, and in forwarding a new model, it must propose remedies and alternatives to the gap in knowledge. Whetten (1989) stresses that to avoid useless dialogue, theory must be founded in ‘why’, ‘how’ and ‘what’, stating that ‘what’ and ‘how’ describe and that only ‘why’ explains. He forwards that ‘what’ and ‘how’ provide a framework to recognize patterns and nuances in research. In Whetten’s (1989) view, good theory offers an explanation of why such patterns and nuances exist.

The *FOCUSS* model draws in new ideas from the healthcare, education, public administration, strategic talent management, and the information communication technology (IT) industries to posit new constructs and variables in its domains. It is relevant and updated due to its acknowledgement of advances in technology in all its domains since the emergence of Web 2.0. In addition, the *FOCUSS* model adds KSFs that are distinct to the US Olympic system and as a result brings a new paradigm to the

forefront for examination. The *FOCUSS* model proposes answers not only to the questions of ‘what are the domains of OC’, but it also seeks to explain *how* the domains function independently and in concert with combinations of other domains; it accounts for how OC in USNGBs is different than in other countries and it seeks to understand *why* certain domains and combinations thereof which have greater influence on performance (again, why these differences are more apparent in USNGBs). Using systems theory, the *FOCUSS* model offers an explanation of *when* various levels of performance might materialize, to forward a theory of OC in a US NGB context. In addition, because KSFs and demographic information are proposed for collection in an empirical stage, assessment of an entire pipeline of organizations can be made. In this sense, a typology of OC is proposed using the metaphor of the human body to explain its systems at a cellular, individual system and organism perspective. However, this model also forwards ideas that can be extended to how NGBs might acquire and build capacity in various domains based on strengths and weaknesses observed and opportunities and threats in the marketplace. It makes a reasonable argument as to why these domains are included in the model, enables the researcher to begin analyzing where strengths and weaknesses in capacity might exist (and at what level), and based on empirical outcomes from subsequent instruments that are operationalized, this theory hopes to enable scholars and practitioners to ascertain capacity level growth or decline over time.

Problems and Paradox with the Theory Development Process

Problems with Theory Development

According to Weick (1989), theorists develop weak models because the means used to create them is restricted to methods which favor validation (instead of practicality). These preferences lessen the impact on knowledge growth because of a reduced focus on imagination and other important theory-building exercises like concept mapping and speculation (Weick, 1989). Another issue that researchers must safeguard themselves from when developing theory is the idea that a researcher's values are implicit to a model, integrally connected to theory and can never be fully removed. Bacharach (1989) stresses that it is only when theorists state their values and assumptions that the ideas can be properly used and tested, as they form the boundary lines of understanding. According to Bacharach, theorists rarely follow through on this key point to state their assumptions. For a review on the theoretical assumptions of the *FOCUSS* model, please refer to the discussion at the beginning of this section.

Some scholars question the value of theory development from empirical studies, however there are seminal theorists in organizational behavior who think otherwise. Tsoukas (1989, p. 487) argues that “idiographic studies are very useful for producing valid knowledge when they are concerned with the generative mechanisms and the contingent factors that are responsible for observed patterns”. Using a chart to explain when, where and how generative mechanisms and causal mechanisms occur (and thus some are visible to researchers, others not so much) within the Real Domain, Actual Domain and Empirical Domain, he forwards an opinion that “valid knowledge is produced by inferring and explaining what causal mechanisms operate—in particular

circumstances—to explain the empirical events that were observed to occur” Tsoukas (1989, p. 487). Tsoukas affirms that “highly specialized papers should be linked to core management or organizational concepts and problems” (1989, p.495). This dissertation has selected a specialized context to examine, however it has sought to reconceptualize and broaden theories of OC as a means to solve relevant and pressing problems within an NSGB context. In future study of this model, it looks to confirm the generative and causal mechanisms of OC in a US NSGB context.

Generalizability and Validity of *FOCUSS* Model

A Theory of Fruits

The following quote eloquently explains the logic utilized behind the construction of this framework and its generalizability:

Popular wisdom deems that one cannot compare apples with oranges. But what do we mean by ‘compare’? Scientifically speaking, apples and oranges come under the general category of ‘fruits’ and can be compared on many criteria, such as availability, price, colour, vitamin content or keeping quality. Comparing apples with oranges, cross-cultural psychologist Harry Triandis once said, is okay as long as we possess a fruitology, a theory of fruits (De Bosscher, et al., 2006, p. 210).

In this sense, the ‘fruitology’ and ‘theory of fruits’ at hand seeks a general understanding related to servicing the many stakeholders that NSGBs have and in turn delivering services along the spectrum of interest and development, within the context of US culture and its Olympic system. Common aspired outcomes relative to the global Olympic movement can be seen in US NSGBs. Many KSFs are similar across countries (such as

medals earned, participants gained, numbers of clubs within the system that are solvent and self-sustaining). Differences exist among the funding sources, governance infrastructure, human talent sources, and the strategies available and used to achieve mission and meet goals, however, this is the important time when one must recall that the researcher has used systems theory to approach this study. This remembrance is pivotal in describing and generalizing the context at hand. Recall that through this study we are seeking to identify the elements which enable this *system* to function and grow, achieve goals and fulfill its mission. It is acknowledged that the NGB is an open system, requiring inputs that move through this system as through puts and end up as outputs, ending up with outcomes related to the levels/strength of capacity being studied. It is the researcher's role then to comprehend the specific context of the organization to identify what particular inputs, through puts, outputs and outcomes are relevant in the studied context. We must ascertain in each organization's internal and external context, how components of the proposed capacity domains are best configured to foster effective movement of resources through the system to produce desired outcomes. All organisms (including NGBs) have elements which influence or hinder growth and development. Researchers therefore must identify the structures within the specific context which inhibit or enable goal attainment and mission fulfillment if they are to ascertain other components of capacity building (i.e. change and capacity building).

Recall the five primary attributes of an open system are what is sought to be understood, as they impact an organization's capacity to set and achieve goals and fulfill a mission. These five elements are proposed to be generalizable across all NSGBs. The first common characteristic of all open systems is dynamic morphology. To address this

question we must ask, ‘what are the cycles of activity (the processes within an NSGB in the US) which open and close to internal and external triggers (and are they helping or hindering its development)’. The second generalizable attribute of this open system is dynamic homeostasis – and thus begs the question ‘what internal balancing mechanisms exist (or are missing) within these capacity domains that help keep the US NSGB (un)stable’. These balancing mechanisms are important for organizations to recognize and strengthen (or put into place), especially when butterfly effects of chaotic times set off quickly evolving internal and external environmental coercive change influences – for example, the release of COVID -19 by one person into the world. According to Daniels (2020), “As ever in times of crises, organisations that are able to be flexible and agile will be best placed to dig themselves out of the hole and survive in the long-term”. The third generalizable trait of an open system demonstrates negative entropy and thus would prompt a researcher to ask ‘how are the systems specializing (or not) to adjust and adapt to internal and external influences’? One way to interpret this question might be to examine how an organization’s systems acquire and assimilate knowledge which is in turn leveraged to innovate more specific means for best function. Fourth, open systems show equipotentiality, so we must assess where in the continuum the specialization of subsystems are relative to other NSGBs in the US system, and finally, we assume that these organizations show equifinality (and so here we begin to explain where differences between organizations become more readily apparent). Equifinality explains that as open systems aim for defined outcomes (medals earned, solvent organizations, low turnover, strong communication, etc.) the system will compensate and reconfigure itself from disruptive forces – both internal and external – to meet its goals. Using this principle,

despite various constraints (some common among all NGBs, some unique to the organization), organizations adapt and find the best means within their internal and external environs to meet their pre-defined outcome. It is here in this final characteristic of an open system that one would expect to find marked differences between organizations and look for deeper understanding of what these differences are, based on the context of the local, regional and national internal and external influences that press on these institutions. Thus, this project has been an attempt to discern a 'fruitology' of organizational capacity using the lens of systems theory and it seeks to identify the specifics surrounding these generalizable systemic traits among NSGBs within the US.

Limitations of Theorizing OC in NSGBs

It is important for researchers and leaders who develop subsequent measurement tools, metrics and policy that govern NGBs to understand the underlying problems that exist when drawing conclusions and building connections between international success and NGB policies. Relationships between policies and success are at times difficult to demonstrate due to unquantifiable or unreliable data, making statistical analysis difficult (De Bosscher, et al., 2006). For example, within the context of Olympic performance, it is impossible to complete a true experiment which explains a causal correlation of one factor while controlling for others. For example, we cannot ethically hinder one athlete's or NSGBs capacity while enhancing another. Another limitation is that academics, consultants and capacity funders disagree on capacity intervention methods, and in some cases, they recommend solutions which are in direct conflict with each other (Andersson, et al., 2016) and add constraints to capacity measurement in this context. O'Boyle and Hassan, (2014) found many indicators and determinants of NGB performance and found

limited overlap between studies. They recommended an extant literature review to clarify these topics for nonprofit sport organizations (NPSOs). It was the goal of this integrated literature review to fulfill that recommendation in a US NGB context.

Future Studies

Scale Development and Confirmation of Validity and Reliability

When scale items for a quantitative measure are developed from a literature review and qualitative studies, it is imperative to confirm various forms of validity. Researchers confirm validity in multiple ways, and in the process of doing so, several concerns must be addressed. Hinkin (1995) identifies two primary concerns during the development of scale items – 1) authentication of the origin of measures and 2) confirmation of content validity. This dissertation serves as authentication of the origin of measures for future development of a quantitative instrument. Relative to the origin of measures, Hinkin (1995) stresses the importance to establish a demonstrable connection between items and their theoretical domain. This paper has gone through great length to articulate the connection of existing research to the theoretical domain of OC. The proposed model also goes to great length to extend current knowledge of organizational capacity into a US NSGB context. This model contains domains that are uniquely structured in comparison with other frameworks of organizational capacity. Unlike other models, several of the domains in the proposed model are posited as separate domains (not a subset of another domain), and as such, further quantitative research will offer insight as to whether these domains are in fact separate, or if they should be subsumed within a higher order of factors as previously proposed. In addition, three domains (stakeholder relationship quality, collaboration, and knowledge and learning) have been

demonstrated to exist in OC models outside of the sport context and are proposed for inclusion in this model due to their relevance and importance to US NGBs.

Analysis of the US NSGB System

In addition, due to the contextually relevant KSF and demographic domains proposed, the *FOCUSS* model enables scholars to extend what we know about USNGBs by facilitating a mode of analysis that can be parsed out by any number of definitions of context (who, what, where, when). According to Chelladurai and Zintz (2015) and Chelladurai, Szyszlo and Haggerty, (1987), NSGB effectiveness should be judged at both the network and constituent levels. Siegfried, et al. (2015) endorse this style of assessment as well, recommending that data be gathered on different levels (national level and member organization level), for a multi-level research design. In addition to different levels, Siegfried, et al. (2015) recommend that various forms, structures and environmental characteristics from each level also be gathered to gain a deeper understanding of sport organizations, in this case specific to organizational capacity. They recommend combining data gathered from multiple levels to simultaneously benchmark different important elements from each level. They also assert that multi-level analysis is appropriate when seeking to understand hierarchical data, explaining that the method is preferred because satisfactory results cannot be ascertained from strictly an aggregate or solely from an individual level (Siegfried, et al., 2015). Future studies which extract a quantitative articulation of the *FOCUSS* model will facilitate all above-mentioned forms of analysis. Once validated at a national level, natural extensions of this research would be to reach out to the subsequent tiers of NGB networks which function at regional and state levels. Due to structural differences between US NGBs, some

organizations at lower levels function as direct satellite extensions of the national office (and thus function as component of the same company as the national headquarters); whereas in some NSGBs, this second-tier and lower (i.e. grass roots levels) are comprised of entirely autonomous organizations which must integrate with the NGB national office (thus requiring stronger external communication, learning and collaboration capacities). Such differences in NGB network structure and related capacity requirements would be fascinating indeed to unwrap.

In addition, once validated, surveys depicting this model, repeated over time and compared with prior results, could assess capacity changes both at an individual organization and a network level. Data analysis would reveal systemic strengths and weaknesses and identify trends among types of organizations and within specific NGBs so that they could be either strengthened (or remedied) as needed. Subsequent surveys, repeated over time would enable US NGBs to gauge impacts capacity building activities and would serve as a self-regulating and self-correcting tool, thus enabling the USOPC – and by extension the NGBs – to become a learning organization. Questions could be included within subsequent surveys which place NGB organizations on an organizational life cycle, thus enabling experts to offer appropriate recommendations for capacity building activities based on a specific need given its place in the life cycle. So, in addition to validating the model (the first study), a second iteration would offer information regarding organizational strengths and areas where fortification might be needed. Other studies might include identifying what (if any) capacity building measures were taking place among its members, how often, and how successful they were considered by the survey takers, and why (or why not) the measures were effective, in

essence giving a profile of capacity building activity within the nonprofit sport industry and serving as a best practice tool toward becoming a learning organizational system. Since capacity building, according to Harsh (2012) and many others, is a coordinated change effort and involves organizational learning, this line of research would enable the USOPC, its NGBs and member SSGBs to identify what capacity exists, what capacities are needed, and which capacity building activities are most effective to remedy the various gaps that exist. This model and subsequent research would establish a capacity profile the ecosystem of nonprofit sport organizations in the US, in terms of what domains are (or are not) being used and would give decision makers an important tool with which to strengthen the system.

Based upon the research results, training and development activities could be strategically developed based upon an organization's (or the system's) needs, using peer exchanges, individual coaching and mentoring initiatives, workshops, or consultants. Such information would enable the USOPC and its member NSGBs to wield a valuable tool for self-assessment and self-regulation (self-regulation as described in an academic sense, meaning to observe and make corrections in one's own activities and behavior to achieve goals – not self-regulation in terms of governance). Once baseline measures were established, the studies could be repeated annually, to discern how and in which domains NGBs and their SSGBs build capacity over time. According to Eisinger (2002), “there is a clear need to move beyond simply logical lists of capacity characteristics to an empirical understanding of which of these contribute to organizational mission fulfillment” (p. 118). In that regard, future studies would place the capacity domains

identified within a broader framework of organizational capacity development that is beyond the scope of this dissertation.

“Some of the most abstract and broad perspectives on organizations, while not necessarily rich in detail, have provided a critical basis for cumulative research” (Bacharach, 1989, p. 500). What would be curious to explore is the translatability of the basic *FOCUSS* model domains to organizational development contexts outside of a nonprofit sport context, and even a context outside of sport. Since the roots of this instrument emerge from models such as that crafted by McKinsey & Company (2001), Hall, et al. (2003) and Connolly and York (2003), which are in use across a myriad of contexts, likewise, the fundamental structures of this framework (KPIs, demographics, and the seven capacity domains) are proposed to be theoretically relevant constructs in an infinite number of industries and sectors (public sector, private sector and third (nonprofit) sector). It would be an enjoyable activity to – through empirical means and revision – explore whether or not by specification of each unique context (tailoring the KPI and demographic segments, and revision of elements within each of the seven domains that are specific to US NGBs) to reflect a context under examination to see if the *FOCUSS* model can effectively customize these constructs to reflect an ecosystem of an infinite number of other industries and organizations.

References

- Alm, J. (2013). Action for good governance in international sports organisations. Play the Game/Danish Institute for Sports Studies.
- Amateur Sports Act of 1978. 36 U.S. Code § 220503 *et seq.* (1978).
- Anderson, L.W. & Krathwohl, D.R. (eds.) (2001). A taxonomy for learning, teaching and assessing: A revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. NY, Longman, Bower, M; Hedberg J.G. & Kuswar, A. (2010): A framework for Web 2.0 learning design, *Educational Media International*, 47:3, 177-198.
- Andersson, F., Faulk, L., & Stewart, A. (2015). Toward More Targeted Capacity Building: Diagnosing Capacity Needs Across Organizational Life Stages. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 27(6), 2860–2888. doi:10.1007/s11266-015-9634-7
- Bacharach, S.B. (1989). Organizational theories: Some criteria for evaluation. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(4), 496-515.
- Baser, H., Morgan, P., Bolger, J., Brinkerhoff, D., Land, A., Taschereau, S., Watson, D. & Zinke, J. (2008) Capacity, change and performance. European Centre for Development Policy Management. Discussion Paper No. 59B, 1-157.
- Bayle, E., & Robinson, L. (2007). A Framework for Understanding the Performance of National Sport Governing Bodies of Sport. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 7(3), 249–268. doi:10.1080/16184740701511037
- Beltrame, G., Augusto, B., & Pereira, D. (2018). Transforming cooperation practices into individual routines: An analysis of firms inserted in cooperation networks. *pensamiento & gestión*, (45), Universidad del Norte, 239-2.

- Berners-Lee, T. (2010, December). Long live the web. *Scientific American*. Retrieved from: http://www.cs.virginia.edu/~robins/Long_Live_the_Web.pdf
- Betz, B. (2019, January 10). Taekwondo instructor allegedly forced girl, 10 to perform sex act on him. *Foxnews.com*, Retrieved from: <https://www.foxnews.com/us/taekwondo-instructor-allegedly-forced-girl-10-to-perform-sex-act-on-him-report>
- Birkbeck Sport Business Center. (n.d.). Good Governance in Sport: A Survey of UK National Governing Bodies of Sport.
- Boote, D.N. & Beile, J. (2005). Scholars before researchers: On the centrality of the dissertation literature review in research preparation. *Educational Researcher*, 34(6), 3-15.
- Buchanan, E. (2017, October 23). ACA becomes the new U.S. National Sport Governing Body for Olympic/Paralympic paddlesports. *Canoekayak.com*. Retrieved from: <https://www.canoekayak.com/news/aca-strokes-away-from-taking-over-as-national-governing-body/>
- Brown, W., Andersson, F., & Jo, S. (2015). Dimensions of Capacity in Nonprofit Human Service Organizations. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 27(6), 2889–2912. doi:10.1007/s11266-015-9633-8
- Bryan, T.K. (2011). Exploring the dimensions of organizational capacity for local service delivery organizations using a multi-method approach. (Doctoral dissertation). Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Alexandria, Virginia.

Businesswire.com (2019). Sports - \$614 Billion Global Market Opportunities & Strategies to 2022, Retrieved from:
<https://www.businesswire.com/news/home/20190514005472/en/Sports---614-Billion-Global-Market-Opportunities-Strategies-to-2022---ResearchAndMarkets.com>

Cash, R. M. (2011). *Advancing differentiation: Thinking and learning for the 21st century*. Free Spirit Publishing: Minneapolis, MN.

Chalk, C. (September 5, 2018). How the elite took over youth sports, too. *The American Conservative*. Retrieved from:
<https://www.theamericanconservative.com/articles/how-the-elite-took-over-youth-sports-too/>.

Chelladurai, P. (1987). The design of sport governing bodies: A Parsonian perspective. In Slack, T. & Hinings, C.R. (Eds.), *The organization and administration of sport* (pp. 37-57).

Chelladurai, P. (2012). Leadership and Manifestations of Sport. *The Oxford Handbook of Sport and Performance Psychology*. Shane Murphy (Ed). Oxford University Press: New York

Chelladurai & Skirstad, (2011). For 'love' and money: A sports club's innovative response to multiple logics. *Journal of Sport Management*. 25, 339-353.

Chelladurai, P. & Zintz, T. (2015). Functions of national sport governing bodies: A network perspective. *Public Policy and Administration*, 14(4), 529-544.

- Chelladurai, P., Szyszlo, M. & Haggerty, T.R. (1987). Systems-based dimensions of effectiveness: The case of national sport organizations. *Canadian Journal of Sport Management*, (12), 111-119.
- Chimezie, A.B., & Osigweh, Y.G. (1989). Concept Fallibility in Organizational Science. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(4), 579-594.
- Christensen, R.K., & Gazley, B. (2008). Capacity for public administration: Analysis of meaning and measurement. *Public Administration and Development*, 28, 265–279, doi:10.1002/pad.500
- Clutterbuck, R. (2018). Capacity for sport for development. University of Western Ontario. *Electronic Thesis and Dissertation Repository*. 5344.
<https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd/5344>
- Connolly, P., & York, P. (2003). Building the capacity of capacity builders (executive summary of a study of management support and field-building organizations in the nonprofit sector). Retrieved from:
<https://www.issuelab.org/resources/8470/8470.pdf>
- Connolly, P., & York, P. (2002). Evaluating Capacity-Building Efforts for Non-profit Organizations. *OD Practitioner*, (34)4, 33-39.
- Cooper, H.M. (1988). Organizing Knowledge Syntheses: A Taxonomy of Literature Reviews, *Knowledge In Society*, 1, 104-126.
- Daniels, T. (June 12, 2020). USA Weightlifting: The real cost of COVID-19 on national governing bodies. *Insidethegames.com*, Retrieved from:
<https://insidersport.com/2020/06/12/usa-weightlifting-the-real-cost-of-covid-19-on-national-governing-bodies/>

- De Bosscher, V., De Knop, P., Bottenburg, M., & Shibli, S. (2006). A Conceptual Framework for Analysing Sports Policy Factors Leading to International Sporting Success. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 6(2), 185–215.
doi:10.1080/16184740600955087
- Deloitte & Touche, (2003). Investing in change: High level review of the modernization programme for governing bodies of sport. Retrieved from:
http://www.lsera.org/old/modernisation/Report_Master_22_July.pdf
- Despard, M. (2017). Can nonprofit capacity be measured? *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*.
- DeVellis, R.F., (2012). Scale development: Theory and application. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.
- Doherty, A., Misener, K., & Cuskelly, G. (2013). Toward a multidimensional framework of capacity in community sport clubs. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 43(2S), 124S-142S. doi:10.1177/0899764013509892
- Doherty, A. & Cuskelly, G. (2020)
- Eisenhardt, K.M. (1989). Building Theories from case study research. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(4), 532-550.
- Essilfie, C. & Chelladurai, P. (2016). Dimensions of organizational capacity of sport governing bodies of Ghana: Development of a scale. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanity Studies*, 8(2), 35-45.

- Ferkins, L., Shilbury, D., & McDonald, G. (2005). The role of the board in building strategic capability: Towards an integrated model of sport governance research. *Sport Management Review*, 8(3), 195-225. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1441-3523\(05\)70039-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1441-3523(05)70039-5)
- Ferkins, L., Shilbury, D., & McDonald, G. (2009). Board involvement in strategy: Advancing the governance of sport organizations. *Journal of Sport Management*, 23(3), 245–277.
- Ferkins, L., McDonald, G., & Shilbury, D. (2010). A model for improving board performance: The case of a national sport organisation. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 16, 633–653.
- Field, A. (2014). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS Statistics*, 4e. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.
- Fischer, B. (2018a, February 9). USOPC considers major changes to NSGB system. *Sports Business Journal*. Retrieved from: <https://www.sportsbusinessdaily.com/Daily/Issues/2018/02/09/On-The-Ground/USOPC-NSGBs.aspx>
- Fischer, B. (2018, July 16, 2018b). Getting its footing: Unprecedented scandal, challenges will greet the new CEO of the USOPC. *Sports Business Journal*, 21(13), 24-27.
- Fischer, B. (2018c, August 13, 2018). Highlights of the Deloitte NGB needs assessment. *Sports Business Journal*. Retrieved from: <https://www.sportsbusinessdaily.com/Journal/Issues/2018/08/13/Olympics/NGB-side.aspx>

- Fischer, B. (2019, January 7-13). Leading the way: The story of Olympic leadership. *Sports Business Journal*, 21(37), 16-18.
- Fletcher, D. & Arnold, R. (2011). A qualitative study of performance leadership and management in elite sport. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 23, 223-242.
- Franks, T. (1999). Capacity building and institutional development: Reflections on water. *Public Administration and Development*, 19(1), 51-61.
- Geeraert, A., Alm, J. & Groll, M. (2014). Good governance in international sport organizations: An analysis of the 35 Olympic sport governing bodies. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*. 6(3), 281-306.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/19406940.2013.825874>
- Golensky, M. (2016). Strategic leadership and management in nonprofit organizations: Theory and practice. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Grigaliūnaitė, I. & Eimontas, E. (2018). Athletes' involvement in decision making for good governance in sport. *Baltic Journal of Sport & Health Sciences*, 3(110), 18-24.
- Hackler, D. & Saxton, G.D., (2007). The strategic use of information technology by nonprofit organizations: Increasing capacity and untapped potential. *Public Administration Review*, 67(3), pp. 474-487.
- Hall, M., Andrukow, A., Barr, C., Brock, K., deWit, M., Embuldeniya, D., Jolin, L., Lasby, D., Levesque, B., Malinsky, E., Stowe, S., & Vaillancourt, Y. (2003). The capacity to serve: A qualitative study of the challenges facing Canada's nonprofit and voluntary organizations. Toronto, ON: Canadian Centre for Philanthropy.

- Harsh, S. (2012). Taking successful change initiatives beyond capacity: A multiple-dimension approach to capacity building. Fairfax, VA: ICF International.
- Harsh, S., & Mallory, M. (2013). The future of education: Building capacity for success. *Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin*, 80(1), 16.
- Hennig – Thurau, T., Gwinner, K.P., Gremler, D.D. (2002). Understanding relationship marketing outcomes: An integration of relational benefits and relationship quality. *Journal of Service Research*, 4(3), 230-247.
- Hinings, C.R., Thibault, L., Slack, T. Kikulis, L.M. (1996) Values and Organizational Structure. *Human Relations*, 49(7), 885-916.
- Hinkin, T.R., (1995). A review of scale development practices in the study of organizations. *Journal of Management*. 21(5), 967-988.
- Hinkin, T. R. (1998). A brief tutorial on the development of measures for use in survey questionnaires [Electronic version]. Retrieved [insert date], from Cornell University, School of Hotel Administration site:
<http://scholarship.sha.cornell.edu/articles/521>
- Honadle, B.W., (1981). A capacity-building framework: A search for concept and purpose. *Public Administration Review*. September/October, 575-580.
- How Companies Can Profit from a “Growth Mindset.” (2019). Harvard Business Review, 118–119. Retrieved from:
<http://search.ebscohost.com.libproxy.troy.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bth&AN=139817349&site=eds-live>
- Ingraham, P.W., Joyce P.G., Donahue A.K. (2003). Government Performance: Why Management Matters. Johns Hopkins University Press: Baltimore.

- Kanfer, R. (1990). Motivation theory and industrial/organizational psychology. In M.D. Dunnette and L. Hough (Eds.) *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology. Volume 1. Theory in industrial and organizational psychology*, 75-170. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Kim, Y.K., Trail, G. & Ko, Y.J. (2011). The influence of relationship quality on sport consumption behaviors: An empirical examination of the relationship quality framework. *Journal of Sport Management*, 25, 576-592.
- Krishnaveni, R., & Aravamudhan, N. R. (2013). Capacity building: A new paradigm for development. *Effective Executive*, 16(2), 27-42.
- Lam, A. & Lundvall, B.A., (2007). The learning organization and national systems of competence building and innovation. *Munich Personal RePEc Archive*, 12320. <http://mpa.ub.uni-muenchen.de/12320/>
- Lombardo, J & Broughton, D. (2017). Going gray: Sports TV viewers skew older. *Sport Business Journal*, 20(8), 1.
- Lusthaus, Anderson, & Murphy. (1995). Institutional assessment: A framework for strengthening organizational capacity for IDRC's research partners.
- Madella, A., Bayle, E. and Tome, J. (2005). The organisational performance of national swimming federations in Mediterranean countries: A comparative approach, *European Journal of Sport Science*, 5(4), 207–220.
- McKinsey & Company (2001). Effective capacity building in nonprofit organizations (Report to Venture Philanthropy Partners). Retrieved from: http://www.vppartners.org/sites/default/files/reports/full_rpt.pdf

- McKinsey & Company (2001). Organizational Capacity Assessment Tool. Retrieved from: <https://www.mckinsey.com/industries/social-sector/how-we-help-clients/organizational-capacity-assessment-tool>
- McTighe, J. & Wiggins, G. (2013). Essential questions: Opening doors to student understanding. ASCD: Alexandria, VA.
- Millar, P., & Doherty, A. (2016). Capacity building in nonprofit sport organizations: Development of a process model. *Sport Management Review*, 19(4), 365–377. doi:10.1016/j.smr.2016.01.002
- Mischen, P.A. & Jackson, S.K. (2008). Connecting the dots: Applying complexity theory, knowledge management and social network analysis to policy implementation. *Public Administration Quarterly*, 314-338. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/pdf/41288320.pdf>
- Misener, K. & Doherty, A. (2009). A case study of organizational capacity in nonprofit community sport. *Journal of Sport Management*, 23, 457 – 482.
- Misener, K., & Misener, L. (2017). Grey Is the New Black: Advancing Understanding of New Organizational Forms and Blurring Sector Boundaries in Sport Management. *Journal of Sport Management*, 31(2), 125–132. doi:10.1123/jsm.2017-0030
- Morgado, F.F.R., & Meireles, J.F.F., Neves, C.M., Amaral, A.C.S., Ferreira, M.E.C., (2017). Scale development: ten main limitations and recommendations to improve future research practices. *Psychology: Reflection and Criticism*. 30(3). Retrieved from: <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1186/s41155-016-0057-1>

- Norlander, M. (2018, August 9). NCAA VP: ‘We could’ve done a little better job of communicating’ with NBA and USA Basketball on rule changes. *Cbssports.com*. Retrieved from: <https://www.cbssports.com/college-basketball/news/ncaa-vp-we-couldve-done-a-little-better-job-of-communicating-with-nba-and-usa-basketball-on-rule-changes/>
- New Zealand Olympic and Commonwealth Games Association (1994), Pathway to Gold Report, New Zealand Olympic and Commonwealth Games Association Inc, Auckland.
- O’Boyle, I., & Hassan, D. (2014). Performance management and measurement in national-level non-profit sport organisations. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 14(3), 299–314. doi:10.1080/16184742.2014.898677
- Management Review*. 14(4), p. 551-561.
- Pettigrew, A.M. (1992). The character and significance of strategy process research. *Strategic Management Journal*, 13, 5–16.
- Pirson, M., & Malhotra, D. (2011). Foundations of organizational trust: What matters to different stakeholders? *Organization Science*, 22(4), 1087-1104.
- Phillips, D.C. (1972). The methodological basis of systems theory. *Academy of Management Journal*. 15(4), 469-477. DOI: 10.2307/255142.
- Rapilla, A. (2008), “A strategic planning tool to assess and enhance performance of National Federations in Papua New Guinea”, unpublished MEMOS Project, IOC, Lausanne.

- Rashman, L., Withers, E., & Hartley, J. (2009). Organizational learning and knowledge in public service organizations: A systematic review of the literature. *International Journal of Management Reviews*. 11(4), 463-494.
doi:10.1111/j.1468-2370.2009.00257.x
- Reade, I.L., (2010). *The application of agency theory to managing collaborative relationships between sport organizations: The case of Sport Canada and Canadian Interuniversity Sport*. (Doctoral dissertation). University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta. Retrieved from:
<https://era.library.ualberta.ca/items/ee92fa64-d372-4164-8650-a01eb406630c>
- Robinson, L., & Minikin, B. (2011). Developing strategic capacity in Olympic sport organisations. *Sport, Business and Management: An International Journal*, 1(3), 219–233. doi:10.1108/20426781111162648
- Roosevelt, T. (1913), *An autobiography*. New York: Macmillan, 1913.
- Rosenbaum, E. (April 3, 2019). IBM artificial intelligence can predict with 95% accuracy which workers are about to quit their jobs. *CNBC.com*. Retrieved on April 26, 2020 from: <https://www.cnn.com/2019/04/03/ibm-ai-can-predict-with-95-percent-accuracy-which-employees-will-quit.html>.
- Rosenberg, M. (October 10, 2017). Marc my words: The coming knowledge tsunami. *Learning Solutions*. Retrieved on April 26, 2020 from
<https://learningsolutionsmag.com/articles/2468/marc-my-words-the-coming-knowledge-tsunami>.

- Rouse, M., Ferguson, K. & Pratt, M. (n.d.). ICT (information and communications technology, or technologies). *Techtarget.com*. Retrieved from: <https://searchcio.techtarget.com/definition/ICT-information-and-communications-technology-or-technologies>
- Ryan, & Deci. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *The American Psychologist* (55), 68–78. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.68
- Saunders, N., Batson, T., & Saunders, G. (2000). The impact of instructional strategies on the development of meta-skills in the adult learner. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED446218>
- Schein, E. (1986). What you need to know about organizational culture. *Training and Development Journal*. 40(1), 30-33.
- Schumpeter, J.A., [1911] (2008), *The Theory of Economic Development: An Inquiry into Profits, Capital, Credit, Interest and the Business Cycle*, translated from the German by Redvers Opie, New Brunswick (U.S.A) and London (U.K.): Transaction Publishers.
- Sharpe, E. K. (2006). Resources at the grassroots of recreation: Organizational capacity and quality of experience in a community sport organization. *Leisure Sciences*, 28, 385-401.
- Shilbury, D., & Ferkins, L. (2011). Professionalisation, sport governance and strategic capability. *Managing Leisure*, 16(2), 108–127. doi:10.1080/13606719.2011.559090

- Shumate, M., Cooper, K., Pilny, A., & Pena-y-lillo, M. (2017). The Nonprofit Capacities Instrument. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 28(2), 155–174.
doi:10.1002/nml.21276
- Siegfried, N., Schlesinger, T., Bayle, E., & Giauque, D. (2015). Professionalisation of sport federations – a multi-level framework for analysing forms, causes and consequences. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 15(4), 407–433.
doi:10.1080/16184742.2015.1062990
- Sminia, H. (2009). Process research in strategy formation: Theory, methodology and relevance. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 11(1), 97-125.
doi:10.1111/j.1468-2370.2008.00253.x
- Slack, T., & of sport management, H.-B. (1992). Understanding change in national sport organizations: An integration of theoretical perspectives. *Journal of sport management*. Retrieved from
<http://journals.humankinetics.com/doi/abs/10.1123/jsm.6.2.114>
- Skirstad, B., & Chelladurai, P. (2011) For ‘love’ and money: A sports club’s innovative response to multiple logics. *Journal of Sport Management*, 25, 339-353
- Snyder, H. (2019). Literature review as a research methodology: An overview and guidelines. *Journal of Business Research*, 104(2019), 333-339.
- Sowa, J.E., Selden, S.C., & Sandfort, J.R. (2004). No longer unmeasurable? A multidimensional integrated model of nonprofit organizational effectiveness. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* 33(4): 711–728.

- TCC Group, (2010). Fortifying LA's nonprofit organizations: Capacity-building needs and services in Los Angeles county. (Report to the Weingart Foundation). Retrieved from: <https://www.tccgrp.com/resource/fortifying-l-a-s-nonprofit-organizations-capacity-building-needs-and-services-in-los-angeles-county/>
- Thomson, A.M., Perry, J.L., & Miller, T.K. (2009). Conceptualizing and measuring collaboration. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*. 19, 23-56. DOI: 10.1093/jopart/mum036
- Torraco, R. J. (2005). Writing integrative literature reviews: Guidelines and examples. *Human Resource Development Review*, 4, 356-367.
- Torraco, R.J. (2016). Writing integrative literature reviews: Using the past and present to explore the future. *Human Resource Development Review*, 15(4), 404-428.
- Truyens, J., De Bosscher, V. & Sotiriadu, P. (2016). An analysis of countries' organizational resources, capacities, and resource configurations in athletics. *Journal of Sport Management*, 30, 566-585. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1123/jsm.2015-0368>
- Tsoukas, H. (1989). The validity of idiographic research explanations. *Academy of Management Review*. 14(4), p. 551-561.
- United Nations Development Programme (2009). Capacity development: A UNDP primer. Kanni Wignaraja (Ed.), New York.

United States Olympic and Paralympic Committee, Borders Commission (2019). *Report of the Borders Commission: An independent panel chartered by the USOPC.*

Retrieved from: https://www.teamusa.org//media/TeamUSA/Documents/BC_FINAL_JULY2019_PDF.pdf?la=en&hash=5492FF38C138B1394546D199DE09798A223F43F2

United States Olympic and Paralympic Committee. (2017). *USOPC 990 Form.* Colorado Springs, CO: Author.

United States Olympic and Paralympic Committee (2018, November 5). USOPC statement regarding action to revoke USA Gymnastics' recognition as member National Sport Governing Body. Retrieved from: <https://www.teamusa.org/News/2018/November/05/USOPC-Statement-Revoke-USA-Gymnastics-Recognition-As-Member-National-Governing-Body>

US House of Representatives, Energy and Commerce Committee. (2018). *Nassar and beyond: A review of the Olympic community's efforts to protect athletes from sexual abuse.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

US Olympic and Paralympic Committee. (2018). *Bylaws of the US Olympic and Paralympic Committee: Effective as of September 21, 2018.* Colorado Springs, CO: Author.

Van de Ven, A.H. (1989). Nothing is quite so practical as a good theory. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(4), 486-489.

- Wandersman, A., Chien, V., & Katz, J. (2012). Toward an Evidence-Based System for Innovation Support for Implementing Innovations with Quality: Tools, Training, Technical Assistance, and Quality Assurance/Quality Improvement. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 50(3-4), 445–459. doi:10.1007/s10464-012-9509-7
- Webster, J. & Watson, R.T. (2002). Analyzing the past to prepare for the future: Writing a literature review. *MIS Quarterly*, 26(2), xiii-xxiii.
- Weick, K.E. (1989). Theory construction as disciplined imagination. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(4), 516-531.
- Weick, K.E. (1995). What theory is not, theorizing is. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 40(3), 385-390.
- Wheeler, T. (2013, November 26). Net effects: The past, present & future impact of our networks. Retrieved from: http://transition.fcc.gov/net-effects-2013/NET_EFFECTS_The-Past-Present-and-Future-Impact-of-Our-Networks.pdf
- Whetten, D.A. (1989). What constitutes a theoretical contribution? *Academy of Management Review*, 14(4), 490-495.
- Wicker, P., & Breuer, C. (2014). Exploring the organizational capacity and organizational problems of disability sport clubs in Germany using matched pairs analysis. *Sport Management Review*, 17(1), 23–34. doi:10.1016/j.smr.2013.03.005
- Winand, M., Zintz, T., Bayle, E., & Robinson, L. (2010). Organizational performance of Olympic sport governing bodies: dealing with measurement and priorities. *Managing Leisure*, 15(4), 279–307. doi:10.1080/13606719.2010.508672

- Wright, P.M., Dunford, B.B., & Snell, S.A., (2001). Human resources and the resource-based view of the firm. *Journal of Management*, 27, 701-721.
- von Bertalanffy, L. (1975). Perspectives on general systems theory: Scientific-philosophical studies. New York: George Braziller, Inc.
- Voss, R. (1997a). Systems theory I: Overview of systems theory. Technical handout prepared July 1997 by Richard S. Voss, Tuscaloosa, AL (updated March 2018)
- Voss, R. (1997b). Systems theory II: Overview of complexity theory. Handout prepared July 1997 by Richard S. Voss, Tuscaloosa, AL (updated March 2018)
- Yim, H. (2015). Identifying the critical factors in sport consumption decision making processes for the millennial sport fans: An application model of goal-directed behavior. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from:
https://getd.libs.uga.edu/pdfs/yim_hyong-il_201508_phd.pdf

MARY BETH CHAMBERS, M.ED., PH.D.

KEY SKILLS

ORGANIZATIONAL CAPACITY EXPERT • STRATEGY DEVELOPMENT • STRATEGIC PLANNING • TEAM MANAGEMENT • CLIENT / INDUSTRY RELATIONS • INDUSTRY COLLABORATION • ONLINE & IN-PERSON TEACHING & WORKSHOPS • ACADEMIC PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT & ADMINISTRATION • INTERNSHIP PROCUREMENT /PLACEMENT /MANAGEMENT ECONOMICS OF SPORT • SPONSORSHIP SALES & ACTIVATION • SPONSORSHIP ASSET MANAGEMENT • ACCOUNT MANAGEMENT • COMMUNICATIONS • EVENT MANAGEMENT • TICKET SALES •

PERSONAL DESCRIPTION

I am a positive person with a broad & diverse background in sport management, including nine years in higher education as a faculty member - six of which as a Program Director/Department Chair, preceded by 15 years of successful sport management executive experience in sport business, sales, marketing and management. Experience in professional and amateur sport organizations, teams and governing bodies (NBA, WNBA, LPGA, US Olympic & Paralympic Committee, ECHL Hockey, NASCAR).

I have very strong strategy, collaboration, interpersonal and written communication skills; strong organizational development skills; excellent program management skills. Very strong attention to detail, with an ability to establish and maintain effective, efficient processes and procedures to improve functions and relationships between partners. Skilled in sponsor/client/partner relations, sponsorship sales, production of brand collateral, business research, strategic planning and event management. Able to strategically ideate, develop and manage successful programs and partnerships.

EDUCATION

Troy University, Troy AL

Doctor of Philosophy, Sport Management

Faculty Advisers: Packianathan Chelladurai, Ph.D., L.L.D., FNAK,
Dr. Win Koo

Related Coursework: Seminar in Organizational Behavior & Leadership
Specialized Study: Organizational Capacity
Strategic Communications & Emerging Media
Executive Leadership in Non-Profit Organizations
Training & Development

Dissertation Research:

I am acutely curious about peak performance in the business functions of non-profit, national sport governing bodies (United States Olympic & Paralympic Committee and its member organizations). I have developed an organizational capacity model specific to domestic non-profit national sport governing bodies for use as a framework to assess various elements of an organization. I will research and develop facets of this model for many years to come and hope to help Olympic organizations effectively set and achieve goals and improve all facets of company performance.

Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, OH

Master of Education in Sport Administration, December 1994

Graduate Assistantship Obtained Faculty Adviser: Jacquelyn Cuneen, Ph.D.

Master's Thesis Published as a two-part series in Sport Marketing Quarterly (see below)

University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY

Bachelor of Arts in Communications, May 1991

HIGHER EDUCATION EXPERIENCE

PFEIFFER UNIVERSITY

Misenheimer, NC
Aug. 2019 – Present

Sport Management Department Chair

- Manage and administer all elements of Sport Management curriculum
- Recruit and develop faculty members
- Oversee program assessment
- Internship Supervision

Assistant Professor of Sport Management

Aug. 2019 – Present

Courses taught:

Principles of Sport Management
Event & Tournament Management
Sociology of Sport

Senior Capstone
Sport Marketing
Global Perspectives in Sport
Sport Analytics

BELMONT ABBEY COLLEGE

Belmont, NC

Motorsport Management Program Director

Sept. 2014 – July 2018

Managed and administered all elements of Motorsport Management curriculum
Recruited and developed faculty members
Oversaw and managed program assessment
Advised all Motorsport Management majors
Supervised all Motorsport Management internships

- **80% job placement rates of graduates into Motorsport industry, May '14**
- **100% job placement rate of graduates into Motorsport industry, May '15**
- **80% job placement rate of graduates into Motorsport industry, May '16**
- **92% retention rate, AY 15-16, AY 16-17**

Assistant Professor of Sport and Motorsport Management

March 2012 – May 2019

Advise all Motorsport Management majors

Courses Taught:

Introduction to Sport Management
Introduction to Motorsport Management
Organizational Theory & Leadership in Sport
Sport Business & Finance
Motorsport Administration & Governance
Motorsport Facilities & Events
Motorsport Business & Finance
Motorsport Internship

Faculty Development Committee

Committee Chair, Sept 2016 – August 2018

Member, September 2014 – May 2018

Hosted Technology in Education Luncheon for BAC Faculty Members

Faculty Mentor, Men's Soccer Program

Aug 2013 – May 2019

BOWLING GREEN STATE UNIVERSITY

Bowling Green, OH

Sport Administration Division, Instructor

Aug 1997 – Jan 1998

Course Taught: Sport & Event Promotion

ONLINE LEARNING MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS & CERTIFICATIONS

- Blackboard** – Blackboard Academy Certified Practitioner – Designing for Digital Teaching & Learning - December 2020
- Canvas** – Use of Canvas for three years at Belmont Abbey College - 2015-2018
- Schoology** – Use of Schoology for one year at Belmont Abbey College – 2014

SPORT MANAGEMENT / PRACTITIONER EXPERIENCE

RACEWORKS

President and Owner

Charlotte, NC

Aug. 2010 – Jan. 2015

Created this motorsport race team and put into place its operational / business / communications infrastructure. Competed in NASCAR's Grand-Am Continental Tire Sports Car Challenge Series (now governed by IMSA). Managed all non-competition business functions including: taxes, insurance, contracts, accounting, budgets, publicity, hospitality, branding, sponsorship sales and activation. My husband has been involved in NASCAR for the past 25 years and was responsible for building and fielding the racecar in the competitions.

CHAMBERS FAMILY ENTERPRISES

President and Owner

Charlotte, NC

August 2004 – Present

Created this family business which manages rental properties. Put into place its operational and business infrastructure. Manage all business functions including taxes, insurance, contracts, accounting, budgets.

USA CANOE/KAYAK – Former Member of the USOPC

Marketing Director

Charlotte, NC

June 2003 – July 2004

Sold and managed sponsorship sales and activation, public relations, website and intern program for this national property. Coordinated national sponsor events and promotions for 2004 USA Canoe/Kayak Olympic Team Trials. Advised and aided local organizing committees regarding ticket and sponsorship sales programs and promotion strategies for Canoe/Kayak World Championships.

EAST COAST HOCKEY LEAGUE - CHARLOTTE CHECKERS

Vice President of Ticket Sales /Marketing

Charlotte, NC

August 2002 – June 2003

Managed the ticket sales department which generated 75% of team income. Developed and executed the ticket sales department budget and sales plan. Supervised three sales executives. Developed and executed the team marketing, media and promotional plans via online, print, radio and television campaigns and in-arena promotions. Increased season ticket sales by 22% from prior year. Developed a ticket sales database and procured over 12,000 names of sport and entertainment consumers in the Charlotte metropolitan area. Coordinated effort to redesign the team website after the ownership changed in May of '02.

Director of Corporate Sales

August 2001 – August 2002

Managed the sales and activation of team partnerships. Developed business plan, sales goals, sponsorship proposals and follow up evaluation of sales efforts.

PALACE SPORTS & ENTERTAINMENT

Account Executive – Corporate Sales

Auburn Hills, MI

Feb 1998 – Feb 2001

Properties Sold: Detroit Pistons (NBA), Detroit Shock (WNBA), Detroit Vipers (IHL), Detroit Fury (AFL), Pine Knob Music Theatre, Meadow Brook Music Festival, Palace of Auburn Hills, Detroit Metropolitan Airport Signage.

PALACE SPORTS & ENTERTAINMENT (Continued)

Sold and executed 2.4 million dollars in sports and entertainment sponsorships that included radio, television and print advertising, signage and promotional elements. *Team captain* for sponsorship sales effort and inventory management for the Detroit Shock (WNBA). Developed business plan, sales goals, sponsorship proposals and follow up evaluation of department sales efforts.

Generated original consumer research for marketing and strategic planning purposes. Team representative for WNBA league meetings. Generated a 10-year forecast for revenue projections for new signage inventory in the Palace of Auburn Hills and the Ice Palace, Tampa, FL. Implemented pre-game, on court marketing department promotions for the Pistons. Managed the successful execution of all promotions at Pine Knob Music Theatre and Meadow Brook Music Festival, summer of 1999. Negotiated and serviced contracts which maintained all hotel and housing needs for PS&E, on-site medical needs for PS&E, Team Hospital/Doctor/Trainer/Physical Therapist for the Detroit Fury and the staffing needs for the multi-media department.

LADIES PROFESSIONAL GOLF ASSOCIATION - JAMIE FARR KROGER CLASSIC

Toledo, OH

Jan 1995 – Feb 1998

Marketing Manager

Coordinated marketing function and sold sponsorships for this LPGA golf tourney. 40% sales increase from 1996 to 1997; 46% sales increase in 1996 from 1995. Coordinated production of all printed materials, built and maintained photo, video and logo files, coordinated the production of and maintained inventory of all tournament signage, supervised interns and volunteers assigned to marketing and media functions, *generated original research for marketing and strategic planning purposes.* Designed a database to track advertising and sponsorships, wrote and hand programmed the original JFKC website.

ATLANTA COMMITTEE FOR THE OLYMPIC GAMES

Atlanta, GA

Press Operations Volunteer - Interview Room Manager, Super Sub Center Oct 1995 – Aug 1996

Managed the logistics of running successful press conferences in the Super Sub Center, which at full capacity held 800 journalists, excluding the work areas. Accommodated international media needs during press conferences (i.e. ran sound boards and lights, marshalled the media, moderated conferences, facilitated athlete transportation to and from the conferences, arranged for translation). Super Sub Center accommodated media which covered eight Olympic sports including: basketball, gymnastics, wrestling, weightlifting, judo, handball, table tennis, and fencing. Supervised interview room volunteers.

MB Chambers & Associates, Inc. Draft

RESEARCH & CONSULTING EXPERIENCE

North American Society of Sport Management (NASSM) 2018 Poster Presentation –

Halifax, Canada

Presentation:

Classification of Dimensions, Processes, and Outcomes of Organizational Capacity: A Systems Theory Perspective

North American Society of Sport Management (NASSM) 2017 Teaching & Learning Fair –

Denver, CO 2017

Presentation: Unique Teaching Methods in Sport Finance

EAST COAST HOCKEY LEAGUE – Dayton Bombers

Dayton, OH

Ticket Sales Consultant

January 2005 – June 2005

Evaluated ticket sales strategy and developed a new ticket program for the new ownership group which purchased the team. Implemented procedures which improved internal communication within the sales staff and between the team and the arena box office.

ART OF THE EYE

Charlotte, NC, 2004

Successfully submitted a grant to the Arts & Science Council to bring this travelling art exhibit to Charlotte. Raised \$35,000 to bring this exhibit containing art created by visually impaired artists to Charlotte for a several-week display.

LPGA TOURNAMENT SPONSORS ASSOCIATION

Round Table Presenter

October 1997

Presented the findings from a research study that I conducted among LPGA Golf tournaments which identified the methods through which licensed merchandise channels of distribution could be expanded.

SPORT MARKETING QUARTERLY

Spring and Fall Issue, 1997

My Master's research thesis was published as a two-part series in the March 1997 and September 1997 issues of this nationally recognized sport marketing research industry academic journal. Mazzeo is my maiden name.

Mazzeo, M.E. & Cuneen, J. & Claussen, C.L. (1997). Retail Licensing Procedures Used by Selected NCAA Division I Institutions: Implications for Licensees of Collegiate Memorabilia. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*. 6(1). 41 – 46.

Mazzeo, M.E. & Cuneen, J. & Claussen, C.L. (1997). Determining Costs and Forecasting Profits for a Multi-logoed Collegiate Memorabilia Poster: A Profitability Study in New Product Development. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*. 6(3). 41 – 47.

CYGNET TURF & EQUIPMENT

Cygnets, OH

Marketing Consultant

Jan 1994 – Sept 1994

Researched and developed company strategic plan; organized and proposed an advertising and promotional plan. Created a database that tracked leads and generated mailing lists for newsletters and direct mail campaign. Wrote company newsletter and media releases, wrote and produced company promotional video. This company installed and repaired fields for NFL, MLB and other major league stadia including: Cleveland Browns, New England Patriots, Chicago Bears, Kansas City Royals, Florida Marlins, University of Michigan, The Ohio State University and Penn State University.

ProQuest Number: 28492054

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality and completeness of this reproduction is dependent on the quality and completeness of the copy made available to ProQuest.



Distributed by ProQuest LLC (2021).

Copyright of the Dissertation is held by the Author unless otherwise noted.

This work may be used in accordance with the terms of the Creative Commons license or other rights statement, as indicated in the copyright statement or in the metadata associated with this work. Unless otherwise specified in the copyright statement or the metadata, all rights are reserved by the copyright holder.

This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code and other applicable copyright laws.

Microform Edition where available © ProQuest LLC. No reproduction or digitization of the Microform Edition is authorized without permission of ProQuest LLC.

ProQuest LLC
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 - 1346 USA