

Managing Our Human Resources: A Review of Organisational Behaviour in Sport

Alison J. Doherty

The University of Western Ontario

Human resources, which are critical to organisational effectiveness, must be effectively managed. Human resource management relies on the ability to explain and predict organisational behaviour (OB), which is the attitudes and behaviours of individuals and groups in the organisation; their satisfaction, commitment, performance, and so on. OB research is directed toward identifying the determinants of these attitudes and behaviours, and further outcomes including organisational effectiveness. This paper examines what we know about OB in sport, according to the nature of the research conducted (variables, analyses, contexts, research methods). A conceptual model of the relationships among work environment factors, as determinants of OB, and important affective and behavioural outcomes at the individual and group levels, is presented. The model provides a framework for an extensive review of OB research in sport, and encourages discussion about the trends and gaps in our knowledge of OB and human resource management.

The establishment of a new journal in the field of sport management provides an opportunity to consider the status of our current knowledge in the field, how we arrived at this knowledge base, and where we can and should go from here. Knowledge is essential to the legitimisation of sport management as a professional occupation and an academic discipline (Chelladurai, 1992; Slack, 1991; Zeigler, 1987). Systematic research is essential to the development of that knowledge (Friedson, 1986; Paton, 1987). Paton warns that “we must demonstrate our eligibility through the quality of research developed” (p. 26). Furthermore, “a profession has the responsibility of further expanding the body of knowledge related to its fields of practice. This body of knowledge should be original, exclusive to the field, and systematically organized”

(Soucie & Doherty, 1996, p. 487). This paper focuses specifically on the state of knowledge regarding organisational behaviour (OB) in sport.

OB refers to the attitudes and behaviours of individuals and groups in the organisation. How members feel about their pay, their commitment to the workgroup or organisation, their willingness to work overtime, and job performance are examples of important attitudes and behaviours in the workplace. According to Ivancevich and Matteson (1996), "individual performance is the foundation of organizational performance" (p. 14). Koehler (1988) advises that "it should never be overlooked that the lifeline and energy of ... organizations are lodged within individuals" (p. 101). Chelladurai (in press) further notes that the "management of human resources becomes very critical because only people implement organizational policies and procedures. Further, money and material become resources only when people use them effectively in the production of goods and services" (p. 4). The attitudes and behaviours of members are critical, and perhaps of particular concern, in difficult economic times when members are expected to do more with less. The dependence of sport organisations on volunteers may increase the complexity of human resource management (HRM). The challenge is to direct organisation members towards those outcomes that will have a positive impact on organisational effectiveness.

Perhaps because of the professed importance of human resources OB is alleged to be one of, if not the most, popular areas of study in sport management research (Paton, 1987; Slack, 1997). Interestingly, its relative focus in sport management textbooks does not bear this out! The perceived popularity of OB as an area of research may be based, at least in part, on the results of several reviews of sport management research in general (Baker & Collins, 1995; Baker & Zariello, 1995; Parkhouse, Ulrich & Soucie, 1982; Spaeth, 1967). From these reviews it is possible, with varying degrees of accuracy, to identify the relative proportion of published research that has concerned itself with OB topics or issues. However, none of these sport management research reviews focussed specifically on OB research. It will be useful to give specific consideration to what we know about OB and HRM in sport. This will allow us to identify trends and gaps in OB research, according to the particular variables, contexts or settings, and methods used. We can thereby assess its overall contribution to the advancement of knowledge in our field.

The value of sport management research is sometimes measured by its ultimate application to practice in the field (Chelladurai, 1992; Paton, 1987; Zeigler, 1987). Both basic and applied research must be relevant to problems and issues in the practice of sport management (cf. Soucie & Doherty, 1996). Relevant research is reflected in the concepts or variables examined, the theoretical relationship(s) among them, and identifiable implications for HRM. The context of an investigation will determine its relevance to the extent that knowledge about the particular setting will be advanced and the results can be generalised beyond the specific study (cf. Olafson, 1990). Meaningful research will also be determined by the degree to which the study design

and data collection method(s) contribute to the advancement of knowledge (e.g., survey research via field questionnaire or interviews, case study).

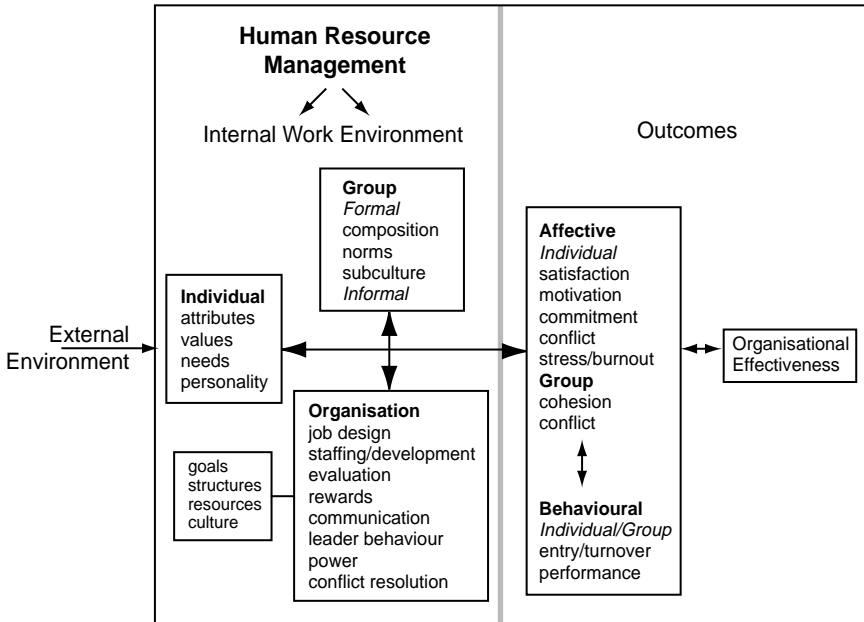
The purpose of this paper is to review the research on OB in sport and identify what topics or variables, contexts, and methods have and have not received the attention of sport management researchers. The literature review focuses specifically on studies of the attitudes and behaviours of individuals and groups in sport organisations, and the determinants and further outcomes of those attitudes and behaviours. Knowledge resulting from these studies is essential for effectively managing human resources. To facilitate this review, a model that identifies the key concepts of OB and HRM, and their proposed interrelationships is presented.

A Model for Managing Human Resources

There appears to be considerable agreement among management scholars regarding the definition of OB. “Organizational behavior ... refers to the attitudes and behaviors of individuals and groups in organizations. The discipline or field of organizational behavior involves the systematic study of these attitudes and behaviors” (Johns, 1992, p. 3), “for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organization’s effectiveness” (Robbins, 1993, p. 7). The key concepts in any definition of OB are individuals and groups in organisations, and the effectiveness of those organisations. The focus of research is the explanation and prediction of attitudes and behaviour (Johns, 1992). The concern of organisations is managing individuals and groups towards organisational effectiveness based on the ability to explain and predict their attitudes and behaviour.

Figure 1 presents a model for HRM that encompasses the key concepts of OB. The model identifies affective and behavioural outcomes for individuals, groups, and organisational effectiveness, which are the ultimate concerns of management. The model also proposes the determinants of those important outcomes, which are individual, group, and organisational factors that comprise the internal work environment. It is here that management can have some influence over the desired outcomes. Conceptually, the work environment factors and outcomes are not limited to those presented here, which tend to be prevalent in the general OB literature. The model extends, perhaps, our typical understanding of HRM, which has focussed narrowly on personnel selection, training, evaluating and rewarding (e.g., Robbins, 1993; Slack, 1997), to include all organisational processes directed at managing human resources towards organisational effectiveness. The ultimate concern of processes such as leader behaviour, communication, and conflict resolution is positive affective and behavioural outcomes of individuals and groups. Thus, they must be included in a conceptual model of HRM. The model is relevant to OB and HRM at the managerial and nonmanagerial levels of the organisation.

Figure 1 A model for managing human resources



In the work environment, individuals are distinguished by their unique attributes, values, needs, and personalities; characteristics the individual brings to the organisation, and which may develop further in the organisation. These characteristics determine how individuals perceive what goes on around them, and how they react. Formal and informal groups include any interpersonal relationships between two or more organisation members who have come together to achieve some objective(s) (Robbins, 1993). Formal task groups can be described by their (a) composition, including size and heterogeneity; (b) norms, or shared standards for acceptable behaviour within the group; and (c) subculture, or underlying shared values that inform group norms, and that may or may not parallel the greater organisational culture. These characteristics will determine the attitudes and behaviour of the group (Robbins, 1993). Informal groups are usually formed out of friendships and common interests, and can also have important implications for member attitudes and behaviour (Robbins, 1993).

Individual and group factors interact with various organisational processes to affect the attitudes and behaviours of organisation members. Organisational processes specific to HRM include (a) job design or the nature of the organisational tasks, including variety, quantity, autonomy, interdependence; (b) staffing and development;

(c) personnel evaluation; (d) rewards; (e) communication; (f) leader behaviour; (g) power, including sources and uses of power and member involvement in decision making; and (h) conflict resolution. These processes are determined by the broader goals, structure, resources, and culture of the organisation. For example, organisational goals dictate, among other things, job design, staffing, and evaluation. The structure of the organisation dictates power and communication, while organisational resources can be a basis of power and a source of rewards. And the dominant organisational culture defines values, such as equity, underlying the various processes. Although it is not indicated in the model here, these broader organisational aspects may have a direct influence on affective and behavioural outcomes; for example, the nature of organisational goals may predict member motivation (Slack, 1997).

Together, the individual, group and organisational factors define the internal work environment of the organisation. The two-way arrows indicate the interactive relationships among these factors. For example, to some extent, the organisation selects the individual and may shape that person further. Individuals contribute to the diversity of the group, the organisation determines the structure and task of the group, and individual and group characteristics dictate the nature of organisational leadership. It should be noted that the processes described at the organisational level may develop a unique character at the group level (Robbins, 1993); that is, leader behaviour, power, and communication may be unique to a particular group.

Based on the open systems perspective, we can expect the external environment of the organisation to impact the internal work environment since individual members of the organisation come from that external environment, bringing their unique values and expectations. The external environment will also influence the goals, resources, and structure of the organisation, and consequently its human resource practices for managing individual and group behaviour towards the achievement of those goals (Slack, 1997).

Outcomes of the work environment can be distinguished at the individual, group, and organisational levels. At the individual and group levels the focus is on affective and behavioural outcomes. Examples of affective outcomes of the work environment include (a) individual job satisfaction, an attitude based on the relationship between an organisation member's expectations of the job and what the job actually provides; (b) motivation, which is a member's willingness to exert effort on the job; (c) commitment, or a sense of identification, involvement and loyalty with respect to the organisation; (d) intrapersonal conflict, experienced when a member is faced with opposing expectations; and (e) stress and burnout. At the group level, important affective outcomes include (a) cohesion or the degree of member attraction and motivation to remain in the group; and (b) interpersonal and intergroup conflict or disagreement among members. There may be interactive effects among these outcomes. For example, individual satisfaction may further commitment to the organisation, and intrapersonal conflict may be associated with feelings of stress and

further burnout. There may also be a relationship between attitudes at the individual and group levels. For example, satisfaction may promote cohesion, or vice versa.

Important behavioural outcomes include (a) turnover, as well as the corresponding behaviour of member entry resulting from the interaction of individual factors (e.g., values, needs) and organisational factors (e.g., job design, rewards); and (b) performance at the individual and group levels, including effort, productivity, creativity, and problem solving. There may be an interaction between the affective and behavioural outcomes. For example, individual commitment may contribute to member retention, and dissatisfaction may be associated with performance (a potentially reciprocal relationship).

Affective and behavioural outcomes at the individual and group levels contribute to the effectiveness of the organisation. These outcomes are “critical determinants of an organization’s human resources effectiveness” (Robbins, 1993, p. 44), and human resource effectiveness is an indicator of organisational effectiveness (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1996). HRM is directed towards developing member satisfaction, motivation, commitment and performance that will presumably contribute to the effectiveness of the organisation. Organisational effectiveness may be defined by goal achievement, acquisition of resources, efficient and effective organisational processes, and/or constituent satisfaction (Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1991; Slack, 1997). A two-way arrow indicates the reciprocal impact of organisational effectiveness on the affective and behavioural outcomes at the individual and group level. For example, organisational goal achievement may strengthen member commitment. The model also indicates the reciprocal relationship between individual, group and organisational outcomes and the work environment. For example, member satisfaction may reinforce a particular leader behaviour; group conflict may provoke a conflict resolution process leading to continued or resolved conflict; poor individual or group performance may lead to job redesign or reassignment. The place of moderating or contingency variables that may be important to understanding OB and HRM is implied by the interactive relationships among the work environment factors and outcomes.

HRM is represented at the left side of the model in terms of its influence on the attitudes and behaviours of individuals and groups towards organisational effectiveness. Managers determine, to some extent, the type of individuals in the organisation (through staffing and development), the nature of the workgroup (based on group task and composition), and the organisational processes that together contribute to important attitudes and behaviours, and ultimately organisational effectiveness. Therefore, it is important to know what, if any, impact various HRM strategies will have on affective and behavioural outcomes, and organisational effectiveness. OB research is directed toward answering this question.

Research on Organisational Behaviour in Sport

As suggested by the model presented here, “organizational behaviour provides a multidisciplinary view of what people do in organizational settings” (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1996, p. 8). The study of OB draws on the theory, methods and principles of other social science fields, including psychology, sociology, and cultural anthropology (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1996; Robbins, 1993). The focus is, however, specifically work-related behaviour. The goals of the study of OB are to attempt to explain, predict and ultimately manage human behaviour in the workplace (Robbins, 1993). Thus, the focus must be on relationships among variables, rather than purely descriptive accounts of individual and group characteristics, attitudes, and behaviours. The model presented here is useful for identifying independent and dependent variables, and the theoretical relationship(s) among them.

What we know about OB research in sport to this point can be gleaned from a number of reviews of sport management research in general (e.g., Parkhouse et al., 1982; Soucie & Doherty, 1996). From these it is possible to determine, to some extent, the relative focus on OB topics in particular. We are, however, inherently constrained by the classification systems used by the authors of those reviews, which may or may not clearly distinguish OB topics. Using the model presented here as a framework, we can consider the findings of the most extensive review of sport management research to date. Soucie and Doherty (1996) completed inductive analyses of doctoral dissertations in sport and physical education administration from 1949 to 1993, and sport management research in peer-reviewed journals from 1983 to 1993. It appears that 39% of the 582 dissertations examined OB topics. A total of 29% focussed on work environment factors, including qualifications and competencies of the administrator and the administrative job description (14%), leadership traits, behaviour, and power of the administrator (13%), and personnel management issues such as recruitment and selection, task assignment, staff development, and performance appraisal (2%). Eight percent of the dissertations analysed the outcomes of job satisfaction, motivation, attitudes towards roles, and stress and burnout. Based on a comparison with an inventory of doctoral research for the period 1949 to 1980 (Parkhouse et al., 1982), Soucie and Doherty suggested that recent trends were reflected in the relative emphasis on the competencies and leader behaviour of the sport manager, and examination of affective outcomes such as job satisfaction and stress (cf. Paton, 1987). According to the analysis of peer-reviewed journals (Soucie & Doherty, 1996), it appears that 29% of sport management articles focussed on OB topics. Half (15% total) of those concentrated on work environment issues of discrimination, equity, and affirmative action in the organisation. Without being able to make further distinctions, 10% of the articles addressed job attitudes, role conflict, and stress and burnout, and the organisational processes of performance appraisal and conflict management. Four percent focussed on leadership.

It appears that OB has not necessarily received the degree of attention in sport management research that some may perceive (cf. Paton, 1987; Slack, 1997). More importantly, it appears that OB research has tended to focus more on work environment factors, particularly the attributes and leader behaviour of the manager, and less on the affective and behavioural outcomes of the work environment.

A criticism of early sport management research was its atheoretical and descriptive orientation, and “[lack of] methodological rigor necessary for contributions to the development of scientific knowledge about administration” (Spaeth, 1967, p. 146). Theoretical relationships among concepts were not explored, the contexts of investigation were limited to physical education and athletics administration, sampling was often by convenience (students, faculty), and statistical analyses were inadequate to deal with the complexity of the research problem (Olafson, 1990; Paton, 1987; Spaeth, 1967). Two decades later, Paton (1987) noted that theories and instruments borrowed from other social science fields were increasingly used in sport management research. However, there continued to be an emphasis on descriptive rather than explanatory and predictive analyses (Olafson, 1990; Slack, 1991). Paton (1987) contended that descriptive research is fundamental to our knowledge and understanding of the state of sport management, and that it has helped to bridge the gap between management and social science theories and research in the sport context. However, an overreliance on descriptive or evaluative research limits the advancement of our knowledge base, and the effective management of sport.

A Review of the Research

In order to determine the current state of knowledge regarding OB and HRM in sport, a review of relevant literature was conducted. An electronic search was conducted through SPORTDiscus, a comprehensive sport science database with over 500,000 indexed publication references from around the world². The literature search focussed on the individual, group and organisational outcome variables described in the model here. A characteristic of the electronic search was the inclusion of any references that cited the particular outcome in the title or abstract (several variations of each term were used). The search was limited to English language publications in the 15 year period 1982–1998. The subsequent review of literature focussed on research studies and conceptual papers in the sport, recreation and leisure organisation contexts, but excluded those in the athletic context (e.g., coach as leader, athletes as organisation members, team as organisational unit³). Also excluded were studies about individual or group behaviour outside the organisation (e.g., conflict in the external environment).

The abstract of each publication, and the full text where available, was reviewed to determine (a) whether the study had a theoretical basis, according to the *a priori*

acknowledgement of potential relationships among concepts; (b) the research design (survey, case study) and primary data collection method (questionnaire, interview); (c) the context of the study; and (d) the use of descriptive/evaluative or explanatory/predictive analyses. Olafson (1990) identified a large proportion of sport management studies published in the 1980s as having a theoretical orientation, yet few researchers followed through with analyses that corresponded with the theoretical basis of the given research. Therefore, it was of interest here to consider whether the author(s) acknowledged a theoretical relationship among variables, and ultimately analysed that relationship. For theory-based studies that relied on explanatory/predictive analysis, independent and dependent variables were identified. The following review will consider what individual, group and organisational outcomes have been studied, in what context, and by what method. This will enable us to determine particular emphases and omissions in the research on OB in sport. The discussion will not attempt to summarise the findings of the OB studies — a task which is beyond the scope of any one paper (cf. Lambrecht & Hutson, 1997; Soucie, 1994).

A total of 114 studies were reviewed. However, multiple affective and/or behavioural outcomes were examined in a number of studies, thus, each outcome was counted as a study of that particular variable. On this basis, 137 outcomes were identified in the literature. The research on any particular outcome is described as a proportion of the total number of outcomes examined. It is possible that some relevant literature was missed. However, the diligent search of a large database lends confidence that the identified literature (as well as the relative emphasis on particular topics) is representative.

Affective Outcomes

Job Satisfaction. Over one third, and the majority of the literature reviewed on any one OB topic was concerned with job satisfaction. The studies examined satisfaction overall and/or satisfaction with specific aspects of the work environment. The specific aspects considered were predominantly organisational factors and to a lesser extent group factors. These factors included job design, supervision, rewards, degree of influence, opportunity for growth, communication, evaluation, and relationships with co-workers. A few studies focussed on one specific aspect of the work environment, such as compensation (Yen & McKinney, 1992) or leader behaviour (Doherty & Danylchuk, 1996). The underlying assumption of these studies was that satisfaction with one's job overall, or particular aspects, is a determinant of human resource effectiveness and further organisational effectiveness.

The job satisfaction studies were predominantly theoretical in nature, where a variety of variables were hypothesised as possible determinants of job satisfaction. A few non-theoretical studies simply measured levels of job satisfaction (e.g., Lehnus & Miller, 1996; Sullivan & Nashman, 1993). All but a few of the theoretical studies

ultimately conducted explanatory/predictive analyses. Two were conceptual papers that developed models of the relationships between individual attributes/job design factors and job satisfaction (Chelladurai & Kuga, 1996), and between shared power in decision making and job satisfaction (Massengale & Sage, 1995). Two other theory-based studies conducted descriptive analyses (Koehler, 1988; Summers, 1986).

The independent variables in any given study tended to include both individual and organisational factors. The individual factors were predominantly characteristics such as sex, work experience, age and education. A few studies considered personality as a determinant of job satisfaction (Kikulis, 1990; Shapiro, 1989; Teague, Van Dinter, Rosenthal, Retish, West, & Mobily, 1987), and one examined the effect of both gender role orientation and personality (Weaver, 1996). As possible determinants of job satisfaction, organisational factors tended to focus on (a) leader behaviour of one's superior (e.g., Jordan & Mertesdorf, 1994; Snyder, 1990, Wallace & Weese, 1995), (b) job design (e.g., Bell, 1990; Cleave, 1993; Nogradi, Yarkley, & Kanters, 1993; Robinson, 1996), or (c) both leader behaviour and job design (e.g., Li, 1993; Yang, 1995). A few studies examined the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational factors such as perceived decision making power (Inglis & Chelladurai, 1987; Louw, 1988), use of various power strategies (Albertain, 1988), and mentoring (communication) (Weaver, 1996). Another study examined person-organisational congruence in terms of common values and goals as a predictor of job satisfaction (Phelan, 1993). Job satisfaction was treated as an independent variable in a few studies, including its effect on motivation (Cleave, 1993) and burnout (Danylchuk, 1993).

With the exception of one study that used the case study design (Stroot, Collier, O'Sullivan, & England, 1994), the job satisfaction research was exclusively survey-based. A few studies relied primarily on interviews for data collection (e.g., Rail, 1987; Sullivan & Nashman, 1993). However, the questionnaire was typically the data collection method of choice. Half of the studies relied on borrowed instruments to measure job satisfaction — predominantly the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and/or Job in General Index (JIG), and to a lesser extent the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). In some studies these instruments were adapted to the specific context (e.g., Kikulis, 1990). The remaining studies developed new measures of job satisfaction for their respective settings.

One quarter of the job satisfaction studies were set in intercollegiate athletics, with over half of those focussed on athletic directors. A similar proportion of studies were in the recreation and leisure service setting, with most of those concerned with nonmanagerial staff. Studies that focussed on managerial and nonmanagerial staff and volunteers in provincial and national sport organisations, fitness/kinesiology/sport management graduates, teacher-coaches, and athletic trainers each made up one tenth of the job satisfaction research.

Stress and Burnout. The next most common OB topics were stress and

burnout, which together comprised one quarter of the literature reviewed. In many cases both affective outcomes were considered jointly, where burnout was examined as an extension of stress. Stress was typically indicated by the level of stressors experienced by an individual (e.g., role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload, time pressure) rather than as an overall level of stress. Burnout was also reported more often according to the specific states of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and low personal accomplishment rather than as a general affective state. Stress and burnout were regarded as negative outcomes, with further implications for organisation member attitudes, performance, and turnover, and ultimately organisational effectiveness.

It should be noted that the only *intrapersonal conflict* outcome identified in the literature was role conflict. As noted above, role conflict was invariably examined as a measure of individual stress.

All of the stress and burnout studies were theory-based and all but a few used explanatory/predictive analyses to examine whether these affective outcomes varied in relation to some determinant(s). The most common independent variables in the studies of stress were individual factors, particularly sex, age and work experience. Organisational factors, specifically job design and type of position, were considered in less than half of the stress studies. Stress, along with various work environment factors, was an independent variable in half of the burnout studies. Individual factors were examined in almost all of the burnout studies and tended to focus, again, on the characteristics of sex, age and work experience. A few studies considered the effect of personality (e.g., Capel, 1986; Vealey, Udry, Zimmerman, & Soliday, 1992). Group and organisational factors considered in the burnout research included social support, job design, opportunity for growth, leader behaviour, evaluation and communication. Although stress and burnout are assumed to be critical determinants of performance and turnover, a few studies examined the reciprocal effect of performance (win-loss record) on stress (Kelley, 1994) and burnout (Omotayo, 1991). Burnout was treated as an independent variable in two studies of the turnover intentions of sport officials (Rainey, 1995; Taylor, Daniel, Leith, & Burke, 1990).

All of the stress and burnout studies were based on survey research, and almost all relied on the questionnaire as the primary method of data collection. The stress studies tended to be based on new instruments developed for their respective studies, while the burnout research invariably relied on the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) with adaptations in some cases to the particular setting. The predominant focus of the stress and burnout studies was coaches, with one third of the studies set in the intercollegiate athletics context and a slightly lesser proportion in the high school setting. Another one third of the research was focussed equally on recreation and leisure service nonmanagerial staff, physical education teachers, and sport officials.

Motivation. Relatively fewer studies (7%) examined the level and further determinants of work motivation. Most of the studies generated by the literature

search were concerned with identifying motivators or needs — an individual factor in the work environment — rather than examining the level of individual motivation in the organisation, and the further implications of that attitude (e.g., performance, organisational effectiveness). Those studies that did consider motivation as an outcome were predominantly interested in a general attitude of work motivation (e.g., Cleave, 1993; Ferreira, 1988; Nogradi, 1983) rather than, for example, willingness to become involved in certain tasks or exert effort towards particular goals (e.g., Kuga, 1996). Motivation was treated as an independent variable in studies of job satisfaction and performance (Li, 1993) and organisational commitment (Nogradi, 1983).

The motivation studies were theoretical in nature, and all but one used further explanatory/predictive analyses. The hypothesised determinants of work motivation tended to include both individual characteristics (sex, age, education, work experience) and organisational factors (primarily job design). The predominant data collection method was the questionnaire, and the predominant context was recreation and leisure services with a focus at the nonmanagerial level. Other contexts included university physical education and sport administration, and sport club coaches.

Commitment. Commitment was the least frequently examined of the individual affective outcomes considered here (4%). It was assumed to have important implications for member performance and turnover. All of the studies were theory-based and further analysed the proposed relationship(s) between commitment and the particular independent variable(s). The proposed determinants of commitment in most of the studies were a combination of various work environment factors. Individual factors such as sex, age and work experience, and organisational factors such as job design were examined. One study also considered group-level processes such as conflict resolution, and group outcomes such as cohesion, as determinants of organisational commitment (Cuskelly, 1995). One study focussed on personality (Koslowsky & Maoz, 1988) and another looked at member relationships with various constituents (clients, coworkers, department, profession) (Winterstein, 1995) as discriminating variables in organisational commitment. The exclusively survey research studies relied on questionnaires to examine intercollegiate coaches and trainers, physical education teachers, recreation employees, sport club volunteers, and sport officials.

Group Conflict. The literature search identified very few studies that examined interpersonal or intergroup conflict and its determinants (2% of literature reviewed). The research was exclusively case study design. Two of the studies relied on interviews with members of voluntary sport organisations (Amis, Slack, & Berrett, 1995) and secondary school physical education and athletic departments (Wyatt, 1991). The studies revealed the subsequent emergence of organisation structure, and group composition and processes (leader behaviour, staffing, evaluation), respectively, as important source(s) of conflict. Another case study analysed the events and issues that preceded a “labour-management” salary dispute in professional sport, as well as

the factors that determined the resolution of that conflict (Staudohar, 1982).

Group Cohesion. The literature search did not identify any studies that examined the affective outcome of group cohesion or its determinants in the sport organisation setting. One study described organisational goal consensus and shared satisfaction with organisational performance among amateur sport executives as presumed indicators of member integration, however degree of integration was not measured (Yerles, 1982). Another study was identified, as already noted, that examined group cohesion as a possible determinant of organisational commitment (Cuskelly, 1995). The literature search revealed an extensive amount of cohesion research in the sports team setting (e.g., Brawley, Carron, & Widmeyer, 1993; Prapavessis, Carron, & Spink, 1996), although it was not included in this review.

Behavioural Outcomes

Entry and Turnover. One tenth of the OB literature addressed the entry and turnover of organisation members. These are important behaviours for management to understand and influence because of the direct implications for securing and retaining effective members. The literature review included descriptive studies of current members' reasons for becoming involved and former members' reasons for leaving because it is possible to directly associate the reasons for entering and leaving with the occurrence of those particular behaviours. However, it should be recognised that studies examining the effect of particular work environment factors on individuals who did and did not become involved, and the effect of work environment factors on turnover of individuals who did and did not leave, may be more valuable as explanatory/predictive tools. Intention to become involved and intention to leave may be equally useful outcome measures.

There was a predominantly theoretical orientation to the entry and turnover studies, most of which conducted further explanatory/predictive analyses. The literature included one conceptual paper proposing the effect of reward systems on member turnover (Shinew & Weston, 1992) and one basic research study of scale development from a model of the effect of various organisational and group factors on member retention (Inglis, Danylchuk, & Pastore, 1996). Half of the studies examined reasons why current members became involved (e.g., Furst, 1991; Malenfant, 1987; Pastore, 1992), and less than half examined why former members left (e.g., Hart, Hasbrook, & Mathes, 1986; Weiss & Sisley, 1984). Several studies considered the effect of certain factors on intention to leave (Rainey, 1995; Taylor et al., 1990). The proposed determinants of these entry/turnover behaviours were predominantly a combination of individual factors (particularly values and motives) and organisational factors (job design). A few studies examined the impact of affective outcomes, including work satisfaction, stress and burnout on turnover intention. All but one of the entry/turnover studies were survey-based research that relied on the

questionnaire for data collection. A variety of contexts were examined, including sport officials, teacher-coaches, and leisure service nonmanagerial employees.

Performance. Less than one tenth of the literature examined the behavioural outcome of performance, and only at the individual level. Performance was operationalised as both a process and a product of work. Measures included exertion of effort (Doherty & Danylchuk, 1996), successful performance of job-related tasks (e.g., Jordan & Mertesdorf, 1994; Nogradi et al., 1993), innovation (Curtner-Smith, 1997; Smidley, 1986), and win-loss record (Li, 1993). Both subjective (perceptions of self and others) and objective measures of performance were identified.

All but one of the publications were theory-based and analysed the effect of particular determinants on performance. Two of the theory-based papers were conceptual in nature, hypothesising the effect of shared power in decision making on performance (Massengale & Sage, 1995) and the effect of reward systems on productivity (Shinew & Weston, 1992). Half of the studies of performance examined leader behaviour alone (Doherty & Danlychuk, 1996; Smidley, 1986) and with other organisational factors (e.g., Li, 1993) as a possible determinant of subordinate performance. Few studies considered the effect of individual factors on performance (Curtner-Smith, 1997; Nogradi et al., 1993). The further impact of performance on organisational effectiveness or any other affective or behavioural outcomes was limited to the studies that examined the effect of coaches' win-loss record on stress and burnout (Kelley, 1984; Omotayo, 1991).

As with the research on other affective and behavioural outcomes, the majority of the survey studies of performance relied on the questionnaire for data collection. Half of the studies were set in the recreation and leisure service settings, while the other half were in the educational setting (teaching, coaching).

Organisational Effectiveness

The literature search revealed very few studies that examined the outcome of organisational effectiveness (OE). While a number of studies discussed possible implications for OE, very few (7%) actually examined the degree of OE, much less the contribution of work environment, attitudes or behaviours to that outcome. OE was examined from a variety of perspectives, including goal achievement (Bourner & Weese, 1995), constituent or client satisfaction (Weese, 1996), and various combinations of the goal achievement, constituent satisfaction, resource acquisition, and organisational process approaches (e.g., Branch, 1990; Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1991).

All of the studies had a theoretical orientation. However, several focussed exclusively on identifying indicators rather than determinants of OE (e.g., Frisby, 1986; Weese, 1997). Studies that examined the effect of independent variables focussed

exclusively on organisational factors — predominantly leader behaviour. One study considered the impact of the organisation's goals or ideological orientation (Koski, 1995) and another examined the effect of organisational culture (Weese, 1996) on OE. Perceived OE was an independent variable in one study that investigated its effect on job satisfaction (Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1991). All of the studies used a survey design which relied on questionnaires. Most were set in provincial and national sport organisations.

Discussion and Recommendations

A model for managing human resources was proposed as a framework for the review of OB research in sport, and to stimulate a discussion of past and future research efforts in the field. We can place existing research within this model, determine trends and gaps, and identify potentially relevant relationships to examine. Again, the model is not conceptually limited to the work environment factors and outcomes described here. Other work environment factors to consider include cultural diversity in the organisation (Doherty & Chelladurai, 1997), member empowerment (Robbins, 1993), and organisational change (Slack, 1997), all of which may have a critical impact on OB. We can also conceive of other affective and behavioural outcomes, such as individual or group morale, procrastination, and cooperation.

A review of OB research in sport focussed specifically on outcomes identified in the model for managing human resources. The purpose was to determine what, why, where, and how research has been conducted on important individual and group attitudes and behaviours in the workplace, and ultimately organisational effectiveness. In addition to what was reviewed here, there is a large body of literature addressing work environment factors. This is useful research because it describes and explains, often in greater detail, the individual, group and organisational attributes and processes that are the target of HRM strategies (e.g., individual motives, leader behaviour). However, the ultimate value of that research is its contribution to our understanding of important outcomes in the organisation. It is encouraging that the OB research studies reviewed here were predominantly theory-based, where hypothetical relationships were acknowledged *a priori*. It is also encouraging that further explanatory/predictive analyses of those relationships were conducted in the majority of studies (cf. Olafson, 1990). However, there is some basis for concern about the nature of independent variables, which will be discussed shortly.

There was still a notable reliance on survey research using questionnaires for data collection (cf. Olafson, 1990). This may be due to the availability of valid and reliable instruments established in non-sport settings (e.g., JDI, JIG, MBI). However, only half of the job satisfaction studies, which comprised the majority of the OB

research, relied on borrowed instruments. It is encouraging that many researchers are modifying these instruments to the sport setting and, in particular, developing new instruments for OB research in sport. We must, however, be rigorous in this process of development. Furthermore, the resulting instruments must be shown to be valid and reliable, and made available to other sport management researchers to further our body of knowledge and promote our self-sufficiency. There is certainly value in the broad investigation of OB in sport that is made possible by survey questionnaire research, particularly for measuring multiple variables and generalising to other sample groups and populations. However, we can advance research (especially the study of satisfaction, stress and burnout, which have received the most attention) by making it deeper and richer through the use of survey interviews and, particularly, case study research.

The literature review also revealed a considerable focus on the educational sport setting (cf. Olafson, 1990; Paton, 1987), particularly intercollegiate athletic administrators and coaches. Nevertheless, some other contexts are being explored, including sport officials, athletic trainers, sport club coaches, and sport marketing personnel. The deliberate inclusion in this review of studies in the recreation and leisure service context revealed extensive research on a number of OB topics, particularly at the nonmanagerial level, that contribute to the knowledge base of OB in sport in general. We need to continue to explore these and other relatively untapped settings to ensure that our research and knowledge base is relevant to HRM in sport. For example, only 5% of the OB research examined the attitudes and behaviours of volunteers, a unique human resource that is purported to be the mainstay for much of the delivery of sport and recreation services (Chelladurai, *in press*; Green & Chalip, 1998).

The research emphasis on job satisfaction suggests the distinctive importance attached to this particular outcome. We need, however, to consider the presumed relationship between job satisfaction and other outcomes such as performance and organisational effectiveness. Only a few studies examined the impact of job satisfaction on other affective or behavioural outcomes, including burnout and turnover. Recent reviews of job satisfaction research continue to indicate that satisfaction is not a strong predictor of performance (Lambrecht & Hutson, 1997; Robbins, 1993). In fact, the reciprocal relationship may be stronger (Johns, 1992). Furthermore, we need to distinguish the presumed, and known, implications of overall job satisfaction versus satisfaction with specific aspects. Research suggests that the more specific the attitude the better predictor it is of a specific behaviour (Robbins, 1993). What behaviour(s) might we expect as a result of specific satisfaction? Will satisfaction with some aspects negate dissatisfaction with others? We must consider what we know about the meaning and implications of this and any outcome for the individual and the organisation (cf. Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). Why is job satisfaction something the sport manager might be interested in cultivating in organisation members? Researchers

need to reflect carefully on what it is we are measuring, why, and how our research will contribute to the knowledge of OB and HRM in sport.

A further focus of the literature was individual factors as determinants of job satisfaction; particularly sex, age, work experience, and education. These easy-to-measure factors were used to try and explain any variation among organisation members for job satisfaction and other outcomes. These demographic variables may be better understood as moderators than as determinants (Thomas & Nelson, 1990). Similarly, we need to question the contribution that the, sometimes exclusive, focus on these variables makes to our understanding of outcomes such as job satisfaction and HRM. A careful reading of the literature suggests that the relationship between individual characteristics and affective outcomes derives from the individual's underlying values. In other words, sex, age, work experience, and education are presumed to be indicators of particular values and beliefs. Doherty and Chelladurai (1997) argued that we need to take into account the unique personal identities of individuals, rather than rely on predetermined characteristics, as a window into their attitudes and behaviours. We tend to rely too heavily on the presumed relevance of certain individual factors, which may not provide an accurate indication of individual values, beliefs or motives. A few studies moved away from the overreliance on demographic variables by examining such factors as personality and gender-role orientation.

Our knowledge of the determinants of stress is relatively limited to individual factors, particularly sex, age and work experience. Less than half of the stress studies examined the effect of such organisational and group factors as job design, leader behaviour, and social support from coworkers on indicators of stress such as role conflict, role overload and time pressure. We need to know more about the potential impact of these factors, which for HRM purposes may be easier to manipulate individual characteristics. In contrast, performance consistently considers individual factors as determinants of affective and behavioural outcomes. Perhaps it is more clearly apparent that an understanding of job performance requires us to consider ways that individual attributes may impact or moderate the relationships among organisational factors emphasised in the literature and particular performance measures.

Even though stress has potentially positive implications for performance (Robbins, 1993), the literature focussed invariably on its negative outcomes. If stress is inevitable in the organisation (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1996), it is important to know whether its manifestation is positive or negative, and what managers can do to maximise the former and minimise the latter. Like stress, interpersonal and intergroup conflict can be either constructive or destructive for individuals, groups and the organisation (Slack, 1997). However, very little research addresses this topic. If, like stress, conflict is inevitable in the organisation, then we must expand our understanding of this outcome and its effective management.

The literature search for work motivation research identified several studies that focussed on describing and explaining individual motives in the organisation rather than the actual level of motivation and its determinants. Many of these studies are based on theories of motivation that derive from non-sport settings. These studies assume that the structure and content of motivation are the same in sport contexts as in other organisational settings. However, that has not been demonstrated empirically. We need to determine whether motivation is structured or determined differently in sport contexts than in other organisational settings. We must also expand our understanding of motivation with regard to its implications for human resource effectiveness and OE. Research was predominantly interested in work motivation as a general attitude. It may be more relevant, however, to consider motivation as an affective outcome in specific terms, such as willingness to exert effort towards a particular goal, or to become involved in a particular task. Again, research suggests that the more specific an attitude measure is, the better it predicts specific behaviours (Robbins, 1993).

When one considers that committees are inevitable and instrumental to the management and delivery of sport (e.g., Cuskelly, 1995; Slack, 1997), it is somewhat surprising that sport management research has not considered group cohesion, or any other attitudes or behaviours of the work group or the individual's experience as a member. Extensive work has focussed on the individual, group and organisational determinants and further outcomes of group cohesion in the sport team setting. We need to develop our knowledge base specifically about groups and their members in the sport organisation. To do this, it may be necessary to follow the lead of sport psychology researchers (e.g., Brawley et al., 1987, 1993; Brawley & Paskevich, 1997; Prapavessis et al., 1996).

If the proportion of literature that focussed on OE is an indication, it would seem that we know relatively little about OE, including the contribution of human resources. The importance of human resources to OE is implied by a few studies that found little or no effect of leader behaviour on OE, without taking into account the intervening attitudes and behaviours of individuals and groups (e.g., Bourner & Weese, 1995; Branch, 1990). These studies highlight the role of individual and group attitudes and behaviours as critical determinants of OE, as proposed in the model. We need to explore further the effects of workplace attitudes and behaviours on OE. A number of studies have made commendable efforts to identify and establish measures of OE in sport. These must be incorporated into OB research to explore the impact of human resources on OE.

The external environment is a significant component of the model proposed here. Certainly, more research is needed that examines the role of external environment factors, such as societal expectations, professional ethics and family pressures that may be reflected in the individual's values, needs, and non-work stress. These factors may be beyond the control of the manager, but it is important to know what they are

and how they shape the individual and the organisation. Similarly, it is important to understand and recognise the influence of external environment factors on the organisation and its HRM processes.

The model also recognises, but very little research has examined, reciprocal relationships among outcomes and work environment factors, such as the impact of OE on attitudes and behaviours, and the impact of these outcomes on the work environment. This is an important part of the HRM puzzle and one of many facets that can benefit from OB research in sport.

The emphases and gaps in the variables, analyses, contexts, and methods utilised in OB research in sport are apparent. These provide useful guidelines for future investigations into problems and issues in the practice of sport management.

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Notes

- 1 Until the mid 1970s, sport management textbooks focussed on administrative principles in physical education and athletics. They essentially “ignored management analysis and organization theory ... and paid little attention to human relations” (Paton, 1987, p. 26). According to Paton, post-1975 textbooks were oriented more heavily toward management theory, “including a greater focus on the dynamics of people” (p. 27). Sport management textbooks in the 1990s continued to focus predominantly, if not exclusively, on topics such as management principles, organisation theory, marketing, and legal aspects. However, there is limited consideration of organisational behaviour and its management, particularly from a theoretical perspective.
- 2 The SPORTDiscus database compiled by SIRC (Sport Information Resource Centre, Canada) is the most comprehensive index of sport-related publications in the world. In addition to indexing by SIRC, SPORTDiscus is augmented by the inclusion of other sport science databases, including Heracles (France) and Atlantis (Spain), and the contributions of other indexing partners such as the National Sport Information Resource Centre (Australia).
- 3 Affective and behavioural outcomes in the athletic context have received considerable attention in the sport psychology literature.