

Corporate Social Responsibility Implementation in Non-Profit Sport Organisations

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ENGLISH SUMMARY

Sport is believed to create positive economic, cultural, health and social values. At the same time, it faces ethical, social and environmental challenges. Through corporate social responsibility (CSR) programmes, sport organisations may stimulate sport's positive social side and counter and/or prevent its negative side. CSR is broadly defined as “the responsibility of enterprises [organisations] for their impacts on society” (European Commission 2011). In a CSR perspective, besides their economic (or their sport delivery core missions) and legal duties, sport organisations have ethical and discretionary responsibilities towards society and are considered as potential change agents.

The scholarly debate about CSR within the sport management field focuses almost exclusively on for-profit sport organisations or “highly profitable not for profit sport organisations” while paying little attention to traditional non-profit sport organisations. Yet, these organisations are increasingly addressing such issues under the scope of CSR or any related notion.

Given this context, the purpose of this dissertation is to provide insights into the implementation of CSR programmes by non-profit sport organisations. This dissertation provides important insights on three main elements of CSR implementation, namely organisational determinants, collaborations and organisational learning.

The focus of this study is on sport federations – those sport governing bodies in charge of the organisation of specific sporting codes and the representatives of their sport. As the study also considers how sport federations build on their sport-federated network, internal and external stakeholders have also been incorporated (e.g., sport clubs, state and national bodies, public authorities, non-profit partners).

The dissertation is structured in three parts. First, a general introduction outlines the main research concepts and theoretical frameworks.

Second, an original research part presents the three original empirical studies. A first paper examines the organisational factors of sport federations related to CSR implementation. It encompasses a mixed method study using a questionnaire, document analysis and interviews on the CSR presence, characteristics of the CSR

programmes and the organisational resources associated with CSR implementation. Data are analysed using qualitative comparative analysis (QCA). This study is conducted with Flemish and Walloon sport federations. Based on the QCA, this study reveals that a higher professionalised sport federation is not automatically associated with a high implementation of CSR. Findings show that there is no one best way to implement CSR: there are different pathways to CSR implementation depending on how sport federations combine their critical assets. Sport federations possess critical resources that may allow them to implement CSR according to different combinations of organisational factors. These factors are: professionalisation of the staff; staff involvement in the board; innovative capability; financial independence and; knowledge of CSR. Moreover, findings show that organisational size is not a critical factor related to CSR implementation.

A second paper focuses on collaborative strategies adopted by non-profit organisations to implement CSR. Despite numerous studies examining cross-sectoral social collaboration, non-profit collaborations have so far not been empirically investigated. This study examines the motives of non-profit sport organisations to collaborate with other non-profits organisations, in our case, between sport hockey federations and sport clubs. Drawing on an in-depth case study, this study reveals that partners demonstrate similarity in their motives to collaborate due to their organisational fit, but with some key differences in the complementary resources they seek. This suggests that a high degree of organisational characteristics and motives fit among partners might increase chances to deliver social good at this stage prior to the collaboration implementation. In this sport context, the network of partners is relatively dense and the degree of fit is important. This study indicates that organisational legitimacy, and resource exchange needs required for CSR programmes are driving the collaboration rather than organisational survival needs. Non-profit organisations' motivations stemmed from the potential to create social value from the CSR programmes implemented through collaboration. As such, this non-profit collaboration form is unique because CSR programmes are the catalyst of the collaboration.

A third and final paper broadens the scope of sport management research to a multilevel perspective for the study of CSR implementation. It contends that CSR and organisational learning are interrelated because CSR implementation entails

substantial learning processes for the organisation and its members in order to successfully unfold CSR within the organisation. Based on interviews and organisational documents, this study explores the dynamic interaction between different levels of the learning process through which the hockey federation implement CSR. This study reveals that organisational learning for CSR is a critical multilevel and dynamic process that consists of learning sub processes at the intra-organisational and inter-organisational levels. CSR requires both learning new ways of incorporating CSR practices, as well as embedding into the organisation what has already been learnt. Findings emphasise that key individuals capitalising on both expert and entrepreneurial intuitions are influential to impulse CSR. Data show that informal and formal groups were identified as strong repositories of learning, while external stakeholders are essential sources of learning intertwined within the organisation with the work of inter-organisational boundary spanners.

Third, the general discussion ends this dissertation. These three studies have important implications for sport and non-profit management as well as business ethics research. In particular, the development of a theoretical framework to analyse CSR implementation by non-profit sport organisations constitutes an original contribution to the understanding of the CSR phenomenon. More broadly, the theoretical implications of this dissertation encourage a more constructive line of thinking of CSR that searches for the distinctive and similar patterns for all organisations, including non-profit organisations. The general discussion presents the limitations of this study, as well as some future research perspectives and practical suggestions for non-profit sport organisations.

DUTCH SUMMARY

Terwijl sport geacht wordt positieve economische, culturele, gezondheids-gerelateerde en sociale waarden te creëren, wordt sport tegelijkertijd ook geconfronteerd met aanhoudende ethische, sociale en milieu-gerelateerde undagingen. Door middel van maatschappelijk verantwoord ondernemen (MVO) kunnen sportorganisaties de positieve en, sociale kant van sport stimuleren en de negatieve kant van sport voorkomen of counteren. MVO wordt in brede zin omschreven als "de verantwoordelijkheid van bedrijven voor het effect dat ze [organisaties] op de samenleving hebben" (European Commission 2011). Vanuit een MVO perspectief hebben sport organisaties – naast hun economische (of hun sportieve missie) en juridische verplichtingen – ook ethische en discretionaire verantwoordelijkheden te aanzien van de samenleving. Sportorganisaties kunnen gezien worden als potentiële veranderingsagenten.

Het wetenschappelijke debat in sport management omtrent MVO focust bijna exclusief op *for-profit* sportorganisaties, terwijl er weinig aandacht wordt besteed aan non-profit sportorganisaties. Desondanks zijn deze non-profit sportorganisaties in toenemende mate actief onder de noemer van MVO.

Gelet op deze context heeft dit proefschrift tot doel om meer inzicht te krijgen in hoe non-profit sportorganisaties organisatorische en strategische veranderingen ondergaan wanneer zij MVO implementeren. Dit proefschrift reikt belangrijke inzichten aan over drie elementen van MVO implementatie, namelijk organisatorische determinanten, samenwerkingen en organisatorisch leren.

Dit proefschrift focust op sportfederaties, zijnde de organisaties die verantwoordelijk zijn voor de organisatie van een specifieke sport en die de vertegenwoordigers zijn van deze sport. Aangezien dit dissertatie ook nagaat hoe sportfederaties bouwen op hun sportfederatie-netwerk, worden interne en externe stakeholders ook opgenomen in de studie (vb. sportclubs, nationale organisaties, publieke autoriteiten en non-profit partners).

Dit proefschrift is opgebouwd aan de hand van drie delen. Eerst is er een algemene inleiding waarin de voornaamste onderzoeksconcepten en het theoretisch kader worden geschetst.

Daarna volgt een tweede deel waarin de drie originele empirische studies worden voorgesteld. Een eerste studie bestudeert de organisatorische determinanten die relevant zijn om MVO te implementeren in sportfederaties. Deze studie houdt een *mixed method* onderzoeksdesign in, waarbij gebruik gemaakt wordt van een vragenlijst, documentanalyse en interviews over de aanwezigheid van MVO, de eigenschappen van de MVO programma's en de organisatorische middelen die nodig zijn om MVO te implementeren. Data werden geanalyseerd door middel van kwalitatieve vergelijkende analyse (QCA). Deze studie vond plaats in samenwerking met Vlaamse en Waalse sportfederaties. Op basis van de QCA toont deze studie aan dat een sterker geprofessionaliseerde sportfederatie automatisch leidt tot een sterkere implementatie van MVO. Resultaten geven voorts aan dat er geen ideale manier is om MVO te implementeren: er zijn verschillende manieren om MVO te implementeren, afhankelijk van het feit hoe sportfederaties hun kritieke middelen combineren gegeven hun unieke combinatie van organisatorische determinanten. Deze determinanten zijn: professionalisering van de personeelsstaf, de betrokkenheid van de staf in het bestuur, innovatieve capaciteit, financiële onafhankelijkheid en kennis over MVO.

Een tweede studie focust op samenwerkingsstrategieën die door non-profit organisaties worden aangewend om MVO te implementeren. Ondanks het bestaan van talrijke studies die cross-sectorale sociale samenwerking bestuderen, werden non-profit samenwerkingen tot op heden nog niet empirisch onderzocht. Deze studie onderzoekt de motieven van non-profit sportorganisaties om samen te werken met andere non-profit organisaties, in ons geval tussen hockey federaties en sport clubs. De grondige case studie dat ten gevolge van hun organisatorische fit partners gelijkaardige motieven om samen te werken etaleren maar met enkele belangrijke verschillen in de complementaire middelen die ze zoeken. Dit doet uitschijnen dat een sterke fit tussen partners, inzake organisatorische eigenschappen en motieven, de kansen om sociale meerwaarde te creëren, nog voor de implementatie van de samenwerking, kan verhogen. In het geval van sport heeft het netwerk van partners een hoge densiteit en is de mate van fit belangrijk. Deze studie suggereert dat de legitimiteit van de organisatie en de nood aan uitwisseling van middelen, en niet de overlevingskansen, de stuwende krachten vormen voor de samenwerking in het kader van MVO programma's, eerder dan organisatorische overlevingsnoden. De motieven van non-profit organisaties komen voort uit het potentieel om sociale waarde te creëren

door de MVO programma's en via de samenwerkingsverbanden. Als dusdanig is deze non-profit samenwerkingsvorm uniek omdat de MVO programma's de katalysatoren zijn van de samenwerking.

Een derde en finale studie verbreedt de blik van sportmanagement onderzoek naar een meervoudig perspectief op de studie van MVO implementatie. Deze studie gaat uit van de veronderstelling dat MVO en organisationeel leren samenhangen, aangezien de implementatie van MVO substantiële leerprocessen inhoudt voor de organisatie en haar leden om MVO op een succesvolle manier uit te rollen in de organisatie. Op basis van interviews en documenten exploreert deze studie de dynamische interactie tussen de verschillende niveaus van het leerproces bij de implementatie van MVO door hockey federatie. Deze studie onthult dat organisatieel leren een function van MVO een kritiek *multilevel* en dynamisch proces is. Het bestaat bovendien uit verschillende sub-processen op zowel intra als inter-organisationeel niveau. MVO vereist zowel het leren van nieuwe manieren om MVO praktijken te incorporeren, alsook het inbedden in de organisatie van hetgeen al geleerd is. Resultaten benadrukken dat sleutelfiguren die inzetten op zowel expert-gerelateerde als ondernemers intuïties belangrijk zijn om impulsen te geven aan MVO. Data tonen aan dat dit organisationeel leren sterk ingebed zit in informele en formele groepen, terwijl externe stakeholders essentiële bronnen van leren zijn via de connecties met de *boundary spanners*.

Tot slot is er een algemene discussie op het einde van het proefschrift. Deze drie studies hebben belangrijke implicaties voor sport en non-profit management, alsook voor onderzoek naar MVO. In het bijzonder biedt de ontwikkeling van een theoretisch model voor de analyse van MVO implementatie door de nonprofit sportsector een originele bijdrage die leidt tot een beter begrip van MVO. Bovendien vormt de theoretische bijdrage van dit proefschrift een aanzet tot een meer constructieve en volledige visie op MVO waarbij inzicht wordt geboden op de specifieke versus generieke kenmerken van MVO voor alle organisaties, waaronder nonprofit organisaties. De algemene discussie presenteert de beperkingen van deze studie, alsook enkele perspectieven voor verder onderzoek en aanbevelingen voor non-profit sportorganisaties in de praktijk.

FRENCH SUMMARY

Le sport est considéré comme créateur de valeurs économiques, culturelles, hygiéniques et sociales positives, mais, dans un même temps, fait face à des défis éthiques, sociaux et environnementaux. A travers des projets de responsabilité sociale des entreprises (RSE), les organisations sportives peuvent stimuler le côté positif du sport et contrebalancer et / ou prévenir son côté négatif. La RSE est définie comme « la responsabilité des entreprises [organisations] vis-à-vis des effets qu'elles exercent sur la société » (Commission européenne, 2011). Selon une perspective RSE, les organisations sportives ont, à côté de leurs obligations économiques (ou leurs missions de base de prestataire sportif) et légales, des responsabilités et sont considérées comme de potentiels agents de changement.

Les travaux scientifiques sur la RSE dans le domaine du management sportif se focalisent presque exclusivement sur les organisations sportives professionnelles à but lucratif ou sur les organisations sportives sans but lucratif hautement rentables sans porter attention aux organisations sportives sans but lucratif plus traditionnelles. Pourtant, ces organisations traitent de plus en plus de ces questions sous l'appellation RSE ou sous d'autres notions associées.

Dans ce contexte, l'objectif de cette thèse de doctorat est de comprendre comment les organisations sportives à but non lucratif intègrent les changements organisationnels et stratégiques lors de l'implémentation de pratiques RSE. Cette thèse de doctorat fournit des enseignements sur trois éléments principaux de l'implémentation de la RSE, à savoir : les déterminants organisationnels, les collaborations, et l'apprentissage organisationnel.

Cette étude porte sur les fédérations sportives – les instances dirigeantes sportives responsables de l'organisation de codes sportifs et les représentants du sport. Cette étude considérant également comment les fédérations sportives se fondent sur leur réseau sportif fédéré, les parties prenantes internes et externes y sont donc également intégrés (ex; clubs sportifs, instances nationales, autorités publiques, partenaires sans buts lucratifs)

Cette thèse de doctorat est structurée en trois parties. Premièrement, une introduction générale expose les principaux concepts de la recherche et les cadres conceptuels.

Deuxièmement, la partie recherche originale présente les trois études empiriques originales qui composent le portfolio de cette thèse de doctorat. Une première étude examine les déterminants organisationnels des fédérations sportives pour implémenter de la RSE. Elle se fonde sur une méthode mixte de recherche utilisant une enquête, des documents organisationnels et des interviews sur la présence de la RSE, les caractéristiques des programmes RSE et sur les ressources organisationnelles nécessaires pour implémenter la RSE. Les données ont été analysés grâce à l'analyse comparative qualitative (QCA). Cette étude a été réalisée auprès de fédérations sportives francophones et néerlandophones. L'analyse QCA révèle qu'un haut niveau de professionnalisation n'implique pas un haut niveau d'implémentation de la RSE. Les résultats montrent en fait qu'il n'existe pas une manière idéale pour implémenter la RSE : plusieurs trajectoires existent selon la manière dont les fédérations sportives combinent leurs atouts essentiels. Les fédérations sportives possèdent en effet des ressources essentielles qui peuvent leurs permettre d'implémenter la RSE selon différentes combinaisons de déterminants organisationnels. Ces déterminants sont : la professionnalisation du personnel rémunéré, l'implication stratégique du staff, la capacité d'innovation, l'indépendance financière et la connaissance de la RSE. Par ailleurs, les résultats ont montré que la taille organisationnelle n'était pas un déterminant essentiel pour l'implémentation de la RSE.

Une deuxième étude porte sur les stratégies collaboratives adoptées par les organisations sans but lucratif pour implémenter la RSE. Malgré les nombreuses recherches examinant les collaborations sociales cross-sectorielles, les collaborations non-profits n'ont jusqu'à présent pas été examinée empiriquement. Cette étude considère tout particulièrement les motivations des organisations sportives sans but lucratif à collaborer avec d'autres organisations à but non lucratif, dans le cas présent, entre les fédérations sportives de hockey et ses clubs sportifs. S'appuyant sur une étude de cas approfondie, cette étude révèle que les partenaires possèdent des motivations similaires à collaborer en raison de leur adéquation organisationnelle, avec toutefois quelques différences essentielles dans les ressources complémentaires qu'ils recherchent. Cela suggère qu'une forte adéquation des caractéristiques organisationnelles et des motivations entre les partenaires pourrait augmenter les chances de générer du bien commun. Dans ce contexte sportif, le réseau de

partenaires est relativement dense et l'adéquation est importante. Cette étude indique que la légitimité organisationnelle et le besoin d'échange de ressources pour les programmes de RSE favorisent la collaboration plutôt que les besoins de survie de l'organisation. Les motivations des organisations à but non lucratif découlent du potentiel de création de valeur sociale des programmes de RSE implémentés à travers la collaboration. A ce titre, cette forme de collaboration à but non lucratif est unique car les programmes de RSE sont le catalyseur de la collaboration.

Une troisième et dernière étude élargit le champ de la recherche en management du sport avec une perspective multi-niveaux pour l'étude de l'implémentation de la RSE. Cette étude soutient que la RSE et l'apprentissage organisationnel sont interdépendants, car l'implémentation de la RSE implique des processus d'apprentissage fondamentaux pour l'organisation et ses membres afin de déployer la RSE avec succès au sein de l'organisation. Sur base d'entretiens et de documents organisationnels, cette étude explore l'interaction dynamique entre les différents niveaux du processus d'apprentissage au travers desquels la fédération sportive de hockey implémente la RSE. Cette étude révèle que l'apprentissage organisationnel en matière de RSE est un processus dynamique à plusieurs niveaux qui consiste en des sous-processus d'apprentissage aux niveaux intra-organisationnel et inter-organisationnel. La RSE nécessite à la fois d'apprendre de nouvelles façons d'intégrer les pratiques de RSE et d'intégrer dans l'organisation ce qui a déjà été appris. Les résultats soulignent que les personnes clés capitalisant sur les intuitions des experts et des entrepreneurs sont déterminantes pour l'impulsion de la RSE. Les données récoltées montrent que des groupes formels et informels ont été identifiés comme de puissants référentiels d'apprentissage, tandis que des parties prenantes externes sont des sources essentielles d'apprentissage étroitement liées au sein de l'organisation, au travail des « passeurs de frontières inter-organisationnels ».

Troisièmement, la discussion générale clôture cette thèse de doctorat. Ces trois études ont des implications importantes pour la recherche en management du sport et des organisations à but non lucratif, ainsi que pour la recherche en éthique des affaires. En particulier, le développement d'un cadre théorique pour analyser l'implémentation de la RSE par des organisations sportives sans but lucratif constitue une contribution originale à la compréhension de la RSE. Plus généralement, les implications théoriques dressées dans cette thèse invitent d'autres recherches à

développer une réflexion plus constructive de la RSE afin d'explorer les tendances distinctes et similaires pour l'ensemble des organisations, en ce compris les organisations sans but lucratif. La discussion générale présente les limites de cette étude, ainsi que certaines perspectives de recherche futures. Enfin, nous formulons des recommandations pratiques pour les organisations sportives à but non lucratif.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADEPS Administration de l'Education Physique, des Sports et de la vie en plein air

AISF Association Interfédérale du Sport Francophone

ARBH Association Royale Belge de Hockey

BOIC Belgian Olympic Interfederal Committee

CEO Chief Executive Officer

CSR Corporate Social Responsibility

csQCA Crisp-set Qualitative Comparative Analysis

EASM European Association for Sport Management

ECA European Club Association

EFDN European Football and Development Network

fsQCA Fuzzy-set Qualitative Comparative Analysis

IOC International Olympic Committee

LHF Ligue Handisport Francophone

LFH Ligue Francophone de Hockey

MLB Major League Baseball

MNE Multinational Entreprises

mvQCA Multi-value Qualitative Comparative Analysis

NASSM North-American Society for Sport Management

NBA National Basketball Association

NFL National Football League

NHL National Hockey League

NPO Non-profit organisation

NPSO Non-profit sport organisation

OL Organizational Learning

QCA Qualitative Comparative Analysis

SF Sport federation

SME Small and Medium Enterprises

UN United Nations

URBSFA Union royale belge des sociétés de football association

VSF Vlaamse sport federatie

VVG Vlaamse Vereniging voor Golf

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PART I. GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction

Sport and society are intrinsically entangled. This intersection has resulted in a heightened interest on the part of the academic community (Coalter, 2007; Giulianotti, 2015c; Jarvie, 2003; Schulenkorf, 2017). For instance, research on the broader social role of sport is to be found in many research areas including social change or sport for development (or sport for development and peace) (Schulenkorf, Sherry, & Rowe, 2016; Sherry, Schulenkorf, & Chalip, 2015), sport development (Schulenkorf, Sherry, & Phillips, 2016; Sherry, Schulenkorf, & Phillips, 2016), social innovation, community-based entrepreneurship (Bjärsholm, 2017; Ratten, 2011), and corporate social responsibility (CSR). This field puts particular emphasis on the role of sport in the processes of social change, social movement and social impact. Indeed, sport is recognised as having an important social function and a powerful cultural force. Scholars have explored how sport can contribute, for instance, to peace-building, development, crime reduction, education and training, health promotion, gender empowerment, economic decline, social cohesion and community building (Coalter, 2007; Giulianotti, 2015b). In the wake of pressing contemporary international issues such as international migration and global warming, sport is also increasingly perceived to be a cost effective antidote – but not the magic elixir - to alleviate these social problems (Ross & Leopkey, 2017).

Concomitantly, governance, social, environmental, and ethical wrongdoings are capturing the world's attention as never before. It is hard not to heave a weary sigh, as these numerous issues are laid bare in press releases almost every day. These include performance enhancement (Dimeo, 2007; Mazanov, 2016; Waddington & Smith, 2013), violence (Guilbert, 2004; Matthews & Channon, 2017; Young, 2013), sex and labour trafficking, inequality issues (discrimination because of gender, disability, cultural, ethnicity, religion or sexual orientation), fair play violations and cheating (Loland, 2013), corruption (Kihl, 2017; Mason, Thibault, & Misener, 2006), sexual harassment and abuse (Vertommen, Schipper-van Veldhoven, Hartill, & Van Den Eede, 2015), and physical and psychological integrity issues (De Waegeneer, 2015; McNamee, 2010). These sport-specific and societal issues occur in all layers of the sport segments that range from the local club level to the most international federation or mega event levels. As Kihl (2017, p. 1) noted, “the political, commercial, and

individual/renegade group interests across the global sport industry provide a wide range of opportunities for both individual and organisational malfeasance to occur in both the for-profit and non-profit sporting sectors". These issues have damaged the integrity and legitimacy of sport (Bayle, 2015a; Geeraert, 2015; Kihl, 2017; O'Boyle & Bradbury, 2013; Shilbury, 2016). Over the last decades, the commodification and the commercialisation of sport have amplified these governance and ethical wrongdoings, resulting in an international crisis of sport (Geeraert, 2015; Kihl, 2017; Shilbury, 2016).

These issues - within and outside the sport field - are challenges that should be perceived as opportunities for sport organisations to engage for society. Sport organisations are indeed expected to demonstrate a greater commitment and contribution to society through positive social actions to counter the 'sport dark side' (Petroczi, 2009) and eventually reinforcing sport's positive social side. This counterbalance opportunity eventually encourages sport organisations to address community and social issues under the scope of corporate social responsibility (CSR). As the dissertation shall explain more fully below, CSR represents one component of this vast field of sport's wider social role.

This study is grounded on the following questions: are all organisations concerned by social responsibility? Does it only apply to classical business organisations or does it also apply to all organisations, such as non-profit organisations? Questions of this type have been posed very sharply in the business world in recent decades, and the results have boosted the worldwide CSR movement. In the case of Small and Medium Size Enterprises (SMEs) for instance, an increasing number of initiatives aiming at engaging SMEs in the CSR agenda have matured in recent years, with areas in which it distinguished itself from the broader CSR literature (Fassin, 2008; Jenkins, 2006; Soundararajan, Jamali, & Spence, 2018).

Less recognised has been the parallel movement in which non-profit as well, are increasingly responding to questions about their social responsibility (Lin-Hi, Hörisch, & Blumberg, 2015; Pope, Bromley, Lim, & Meyer, 2018). Recently, Pope et al. (2018) claimed "broad cultural forces are currently leading all organisations, including non-profits, whose positive impacts on society have long been nearly taken for granted, to discuss their social impacts in the explicit language of social responsibility" (page 6).

This study builds on this assumption recently spread in the non-profit setting and supports its applicability to the non-profit sport sector.

In the sport management literature, scholars have started to develop a certain interest in CSR since the 90s. Today, CSR has become a well-established research field (Walzel, Robertson, & Anagnostopoulos, 2018) revealing unique features such as passion, rules of fair play, high profile players, health and physical activity foundations of sport, economic power and a complex set of stakeholders to name a few (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007).

However, the diversity of the sport setting has not been fully represented in existing studies examining CSR so far. Yet, international and national sport governing bodies are increasingly setting up CSR programmes (Bayle, 2015b; Buscarini & Mura, 2013; Chelladurai, 2016; Walker, Kaplanidou, et al., 2013) while research also reported community sport clubs' involvement in environmental and social initiatives (Babiak & Misener, 2015; Hoeber, Doherty, Hoeber, & Wolfe, 2015; Robertson, Eime, & Westerbeek, 2018).

This lack of attention paid to the social responsibility of non-profit sport organisations is surprising given the increased complexity, and the many irresponsible behaviours related to managing non-profit organisations (Fassin, 2009; Gibelman & Gelman, 2004), and sport organisations in particular (Hums, Barr, & Gullion, 1999; Kihl, 2017). Further, the non-profit perspective is of particular interest because of the complexity of social problems non-profits are addressing and the resource constraints of the sector (Shumate, Hsieh, & O'Connor, 2018). This research intends to further this current body of work by further examining CSR in the context of sport federations.

A central concern in management research and business practices is how to develop and implement strategically integrated CSR policies. CSR implementation is an important segue to study how organisations respond to expectations of socially responsible behaviours. What matters beyond written and stated CSR intentions is how organisations actually translate their social responsible principles into effective actions. This translation into actual managerial practices remains a challenge for many organisations given the complexity and multidisciplinary approach surrounding CSR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Asif, Searcy, Zutshi, & Fisscher, 2013; Carroll & Shabana, 2010; Maon, Lindgreen, & Swaen, 2008).

CSR implementation entails complex processes and represents considerable challenges for contemporary organisations. It requires major adaptations at the strategic, organisational and operational levels (Fortis, Maon, Frooman, & Reiner, 2017). To implement CSR in a substantive and integrative way, Maon, Lindgreen, and Swaen (2010) reported that organisations need to rely on adapted or renewed values, norms, attitudes, and competences. The development of CSR prompts important changes in the culture, the value of the organisation, the processes, the structures, the interaction with stakeholders, and in the daily activities (Baumann-Pauly, Wickert, Spence, & Scherer, 2013; Baumgartner, 2014; Cramer, Van Der Heijden, & Jonker, 2006; Maon et al., 2008, 2010).

Little is known about how non-profit sport organisations implement CSR. There is general agreement in the literature that non-profit and professional sport organisations fundamentally possess different characteristics (Winand, Zintz, Bayle, & Robinson, 2010).

In this context, CSR implementation scholars argue that there is no such thing as a one-size-fits-all CSR 'solution' (Schwartz & Tilling, 2009; Smith, 2003; Van Marrewijk, 2003). As acknowledged by Maon (2010), each organisation "must develop its own CSR vision and strategy, depending on its unique set of features and objectives and on the particular characteristics and expectations of its various stakeholders" (page 14). It is therefore crucial to examine the dynamics and mechanisms that uniquely characterise the adoption of CSR principles by non-profit sport organisations to understand how CSR unfolds in these organisations. This dissertation intends to contribute to the development of empirical insights that offer new knowledge of the implementation process and the specific patterns associated with the non-profit sport context. Doing so, our efforts are to bridge the gap between non-profit sport and CSR research and create new meaning and understanding between these two unique facets of sport management theory and practice. The next section discusses the purpose of this dissertation and the related research questions.

2. Purpose of the Dissertation and Research Questions

Despite their rising importance in the non-profit sector, the dynamic, complex and interactive processes underlying the integration of CSR in non-profit sport organisations strategies and operations remain under-explored. Beyond examining the motivations and the nature of the practices developed by certain proactive non-profit sport organisations, empirical studies exploring how organisations in the non-profit sector implement such practices are scarce.

a. Purpose of the Dissertation

In this context, the comprehensive purpose of this doctoral dissertation is to contribute to highlighting the main determinants, patterns, mechanisms, dynamics, and micro-processes associated with the implementation of CSR by non-profit sport organisations. In light of this research purpose, the following general research question is being addressed in this dissertation: *How do non-profit sport organisations implement CSR programmes?*

For this purpose, this dissertation approaches the process underlying the integration of CSR principles and practices into the strategy and operations of organisations (Maon, 2010) (referred to as ‘CSR implementation’ in this dissertation) from three different angles: an organisational determinants-based perspective, a collaborative-focused perspective, and an integrative-learning perspective. These perspectives serve as a structuring scheme for this section and for the different parts of the dissertation. This structuring scheme serves to emphasise the various viewpoints on CSR implementation and the specific organisational dimensions that affect the phenomenon. Nevertheless, these three perspectives are fundamentally intertwined in the CSR implementation process. Accordingly, the three perspectives and associated research questions are introduced hereafter, together with some elements of theoretical background, which are detailed later in the remainder of this introduction.

b. Research Questions

An organisational determinants perspective on CSR implementation

CSR implementation is considered as fundamentally requiring resource investment to integrate CSR principles and develop related activities. Organisations need to rely on

supportive organisational resources, capabilities, expertise, structures, and culture (Baumann-Pauly et al., 2013; Maon et al., 2010). Yet, the nature and influence of organisational determinants for constructively implementing CSR are dimly studied. The characteristics of the non-profit sector presumably represent challenges for CSR implementation. Especially, it is suggested that these organisations may possess fewer resources compared to others professional sport organisations (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009) or SMEs (Baumann-Pauly et al., 2013; Wickert, Scherer, & Spence, 2016). It is therefore crucial to examine how sport federations compensate their resource constraints (Winand, Rihoux, Robinson, & Zintz, 2013) by combining core organisational factors to implement CSR.

In this context, the current professionalisation process seems to be contributing to the development of core organisational factors associated with CSR implementation (Jamali, El Dirani, & Harwood, 2015; Puplampu & Dashwood, 2011). This suggests that a high level of CSR implementation requires a certain level of professionalisation of SFs. In the wake of professionalisation of the sport landscape (Nagel et al., 2015), it is interesting to consider the organisational factors available that enable or hinder CSR integration in daily management practices. In the absence of substantial research on organisational factors of CSR, the study follows the professionalisation model of Nagel et al. (2015) to examine potential organisational factors of professionalisation related to CSR implementation. This multi-level model captures the influence of internal and external factors on causes, forms and consequences of professionalisation in sport federations. This study used the most operant organisational factors developed in this model to examine the organisational factors of CSR implementation. This leads to the first research question of this dissertation:

Which organisational factors of professionalisation are associated with CSR implementation?

A collaborative-focused perspective on CSR implementation

Collaborations are increasingly perceived as a potential solution to solve social issues (Austin & Seitanidi 2012; Le Pennec & Raufflet, 2018; Selsky & Parker, 2005). Specifically, collaborations have become commonplace for sport organisations. Resource scarcity (Wicker & Breuer, 2011) and the sport-federated model (Shilbury & Ferkins, 2015; Shilbury, O'Boyle, & Ferkins, 2016; Sotiriadou, Brouwers, De Bosscher,

& Cuskelly, 2017) are important environmental factors in this respect. As suggested by Grant (2016), collaboration appears to be an alternative solution to the paucity of organisational resources. In the perspective of CSR, organisations increasingly collaborate with partners to develop CSR-related programmes. Most studies have examined cross-sectoral collaboration from the business-view point. To date, few studies have examined non-profit collaboration despite evidence of formal and informal ties between non-profit partners for sport service provision. Such collaboration among non-profit sport organisations should be scanned to distinguish the particularities of the delivery of CSR programmes. Consistent with the three phases of interorganisational relationships (i.e., antecedents, management and evaluation (Parent & Harvey, 2008; Wood & Gray, 1991)), this study examines the motives¹ of the sport federations and sport clubs to form non-profit collaboration. Understanding the driving forces of non-profit collaboration is essential to provide a clearer view on why organisations are drawn to collaborate with likeminded partners. The study considers both resource-based view and institutional theories to understand the formation of such collaborations. This leads to the second research question of this dissertation:

Why are non-profit sport organisations forming non-profit collaborations to implement CSR?

An integrative-learning perspective on CSR implementation

Studies suggest that CSR involves the development of new ways of organising and working (Dunphy, 2002; Maon et al., 2010; Mirvis & Googins, 2006). It requires integrating CSR at all levels of the organisation (Cramer et al., 2006). In this perspective, the development and implementation of integrated CSR policies can be considered as potentially representing an organisational change process (Maon, 2010). More importantly, it requires learning not only how to do some things better than before, but also to challenge and change past ways of making decisions within the organisation (Maon et al., 2008; Zadek, 2004). This study builds on the premises that

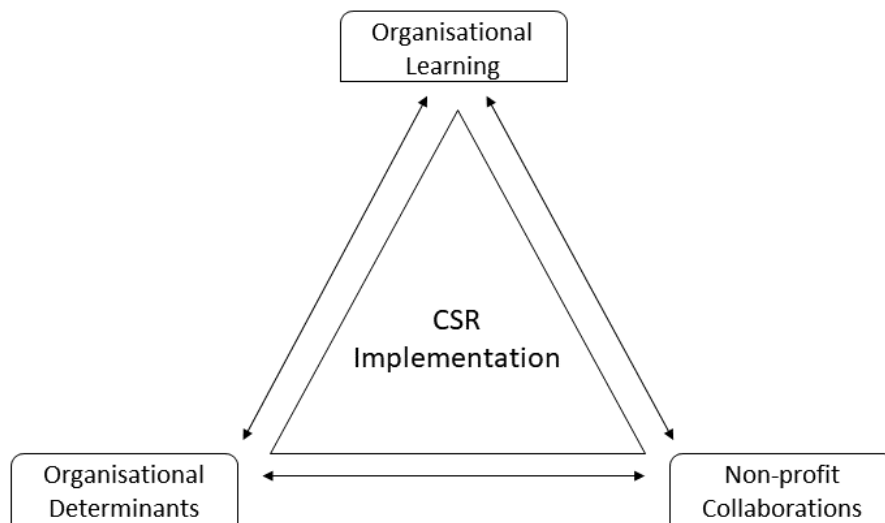
¹ In the present dissertation, the terms motives and motivations are used interchangeably for the sake of simplicity. Nonetheless, motives refer to concrete cause or reason of behaviour/for taking action, whereas motivations relate to the psychological process itself that refers to the general behaviour (Singer, Hausenblas, & Janelle, 2001). Despite this distinction, most studies often use these terms in an equivalent fashion (see for instance, Gazley (2008), Bansal & Roth (2000), Babiak (2007)). An analysis of differences and commonalities between both related concepts is beyond the scope of this dissertation.

CSR and organisational learning are intrinsically interconnected (Fortis et al., 2017; Oelze, Hoejmoose, Habisch, & Millington, 2016). In this context, the nature of the organisational learning processes underlying CSR implementation by sport organisations still remains to be understood. Building on the comprehensive model of Crossan, Lane, and White (1999), this study examines the multilevel organisational learning dynamics and micro-process occurring when a sport federation implements CSR. This leads to the third research question of this dissertation:

How does the process of organisational learning occur when non-profit sport organisation implement CSR?

Altogether, these research questions and perspectives delineate the research program of the present dissertation. Figure 1 displays three core elements around which CSR implementation is studied in this research: organisational determinants, collaboration motivations and organisational learning. These elements are interrelated and complementary. The arrows capture the interconnection between these theoretical perspectives. These research questions are cumulative and build on the findings and discussion of each other. As shown in Figure 1, organisational determinants are complemented by non-profit collaboration, particularly salient within a federated non-profit sport governance system where collaboration amongst sport federations and their parent sport clubs is critical to a unified strategy. Organisational learning combines both intra-organisational and inter-organisational levels of analysis in a multi-level integrative perspective. These three theoretical frameworks that inform the research are further discussed in the sixth section.

Figure 1. Elements of CSR implementation investigated in this dissertation.



c. Organisation of the Dissertation

The general purpose of this research is dealt with through three distinct papers, accompanied by an introduction and a general discussion. These publications are connected by the general aim, the specific research questions and the three perspective logics detailed earlier. Papers have been written and submitted to scientific journals with a high-impact factor. The dissertation is organised accordingly using an article-based format.

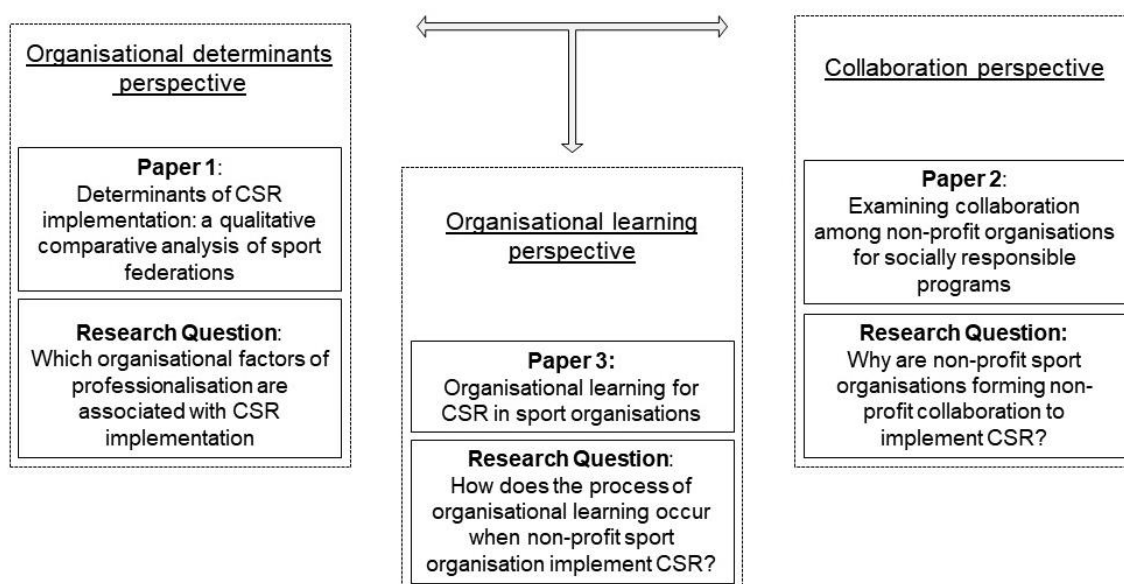
The first paper addresses the first research question of this dissertation and examines the organisational determinants of sport federations to implement CSR. It encompasses a mixed method study using a questionnaire, document analysis and interviews on the CSR presence, characteristics of the CSR programmes and the organisational resources needed to implement CSR. Data are analysed using qualitative comparative analysis (QCA). This study was conducted with 19 different Belgian sport federations, both in Flanders and in Wallonia.

The second paper addresses the second research question of this dissertation and examines non-profit collaboration for CSR. It focuses on the motivations of non-profit sport organisations to collaborate with other non-profits, in our case, between sport hockey federations and sport clubs. The motivations to collaborate are studied through the means of interviews and organisational documents.

The *third paper* builds on the premise that more research is needed to understand the organisational change linked to the implementation of CSR. This paper focuses thus on the organisational learning sub-processes for CSR implementation. This article initially examined this research question in the context of golf, football and hockey but the focus was eventually narrowed down to the single case of hockey after reviewer's recommendation.

Figure 2 outlines the three-part structures of the dissertation, composed of three research questions and three papers. Altogether, these three papers contribute to provide a comprehensive account of the interactive and organisational aspects of CSR implementation by highlighting and integrating organisational determinants-focused and collaboration-focused perspectives on the CSR implementation phenomenon in the non-profit sport context. The next section of this introduction defines the study's concepts, outlines a review of the literature pertaining to CSR in general and to CSR and sport in particular, as well as outlines the applied theoretical framework.

Figure 2. Structure of the Dissertation



d. Parameters of the Study

Although the study of sport organisations moves across the public sector (such as local, state and central government) and commercial sector (such as professional

sports teams and facilities), the primary concern is with the non-profit sector. The non-profit sector in sport spans a number of associations such as sport service organisations, clubs and regional or state bodies. The focus of this study is on sport federations – those bodies are responsible for the organisation of specific sporting codes and the national representatives of their sport.

As the study also considers how sport federations build on their sport-federated network, internal and external stakeholders have also been incorporated (e.g., sport clubs, state and national bodies, public authorities, non-profit partners). More precisely, all empirical research reported in this dissertation was carried out in the context of sport federations in Belgium. This thesis covers the work of the management as well as the governance of sport federations. That is, the work of the board of directors or group of volunteers as well as the top and operational management. The sixth section sketches the research context, in particular the unique characteristics of sport federations.

3. Literature Review

The purpose of this section is to set the scene of the main examined concepts and theoretical frameworks applied in this PhD research. It does not intend to provide a comprehensive review of the theories, the approaches and the empirical knowledge of the field but presents the theoretical foundation of this PhD research.

This section first introduces the concept of CSR, outlines its historical development and presents the main concepts associated with its theoretical and empirical development. Next, it provides a brief review of CSR and sport as a field of study from a thematic perspective. After this, a third sub-section outlines the approach on CSR in a non-profit (sport) setting. The following section establishes the foundation for the study by exploring the literature from the business setting, together with work in the sport setting on CSR implementation. This is followed by a review of the main organisational theories used to examine CSR. The theoretical foundations for the study include, institutional theory, resource-based view theory, organisational learning, and professionalisation. Ultimately, this literature review identifies the research gaps, informs the research contexts and presents a more specific focus on the sport federations setting.

a. Corporate Social Responsibility

The last fifteen years have witnessed the emergence of sparkling debate concerning the role and impact of sport organisations in society. Driven by a broader increasing trend of business and society, the concept of CSR has gained considerable academic and practical significance, to the extent that it has now turned into a global trend (Carroll, 2004; Kudlak & Low, 2015; Wang, Tong, Takeuchi, & George, 2016). As depicted by Daft, Murphy, and Willmott (2010), maintaining high standards of ethics and social responsibility are amongst the major current challenges organisations are facing, together with competing globally, responding rapidly to environmental changes and customers' needs, managing the digital workplace and supporting diversity.

The analysis of the landscape of CSR-related ideas reveals its complexity. This field of research has indeed developed to such an extent that it encompasses numerous terminologies (Baden & Harwood, 2013; Ghobadian, Money, & Hillenbrand, 2015), definitions (Carroll, 1999; Dahlsrud, 2008; Okoye, 2009), and approaches (Garriga & Melé, 2004; Secchi, 2007; Windsor, 2006). Amidst these challenges, this 'tortured concept' (Godfrey & Hatch, 2007) is generally defined as 'the responsibility of enterprises [organisations] for their impacts on society' (Commission, 2011). This definition is quite general and transposable to different organisational contexts, and thus, suitable for the purpose of this dissertation.

Recently, several scholars argued for the applicability of the concept of CSR in a nonprofit setting. Although different notions were used such as non-profit responsibility (Pope et al., 2018) or sustainability (Fifka, Kühn, Adaui, & Stiglbauer, 2016), most scholars have employed the term CSR to investigate the social responsibility of non-profit sport organisations. Relatedly, Robertson (2016), who studied social responsibility from a more integrative perspective, noted that "'Corporate" and "social" qualifiers limit the conceptual focus to a narrow set of highly commercial organisational forms and a specific type of "social" responsibility"' (page 3). Moreover, a key danger related to the over-emphasis on companies within the debate about CSR is that the proposed solutions will not be relevant for non-profit sport organisations. Despite this important limitation of the CSR construct, this study adopts the "CSR" generic term to align with the parent CSR literature.

From a CSR perspective, organisations are expected to engage in actions that appear to be ‘doing good’ (i.e., voluntary engagement for society) and ‘avoiding bad’ (i.e., prevention of irresponsible behaviour) (Campbell, 2007; Chelladurai, 2016; Lin-Hi et al., 2015; Mohr, Webb, & Harris, 2001). In combination with their genuine, intrinsic and primary mission of sport services provider and implementer (or ‘primary social responsibility’), sport organisations are expected to engage in furthering social good beyond the social role commonly ascribed to their core missions (Persson, 2008; Waardenburg, 2016). Sport organisations have, next to their economic and legal duties, ethical and discretionary responsibilities towards society, ‘secondary responsibilities’ (Carroll, 1979; Chelladurai, 2016). As such, they are perceived as potential agents of world benefit (Maon, 2010) and social change agents (Kudlak & Low, 2015). As Seitanidi, Koufopoulos, and Palmer (2010, p. 139) suggest “the central premise of CSR is to achieve either implicitly or explicitly (Matten & Moon, 2008) through its outcome, i.e., its policies, programmes and impacts (Wood, 1991), organisational change that can lead to positive social change (Aquilera et al., 2017)”.

In this research, CSR practices encapsulate a range of discretionary and externally focused social, disability, environmental and fair play sport-driven activities implemented by non-profit sport organisations. This conceptualisation of CSR is closely grounded on the recent work of Rowe, Karg, and Sherry’s (2018). They consider that community-oriented practices are suitable to describe the community-focused activities undertaken by professional sport teams at the intersection of CSR and sport for development. In this respect, the examination goes beyond the commonly examined social and community activities in the professional sport sector and encapsulates both organisational and community outreach benefits (Rowe et al., 2018).

b. Corporate Social Responsibility and Sport

In the field of sports, studies have postulated that sport is a distinctively important industry within which to employ CSR-related business practices (Breitbarth & Harris, 2008). In particular, Slack (2014, p. 461) contended “CSR has great potential to inform us about the management of sport”. In this perspective, scholars have argued that sport organisations have the potential to exert positive social change on society and

on their communities thanks to unique sport assets (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Breitbarth, Walzel, Anagnostopoulos, & van Eekeren, 2015; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007).

CSR has received significant scholarly attention over the past decade (Breitbarth et al., 2015; Paramio-Salcines, Babiak, & Walters, 2013). This interest is reflected in journal articles, textbooks and handbooks, book chapters and conference workshops. Table 1 offers an overview of the scholarship dedicated to CSR and sport². Moreover, on the practitioner's side, this expansion has resulted in the development of several dedicated networks (e.g., European Football and Development Network (EFDN); Responsiball; European Club Association (ECA) CSR Report).

Table 1. Overview of the scholarship dedicated to CSR and sport

Journal articles	69 identified publications on professional team sport organisations	Walzel et al., (2018)
	74 identified publications on CSR and sport	Breitbarth, Walzel, and van Eekeren (2019)
Journal special issues	Journal of Sport Management	Bradish and Cronin (2009)
	Journal of Management and Organization	Ratten and Babiak (2010)
	International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing	Kent (2011)
	Corporate Governance: The international journal of business in society	Breitbarth et al. (2015)
	European Sport Management Quarterly	Breitbarth et al. (2019)
Textbooks and handbooks	Routledge Handbook of Sport and Corporate Social Responsibility	Paramio-Salcines et al., (2013)
	Sports Governance, Development and Corporate Responsibility	Sargaert, Theeboom, Timmerman, and Vanreusel (2012)
Conference workshops	European Association for Sport Management (EASM) CSR Workshop	Between 2013-2017 by Breitbarth, Walzel, Anagnostopoulos, & van Eekeren
	North-American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) CSR Rountable	In 2015 by Breitbarth, Heere, Walker, Kellison, & Heinze

² This overview aimed at providing a broad account of the evolution of the field. Accordingly, it did not rigorously follow the guidelines and steps of systematic reviews. The scholarship dedicated to CSR and sport included literature review articles, special issues that were published in the main sport management journals, mainstream management, organisational theory and business ethics journals, dedicated textbooks and handbooks as well as dedicated CSR conference workshops. This list was built by performing a general search in an online library database. Preston's (1975) review was the cut-off point for this review.

The growing importance of the relatively recent CSR phenomenon in the sport industry worldwide (Trendafiova, Ziakas, & Sparvero, 2017) gave rise to numerous insights. Early research mainly focused on the sporting good manufacturers scandals and new practices (Van Tulder & Kolk, 2001; Zadek, 2004). Rapidly, scholars began to focus on North-American and English professional team sport' CSR programmes (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009). Recently, new research streams have emerged such as the relationship between CSR and entrepreneurship (Bjärsholm, 2017; Miragaia, Ferreira, & Ratten, 2017); sport for development (Rowe et al., 2018); governance (Persson, 2011; Robertson, Walzel, & Shilbury, 2019) as well as the development of CSR in other parts of the world (Walzel et al., 2018).

To analyse the body of knowledge on CSR and sport, this section is divided in two parts. First, it offers a lifecycle perspective on the evolution of CSR in the sport sector. Second, it discusses four key traversing research themes in respect to the research questions formulated earlier.

A lifecycle perspective on the evolution of CSR in the sport sector

Waddington, Chelladurai, and Skirstad (2013) described the evolution of CSR from the management literature to its transition into the sport management literature over the past two decades. They argued the “long-term development of CSR has occurred in a series of phases, or waves, each of which can be broadly understood as a response by corporates to criticism of what have been widely perceived as wrongful or socially irresponsible actions” (Waddington et al., 2013, page 48).

In their recent integrative review of the CSR and professional team sport organisations, Walzel et al. (2018) noted that this field of study has reached its adolescence. Adopting this metaphor, this study offers an analysis of the literature on CSR and sport from the lifecycle perspective. Many management scholars have adopted the metaphor of organic growth as a heuristic device to explain development in an organisational entity from its initiation to its termination (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995). The life cycle conceive progressing through a necessary sequence of stages. Each stage of development is seen as a necessary precursor of succeeding stages. For the purpose of this review, we contend that the CSR and sport field of study can be divided in three stages: introduction, growth, and maturity.

The introduction stage was a stepping-stone stage because it established the foundations of this field of research. Three traversing themes or life cycle markers have appeared in this stage. First, there are ongoing debates on the definitions, concepts contours and approaches (Breitbarth & Harris, 2008), including the boundaries with other concepts such as sport for development (Godfrey, 2009). Second, a major contribution of this body of work examining CSR in the sport setting has been the legitimisation that sport was a distinctive area to examine CSR (i.e., sport fit and unique features) (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). Third, these studies introduced the foundations of the major research themes that now form the body of literature on CSR and sport: 1) antecedents (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006; 2009; Persson, 2008), 2) content (Breitbarth & Harris, 2008; Misener & Mason, 2009, 2010; Persson, 2008), 3) outcomes (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006; Misener & Mason, 2009; Walker & Kent, 2009). In its formative years, this growing body of sport management literature supports a sport-CSR perspective and suggests further opportunities for sport practice and theory.

The growth phase is characterised by a colossal proliferation of publications on the topic that can be explained by a general development of CSR principles and practices in the sport industry. As noted by Rowe and colleagues (2018), “a cursory examination of global professional team practices indicates that the community activities are becoming a common activity for these organisations and related foundations” (page 2). The presence of widespread and highly publicised social irresponsibility as well as a general increased level of awareness of CSR across the sport segments accelerated the translation of CSR principles and practices in the sport industry. The expanded importance of CSR is also reflected in the fact that stakeholders increasingly scrutinise and expect sport organisations to be held accountable for their actions (Trendafilova et al., 2017; Babiak & Kihl, 2018; Hamil & Morrow, 2011). Further, the professionalisation of sport has also encouraged sport organisations to incorporate strategically CSR principles into their actions and strategies (Rowe et al., 2018). This acceleration constitutes the first major trend identified in this phase.

In particular, key studies have contributed to reinforcing the significance of this research field and have significantly developed the research themes identified in the introduction stage (i.e., antecedents, content and outcomes). At the same time, new

sub-themes have emerged within the traversing themes such as the use of social media to report CSR practices, athlete responsibility, the relationship between doping and CSR and environmental responsibility. For instance, in the outcome theme, studies examining the 'so what' question, namely the social impact of CSR programs have increasingly grown. This rise can be explained by the important critiques formulated building on the observation that most studies and reports focus on the benefits for the organisation implementing CSR programs rather than having a stakeholder focus (Walker, Heere, & Kim, 2013).

A second shift in the focus of scholarly attention is also emerging in this stage in terms of implementation. The development of implementation process research signifies the shift from 'what' and 'why' to 'how'. This contrasts with the existing research on CSR and sport, which had mostly focus on elements such as antecedents, content and financial outcomes (Whetten, Rands, & Godfrey, 2002). This increase reflects the growing interest in an in-depth understanding of development, design and monitoring of CSR (Lindgreen & Swaen, 2010; Maon et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2016). As Walzel et al. (2018) noted retrospectively "over the past decade, the issues for PTSOs seem to no longer be about whether or not to engage in CSR, but rather on how to strategically and operationally plan, implement, monitor, and control CSR, as well as demonstrate its impact on the organisation and society" (page 17). Increasingly, attempts for bridging CSR with other fields and disciplines have been observed. The recognition that sport is a distinctive area led to a new phase in CSR and sport that concerned wider ethical considerations such as good governance, sustainability, social entrepreneurship and community outcomes.

This cumulative nature is a typical of a life cycle where characteristics acquired in earlier stages are retained in later stages. Thus, the form that lies premature in the primitive stage becomes progressively more mature (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995). As such, the definitional contours and conceptualisation challenges are still occupying space in conceptual debates. However, these discussions have not lead to substantive theoretical advancements as scholars keep on calling for more conceptual advancement of the field (Breitbarth et al., 2015; Levermore, 2010; Walzel et al., 2018). For example, no sport-related definition has been suggested and consensually accepted. This perhaps illustrates that some problems remain regarding the

applicability of the CSR concept to the sporting context. By this, we specifically think about the business-sport for good double discourse employed by many professional sport teams in their CSR communication (Pedersen & Rosati, 2019). This potential issue with the CSR concept is highly related to the debate around the fact that CSR is a fad (Godfrey, 2010; Paramino-Salcines et al., 2013; Walters & Chadwick, 2009; Breitbarth & Harris, 2008) that might eventually be replaced by another buzz concept and perish. Notably, the distinct characteristics of sport remain the major discussion points when it comes to elaborating on these aspects (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007).

Overall, these debates – also highly embedded in the broad CSR literature - are healthy for the scientific community, assuming that their end would signify the decline of the field. Definitional and conceptual consensus can be considered as positive because it also shows that it has not been assimilated by other fashionable concepts and therefore shows that it has not declined yet. Consequently, this shows that this field of study has not escaped from the “growing pains” that often arise as new fields emerge (e.g., Chalip, 2006; Quatman & Chelladurai, 2008). As shown by Quatman and Chelladurai (2008), “there are ongoing debates on the definition and boundaries of the field (e.g., Costa, 2005; Pitts, 2001), the role of sport management as an academic discipline (e.g., Costa, 2005; Slack, 1998), and the appropriate research topics, goals, and approaches that should be pursued and implemented (e.g., Chalip, 2006; Costa, 2005; Pitts, 2001)” (page 651).

At the same time, scholars have concluded that despite these conceptual issues, CSR has become an important strategic issue and more than just a business trend or an optional extra (Walters & Chadwick, 2009; Kolyperas & Sparks, 2011). In closing their Handbook on CSR and sport, Paramio-Salcines, Babiak and Walters (2013) concluded that there were reasons to be optimistic about the future about CSR and sport and contend that the general increased level of awareness of CSR across the sectors of the sport industry suggest that CSR is not necessarily a management fad. Relatedly, Breitbarth et al. (2019) argued “there is empirical evidence that we are not witnessing ‘the end of corporate social responsibility’ in the sport sector as critically suggested elsewhere in regard to other industries (Fleming & Jones, 2013), but shifting foci within

European policy that facilitates an approach away from output-orientation towards impact-orientation and institutional change” (page 9).

To date, key challenges and gaps have been identified by recent review articles (Breitbarth et al., 2015; Babiak & Wolfe, 2013; Chelladurai, 2016; Kent, 2017; Robertson, Walzel & Shilbury, 2018; Trendafilova et al., 2017; Walzel et al., 2018). These gaps signifies the possible trajectories and emerging themes to extend the field. Yet, the field has not developed its sound theoretical foundation needed to be considered as a matured field of study, so as the broader field of sport management (Chalip, 2006; Fink, 2013).

Notably, Walzel et al. (2018) reviewed the literature on CSR and professional teams sport organisations. As such, the scope of articles included in this review was narrower than the previously reported published work examining CSR programs by leagues, events, facilities, college sports, individual athletes, sporting goods manufacturers and non-profit organisations. Accordingly, this delimitation eventually restricts the authors from drawing general conclusions on the state of all the CSR and sport literature. Moreover, this limited identifiable group of organisations remain the most investigated organisational type in the literature. Eventually, this signifies the complexity of defining CSR and where CSR starts and stops in relation to the role and missions of sport organisations in the sport industry as well as its role in society more generally (Walzel et al., 2018). Despite this limitation, this review allows to understand the state of development of this field.

Walzel et al. (2018) identified 69 related articles from January 2006 to November 2017 and reported the following analysis.

- Journal type: The majority of articles were published in sport management journals (n=31), followed by journals on general management (n=18), sports science (n=12), and other topics (n=8) such as nonprofit journal. Approximately 55% of these articles were published in the three leading sport management journals (Journal of Sport Management (n=8), Sport Management Review (n=5), and European Sport Management Quarterly (n=4).
- Publication Year: Of the 62 articles published, 27 were published between 2008 and 2013, whereas 35 were published between 2014 and 2017. The number of published papers reached its highest score in 2016 with 13 papers.

- Geographical context: North American and European countries were the continents the most focused (77%). Europe (n=30), with most research conducted in the UK (n=13) and cross-European studies (n=5), North America (n=23), with research primarily occurred in the US (n=17), or in major sport leagues that have teams in both the US and Canada (n=6), Oceania (n=7), Asia (n=6), South America (n=1) and Africa (n=0).
- Research approach: The majority of articles were empirical (n=58). Of the articles identified, the qualitative approach (n=37) was the most popular approach, followed by the quantitative approach (n=20), mixed approaches (n=8) and eventually conceptual studies (n=4).

Eventually, these descriptive statistics showed that the field has grown but has not yet reached a level of maturity because few studies have been published beyond the sport management field, the notion has not yet entered all field, disciplines, organisational forms and unit of analysis.

In sum, these early studies encapsulated in the introduction and growth stages have made a clear case for why the specific examination of CSR in sport is worthy of academic investigation. The initial work has led to the creation of a theoretical foundation and practical orientation of CSR for sport researchers and managers. However, to enter the maturity phase, more efforts are required to mature the empirical and theoretical understanding of the CSR concept in the sport context. By opening the doors to the examination of CSR in the non-profit setting which represents a significant part of the sport sector, this dissertation seeks to contribute to these efforts to enter the maturity phase. The main findings and key gaps outlined in the next section should contribute to this evolution.

A review of the key traversing research themes of the CSR and sport literature

The study of CSR in the sport sector, broadly speaking, encompasses CSR practices that occur both in and through sport (Breitbarth et al., 2015; Fifka & Jaeger, 2018; Trendafiova et al., 2017; Walzel et al., 2018). *CSR in sport* is associated with the CSR practices embraced by sport organisations (i.e., profit and non-profit organisational forms) in their overall operations (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009). *CSR through sport* refers to situations in which business that operate outside or in parallel to the sport industry

uses sport (i.e. organisations, events and athletes) to deploy their CSR agenda (Bason & Anagnostopoulos, 2015; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). Alternatively, *CSR via sport* encompasses efforts undertaken by non-sport organisations to fulfil various social responsibility and development goals using sport as an activity (Coalter, 2007). This review captures CSR that occurs both in and through sport.

Four major traversing themes have been identified in the literature: antecedents, content, implementation and outcomes. These major themes appear to have a sense of chronological development, demonstrating a considered approach by researchers to build on previous literature. This typology differs from the well-established typology provided by Lindgreen and Swaen (2010) and replicated by several scholars to map the CSR and sport literature (Anagnostopoulos, 2013; Breitbarth et al., 2015; Fifka & Jaeger, 2018; Paramio-Salcines, Babiak, & Walters, 2013). Lindgreen and Swaen (2010) identified five key managerial issues related to CSR: communication, implementation, stakeholder engagement, measurement, and business case.

Notably, the suggested typology suggests the adding of an ‘antecedents’ category. Contrary to Lindgreen and Swaen (2010), ‘communication’ is not a distinct theme but is included in both implementation and outcomes themes. Internal and external communication can be considered as a critical phase in the implementation process rather than an *ex post* action (Anagnostopoulos, 2013; Kolyperas & Sparks, 2011; Maon et al., 2008). Furthermore, the implementation theme integrates ‘stakeholder engagement’ while the ‘measurement’ and ‘the business case’ are discussed under the outcomes theme. This decision was based on the observation that these research themes overlapped heavily or were insufficiently developed to be a distinct category. This typology should not be considered as definitive. Some studies appear under several categories offered here, while more could have been proposed. As noted by Anagnostopoulos (2013), “this, perhaps, illustrates not only a profound cross-over and lack of clear-cut boundaries between these categories, but also both the vagueness and complexity of the CSR notion” (p. 40).

Antecedents. Studies examining the drivers and motives of sport organisations to undertake CSR actions have identified institutional, organisational and individual explanatory factors (Babiak, 2010; Babiak & Trendafilova, 2011; Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Hamil & Morrow, 2011; Rowe, Karg, & Sherry, 2018; Sheth & Babiak, 2010;

Trendafilova, Babiak, & Heinze, 2013). Externally, various stakeholders of the sport industry put coercive, normative and mimetic pressures on sport organisations to develop a CSR agenda (Babiak & Trendafilova, 2011; Trendafilova et al., 2013). Given the degree of stakeholder engagement and clubs' public and media profile' the role of external pressures in influencing CSR strategies were motivating factors. Noticeably, local host community is a central stakeholder pressuring organisations to establish themselves as good neighbours (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007; Walters & Tacon, 2010; Paracimo-Salcines et al., 2013).

Internally, the organisational culture (Uecker-Mercado & Walker, 2012), history and tradition, especially in the local community (Hamil & Morrow, 2011; Kolyperas et al., 2015), internal stakeholder pressures (Uecker-Mercado & Walker, 2012), including employees pressures (Hamil & Morrow, 2011) as well as individual level drivers such as moral intentions, personal values of organisational leaders and managers (Babiak, 2010; Breitbarth & Harris, 2008) and employees' passion (Anagnostopoulos, Winand, & Papadimitriou, 2016) were identified as important predictors of CSR. Babiak, Mills, Tainsky, and Juravic (2012) found that the main motives behind athletes' engagement were altruistic or self-interested attitudes, perceived behaviour control, subjective norms, self-identity and moral obligation. Other studies identified strategic, normative, altruistic, defensive organisational motives (Breitbarth et al., 2011; Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Hamil & Morrow, 2011; Trendafilova et al., 2013; Walker & Parent, 2010).

These findings are particularly relevant when positioning this PhD research. In paper 1, the organisational determinants is somehow tied in with the internal drivers of CSR (or 'organisational predictors' in Aguinis and Glavas's (2012) terminology). Notably, Babiak and Wolfe (2009) identified that internal resources (i.e., attention, media access, celebrity players, coaches, and facilities) influenced professional sport organisations CSR efforts. However, most of these resources highlighted by this study do not fit with the distinct non-profit context that fundamentally possess different characteristics (Beech & Chadwick, 2004, Winand et al., 2010). Despite these efforts to understand the internal drivers of CSR, this study does not provide sufficient knowledge on the organisational determinants, resources and capabilities associated with CSR. In particular, little is known about how sport federations implement CSR despite their limited financial and human resources (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; Wicker

& Breuer, 2011). As such, paper 1 intends to partially respond to the call made Babiak and Wolfe (2009) for more research on the internal forces driving sport organisations to become more socially responsible by offering new knowledge on the organisational determinants associated with CSR implementation.

In paper 2, the motivations to collaborate for CSR programmes could be examined in the light of the motivations for CSR (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Babiak & Misener, 2015). In particular, Babiak and Misener (2015) showed that community sport clubs are motivated by altruistic motives and strategic motives. However, these studies have not examined their motivations for this particular mode of CSR implementation vastly deployed in the business and sport setting.

Content. Previous work examined the nature and focus of this engagement through and in sport (Anagnostopoulos, Gillooly, Cook, Parganas, & Chadwick, 2017; Bason & Anagnostopoulos, 2015; Hamil & Morrow, 2011; Kolyperas & Sparks, 2011; Sheth & Babiak, 2010; Walters & Tacon, 2011). The study of the content of CSR programmes (Walker & Parent, 2010) includes specific programmes such as environmental sustainability (Trendafilova et al., 2013), health programmes (Hills, Walker, & Barry, 2018; Robertson et al., 2018) and community involvement (Rowe et al., 2018). Several scholars have provided insightful classification to analyse the nature and the means used by various sport organisations (Rowe et al., 2018; Walker, Kent, & Vincent, 2010; Walker & Parent, 2010). For instance, Walker and Parent (2010) proposed a 10-item classification to analyse the nature of CSR programmes. Enumerated in Table 2, these CSR initiatives encapsulate both ‘inward facing activities’ (i.e.; relating to internal structures, policies, stakeholders and employee behaviors and wellbeing targets) and ‘outward-facing components’ (i.e.; relating to community stakeholders targets) (Rowe et al., 2018). Further, Rowe et al. (2018) developed a 14-item classification of the means with three core groups of activities: giving, activating and capacity building.

Table 2. Nature and Means of CSR programmes in sport (derived from Walker and Parent, 2010 and Rowe, Karg & Sherry, 2018)

Nature of CSR programmes	Means of CSR programmes		
	Giving	Activating	Capacity building
1) community involvement, 2) community development, 3) fair business practices, 4) conduct codes, 5) worker safety, 6) cultural diversity, 7) the environment, 8) philanthropy, 9) youth education, and 10) health	Donations, grants, giveaways, tickets, player appearances, provision of facilities.	Fundraising, building awareness / promoting causes, awards and recognition, encourage volunteering / donations, lend brand or image.	Developing and disseminating resources.

CSR has become an issue of interest to sport organisations worldwide ranging from professional sport teams, individual charity, sport events and community sport organisations. In the European industry, CSR has become a global trend in football (Kolyperas & Sparks, 2011) – in British Football in particular. The National Hockey League (NHL)’s ‘Hockey Fights Cancer’; National Basketball Association (NBA)’s ‘Read to Achieve’; Major League Baseball’s (MLB) supportive association with Boys and Girls Clubs of America, National Football League (NFL) ‘Youth Football Fund’ are other examples of CSR efforts in the North-American sport industry.

Alongside the numerous initiatives of professional sport organisations, an increasing number of non-profit sport organisations endeavour to address CSR issues through more or less systematic processes and actions. Examples from the sport sector include a range of organisations from international sport federations (Chelladurai, 2016), national sport federations (Persson, 2008) to local community sport clubs (Misener & Doherty, 2012; Robertson et al., 2018). For instance, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the United Nations (UN) have agreed to incorporate environmental issues in the Olympic Games (Chelladurai, 2016). Voluntary sport clubs have also engaged in social issues such as environmental, humanitarian efforts and youth justice (Misener & Doherty, 2012). This research intends to further this current body of work by further examining CSR in the context of sport federations. The state of the literature on this specific issue is developed in the next section.

In paper 1, the organisational determinants also closely connect with the organisational moderators of CSR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). Studies reported that CSR activities vary significantly with respect to the organisation's revenues, location, sporting success, team values, market size, ownership structure and management approach, funding and partnerships arrangement (Rowe et al., 2018; Sheth & Babiak, 2010; Walker et al., 2010; Walker & Parent, 2010; Walker et al., 2016). Noticeably, Walker and Parent (2010) found that the social involvement of the sport industry can be explained in part by the geographical reach, stakeholder influences and business operations of the organisations. Additionally, Walker, Salaga, and Mercado (2016) found that the implementation of green practices differ by ownership and management structure, market size where the facility is located, and facility type. Eventually, this also illustrates the studies of numerous sport scholars working within a systems perspective with high regard for the varying institutional environment (Campbell, 2007; Matten & Moon, 2008). For instance, Rowe et al. (2018) found that sport organisations engage more in health and education agendas with notable differences across countries (US giving activities versus UK capacity building). Despite these contributions, limited research have so far examined organisational factors shaping CSR implementation.

Implementation. This theme encapsulates studies with the purpose of understanding the different mechanisms, dynamics, structures and processes of CSR development within organisational settings (Anagnostopoulos, Byers, & Kolyperas, 2017; Breitbarth, Hovemann, & Walzel, 2011; Breitbarth & Rieth, 2012; Cobourn & Frawley, 2017; Fifka & Jaeger, 2018; Heinze, Soderstrom, & Zdroik, 2014; Kolyperas, Anagnostopoulos, Chadwick, & Sparks, 2016; Schyvinck & Willem, 2019). Notably, Kolyperas, Morrow, and Sparks (2015) and Heinze et al. (2014) explored the stages and steps of the CSR implementation process. More specifically, the decision-making process (Anagnostopoulos, Byers, & Shilbury, 2014) and the evaluation (Kihl, Babiak, & Tainsky, 2014) sub-processes were examined.

Sport organisations have increasingly adopted foundations or engaged in collaboration to develop their CSR programmes (Anagnostopoulos & Shilbury, 2013; Kolyperas et al., 2015; Walters & Anagnostopoulos, 2012). Scholars reported that sport organisations essentially developed cross-sectoral collaboration with local (Heinze et

al., 2014) and international non-profit organisations (Walters & Anagnostopoulos, 2012) or business (Dowling et al., 2013).

Although limitedly expanded in the current literature, aspects of internal and external communication (Anagnostopoulos et al., 2017; Breitbarth et al., 2011; François, Bayle, & Gond, 2018; Kolyperas & Sparks, 2011) as well as stakeholder dialogue (Babiak & Kihl, 2018; Walters & Tacon, 2010) are also addressed under this research theme. Communication and stakeholder dialogue are conducive to ensuring CSR implementation (Maon et al., 2008). The issue of communication has been explored regarding the content and the means (traditional or social media channels, the reporting, and the partner communication). For instance, Walker, Kent, et al. (2010) suggested that one-way communication observed may reinforce critics of CSR that these programmes merely serve public relations and legitimisation purposes. Kolyperas and Sparks (2011) examined that professional football clubs develop their CSR communication strategies (from defensive, reactive to proactive) through different channels depending on their internal capabilities and external market factors. They also noted that CSR communications are developed organically, evolve dynamically, remain club-specific and rely on the independent charitable foundations. More recently, Anagnostopoulos, Gilooly, et al. (2017) examined the social media strategy by charitable foundations which mostly consist in informing rather than interacting or engaging with stakeholders.

This theme is centrally positioned in the three papers of this dissertation. In paper 1, the focus is on organisational determinants associated with CSR implementation. So far, few studies have explicitly examined factors related to CSR implementation by sport organisations. At the individual level, similar to the broad study of CSR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012), hardly any studies identified how individual factors moderate CSR (Walzel et al., 2018) - with the notable exception of Anagnostopoulos et al. (2014) examining foundation managers' passion-at-work as well as trust with their counterparts in the parent teams as two moderators that have a bearing on the extent to which CSR programmes are developed and implemented. At the organisational level, in a study on UK football clubs and their trusts, Kolyperas et al. (2016) summarised a broad variety of operand (tangible) and operant (intangible) resources. Operand resources include stadium, infrastructure and location, consumers,

managerial systems, success/performance, human resources, trademarks, broadcasting rights and partners. Operant resources include sport-scape (e.g. virtual tours or social media), fan-scape (e.g. subcultures, rituals), club culture and heritage, social performance, star factor, heritage and nostalgia, intellectual assets, positive health associations, global brand footprint and beneficiaries/stakeholders. At the institutional, the national and political systems as well as national sport system and league structure influence CSR practices adopted by clubs (François et al., 2018). Despite these contributions, adequate knowledge that would allow identification and comparisons of sport federations' organisational factors associated CSR is still largely missing. Therefore, investigating the interconnections between organisational resources by highlighting combinations of necessary resources for CSR is timely to understand how sport federations with distinct and different degrees of resources manage resource diversity to implement CSR.

In paper 2, the focus is on nonprofit collaboration as a particular mode of CSR implementation. Charitable foundations and cross-sectoral social partnerships have received significant attention by sport scholars. Although those studies have greatly advanced the field, non-profit scholars examining collaboration among nonprofit organisations suggested that findings from cross-sectoral collaboration may not necessarily apply to within-sector collaboration, due to the fact that obvious differences exist between business-to-business collaborations and NPO-business collaborations (Gazley & Guo, 2015; Guo & Acar, 2005). In contrast, collaboration between likeminded organisations for CSR implementations have not been investigated. In the sport literature, few studies have provided details about collaboration among non-profits such as collaboration between sport clubs and sport federations in elite sport delivery services (Sotiriadou et al., 2017). Therefore, investigating this implementation mode has the potential to provide insights into the unique patterns of CSR by sport federations.

In paper 3, the focus on the organisational learning process is in line with process-based research on CSR implementation. Invariably, this work revolves around the challenges of implementing CSR with sport organisations to ensure strategic planning and alignment of purpose. These studies have highlighted the critical importance of picturing CSR implementation as a change process (Schuyvinck & Willem, 2019;

Breitbarth & Harris, 2012; Walters & Anagnostopoulos; Heinze et al., 2014; Kolyperas et al., 2015). Although these studies have provided tentative blueprints for the understanding of CSR implementation by professional sport organisations, a significant research gap remains regarding the understanding of the micro-processes characterising the integration of CSR within organisations. The adoption of organisational learning as a theoretical lens might be effective in spanning the aforementioned organisational factors and collaborations that have remained distinct areas of inquiry to date.

Outcomes. This theme is a significant area of research that examines the business case for CSR (Breitbarth & Harris, 2008; Sheth & Babiak, 2010; Trendafilova et al., 2013), the financial benefits (Inoue, Kent, & Lee, 2011) and stakeholders attitudes (Walker & Kent, 2009), especially how fans perceive and react to these initiatives (Walker & Heere, 2011; Walker, Heere, Parent, & Drane, 2010). Engaging in CSR can have positive impact on organisation reputation, consumer satisfaction, purchase intentions, future employees attractiveness, organisational commitment among employees, negative media scrutiny mitigation (Inoue & Kent, 2014; Inoue et al., 2011; Walker, Heere, et al., 2010; Walters & Chadwick, 2009).

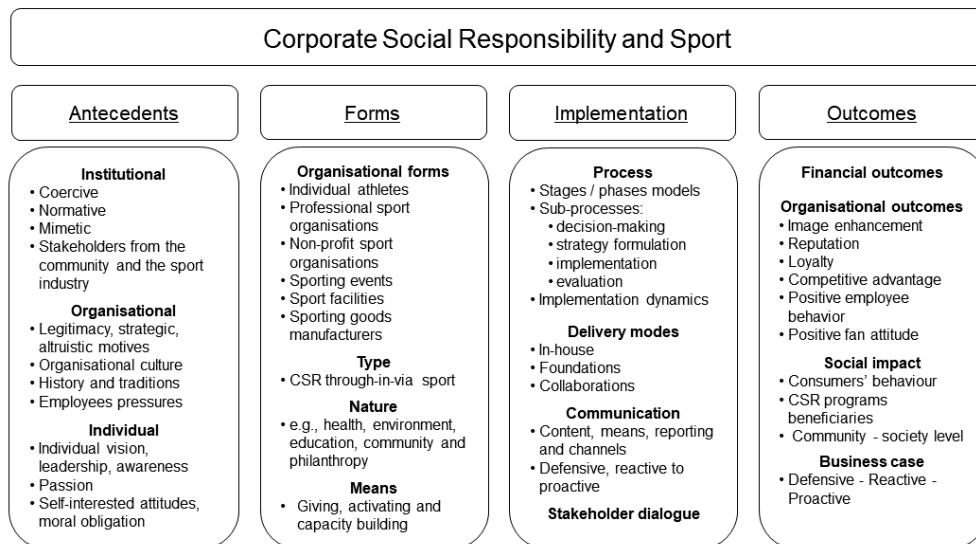
Alongside the examination of the financial performance and strategic benefits of CSR for organisations, a growing body of research has assessed CSR in terms of its social outcomes. Studies investigating the benefits accruing to society have however received less attention from sport scholars (Inoue & Havard, 2014; Inoue, Heffernan, Yamaguchi, & Filo, 2018; Inoue & Kent, 2013; Walker, Hills, & Heere, 2015). As noted by Walker, Heere, et al. (2013), this lack of evaluation has given ammunition to critics depicting many sport organisations as purely self-interested and that CSR programmes are largely strategic communication mechanisms. This idea is eventually threatening the potential positive effects garnered from these programmes.

Inoue and Kent (2012) concluded a series of studies examining the effectiveness of environmental programmes, showing that these programmes could effectively promote pro-environmental behaviour among consumers. To counter the 'measurement paradox' (Levermore, 2011; Walker, Heere, et al., 2013) caused by a predominance of research on the consumer level, scholars have recently started to examine the

beneficiary (i.e., participants outcome and program delivery) and societal impact level (Kihl et al., 2014; Trendafilova et al., 2017; Walker et al., 2013).

Figure 3 outlines the mapping of the literature outlined above. It captures the four research themes and the related sub-investigation areas.

Figure 3. Overview of the CSR and Sport Literature.



c. Corporate Social Responsibility in the Non-profit Context

Studies have generally examined the evolution of the non-profit and business relationship from non-profit organisations acting as confrontation activists (Arenas, Lozano, & Albareda, 2009; Doh & Guay, 2006), stakeholders (Kaptein & Van Tulder, 2003; Kourula & Laasonen, 2010), and partnering organisations in cross-sectoral social collaborations (Austin, 2000b; Kourula & Laasonen, 2010; Rondinelli & London, 2003). Moreover, these studies have generally examined non-profit organisations acting as recipients of CSR programmes of traditional business from a business perspective (Omar, Leach, & March, 2014).

Despite this attributed importance, research on the social responsibility of non-profit organisations has been scarce. Overcoming these gaps of research would enable to capture another facet of non-profit organisations; their abilities to achieve positive social change (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012). The mature presence of non-profit organisations in CSR-related processes and partnerships calls for an examination of

their very own socially responsible behaviours and the related collaborative means chosen.

Concomitantly, several scholars have established the scholarly groundwork for CSR within the non-profit sector over the past decade (Acar, Aupperle, & Lowy, 2001; Bouckaert & Vandenhove, 1998; Guo & Acar, 2005; Hogan, 2009; Kourula & Halme, 2008; Morris, 2013; Puentes, Mozas, Bernal, & Chaves, 2012; Tschirhart & Bielefeld, 2012; Vidal, Torres, Guix, & Rodríguez, 2005; Waters & Ott, 2014). Lin-Hi et al. (2015) discussed the reasons for limited attention to CSR in the non-profit literature. Terminological reasons were evoked regarding the 'corporate' notion that could refrain broader applicability beyond the classical business logic. However, these reasons cannot fully explain the scarcity of research. This is particularly clear given that CSR incorporates issues such as governance, stakeholder management, sustainability, and ethics that are discussed in the non-profit literature (Lin et al., 2015).

Further, their social mission and the social nature of their activities could suggest that non-profit organisations are intrinsically socially responsible (Acar et al., 2001; Andreini et al., 2012, Fifka et al., 2016). According to Lin-Hi et al. (2015): "since contributing to the well-being of society is at the heart of non-profit organisations' *raison d'être* (e.g., Moore 2000), scholars might be tempted to reason that there is little need for non-profit organisations to perform CSR" (page 1946). The absence of the sake of gain also encourages the view that non-profit organisation are intrinsically socially responsible. Indeed, the non-distribution constraint could underpin the assumption that CSR is superfluous or even an oxymoron in the non-profit domain (Bouckaert & Vandenhove, 1998).

Lastly, the assumption that CSR is less relevant in the non-profit domain than in the for-profit domain might also originate from the fact that professional team sport organisations and MNEs, wield high levels of power, demonstrate a high level of media scrutiny and are increasingly facing pressure from shareholders to demonstrate their societal responsibilities (Jenkins, 2004; Babiak & Wolfe, 2009).

However, numerous irresponsible scandals recurrently reported contradicts the assumption that non-profit organisations are socially responsible *per se*. (Fassin, 2009; Gibelman & Gelman, 2004; Kihl, 2017). While pressures to prevent irresponsible behaviour might be stronger in the for profit domain than the non-profit domain, non-

profit organisations are also accountable to numerous stakeholders with whom trust must be maintained (Lin-Hi et al., 2015). Because responsible behaviour of non-profit organisations should not be taken for granted, it is therefore valuable to address (corporate) social responsibility in the non-profit domain.

Several scholars reported CSR efforts within non-profit sector. By way of examples, non-profit organisations involved in public festivals develop initiatives focusing on environmental impact and sustainability efforts as well as on the provision of quality programmes and services (Watters & Otts, 2014); health agencies organise fundraising activities, provide time off to their workforce to participate in volunteer activities, engage in green activities such as recycling, encouraging staff to carpool, going paperless and pro-active human resource policies (Morris, 2013); non-profit organisations engage in urban youth conservation environmental programmes (Bradford, 2017).

Recent studies have uncovered the following differences in CSR programmes developed by non-profit organisations. First, some non-profit organisations prefer the term sustainability to CSR (Fifka et al., 2016). Second, because non-profits face human and financial resource constraints, they may find it difficult to incorporate employees and volunteers into their own social responsibility efforts (Hogan, 2009). Consequently, they might rely on partnerships with business that would provide the needed human resource (Bradford, 2017) in 'an inside-out approach' (Morsing, Schultz, & Nielsen, 2008). Relatedly, Fifka et al. (2016) showed that although non-profit organisations acknowledge governments and business to be legitimate stakeholders, they prefer other non-profit organisations and supranational organisations as collaboration partners due to more congruent interests. Third, according to Lin-Hi et al. (2015) non-profit organisations are less prepared to perform CSR in terms of "avoiding bad" because the institutional pressures (i.e. legal regulations, watchdogs,...) to prevent irresponsible behaviour are stronger in the for-profit than the non-profit domain. However, like for-profit organisation, non-profit organisations are also accountable to numerous stakeholders with whom trust must be maintained. Fourth, Fifkas et al. (2016) found that non-profit organisations are intrinsically animated by the overall aim of generating social progress, which is also their most important motivation to pursue sustainability. As such, they regard themselves as role models in the development of innovative projects for social welfare and as operational facilitators that

provide services, management skills and technical expertise to directly generate social improvements. As such they are assuming several roles: advocacy role, role models, and operational role. Fifth, specific practices implemented range from the establishment of foundations to employee volunteering, sponsorship for sustainable causes, codes of ethics and conduct.

This dissertation therefore builds on the recent but rising body of research mostly pertaining to the motivations for CSR in non-profit organisation. Accordingly it intends to contribute to extend the field and develop the understanding of this phenomenon by examining how non-profit sport organisations implement CSR programmes.

d. Corporate Social Responsibility in the Non-profit Sport Context

Sport management literature investigating CSR within non-profit sport is still embryonic (Babiak & Misener, 2015; Bayle, 2015b; Buscarini & Mura, 2013; Chelladurai, 2016; Hoeber et al., 2015; Misener & Doherty, 2012; Persson, 2008; Robertson et al., 2018; Robertson, 2016). To date, the non-profit sport organisations under investigation included a range of organisations from national and regional sport organisations, to local community sport clubs. This section analyses the major theoretical and conceptual advancement developed by researchers investigating CSR by non-profit sport organisations and their impact on CSR implementation. None specifically addresses the implementation of CSR, but some findings have important implications for an investigation that places CSR implementation as its central theme. The nascent scholarly efforts have succinctly contributed to drawing a panorama of CSR within the non-profit sport industry, revealing that non-profit sport organisations are implementing CSR programmes too (Persson, 2008; Misener & Babiak, 2015).

Persson (2008) addressed the need to examine the concept of CSR in the context of sport governing bodies in the early development of CSR in the sport management literature. This study found that the state had increased expectations on sport associations to deliver its social policy agenda through the promotion of health and social integration aspects. The author established that CSR could be a progressive response to changes in the Danish state sport policy and fundamental to the sport governing bodies' procurement of social capital. This study revealed the challenges arising from transferring the idea of CSR to the arena of sport and sport governing bodies. For instance, some representatives sport governing bodies were sceptical and

argued that their member clubs are not capable of coping with more responsibility, whilst others have stressed that a greater social responsibility may result in greater possibilities for further funding, which may result in greater membership. As a result, he noted that CSR “It is a race or a tournament which they do not need to enter, as they are already part of it by default. The sport governing bodies will be judged and compared with their equals, and they will as a result only need to decide their own level of ambition and whether they want to follow or lead” (page 48).

Recently, Babiak and Misener (2015) explored the rationale for engaging in CSR practices as well as the pressures influencing these conducts. They found both altruistic motives (civic engagement, board member philosophy, leadership and role modelling) and strategic/club development motives (differentiation and members and volunteers’ attractiveness/appeal). These results thereby revealed notable similarities with commercial CSR motives (Porter & Kramer, 2006) as well as the balance between non-profit principles and the increasingly competitive environment. An interesting finding emerging from this study was the fact that partnership appeared as standard practice for community sport organisations and could potentially be considered as leveraging impact of CSR actions.

Recently, Robertson et al. (2018) considered the applicability of CSR in community sport organisations. Their findings showed that these organisations – primarily responsible for enhancing sport participation, creating a safe and inclusive environment, and ensuring the clubs are economically and legally sound – can be also socially responsible organisations. They concluded that their focus should be on fulfilling obligations that meaningfully impact their community, before devoting scarce resources to activities beyond their immediate capacity (i.e. secondary responsibilities).

So far, a handful of scholars gave considerations on the applicability, the significance, the nature of the practices, and the motivations for CSR in the non-profit setting, but remain relatively scarce within these research areas. Noting that the development of CSR principles and practice has not sufficiently been extended to other fields of the sport industry, Chelladurai (2016) has recently defended that “it is necessary that our scholarly efforts in CSR should be focused equally, if not more, on non-profit organisations in sport” (page 8). Consequently, there is a pressing need to further

grasp the applicability and the specificities of CSR in a non-profit context, and in the sport federation context in particular. Empirical insights are required to understand better how non-profit organisations engage in CSR.

Similar debates over a distinct approach to CSR in the context of SME offer insightful lessons for the line of reasoning advanced in this dissertation (Jenkins, 2004, 2006; Lepoutre & Heene, 2006; Soundararajan et al., 2018). In the realm of the SME setting, scholars set out several specific features of CSR in SMEs: (i) a lack of codification of CSR in small businesses (Fassin, 2008; Spence, 2016); (ii) no language for CSR (Fassin, 2008), (iii) informal incorporation of CSR into their operations (Spence, 2016); (iv) discretionary and implicit CSR (Spence, 2016); (v) personal motivation for CSR is more important than strategic marketing or public relations motives (Fassin, 2008; Fassin et al., 2011); (vi) the primary owner has ultimate responsibility (Spence, 2016); (vii) local communities as well as employees (Spence, 2016) are important stakeholders; and (viii); sector context is particularly important for small firms (Lepoutre & Heene, 2006). They defend that it is consequently inappropriate to develop CSR strategies for SMEs along the same lines as those for MNEs on the grounds that CSR is sensitive to organisational context and forms (Fassin, 2008; Jenkins 2004). Accordingly, adapting the process to the light structure of the SMEs is suggested (Baumann-Pauly et al., 2013; Fassin, 2008; Murillo & Lozano, 2006). Although all assumptions might not prevail for all sport federations given their peculiar characteristics, this debate is of particular relevance to this study because the majority of national federations in Europe are, by the EU definitions, SMEs (Moore & Levermore, 2012; Walters & Tacon, 2010).

CSR and Sport Federations

Considering the present study focus, sport federations are non-profit organisations that possess a set of unique characteristics (Nagel, Schlesinger, Bayle, & Giauque, 2015; O'Boyle & Hassan, 2014; Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011; Winand et al., 2010). Some of these features are not only unique to sport federations and are also identified in other non-profit, public or private (sport) organisations. However, the set of characteristics is unique to sport federations. These attributes are expected to influence their implementation of CSR practices.

In light of this study, we highlight nine key features. First, their strategic objectives are mostly intangible, and hence, difficult to measure and manage (O'Boyle & Hassan, 2014; Taylor & McGraw, 2006). Measure of success are related to on-field success and participant numbers rather than to operational effectiveness (Taylor & McGraw, 2006). Second, they are required to meet their numerous stakeholders' needs and expectations (Walters & Tacon, 2010). Noticeably, contrary to SMEs, sport federations interact with a vast panel of internal and external stakeholders. Third, sport federations are financially constrained, especially due to the annual funding received from public authorities (Wicker & Breuer, 2011). These organisations tend to innovate and collaborate to overcome this scarcity (Wicker, Vos, Scheerder, & Breuer, 2013; Winand, Scheerder, Vos, & Zintz, 2016). Fourth, their internal functioning is often unclear due to the complex human resource balance between paid staff and volunteers caused by the appointment of paid staff (Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011; Taylor & McGraw, 2006; Thibault, Slack, & Hinnings, 1991; Winand et al., 2013). Fifth, they have a small-scale decentralisation and flat organisational hierarchy (Winand et al., 2010). Current pressures to formalise management practices are often juxtaposed with challenges of informal planning, control and administrative systems (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; Nagel et al., 2015; Taylor & McGraw, 2006). Sixth, sport federations tend to be moving from a non-profit and public logic to a more business-like logic (Maier, Meyer, & Steinbereithner, 2014), as a form of professionalisation of the structure, of individuals and of activities (Dowling, Edwards, & Washington, 2014; Nagel et al., 2015). Scholars consider that such hybridity – also found in other organisational contexts - could be causing mission drift (Lucassen & de Bakker, 2016). Seventh, the complex interplay between national and regional governing bodies increases the complexity of the sport federated structure (Sotiriadou et al., 2017; Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011). Eighth, sport federations are representative parent bodies of sport activity. They are described as networks (Provan, 1983) or membership associations (Doherty, Misener, & Cuskelly, 2014) reliant on their member sport clubs. Ninth and last, sport federations are pressured to adopt good governance and CSR practices (Geeraert, 2015). The important external funding through public authorities make them accountable towards these stakeholders (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Geeraert, 2015; Zintz & Winand, 2013).

Specific investigation of CSR in a sport federation context is important for three reasons. The first argument is that they have a strong social relevance and represent

a significant position in the sport system (Zintz & Winand, 2013). Overall, in the Belgian nonprofit context, 24.5 % of Belgian volunteers are sport volunteers (Marée, Hustinx, Xhaufleur, De Keyser, & Verhaege, 2015). Their impact on society number is therefore underestimated and ignoring sport federations in CSR research is inappropriate. Second, implementing CSR in professional sport organisations is not necessarily the same in non-profit organisations. Sport federations have specific characteristics, which are expected to have an impact on how CSR is implemented. Finally, sport federations are becoming increasingly innovative (Winand & Anagnostopoulos, 2017; Winand et al., 2016), implying that the research on CSR may yield valuable insights for other organisational forms.

e. CSR Implementation

The academic literature examining the organisational, strategic, cognitive and practical aspects of CSR (Bhattacharya, Korschun, & Sen, 2009; Galbreath, 2009; Maon et al., 2008; Seitanidi & Crane, 2009; Smith, 2003) is known as the CSR implementation literature. The many ambiguities and challenges prompted scholars to stress the need for a more precise theoretical and empirical investigation of the underlying processes to effectively build, manage and predict CSR.

Literature offers various insights into the challenges organisations are facing when implementing CSR programmes. Four challenges are particularly salient in our view. First, CSR engagement must align with the organisation's mission, values and rationale. This requires awareness and understanding of the organisation's vision and values and their relationship to the organisation's core practices. Organisations must therefore build on their values to create an organisational culture that is receptive to change and can sustain a CSR strategy (Maon et al., 2010; Smith, 2003; Yuan, Bao, & Verbeke, 2011). CSR implementation therefore involves its integration in all levels of the organisation (Maon et al., 2010). Second, CSR engagements are expected to meet stakeholders' expectations despite their inconsistency, diversity, fluctuating and unpredictable nature (Fortis et al., 2017; Hamil & Morrow, 2011; Walters & Tacon, 2010; Winand et al., 2013). In the sport context, sport organisations are expected to behave as good host in their community, as good citizens with regards to their fans and as good given the support they receive from public authorities (i.e., they are deserving public support) (Robertson, 2016; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). Third, the

successful change process is determined by resistance, learning and unlearning and organisational capacity to manage challenges (Maon et al., 2008; 2010). Barriers to the development of a CSR orientation include threats to stability, fear of change, the belief that a CSR orientation is inappropriate for the organisations, or the belief that focusing on CSR will result in the organisation losing sight of its core values (Maon et al., 2008). Fourth, decoupling behaviour between talking CSR and walking CSR are possible inconsistencies of the CSR engagement (Wickert et al., 2016).

These challenges incited scholars to develop tools for organisations struggling with efficiently developing and implementing an integrated CSR agenda and guided the development of the CSR implementation research theme. As noted by Maon et al. (2010), the literature shifted from a normative perspective (Carroll, 1979, 1999; Garriga & Melé, 2004; Sethi, 1975; Wood, 1991) towards a more strategic, practice-oriented understanding of these issues (Basu & Palazzo, 2008; Lee, 2008; Lindgreen, Swaen, & Maon, 2009). Studies have endeavoured to engage in efforts to conceptualise CSR according to a more dynamic and implementation-oriented perspective, with the goal of understanding how CSR unfolds in organisations and what triggers organisational engagement in CSR initiatives (Maon et al., 2010).

From a theoretical point of view, CSR development and integration is commonly considered as a strategic organisational change process (Burke & Logsdon, 1996; Ingham & Havard, 2015; Maon et al., 2008, 2010; Porter & Kramer, 2006). Maon et al. (2008) emphasised that CSR implementation could be considered as an organisational change process (i.e. moving from a present to a future state) or as a new way of organising and working.

By extension, drawing on policy implementation and strategic management, CSR programmes can be considered as policies that are implemented by organisations. Overall, policy implementation research is concerned with exploring why and how programmes and policies occurred (Pressman & Wildavsky, 1984). For Bryson (2010), “strategic management may be viewed as the appropriate and reasonable integration of strategic planning and implementation across an organisation (or other entity) in an ongoing way to enhance the fulfilment of mission, meeting of mandates, continuous learning, and sustained creation of public value” (page 256). Strategic planning is a deliberative, disciplined effort to produce decisions and actions that shape and guide

what an organisation is (its identity), what it does (its strategies and actions), and why it does it (mandates, mission, goals, and the creation of public value). Implementation encompasses the ongoing effort to realise in practice an organisation's mission, goals, and strategies; continuous organisational learning; and creation of public value (Bryson, 2010). Both strategic planning and implementation mutually influence each other. In strategic planning, frame setting and guidance for subsequent decision making prevail; in implementation, the focus is on sustained action within the constraints of mandates, mission, goals, and strategies, while being open to new learning that may affect the framework for action.

In essence, CSR implementation³ is defined in this research as the development and integration of CSR principles and practices into the strategy, the structure, the culture and operations of an organisation (Maon et al., 2010). The study of CSR implementation implies “focusing on practical guidelines and success factors that can help organisations to design and implement their CSR initiatives” (Maon et al., 2010, p. 26). When implementing CSR initiatives, organisations must develop their own CSR vision and strategy, depending on their unique features and objectives as well as on the particular characteristics and expectations of their stakeholders (Maon, 2010).

This literature stream notably deals with stages, phases and steps required for the adaptation of existing strategic policies, culture and practices to the integration of CSR within an organisation (Asif et al., 2013; Baumann-Pauly et al., 2013; Ingham & Havard, 2015; Lindgreen, Swaen, Harness, & Hoffmann, 2011; Maon et al., 2008, 2010). Research in this area investigates the complex strategic and cognitive process underlying the unfoldment of CSR principles and practices within an organisation (Maon et al., 2010). It concentrates on the organisational integration of CSR principles into daily practices and routines (Ingham & Havard, 2015). Examining implementation is necessary to explain and predict the outcome of CSR (Bhattacharya et al., 2009). Further, Lindgreen et al. (2011) posit that this research area provides two benefits. First, it mitigates the charge that organisational CSR is nothing more than marketing communication or “window dressing”. Second, the organisation reduces the potential

³ Despite heterogeneous terminologies (i.e., development, integration and implementation) prevailing in the sport management and CSR literature, this study refers to the broader term ‘CSR implementation’.

that CSR comes decoupled from decision-making when confronted to economic challenges.

The CSR implementation literature can be divided into three interrelated sets of publications considering Ingham and Havard (2015) classification. First, the study of the levels and degrees of integration investigates CSR types and states (Halme & Laurila, 2009; Martinuzzi & Krumay, 2013; Yuan, Bao, & Verbeke, 2011). These studies provide typologies based on the nature of the CSR efforts and/or on the related motivations.

Second, the study of the process of implementing CSR consists in providing practical guidelines and mostly linear-steps frameworks to successfully implement CSR (Asif et al., 2013; Kakabadse, Kakabadse, & Lee-Davis, 2009; Maon et al., 2008; Werre, 2003). Rooted in strategic management, these sequential models propose practical guidelines, success factors, and related change strategies to design and implement CSR at the different organisational levels (e.g., (Baumgartner, 2014; Engert & Baumgartner, 2016). For instance, Maon et al. (2008) offered a sequential model of the CSR design and implementation process based on Lewin (1951)'s change model.

Third, the study of the trajectories - stages and phases in CSR implementation - focuses organisational developments required to integrate CSR principles into business practices from a more longitudinal perspective (Baumann-Pauly et al., 2013; Maon et al., 2010; Mirvis & Googins, 2006; Van Marrewijk & Werre, 2003; Zadek, 2004). These studies generally rely on the idea of a level-by-level process along which internal capabilities get applied to social issues and drive CSR development. Notably, Maon et al. (2010) provided a consolidative model of the organisational, strategic, moral and cultural implications of CSR development process. Bauman-Pauly et al. (2013) offered a model sketching different dimensions and measurement for SMEs and MNEs. They revealed distinctive implementation patterns of CSR. MNEs are particularly advanced in making extensive public commitments to CSR and publishing comprehensive reports. In contrast, SMEs are particularly advanced at implementing CSR-related practices in organisational processes and procedures, including engaging employees. This latter stream of literature is central to our research insofar as it contributed to develop our conceptualisation and analysis of CSR implementation (see in particular paper 1).

Two additional research streams associated with the CSR implementation theme complement the three-items review drew by Ingham and Harvard (2015). Fourth, the study of the micro-foundations of CSR – defined by Rupp and Mallory (2015, p. 216) as “the study of the effects and experiences of CSR (however it is defined) on individuals (in any stakeholder group) as examined at the individual level of analysis” - provide important insights to enhance the understanding of CSR implementation. Individual behaviours and attitudes are conducive to ensuring successful implementation. In particular, Jamali et al. (2015) suggested that the human resource management and CSR would enable managers and decision makers to design CSR initiatives that leverage internal competencies. Gond, El Akremi, Swaen, and Babu (2017) organised micro-CSR studies into three streams: (i) individual drivers of CSR engagement, (ii) individual processes of CSR evaluations, and (iii) individual reactions to CSR initiatives. Although sometimes overlapping with other research themes such as the outcome, each of these research areas offer findings - such as the sensemaking process by which individuals interpret CSR initiatives that inform the CSR implementation process.

Fifth, the study of international accountability standards (Schönherr, Findler, & Martinuzzi, 2017) - defined as “voluntary predefined rules, procedures, and methods to systematically assess, measure, audit and/or communicate the social and environmental behaviour and/or performance of firms” (Gilbert, Rasche, & Waddock, 2011, p. 24) – has significantly contributed to the current body of knowledge on CSR implementation. This increased formalisation influences the CSR integration process because standards offer guidelines and support to organisations for implementing CSR (Maon et al., 2008). For instance, the United Nations Global Compact (UNGC) aims to serve as a long-term CSR learning platform (Kell & Levin, 2003). Rasche (2015) classified these standards into four categories: principle-based standards (e.g. the UNGC and the OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises), certification standards (e.g. SA8000 and ISO 14001, B Corp certification), reporting standards (e.g. the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI)), and process standards (e.g. AA1000 Standards Series and the ISO 26000).

4. Theoretical Framework

a. A Multi-Theoretical Perspective to Examine CSR

The literature on CSR is fragmented, with several disciplines contributing to the field, namely marketing, organisational behaviour, human resource management, industrial and organisational psychology; operations; and information systems (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). As noted by Waddock (2004), “Parallel and sometimes confusing universes exist” (page 5). One reason for this fragmentation is that scholars study CSR through different disciplinary and conceptual lenses (Carroll, 1999; Garriga & Melé, 2004; Waddock, 2004). According to Aguinis and Glavas (2012), the fragmented nature of the literature reflects the multifaceted nature of CSR.

Additionally, the CSR literature is fragmented regarding levels of analysis. Aguinis and Glavas (2012) noted CSR is a field that heavily focus on the institutional level – originally - and in the past decades - organisational level (Lee, 2008), with a dearth of micro-level research on CSR found.

Moreover, this fragmentation is exacerbated by the use of the different theoretical frameworks that guide research at each level. For example, scholars studying CSR at the institutional level of analysis usually use institutional theory as the conceptual background. Alternatively, researchers focusing on the organisational level of analysis rely on different theoretical frameworks such as the resource-based view of the firm. Finally, researchers investigating CSR at the individual level of analysis rely on yet a different set of theoretical frameworks such as organisational justice, social influence, needs, and self-determination theories (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012).

This dissertation appreciates this theoretical wealth (Garriga & Melé, 2004; Lee, 2008; Secchi, 2007) by combining theories that originate from several organisational theories and different academic disciplines. Such approach is strongly encouraged in function of a rich and holistic view for CSR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012), sport (Fink, 2013; Ferkins et al., 2018), and management (Hitt, Beamish, Jackson, & Mathieu, 2007). Theoretical pluralism is indeed valid to gain a more complete picture of a phenomenon as a single theoretical perspective appear insufficient to capture the complexities of CSR implementation (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014). In particular, non-profit scholars advocate that theoretical plurality is required to the study of what triggers non-profit

organisations behaviours such as what triggers organisation to form collaboration (Guo & Acar, 2005).

Theoretical foundation for the dissertation is therefore derived from the multiple domains of corporate, non-profit and sport management. The study of organisation theory, as it applies to sport, has been informed by empirically based research of sport organisations since the early 1980s. Much of this work has been grounded in the traditions of generic management literature and organisation behaviour where aspects unique to sport have been teased out (Ferkins & Shilbury, Forthcoming). Consequently, sport management is considered as a context defined discipline (Gerrard, 2015). Fink (2013) wrote “I firmly believe the context of sport must be densely woven into any work in order to make a strong theoretical contribution to the sport management literature” (page 18). It is in this tradition that the focus on CSR implementation by sport federations in sport is addressed. Accordingly, our main focus is on the use of these theories and accompanying concepts in the specific context of sport. Hence, this dissertation is mainly characterised by a “derived” approach, referring to the fact that non-sport specific theories are derived from other academic fields, after which they are applied to sport (Chalip, 2006).

In this project, the use of institutional theory, resource based-view theory, organisational learning theory and professionalisation has guided the development of a theoretical understanding of CSR implementation. The subsequent sections will present the main conceptual underpinnings associated with each theory.

b. Institutional Theory

Institutional theory posits that institutions are a critical component in the environment. Institutions have been defined as “more-or-less, taken for granted repetitive social behaviour that is underpinned by normative systems and cognitive understandings that give meaning to social exchange and thus enable self-reproducing social order” (Greenwood & Hinings, 1996, pp. 4-5). Examples of institutions are notably, laws, regulations, customs, social and professional norms, culture and ethics. Institutions exert a constraining influence over organisations, called isomorphism that forces organisations to resemble other organisations facing similar environmental conditions.

Institutions exert three types of isomorphic pressure on organisations: coercive, normative and mimetic (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Coercive refers to pressure from entities who have resources on which an organisation depends. Mimetic refers to the imitation or copying of other successful organisations when an organisation is uncertain about what to do. Normative refers to following professional standards and practices established by education and training methods, professional networks, and movement of employees among firms. Institutionalisation is the process by which events and structures become established habits of social behaviour within organisations over time (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Tolbert & Zucker, 1983). This results in what is known as institutional isomorphism, whereby similarities exist in the structures of institutions (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983).

Washington and Patterson (2011) summarised the principles tenets of institutional theory depicted by Greenwood and Hinings (1996) in four fundamental understandings: organisations exist in institutional settings, organisations with unclear technologies and conflicting beliefs can be influenced by institutional forces, isomorphism occurs as a way of developing legitimacy but is often accompanied by inefficiency, and institutional practices are difficult to alter once embedded within the field.

Within the sport management literature, Washington and Patterson (2011) reviewed the body of literature in sport management that have applied institutional theory, tested the central tenets of the theory and brought greater understanding to organisations within the sport context.

Overall, the literature connecting CSR and institutional theory focused in two areas: the pressures that influence firm to engage in CSR and evidence of institutionalisation (Bondy, Moon, & Matten, 2012). Studies focusing on macro-institutional pressures tend to investigate broad societal pressures and demonstrate that the meaning and practice of CSR varies from geographical, industrial and socio-cultural context (Amaeshi et al., 2015; Matten & Moon, 2004; Campbell, 2007). In the context of sport, scholars particularly highlighted the importance of institutional pressures emanating from various stakeholders in the diffusion and adoption of CSR practices (Babiak & Trendafilova, 2011; Babiak, 2010; Hamil & Morrow, 2011; Kolyperas et al., 2015; Trendafilova et al., 2013). For example, Trendafilova and colleagues (2013) identified coercive, normative and mimetic pressures behind environmentally friendly practices.

In particular, coercive forces, such as media, government and watchdog groups, tended to inspect and regulate these organisations. Mimetic behaviour (business practices, trends, experts and consultants) is also discernible, particularly due to the interconnectedness of the organisational field in which professional teams exist and operate. In essence, these studies highlight different ways in which institutions shape CSR and how companies comply with institutional pressures in order to gain legitimacy and proactively develop CSR activities targeted toward legitimacy building (Beddewela & Fairbrass, 2015; Du & Vieira, 2012).

Alongside, the focus has been on exploring CSR as an institution (Bondy et al, 2012). These scholars – notably, Bondy and colleague (2012) – argue that “CSR is becoming institutionalised within society” (page 282). Explosion in training, in reporting, and in codification of CSR into law are examples of institutionalisation patterns.

In this study, institutional theory was used as a means to explore the institutional motivations driving non-profit organisations to collaborate. Institutional theory provides valuable insights into the comprehension of the drivers and the rationales for collaboration (Barringer & Harrison, 2000; Guo & Acar, 2005; Oliver, 1990).

c. Resource Based-view Theory

As an organisational-centred approach, resource based-view theory focuses on the internal resources that help organisation to create a sustainable competitive advantage (Barney, 1991) and to accomplish its vision, mission, strategies and goals (Porter, 1981). It stipulates that the ability of a firm to perform better than its competitors depends on the effective deployment of resources (Barney, 1991). Essentially, resource based-view theory differentiates between the resources available to all organisations in an industry and organisational-specific resources that are unique to the individual organisation (Gerrard, 2005).

Two key assumptions are central in resource base theory: (1) organisations within an industry may differ in their resources, and (2) these resources may not be perfectly mobile across organisations, so organisational differences in resources can be very long lasting (Barney, 1991, 2001; Miles, 2012). This theory seeks to explain how organisations maintain unique and sustainable positions in competitive environment. Sustainable competitive advantage derives from the resources and the abilities of an

organisation to absorb and use its resources to its competitive advantage (Barney, 1991).

Organisational resources are defined as ‘all assets, capabilities⁴, organisational processes, firm attributes, information, knowledge, etc. controlled by a firm that enable the firm to conceive and implement strategies that improve its efficiency and effectiveness’ (Barney, 1991, p. 101). Resources can include tangible or intangible assets. These include physical, human, technological, and organisational capital resources. To achieve sustained competitive advantage, resources should be valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable and nonsubstitutable (Barney, 1991).

Within the sport management literature, numerous studies applied the resource based-view approach to examine the organisational capacity to perform (Wicker & Breuer, 2011); organisational performance of national Olympic committees, national governing bodies, and clubs (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; Madella, Bayle, & Tome, 2005; Winand et al., 2010); and the organisational resources for competitive advantage (Robinson & Minikin, 2011; Truyens, De Bosscher, & Sotiriadou, 2016). Gerrard (2003) stressed the need for studies considering the RBV in a broader range of sport organisations as all “all organisations face competitive pressure from their external environment that may threaten their survival” (page 413).

Studies have acknowledged CSR as an area of study for which resource based-view theory has important implications (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006). Numerous CSR scholars have used the resource based-view theory in line with the assumption that CSR can lead to superior performance and competitive advantage (McWilliams, Siegel, & Wright, 2006; Porter & Kramer, 2006). For instance, CSR can be based on competitive advantage in terms of. CSR has been linked with attracting resources (Waddock & Graves, 1997), cost savings, differentiation and helping to develop better organisational reputations (Porter & Kramer, 2006). This body of work has recognised the importance of intangible resources such as know-how, corporate culture and reputation (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006). More recently, studies have examined CSR with a focus on the internal resources required for CSR. For instance, Torugsa, O'Donohue, and Hecker (2012) identified that shared vision, stakeholder management

⁴ Resources are the assets under the control of an organisation while capabilities are the ability of an organisation to perform a coordinated set of tasks and utilize their resources to achieve an end result e.g. what they can do (Truyens, De Bosscher, Heyndels, & Westerbeek, 2014).

and strategic proactivity are specific organisational capabilities that may contribute to more proactive CSR in SME.

Despite some limitations (Miles, 2012), the resource based-view theory is an appropriate framework for explaining the motivations to collaborate to implement CSR. Consistent with the resource based-view and compared to their larger counterparts, sport federations, are described like non-profit sport organisations as having a lesser and limited resource base (Wicker & Breuer, 2011) and few opportunities to reap the benefit of scale, scope and learning (Winand & Hoeber, 2017).

d. Organisational Learning Theory

It is possible to classify organisational learning into two perspectives emanating from different schools of thoughts (Crossan et al., 1999; Easterby-Smith, 1997; Fiol & Lyles, 1985). The behavioural perspective assumes organisational learning as an adaptive capacity of organisations based on a portfolio of routines, procedures, habits (Cyber & March, 1963; Zahra & George, 2002). The cognitive perspective considers OL as a cognitive shift that involves changes in the mental models, beliefs and ideas underlying individuals and collective action (Weick, 1979). Scholars contend that limiting the discussion to this debate does not capture the richness of learning (Bapuji & Crossan, 2004; Easterby-Smith, 1997; Easterby-Smith & Lyles, 2011; Nicolini & Meznar, 1995), rather these two perspectives should be regarded as complementary and necessary within an organisation (Crossan et al., 1999). The learning process encompasses both cognitive and behavioural change.

The definition adopted for this research incorporates this thinking: “organisational learning is the process of change in individual and shared thought and action, which is affected by and embedded in the institutions of the organisations” (Vera, Crossan, & Apaydin, 2011, p. 154). Learning can be understood as a relatively permanent change in organisation’s knowledge⁵ or skill and in the range of potential organisational behaviours resulting from experience (Weiss, 1990). This definition underlines the dual nature of learning as process (perceiving and processing information hereby, experience) and result (adapted knowledge or skill). Besides, the term organisation

⁵ Vera et al. (2011) define and summarise the relationships between knowledge management, organisational organisational learning, learning organisation, dynamic capabilities and absorptive capacity. Knowledge is seen as key component of organisational learning.

has a dual meaning: institutional (organisation as a social system of members pursuing common goals) and instrumental (organisation as a body of structures and rules that regulate human behaviour in the workplace) (Schilling & Kluge, 2009).

This study adopted a comprehensive perspective of learning by drawing on the model of Crossan et al. (1990), known as the 4I framework. This framework suggests that OL includes individual, group and organisation level processes. From this perspective, learning first occurs to individuals, not to organisation (Nonaka, 1994). However, organisational learning is not simply the sum of individual learning initiatives. Knowledge generated by individuals does not come to bear on the organisation independently (Crossan et al., 1999). Rather, thoughts and actions are shared, actions taken, and shared understandings developed by groups become institutionalised, thereby becoming independent of any specific individual (Crossan et al., 1999; Huber, 1991). Learning also takes place at inter-organisational levels (Child & Faulkner, 1998; Dyer & Nobeoka, 2000; Holmqvist, 2003; Inkpen & Currall, 2004). An organisation will either learn from or with a learning partner (Inkpen & Currall, 2004).

Organisational learning has been studied in a variety of contexts and disciplines such as psychology, management science, sociology and organisation theory, strategy, production management and anthropology (Easterby-Smith, 1997). The boundaries of organisational learning are often shaped with similar fields such as learning organisation, organisational knowledge, knowledge management, intellectual capital and organisational memory (Easterby-Smith & Lyles, 2011; Vera & Crossan, 2004). Nonetheless, regardless of its precise definition, organisational learning is seen as a critical tool to understand how organisation evolve, transform, renew themselves in order to face the challenges of a continuously changing environment

Organisational learning has been largely ignored by sport management scholars. Only a handful of studies have examined broader knowledge management aspects such as knowledge creation, transfer and innovation management (Girginov, Toohey, & Willem, 2015; Halbwirth & Toohey, 2001; Hoeber et al., 2015; O'Reilly & Knight, 2007; Parent, MacDonald, & Goulet, 2014), knowledge translation (Schailée, Spaaij, Jeanes, & Theeboom, 2019), training (Millar & Stevens, 2012), communities of practices (Willem, Girginov, & Toohey, 2018) or presidents' management competencies (Freitas, Girginov, & Teoldo, 2017).

For CSR scholars, CSR implementation requires organisational learning. For instance, in their early work, Antal and Sobczak (2004) stressed that a theory of organisational learning would offer a more dynamic perspective to CSR implementation. Maon et al. (2008) employed Lewin's (1951) model of change, and claimed that the first step to successfully implement CSR is to learn long-held cultural foundation, and then develop learning processes and know-how through stakeholder engagement. Similarly, Blackman, Kenedy, and Quazi (2012) argued that CSR implementation entails to consider both the role of learning and unlearning. Oelze, Ulstrup Hoejmoser, Habisch, and Millington (2014) analysed the role of collaboration in organisational learning for CSR implementation (i.e., how training, knowledge acquisition, certification and stakeholder engagement). Recently, Fortis et al. (2018) reviewed the interrelationship between CSR and organisational learning and suggested avenues for future research that we targeted specifically in paper 3.

e. Professionalisation

Rooted within the sociology and management discipline (Abbott & Meerabeau, 1998), the concept of professionalisation made its entrance into sport management in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Dowling et al., 2014). Nagel et al. (2015) define professionalisation in the sport setting as "a process of increased organisational rationalisation, project management and strategic thinking with the goal to increase the federation's efficiency" (page 408).

Several scholars have analysed the professionalisation processes in sport organisations - in particular in non-profit sport organisations (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; Clausen et al., 2018; Nagel et al., 2015; O'Brien & Slack, 2003; Slack & Hinings, 1992; Thibault, Slack, & Hinings, 1991). This change process broadly entails a transformation of sport organisations from an amateur, volunteer-driven to more business-oriented logics, entities and structures (Clausen et al., 2018; Dowling et al., 2014; Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011).

Dowling et al. (2014) suggested three broad categorisations of professionalisation in sport: occupational professionalisation, organisational professionalisation, and systemic professionalisation. Occupational professionalisation refers to the transformation of occupations into professions. In the sport context, this involves an

increased hiring of paid staff (Thibault et al., 1991) as well as the development of sport management as a discipline and the emergence of related education programs (Dowling et al., 2014). Organisational professionalisation denotes organisational transformation, caused by the influx of full-time professionals, which results in bureaucratisation (Slack & Hinings, 1994), rationalisation (Kikulis, 2000), leadership tensions (Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011), and effectiveness (Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000). This type of professionalisation has been manifested in three areas: governance, structures, and policy-making (Dowling et al., 2014). Systemic professionalisation refers the results of environment shifts in organisational fields or system. Related studies focus on the external factors that influence sport organisations (Clausen et al., 2018; Slack & Hinnings, 1987)

Considering the present study focus, Nagel et al. (2015)'s comprehensive framework of professionalisation of sport federation was used as a theoretical underpinning. Nagel et al. (2015)'s multi-level framework builds on the social theory of action (Coleman, 1986; Giddens, 1984). This theory assumes that social acting and social structures are in continuous reciprocal relationship that grows with time. Accordingly, Nagel et al. (2015) argue that "sport organisations change due to the ongoing reciprocal interplay between members' social acting and the organisational structure" (page 422).

Nagel et al., (2015) developed a multi-level framework based on a review of current international literature and concepts of professionalisation in sport federations.to analyse the influence of internal and external factors on causes, forms and consequences of professionalisation in sport federations. Internal (i.e., the federation and its member organisations) and external factors (i.e., stakeholders in sport and society) are crucial to the professionalisation of sport organisations (Nagel et al., 2015). Overall, they pointed out the crucial relevance of the following endogenous causes: (1) growing requirements regarding the work of the organisation, (2) size and sport of the federation, (3) financial resources, (4) strategic capability of board, (5) structures of decision-making, (6) individual key actors, (7) role of paid managing director(s) and of the board, and (8) organisational values. Professionalisation can take different forms ranging from activities, individuals, structures and processes (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; Nagel et al., 2015). Several studies have shown that professionalisation has consequences on organisational governance in terms of structure, organisational

objectives and values, as well as the role of the board (Ferkins, Shilbury, & McDonald, 2005; Nagel et al., 2015; Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011; Thibault et al., 1991).

This perspective of organisational and systemic professionalisation appears to be of particular interest for our study as it allows us to examine the consequences of professionalisation. This study contends that CSR can be seen as an example of a professional management tool, adapted from the general business world, in sport's endeavour for business-like management (Dowling et al., 2014; Nagel et al., 2015). After all, as noted by Constandt, De Waegeneer, and Willem (2017), "striving for professionalisation on the one hand, and a preoccupation with ethics and social responsibility on the other hand, should be seen as inextricably connected" (page 11). Put differently, this study considers that the current professionalisation process seems to be contributing to the development of necessary organisational factors related to CSR implementation.

However, the literature has not examined the consequences of professionalisation in the perspective of CSR implementation (i.e., in essence, CSR implementation is a consequence of professionalisation). Within CSR research, little research have examined the relationship between professionalisation and CSR. Risi and Wickert (2017) discussed the mutually supportive and reciprocal relationship between occupational professionalisation and CSR institutionalisation. Accordingly, this study further investigate how organisational professionalisation is associated with CSR implementation.

5. Research Design and Methodology

“The research design process in qualitative research begins with philosophical assumptions that the inquirers make in deciding to undertake a qualitative study. In addition, the researchers bring their own worldviews, paradigms, or sets of beliefs to the research projects, and these inform the conduct and writing of the qualitative study. Further, in many approaches to qualitative research, the researchers use interpretative and theoretical frameworks to further shape the study. Good research requires making these assumptions, paradigms and, frameworks explicit in the writing of a study, and, at a minimum, to be aware that they influence the conduct of inquiry” (Creswell, 2007, p. 15).

This section outlines the methodology characterising this research. This section details how the research was developed based on a defined research philosophy and methodological orientation. Doing so, this section aims to establish the methodological congruence between the theoretical and empirical (Creswell, 2007). This is particularly important given that this dissertation is built on a set of three publications with their specific research philosophy underpinnings, methodology and methods. For the sake of clarify and coherence, this section depicts the uniqueness and the similarities of the philosophical and methodological underpinnings chosen for each paper.

This section is structured as follows. The research paradigms, ontology and epistemology positions underlying the different papers are concisely presented under the sub-heading research philosophy. Then, the research design and approach are described. Finally, the last section outlines the methods (i.e., the specific procedures taken to develop the research, collect and analyse data are explained).

a. Research Philosophy

As noted in the introductory citation, the importance of making explicit the research paradigm because of its impact on the methodology and the research outcomes is a well-established tradition (Creswell, 2007; Gratton & Jones, 2010; Lincoln & Denzin, 2000). Lincoln and Denzin (2000) define a paradigm as “a basic set of beliefs that guide action” (page 183). Research paradigms can be considered as “a set of prepositions that explain how the world is perceived, and it contains a worldview, a way of breaking down the complexity of the real world, telling researchers and social scientists in general what is important, what is legitimate, and what is reasonable” (Edwards & Skinner, 2010, p. 18). In simpler terms, a research paradigm refers to an intellectual framework that governs the way the researcher perceives the social world and shapes research (Creswell, 2007; Edwards & Skinner, 2010).

In qualitative research, various terminologies of research paradigms are used to encapsulate these sets of beliefs that guides action. These include positivism, post-positivism, postmodernism, critical theory, constructivism, deconstructionism, feminism and critical interpretivism (Creswell, 2007; Crotty, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Miles & Huberman, 1994). These paradigms are differently shaping the scientific process and are shaped by it (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). The next section considers the epistemology, ontology and methodology.

Each paradigm builds on differing ontological and epistemological assumptions. Epistemology is defined as “the theory of knowledge embedded in the theoretical perspective and thereby in the methodology” (Crotty, 1998, p. 3). Put differently, epistemology refers to the theory of knowledge that asks how knowledge is derived, what counts as evidence and what is the relationship between the inquirer and the known (Edwards & Skinner, 2010; Crotty, 1998). Epistemological positions include objectivism, subjectivism and constructivism. Ontology deals with ‘the study of being’ and “what is, with the nature of existence, with the structure of reality as such” (Crotty, 1998, p. 10). Ontology raises questions about the nature of reality and the nature of the human being in the world (Edwards & Skinner, 2010; Creswell, 2007). Critical realism, relativism and realism are possible positions on this question.

Eventually, each paradigm has contracting implications for the types of research questions that are raised, the subsequent methodology adopted by the researcher, the

nature of the data that is collected, differing data collection, and the analysis and interpretation of such data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Crewell, 2007). Methodology and methods are discussed in the next section.

In this dissertation, paradigm pluralism is considered as particularly necessary to develop an in-depth understanding of the examined phenomenon. The papers are underpinned by a post-positivist or a constructivist approach, each having differing epistemological and ontological assumptions. The choice to employ these approaches was based not only on the way the questions have been formulated, but also on a desire to contribute to current knowledge in a different way than existing approaches commonly employed when examining CSR in the sport context (Walzel et al., 2018). Table 3 provides an overview of the research philosophy.

Paper 1: a post-positivist approach

The post-positivist approach characterising paper 1 builds on the assumption that perception is a window into reality from which a certain representation of reality must be triangulated with other perceptions. Under this approach, knowledge is a social and historical product specific to a particular time, culture or situation (Crotty, 1998). Contrary to positivism, post-positivism considers that it is not possible to gain a truly objective understanding through measurement and observation, and that there are some limitations inherent to such an approach (Gratton & Jones, 2010; Crotty, 1998). Knowledge of organisational and inter-organisational phenomena can therefore be partial or incomplete (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Crotty, 1998). Post-positivist approaches are characterised by a much greater openness to different methodological approaches, and will often include qualitative as well as quantitative methods, with a greater emphasis upon the use of multiple methods to look at a single phenomenon using a variety of means (Gratton & Jones, 2010).

Characteristics of this paradigm include a critical realism ontology and modified objectivist or subjectivist epistemology. Critical realism considers that there is a 'real' world to discover but it is only partially and imperfectly apprehensible "abstract things that are born of people's minds but exist independently of any one person" (Healy & Perry, 2000, p. 120). It contends that "such objects exist independently outside of the mind" (Crotty, 1998, p. 10). As such, an ontology of critical realism "still seeks knowledge but admits that verification is not achievable and judges success on

Popper's principles and the search for relative objectivity through the critical community of scholars" (Edwards & Skinner, 2010, p. 25).

As Creswell (2007) writes "this approach is characterised as being reductionist, logical, an emphasis on empirical data collection, cause-and-effect oriented, and deterministic based on a priori theories" (page 20). As such, this approach is consistent with the qualitative comparative analysis approach and technique chosen in the first paper. Further, the survey developed to examine organisational factors of CSR required a pre-defined conceptualisation and definition of CSR by the research team and experts rather than a co-construction dynamic with the respondents.

Paper 2 and paper 3: a constructivist-interpretivist approach

The research paradigm chosen for paper 2 and paper 3 is the constructivist-interpretative paradigm. Under this approach, social phenomena and their meanings are considered as being continually constructed through the interaction of actors (Berger & Luckmann, 1991). Individuals and groups are active creators in the construction of their own reality and "truth is a particular belief system held in a particular context" (Healy & Perry, 2000, p. 120). In this perspective, knowledge is perceived to result from a process based on mental operations or the capacity of judgement. In this way, science constructs a potential reality based on successive cognitive experiences (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Viewing the social world through a more postmodern lens, interpretivists contest that social realities can be quantified and reduced to a numerical state. There is not one correct way of interpreting social phenomena. Rather, reality is relative, complex, multiple, and socially constructed by various individuals (Edwards & Skinner, 2010). In this perspective, there are multiple realities.

By insisting on the highly constructed quality of knowledge, such a constructivist approach questions the possibility of always obtaining objective relations on which science can be based. The research itself can be seen as a social production and knowledge is seen as resulting from processes based on mental operations or the capacity of judgement of the researcher.

Characteristics of this paradigm, which are also central to the present research include a relativist ontology. That is, realities exist in the form of numerous mental

constructions, socially and experientially based, dependent for their form and content on the persons who hold them (Guba, 1990). Further, a subjective epistemology is underlined which refers to the co-creation understanding process between the inquirer and the inquired (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). This stance invoked here assumes that “all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context” (Crotty, 1998, p. 42).

Table 3. Research philosophy

	Research Paradigm	Ontological Position	Epistemological Position
Paper 1: <i>Determinants of CSR implementation</i>	Post-positivism	Critical realism	Subjectivism
Paper 2: <i>Collaboration motivations</i>	Constructivism - interpretative	Relativism	Subjectivism
Paper 3: <i>Organisational learning</i>	Constructivism - interpretative	Relativism	Subjectivism

b. Methodological Orientations

This study adopted a ***qualitative approach*** to examine CSR implementation in the non-profit sport context. “The qualitative approach to research is uniquely suited to uncovering the unexpected and exploring new avenues” (Marshall & Rossman, 1999, p. 38). This desire, alongside an immediate affinity with a style of research that assumes social reality is a subjective experience, and contextually orientated (i.e. embedded in an environment that requires interaction between the researcher and the subject of the research), led me to develop this qualitative study.

Moving beyond the classical inductive and deductive traditions, this research followed an ***abductive approach***. Theory of abduction puts forward abduction as the process that invents and discovers explanatory hypotheses concerning isolated phenomena rather than merely testing and establishing the explanatory value of hypotheses (induction) or developing measurable consequences for universal hypotheses

(deduction) (Burks, 1946; Fann, 2012). The abductive approach refers to a continuous interplay ('*systematic combining*') between theory and empirical data enacted by the researcher, moving between theory, data, and back to theory again (Dubois & Gadde, 2002).

Defined as "the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of a particular method and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes" (Crotty, 1998, p. 3), the **research methodology or design** of this research is a **case studies research design**. Creswell (2007) defines a case study research as follows: "case study research is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g., observations, interviews, audio-visual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description and case-based themes" (page. 73).

Case studies allow researchers to explore, explain and describe a phenomenon within its context (Yin, 2009). Case studies are particularly relevant for the study of the CSR implementation process by non-profit sport organisations if we consider Yin's (2009) arguments. He argued that case studies are suitable when (1) the research seeks to answer how and why questions, (2) the phenomenon is under control, (3) contextual conditions are possibly relevant, or (4) the boundaries of the phenomenon are not clear. Eventually, case studies are to describe and explain a case that has yet to be studied in detail. This empirical investigation goes beyond the study of isolated variables by focusing on the natural and particular context cases (Farquhar, 2012 p. 8).

In this project, case studies were used as a way of gaining insights into the implementation of CSR by sport federations. Table 4 describes the different approaches followed by each article. Paper 1 employs a different methodological approach and orientation than the other papers of the dissertation's portfolio. It uses a **comparative case-oriented approach**, QCA, that we describe below. This first phase of the research took place among all the Belgian regional sport federations. The population of the study is described in the research context section of this dissertation.

In a second phase of the research, in-depth **single case study** was used to investigate CSR implementation by sport federation. Paper 2 and 3 employed a single case study

research design to examine collaboration among non-profit sport organisations for CSR implementation. Small-scale research allows concentrating efforts on a few sites and eases computability for dealing with naturally occurring events from which the research has no control over them. This represents a major advantage for using case studies (Eisenhardt, 1989)(Eisenhardt 1989; Yin, 2003; Denscombe, 1998). The case selection is outlined in the pages that follow. The contextual background and characteristics of the case(s) are outlined in next section (i.e. research context).

Table 4. Methodological approach and orientation

	Methodological Approach	Methodological Orientation
Paper 1: <i>Determinants of CSR implementation</i>	Set-theoretic	Qualitative comparative analysis: case-oriented approach
Paper 2: <i>Collaboration motivations</i>	Abductive	Qualitative approach: single case study
Paper 3: <i>Organisational learning</i>	Abductive	Qualitative approach: single case study

Qualitative Comparative Analysis

As a method and an approach, qualitative comparative analysis integrates key strength of both qualitative (case-oriented perspective) and quantitative (variable-oriented perspective) (Ragin, 1987; Rihoux & Ragin, 2008). This configurational comparative method allows to examine causal complexity, which refers to the idea of multiple conjectural causations. In other words, there are multiple ways or paths composed of different constellations of factors to reach the same result.

This case-oriented approach is suitable because it allows “systematic cross-case comparisons, while at the same time giving justice to within-case complexity, particularly in small- and intermediate - N research designs” (Rihoux & Ragin, 2008, p. 18). As such, compared to classical statistical methods, “QCA is more context sensitive in the tradition of “grounded” approaches that are historical, qualitative, and empirically differentiated” (Rihoux & Ragin, 2008, p. 7). The essence of QCA is to understand each case as a configuration of variables and how that configuration is associated with a certain outcome. In other words, instead of analysing relationships between variables

(like standard quantitative variable oriented approach), QCA compares a set of cases (Marx, 2008).

In this respect, QCA is a *via media* method (Rihoux & Ragin, 2008) that combines a set-theoretic approach (Fiss, 2007) and Boolean algebra to analyse configurations of explanatory conditions of an intermediate number of cases). Set-theoretic approach considers that attributes of cases are not best described in terms of variables but in terms of set relations (Fiss, 2007). Variables aim to capture a dimension of variation across cases and distribute cases on this variation. A set assesses whether, or that what degree, a case is a member of a set and then analyses the intersection between sets. As such, a set-theoretic configurational approach departs from the notion of independently operating variables and assumes equifinality (Ragin, 1987).

Several arguments were found in the literature for the use of QCA. For instance, Walzel et al. (2018) identified that CSR research design studies tradition is anchored in a classical qualitative or quantitative school of thought. They noted the lack of mixed approaches to examine CSR in professional sport team organisations and called for alternative approaches to convey the different focus areas of CSR. Furthermore, the rather limited application of classical quantitative or qualitative research methods for studying business ethics and CSR has also provided valuable reasons for scholars to use this approach (Lock & Seele, 2015; Taneja, Taneja, & Gupta, 2011). Finally, although the prevalence of mixed-method research in the sport management literature is relatively new (van der Roest, Spaaij, & van Bottenburg, 2015), this study partly addresses calls to adopt such design in our field (Rudd & Johnson, 2010).

The QCA approach was originally developed by Charles Ragin to unravel causal complexity in sociology and political science research (Ragin, 1987, 2008; Rihoux & Ragin, 2008). Today, QCA has been used in various disciplines including sociology, political science, management and organisational studies (Marx, Cambré, & Riboux, 2013; Thiem & Dusa, 2013). Applications of the QCA method by sport management studies have been identified, including those of Winand, Rihoux, Robinson, and Zintz (2013), who analysed the performance of Belgian sport federations; Lucidarme, Cardon, and Willem (2016), who focused on health promotion networks; and Clausen et al. (2018), who examined the commercialisation of international SFs. Thus, as QCA is suitable for small and intermediate-size Ns research designs (Rihoux, 2006), it is

suitable for this study which aims to identify combinations of conditions to high and low implementation of CSR in a limited number of sport federations.

Three QCA techniques exist, namely crisp-set QCA, multi-value QCA, and fuzzy sets QCA. csQCA uses Boolean algebra (0-1) to determine which combinations of conditions result to the outcome. mvQCA uses multiple conditions, which are represented by natural numbers (0, 1, 2, 3 ...). fsQCA introduces scores that can have every possible value on a continuum between 0.0 and 1.0. This research uses csQCA.

Case Selection

The researcher deliberately selected the cases following a theoretical or purposive sampling approach (Creswell, 2007; Strauss & Corbin, 1991; Yin, 2009). According to Lincoln and Denzin (2000), sampling is needed in order to select a case that presents the potential of intensive study of the phenomena in question. The selection was therefore made according to the following criteria:

1. Willingness and ability to engage with the case study research.
2. High implementation levels of the phenomena under study, that is, there was evidence of experience with strategic aspects of CSR implementation. Previous research and reports had revealed a relatively strong CSR engagement by these organisations (Scheerder, Claes, & Vanreusel, 2014) or similar organisations from that sport discipline (i.e., international and national football federation) (Walters & Tacon, 2011). A preliminary web screening analysis, the survey - and eventually the QCA performed in paper 1⁶ - allowed identifying the most developed and proactive cases implementing CSR.
3. General accessibility of the setting by the researcher.
4. Comparable cases of the phenomena under study; that is, there was evidence of some diversity (in size, age, institutional context, culture, CSR practices, issues, evolution, etc.) between the sport federations selected.

Each criteria provided both similarities and differences for the study. As such, the researcher deliberately chose comparable cases, but with some heterogeneous

⁶ According to the models used in the first paper, these cases are situated in the most advanced stage of the CSR development model. In terms of CSR integration stages, the three cases are the one situated at the most advanced position compared to the other cases. The selection of these cases was based on their level of CSR development; that is, these sport federations are considered among the most proactive toward implementing CSR programs.

patterns (types of CSR and level of development) providing enough diversity in the phenomena studied and enabling transferability to other contexts (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). All offered insights for the research process, researcher and each other.

The sport federations which stood out as the best fit were: field hockey, football (soccer) and golf.

Hockey. The office of this sport federation was located close to the researcher's workplace. The researcher's team already had an established relationship with the president and had worked with the sport federation in the past. The researcher primarily approached the Secretary General, as the full-time staff member, as well as the President, as the upper-level board member. It was predicted that access to this sport federation would be straightforward and that there would be an openness and willingness to engage in the research. Hockey was the first case study to move through the initial phase. The sport federation also provided a welcoming and supportive environment for the researcher to enact the research method

Football. The researcher had knowledge of this sport federation but had no personal experience of this sport federation and did not know the CEO nor any other staff members. Due to a change process already under way, it was predicted that the researcher worked primarily with a subcommittee of the staff of the national and professional league undertaking the CSR programmes. These individuals were accustomed to collaborating with academics and could see how their aspirations for CSR development could be enhanced by engaging in the research project. The researcher was able to gain access to all the CSR managers and related partners. However, probably due to the departmentalisation of the CSR agenda, most upper-level staff and board volunteers (with the exception of the president) were inaccessible for interviews.

Golf. The researcher had no personal experience of this sport federation and did not know the secretary general nor any other staff members. The researcher approached the secretary general in a formal correspondence. Due to a negative experience (i.e., unhappy collaborations between the federation and academics), it was predicted that this sport federation may be difficult to access. This prediction also

proved correct, however, access was gained thanks to a formal meeting with the doctoral student and one of her supervisor. The researcher worked primarily with the secretary general. In a later stage, the researcher attempted to work with the environmental subcommittee of the board – responsible for undertaking some CSR decisions and actions - but the requests to interview these individuals remained unanswered. This inaccessibility lead to relative methodological drawbacks between the three cases.

Eventually, although the third paper was written based on the three cases, a reviewer recommended to focus in-depth on a single case. The case of hockey was chosen because it was the most in-depth case investigated. The cases of golf and football provided interesting insights to the examined phenomenon that could be furthered in future research. Such perspective is discussed in the dedicated future research section.

c. Methods for Data Collection

Methods are the specific techniques or procedures employed to gather and analyse the data related to the research project (Crotty, 1998). This research is combining qualitative research and qualitative comparative research. In order to build the study, data collection comprised survey, interviews and organisational document analysis. These techniques allowed for the incorporation of various individual observations of the phenomenon though they are complementary. In light of considerable support for multiple data collection methods in case studies research, Eisenhardt (1989) commented that case studies typically involve more than a single data collection method in order to provide stronger substantiation of constructs.

Interviews

Interviews were an essential part of the methodology of the project. As noted by Yin (2009), obtaining the perspective of the informants increases insights and understanding of complex social phenomenon through interaction with key actors. Conducting interviews as a method for gathering information has been chosen for the ability of interviews to facilitate a better comprehension of context, the motivating rationales behind behaviours and actions, and the meanings that an interviewee may attach to a particular issue (Patton, 2002).

Semi-structured interviews imply the use of an interview guide but also allows engaging in wide-ranging discussion in an in-depth manner. The interview guide was broad enough to include questions on four major areas: a) profile of the participant, b) description of the organisation's CSR practices (forms, history, motivations and implementation process), c) inter-organisational relationship, and d) organisational learning⁷. Further, the interview guide was appropriately adjusted throughout the data collection process (Bryman, 2016; Creswell, 2007; Patton, 2002).

By means of a whole set of 18 interviews among major stakeholders (sport federations, clubs, non-profit organisations, and minister's cabinet), this study has henceforth covered a large-scale network. Individuals representing key organisations were identified through snowball and purposive (i.e. theoretical) sampling (Creswell, 2007; Patton, 2002). The subjects were selected because they were "information rich" and illuminative to the research, that is, they offered useful manifestations of the phenomenon of interest (Patton, 2002, p. 40). To ensure that our sample included important informants, we started first with top-management and executives and then trickled down to other clubs participating to the initiatives. Then we asked the interviewee to provide the names of individuals involved in the social responsibility process or who should be interviewed.

In each case, preliminary contacts were taken via emails or via phone. Interviews were conducted in French. Face-to-face interview was privileged as they are more personal and allow the interviewee to further engage in the conversation. However, a telephone or Skype interview was sometimes conducted when face-to-face was not possible. All interviews were carried out by the doctoral student. Table 5 contains information about the interviewees and their organisation. Fieldwork phase 2 consists of the follow-up interviews with key representatives from each cases. The asterisk shows that for one club, the president and the sport manager were interviewed together, first separately, then jointly.

⁷ The interview guide for the third paper on organisational learning is detailed in the supplemental files of the publication.

Table 5. Participants to the study and fieldwork phases

Organisation	Job Title	Method	Date	Length
Fieldwork Phase 1				
National Hockey Federation	President	In-person	13/05/2016	106 min
Regional Hockey Federation	Middle-Manager	In-person	17/05/2016	89 min
Regional Hockey Federation	Secretary General	In-person	17/05/2016	63 min
Regional Hockey Federation	Middle-Manager	In-person	17/05/2016	64 min
Regional Hockey Federation	President	In-person	19/05/2016	48 min
National and Regional Hockey Federation	Board member	In-person	28/06/2016	90 min
Hockey Together	President	In-person	08/08/2016	84 min
Hockey Together	Treasurer	In-person	10/08/2016	75 min
Hockey Club	President	In-person	23/08/2016	74 min
Hockey Non-profit Social Partner	President	In-person	24/08/2016	51 min
Hockey Club*	President	In-person	24/08/2016	57 min
Hockey Club*	Sport Manager	In-person	24/08/2016	57 min
Minister for Disability issues	Minister collaborator	Telephone	01/09/2016	76 min
Hockey Club	Social coordinator	Telephone	10/11/2016	70 min
National Hockey Federation	Secretary General	In-person	14/11/2016	38 min
Hockey Federation and Club	Board member and President	In-person	17/11/2016	68 min
Hockey Club	Vice-President	Telephone	18/11/2016	47 min
Disability Sport Federation	Secretary General	Telephone	15/03/2017	39 min
Hockey Non-profit Partner	President & Treasure	Telephone	18/04/2017	40 min
Fieldwork Phase 2				
Regional Hockey Federation	President	Telephone	15/03/2017	40 min
National Hockey Federation	President	Telephone	06/04/2017	32 min
Regional Hockey Federation	Secretary General and Middle-Manager	In-person	14/05/2018	Not recorded

Organisational Documents

The documents analysed include any types of organisational documents ranging from strategic documents, reports and archival material such as newspaper clipping, agendas, minutes of meetings, webpages (including websites, blogs, Facebook, Twitter), and any document retrieved from the focal organisations' websites. Such secondary sources are insightful source of evidence as it is precise and accessible (Yin, 2009). They also provide broad coverage and historical perspective. The examination of this dataset aimed at supplementing, validating and supporting the information gathered from other datasets (Atkinson & Coffey, 2004; Mayan, 2009). Organisational documents are important to consider as they reflect shared definitions, values, and beliefs regarding a particular topic

The documentation provided a detailed content of the projects and strategies sport federations were addressing regarding CSR while official websites also aimed at completing the survey by examining CSR activities that sport federations self-reported to their stakeholders through the Web. Besides, the exploration of this communication channel enabled us to gain rich contextual and background information about the case histories of the CSR development.

Table 6. Organisational documents

Organisation	Documents
<i>Federation</i>	
National Hockey	Annual reports 2015; Strategic plan 2016-2020+; Websites; Press Releases
Regional Hockey	Annual reports 2015-2016; Strategic plan 2014-2018 and 2018-2022; Partnership Convention; Websites; Press Releases
Regional Disabled	Strategic plan 2015-2020; Websites and Facebook
Other federations in paper 1	Strategic plan; Annual reports; Code of conducts; Websites and Facebook
<i>Hockey clubs</i>	
Club 1	Websites, Partnership Convention; Newspapers, Facebook
Club 2	Websites and Facebook
Club 3	Websites and Facebook
Club 4	Websites and Facebook
Club 5	Websites and Facebook
Club 6	Websites and Facebook

Survey

In a first stage of the PhD research, we conducted an online survey among the recognised and government funded regional sport federations in Belgium. The aim of this data collection was to gather information about the CSR initiatives developed by sport federations in Wallonia and in Flanders.

All the recognised and subsidised sport federations⁸ were invited to take part in the survey. The population list was built from several official sources from the sport administrations. This provided an initial population of 121 sport federations. The list was determined on 31st March 2015⁹.

The questionnaire essentially derived from Walters and Tacon (2011). Their study focused on CSR practices of European football clubs and national football federations. The scholars built on Turker (2009) and Jenkins (2006)'s scales to measure CSR activities. The online survey covered four areas of questioning: organisational characteristics of the respondent and of the sport federation; their CSR strategy and practices (i.e., CSR implementation); the organisation's degree of attention for social responsibility, and knowledge of CSR themes. It comprised 34 closed (Likert scales, tick-box, list questions, Yes/No) and open questions covering organisational characteristics of the sport federations, their CSR strategies and practices, the organisation's degree of attention and knowledge of CSR themes.

The survey took place between June and September 2015. Sport federations were contacted by letter and by email, in collaboration with the umbrella sport federations (AISF and VSF). The contacted representative – generally the technical director/sport executive or the president - for each sport federation was asked to fill out the 34-question online survey using Limesurvey software.

⁸The categorisation system differs in Flanders and in Wallonia. In Flanders, three categories exist: unisport, multisport, and recognised (not subsidised). The researcher only examined the unisport and multisport. In Wallonia, two categories exist: recognized and subsidised and recognised (not subsidized). Like Winand (2009), the researcher examined all recognised and subsidised sport federations with the exception of the university and school sport federations (Association des fédérations francophones du sport scolaire en Belgique (AFFSS), Association Sportive de l'Enseignement Universitaire et Supérieur (ASEUS), Studentensport Federatie), the Belgian Olympic interfederal Committee (BOIC) and the umbrella federations (AISF and VSF).

⁹ Since March 2015, an important legislative reform in Flanders has led to important change in the sport policy recognition and subsidising policy and consequently, in the number of sport federations.

Several steps were taken to improve the response rate such as translation of the questionnaire, confidentiality, personalised emails and rounds of reminders, description of the project purpose in every communication. Prior to the administration of the survey, a pilot test was completed with sport scholars, sport agencies and unrecognised sport federations. Overall, out of the 96 sport federations that completed the survey, 89 answers were usable (73.5 per cent response rate).

d. Methodology for Data Analysis

Analytical Methodologies

Grounded in qualitative research, this research employed two methodologies for data analysis: one is qualitative content analysis, and the other is qualitative comparative analysis (QCA). The specific analysis performed to analyse the data is explained for each paper in each dedicated section of the manuscript.

On a related matter, Coffee and Atkinson (1996) considered that analysis of the data should be a systematic and developmental process that seeks to determine “What is going on” (p. 9). As such, constant analysis using research diaries and reformulation of the interview guide were also used by the researcher. This significantly aided the researcher to engage reflexively with the data in continuous reflexive learning cycle. In some instances, the researcher spent time discussing the interpretations from the research participants and from peer colleagues, which allowed the researcher to generate new understandings of CSR implementation.

Research Quality Criteria

A discussion of research methodology would not be complete without a consideration of research quality. Regardless of philosophical differences and methodological approaches (Bryman, 2016; Lincoln, 1995), all research should “demand theoretical sophistication and methodological rigour” (Silverman, 2015, p. 209). On the contrary, consideration of research quality was deemed an essential component of the research process.

This study adopted several methods to improve the research quality. Consistent with established guidelines on qualitative data analysis (Creswell, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Lindgreen, Xu, Maon, & Wilcock, 2012), the study applied the criteria of

credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability, integrity, fit, understanding, generality, and control. To meet these criteria, we have adopted several strategies described in Table 7 below.

Table 7. Quality of research

<i>Confirmability</i>	Interviews with key knowledgeable informants from the different stakeholder groups and the focal organisations. Most informants were from strategic level. Discussions with peer scholars and presentation of preliminary findings at conference. Another colleague performed independent coding.
<i>Credibility</i>	Data triangulation was done via interviews and organisational documents. The data coding interpretation discussed between the authors and colleague performing independent coding. All interviews were conducted by the same interviewer. In the second phase of the fieldwork, follow-up interviews and debriefing meetings were conducted with key informants from LFH, ARBH and Hockey Together, Pro League, URBSFA, VVG to discuss the interpretation of the findings and collect follow-up information on ongoing initiatives.
<i>Dependability</i>	Use of standardised semi-open interview guide throughout data collection
<i>Generality</i>	Number and length of interviews allows generality and detection of various aspects of CSR implementation process
<i>Integrity</i>	Interview questions were in nature non-threatening and permitted informants to discuss openly their experience and vision in their own terms. Prior to the interview, informants were asked if they accepted to be recorded
<i>Transferability</i>	Background information on the case studied and description of their CSR initiatives provided to establish context of study Standardised semi-open interview guide (however the guide was not strict and could be adapted to allow flexibility and new items to develop) Clear procedures for data analysis
<i>Understanding</i>	Initial findings presented in a conference and debriefing sessions organised with peer scholars to allow the questioning of this study's findings
<i>Fit</i>	The results are in line with the objective of the research as attested by the interview guides and the follow up interviews.

Table 8 summarises the methodological orientations and methods of the dissertation.

Table 8. Methodological orientations and methods of the dissertation

	Methodological Approach	Methodological Orientation	Research Methods	Analysis
Paper 1: <i>Determinants of CSR implementation</i>	Set-theoretical	Qualitative comparative analysis: case-oriented approach	Survey, organisational documents and interviews	Qualitative comparative analysis
Paper 2: <i>Collaboration Motivations</i>	Abductive	Qualitative approach: single case study	Organisational documents and interviews	Content analysis
Paper 3: <i>Organisational learning</i>	Abductive	Qualitative approach: multiple case study	Organisational documents and interviews	Content analysis

6. Research Context

As reflected throughout the previous sections, little academic interest has yet been dedicated to the study of CSR by non-profit organisations. In this dissertation, the focus is placed on sport federations. Considering the sport-federated network, internal and external stakeholders (e.g., sport clubs, national bodies, public authorities, non-profit partners) have also been included when examining the implementation of CSR programmes. This population was chosen given the lack of exploratory research on CSR implementation in a non-profit sport setting.

The present section is divided in five parts. The first part, pays attention to sport federations. The second part draws a broad overview of the sport landscape in Belgium. The third part introduces the case of sport federations in Belgium. The fourth part discusses the European and Belgian CSR institutional and cultural context. Finally, the fifth part outlines CSR in the Belgian sport context.

a. Sport Federations¹⁰

Sport federations have frequently been subject to studies on various topics such as board strategic capability (Ferkins & Shilbury, 2010), board performance (Hoye & Cuskelly, 2003), collaborative governance (Shilbury et al., 2016), organisational performance (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; O'Boyle & Hassan, 2014), board functioning (Yeh & Taylor, 2008), decision-making structures (Kikulis, 2000; Kikulis, Slack, & Hinings, 1992; Kikulis, Slack, & Hinings, 1995; Slack & Hinings, 1992; Thibault et al., 1991), and organisational behaviour (Taylor & McGraw, 2006).

The nature and characteristics of sport federations have been well developed in the sport management literature (Babiak, 2007; Inglis, 1997a, 1997b; Ferkins; Kikulis, Slack, & Hinings, 1995; O'Brien & Slack, 2003; Nagel et al., 2015; Willem & Scheerder; Winand et al. 2013). Sport federations are sport governing bodies responsible for maintaining the rules and organisation of a particular sporting code and have traditionally worked with state, regional associations and clubs of the same code to deliver “services” to their members (Ferkins & Shilbury, 2010). Within these

¹⁰ In the sport management literature, sport federations are also known as national sport governing bodies (NSGB), national sport organisations (NSO) or national sport association (NSA). Consistent with the European research tradition, this dissertation employs the notion of ‘sport federations’.

organisations, there exists multiple separate legal entities (i.e., national, regional, provincial and local). Each entity is most typically an incorporated organisation and has its own constitution and “governing” committee (Ferkins, 2013).

Non-profit sport organisations - and sport federations in particular - and professional sport organisations fundamentally present different characteristics (Beech & Chadwick, 2004; Moore & Levermore, 2012; Nagel et al., 2015 Winand, et al., 2010). These characteristics have been outlined in the section on CSR and sport federations and are summarised in the table below.

Table 9. Professional sport organisations and sport federations characteristics

Characteristics	Professional sport organisations	Sport federations
Contextual/Institutional		
Stakeholders	Numerous stakeholders and strongly embedded within their local communities	Numerous stakeholders and strongly embedded within their network (sport clubs)
Stakeholder pressure	Intense media scrutiny; Role models	Role models; increasing pressure from government and industry
Organisational		
Ownership and control	Stock market, supporter trust or foreign investor (limited company)	Stakeholders/member clubs-managed
Logic	Business-like logic	Hybridity: Nonprofit, public, and Business-like logic
Power structures	SME Archetype (close to owner-managed control)	Small-scale decentralisation and flat organisational hierarchy, flexible, multitasking
Human resources	Fewer than 50 employees, Close proximity with the working environment	Complex human resource balance (volunteer-paid staff)
Structure	Single operating unit, with a largely local workforce (no economies of scale)	Sport federated structure
Financial resources	Diverse sources of income and private funding dominant	Limited sources of income and public funding dominant
Measurement	Tangible and measurable objectives	Intangible objectives and difficult measurement

b. Sport Landscape and Structure in Belgium

Belgium's sport context is characterised by a complex landscape due to the federal state model¹¹. Its sporting history, culture and political perspective varies not only from other European countries but also between its two main entities: Wallonia and Flanders. Belgium is a federal state that comprises three communities: Flemish, French and German-speaking. For the matter of consistency, the Flemish part is known as Flanders, while the French and German-speaking¹² part together make up Wallonia¹³. Both communities have their own sports administrative bodies (respectively Sport Vlanderen and Adeps), their own regulations and their own sport governing bodies (De Bosscher, 2007; Winand, 2009; Winand, Scheerder, Vos, & Zintz, 2011).

Because sport is organised at a federated/regional¹⁴ level in Belgium, most sport federations have separate branches for Flanders and Wallonia (i.e. regional sport federations) as well as a national sport federation. During international events, Belgium is represented by its athletes and its national federations – not Flanders and Wallonia separately. Belgium remains united as a nation – sport define the country on the international stage during some major sporting events such as the Olympic Games, Football World Cup (De Bosscher, 2007; Winand, 2009).

¹¹ Belgium has three official languages (Dutch, French and German). It is a federal state with complex and unique institutional structure. Belgium is divided between the Federal level, the regional level (Brussels, Flanders and Wallonia) and the community level (Flemish, French and German). In Belgium, sport is in the hands of the Flemish-speaking Community, the French-speaking Community and the German-speaking Community as well as of the Flemish region, Walloon region and Brussels Region. In brief, the Communities are responsible for the cultural aspects of sport policy (i.e. the sport for all and elite sport policy, training policy, sport federation's recognition and subsidising), while the region is responsible for the infrastructure issues of sport policy. This research is mostly concerned by the sporting competences by the Communities. The Flemish part of the country is known as Flanders, while Brussels makes up Brussels and the French and German-speaking parts together make up Wallonia. Flanders is the northern and Flemish speaking part of Belgium. Brussels is the centre of Belgium. Wallonia is the southern and French and German speaking part. For more information please refer to Deschouwer (2005, 2012) and Zintz and Winand (2013).

¹² Given the small number of inhabitants in the German-speaking community (approximately 70 000 habitants), sport is jointly organised between the French and German-speaking communities. For the purpose of the research, the French and the German-speaking communities are called Wallonia.

¹³ For a matter of clarity, we employ the term 'Wallonia' for the official term 'Fédération-Wallonie Bruxelles' ('Communauté française' according to the Belgian Constitution).

¹⁴ On a related note, for a matter of coherence with the practices commonly observed in the academic literature, the use of the term "regional" refers to the federated level (i.e. community regional level).

The Appendix of this dissertation provides two figures of the Belgian sport landscape designed by the sport management UGent research team. The first figure depicts the Walloon landscape speaking and the second outlines the Flemish landscape.

c. Sport Federations in Belgium

The research is conducted on both sides of the country. Therefore, following a practice commonly followed by Belgian scholars examining both regions (see for instance De Bosscher, 2007; Truyens et al., 2016; Winand et al., 2011), Flanders and Wallonia have been dealt separately within this study since the sport federations involved in this research project can be divided into two discrete groups: the Flemish sport federations and the French-speaking sport federations. In order to delve with this potential complexity, this study examined Belgium sport landscape (both sides).

Regional sport federations¹⁵ are responsible for similar activities normally devoted to national sport governing bodies. Their missions mainly consist in developing sport participation, elite sport policies, promoting sport for all and anti-doping campaigns (Winand et al., 2010). National sport federations are responsible for the representation and the participation at the international level.

Sport federations in Belgium, have evolved like their worldwide counterparts (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; Nagel et al., 2015; Ferkins et al., 2005), from small and independent member-based associations with volunteer executives to organisations with paid staff and administrative offices. Yet, sport federations are generally depicted as rather small in terms of size and budget, with the exception of the few most professionalised sports (i.e.: Football, Hockey, and Basketball) (Piéron & De Knop, 2000).

In a recent study delivered by the Delta Group, a consortium of scholars from the KULeuven (under Prof. Scheerder) and UCLouvain (under Prof. Zintz), the Baillet Latour Fund, the BOIC and Guberna measured the state of governance and innovation in Belgian national and regional sport federations. Although the response rate does not allow to draw generalisable conclusions, the total score for good governance and innovation was of 53.3 percent. Further, the results showed that sport federations with more than 6 employees had a superior score compared to sport federations with no or

¹⁵ In Belgium these regional entities are often called leagues or federations while the national entities are called federations or associations.

few employees and that the size of sport federations influences the governance scores (GMS, 59). These findings should be considered with regard to the increasing trend in good governance studies such as Play the Game/ Sport Governance observer for national and international sport federations that examines international and national sport federations (Geeraert, 2015). In light of the intersections of social responsibility and governance in sport (Robertson et al., 2018), it is interesting to note that social responsibility is one of the good governance indicators. Overall, these studies illustrate the prevalence of good governance issues in sport and the repetitive calls for better governance of sport federations formulated by these independent examiners.

d. European and Belgian CSR Institutional and Cultural Context

In the past two decades, the European business environment has moved from a traditionally implicit CSR to a relatively more explicit CSR (François, Bayle, & Gond, 2019; Gond, Kang, & Moon, 2011; Matten & Moon, 2008). For Delbard (2008) and Maon, Swaen, and Lindgreen (2017), CSR in Europe represents a compromise, between market pressures for innovation and competitiveness and the traditional European social model. European CSR embeds “the social dimension into civil society and self-regulatory market processes, with the state playing more of a facilitating and endorsing role” (Midttun, 2005, p. 160).

In a typology of CSR in Europe, Albareda, Lozano, Tencati, Midttun, and Perrini (2008) situated Belgium in the “sustainability and citizenship model” together with Austria, France, Germany, and Luxembourg, in which corporations are expected to take their place as citizens in civil society, and governments promote CSR by supporting business organisations and political initiatives that boost CSR awareness, creating incentives to help corporations assume their social responsibilities, or invoking regulatory approaches (Maon et al., 2017).

The particularity of the Belgian CSR landscape resides in a strong government intervening context, and specifically a CSR management and stakeholders involvement (which is typical from CSR in Europe (Albareda et al., 2008; Knudsen et al., 2015; Matten & Moon, 2008)). Research showed that Belgium is one of the few countries in which a strong legal framework exists for CSR and an institutionalised dialogue between employees and employers in the unions (Louche et al., 2009; Peeters, 2004). Hence, the development of public initiatives gave rise to the

mainstreaming of CSR beyond the scope of private organisations (Hutjens, Dentchev, & Haezendonck, 2015; Louche et al., 2009).

e. CSR in the Belgian Sport Context

In Belgian sport in particular, a number of exploratory empirical research have recently suggested that sport organisations are also broadening their social responsibility to society (Scheerder et al., 2014; Theeboom & Eekeren, 2013; Theeboom, Verheyden, Eekeren, & Brinkhof, 2012). These early research articles mainly related to the study of the CSR behaviours of professional and semi-professional football clubs in the first and second division.

On that note, Truyens, Theeboom and Van Bever collaborated with the Belgian Football Pro league in 2016 to develop a CSR practitioner's guide (that was later distributed by the European Football for Development Network (EFDN)). Scheerder et al. (2014) also highlighted the development of CSR projects by several sport federations, including smaller recreational sport federations such as gymnastics, handball, and judo.

7. References

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PART II: ORIGINAL RESEARCH

Each of the forthcoming sections of this dissertation focuses on the previously listed research questions. These sections all contain original research that has been published (or is under review) by journals included in Clarivate Analytics' Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), made available through Web of Science.

- I. Zeimers, G., Lefebvre, A., Winand, M., Anagnostopoulos, C., Zintz, T., and Willem, A. (2019). Organisational factors related to CSR implementation: a qualitative comparative analysis of sport federations, Manuscript under review by *European Sport Management Quarterly*.
- II. Zeimers, G., Anagnostopoulos, C., Zintz, T., and Willem, A. (2019). Examining collaboration among nonprofit organisations for socially responsible programs, *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*. doi:10.1177/0899764019837616
- III. Zeimers, G., Anagnostopoulos, C., Zintz, T., and Willem, A. (2019). Organisational learning for CSR in sport organisations, *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 19, 1, 80-101. doi: 10.1080/16184742.2018.1546752

**1. Organisational Factors Related to Corporate Social
Responsibility Implementation: a Qualitative Comparative
Analysis of Sport Federations**

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Abstract

Understanding corporate social responsibility (CSR) implementation requires identifying factors that contribute to the ability of a sport organisation to develop CSR. This paper examines the complex combination of organisational factors that are associated with CSR implementation in a sport federation (SF) setting. Thus this study identifies key organisational factors of professionalisation for CSR implementation and different configurations associated with CSR implementation. The study adopted a comparative approach combining a survey, interviews, and organisational documents in a sample of 19 Belgian SFs. A crisp-set Qualitative Comparative Analysis (csQCA) was carried out to identify the combination of sufficient and necessary organisational factors associated with CSR implementation. Results indicate that innovation capability is a core factor for CSR implementation that should be combined with financial autonomy, knowledge and human resources. The study reveals that organisational size is not a core condition associated with CSR implementation. The latter does not necessarily require a significant number of professional staff as long as the organisation is innovative and financially autonomous. Otherwise, SFs without financial autonomy can implement CSR if they rely on their volunteers and on their paid staff that considerably associated with CSR implementation. This study contributes to the emergent research in the sport management literature and CSR literature on factors shaping CSR implementation by highlighting that it requires a combination of key organisational factors. The multiple configurations that emerged reveal the complex nature of CSR implementation, and reinforce the view that “one size does not fit all”.

Keywords: Corporate Social Responsibility, Sport federations, Non-profit Sport Organisations, Professionalisation, Qualitative Comparative Research.

Introduction

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is gaining increasing attention from all types of organisations, in and outside sport (Breitbarth et al., 2015). Generally, CSR is defined as ‘context-specific organisational actions and policies that take into account stakeholders’ expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social and environmental performance’ (Aguinis, 2011, p. 858). The concept has found relevance in the non-profit sector as recent studies have reported that sport federations (SFs) actively implement CSR (Zeimers, Anagnostopoulos, Zintz, & Willem, 2018).

There has been a growing number of studies examining CSR implementation, ranging from the levels, steps and stages thereof (Heinze et al., 2014; Kolyperas et al., 2015). The study of CSR implementation implies “focusing on practical guidelines and success factors that can help organisations to design and implement their CSR initiatives” (Maon et al., 2010, p. 26). While several studies have indicated the importance of organisational factors shaping CSR implementation (Jamali et al., 2015; Puplambu & Dashwood, 2011), the combined effects of organisational factors that facilitate or inhibit CSR implementation within non-profit sport organisations are largely unknown.

This paper examines the complex combinations of organisational factors of professionalisation that are associated with CSR implementation in a SF setting. While not claiming that organisational factors are or should be the only condition for CSR to operate successfully, we aim to explore how organisational factors could potentially be leveraged to support CSR implementation. It is particularly crucial to examine how SFs compensate their resource constraints (Winand et al., 2013) by combining critical organisational factors to implement CSR. Indeed, CSR implies the potential presence of multiple interactions (Soundararajan et al., 2018), and thus, requires a combinatorial approach to examining the organisational factors associated with CSR implementation.

In the absence of substantial research on organisational factors of CSR (Jamali et al., 2015), the study draws on the professionalisation model of Nagel et al. (2015) to examine potential organisational factors of professionalisation related to CSR implementation. The following question is posited: which combination of organisational

factors of professionalisation are associated with high and low level of CSR implementation?

The contribution of this study is threefold: first, it highlights the need to grasp CSR implementation by SFs along with their professionalisation. Second, it enables understanding various combinations of key organisational factors related to CSR and differences between organisations. Such empirical insights can bring to the fore what could facilitate CSR implementation within a SF setting. Third, this focus should also advance knowledge on reluctant behaviours towards CSR through the examination of low CSR implementation level that remains largely unknown.

Literature review and Theoretical framework

The study of CSR implementation focuses on the organisational developments and factors required to integrate CSR principles (Baumann-Pauly et al., 2013; Kolyperas, Morrow, & Sparks, 2015; Maon et al., 2010). This stream of literature is central to this study as it helps towards identifying high and low levels of CSR implementation.

Accordingly, two frameworks will serve as the conceptual roadmap for this study (Baumann-Pauly et al., 2013; Maon et al., 2010). First, Maon et al. (2010) provide a consolidative model based on an organisational and cultural approach on the CSR development process. Their framework consists of three cultural or moral phases (reluctance, grasp and embedment) associated to a seven-stage model of CSR development according to three dimensions (knowledge and attitudinal, strategic, tactical and operational). Second, Baumann-Pauly et al. (2013) capture the implementation status of CSR by focusing on three dimensions (commitment, internal structures and procedures, external collaboration). The latter study recognises specific assessment indicators for the informal and implicit way of organising CSR for small and medium enterprises (SMEs) compared to the formal and explicit profiles for multinational companies (MNCs).

Studies outside the sport management literature have progressively explored how organisational factors support successful CSR implementation (Jamali et al., 2015; Puplampu & Dashwood, 2011). For instance, studies have indicated the importance of key organisational moderating factors such as financial performance (Torugsa et al., 2012), capabilities (Roberts, Lawson, & Nicholls, 2006), size (Baumann-Pauly et

al., 2013), and age (Ding & Wu, 2014). Although Walker and Parent (2010) found that CSR practices vary according to the size and type of the organisations, few studies have explicitly examined organisational factors shaping CSR implementation in sport organisations. Hence, the study follows Nagel et al.'s (2015) professionalisation model to examine potential organisational factors of professionalisation facilitating CSR implementation in the sport setting.

To achieve effective implementation, CSR needs to be approached as a planned responsive approach that is institutionalised within the organisation. Such approach is compatible with the professionalisation trend of sport organisations (Nagel et al., 2015). Professionalisation in a sport setting is defined as “the process by which sport organisations, systems, and the occupation of sport, transforms from a volunteer driven to an increasingly business-like phenomenon” (Nagel et al., 2015, p. 408).

The adoption of business-like practices has led to a hybridisation trend among SFs (Bayle & Robinson, 2007). Lucassen and de Bakker (2016) have argued that hybridity has encouraged SFs to implement CSR initiatives, as a strategy to safeguard their legitimacy for sport service delivery and social good. SFs, as hybrid organisations, increasingly pursue a sport related mission as well as a social mission to contribute to society to counterbalance increasing business objectives.

In this context, the current professionalisation process seems to be contributing to the development of necessary organisational factors shaping CSR implementation. In the wake of professionalisation, increased capacity building (Robinson & Minikin, 2011) and potential organisational resources are available to manage complex challenges more effectively (Nagel et al., 2015) such as CSR implementation. It can be assumed that highly professionalised SFs are more prone to adopt CSR practices, whereas low professionalised SFs will have more difficulties to dedicate resources. Although this assumption does not imply that an organisation that is not professionalised cannot implement CSR, literature on organisational factors for CSR suggests that only skilled and professionalised organisations are capable of developing such strategy (Maon et al., 2010).

Within business research, Risi and Wickert (2017) recently discussed the mutually supportive and reciprocal relationship between organisational professionalisation (i.e. established professionals; CSR managers) and CSR institutionalisation. To date, no

studies examined the relationship between the level of professionalisation and CSR implementation. Thus, the present study considers that a high level of CSR implementation requires a certain level of SFs' professionalisation.

Accordingly, six potential organisational factors were identified. These factors derive from Nagel and colleagues' model (2015) and are validated by the general CSR literature (i.e., Baumann-Pauly et al., 2013; Torugsa et al., 2012).

Size. Size triggers a specific implementation pattern of CSR engagement (Wickert et al., 2016). It has long been linked to CSR implementation because the mismatch between CSR walk and talk can be explained by the influence of organisation size (Baumann-Pauly et al., 2013). In the SF context, size is crucial given the relatively small size of these organisations (Winand et al., 2013). Nagel et al. (2015) also suggest that size is a critical factor for the professionalisation of a sport organisation. It can be assumed that larger SFs are more prone to implement more CSR, whereas medium-sized and small SFs have a low implementation level. Larger organisations may indeed have greater social pressures to comply with external stakeholders' expectations concerning CSR activities, as demonstrated by numerous empirical investigations (Kolyperas et al., 2015). Yet, recent studies suggest that small-sized organisations approach CSR differently due to their different resources and capacity (Baumann-Pauly et al., 2013; Wickert et al., 2016).

Staff involvement in the board. The role of board members (usually volunteers) and paid staff in the decision-making process is crucial in SFs as it can be considered as a key for board strategic capability (Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011; Winand et al., 2013). Studies have shown that professionalisation has consequences for organisational governance in terms of structure, organisational objectives and values, as well as the role of the board (Nagel et al., 2015). Notably, Ferkins et al. (2005) observed, "the evolutionary process of bureaucratisation and professionalisation has resulted in changing board roles and relationships with paid executives" (p. 2019). Shilbury and Ferkins (2011) also highlighted that board strategic capability plays a crucial role in the process of professionalisation. However, limited research has investigated the consequences of strategic capability in the context of CSR implementation. Yet, Shilbury and Ferkins (2011) showed that professionalisation increases the expectation of external stakeholders and member organisations.

Professionalisation of individuals. From a human resource perspective, the role played by paid staff has been the focus of research in the sport management field (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; Clausen et al., 2018; Nagel et al., 2015; Winand et al., 2013). Professionalisation of individuals refers to the increased number of paid employees and higher expectations of the competence of volunteers (Nagel et al., 2015). Bayle and Robinson (2007) noted “the delegation of management to paid and unpaid staff facilitates the progression and implementation of projects” (p. 261). Individual key actors are indeed crucial resources for SFs (Nagel et al., 2015). Therefore, paid staff could be associated with a high level of CSR implementation.

Financial independence. Financial resources refer to the ability of soliciting and expanding financial capital in a sustainable manner (Wicker & Breuer, 2014). Financial independence considers the autonomy of an organisation from the financial resources received from government funding and other sources. SFs rely on a diverse set of revenue sources. They are often financially constrained due to the annual funding received from government (Winand et al., 2013). The existing literature mainly supports that revenue diversification is desirable because it enables organisational stability (Nagel et al., 2015). In the context of CSR, few studies have examined sport organisations’ ability to diversify their resources through their CSR implementation level (Bingham & Walters, 2013; Torugsa et al., 2012). Therefore, this study hypothesises that the more dependent SFs are on government funding, the less SFs might implement CSR activities given their limited resources (Wicker & Breuer, 2011).

Innovative capability. Innovation is defined as the adoption of an idea or behaviour that is new for the organisation (Damanpour & Schneider, 2006). Innovative capability refers to the ability of organisations to mobilise individuals’ skills and resources to create new knowledge leading to new services, products or processes (Damanpour, 1991). Innovation is a source of competitive advantage through improved effectiveness and efficiency (Damanpour & Schneider, 2006). Accordingly, it is crucial for non-profit sport organisations to be innovative given the increasing commercialisation and professionalisation of the sport industry (Hoeber et al., 2015; Winand & Hoeber, 2017). In particular, Winand and Anagnostopoulos (2017) suggested that innovativeness is a reflection of the capability of an organisation to be innovative. They showed that attitude – innovation capability-innovativeness were

linked. In this respect, Nagel et al. (2015) refers to ‘transformation of goals and values’ and ‘diversification of the activities’ that we broadly associate with this factor.

Recent research has acknowledged that a focus on innovation can help understand CSR (Luo & Bhattacharya, 2006; Preuss, 2011). Hoeber et al. (2015) and Winand et al. (2016) showed different types of innovations in non-profit sport organisations, some of which were CSR initiatives. Prior research has identified a potentially strong relationship between CSR and innovation (McWilliams and Siegel, 2000; Luo & Bhattacharya, 2006). Hence, the SFs’ innovative capability is potentially influencing CSR implementation.

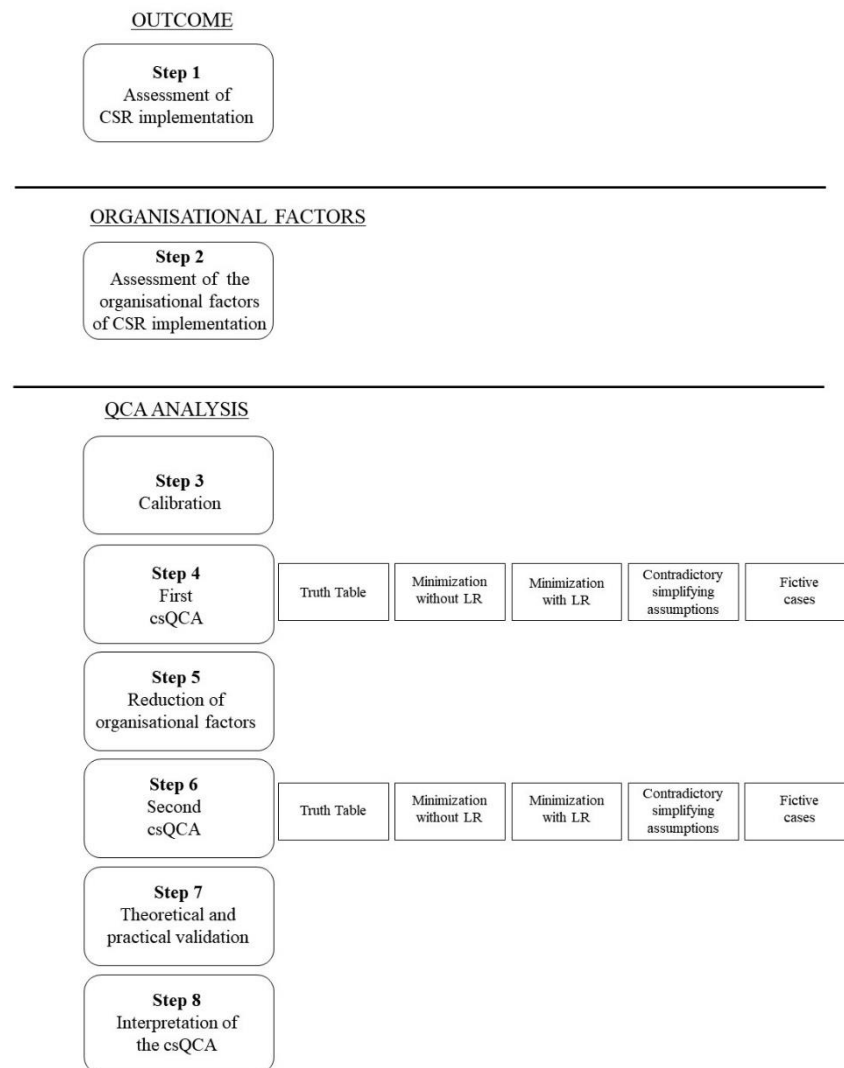
Knowledge of CSR. Knowledge is one of the most valuable assets an organisation can possess (Nonaka, 1994). Knowledge is a mix of experiences, values, contextual information, or insights based on frameworks of understanding originating in the minds of individuals or groups (Davenport & Prusak, 1998). Knowledge can provide many benefits to organisations in terms of organisational growth and survival, innovation, effective performance, quality of service and competitive advantage (Grant, 1996). In the context of professionalisation, Nagel and colleagues (2015) considers knowledge management in the professionalisation of structures and processes.

The significance of CSR-related knowledge remains under-investigated despite the interconnection between organisational learning and CSR implementation (Fortis et al., 2017). Indeed, the existing implementation models have not formally integrated knowledge (Maon et al., 2010) although managers’ knowledge is crucial for implementing CSR (Preuss & Córdoba-Pachon, 2009). Yet, knowledge remains a significant component of sport organisations (Girginov et al., 2015).

Methods

A Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA) was carried out to analyse CSR implementation by SFs. Figure 1 provides an overview of the subsequent steps of this original research design. Prior to the description of the steps, the research context and data collection methods are described below.

Figure 4.1. Research design process



Research context

In Belgium, regional governing bodies have independent sport public agencies, separate regulations, and distinct sport governing bodies. Flemish and Walloon Sport Federations are the sport governing bodies for these regions. Collectively, we label them as Sport Federations (SFs) in the remainder of this text.

At the time of the data collection, 65 Flemish and 56 Walloon SFs were officially recognised and funded by the government. This provided a total population of 121 SFs. Their missions mainly consist of developing sport participation and promoting sport-for-all, developing elite sport policies and elite athletes and overseeing anti-doping campaigns (Winand et al., 2013). Belgian SFs are generally depicted as rather

small in terms of size and budget, with the exception of the few most professionalised sports.

Data collection

The study incorporated three complementary data gathering approaches: survey, organisational documents and interviews. Triangulation in data collection throughout this research helps compensate for the weakness of one single data collection, enhances the robustness of findings, the validity, and the quality of interpretation. Accordingly, similar to Winand et al. (2013), in a first phase, the survey and organisational documents were used for the QCA. In a second phase, the interpretation of the QCA was performed with the post-interviews and the organisational documents.

Survey. This study is part of a broader research study that analysed CSR initiatives by all 121 SFs in Belgium. Overall, 96 SFs completed the survey and of those responses, 89 were usable (73.5 per cent response rate).

For the purpose of this paper, only a restricted number of 22 SFs were examined. This reduction of cases was due to the use of filter questions: Have you ever heard about the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility? and Do you think that your organisation is implementing socially responsible programmes? Consequently, this study purposively only included SFs that consciously and strategically implemented and reported CSR programmes although some organisations may undertake CSR without realising it. Discarding SFs with no proclaimed CSR initiatives (i.e. proactive CSR (Torugsa et al., 2012)) is a methodological limitation but is consistent with the literature that considers CSR implementation as a strategic planned responsive approach (Maon et al., 2008). In other words, CSR cannot be institutionalised within an organisation unless it does proactively integrates this strategy. Three of the 22 SFs were discarded because they ceased to exist or did not provide the additional data required to assess their level of CSR implementation. Hence, this lead to a final sample of 19 SFs. This low number should not be seen as a limitation as QCA is suitable for small and intermediate-size samples (Rihoux, 2006)

The survey took place between June and September 2015. SFs were contacted by letter and by email. The contacted representative for each SF was asked to fill out a

34-question online survey using Limesurvey software. The questionnaire derived from Walters and Tacon (2011). It comprised closed (Likert scales, tick-box, list questions, Yes/No) and open questions. Questions covered organisational characteristics of the SFs, their CSR strategies and practices, the organisation's degree of attention and knowledge of CSR themes.

Prior to the administration of the survey, a pilot test was completed with sport (i.e. sport scholars, sport agencies and unrecognised SFs). The independent ethical commission of the University approved the study protocol and the questionnaire.

Organisational documents and websites. The data collection was supplemented by public documents from the cases. Secondary sources included annual reports, strategic documents, reports, newsletters, along with more accessible outputs such as websites and web articles. The examination of relevant secondary data was aimed at complementing, validating and supporting the information gathered from the survey. In particular, the code of conduct, the annual reports or the websites were consulted for the QCA analysis to measure the involvement of the staff in the board. Further, these data provided detailed content of the organisational characteristics and the CSR strategy and programmes.

Semi-structured post-interviews. Finally, post-interviews were carried out with six SFs (three low implementers and three high implementers sampled from the 19 SFs to discuss the results of csQCA. The lead author conducted all face-to-face semi-structured interviews with a sport federation representative (four secretary-generals, one deputy secretary general, and one CSR manager), although one interview was conducted by phone. Sample questions included; what is your organisation doing in terms of CSR? How did your organisation integrate these objectives into the management, operations, strategy and communication? What did your organisation use to develop its expertise to implement CSR? What internal challenges do you personally face regarding CSR implementation? Each interview lasted between 40 and 150 minutes, were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. Thus the fine-grained qualitative analysis of cases through interviews was used to give a reliable interpretation of the results investigating the combinations of conditions for CSR implementation (Winand et al., 2013).

Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA)

QCA is a configurational comparative case-oriented approach. As such, QCA enables comparing differences and similarities between a set of cases and explore their complexity (Marx, 2008; Rihoux, 2006). QCA allows comparing CSR implementation levels by examining how organisational factors combine and are associated with such implementation. QCA integrates both qualitative (case-based and holistic-oriented) and quantitative (variable-oriented) data and approaches (Rihoux & Ragin, 2008). It implies that each case is a complex combination of dynamic characteristics (i.e., '*configuration*' in QCA terminology) (Rihoux & Ragin, 2008). The essence of this approach is to assume '*causal complexity and equifinality*', namely that multiple pathways exist associated with the same phenomenon. Therefore, by comparing cases, QCA allows understanding these configurations of variables and how they are associated with a certain phenomenon (Marx, 2008). QCA enables identifying different combinations of relevant '*conditions*' (i.e., independent variables) linked to an '*outcome*' (i.e., dependent variable). These conditions are '*necessary*' (i.e., this condition is invariably present through cases when the outcome occurs) and/or '*sufficient*' (i.e., this condition alone does not produce the outcome but needs to be combined with other conditions, contingent aspect of phenomena) for the outcome to appear (Rihoux & Ragin, 2008). In other words, there is an alternate path associated with the outcome.

Assessment of CSR implementation levels (Step 1)

To assess the outcome, CSR can be measured at successive stages and through different dimensions (Baumann-Pauly et al., 2013; Maon et al., 2010). Considering the relevancy and feasibility of measuring CSR implementation, a qualitative measure was developed in the survey, deriving from Maon et al. (2010) and Baumann-Pauly et al. (2013). These consolidated models are particularly amenable to be used since they are based on solid theoretical conceptualisation of CSR and indicators to measure the depth of CSR integration. Consistent with these models, five indicators of CSR implementation levels were derived and are described below.

First, the *budget* indicator refers to the resource commitment of the SF and allocation of funds for specific CSR budget. Second, the *strategy* indicator refers to the formal

strategic integration of CSR commitments into policy documents such as code of conducts, CSR strategic plans or included in the strategic orientations of the organisation. Third, the *specialisation* indicator captures the existence of organisational coordination of CSR through specialised job functions, dedicated staff and/or departments managing CSR implementation. Fourth, the *communication* strategy for the CSR indicator refers to whether SFs communicate their CSR activities through external communication channels (i.e., websites, social media, newsletters and annual reports). Fifth, the *evaluation* indicator refers to the evaluation strategy of the CSR programs that includes audits, monitoring and process and performance evaluation of the CSR programs beneficiaries. These indicators were measured by binary variables (1= yes; 0= no). The outcome was dichotomised (0 = low implementation score or 1 = high implementation score). In order to qualify a SF with a high level of CSR implementation, the threshold was defined according to the fulfilment of a minimum set of two out of the five strategic indicators (i.e., budget, strategy, specialisation, communication and evaluation). Accordingly, two groups of SFs were identified: low and high implementers.

Assessment of the potential organisational factors of CSR implementation (Step 2)

The assessment of the potential organisational factors of CSR implementation was performed for the 19 selected SFs. The survey and the organisational documents were used to measure these factors. Table 1 provides details about the calibration of the conditions and their dichotomisation thresholds.

Dichotomisation thresholds were established from both the existing literature and the distribution of the data. Different thresholds were used for Flemish and Walloon SFs as they tend to be considered as two different countries (Truyens et al., 2016) at the sport policy level leading to different funding schemes and regulations, thereby different size references. The median of the overall population was measured, and was then applied to the sample for two factors (*size and professionalisation of individuals*). Rihoux and Ragin (2008) consider that such statistical criteria can be used if this does not locate the threshold in an area of the data distribution where many cases are situated. Winand et al. (2013) suggested that SFs could be considered as *financially autonomous* when less than 40% of its funding are public resources. For

the conditions *staff involvement in the board*, *innovative capability* and *knowledge* measured by binary variables the thresholds were defined according Present/High/ Yes= 1 and Absent/Low/No = 0.

Table 10.1. Calibration and dichotomisation thresholds of the potential conditions of CSR implementation

Organisational factors	Measurement	Threshold	Calibration
Size	Number of affiliated athletes for Walloon/Flemish SFs	Median: 4300/9728* (Rihoux & Ragin, 2008 ; Winand et al., 2011)	Less than 4300/9728 : 0 4300/9728 or more: 1
Staff involvement in the board	Presence or absence of staff member involved in the board	Present/Absent (Winand et al., 2013)	Absent : 0 Present : 1
Professionalisation of individuals	Number of administrative personnel for Walloon/ Flemish SFs	Median: 3/5* (Rihoux & Ragin, 2008; Clausen et al., 2018)	Less than 3/5: 0 3/5 or more: 1
Financial independence	Percentage of financial resources comes from public grants	40% (Winand et al., 2013)	40% or more : 0 Less than 40 %: 1
Innovative capability	Degree of development of social innovative activities	High/Low	Low : 0 High : 1
Knowledge	Knowledge of CSR's definition	Yes/No	No : 0 Yes : 1

*The threshold for these conditions are different for Walloon and Flemish SFs

Crisp-Set Qualitative Comparative Analysis approach (csQCA)

QCA uses logical reduction to identify the combination of necessary and sufficient conditions that are associated the (non) occurrence of an outcome (Fiss, 2007; Rihoux, 2006). The present study follows the steps outlined in Figure 1. To perform the QCA, the Tosmana software preliminary organises data (*'calibration'*) into a raw dichotomous matrix in order to identify combination of conditions associated with a specific outcome value ([1] or [0]) (Step 3).

Consequently, the first csQCA starts (Step 4) by transforming this matrix into a *Truth table*. This *truth table* clusters similar combination of conditions. Further, the

'*minimisation*' step is the deliberate process of reducing complex expressions into a simplified combination of conditions (Ragin, 2008; Rihoux & Ragin, 2008). Accordingly, four minimisations procedures are run: for both configurations associated with outcome 1 and 0, with or without '*logical remainders*' (*LR*). *LR* are logically possible configurations of conditions that have not been observed among the empirical cases or do not (yet) exist (Rihoux & Ragin, 2008).

This first csQCA aimed to highlight key factors from the initial list of potential factors. In order to obtain a theoretically valid model, the ratio between the number of variables (conditions + outcome) and the number of cases should be limited to 0.33 or less (Marx, 2008) (Step 5). The analysis must be repeated, by reducing the list of factors, until this ratio reaches the theoretical threshold (Step 6). A second csQCA performed only with the relevant factors, revealed combinations of key factors associated with CSR implementation (Step 7). Finally, the interpretation of the csQCA (Step 8) and the fine-grained analysis of each SF helped to understand the sequences of conditions observed in SFs implementing CSR at low and high levels (Rihoux & Ragin, 2008).

Results

CSR implementation scores of SFs (Step 1)

Table 2 shows the scores of the SFs. The higher the score the higher the implementation level is. In order to qualify a SF with a high level of CSR implementation, the threshold were evaluated with the previously defined criteria. Seven of the 19 SFs selected achieved a high score in the implementation and are considered to perform highly. Twelve SFs show low levels of CSR achievement. Eventually, these scores were reduced and transformed into dichotomous variables (1 = high; 0 = low) to carry on the QCA.

Table 11. 2. Calibration of the outcome

Cas e	Budg et	Strate gy	Specialisat ion	Communicat ion	Evaluati on	Tot al	Outco me	Stag e
SF A	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	Low
SF B	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
SF C	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
SF D	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
SF E	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
SF F	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
SF G	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
SF H	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
SF I	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
SF J	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	
SF K	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	
SF L	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	
SF M	1	0	0	0	1	2	1	High
SF N	1	0	0	1	0	2	1	
SF O	1	0	0	1	0	2	1	
SF P	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	
SF Q	0	1	0	1	1	3	1	
SF R	0	1	1	1	1	4	1	
SF S	1	1	0	1	1	4	1	

CSR implementation analysis with csQCA

Building on their scores with the indicators (Step 1) and their assessment of the organisational factors of the SFs (Step 2), SFs' CSR implementation was analysed.

The calibration (Step 3) organised raw data into dichotomous variables (1 or 0) to perform the QCA.

First csQCA (Step 4). A first csQCA (minimisations with logical remainders) was performed to match and contrast the 19 SFs to eliminate negligible, redundant and trivial organisational factors (Step 5). Consequently, QCA revealed a final list of five key organisational factors: professionalisation of the staff; staff involvement in the board; innovative capability; financial independence and; knowledge of CSR, complying with Marx's (2008) ratio between the number of variables and cases analysed.

Second csQCA (Step 6). Using the five organisational factors highlighted by the first csQCA, a second csQCA was performed. According to the csQCA steps, the minimisation of the outcome values [1] and [0] with logical remainders was completed. This showed five contradictory simplifying assumptions (CSAs). To solve these contradictions, outcome values [1] or [0] were attributed to these CSAs. By doing so, the latter are called 'fictive cases', which were included in the minimisation to theoretically obtain valid results (Step 7) (Rihoux & Ragin, 2008; Winand et al., 2013). Table 3 shows the solutions from the empirical cases and the fictive cases (FC) for the five key organisational factors of CSR implementation resulting from the second csQCA. The organisational factors, expressed by their symbol, are followed by the value 1 or 0 according to the dichotomisation.

Table 12.3. Truth table with the five organizational factors with fictive cases

Case	SIB	PRO	FIN	INA	KNO	Outcome
J	1	1	0	1	0	0
A; H	0	0	0	0	0	0
F	0	1	1	1	0	0
K	1	0	0	1	0	0
D	1	1	1	0	1	0
B	1	0	0	0	1	0
L	1	1	0	0	0	0
E	1	0	1	0	1	0
C	1	0	0	0	0	0
I	0	1	1	0	1	0
G	1	1	1	0	0	0
O	0	1	1	1	1	1
N	1	0	1	1	1	1
M	0	0	0	1	1	1
P	1	0	1	1	0	1
Q; R; S	1	1	1	1	1	1
FC1	1	-	0	1	1	1
FC2	1	1	1	1	0	1
FC3	0	0	1	1	0	1
FC4	-	0	1	0	0	0
FC5	0	0	1	-	0	0

The consistency analysis indicates that *innovative capability* shows perfect consistency (value: 1) while *financial independence* and *knowledge* can be considered as almost sufficient conditions associated with a high level of CSR implementation (value: 0.8571). Ragin (2008) set the threshold for consistency at 0.75.

Table 4 represents the solutions for high and low CSR implementation of the second csQCA with the five key organisational factors. It results from minimisations with empirical and fictive cases (Rihoux & Ragin, 2008). The organisational factors are expressed by their symbol in capital letter when equivalent to 1 and in lowercase letter

when equivalent to 0. The [*] (multiplication) symbol represents the logical “AND”. The [+] (addition) symbol represents the logical “OR”. Finally, the arrow symbol [→] signifies the link between the combinations of organisational factors and CSR implementation.

Table 13.4. Solutions for high and low CSR implementation

INA*KNO +	sib*pro*INA +	pro*INA*FIN +	SIB*INA*FIN	→	OUTCOME [1]
R			R		
N			N		
Q	M	P	Q		High
S		N	S		implementation of
O			P		CSR
M					
ina +	fin*kno +	sib*PRO*kno		→	OUTCOME [0]
H					
A	J				
D	H				
B	A				Low
L	K	F			implementation of
E	L				CSR
C	C				
I					
G					

Notes: The organisational factors are expressed by their symbol in capital letter when equivalent to 1 and in lowercase letter when equivalent to 0. INA/ina = Innovative capability, KNO/kno = Knowledge of CSR, SIB/sib = Staff involvement in the board, FIN/fin = Financial independence, PRO/pro = Professionalisation of individuals.

Discussion

The analysis identified five key organisational factors that are associated with CSR implementation. These factors are discussed separately and in combination.

Four configurations supported a high level of CSR implementation. These configurations should all be considered as possible alternatives associated with similar high levels of implementation. Likewise, three configurations related to a low level of implementation. In the next section, these will be discussed in detail. Three key observations can be made: firstly, innovative capability is a core factor associated with high implementation; secondly, innovative capability should at least be associated with knowledge or financial autonomy; finally, committed volunteers and skilled workforce is important for CSR implementation.

The study has revealed that high *innovative capability* – despite its restricted measurement - is necessary for high implementation of CSR. This finding offers a different perspective to comprehend CSR implementation and innovation. Studies noted that non-profit sport organisations implement innovations including social responsibility initiatives (Hoeber et al., 2015; Winand et al., 2016). However, from a CSR implementation viewpoint, this study shows that it might be necessary to develop innovative capability to increase the level of CSR implementation. While Hoeber et al. (2015) identified new CSR initiatives as innovation themselves, the present paper establishes that innovative capability is associated with a high level of CSR implementation. Therefore, SFs that do not have innovative capability would be less likely to implement CSR (solution 1 Outcome 0).

Furthermore, this analysis shows that innovative capability must be combined with, at least, one other key organisational factor: knowledge or financial autonomy. As demonstrated by the consistency analysis, these two organisational factors are also almost necessary for SFs willing to implement CSR at a high level. In this respect, one configuration associated with low implementation consisted in a SF with a low level of financial autonomy and knowledge (solution 2 Outcome 0).

First, results showed that the combination of innovative capability and knowledge is associated with a high implementation of CSR (solution 1 Outcome 1). This finding is consistent with the recent studies that see SFs as innovative (Winand et al., 2013; Winand et al., 2016). This configuration illustrates that innovation and knowledge are intertwined. Knowledge is a critical component of the innovation process (Damanpour, 1991; Hoeber et al., 2015). This relationship is two-sided: innovation requires individuals to gain CSR knowledge and leads to the acquisition of new CSR knowledge (Hoeber & Hoeber, 2012). Knowledge can contribute to differential efficiencies and

determine the organisation's success and growth. In this perspective, SFs that are more effective than others at finding, absorbing, and exploiting new CSR knowledge may implement CSR better than other SFs.

This study therefore reinforces results from recent studies highlighting the importance of knowledge for CSR (Preuss & Córdoba-Pachon, 2009). These findings are particularly relevant for the models of CSR implementation that had not explicitly examined the influence of knowledge on CSR implementation (Maon et al., 2010).

Second, findings showed that *financial autonomy* was a core factor for CSR implementation given its high consistency score. This is in accordance with the supporting idea that financially secure organisations are more likely to engage in innovations (Damanpour & Schneider, 2006; Hoeber et al., 2015). With sufficiently diversified financial resources, SFs have the latitude to implement CSR. The impact of financial autonomy on the level of implementation of CSR extends the existing literature that considers revenue diversification as desirable because it enables organisational stability (Wicker & Breuer, 2014). As such, two configurations including innovative capability and financial autonomy, respectively combined with a third organisational factor - *involvement of the staff in the board* (solution 4 Outcome 1) or *a small number of professionalised individuals* (solution 3 Outcome 1) - emerged from the analysis.

A second configuration is based on staff involvement in the board, innovative capability and financial independence (solution 4 Outcome 1). In most cases, CSR has been integrated in the organisation's strategy with board members and professionalised staff involved in the elaboration and implementation of CSR programmes. This configuration stresses the importance of financial autonomy of SFs. This autonomy is due to the contextual background of the SFs that, with the exception of one SF, have not benefited from public financial support because they had decided to remain recognised at a Belgian national level only. In Belgium, government funding is provided by the regional level, whereas the national level does not explicitly financially support sport organisations. This financial insecurity risk may have led these SFs to diversify their financial resources outside the public subsidies. Considering Winand et al. (2013), an alternative interpretation could be that SFs perceiving financial insecurity tend to look for innovative ways to identify other sources of revenues. Consequently, they may probably be more prone to dedicate resources to CSR programmes while

simultaneously grasping seeking additional sources of income from private and public partners supporting CSR initiatives such as in cross-sectoral social partnerships.

Furthermore, this configuration highlights that whatever the number of professionalised individuals, the involvement of staff in the board is important. This trust and eventually this knowledge exchange from these two sides is of utmost importance (Anagnostopoulos et al., 2014; Ferkins & Shilbury, 2012). This relationship between volunteering board members and paid staff results in a shared vision leading to the development of a common strategy realised through innovative services (Winand et al., 2013). As such, these results are in line with Ferkins and Shilbury (2012) who stressed the importance of shared leadership between the board and the staff. This study therefore extends the previous finding that trust between board members and staff can help develop CSR initiatives (Anagnostopoulos et al., 2014).

This is particularly true considering the configuration associated with a low implementation of CSR (solution 3 Outcome 0). The findings show that a large number of professionalised staff is not systematically associated with a high level of CSR implementation. The research also found that some SFs under investigation do not implement CSR at a high level due to poor key organisational factors.

Consistent with the previous configuration, a third configuration is based on a limited number of professional staff, a high level of innovative capability and financial autonomy (solution 3 Outcome 1). Two SFs illustrate this configuration. One of them is a leisure sport organisation. This SF is highly implementing CSR because of its social mission (i.e., a focus on social integration through sport). The other SF is constrained by environmental legislation that influence their environmental responsibility. Coupled with good governance practices, this situation thereby positions them as a high implementer in the ranking.

Therefore, whether CSR programmes explicitly derive from their mission statements or are driven by environmental regulation, the implementation does not require the involvement of many professional staff under the condition that the organisation is innovative and financially autonomous. This configuration suggests that if SFs have limited professional staff, they should use the skills, knowledge and experience of their volunteers and staff and work on developing innovative capability.

Finally, a fourth configuration for high implementation emerged from the analysis (solution 2 Outcome 1). A limited number of professionalised individuals, who are not involved in the board, combined with innovative capability are associated with CSR implementation. This configuration is only represented by one case and may be explained by the use of external resources to deploy CSR programmes. Due to its sport specificities (i.e., non-environmental friendly sport), this SF has been encouraged by public authorities to comply with environmental regulations and has eventually received external public financial resources. As such, their high level of knowledge can be explained by their acquiescence to institutional pressures as well as by the environmental awareness of these individuals working in the SFs.

This configuration therefore suggests the important role of volunteers (Winand et al., 2013). Especially, small sized SFs without staff involved in the board means that the organisation does not need or cannot afford having staff dedicated to CSR *per se*. Rather, this suggests that if volunteers need to manage CSR, it can only work if they are conscious and mindful of social responsibility, knowledgeable and skilled (i.e., CSR champion). Eventually, despite no formal participation of the staff in the board, informal relationships might allow the exchange of knowledge and resources. Alternatively, CSR champion - regardless if this is a professional, a board member or a volunteer - might be enough to implement CSR.

Overall, these configurations illustrate that coordinated human resources are important factors associated with CSR implementation. Results show that the way a SF operates between this dichotomy between paid staff and volunteer board members is necessary to implement CSR. Volunteers and staff should joint their different and complementary valuable organisational factors to develop CSR strategically. Whatever the number of paid staff in the SF, the involvement of these individuals in the strategic decision-making has been important for CSR implementation.

Theoretical implications

Four main contributions are drawn. First, this study typically found that SFs' organisational factors of professionalisation combined are strongly associated with CSR implementation. The current professionalisation process seems to be contributing to the development of organisational factors associated with CSR implementation (Jamali et al., 2015; Puplampu & Dashwood, 2011). However,

contrary to what the literature could suggest (Lucassen & De Bakker, 2016; Nagel et al., 2015), the research did not provide evidence that a higher professionalised SF is automatically associated with a high implementation of CSR. Professionalisation involves organisational rationalisation, efficiency and business-like management (Nagel et al., 2015). However, the implementation of efficiency-based management instruments and paid staff does not seem to be associated with a higher CSR implementation. Results showed that in some cases, few paid staff can also be associated with a high level of CSR implementation if other organisational factors of professionalisation are combined. A group of volunteers may make better decisions regarding CSR than paid staff. As such, it is reasonable to presume, that it is not only the number of professionalised individuals that matters but also the quality of these individuals and the delegation and coordination of the workforce that matters. Low level of CSR implementation have also been observed in SF with a certain level of professionalised staff because what influences the level of CSR implementation is the way SFs combine critical organisational factors. Accordingly, there seems to be a minimum level of professionalisation or different forms of professionalisation (Nagel et al., 2015) desirable to implement CSR. This can imply professionalised staff or in the case of SF with less professional staff, the inclusion of volunteers with other factors could also be considered leaning towards CSR implementation.

This study herein has implications for research on the boarder context of CSR implementation. Existing models (Baumann-Pauly et al., 2013; Maon et al., 2010) have insufficiently examined the organisational factors associated with CSR implementation by mainly investigating the levels of CSR integration processes. In the absence of substantial research on organisational factors of CSR (Jamali et al., 2015; Puplampu & Dashwood, 2011), at this point, this research suggests critical organisational success factors related to CSR implementation. Moreover, these combinations of organisational factors provide alternative explanation for the differences in CSR implementation levels between organisations. This therefore extends the idea that there is no one-size-fits-all CSR solution (Maon et al., 2010). CSR implementation is a process that involves constant combination of core organisational factors. Given the complexity surrounding CSR implementation, identifying appropriate factors that are associated with the ability of sport organisations to successfully implement CSR is timely for scholars and practitioners.

Moreover, this study has also shown that size is not a critical organisational factor for CSR implementation. This factor has not been designated for the second csQCA, which therefore shows that no matter the size, SFs are able to implement CSR using other organisational factors. Therefore, this finding supports Baumann-Pauly et al. (2013) and Wickert et al., (2016) when they found that small organisations also implement CSR. Hoeber et al. (2015) came to the same conclusions regarding community sport organisations.

Second, the study builds and expands the current knowledge on CSR and sport by setting out different configurations for a high and a low level of CSR implementation. Most sport-CSR studies have examined organisational resources for CSR (Kolyperas et al., 2016) or developed models of CSR implementation (Kolyperas et al., 2015; Heinze et al., 2014). Importantly, this study provides a unique contribution to the existing sport-related CSR literature by highlighting the complex combination of organisational factors related to CSR implementation that has been neglected in the past. Consequently, CSR and sport research should move away from considering non-profit sport organisations as resource deprived and view them as a distinctive type of organisational form with a distinctive CSR implementation.

Third, by examining low implementers, this study captures explanatory factors behind these reluctant behaviours towards CSR that remain largely unknown. Maon et al (2010) have shown that organisations have evolved on a continuum from a rejection stage, via a grasping stage, towards an embedment stage (Maon et al., 2010). This study advances the current knowledge on CSR by providing insights to the behaviours of sport organisations that lack innovative capability, are financially dependent on public subsidies and lack knowledge; have no staff involved in the board, lack knowledge despite a professional staff.

Four, from a methodological perspective, the study demonstrates the relevance of qualitative comparative analysis to compare CSR implementation in sport organisations. Whereas conventional statistical techniques are concerned with linearity between variables, innovative comparative methods, such as QCA, are particularly relevant to study how different combinations of organisational factors are associated with CSR implementation (Skarmeas, Leonidou, & Saridakis, 2014). Eventually, although the prevalence of comparative research designs in the sport

management literature are relatively new, this study partly addresses calls to adopt such design beyond classical qualitative and quantitative research in our field (Rudd & Johnson, 2010).

Practical implications

From a practical standpoint, this study stresses the need to grasp CSR implementation as a complex endeavour that requires key organisational factors. CSR implementation can be challenging for many SFs given their limited resources. Eventually, the findings showed that SFs possess critical organisational factors that can allow them to implement CSR according to different combinations. Therefore, SFs should consider how their available assets, even if scarce, could be best used to implement CSR. Hence, this does not mean that they should not acquire new resources but that they could eventually build on their existing forces. Some organisational factors are under the control of SFs because they can change their orientations. No matter their size, SFs can exploit their organisational factors. Depending on their financial and human resources, SFs need different approaches to implement CSR. Different paths may lead to the same positive result.

In the first instance, SFs should identify which of their resources are strategic assets and perfectible. SFs at a low level should prioritise innovative capabilities and knowledge. Practically, sport organisations should proactively adopt new activities, techniques and ideas. Seeking financial autonomy is indeed more difficult amenable for SFs. However, the findings showed that even SFs without financial autonomy can implement CSR if they rely on their workforce. Qualified and committed volunteers and paid staffs are central for CSR implementation in SFs because their skills, knowledge, and time to develop practices can considerably improve CSR implementation. This could have implications on staff management to facilitate CSR implementation. Consequently, the recruitment of staff and volunteers with a useful network of partners, specific qualification in line with the CSR programmes and strategies and positive attitude towards change is also crucial. Finally, for high-level implementers, sustaining this level is critical and can be partly achieved through collaboration and organisational learning strategies.

Conclusions and future directions

This study used QCA to explore organisational factors and configurations associated with CSR implementation. Three conclusions emerged from this research. First, this research advances the scholarly investigation on CSR in sport into a new non-profit context by setting out combination of key organisational factors of professionalisation for CSR implementation. Second, this study unveils that innovation capacity is a core factor that must be combined with financial autonomy, knowledge and human resources. Findings show that there is no one best way to implement CSR: there are different pathways to CSR implementation depending on how SFs combine their critical assets. SFs possess critical resources that may allow them to implement CSR according to different combinations of organisational factors. Third, the professionalisation perspective is helpful in explaining the need for sport organisations to have appropriate organisational factors to implement CSR.

However, three (de)limitations need to be borne in mind when interpreting this research. First, the contextually-laden nature of CSR (Breitbarth et al., 2015) and the specificity of the SFs (Nagel et al., 2015) call for additional investigations in other countries and sport organisations, where the legal requirement and the cultural approach to CSR vary. Some adaptations might be required for future research examining different non-profit sport organisations implementing CSR. For instance, the headcount threshold for regional sport organisations would be different for international SFs (Clausen et al., 2018). Furthermore, future studies in multiple contexts would provide rich opportunities for cross-cultural and organisational comparisons. Moreover, as any other qualitative study, QCA allows modest generalisation given the small sample.

Second, adopting a single level of analysis limits the findings. Delving into multi-dimension research could pave the way for a better understanding of how they intersect, addressing issues such as individual level factors (e.g., personal attributes and leadership) and institutional level factors (e.g., external stakeholders, sport system and structures) (Hoeber & Hoeber, 2012; Nagel et al., 2015).

Besides, additional organisational factors were not measured in this study such as organisational culture (Pulampu & Dashwoods, 2011), the profile of paid staff and managers, specialisation, formalisation and communication (Nagel et al., 2015). This

study did not explicitly consider the evolving nature of organisational factors but rather examined measurable variables. Another limitation is that the findings may be temporary in nature as organisations resources, strategies and individuals change.

Third, this study gives ways to further explore the link between innovative capability (its own determinants as identified from Hoeber and Hoeber (2012)) and CSR (as an outcome). Examining CSR as a determinant leading to change and reinforcing organisation capability to innovate (Winand and Anagnostopoulos (2017) could be a future inquiry.

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2. Examining Non-Profit Collaboration for Social Responsibility Programmes

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Abstract

Nonprofit organizations (NPOs) increasingly implement socially responsible programs to address their responsibilities toward society. While collaborations are a valuable means to tackle complex social issues, NPOs also similarly collaborate with other NPOs for delivering socially responsible programs. However, the motivations driving NPOs to collaborate with likeminded organizations for socially responsible programs remain unclear. Using a single embedded in-depth case study research design, our purpose is to examine the formation of collaborations among sport federations and sport clubs for socially responsible programs. Reflecting the interplay between resource-based view and institutional perspectives, our findings intrinsically indicate that partners demonstrate similarity in their motivations to collaborate due to their organizational fit, but with some key differences in the complementary resources they seek. Organizational legitimacy, and resource exchange needs for socially responsible programs are driving the collaboration rather than organizational survival needs. The potential to create social value makes this nonprofit collaboration form unique.

Keywords: nonprofit collaboration; social responsibility; nonprofit organizations; sport federations; sport clubs; interorganizational relationships; formation.

Introduction

Nonprofit organizations (NPOs) increasingly embrace the term corporate social responsibility (CSR) to address their social responsibilities toward society (Lin-Hi, Hörisch & Blumberg, 2015). A recent study shows an increasing trend in adoption rates for nonprofits of communication and reporting schemes that express social responsibility, such as the Global Compact or the Global Reporting Initiatives Guidelines (Pope, Bromley, Lim, & Meyer, 2018). This upward frequency underpins a small but growing body of research examining this phenomenon in the nonprofit context (Acar, Aupperle, & Lowy, 2001; Lin-Hi et al. 2015; Pope et al., 2018; Robertson, Eime, & Westerbeek, 2018). These studies purport that it is valuable to discuss the social responsibility of all contemporary organizations not only in the for-profit but also in the nonprofit sector. The social nature of NPOs' activities should not automatically imply social responsibility given their recent irresponsible behaviors such as fraud, corruption or environmental damages (Lin-Hi et al., 2015; Robertson et al., 2018).

NPOs engage in socially responsible programs to play a role beyond service delivery for their members. These practices often extend beyond their core purpose. In the business context, CSR implementation regularly involves collaboration between profit and non-profit (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012a). Similarly, NPOs collaborate with other NPOs for delivering socially responsible programs.

More specifically, extant literature has only examined NPOs as the vehicle for businesses to implement their social responsibility agenda (Austin, 2000). NPOs enacting these practices themselves rather than acting as the recipients of socially responsible programs (Kourula & Laasonen, 2010; Omar, Leach, & March, 2014) have not received much attention and are still in need of empirical examination (Lin-Hi et al., 2015; Pope et al., 2018). While various studies exist regarding why business collaborate with NPOs (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012a; Seitanidi et al., 2010) as well as why NPOs collaborate with business (Herlin, 2013; Omar al., 2014), we know little about motivations for collaboration between NPOs for social responsibility.

This study examines nonprofit collaboration, which concerns different NPOs striving to address problems - such as education, health and social cohesion (Gazley & Guo,

2015) - through joint effort, resources, and decision-making and share ownership of the final product or service (Guo & Acar, 2005). Although nonprofit collaboration has grown significantly in recent years (Gazley & Guo, 2015), the scholarship in this field overlooks collaboration among NPOs in the delivery of socially responsible programs. To date, we lack understanding of what drives NPOs to collaborate with likeminded organizations for the implementation of socially responsible programs. A better understanding of the motivations driving NPOs to collaborate for programs that can have an impact on society is a current managerial and research gap. As such, empirical insights can help us bring to the fore the mutual social value such collaborations can offer.

Drawing on the nonprofit sport sector, the purpose of this study is to examine the motivations behind the formation of collaborations among sport federations and sport clubs for socially responsible programs. We study motives for engaging in collaborations to deliver socially responsible programs from the most common theories used to explain nonprofit collaboration, namely resources-based view and institutional theory. Our research is predicated on the following question: what motivates NPOs to collaborate with other NPOs to implement socially responsible programs?

The contribution of this study is twofold. First, it offers a fresh perspective in nonprofit collaboration scholarship by exploring collaborations formation for non-mission related activities amongst NPOs (i.e., mission that extend beyond their primary social purpose). Second, the study expands knowledge related to NPOs and social responsibility by broadening the role of NPOs in achieving socially responsible objectives, beyond their generally admitted activist, consultant or partner roles (Kourula & Laasonen, 2010). At the same time, it enlarges the possible forms of collaboration for the delivery of CSR, beyond the widespread cross-sectoral social collaborations (Peloza & Falkenberg, 2009). By paying more attention to the spread of this social responsibility movement in the nonprofit domain from the motivations for nonprofit collaboration formation, scholars and practitioners can gain a better understanding of the nature of this phenomenon.

Theoretical Background and Literature Review

Social Responsibility in the Nonprofit Sector

The applicability of the concept of CSR beyond traditional business has been debated as CSR extends to other organizational forms such as small and medium enterprises (e.g., Amaeshi et al, 2016), public organizations (e.g., Dentchev, Eiselein, & Kayaert, 2018) and NPOs (e.g., Pope et al., 2018). As such, scholarly activity now includes various organizational settings despite the “corporate” limitation in the terminology used. Indeed, this general evolution of CSR has been captured by Bondy, Moon, and Matten (2012) with the notion of institution, used to describe that CSR has become a taken-for-granted concept spread outside the classical business spheres.

In light of traditional business, CSR is broadly defined as “companies taking responsibility for their impact on society” (EU Commission, 2011). This study draws on the large notion of social responsibility which encompasses the voluntary engagement for society (“doing good”) and the prevention of irresponsible behavior (“avoiding bad”) (e.g., Carroll, 1991; Lin-Hi et al., 2015). As such, this paper builds on the small but growing body of research on social responsibility in the nonprofit domain (Lin-Hi et al., 2015; Pope et al., 2018). When referring to this phenomenon, scholars have referred to CSR (e.g., Lin-Hi et al., 2015), nonprofit responsibility (e.g., Pope et al., 2018) or sustainability (e.g., Fifka et al., 2016).

These studies contend that the social nature and character of NPOs could mislead us into considering a NPO as being intrinsically socially responsible (Lin-Hi et al., 2015). Driven by their organizational purpose, the role of NPOs is to provide a ‘social good’ or service. NPOs are oriented toward social needs, influenced by public issues and changing public expectations (Selsky & Parker, 2010). As noted by Lin-Hi et al., (2015) “since NPOs engage themselves for the well-being of stakeholders and society as a whole by pursuing their social mission, CSR in terms of “doing good” is closely related to their core business” (p. 1963). Consequently, one could consider that these NPOs are automatically seen as being socially responsible. However, NPO’s socially responsible behaviors should not be taken for granted given recent examples of irresponsible behaviors in the nonprofit sector (Lin-Hi et al., 2015). Moreover, the assumption that NPOs are socially responsible per se cannot be generalized to all

NPOs. In the case of NPOs delivering services to a small audience, such as sport organizations, considering the idea that NPOs are socially responsible is not valid because they only provide social good to their members and therefore contribute to the wellbeing of their members only.

Carroll (1991) contend that the economic and legal responsibilities are 'required' primary social responsibility, while the ethical responsibilities are 'expected', and the discretionary responsibilities are 'desired' secondary social responsibilities. Congruent with this distinction, NPOs have the potential to exert positive social change (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007) by embracing socially responsible programs into their agenda through, but also far and beyond, their primary social purpose. Social responsibility is more than doing good to society by building on organization's core mission as it may also extend beyond organizations' social purpose and existing institutional norms. Socially responsible programs are projects that neither necessarily nor explicitly derive from their mission statement. Beyond providing basic social services, NPOs secondary responsibilities can also consist in looking beyond their own interests and contribute to the needs of the community and society. In other words, although NPOs are social in nature and already contribute to the well-being of society, they can do more for society, beyond delivering social goods to their members. That is, they participate in the society carrying out activities in several environments through collaboration and interaction with various stakeholder groups (Acar et al., 2001; Misener & Doherty, 2012; Lin-Hi et al., 2015; Robertson et al., 2018). For instance, Misener and Doherty (2012) found, contrary to the traditional notion that NPOs are the recipients of donations, examples that illustrated their desire to serve the community beyond providing basic sport services for members. They reported that clubs collaborated with other local NPOs to develop civic engagement among its athletes.

As CSR is sensitive to institutional context, core social mission and organizational characteristics (Athanasopoulou & Selsky, 2015), we contend the need for differentiated research and distinctive approach to nonprofit social responsibility. Interestingly, Selsky and Parker (2010) noted:

"Organizations in every sector are confronted by and must respond to social challenges. Yet, long established sectoral differences have

traditionally led organizations to frame social challenges in different ways and to address them with different ends in mind” (p. 21).

Thus, in line with Selsky and Parker (2010), we posit that the mature presence of NPOs in CSR-related process as well as the reported socially responsible NPOs behavior may call for an examination of the related collaborative means chosen to deliver social responsibility. Moreover, Austin and Seitanidi (2012a) argued that “NPOs have embraced collaboration with business as an important mode for the generation of value required for successfully meeting their missions” (p. 9). Consequently, insights in the motivations for nonprofit collaboration for socially responsible programs are necessary to understand how such intra-sectoral collaboration can create value.

Nonprofit Collaboration Formation

A rich and diverse body of research has focused on nonprofit collaboration that spans from within-sector (i.e., among organizations from the nonprofit sector) to multi-sector partnerships (i.e., between organizations from two or more sectors) (Gazley & Guo, 2015). This study delimits itself in collaboration among NPOs. Therefore, we invariably utilize nonprofit collaboration when examining within-sector collaboration.

In the nonprofit collaboration literature, most studies investigating within-sector collaboration have looked at the types of collaboration (Foster & Meinhard 2002; Guo & Acar, 2005; Proulx, Hager, & Klein, 2014), the formation (AbouAssi, Makhoul, & Whalen, 2016; Snavely & Tracy, 2002; Sowa, 2009), the process (Tsais, 2009; Walters & Anagnostopoulos, 2012) and the impact (Arya & Lin, 2007; Chen & Graddy, 2010), and termination (Hu, Guo, & Bies, 2016). In the sport literature, special attention was paid on sport federations and sport clubs collaborative capacity (Doherty, Misener, & Cuskelly, 2014) to deliver various sport services (Sotiriadou, Bowens, De Bosscher, & Cuskelly, 2017; Vos & Scheerder, 2014).

Collaboration formation informs the decision by organizations to collaborate (Selsky & Parker, 2005). Initial conditions, antecedents, preconditions, and motivations are frequent areas in the collaboration formation literature (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012b). The formation is described as an important precondition to collaboration (Bryson et al., 2015). Most efforts in the nonprofit collaboration literature relate to the motivations to

form collaboration for services delivery (i.e. programmatic needs in line with organizational goals including social and elite sport services) (Chen & Graddy, 2010; Snaveley & Tracy, 2002; Sotiriadou et al., 2017; Sowa, 2009), the factors associated with collaboration forms (Guo & Acar, 2005; Proulx et al., 2014), the antecedents and capacity (AbouAssi et al., 2016; Foster & Meinhard, 2002), and the partners selection (Atouba & Shumate, 2015).

For instance, Sowa (2009) suggested two motivation levels: motivations associated with the service delivered and the organization. Guo and Acar (2005) examined the factors that drive the implementation of formalized nonprofit collaboration - with age, size, budget, linkages with other nonprofits and industry influencing the formalization. Atouba and Shumate (2015) examined the factors that affect the structure and configurations of collaborations – why NPOs collaborate with particular partners. The crux of their work is that homophily – similarity in terms of attributes, geography and institutional – matters in nonprofit collaboration.

Motives for nonprofit collaboration for socially responsible programs

Empirical insights from nonprofit collaboration literature might not necessarily help us understand the motives for engaging in discretionary-based socially responsible initiatives. NPOs seem to be driven by resource motives in the case of cross-sectoral collaborations (Omar et al., 2014). Collaborations provide access to additional resources, to learn skills, to professionalize and eventually strengthen legitimacy (Austin, 2000; Herlin, 2013). However, what drives NPOs to collaborate to deliver socially responsible programs and what can they benefit from collaborating for non-mission related actions with likeminded partners remain unknown. Other motives might be at play, and traditional theories and existing studies on nonprofit collaboration (Austin, 2000; Sowa, 2009) seem to be unable to explain or do not fully apply to this collaboration form. Potential differences in benefits for the NPOs pose critical new research questions that have not been adequately addressed.

Bryson, Crosby, and Stone (2015) as well as Gazley and Guo (2015) note that insufficient attention has been paid to the characteristics of forms of nonprofit collaborations. Earlier studies (Sowa, 2009; Sotiriadou et al., 2017) suggest that the motivations for nonprofit collaboration could be influenced by the nature of the service

delivered. Accordingly, the motivations to collaborate for socially responsible programs could differ from other collaboration forms because the creation of positive social change (Aguilera et al., 2007) underpins these collaborations. Collaborations represent an important vehicle to implement socially responsible programs, as they have the ability to co-create value for both partners (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012a). Yet, whether this value co-creation also applies to within sector collaborations remains unexplored.

Multiple perspectives (such as institutional theory, stakeholder theory, resource dependence theory, transaction cost theory, or network theory to name but a few) have been employed to theoretically underpin the study of collaboration (e.g., Barringer & Harrison, 2000; Guo & Acar, 2005). Responding to warnings that collaborations cannot be explained by a single theoretical approach (Barringer & Harrison, 2000; Oliver, 1990), the present study is also fundamentally guided by principles found in institutional (Oliver, 1990) and resource-based view perspectives (Barney, 1991). The interplay between institutional and resource lenses has already been acknowledged in collaboration studies with multiple perspectives (Barringer & Harrison, 2000) and is particularly relevant in the CSR context (Aguilera et al., 2007). Resource-based view and institutional theory have been often used as theoretical frameworks to examine nonprofit organizational motivations.

Institutional forces and legitimacy

Institutional theory suggests that the environment pressures organizations to conform to prevailing rules, requirements and social norms (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). These pressures stimulate organizations to pursue activities that may eventually increase their legitimacy and cause them to appear compliant with their environment (Oliver, 1990; Barringer & Harrison, 2000).

Coercive, mimetic and normative pressures can explain why organizations are driven similarly (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Coercive pressure stems from pressures on the organizations by other organizations on which the former depends. For instance, NPOs collaborate to meet legal requirements and mandates such as new reporting standards from higher authorities (Guo & Acar, 2005). Mimetic isomorphism is the process in which organizations copy other organizations' legitimate behavior.

Consistently, NPOs may collaborate for socially responsible programs by mimicking successful organizations that have established best practices such as collaboration and/or social responsibility (Barringer & Harrison, 2000). For instance, nonprofit collaboration are increasingly popular in the nonprofit sector to deliver their core purpose, such as in the case of early care services (Sowa, 2006). Normative isomorphism refers to professional networks and industry standards that contribute to spreading ideas, models and normative rules. For instance, the ISO and GRI guidelines are important forces facing NPOs and seem to be contributing to the increasing adoption of socially responsible programs (Pope et al., 2018). Such standards are actively promoted as one of the preferred ways to meet social needs.

Institutional theory is valuable in explaining why NPOs collaborate for socially responsible programs because it captures the related external social context (Athanasopoulou & Selsky, 2015). NPOs are pressured to form collaboration for socially responsible programs because the number of NPOs engaged in collaboration has increased and may therefore become an institutionalized practice in the nonprofit sector (Proulx et al., 2014). Institutional forces have also been used in nonprofit collaboration studies to examine why NPOs collaborate for legitimacy purposes (Sotiriadou et al., 2017; Sowa, 2009, Guo & Acar, 2005). These studies have particularly depicted normative and coercive pressures acting as driving forces for NPOs (Chen & Graddy, 2010; Guo & Acar, 2005; Snalvey & Tracy, 2000; Sowa, 2009).

Moreover, collaborations have become particularly commonplace and legitimate means in the realm of CSR (Herlin, 2013). Studies found that it allows a win-win scenario for both partners, simultaneously ensuring CSR and allowing NPOs to increase their capacity in the fight against global problems.

Furthermore, institutional forces are encouraging NPOs to adopt socially responsible behavior. Robertson et al. (2018) indeed showed that community sport organizations face increasing pressures from stakeholders to devote resources to socially responsible programs. Societal expectations also apply to NPOs because of their significant scale and aggregate social achievements (Austin, 2000) as well as sports negative impact (i.e., environmental negative externalities and irresponsible behavior should be compensated by socially responsible programs).

Organizational compliance eventually ensures organizational survival, acceptance and legitimacy (Oliver, 1990). A central premise of institutional theory is indeed legitimacy, defined as “a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are socially desirable, proper or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, value, beliefs and definitions” (Suchman, 1995, p. 574). Accordingly, Sotiriadou et al. (2017) suggested that when collaborating with clubs for elite sport services, sport federations primarily seek legitimacy, understood as enhanced reputation as a center of expertise and a leading role in the implementation of this service. Sowa (2009) further observed that NPOs are more likely to collaborate to seek legitimacy when funders place a high value on collaboration. In that study, she also put forward that forces also drive NPOs to collaborate in a shared response to problems that cannot be dealt with at the individual organizational level. While institutional forces have been useful in explaining the external social context for social responsibility programs collaboration, this theoretical lens alone may be incomplete in offering a more rounded perspective in what motivates likeminded NPOs to collaborate for such programs.

Resource Based-View Theory

The resource based-view theory adds to our examination by bringing to the fore the importance of sharing resources as well as to accessing unavailable resources needed to achieve these programs. This lens is used because collaboration for socially responsible programs is a strategic option, but not necessarily the core purpose of a sport's reason for existence. NPOs typically are resource constrained (Wicker & Breuer, 2013; Sowa, 2009) and therefore need to acquire additional resources to implement socially responsible programming. These resources could include for example human resources, financial, technological, infrastructure and channels to attract participants to these programs (AbouAssi et al., 2016). Viewed through the lens of the resource-based view (Barney, 1991) this need for resource exchange can explain why collaborations occur in relation to socially responsible programming in NPOs. Partners are seeking to acquire the complementary resources possessed by each other. In particular, NPOs constantly seek to diversify their source of funding and to leverage their capacity to become sustainable and effective in achieving their goals and programmatic needs (Arya & Lin, 2007; Chen & Graddy, 2010; Gazley & Brudney,

2007; Omar et al., 2014; Sotiriadou et al., 2017). NPOs hold unique capacity, expertise of which human capital (AbouAssi et al., 2016) and specific expertise (Chen & Graddy, 2010; Omar et al., 2014) are particularly salient.

In this respect, the resource based-view theory brings an important nuance to the study by providing understanding of why these organizations collaborate beyond the need to become less dependent on their environment. The theoretical interplay between the institutional and resources-based view will allow us to discern the motivational forces behind collaboration for socially responsible programs. On the one hand, there may be pressures at play, yet on the other hand, value co-creation can occur when the needed resources are used jointly. Overall, the theoretical interplay is fundamental, as collaborating may improve NPOs' image, which in turn may attract new or additional resources. As noted by Herlin (2013), "In the case of NPOs, resource acquisition and mission attainment depend on organizational legitimacy because legitimate organizations are perceived as "more meaningful, more predictable and more trustworthy" (Schuman, 1995, p. 575)" (p. 4). Engaging in collaboration for socially responsible programs could allow an NPO to improve its reputation or image and impress other members in its network such as resource-granting agencies, external stakeholders, or the general public (Herlin, 2013). Ultimately, legitimacy might open the doors to other collaboration that may ensure new resources and expertise (Barringer & Harrison, 2000; Herlin, 2013; Selsky & Parker, 2005).

Method

The study adopts an interpretative and embedded single-case study design (Yin, 2013) which has often been used in previous studies on collaboration (Austin, 2000). Single case studies are appropriate because they enable theory testing, provide alternative explanations, and contribute to refine existing theory through replication (Gerring, 2004; Yin, 2013). This study does not support that its findings are generalizable across all NPOs. However, it uncovers conceptual and empirical patterns of nonprofit collaboration that may be transferable to other settings with similar context and characteristics. The unit of analysis is the within-sector collaboration between sport federations and sport clubs for socially responsible programs.

Research Setting

This research was conducted among national (Association Royale Belge de Hockey – ARBH) and regional (Ligue Francophone de Hockey - LFH) sports federations and sports clubs operating in the French-speaking part of Belgium. Sports federations are sport-governing bodies that organize sports activities and competitions for their members (Winand et al., 2013). ARBH is responsible for the representation of the sports discipline in international sports structures, the national teams, the organization of international and national competition, and the coordination of regional structures. LFH is in charge of defining the strategic goals, the regulation, the promotion and organization of regional and local competitions, sports activities and elite sports policy for their members. At the local level, a dense network of nonprofit sports clubs is responsible for the provision of grassroots sports (Vos & Scheerder, 2014).

Sports federations and sports clubs are nonprofit, service membership organizations (Doherty et al., 2014). Specific characteristics of NPOs in general are found in these particular NPOs (Winand et al., 2010). First, their strategic objectives are mostly intangible, and hence, difficult to measure. Second, they are required to meet their stakeholders' needs and expectations. Third, they are financially constrained, especially due to the annual funding received from public authorities, member fees and the infrastructure costs. Fourth, their internal functioning is often unclear due to the complex human resource balance between paid staff and volunteers (Wicker & Breuer, 2013; Winand et al., 2010). Fifth, they have a small-scale decentralization and flat organizational hierarchy. Sixth, they are moving to a more business-like and professionalization logic (Maier, Meyer, & Steinbereithner, 2014).

The case study focused on joint socially responsible programs developed by hockey federations and hockey clubs. In this respect, the study's context suggests a dyadic collaboration among these NPOs. The focus was on two socially responsible initiatives, which go beyond their narrow sport mandates. First, *Hockey Together* (HT), jointly operated with several sport clubs and spread across the country with the support of the federations, aims to integrate persons with a disability through hockey. Second, *Stick to Fair Play* (STFP), designed by the federations and delivered with the clubs, aims to promote fair play values for hockey in Belgium through awareness campaigns. These initiatives should be considered as discretionary socially

responsible as they draw on and extend beyond these NPOs core mandate and legal norms. Consistent with Guo & Acar (2005), these two initiatives are joint programs. Table 1 offers a description of both initiatives.

Table 14.1. Contextual background of the case study

Characteristics	<i>Hockey Together (HT)</i>	<i>Stick to Fair Play (STFP)</i>
<i>Collaboration Form</i>	Informal collaboration and joint program initiative	Joint program initiative
<i>Collaboration Background</i>	Bottom-up initiative - one club	Top-down initiative - LFH
<i>Collaboration Components</i>	9 clubs, LFH and ARBH	ARBH, LFH and all clubs on a voluntary basis
<i>Collaboration Characteristics</i>	Initially, this informal collaboration between LFH, ARBH and sport clubs encompassed distinct decision-making strategies, information sharing and resource exchange. Today, a formal joint program initiative is established between LFH, sport clubs and the Federation of Disability sport (LHF) via the creation of a new formal NPO 'Hockey Together'. The partners mutually share, transfer or combine resources among partners and collectively managed the NPO.	Organizations establish an ongoing relationship through shared, transferred or combined resources. This initiative is coordinated by the three federations (ARBH, LFH and VHL), which collaborate with the clubs.
<i>Resources from Federation</i>	• Technical expertise and competences • Network of partners • Political skills • Staff and volunteers • Communication and learning platform	• Financial • Staff, athletes and referees • Communication and information sharing platform
<i>Resources from Clubs</i>	• Volunteers • Infrastructures • Geographical coverage • Situated knowledge and expertise • Local connection and beneficiaries access	• Volunteers • Infrastructures • Geographical coverage
<i>Collaboration Evolution</i>	• 2009: HT initially started in one club • 2010: A second club joins the initiative • 2015: LFH supports the initiative • 2016: Collaboration convention between LFH and LHF; creation of Hockey Together • 2017: Public subsidies granted; Strategic guidelines developed by all the partners	• 2014: Creation of the first initiative "We respect" • 2016: New initiative 'STFP' launched by the LFH, with the support of ARBH and clubs; public and private subsidies granted • 2017 - 2018: Awareness campaign with national team athletes and with international referees

Data Collection

Two data collection techniques were employed in this study, namely, semi-structured interviews and organizational documents. Collecting evidence from multiple sources offers different dimensions of the same phenomenon and facilitates triangulation (Yin, 2013).

Semi-structured interviews. In total, 16 interviews were conducted from May 2016 to March 2017 with key individuals involved in the design and management of the initiatives in the national and regional federations and six clubs (see Table 2). We purposefully selected key actors and “boundary spanners” who were considered as important informants since they possessed specialist knowledge of the socially responsible program. Employing a “key informant technique” and following the principles of theoretical saturation - denoting that no new features emerge from the data in the analysis process (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) - , we selected and interviewed individuals actively and directly involved in the programs.

Table 15.2. Outline of the data collection

Organization	Representatives interviews	Documents
<i>Federation</i>	8 informants	
National Hockey	President	Annual reports 2015; Strategic plan 2016-2020+; Websites; Press Releases
	Secretary General	
Regional Hockey	Project Manager	Annual reports 2015-2016; Strategic plan 2014-2018; Partnership Convention; Websites; Press Releases
	Project Manager	
	Secretary General	
	President	
	Board member	
Regional Disabled	Secretary General	Strategic plan 2015-2020; Websites and Facebook
<i>Hockey clubs</i>	8 informants	
Club 1	Past-President	Websites, Partnership Convention; Newspapers, Facebook
	Sport manager	
Club 2	President	Websites and Facebook
Club 3	President	Websites and Facebook
	Sport Manager	
Club 4	Social Manager	Websites and Facebook
Club 5	Vice-President	Websites and Facebook
Club 6	Vice-President	Websites and Facebook

We questioned informants to reflect on their social responsibility vision, their personal experiences, and their specific role regarding the socially responsible initiatives. Participants were encouraged to discuss retrospectively the objectives and the process to deliver the initiatives through collaboration. Furthermore, interviews explored the informants' perceptions (and their organizations') motivations for engaging in socially responsible programs through collaboration, the influence of key

partners on the collaborative setting, the nature of the relationship with their partners, the evolution patterns, and the challenges of working together with other NPOs.

Organizational documents. Secondary sources provided valuable background information about the NPOs in question, their strategic orientation, and a decision and action timeline of the initiatives. All this documentary material – such as annual reports, strategy notes, brochures, press releases, and presentations to key hockey stakeholders – was either available on NPOs' official websites or was provided by the participants during interviews. In total, 52 documents provided information on the context within which socially responsible programs were implemented.

Data Analysis

In line with Miles and Huberman's (1994) framework, we iteratively analyzed data using both deductive and inductive reasoning. Initially, a number of themes originated from a review of the literature on collaboration in general (Oliver, 1991), nonprofit collaboration (Sowa, 2009; Guo & Acar, 2005), and sports management in particular (Babiak, 2007; Sotiriadou et al., 2017). Consistent with the research question, the themes included motives related to resources (stability), efficiency, reciprocity, institutional (legitimacy, necessity).

First, the lead author read the transcripts several times. Analytical memos as well as temporal bracketing were processed to identify the major characteristics (Guo & Acar, 2005) and phases of the collaboration process. Following this, refinement of themes and development of alternate themes took place. Once all interviews and document passages were coded according to themes, they were carefully reviewed and then further scrutinized for relationships and linkages. Analysis of the data was facilitated with Nvivo 11 software. To ensure consistency and credibility in the analysis process, the coding protocol and the interpretation of the data was discussed between all authors.

Findings and Discussion

This study examines nonprofit collaboration between sport federations and sport clubs implementing socially responsible programs. We present our findings building on the perspective of those directly engaged in the collaboration. As a starting point for exploring collaboration among NPOs for socially responsible programs, two

complementary theoretical frameworks were used for this study. The interplay between these lenses unveils the uniqueness of this collaboration form.

This study displayed two major motivations. Both federations and clubs pointed to *resource exchange and organizational legitimacy* as primary motivations. Our case shows that each partner reported common and diverse motives to collaborate to deliver socially responsible programs, as suggested by previous studies on collaboration formation (e.g., Gazley & Brudney, 2007; Sotiriadou et al., 2017; Sowa, 2009). The convergence between nonprofit partners' motivations underpins the relationship and eventually contrasts with the divergence between partners found in cross-sectoral collaboration (i.e., strategic versus altruistic goals) (Seitanidi et al., 2010) or in nonprofit collaboration (Sotiriadou et al., 2017).

As resource-based view theory suggests, organizations are not self-sufficient, and revenues are impacting the need for collaboration (Arya & Lin, 2007). The importance of resource in this particular case is not surprising, as NPOs operate in a complex environment characterized by resource scarcity (Wicker & Breuer, 2013). In fact, hockey partners are evolving in an unstable political environment that nudges them to work together in order to attain alternate supplies of resources. The data extract below illustrates the resource instability:

Budgetary speaking, sport is a poor sibling, so we do not have many resources and we are not going to develop them [these collaborative projects]. Sponsorship is reaching its limits, political subsidies are what they are, so we cannot hope to multiply by ten our financial income so we need to deal with our shoestring means available, with what we have but (...) we also try to use exchanges and contacts. (Federation 5)

Contrary to the resource dependence perspective often mobilised to examine NPO collaboration for service delivery (Gazley & Brudney, 2007; Sowa, 2009; Sotiriadou et al., 2017), NPOs do not collaborate for socially responsible programs to exert power and control over organizations with scarce resources (Barringer & Harrison, 2000). As Sowa (2009) noted, NPOs first seek their basic programmatic needs before

seeking to implement complementary projects. In this case, collaboration is not a matter of organizational survival needs.

Rather, partners are motivated by the increase of complementary resources to develop the joint socially responsible initiatives. Our results show that organizations primarily seek to secure the survival of these initiatives that highly rest on the complementary resources provided by partners. This means that in this context, NPOs mainly collaborate for the survival of the initiative, rather than for their basic organization survival needs. As illustrated by these extracts, resource exchange was central for the both partners: “LFH wished to accompany closely clubs in the creation and development of their section” (LFH organizational document). As explained by a club member, expanding the initiative with the federation’s resources was central:

Our goal since the beginning is that the project is open to all partners, so I don’t ask more that the league joins. So the more people work on it, the more I am glad in this collaboration. We can hardly develop something on the national level without the federation support. (Club 3)

The desire to pursue common goals stimulated NPOs to put their respective competencies at the disposal of each other in order to converge toward the development of socially responsible programs. The literature often identifies reciprocity (Oliver, 1990) as a determinant to engage in such collaborations. As such, this clubs-federation synergy was mutually expected to benefit both entities:

The federation wanted to support the HT project and help to expand it and encourage other clubs to open HT (...) But we are conscious that it is a two way street: thanks to it we will have a visibility (...) it can open doors for opportunities and give the envy to clubs to be part of the project. It always works in both directions. (Club 6)

A federation member also exemplifies his mutually beneficial position, “we work closely with the clubs and they come also to us with projects” (Federation 1). This reciprocity allowed NPOs to pool their competencies to converge toward the fulfilment of a common objective: the development of the socially responsible initiatives to generate social progress.

For instance, in the case of HT, clubs initially developed the idea, served as the implementation platform through their infrastructure, human resources (sport practitioners and volunteers), situated knowledge, geographical coverage and local connections with other organizations and beneficiaries. The federation shared its political (acting as a lobby seeking subsidies and visibility for the hockey community), human (professional staff), technical (expertise and competences), communication (information sharing), network and financial resources as well as its legitimacy.

The collaboration can facilitate information sharing, mobilize complementary resources and acquire expertise. For instance, as explained by a federation member on a web page, the resources exchanges: “It is the initiation, making primary contacts, the access to the community and sharing experiences. I think each section is different but what is important is sharing between you” (Webinar LFH, 03.26.2018). Statements like this illustrate that informal resources such as learning, knowledge and diffusion of good practices were important in the eyes of the partners.

Moreover, NPOs reported that they seek to acquire new resources from other partners as well as enhancing existing collaboration between clubs and federations and new collaboration ties to reinforce the initiative. This network of resources and lobbying capacity is illustrated here: “we work closely with the clubs and they come also to us with projects. To help them, we seek subsidies from the minister” (Federation 1). As outlined in Table 1, the collaborations for HT and STFP have in turn attracted additional supplies of resources from public and private partners as well as new partners partaking in the initiatives.

Surprisingly, these findings showed that rather than building on asymmetrical interdependencies inherited from the sports structure in which sport federations, as governing bodies, are traditionally occupying a hierarchical position over clubs (Babiak, 2007; Sotiriadou et al., 2017), partners have altered this likely domination and competitive state (Wicker & Breuer, 2013; Sowa, 2009) into a collaboration position. The lack of asymmetry is illustrated in this quote: “We are not aware of everything that happens within the clubs but our goal is to have as much information as possible. Not for control purposes” (Federation 2).

The absence of asymmetrical motivation is an interesting insight to understand the formation of nonprofit collaboration, because this is not systematically the case, as

reported in other nonprofit studies (Sotiriadou et al., 2017). This reciprocity can eventually be explained by the significant organizational mission and identity fit between these NPOs and previous interdependence experience (Atouba & Shumate, 2015; Seitanidi et al., 2010; Walters & Anagnostopoulos, 2012).

To some extent, these findings concur with Atouba and Shumate (2015) who found that homophily (i.e., NPOs being more likely to collaborate when they have the same status) influences the selection of nonprofit collaboration. In this case, these NPOs have similar cultural and organizational characteristics that explain this complementary fit. These NPOs' common mission is indeed influential for this fit: "Developing hockey is one of our main goals as a federation. It is in the ARBH's strategic plan. One of the elements is to increase the number of sport participants. So why not people with a disability because none of this existed yet." (Federation 1).

The results also showed that sharing similar values is essential in this reciprocal relationship. As one federation member highlighted; "There are regularly projects which are always very well welcomed because they correspond to our values. For instance, with HT (...), we absolutely want that it expands in the entire hockey field (Federation 2)".

Ultimately, the resource perspective does not sufficiently provide a complete understanding of the NPOs' motivations to collaborate. The desire to appear legitimate in the institutional environment to eventually acquire additional resources to do good for society has been also evoked. The institutional perspective provides a more complementary understanding of what motivates NPOs. Our findings showed that organizations sought collaboration to enhance their legitimacy in order to enhance their organizational positioning by showing their capacity to have the right practices in place (Herlin, 2013; Sowa, 2006) and demonstrate their capacity to create social value as in cross-sectoral social collaborations (Austin & Seitanidi, 2010a).

Institutional pressures played a role in encouraging partners to increase their *legitimacy* in order to appear 'appropriate' in relation to their stakeholders' expectations and prevailing norms in their environment (Di Maggio & Powell, 1983; Oliver, 1990). Collaboration is indeed considered as a leading means to tackle various social issues (Austin, 2000; Gazley & Guo, 2015), while addressing social

responsibility is a major strategic organizational concern (Seitanidi et al., 2010) for NPOs given its taken for granted institution nature (Pope et al., 2018; Bondy et al., 2012).

Compared to the literature, our findings interestingly show that while previous studies depicted mimetic isomorphism influencing NPOs to collaborate (Guo & Acar, 2005; Oliver, 1990; Sotiriadou et al., 2017; Sowa, 2009), organizations were not motivated by meeting explicit institutional mandates or complying with collaborative requirements from funding partners. Rather, collaborations were self-initiated in the context of the initiatives examined.

Eventually, NPOs' collaborative behaviors are guided by the need to achieve organizational legitimacy. In particular, all partners have shown that legitimacy played a role in the collaboration, contrary to previous findings (e.g., Sotiriadou et al., 2017) which only identified such determinant in one of the partners (the federation). Moreover, cross-sectoral studies only identified legitimacy motivations with the business sector (Seitanidi et al., 2010). Although NPOs typically possess strong legitimacy attributes (Herlin, 2013; Omar et al., 2014; Sowa, 2009), they strive for improved internal legitimacy (i.e. by their internal stakeholders: the member-clubs, the staff and the volunteers) and external (i.e. by the external stakeholders: sponsors, public authorities, sport organizations) reputation. For instance, LFH illustrated this drive to enhance their image as a leading organization due to their short lifespan:

It is important for us to get known. That is, externally, that all our stakeholders know “we are now the league”, toward the Adeps [i.e., public sport administration], and all the subsidiary authorities, toward the French community, all local actors. (...) and internally, towards our clubs (...) Now, there are two leagues but the ARBH is still the national umbrella agency. We exist as a new entity. (Federation 3)

Interestingly, several clubs were also driven by the opportunity to make their members proud of their club:

“So this club, if you are proud of what it does, notably, because it empowers people with disability through sport, if you are proud of that, of the colors of your club, you will run faster” (Club 4)

Using collaborative socially responsible initiatives, NPOs therefore seek to strengthen their image and their strategic position within their organizational field. Eventually, the results showed that organizations expressed their legitimacy motivation in different ways, namely, to demonstrate their capacity to conform to their stakeholders' expectations and institutional norms, to solve social problems, and to act as a relevant actor of societal change building on the intrinsic nature of the NPOs (Lin-Hi et al., 2015; Pope et al., 2018; Seitanidi et al., 2010). Consistent with legitimacy theory (Suchman, 1995), these findings support that legitimacy can be both strategic/utilitarian and altruistic (Seitanidi et al., 2010; Selsky & Parker, 2005).

Consequently, findings intrinsically indicate that partners demonstrate similarity in their motivations to collaborate due to their organizational fit, but with some key differences in the complementary resources they seek. Overall, the socially responsible program is driving the collaboration. Viewed as a desirable behavior and a valuable means to address social problems, the analysis finds that collaboration is a strategic response to legitimacy and resource needs for the socially responsible programs. The potential to create social value makes this nonprofit collaboration form unique. Partners are motivated by the aim to create social value that leads to positive social change. This is the catalyst to these collaborations.

Eventually, the study makes two contributions. First, this work generates original insights into the formation of nonprofit collaboration. Although a growing body of research has focused on the motivations of collaborations among NPOs for specific service delivery (Sowa, 2006), this article contributes to this emergent field by examining motivations to engage in nonprofit collaboration for social responsibility programs. This study contributes to the nonprofit collaboration literature by providing an understanding of how motivations for nonprofit collaboration for socially responsible programs differ from other nonprofit collaboration forms depending on the nature of the issue addressed. This study shows that there are differences in nonprofit collaboration formation depending on the purpose and on the nature of the issue

addressed in the collaboration. Social responsibility programs lead to differences because of the social value creation aim.

The findings originally point that NPOs do not compete for resource although there is a general competition for resources in the general NPO context (Wicker & Breuer, 2013). Elements of resource-based view and institutional forces provide explanatory power for studying the singularity of the formation of collaboration for socially responsible programs. Prior research found reducing the need to compete for resource and funding uncertainties, cost savings and a desire to expand services beyond the capacity of partners to be important drivers of the motivation to collaborate (Chen & Gazley, 2010; Guo & Acar, 2005; Sowa, 2006), whereas we have noted the nonprofit interest in using collaboration as a strategic response to resource complementarity and social value creation. Overall, the theoretical interplay is fundamental, as collaborating may improve NPOs' reputation, which in turn may attract new or additional grant funding. Organizations also seek new partners to build future relationships in order to enhance and mature existing collaborations. Essentially, these findings extend existing work demonstrating that both theories are equally important and complementary driving forces of collaboration by NPOs (Arya & Lin, 2007; Barringer & Harrison, 2000). This study contributes to this growing body of research and knowledge by applying two theoretical perspectives, which complementarily, offer a more rounded approach on the motivations to engage in social responsibility collaborations.

Second, this article contributes to a better understanding of the applicability of social responsibility in the nonprofit domain by examining nonprofit organizations collaborative motivations to implement such programs (Lin-Hi et al., 2015; Pope et al., 2018). These programs are often considered practices that extend beyond their core purpose. In this study, NPOs are collaborating with likeminded organizations rather than serving either as recipients or vehicles of socially responsible programs of business (Kourula & Laasonen, 2010); a stream of research that has predominantly attracted scholarly attention in the nonprofit literature. The traditional perspective of NPOs as mere passive providers of CSR should be abandoned. NPOs should rather be regarded as capable proactive implementers of socially responsible practices. As such, there is some consensus that businesses are not responsible for addressing all

social issues (Amaeshi et al, 2016). That is, although the word “corporate” has typically been associated with large business organizations, CSR is now being embraced by organizations of all types and sizes, including nonprofit sport organizations. Moreover, this study shows that beyond cross-sectoral collaboration, other collaborative forms exist to implement CSR programs. Within sector collaboration can offer valuable benefits for organizations willing to implement their social responsibilities with likeminded organizations. As such, this study extends the roles of collaboration for the implementation of CSR by considering that profit organizations are not the only organizations capable of developing collaborations to implement socially responsible programs.

Conclusions and Future Research

The purpose of this paper was to examine a particular form of collaboration within the nonprofit landscape. In this study, we have indicated key motivations for the formation of collaborations among NPOs for socially responsible programs. As such, three unique features of this collaboration can be highlighted. First, NPOs’ motivations stemmed from the potential to create social value from the social responsibility programs implemented through collaboration. As such, this nonprofit collaboration form is unique because socially responsible programs are the catalyst of the collaboration. Second, reflecting the interplay between resource-based view and institutional perspectives, organizational legitimacy and resource exchange needs for socially responsible programs are driving the collaboration rather than organizational survival needs.

Third, the partners demonstrate similarity in their motivations to collaborate due to their organizational fit, but with some key differences in the complementary resources they seek. This suggests that a high degree of organizational characteristics and motivations fit among partners might increase chances to deliver social good at this stage prior to the collaboration implementation. In the case of sport, the network of partners is relatively dense and the degree fit is important.

The findings from this study are limited in their generalization to similar institutional contexts where implicit forms of social responsibility prevails and to similar organizational contexts where voluntary membership organizations are based on a

federated structure. Yet, this study may be beneficial for managers willing to work in collaboration for socially responsible programs. Collaboration requires the understanding of the partners' motivation to collaborate. Motivations are preconditions of collaboration formation and many managers tend to miss this important part (Austin, 2000). Beforehand, managers should detect common characteristics and (seek) compatible motivations to inform the decision to partner or not to partner. Managers can strategically oversee collaboration when they know partners' motivations. Hence, this should minimize the risk of threats to the implementation of the collaboration and eventually increasing the potential outcomes of the collaboration. Furthermore, as collaboration requires various sources, an effective manager should define the resources their need, detect potential resources to exchange and eventually create new resource flows through collaboration.

However, the study is also subject to some limitations. First, the sports context limits the findings' universality. Second, the study is based on a dataset collected in a relatively short period. Third, adopting a single level of analysis limits the findings. These limitations could be addressed through future investigation.

First, we encourage future studies to expand knowledge on social responsibility and NPOs by examining whether and how NPOs from different industry outside sports collaborate in the delivery of socially responsible programs. Second, as this study has examined the static motivations of collaboration, a step forward could be opting for a longitudinal perspective to capture the evolution of the nonprofit collaboration process (especially within all the chronological stages of collaboration (formation, management and outcomes) (Selsky & Parker, 2005). Hence integrating the nonprofit collaboration challenges, resistance, and termination. Third, delving into individual or network-level factors, such research could pave the way for a better understanding of how they intersect, addressing issues such as leadership and organizational learning.

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3. Organisational Learning for Corporate Social Responsibility in Sport Organisations

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Abstract

Although the implementation of corporate social responsibility (CSR) may require changes at the strategic, organisational, and operational levels, studies fall short of investigating the role of organisational learning (OL), which is key to grasp how CSR occurs in organisations. This study fills this gap by exploring the dynamic interaction between different levels of the learning process through which sport organisations implement CSR. Drawing on Crossan et al.'s 4I Framework, we examine the learning sub-processes characterising CSR implementation in a sport federation. This study uses a single-case study research design and analyses interviews (n = 18) and organisational documents (n = 20). This study reveals that OL for CSR is a critical multilevel and dynamic process that consists of learning subprocesses at the intra-organisational and inter-organisational levels. CSR requires both learning new ways of incorporating CSR practices, as well as embedding into the organisation what has already been learnt. Informal and formal groups were identified as strong repositories of learning, while external stakeholders are essential sources of learning intertwined within the organization alongside the work of inter-organisational boundary spanners. Theoretically, this paper extends the discussion of CSR implementation by highlighting the critical role of OL. It does so by revealing patterns of learning institutionalisation for CSR in a particular European sport federated setting. These findings highlight that the level of institutionalisation of learning influences the integration and sustainability of the CSR strategy. Practically, managers should consider these learning subprocesses as appropriate platforms on which to instil the CSR construct within their organisation.

Keywords: Corporate social responsibility; organizational learning; sport organisation; implementation; sport federation

Introduction

In recent years, sport organisations have increasingly been embracing corporate social responsibility (CSR) principles and practices (Breitbarth, Walzel, Anagnostopoulos, & van Eekeren, 2015). CSR has become an important concern of sport organisations, given their strong connection to the community and the importance of the relationships with stakeholders (Trendafiova, Ziakas, & Sparvero, 2017). Moreover, the social nature of sport (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007) and the European sport context (Breitbarth et al., 2015) compel sport organisations to respond to wider social issues and demonstrate their responsibility to delivery social good both within and outside the sporting sphere (Dowling, Robinson, & Washington, 2013).

However, there is still little understanding of the processes involved and dynamics experienced within sport organisations when implementing CSR (Breitbarth et al., 2015). CSR studies have noted that engaging in CSR is a complex undertaking, because its development may require changes at the strategic, organisational, and operational levels (Maon, Lindgreen, & Swaen, 2010). Sport studies also advocate the complexity of integrating CSR within sport organisations (Kolyperas, Morrow, & Sparks, 2015).

To date, despite the growing interest in sport-related CSR studies, the extant literature does not provide sufficient insights to understand the multilevel dynamics of implementing CSR within a sport organisation. Analysis from a multilevel perspective that highlights the interaction between individual, group, organisational and interorganisational levels is missing. Although CSR implementation has attracted a significant body of literature on this very topic, studies have not yet investigated the role of organisational learning (OL) as it relates to CSR at different organisational levels. It is important to develop a better understanding of the process by which CSR knowledge and ideas are acquired and how CSR becomes institutionalised in these organisations.

The present study partially fills this gap by examining CSR implementation from an OL perspective. It is our contention that studying the intersection between CSR and OL is important to grasp the cognitive and strategic microprocesses through which sport organisations progress when implementing CSR. In this respect, OL enables

delineation of the dynamic interaction between different levels within and outside the organisation of CSR. Despite the acknowledgement of OL significance in CSR (Fortis, Maon, Froomean, & Reiner, 2016) and, overall, of knowledge creation for any sport organisation (Girginov, Toohey, & Willem, 2015), sport management literature has failed to explicitly address how sport organisations engage in an OL process when implementing CSR.

The purpose of this paper is to analyse the process of OL that occurs in the adoption and implementation of CSR by sport organisations. Accordingly, this study addresses the research question: how does the process of OL operate when sport federations implement CSR in a federated model? We do so by drawing on one regional sport federation that constitutes the empirical setting of the present study. Sport federations are nonprofit organisations (NPOs) responsible for the organisation and regulation of their sport discipline. Scant research has examined CSR-related programmes in this organizational context (Chelladurai, 2016). Building on the 4I Framework developed by Crossan, Lane, and White (1999) and extended by Jones and Macpherson (2006), we examine the intraorganisational and interorganisational learning processes experienced by these sport organisations when implementing CSR.

Consequently, this study contributes to the current body of knowledge by providing a broader, dynamic, and multilevel perspective of the OL process reported by sport organisations implementing CSR. Analysing such dynamics in the sport setting is central to improvement of understanding the challenges sport organisations face when implementing CSR programmes.

Furthermore, by investigating this sport federated and collaborative learning setting, this study shifts the focus of current sport research on CSR implementation from the individual and organisational levels to the interorganisational level (Anagnostopoulos & Shilbury, 2013), which appears to be a promising unit of analysis in the general CSR literature (Benn, Edwards, & Angus-Leppan, 2013; Oelze, Hoejmoose, Habisch, & Millington, 2016). To date, despite some exceptions – which only implicitly infer the relationship (Anagnostopoulos & Shilbury, 2013; Heinze, Soderstrom, & Zdroik, 2014; Kolyperas et al., 2015) and investigate cross-sectoral social partnership implementation both in CSR (Walters & Anagnostopoulos, 2012) and through CSR (Dowling et al., 2013) – studies have fallen short in investigating how sport

organisations collaborate within their network to implement CSR. Indeed, the interorganisational level of analysis unveils gaps in our understanding of how the sport structure influences the learning cycle for CSR implementation. Moreover, Babiak, Thibault, and Willem (2018) have recently pointed to the lack of interorganisational sport research using OL theory. This present study offers a better understanding of how a network of sport organisations in a federated structure (Sotiriadou, Brouwers, De Bosscher, & Cuskelly, 2017) may have a bearing on CSR implementation.

Theoretical background

Corporate social responsibility

In essence, CSR represents one component of the broader social role of sport and refers to “the responsibility of enterprises for their impacts on society” (Commission of the European Communities, 2011, p. 6). Over the past decades, CSR has become a taken-forgranted concept or ‘institution’ within Western society (Bondy, Moon, & Matten, 2012), and has subsequently spread outside the classical business spheres. As such, although the word ‘corporate’ has typically been associated with social responsibility and large business organisations, ‘CSR’ as a term is now being used and embraced by organisations of all types and sizes.

Thus far, professional sport organisations such as major professional leagues and clubs have been the dominant research settings within the sporting sphere (Breitbarth et al., 2015). Nevertheless, expecting social involvement solely from such organisations overlooks an important role that can be played by NPOs through the application of CSR programmes. Notwithstanding their very strong socially responsible nature, NPOs implement CSR programmes beyond their main purpose and scope of activities for strategic, altruistic, and institutional logic reasons (Misener & Babiak, 2015); research in this domain, however, remains limited.

CSR implementation

Several models of CSR have been developed within the sport context (Heinze et al., 2014; Kolyperas et al., 2015; Walker & Parent, 2010). For example, Kolyperas et al. (2015) examined the progressive strategic and cultural organisational change required to embed CSR in football clubs. Similarly, Kolyperas, Anagnostopoulos, Chadwick, and

Sparks (2016) explained how some sport organisations may alter their structure by creating charitable foundations and appoint new organisational actors in charge of delivering these initiatives. Eventually, these studies have suggested that sport organisations face challenges to define what constitutes meaningful CSR (Kihl, Babiak, & Tainsky, 2014).

Overall, most of this empirical scholarly activity has focused on either an individual or an organisational level of analysis. For example, Heinze et al. (2014) examined mechanisms that enabled a professional team to manage CSR in a strategic and integrated way. Other individual-level studies have documented the decision-making process of CSR in football charitable foundations (Anagnostopoulos, Byers, & Shilbury, 2014). However, 'the organisational complexity, specifically related to CSR, is increasing as is the need to capture elements at both the cross-organisational and individual level' (Anagnostopoulos & Shilbury, 2013, p. 269). To date, sport management research in this domain has overlooked an analysis from a multilevel perspective that would reveal the dynamic interaction between individual – group – organisational and interorganisational levels. In the next section, we frame the theoretical underpinning, OL, through which we elaborate this first in-depth, multilevel examination of CSR implementation.

OL as a multilevel process

Learning commonly refers to a relatively permanent change in knowledge or skill resulting from experience (Weiss, 1990). As such, OL is defined as a process referring to the ways in which organisations as collectives learn through interaction within their internal and external environment (Cyber & March, 1963). Vera and Crossan (2004) posit that OL is a process of change in thought and action, both individual and shared, which is embedded in and affected by the institutions of the organisation. At the heart of OL theories lies the consensual assumption that OL includes individual-, group-, organisation level processes (Argyris & Schon, 1996; Crossan et al., 1999; Huber, 1991).

To date, OL has been largely underexplored in sport management. Only a handful of studies have examined broader knowledge, knowledge management, and related processes such as knowledge creation and transfer (Girginov et al., 2015; Halbwirth & Toohey, 2001; Parent, MacDonald, & Goulet, 2014). Overall, these studies support that the survival and success of any sport organisation is based on the systematic generation of new information, knowledge, and innovation (Girginov et al., 2015). While Halbwirth and Toohey (2001) noted the importance of a culture of learning, Parent et al. (2014) suggested that learning was connected to the knowledge-management process. A deeper understanding of OL could thus contribute to the existing knowledge literature, because 'effective knowledge management and transfer processes and research (...) require both organisational theory and behaviour perspectives' (Parent et al., 2014, p. 215).

Although a variety of theoretical models have been used to analyse OL, Crossan et al. (1999) provide a particularly well-developed comprehensive and multilevel model. Integrating and extending previous seminal studies (Argyris & Schon, 1996; Huber, 1991; Nonaka, 1994), the 4I Framework (Crossan et al., 1999) allows for the analysis of complex process dynamics. This model identified four interconnected processes of intuiting, interpreting, integrating, and institutionalising that occur at individual, group and organisational levels (Crossan et al., 1999). Accordingly, intuiting and interpreting take place at the individual level, while integration occurs at the group level and institutionalization at the organisational level, which makes this process multilevel.

Intuiting is the preconscious recognition of the pattern and/or possibilities inherent to a personal stream of experience. Crossan et al. (1999) distinguish between entrepreneurial intuition, (which makes novel connections to innovate), and expert intuition, (which draws upon past knowledge to recognise familiar patterns). Interpreting is the explaining, through verbalisation and/or actions, of an insight or idea to oneself and to others. It extends to the group level when individuals engage in sensemaking and shape intuitions through conversations, metaphors, and imagery. Integrating is the process of developing shared understandings along individuals and of taking coordinated action through mutual adjustment. Institutionalising is the process of ensuring that actions are routinized into the institutions of the organisation through

systems, structures, procedures, and strategy. OL, therefore, occurs when new knowledge is interpreted, distributed, and institutionalized in organisational routines.

The 4I Framework is commonly presented in a sequential form. According to Crossan et al. (1999), these four learning processes interact dynamically and are connected through feedforward and feedback flows. Feedforward refers to the process through which new ideas and actions flow from the individual to the group, and to the organisational level. Feedback refers to the process through which institutionalised learning affects the individual and group learning levels. Key in these processes is the interaction between different levels. It is important to understand that learning transcends levels, instead of occurring within the levels. The core idea of this is the continuous process of knowledge (rather than a linear process).

Crossan et al. (1999) encouraged other scholars to refine their preliminary framework of OL processes. As such, many studies have shown that learning can occur at a fourth interorganisational level (e.g. Hardy, Phillips, & Lawrence, 2003; Holmqvist, 2003; Zollo, Reuer, & Singh, 2002). This interorganisational learning focuses on how organisations learn from each other through formal collaborations or from informal communities of practices (Jones & Macpherson, 2006), such as could be the case in a network of sport organisations in a federated model. This collaboration can indeed facilitate creation of new knowledge, knowledge sharing, and transfer of existing knowledge (Hardy et al., 2003).

Therefore, Jones and Macpherson (2006) suggested an extended version of the 4I Framework by adding a fourth interorganisational level and the process of intertwining recognizing the intersection of learning between organisations and not just within organisational boundaries. They highlight that 'external organisations have a significant role to play in institutionalising the feedback processes by which new knowledge and procedures become embedded within the firm' (Jones & Macpherson, 2006, p. 167). In other words, external actors are key in helping acquire and institutionalise learning at the organizational level. Moreover, Jones and Macpherson (2006) identified three types of learning – mimetic (adopting and adapting best practices), coercive (enforced learning), and normative (adopting industry standards).

OL and CSR implementation

The intersection between CSR and OL has recently been subject of both conceptual (e.g. Berthoin Antal & Sobczak, 2014; Fortis et al., 2016) and empirical studies (e.g. Burchell & Cook, 2008; Oelze et al., 2016). The existing scholarship suggests that OL is central for implementing CSR because it is fundamentally challenging conventional ways of thinking and doing (Berthoin Antal & Sobczak, 2014; Cramer, 2005; Fortis et al., 2016; Maon et al., 2010). Organisations must adapt and develop novel attitudes, competences, and ways of working within their organisation and with individuals, groups, and organisations that evolve within their network (Burchell & Cook, 2008; Fortis et al., 2016). These studies suggest that the changes ascribed to this undertaking call for more attention on the role of OL in the implementation of CSR (Fortis et al., 2016; Oelze et al., 2016). In other words, CSR and OL should be considered to be interrelated because CSR implementation entails substantial learning processes for the organization and its members in order to successfully unfold CSR within the organisation (Fortis et al., 2016).

Fortis et al. (2016) reviewed the nascent and fragmented body of literature central to CSR and OL. In their conceptualisation of OL, learning processes can be found inside the organisation (learning from within) (e.g. Berthoin Antal & Sobczak, 2004), from knowledge located in their external environment (learning from others) (e.g. Oelze et al., 2016) and by actively engaging with stakeholders through collaboration (learning with others) (e.g. Burchell & Cook, 2008).

Fortis et al. (2016) encourage additional empirical studies with a focus beyond an organisational-centric perspective (i.e. intraorganisational level), and in particular, on the 'learning with others' process (i.e. interorganisational level). Moreover, the adoption of a multilevel perspective was only studied in a fragmented way (i.e. integrating the different unit of analysis of OL). Oelze et al. (2016) have demonstrated that the learning processes underlying implementation go beyond an intraorganisational focus and comprise external channels through which organisations can generate knowledge. This multilevel, dynamic, and integrative gap in the literature is surprising considering the interorganisational context that typically characterises CSR development in the broader literature (Burchell & Cook, 2008; Rasche, Morsing, & Moon, 2017) and sport management literature (Dowling et al., 2013) in particular. Therefore, we contend that

more research is required to examine the multilevel process of learning in a network of sport organisations in a federated sport structure.

Method

We conducted a qualitative-oriented study using interviews as the principal data collection technique, with an interpretative single-case-study design. Single-case studies allow the development of a rich theoretical framework enhancing theories' robustness through replication (Yin, 2009). The research was conducted in one sport federation. Case selection was tailored with a purposive sampling approach (Patton, 2002). This involved identifying an NPO that implements CSR programmes that fall within and beyond its social mandate. We selected this case based on established CSR records from extant studies, websites, and official reports. This case is relevant because of the organisation's commitment to CSR, their sport federated network, and their professionalisation.

The rationale for the selection is also underpinned by the fact that sport federations remain an under-researched area for CSR. Considering the traditional European sport federated structure (Sotiriadou et al., 2017) and the multilevel context of CSR implementation in the sport context (Anagnostopoulos & Shilbury, 2013), sport federations, as governing bodies for sport, are centrally positioned in the OL process with their organizational members, their member clubs, their national sport federation, and their external stakeholders.

Empirical setting

The French Field Hockey Federation (hereafter LFH) was established in 2012 after the regionalisation of hockey and has recently introduced some CSR initiatives. Their CSR strategy is not yet well defined, and it is not formally embedded in their structure. The LFH mainly collaborates within the Belgian hockey network, which is mainly composed of various sport clubs, the national hockey federation (hereafter ARBH), and NPOs within and beyond the sport sector. The LFH has developed three main projects: Hockey Together, Stick to Fair Play, and Green Hockey. These projects provide the basis for exploring LFH's OL process. Table 1 briefly outlines these projects.

Table 16.1. Case studies' characteristics

	<i>Hockey Together</i>	<i>Stick to Fair Play</i>	<i>Green Hockey</i>
<i>Mission</i>	Integration of disabled people through the practice of hockey	Promote the intrinsic values of hockey and fair play	Donations to compensate hockey's ecological imprint
<i>Stakeholders targeted</i>	Disabled people	Hockey players and parents	None directly
<i>Nature of CSR</i>	Integration	Fair play	Environmental
<i>Actions</i>	Training sessions	Awareness campaign	Donation and awareness campaign
<i>Background</i>	Bottom-up initiative by one club in 2009	Top-down initiative by the LFH in 2014	Bottom-up initiative by one club in 2016
<i>Stakeholders</i>	9 clubs, LFH and ARBH, Hockey Together, public partners and local stakeholders (i.e., education and health)	ARBH, LFH, Flemish regional federation (VHL) and clubs	ARBH, LFH, VHL, clubs and NPO

Data collection*Semi-structured interviews*

The lead author conducted 18 interviews from May 2016 to May 2017 either in person or via telephone. Organisational actors from the sport federation and from different stakeholder groups were interviewed through snowball and purposive sampling (Patton, 2002). Interviews stopped when saturation of data in each stakeholder group was reached. The study participants were representatives from the ARBH (2), LFH (6), hockey sport clubs (6), disability sport federation (LHF) (1), NPOS (2), and minister of disability (1). These individuals were presidents (10), treasurer (1), general secretary

(2), managers (3), and board members (2). These well-placed informants were selected based on their capacity to oversee CSR strategy, given their organisational position, their experience, and active role played in implementation of these initiatives.

Previous research acknowledged that OL can be difficult to identify because learning takes place both consciously and unconsciously (Crossan et al., 1999; Oelze et al., 2016). At the heart of this challenge lie the dual perspectives of learning: behavioural (i.e. routines, actions, and structures) and cognitive (i.e. cognitive maps, beliefs, and understanding). To overcome the methodological limitations inherent to learning study and qualitative research (Easterby-Smith & Lyles, 2011), we conducted our research by posing semi-structured and open questions regarding how the individuals personally experience CSR implementation, thereby approaching both conscious and unconscious learning. This approach opened the way for the informants to express their respective vision on hockey's contribution to society and conception of the process in their own terms and to expand on events that were important to them. Interviews enable an indepth understanding of the meanings an interviewee may attach to a particular issue (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Jackson, & Lowe, 2008).

Specifically, the interview protocol included a more historical perspective that consisted of asking the informant to give his/her perceptions on the changes the organisation has undergone in the past decade regarding CSR. Informants were asked to reflect on their experience, understanding, and their involvement with the implementation of the CSR projects (see Appendix 1).

The interviews ranged from between 47 to 106 minutes and were recorded and transcribed verbatim. This resulted in a database of more than 310 pages of single-spaced transcribed text and total interview time exceeding 21 hours.

Documentation

Documentation provided background information about the sport federation's social responsibility background, orientation, and actions. This material included strategic programmes, annual reports, strategy notes, meeting reports, presentations, brochures, promotional materials, and press releases. These secondary data were directly provided by some informants or were publicly available organisational

documents retrieved from the Internet. In total, 20 documents were collected and triangulated by an examination of the webpages from all organisations.

Data analysis

Consistent with Miles and Huberman (1994), we iteratively analysed the data using both deductive and inductive reasoning. First, the transcripts were read several times, and case reports were established to identify the major CSR development and phases as well as the key features and implementation mechanisms of CSR initiatives. This first-step coding originated from the review of the literature on OL and CSR (Cramer, 2005; Fortis et al., 2016; Maon et al., 2010). In a second step, Crossan et al.'s (1999) model provided a priori categories to analyse the data. As the aim of this study was to examine the learning process, we initially built on the four processes along the three levels identified in the 4I Framework. These included identifying expert and entrepreneurial patterns as well as the nature and the extent of institutionalisation. In a third step, the refinement of themes occurred, the development of alternate themes appeared and were added to the coding scheme during the analysis.

For example, interorganisational learning emerged as an important theme. Sport clubs and external stakeholders were identified by informants as external learning sources. New codes also emerged, such as the different formal and informal groups within the intraorganizational level. Analysis of the data was performed with NVivo 11 software. After coding all data according to the themes, these were carefully reviewed and further scrutinized for relationships and linkages.

Consistent with established guidelines on qualitative research quality (Lindgreen, Xu, Maon, & Wilcock, 2012), this study adopted several methods to improve its validity and reliability. These techniques include data triangulation, standardised interview guide, multiple interviews, data coding protocol, independent coding, and follow-up interviews with key informants from ARBH, LFH, and Hockey Together, to allow feedback on our initial findings.

Results

This study examines how CSR-related ideas emerging at the individual, group, interorganisational levels have been embedded into the organisational level. In this

section, we report how the LFH has been involved in five feedforward learning subprocesses (i.e. intuiting, integrating, interpreting, institutionalising, and intertwining) throughout the CSR implementation process.

Expert and entrepreneurial intuiting

Key individuals capitalising on both expert and entrepreneurial intuitions could often be identified from the data as the source of the intuitive process. Our findings indicate that these individuals have actively built on their previous experience, educational background, and on their instinct for innovation to bring about change for CSR. They are representatives of the LFH as well as the ARBH and member clubs that can be considered internal stakeholders. These individuals occupied higher-level functions (i.e. strategic) and middle-level functions (i.e. operational) within these organisations. They have initiated a review on hockey's contribution to society through CSR projects.

The results showed that ideas arising from both LFH and ARBH's presidents have significantly influenced the way CSR has been integrated into the LFH. As explained by a manager:

This, I believe, also stems from the personalities, the educational background of the board members who often have responsibilities in other companies, small and large. Social responsibility has become a trending topic, and this is something that they are really trying to instil here. (...) The added value brought by these board members lies in the actual transfer of their models. To our president, this issue has become a real priority and I think that he is really good at managing it. (Informant #1)

The president of the LFH has built on his current professional experience as a CSR manager.

So I am in charge of the social responsibility programme at [name of the organisation], and it is clear that organisations, no matter who they are, must now reflect on their social role and question what they can possibly do on a larger scale. (Informant # 2)

As illustrated by this quote, this individual wishes to apply his expertise in the implementation of the LFH's CSR strategy. In addition, the ARBH's president has demonstrated entrepreneurial intuition characterised by a specific sensibility to environmental issues, as well as an overall instinct for change.

This is something that makes sense to me since I am a child. There are sentences I have remembered: "the earth does not belong to us, we let it to our children". And it is quite clear to me that I would like everything, and I really mean everything beyond hockey itself, to get better for the next generations, yours and the next ones. (Informant # 4)

In the case of Stick to Fair Play, one operational manager primarily initiated the project. Conversely, Green Hockey and Hockey Together emerged in a bottom-up approach from the intuition of member clubs. All interviewees reported that there was one key individual behind the disability project. Its founder explains how this started:

'Nobody ever told me: act or do something. I just told myself: Look, we have space available now [a new field], so let's make some room for everybody. So that's what the idea boils down to.' (Informant #3).

From individual to collective interpreting

Sharing these intuitions with others refers to individuals verbalising their ideas about CSR by engaging in discussion with other organisational members from LFH, ARBH and club members. Interviewees conveyed a message of sport doing good for society. The discussions were therefore mostly about the relevancy and the extent to which LFH should engage or not on these matters. Noticeably, the language used by the individuals did not systematically relate to CSR per se, suggesting that the sensemaking mainly occurred about what should be the social responsibility of the LFH and how it should enact this, rather than on the meaning associated with the use of the concept. Therefore, the language was imprecise and related to the specific projects implemented.

Overall, the idea was to build on the existing strong values behind hockey to develop an overall vision for the LFH. The LFH's president explains this message:

So we have positioned the whole image of sport in a much more general manner to break the old image and then, by drawing from the values, defend the idea that: “moreover, this is a sport in which you are going to do things in a certain way. (Informant #2)

The boundary-spanning nature of the key intuitive individuals has emerged from the interviews as important to further develop CSR. These individuals communicated with other key entrepreneurial and expert individuals within the hockey network (i.e. from ARBH and LFH's strategic and operational levels and from member clubs).

Discussions therefore started among several key change agents on particular CSR projects. In the case of Hockey Together, the founder received important support in the hockey network:

In 2009, the first move consisted of presenting the initiative to the general assembly (...). I directly obtained a lot of support. (...) So there was an entire group of backers that formed completely informally. So there was no president, no meetings. And we started this together. (Informant #3)

Using his social network, the ARBH's president built on the expert intuition of a member-club to design Green Hockey.

Now, concretely, what I have suggested was based on an initiative from the president of a club, who is board member of a nonprofit organisation, [name of the organisation]. He came to me because he wanted that we compensate the ecological footprint, carbon dioxide footprint of our players in Rio. (Informant #4)

For Stick to Fair Play, the manager took the initiative and the lead with other federations' members. He explained that to implement the project:

I consulted. I first called up a meeting with my president of the Board of directors and the three secretary generals [i.e., national and two regionals]. I told them that there was something to do concerning fair play and ethics. (...). Generally, I asked them how they saw things, what were the problem. It was

a really open discussion. I took a lot of information, then I structured my project based on this feedback. (Informant #3)

Integrating and developing a shared understanding of the CSR trajectory

The process of developing shared understanding of CSR and taking coherent collective (CSR) actions within a group, occurred through formal and informal groups of both sport federations. Based on the coding of the interview data, we identified two formal groups, namely the board of directors and general assembly, and an NPO and one informal group, namely a coalition of change agents.

Overall, the general assemblies and the board of directors of both ARBH and LFH were key forums for exchanging views, sharing knowledge and eventually stimulating the design of a common vision of CSR strategy, guiding principles and projects. The ARBH's president noted the importance of these structures to spread his individual learning within the organisation: 'We talk increasingly about corporate social responsibility. CSR has become a trending topic. Not that long ago, at the extraordinary General Assembly, I introduced two or three projects in this respect.' (Informant #4).

In the case of Stick to Fair Play and Green Hockey, discussions took place also inside these formal structures. Mutual adjustments among the LFH and ARBH's levels were reported. As illustrated by the following quotation, the manager in charge of the former project realised that changes were required within the board:

Some board members indeed said that this may not be their priority as they have bigger fish to fry. Actually, they are also club presidents and what they say is: above all, I have difficulties finding coaches, dealing with my growth and the infrastructures. So you have to prove its impact (...). Now, they are all convinced, and it is awesome. (Informant #5)

While board members were sometimes relatively sceptical about the projects, Stick to Fair Play was accepted while Green Hockey was dismissed in its initial form. For Green Hockey, mutual adjustments between the president of the ARBH and the initiating member club finally resulted in the decision to collaborate with an external environmental NPO on a one-off project and in the member club rather than starting with a broader project.

For the disability project, following the informal support received by the founder of the initiative, more individuals within the LFH also took a more active part in the project and participated to the creation of the NPO called Hockey Together. As such, it has moved from a very informal to a formal joint collaborative project, with the creation of a new organisational form. A board member explains why the LFH stepped in: 'There are often projects which are warmly welcomed because they correspond to our values. Let me take the example: Hockey Together (...). We absolutely want this to keep on developing all through the entire field of hockey' (Informant #6).

Additionally, entrepreneurs, experts, managers, and member clubs have informally created a coalition of change agents who attempted to develop some projects and a vision for CSR in the long term, as exemplified in the previous section. In this respect, top managers were essential to guide the participative process and encourage the contribution of all organisational member. LFH and ARBH's leaders oriented the strategic change of CSR through proactive management. Board volunteers from both sport federations acted as a supportive mechanism to the learning process, convincing other organizational members and engaging in collective interpreting was a challenge. While these individuals have succeeded in developing some sustainable projects through formalized mechanisms, resistance from some board members successfully prevented the implementation of one CSR programme.

Institutionalising learning at the organisational level

The interviews showed that although some individuals aimed to bring a sport-adapted notion of CSR per se to the agenda, the LFH lacked a consistent overall CSR strategy. As the president of the LFH noted:

I think we are on the right track, but we now have to make it sustainable and there are two ways to do so. One is to design a working group here. [Second] is to appoint someone who will be in charge of that at the federation.
(Informant #2)

Moreover, the understanding of what CSR means to the individuals remains fuzzy and dispersed between separate projects and ideas that coexist. Reaching a common CSR

meaning and vision within the LFH constitutes a barrier to a higher institutionalisation of CSR.

However, while CSR has not yet been fully developed within the organisation, we found a low level of institutionalisation, which corresponds to local institutionalisation through a newly formed entity called Hockey Together with other strategic and processual forms of institutionalisation.

Hockey Together has been formally institutionalised within the LFH through its inclusion in its communication and in its strategic plan. Such structures resulted in fostering knowledge embedment and accelerating the learning process within the LFH. Conversely, the LFH has been formally integrated into the decision-making process of Hockey Together. Specific strategic and communication documents have been published that reinforced the institutionalisation.

Moreover, the strategic formalisation of two initiatives in the strategic plan as well as the appointment of managers in charge of the CSR-related projects were critical for institutionalizing Stick to Fair Play and Hockey Together as explained by the manager of the former project:

Formalising this project by the board of directors on a real document was needed. The fact that this is formalised in the strategic plan, that somebody works on it, that he gets it to grips, and structures it well (...) It is really important. (Informant #5)

Ongoing learning procedures exist within the LFH through discussion platforms for the staff and the clubs. This interactive platform for the exchange of ideas seeks to define a vision and a shared understanding of the CSR-related projects. Yet, no specific CSR learning programmes have been implemented at the organisational level.

However, Green Hockey showed that the overall level of institutionalisation in this case remains relatively low, as this resistance by some individuals has threatened the continuity of the broader environmental project. This failure illustrates the need to allow time for learning to filter through to the different levels. One informant explained the implementation pace:

I think what matters is that people claim ownership of the project. I think it came too fast and people were wondering what it was. (...) I think that all this, as coffee, it must percolate [filtering down process] and at a certain time, people in the clubs and in the federations, will say yes, it is evident we have to do it. Presently, we have certainly not reached this level. (Informant #7)

Given the absence of a fully institutionalised inter-organisational learning, the LFH's CSR commitment also relies on its inter-organisational relationships.

Intertwining: external sources of learning

The results showed that learning across levels of the hockey network was important in CSR implementation by the LFH. The sport federated structure and collaborative setting provided opportunities to engage in learning flows with other organisations, of which sport clubs and the ARBH are direct preferred partners.

Along with their close collaboration with the ARBH due to their recent effective and cooperative approach to regionalisation, the LFH collaborated with multiple stakeholders. These included specific stakeholders for each project (an NPO responsible for fair play issue, a local NPO partners involved in disability issues, LHF, and an environmental NPO) and established stakeholders (such as the ARBH, member clubs, public authorities, and sponsors).

The results showed that key individuals have built on their social and professional networks to transfer knowledge within the LFH through collaboration. Boundary-spanning individuals actively connected the LFH with these partners. In particular, this facilitated the involvement of sport clubs in collaborating in CSR initiatives. One participant explained just that: 'We receive information informally, by discussing with people, because we know many people in the clubs, we move along from left to right, and we hear some things' (Informant #8). This interrelation is also facilitated by the fact that several sport clubs' presidents are also board members of the LFH and/or ARBH. This indeed resulted in the diffusion of local initiatives at the federation level. Moreover, these stakeholders are important sources of learning and knowledge for the LFH, as illustrated by Hockey Together and Green Hockey.

Public and private stakeholders were important in the development of CSR in hockey through the provision of technical and financial support for the Hockey Together and Stick to Fair Play projects. For instance, as the general secretary explains: 'We obtained very positive feedback because the project itself has been supported by the minister of sport (...). We have received a specific subsidy to develop this project.' (Informant #8)

Furthermore, interviewees reported that these interorganisational relationships enabled knowledge exchange, networking, and dialogue among key stakeholders. The LFH collaborates on Hockey Together with the LHF to provide support and learning. As the treasurer of this NPO explains:

They are the ones specialising in sport people with disabilities. There are idiosyncrasies that we, we know hockey. (...) They can help us with equipment and financial resources. (Informant #9)

A partnership agreement was signed by the LFH and LHF, which states that: 'the valid federation is committed to promoting sport for people with a disabilities-through-awareness campaign in their member clubs. The LHF can, when requested, advise valid clubs in this process.' (Partnership Agreement)

Discussion

Beyond presenting a rich description of the different trajectories of OL for CSR, this study provides several original findings. Below, we discuss the implications of these results for the literature on CSR in sport and the role of learning in the implementation of CSR.

Individuals' profiles and positions

By confirming the existence of both experts and entrepreneurs (Crossan et al., 1999), our findings reveal that sport organisations go through both exploitation and exploration of learning, which could eventually lead to tensions between pre-existing knowledge and new learning. A major finding is the group-level and interorganisational-level boundary-spanning profiles identified throughout these overlapping learning processes.

Group-level boundary spanners have emerged from the case study as important enablers of learning from individual to group level, as well as connectors between individuals' intuitions within the LFH. Furthermore, in this sport-federated setting, these individuals proved to be particularly influential in the informal groups because they coordinate the 'coalition of change agents.'

Interorganisational-level boundary-spanners have been important in embedding CSR more deeply in the LFH through collaboration and learning exchange with external partners. Their relational ties with other organisations facilitated the intertwining process between existing institutionalised learning and external learning. A shortcoming associated with these key organisational actors is that staff or volunteers' departure might induce a change in the relationship and in the feedforward-feedback flow.

Overall, results have shown that CSR implementation required the active involvement and support of all organisational members, for learning flows between levels to occur. These findings confirm previous studies acknowledging the influence of sport federation leadership support in the institutionalisation of a structured approach toward CSR (Cramer, 2005; Hamil&Morrow, 2011). The present study also highlights the importance of operational managers, not only for the work force they represent in coordinating CSR-related programmes (Cramer, 2005), but also for their awareness, personal values, vision, hands-on expertise, and knowledge to induce CSR ideas within the whole organisation. Although these individuals are not CSR managers, their dedication and specialist knowledge have been influential in implementing CSR. Particularly, this finding suggests the importance of attracting high-quality individuals at the strategic and operational levels (Anagnostopoulos & Shilbury, 2013) as well as engaging with learning platforms to define a shared understanding of the CSR-related projects. Yet, no specific CSR learning programmes that could further complement the multiple competences required for CSR (Fortis et al., 2016) have been implemented at the organisational level.

Structural repositories of learning

Considering Crossan et al.'s (1999) model, the study suggests that formal and informal group structures exist in the group learning processes. The choice of informal structures might be explained by the recent CSR involvement, the small size of the LFH and the collaborative nature in a small federal country such as Belgium (Sotiriadou et al., 2017).

However, the LFH has also participated in the creation of a new formal collaborative structure to further develop their CSR. While Kolyperas et al. (2015, 2016) highlighted potential structural challenges and opportunities of foundations and 'in-house' structures for CSR implementation, our results reveal that challenges also exist in the creation of these formal collaborative structures. This formal group represents an important learning platform because it includes key internal and external stakeholders' views and skills and facilitates the flow from the learning interpreting and integrating processes. However, we contend that such structures might create an isolation trap that could lead to a lack of institutionalisation of OL. As such, although creating formal structures may improve CSR integration within the organisation, this could also isolate learning at a group level and restrict feedforward towards additional CSR embedment.

It became also evident that, in these structures, organisational members engage in defining a shared understanding of their organisation's social involvement and taking coherent collective (CSR) actions; a testament of a sensemaking process (Benn et al., 2013; Djaballah, Hautbois, & Desbordes, 2015; Van der Heijden, Driessen, & Cramer, 2010). Certainly, the capacity of organisational members to develop a collective frame of reference is particularly important in driving CSR development (Van der Heijden et al., 2010), in alignment with the shared aspect of OL and sensemaking (Crossan & Berdrow, 2003). In turn, this interpreting process leads to a shared vocabulary, definition, and ideas (i.e. different boundary objects (Benn et al., 2013)) that are important for embedding CSR in the organisation.

Interorganisational learning

Internal and external stakeholders act as knowledge providers, intertwining knowledge to support institutionalisation of learning throughout the federation. In other words, interorganisational learning influences the learning cycle by interfering with the organizational and the individual and group levels through key boundary spanners, informal structures and formal collaborative learning platforms. These stakeholders importantly influenced the intuiting process of sport federation's individual members in the early beginnings of the CSR projects.

While Cramer (2005) suggests that the more an organisation is involved in CSR the more open it is to knowledge generated by others, results show that even though CSR is not as embedded as in companies outside sport or even in professional sport teams, this sport federation relies heavily on interorganisational learning. This study suggests that the sport federation has engaged with various stakeholders through interorganisational relationships, knowledge exchange, networking, and dialogue, echoing findings of studies in the general CSR literature (Burchell & Cook, 2008; Fortis et al., 2016; Oelze et al., 2016). Moreover, this extends sport-related CSR studies that consider that collaboration and bottom-up learning from the community facilitates CSR implementation (Heinze et al., 2014).

Therefore, these results reveal that the 4I Framework should be complemented by an interorganisational level to fit with the sport-federated state model (Sotiriadou et al., 2017). Sport federations are centrally positioned in a dense sport network to engage in learning with other stakeholders and to draw on mimetic learning (Jones & Macpherson, 2006) from their member clubs to implement CSR.

Our study also highlighted important sources of learning within hockey and the broader sport network. Contrary to findings of previous studies about the fact that learning from external partners depends on prior experience with the partners (Jones & Macpherson, 2006; Zollo et al., 2002), our results show that new partners were also involved in the learning process. The findings suggest that the hockey case has not used all the possible input identified by Jones and Macpherson (2006), which could lead to different outcomes and learning strategies. For instance, a CSR-related community of practices,

in which knowledge providers that establish standards and monitoring schemes gravitate, has not been identified yet.

However, results also suggest that integrating external stakeholders should be managed carefully because informants have identified risks of misunderstanding and commitment issues. This could also lead to contradiction between existing learning (feedback) and new learning (feedforward) (Crossan et al., 1999). The findings have revealed that conflicting views within the sport federation between managers and board volunteers on the collaboration with external partners represented an important barrier to the feedforward process.

Organisational learning for CSR in sport organisations

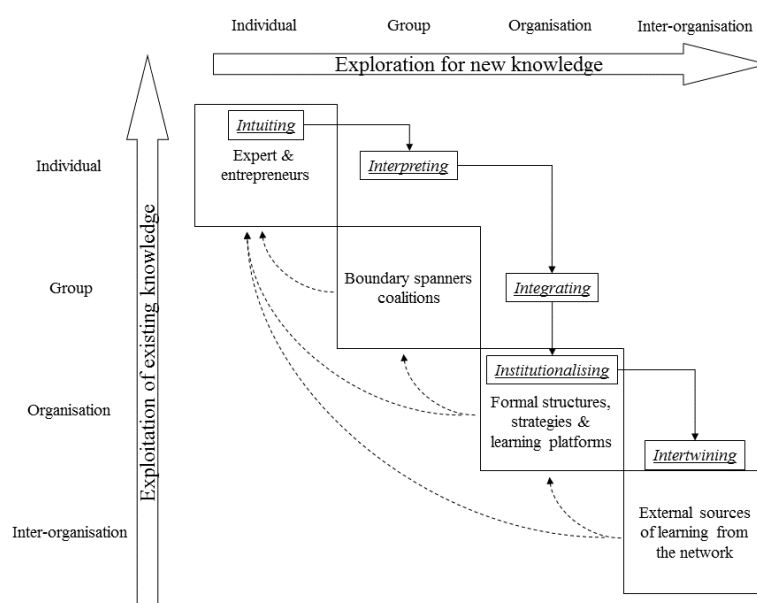
Our findings indicate a low level of institutionalisation of internal learning and some evidence of institutionalisation of external learning. Importantly, the study has shown a dominance of individual and group levels of learning. The ongoing process of institutionalisation of some structures and processes (i.e. formal organisation, strategy, communication, and learning platform) were important features of the learning process.

This confirms what Crossan et al. (1999) argued by saying, 'Often, by the nature of their small size, their open communication, and their formation based on common interest and dreams, individual and group learning dominate in young organisations' (p. 529). The interorganisational level of the sport federation, however, affects the learning cycle and provides additional learning pathways through an intertwining process.

The low institutionalisation of CSR throughout the organisation is partly due to challenges to OL. Feedforward-flow and feedback-loop failures, and misalignment between organisational and interorganisational learning, are significant barriers to OL institutionalisation. For instance, the findings suggest that failure of the environmental project might be due to a lack of flow between individual- and group-level learning. It is likely that the shift from intuiting to interpreting occurred too soon (Crossan et al., 1999) and therefore prevented the opportunity to create a shared vision by a group of individuals, which created resistance (Schilling & Kluge, 2009) and precipitated the failure of the project.

Overall, drawing from the 4I Framework, findings suggest that implementation of CSR in the case of hockey exploited institutionalised learning and explored new learning opportunities. Therefore, OL for CSR involves both new ways of incorporating CSR awareness and practices in addition to embedding what has already been learnt into the organisation as a whole. More importantly, organisations have to learn internally and externally to develop CSR. That is, CSR requires the intervention of multiple stakeholders within and outside sport organisations. In particular, it is of critical importance for sport federations to maintain a dialogue with sport clubs as well as with the rest of the sports pyramid using the sports collaborative assets for this purpose. Therefore, we understand the learning process for CSR as a complex, multilevel and dynamic process that involves the integration of learning at the intraorganisational and interorganisational levels. Figure 1 depicts the extended 4I Framework.

Figure 5.1. Extended 4I Framework (based on Crossan et al., 1999).



Conclusions and future research directions

This paper has revealed how OL occurs when a sport federation implements CSR. This paper has analysed how a sport federation manages to implement CSR through the institutionalisation of learning from individual, group, and interorganisational levels. Three main conclusions can be drawn from this study. First, key individuals capitalizing on both expert and entrepreneurial intuitions are influential to impulse CSR. Second,

informal and formal structures are strong repositories of group learning. Finally, external stakeholders are essential sources of learning alongside interorganisational boundary spanners, facilitating the integration process. Therefore, institutionalisation of CSR within the organisational setting requires assimilation of learning from organizational members and from interorganisational relationships through formal entities, strategies, collaborative structures, and learning platforms.

The study makes four important contributions to the sport management and CSR literature. First, it expands integrative, dynamic, and process research, responding to recent calls for such scholarly activities in the area of CSR in sport organisations (Anagnostopoulos & Shilbury, 2013; Breitbarth et al., 2015). Second and relatedly, it moves beyond monodimensional approaches by employing a multilevel perspective for the study of CSR implementation through OL, while bringing about the interorganisational level to existing models (Crossan et al., 1999). As a result, it responds to further calls that point out the need to consolidate multilevel process research on OL and CSR (Fortis et al., 2016). Third, in doing so, it moves away from examining CSR per se and considers it as a 'contextual platform' upon which concepts and processes from organisation theory and behaviour are examined (in our case, OL). Finally, this study draws attention to the neglected field of OL in the sport management field, opening new research opportunities to unpack its influence in contexts other than CSR.

From a practical perspective, sport managers should be conscious of the unique assets sport federations have as networks and organisations working in a network. Particularly, managers could compensate for the lack of internal knowledge by leveraging external sources of knowledge from their sport discipline and enlarged network, such as learning platforms and professional networks, recruiting individuals with a diversified set of knowledge to complement the multiple competences required for CSR. Managers should also be aware of some conflicting dynamics characterising these networks that make them complicated to manage and eventually challenge the delivery of CSR programmes. Managers' recognition of this network's complexity could facilitate the learning process. For instance, working in a network means overcoming the political resistance both between clubs and federations and with the federations.

The implications of this study should be tempered by an understanding of its limitations. First, from a methodological perspective, the study of OL is challenging (Crossan et al., 1999). We attempted to address this weakness by adopting a critical approach in the analysis and through our longitudinal data. This allowed us to capture the learning experience from its context and get closer to individuals' experience, knowing the socially constructed and context-specific nature of knowledge and learning. Yet, despite the use of several techniques to ensure the quality of research and strategies to tackle these methodological limitations by employing a semi-structured interview guide with space for openness, this approach remains limited, given the unconscious nature of learning. Investigating the learning from an end-user perspective (Girginov et al., 2015) – how all organisational members learn – would provide significant insights into the present endeavour. In this respect, while OL theory contends that knowledge is developed through interaction and within practice, exploring the contribution of CSR training to learning from an individual perspective could provide complementary insights to the present endeavour. Moreover, further empirical research could examine the CSR-related competencies and skills needed by sport managers to support learning and implement CSR.

Second, it should be noted that the research setting is nonprofit and European, which has unique characteristics regarding CSR (Breitbarth et al., 2015). Future studies in different contexts would provide rich opportunities for cross-cultural and organizational comparisons. For instance, different learning schemes might occur in different structures and in larger sport organisations. Although no universal applicability of the framework can be claimed, we assume that its generalisability to other organisational settings is likely to occur as some microprocesses can be seen in other types of nonprofits due to some common characteristics with their sporting counterparts. However, these findings acknowledge the importance of the interaction of learning between the federation and its member clubs, given the sport federated setting. Further research could focus on the relationship between sport federations and clubs. With this in mind, studies may investigate how sport member clubs perceive the learning strategies deployed by sport federations to encourage and develop good CSR-practices toolkits and training directly for member clubs.

Moreover, different learning schemes might occur in different structures and in larger sport organisations. Empirical research is therefore needed to generate a more comprehensive understanding of how OL system and structure can influence the OL process. Indeed, informal structures are increasingly used by sport organisations as networking platforms to gather sport professionals and experts, which could be regarded from the perspective of OL. Consequently, further research could, for instance, in a network perspective, investigate the role of communities of practice (Willem, Girginov, & Toohey, in press).

Insights on the emergence and the impact of CSR consultants on CSR implementation in the sport sector could be gained through further empirical research. Future studies should examine how sport organisations use these strategies to develop their initiatives and how they contribute to CSR implementation.

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Appendix 1. Semi-structured interview protocol (Supplementary file)

- (1) Tell me about the job you do here
- (2) What does corporate social responsibility (CSR) mean to you?
- (3) What does CSR mean for your organisation?
- (4) What is your organisation doing in terms of CSR?
- (5) What is your role in the organisation to implement CSR - a CSR-related project in particular?
- (6) When and how did this start? How was it decided? Who decided?
 - a. Did someone initiate this CSR idea or this project in particular?
 - b. What was the role of the staff?
 - c. What was the role of the board of directors?
 - d. Did you receive support from external stakeholders?
- (7) How did your organisation integrate these objectives into the management (i.e., its strategy; operations; communication; etc.)? Were changes needed?
- (8) What was needed in terms of learning? Did you develop specific learning strategies?
- (9) What sources did your organisation use to develop its expertise to implement CSR?
 - a. Internally (i.e., learning from its own people and experience)?
 - b. Externally (i.e., among partners such as through training session)?
- (10) Why was knowledge needed for your organisation to undertake these projects and the related changes?
- (11) What kind of knowledge did you obtain?
- (12) How was this knowledge obtained?
- (13) How was this knowledge used in your organization? By whom?
- (14) Do you share knowledge with any individual or organisation?
- (15) How do you put your knowledge in the service of your organisation or other partners?
- (16) What have you personally learned through the development of these CSR projects?
- (17) Why do you think learning is important to implement CSR?
- (18) What has your organisation learned through the implementation of CSR?
- (19) What have you learned from working with these stakeholders?

- (20) What internal challenges do you personally face regarding the implementation of CSR? How did you overcome these challenges?
- (21) What are the facilitators and challenges your organisation faced regarding the implementation of CSR?
- (22) Is there any other information that should be noted?

PART III: GENERAL DISCUSSION

Guided by the limited understanding characterising how CSR principles are integrated in non-profit sport organisations, this dissertation aimed at providing initial in-roads to exploring CSR implementation in sport federations. This dissertation is comprised of three separate studies that were conducted in order to achieve this purpose. Taken together, the findings from the three papers included in this dissertation offer important theoretical and methodological contributions to different fields of study.

The following section summarises how the three papers contribute to answer our central research question. In what follows, the section discusses the research implications that can be drawn from the dissertation's main findings in relation to the existing CSR and sport management literature. Then, it describes the strengths and limitations of the research, before outlining potential avenues for future research. Lastly, practical implications of the dissertation for managers and for decision makers are formulated.

1. Overview of the Main Findings

The main objective of this doctoral dissertation is to provide insights into the implementation of CSR programmes by non-profit sport organisations. Building on the three distinct empirical studies that were outlined in the original research part, innovative findings were displayed concerning three aspects of CSR implementation, namely organisational determinants, collaborative mechanisms and organisational learning. In the forthcoming section, these findings are delineated in relation to the research questions that were defined in the introduction.

This first research question pertained to identifying which organisational factors are required when implementing CSR.

Which organisational factors of professionalisation facilitate CSR implementation?

The **first paper** examined the organisational determinants of sport federations to implement CSR. This is the first empirical study that examines the critical organisational factors for CSR implementation. A better understanding of the organisational factors driving CSR implementation is a current managerial and research gap. This study suggests that it is necessary to examine the different configurations for CSR implementation to unveil success factors related to the CSR implementation process. Indeed, CSR implies the potential presence of multiple interactions - bricolage (Soundararajan et al., 2018), and thus, requires a combinatorial approach to examining the organisational factors associated with CSR implementation. This study thus identifies key organisational factors related to CSR implementation by drawing on the professionalisation model of Nagel et al. (2015).

The QCA reveals that a higher professionalised sport federation does not automatically leads to a high implementation of CSR. Findings show that there is no one best way to implement CSR: there are different pathways to CSR implementation depending on how sport federations combine their critical assets. Sport federations possess critical resources that may allow them to implement CSR according to different combinations of organisational factors. These factors are: professionalisation of the staff; staff involvement in the board; innovative capability; financial independence and;

knowledge of CSR. Moreover, findings show that organisational size is not a critical determinant for CSR implementation.

The second research question addressed in this dissertation relates to the specific mode of implementation used by non-profit sport organisations: collaboration within the non-profit sector.

Why are non-profit sport organisations forming non-profit collaborations to implement CSR?

The **second paper** focused on collaborative strategies adopted by non-profit organisations to implement CSR. Despite numerous research examining cross-sectoral social collaboration, non-profit collaborations have so far not been empirically investigated. This study examines the motivations of non-profit sport organisations to collaborate with other non-profits organisations, in our case, between sport hockey federations and sport clubs.

Drawing on an in-depth case study, this study reveals that partners demonstrate similarity in their motivations to collaborate due to their organizational fit, but with some key differences in the complementary resources they seek. This suggests that a high degree of organisational characteristics and motivations fit among partners might increase chances to deliver social good at this stage prior to the collaboration implementation. In the case of sport, the network of partners is relatively dense and the degree fit is important. This study indicates that organisational legitimacy, and resource exchange needs for CSR programmes are driving the collaboration rather than organisational survival needs. Non-profit sport organisations' motivations stemmed from the potential to create social value from the CSR programmes implemented through collaboration. As such, this non-profit collaboration form is unique because CSR programmes are the catalyst of the collaboration.

The third research question pertained to the integrative organisational learning perspective of CSR implementation.

How does the process of organisational learning occur when non-profit sport organisation implement CSR?

The **third paper** substantiates the knowledge on CSR implementation by broadening its scope of analysis to a multilevel perspective. In this article, we contend that CSR and organisational learning are interrelated because CSR implementation entails substantial learning processes for the organisation and its members in order to successfully unfold CSR within the organisation. Based on interviews and organisational documents, this study explores the dynamic interaction between different levels of the learning process through which a sport federation implement CSR. This study reveals that organisational learning for CSR is a critical multilevel and dynamic process that consists of learning sub processes at the intra-organisational and inter-organisational levels. CSR requires both learning new ways of incorporating CSR practices, as well as embedding into the organisation what has already been learnt. Findings emphasize that key individuals capitalizing on both expert and entrepreneurial intuitions are influential to impulse CSR. The study shows that informal and formal groups were identified as strong repositories of learning, while external stakeholders are essential sources of learning intertwined within the organization alongside the work of inter-organisational boundary spanners. The next section discusses the theoretical and methodological contribution of these findings.

2. Key Learnings and Theoretical Contributions

Starting from the limited understanding characterising how CSR principles are integrated in non-profit sport organisations, this dissertation presents a comprehensive view on CSR implementation by sport federations. The empirical work offers three theoretical contributions to different fields of study. First, the multi-theoretical perspective of this research generates original insights for the wider field of CSR. Second, the 3 elements of CSR implementation, driven by the sports context, offer important contributions to the CSR implementation and to the sport literature. This research explored CSR within non-profit sport setting, and specifically how implementation in this space is similar and different to implementation in other contexts. Third, this research conducted in the non-profit sport setting contributes to generate substantial knowledge on the applicability of the CSR concept to diverse organisational context.

This section is structured accordingly: firstly, the general contribution of this PhD research based on the multi-theoretical perspective of CSR and based on the three elements of CSR implementation; secondly, the specific contributions to the CSR literature, namely organisational determinants, collaboration and organisational learning; thirdly, the lessons learned from CSR implementation by sport federations; fourthly, CSR in the non-profit sector, and lastly, hybridity and mission drift in the non-profit sector.

a. An Original Multi-Theoretical Perspective of CSR

The general theoretical contribution of this research lies in the multi-theoretical perspective adopted to examine CSR. This study has engaged in advancing theoretical knowledge on CSR by offering an understanding of CSR implementation in and around three specific theoretical approaches. This approach pushes the boundaries of the CSR literature and offers novel theoretical insights. Although these frameworks have been discussed separately in the previous chapters of this dissertation, what follows seek to connect these lenses.

The institutional theory offers a broad picture of the organisational environment and legitimacy purposes. Sport federations are driven by institutional pressures to comply

with stakeholders' expectations. The institutional theory provided a valuable lens to identify and analyse the institutional pressures. Mimetic pressures from other (sport) organisations have driven sport federations to act as role models. Public pressures to behave responsibly have driven sport federations to develop CSR programs. Sport federations are subject to a high degree of scrutiny and are accountable to numerous stakeholders with whom trust must be maintained. This complex policy and political environment construct the behaviour of sport federations.

The resource-based view stresses the need for organisation to access strategic resources to have a competitive advantage and to accomplish its mission. Sport federations need to comply with stakeholders' expectations and to team up with different organisations such as non-profit organisations, public organisations and private organisations to secure and generate the resources they need. Relatedly, sport federations are increasingly pressured to develop CSR programs and comply with the expectations of the government to receive funding.

The organisational learning theory offers insights on the micro-processes that enable to institutionalise learning. The institutionalisation of knowledge is an essential resource for organisations competing and striving for resources. For sport federations, embedding CSR within the organisational setting represents an important resource to demonstrate to its stakeholders their capacity to integrate CSR, to absorb knowledge and react to institutional pressures. The institutionalisation of CSR means that the concept is less contested by the organisational partners and that there is a general acceptance of the concept. The institutionalisation signifies that the institutional pressures have impacted the behaviours of sport federations as well as the desire to secure resources for CSR programs. The increasing forces have led to a normalisation of the CSR idea and to its agenda setting. Sport organisations have responded to institutional pressures by developing learning mechanisms and knowledge strategies to develop their CSR agenda.

Overall, these frameworks are complementary and provide an original comprehension of the institutionalisation process of the CSR phenomenon in the sport context. The use of these theories has generated insights for the wider field of CSR, driven by the sport context. Blending theories provide a unique lens and a substantive theoretical to understand the institutionalisation of CSR. Due to the pressures by government, the

pressures to compete and to seek resources, sport federations are increasingly deploying CSR programs. Consequently, the CSR idea has spread beyond the classical business sphere and has entered all spheres of sport.

b. Three Elements of CSR Implementation

This dissertation addresses an important gap in the existing literature identified in the introductory part. As an outcome, this section presents a preliminary working model of CSR implementation in sport federations.

The proposed model draws on the organisational learning concepts of exploitation and exploration (March, 1991) and on the empirical work undertaken framed under these two different yet related dimensions. March (1991) considers exploitation and exploration as two main activities pursued by organisation. Broadly, organisations are exploiting existing competences and exploring new ones (Vera & Crossan, 2004). Organisations need to generate new knowledge and explore new avenues of resources (exploitation) and improve current competencies and exploit existing ones (exploration). Accordingly, the model integrates exploitation and exploration to distinguish between the different types of internal and external sources of learning for CSR implementation observed in this research. As such, the model captures both internal and external sources of learning by referring to “exploration” and “exploitation”.

In the CSR literature, Fortis et al. (2017) offered a comprehensive theoretical model to address the learning processes and sub processes involved in CSR development. They regarded it from a triple perspective (1) CSR-related learning ‘from within’ the organisation (i.e. without others), (2) CSR-related learning ‘from others’ and (3) CSR-related learning ‘with others’. On the ground of this triple perspective, this study proposes a structured three-dimensional figure that depicts how (1) organisational learning influences CSR implementation and provides a macro-view of (2) organisational determinants and (3) inter-organisational determinants at the crossroads of organisational learning and CSR implementation.

Figure 6. Uncovered elements of CSR implementation



Figure 6 models the study around three core elements - examined in the three papers - indispensable to implement CSR within the sport context. Sport federations possess unique organisational determinants. Based on their professionalisation level, these resources are differing from each sport federations. Due to the scarcity of resources, sport federations are combining their best assets to perform socially while some do not possess the sufficient resources to implement CSR. Likewise, research has shown that sport clubs and sport federations exploit both internal and external sources to innovate and implement policies (Hoeber & Hoeber, 2012; Winand & Hoeber, 2017).

To counter their shortage in organisational resources, sport federations are heavily relying on the resources they acquire through their inter-organisational supportive network. Given these insufficient organisational assets, sport federations are collaborating within and outside their genuine network to implement CSR. In this network, their member clubs, as well as their member associations (i.e., regional entities) are their closest partners. Outside their genuine network are other non-profit organisations involved in social issues.

Eventually, the combination between internal assets and external resources using the notion of organisational learning. This research points that sport federation rely on their ability to collaborate with existing partners, to build new networks of partners or

learning platforms and their relative power to manage these networks (Soundararajan et al., 2018). Overall, this highlights the need for organisation to employ a dual logic of exploitation and exploration (March, 1991; Vera & Crossan, 2004; Zollo & Winter, 2002). This model illustrates the importance of considering the exploitation and exploration forces to understand CSR implementation.

Overall, our contribution to the CSR literature resides in offering a model that depicts the interactions within and across organisational levels that both facilitate and impede CSR implementation. These findings encapsulated in the model (i.e., Figure 6) complements existing CSR implementation frameworks (Maon et al., 2008, 2010) by extending beyond the cultural and change perspective and conceptualising the key roles, mechanisms, dynamics and ongoing and cyclical nature of implementation processes within and outside the organisation. While existing studies in the sport management literature provided insights to several implementation patterns (i.e., Anagnostopoulos et al., 2014; Heinze et al., 2014; Kolyperas et al., 2015), they lacked consideration for the relationship between the underlying processes that embody them. This model provides new elements that complement the existing CSR implementation process frameworks.

Several specific contributions to the CSR literature and to the CSR and sport management literature can be drawn from the findings presented in this dissertation. The three elements uncovered in this research, namely organisational determinants, inter-organisational determinants, and the organisational learning process are separately discussed below.

c. Specific Contribution and Key Learning

CSR implementation and organisational determinants

From a theoretical perspective, paper 1 broadens and deepens scientific understanding of the antecedents of CSR implementation. The use of QCA enables the identification of several paths comprising several combinations of factors that influence CSR and help determine the appropriate configurations needed. These configurations highlight what capacities are needed to develop CSR programs. The findings show that some organisational attributes (i.e. financial autonomy, knowledge

and human resources) are core factors related to CSR implementation. Instead, multiple combinations of attributions have been identified. The demonstrated complex and complementary relationship between these factors constitute an important contribution for CSR theory and a significant development in the CSR literature. It was indeed unclear from existing literature if the dimensions are always present in varying degrees of CSR implementation or if some combinations suffice for more or less implementation.

This work contributes to substantiate the link between CSR implementation and organisational determinants. We stress that the implementation of CSR principles in organisations strategy and operations characteristically occur in combination with the required organisational determinants and collaborative strategies to compensate resource scarcity. Moreover, we extensively depict how those two forces constitute CSR supportive forces extending CSR development. While these findings add to our knowledge about how the presence or absence of combinations conditions link to more or less CSR implementation, they do not offer specific insight to how processes link to specific degrees of CSR implementations or specific patterns of implementation.

Accordingly, this study responds to the calls for more research made by scholars (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Jamali et al., 2015) who had pointed out the dearth of research on organisation factors related to CSR implementation. Subsequently, this study expands the current CSR and sport literature by specifically putting forward a set of organisational determinants related to CSR implementation. Therefore, this dissertation offers an original contribution to the understanding of CSR implementation. Eventually, it extends existing knowledge on the link between professionalisation and CSR implementation (Risi & Wickert, 2017) by offering a broader organisational and systemic examination of professionalisation.

From a methodological perspective, this study demonstrates the usefulness of QCA in identifying paths, involving different combination of conditions, to achieve a specific outcome. Rather than focusing on the estimation of main effects, the present study examines how complex antecedent combinations of organisational factors can collectively affect CSR implementation. It is the first study to employ this approach to explore corporate social responsibility in the sport context. Accordingly, this study confirms that QCA is a valuable analytical tool that researcher can use to examine

CSR (Crilly, Zollo, & Hansen, 2012; Halme, Rintamäki, Knudsen, Lankoski, & Kuisma, 2018; Skarmeas et al., 2014).

CSR implementation and non-profit collaboration

Paper 2 depicted a unique mode of implementation used by sport federation to develop CSR programs. Non-profit sport organisations are collaborating with likeminded organisations rather than serving either as recipients or vehicles of socially responsible programs of business; a stream of research that has predominantly attracted scholarly attention in the non-profit literature. Accordingly, the research suggests that CSR can also be implemented through the means of within-sector collaboration. As such, this study shifts the focus of current research on social responsibility collaboration from the cross-sector (i.e., between organisations from two or more sectors) to the within-sector (i.e., among organisations from the non-profit sector, including NPSOs) level (Selsky & Parker, 2005).

There exist other forms of CSR implementation through collaboration (not only through cross-sectoral). Selsky and Parker (2005, p. 854) identified 4 bi or tri-sectoral arenas. Hence, it is relevant to consider adding this type of collaboration as Arena 5. While cross-sectoral social partnership blur the sector lines, be source of mission drift and may jeopardize the legitimacy of NPOs (Herlin, 2015; Seitanidi & Crane, 2009), non-profit collaboration for health, integration, community development and education issues seems to be uniquely positioned for non-profit organisations.

Further, this study contributes to the existing sport management literature by offering a fresh perspective to the study of collaboration and therefore respond to calls to extend its scope (Babiak et al., 2018). By examining this specific collaboration form that remain under-investigated in the sport setting (Sotiriadou et al., 2017), our empirical evidence suggests that the delivery of CSR programs affects the motivations to collaborate between non-profit sport organisations. Further, the findings suggest that it is relevant to consider how sport federations and sport clubs collaborate considering the sport federated network and the nature of sport federations as representing its member associations. Furthermore, the results confirmed the importance of a fit approach between the partners (Atouba & Shumate, 2015). It differs from existing

studies on collaboration by sport organisations by the absence of asymmetrical and dependence motivations.

CSR implementation and organisational learning

For paper 3, we departed from the categorisation of organisational learning developed by Fortis et al. (2016) to offer an alternative understanding of the underlying organisational learning processes in CSR implementation imperfectly represented over the past 15 years. The scholars showed that the literature in CSR has grown exponentially over the past 15 years, mostly resulting in the emergence of a tacit learning perspective. Although several studies have acknowledged that organisations are experiencing learning and need learning when implementing CSR, existing efforts lack strong conceptual and empirical basis despite some exceptions (Benn, Edwards, & Angus-Leppan, 2013; Maon et al., 2008; Oelze et al., 2014; Zadek, 2004). For instance, scholars recognised that learning is critical for the formulation of organisational strategies and broader organisational change. Notably, Maon et al. (2008) regarded the process of CSR implementation as a learning dynamic. Fortis et al (2017) made an important contribution to systematisation of organisational learning theory by developing a literature review and a conceptual framework. They concluded that: “practical aspects and challenges associated with CSR development in firms remains only partially understood. In this setting, the organizational learning discipline is recurrently put forward as key in the pursuit and successful development of CSR, but the existing literature remains disjointed” (page 1).

This research has contributed to the vigorous trend, and the field is expected to continue as a focus of academic theorising and empirical investigation. This study offers a dynamic model of organisational learning within and across organisational boundaries. It enriches the literature by investigating the learning activities and processes illustrating how these processes can be affected by internal and external sources of learning. Crossan et al. (1999)’s model that views organisational learning as a multi-level, dynamic process incorporating cognitive, behavioural and social elements allowed us to offer a unique perspective to the study of CSR implementation. Our model illustrates the importance of taking into account multiple actors at different levels of analysis to understand organisational learning and social change, since interactions within and across levels can both facilitate and impede CSR. This study

therefore contributes to CSR implementation theory by connecting the dots within and across levels that were previously mostly unconnected within the CSR literature (as recommended by Fortis et al., 2017 and as begun by Fortis, 2017 and Maon et al., 2008).

In the context of sport federations, the concept of network of organisations is important where sport federations offer potential for learning. In that respect, this study concurs with Provan (1983) that defines federations as networks. With regards to learning, sport federations are an arena in which collective learning process occurs (in comparison with competitive, market-based strategic alliances and joint ventures in the public sector). Accordingly, sport federations are important catalysts for the co-creation of knowledge, the co-production of actions and programs, and the construction of new structures (i.e., hockey together). The cross-fertilisation of ideas from different sources (external and internal) represents a unique asset sport organisations possess. This study therefore departs from existing studies that showed that some clubs perceive negatively their federations and perceive negatively the need to collaborate with respective sport clubs (Misener & Doherty, 2012) given that competition for image and for resources is fierce (Wicker, Feiler, & Breuer, 2013). Further, comparison with other organisations in the sector and mimetism are important elements of learning in non-profit organisations.

Additionally, this research has addressed one lacuna in the field of organisational learning and sport management. The concept of organisational learning and knowledge are under-researched in the sport management literature (Girginov et al., 2015). Non-profit sport organisations constitute an important, distinctive context for the study of organisational learning. According to Chalip (2006), scholars can take different pathways to develop a new sport management ideas. One consists in applying theories and concepts from broader disciplines such as sociology, psychology, marketing, and economics into sport contexts. By employing the organisational learning theory, we have contributed to the sport management literature by assessing that this theory is valid in sport management. As noted by Funk (2019), “however, once applied or tested,

how findings make a contribution back to the original theory or concept is rarely discussed and undetermined” (page 2)¹⁶.

More broadly, we contributed to organisational learning theory by adapting and designing a dynamic model of organisational learning of non-profit organisations within and across organisational boundaries that depends on four levels. We conclude that framework for explaining the process of organisational learning at different levels need to be sufficiently dynamic and complex to accommodate non-profit sport organisations. Exploration of non-profit organisations provides a wider range of organisational context within which to develop understanding of learning and can help to illuminate features of non-profit organisations (as they exist in a specific context which is worthy of consideration). Surprisingly, there is little research on organisational learning in the non-profit setting (Rashman, Withers, & Hartley, 2009). By identifying that learning within and between non-profit organisations has been identified as central to the process of organisations’ improvement, we contributed to offering understanding on how organisational learning is distinct in the non-profit setting. The next section discusses the specific patterns of CSR implementation by sport federations as well as the key learnings from the examination of CSR implementation by sport federations.

d. Lessons Learned from CSR Implementation by Sport Federations

Unique and distinct patterns of CSR implementation

The introduction part discussed the substantial characteristic differences between non-profit sport organisations and professional team sport organisations, as there are between SMEs and MNEs (Soundararajan et al., 2018). Non-profit-sport organisations possess distinct attributes that seem to lead to different CSR implementation patterns. In this perspective, unique patterns specific to the context of sport have been identified from this research. Patterns refer to ways of doing things, in the present case, ways of implementing CSR. Six key patterns can be identified

1. The findings showed that sport federations do not have a systematic familiarity with CSR but voluntary engage in activities that can be qualified as CSR. This

¹⁶ Discussion over whether sport management scholars make theoretical contributions back to parent disciplines (Inglis, 2007) and whether sport is a unique discipline requiring sport-specific theories (Chalip, 2006) brings the discussion beyond the scope of this contribution.

highly concurs with the findings made by SME scholars (Jenkins, 2004; Fassin, 2008). Sport federations do not show the same sophistication in approach as professional sport organisations. They exhibit genuine commitment but its expression is customised and personalised to fit their values, orientations and resources. However, as noted by Jamali et al. (2009), sophistication should not necessarily be interpreted as an indication of stronger commitment to CSR.

2. This research explored the role of individuals' intuition and impulse in the implementation process. It revealed that, in the case of sport federations, change agents or CSR champions are generally both volunteer board members and paid staff. These individuals are important because they are the main decision makers and directly shape organisational practices according to their personal values and knowledge. Shared leadership and leadership commitment from the board and the CEO have also been pointed as essential in developing CSR. These findings diverge from SMEs – that generally rely on their owner-manager (Fassin, 2008; Spence, 2016) and professional sport organisations literature – that rely on key individuals (Babiak, 2010) and generally CSR managers (Anagnostopoulos et al., 2014). This pattern may be explained by the unique feature of sport federations; the complex human resource balance between volunteers and paid staff (Ferkins, Shilbury, & O'Boyle, 2018; Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011; Winand et al., 2010). Overall, like most organisations, sport federations consist of individuals brought together to assist in the achievement of certain objectives. In this setting, volunteers have a significant impact on the capability of the organisation to achieve these objectives. Like in other non-profit organisations, volunteers play a major role in assisting sport federations to achieve those objectives. The uniqueness of CSR implementation by sport federations lie in the combination of paid and unpaid staff within the organisation (O'Boyle, 2013; Taylor & McGraw, 2006).
3. This study found that the CSR implementation process by sport federations is characterised by new organisational forms, such as networks and partnerships, which aim to increase intra and inter-organisational collaborative arrangements and learning. On the grounds of Paper 2, we also described a preference for local sources of knowledge, in particular clubs. Learning through collaboration incorporates the potential to accumulate experience and knowledge about how

to manage collaboration to implement CSR. Organisations can learn together as a network, rather than only sharing existing knowledge between members. Nonprofit and within-sector collaborations are the unique mode of implementation chosen by these organisations. This diverges from the practices of professional sport organisations that adopt foundations (Anagnostopoulos et al., 2014; Kolyperas et al., 2015; Kolyperas & Sparks, 2011) or engage in cross-sectoral collaboration with local (Heinze et al., 2014) and international non-profit organisations (Walters & Anagnostopoulos, 2012) or business (Dowling, Robinson, & Washington, 2013) to develop their CSR programmes (Anagnostopoulos & Shilbury, 2013; Kolyperas et al., 2015; Walters & Anagnostopoulos, 2012). Because of the sport federated network and the complex interplay between national and regional governing bodies, sport federations need to collaborate with the regional and national sport levels. These findings therefore confirm the need to grasp this particular feature of sport when examining sport federations dealing with collaborative governance imperatives (Shilbury & Ferkins, 2015). Moreover, as demonstrated in Paper 3, these characteristics have triggered sport federations to develop unique learning pathways with other stakeholders from the federated network.

4. Findings revealed that sport clubs are central for the implementation process of sport federation because they serve as a platform to develop and benefit from the CSR programs. This pattern is explained by the nature of sport federations as a network and members association discussed earlier. Sport clubs are both consumers and producers of sport. As such, an irrigation process has been identified which refers to the need to develop both top down and bottom up approach to implement CSR. The case of hockey has shown that this double approach has facilitate the involvement of the clubs and led to some successful initiatives developed on a regional scale. This constitutes important differences with the implementation patterns observed in SME and MNE contexts.
5. Findings showed that formalisation and strategisation of CSR by sport federations diverge from professional sport organisations and accordingly concurred with the patterns observed in SMEs (Fassin, 2008; Soundararajan et al., 2016). In that sense, the CSR formal structure requires time and resources that sport federations don not have. Sport federations are characterised by

informally planned CSR strategies. They have rather dedicated commissions or specific meetings on the topics. Limited strategic tools unwavering commitment to CSR as well as the lack of reporting standards can be explained by the lack of resources and the informal structures prevailing in some sport federations despite ongoing professionalisation. As observed in SMEs (Fassin, 2008; Jenkins, 2004; Spence, 2016) as well as in other organisational contexts (Maon et al., 2008; Cramer, 2004), sport federations incorporate CSR into their operations on a more informal basis to avoid administrative burdens. This challenge formalisation is not unique to sport federations but their long tradition of informal planning, control and administrative systems provide a sound explanation for these observations.

6. Because of their entrepreneurial nature, informality and relationship-orientation, non-profit sport organisations are better bricoleurs and improvisers than professional sport organisations. Sport federations combine their resources and their key assets to implement CSR. In that context, CSR implementation should be understood as a process of bricolage - which involves the constant combination and re-combination of resources, capacities, and practices - and improvisation - which involves spontaneous actions that require the use of whatever is at hand such as collaboration (Soundararajan et al., 2016). The study showed that sport federations possess different characteristics that influence their level of implementation. Sport federations are non-profit organisations that do not possess the same resources and capabilities as MNEs or professional sport organisations. The study has shown that sport federations are implementing CSR practices using their own assets. Our research contributes to CSR literature by showing that specific approaches should prevail when examining CSR implementation by non-profit organisations.

The role of sport federations

This research has also captured the role of sport federations in the diffusion of the CSR idea. Sport federations are simultaneously acting as designer, implementer and disseminator of CSR programs.

Firstly, as membership organisations, sport federations develop projects, tools and guidelines for their members. They design CSR programs for their clubs, which then,

optionally, implement the projects in a top-down approach. Secondly, sport federations themselves implement CSR programs for their members, for their clubs or for other stakeholders, often in collaboration with other organisations possessing specific resources. In this case, they have a high mimetic potential due to their role model nature. This can lead to examples of other sport organisations replicating the same projects in their own setting. This mostly concern international sport federations with a higher media scrutiny. Thirdly, sport federations, given their strategic position and mission, diffuse CSR ideas within the sport pyramid and their federated network. Consequently, sport federations possess a strategic role of dissemination and relay of ideas from other organisations, from sport clubs in a bottom-up approach. Lastly, sport federations can endorse a role of evaluator of sport clubs' CSR programs. This remains a relatively under-examined area of investigation and should receive more examination as practical examples have shown that, for instance, the golf federation has played a significant monitoring, auditing and evaluating role with its certification system. The next section discusses the key lessons from the CSR implementation process by sport federations.

The evolution of CSR in sport federations

Implementation is often described as a hands-on and action-oriented activity which requires leaderships and managerial skills while strategy formulation would be more intellectual and creative. In this study, CSR implementation has been examined as an overall decision making and operationalisation process that requires the development and use of inter and intra- organisational resources, structures, systems and cultures leading to organisational actions.

Taken as whole, this study contributes to CSR implementation by reaffirming that CSR should be considered as an organisational change process (Maon et al., 2010). In the context of seemingly opposing tendencies identified in the literature between the radical and incremental changes needed for CSR to occur, this study provides a holistic consideration of the organisational determinants, implementation means and learning micro-processes. It develops a more inclusive comprehension of the motives, attributes, dynamics, micro-processes and mechanisms and their consequences on the integration of CSR within the organisation setting. By doing so, this research contributes to developing the CSR implementation research stream which was mostly

prescriptive and descriptive step-based and MNE-focused (e.g. Dunphy, Griffiths and Benn, 2003; Jonker and de Witte, 2006; Maignan, Ferrell and Ferrell, 2006; Maon et al., 2008).

In addition, this dissertation pushes forward previous explanations of organisational changes processes of CSR implementation. It provides a more comprehensive account of the continuous learning process illustrating the concept of process improvement. This concept regards CSR implementation as cyclical and is consistent across many frameworks developed in the current literature (Maon et al., 2008). This study offers generalizable findings by emphasizing the need to understand CSR implementation as a learning process. In this perspective, the importance of developing appropriate continuous learning mechanisms to support the institutionalisation of CSR within the organisation and eventually achieve effective implementation. More particularly, this dissertation extends previous framework of CSR implementation to the larger network of (sport) organisations and highlights key individual, organisational, inter-organisational and environmental motors of CSR change and factors that influence the way organisations develop CSR.

Grayson (2006) offered a seven-step model for CSR development. The model consisted in seven steps: business case, evaluation of the company's resources, investigation and identification of motives for social responsibility commitment, committing to social responsibility, strategising CSR, recognition and engagement of stakeholders, and measurement and reporting.

This dissertation revealed that the examined federation went successfully through the first four stages. **Paper 1** has informed our understanding of the resources as well as the commitment to social responsibility. **Paper 2** has provided new knowledge about the business case and the motives for collaboration (generalizable to a limited extent to the motivations for CSR – but knowledge built, reinforced, and connected around the work of Babiak and Misener (2015)). **Paper 3** has shown the evolution of the steps (1 to 6) and has eventually revealed that most examined sport federations, with the notable exceptions of national football federation and highly profitable “not for profit” sport organisations (national and international federations and governing bodies) that governs sport disciplines worldwide, are entering the strategising stage.

The growing momentum of the CSR movement implies that sport federations can no longer afford to ignore it. Social responsibility is no stranger to sport federations; however, adaptation in the language and the approach used are needed. While these organisations have passed through the recognition and engagement of stakeholders stages deliberately earlier than the process outlined by Grayson (2006), the definition of a CSR strategy stage is not yet complete. Such findings have been made by many SME scholars. For instance, Grayson (2006) noted informally planned CSR strategies and *ad hoc* processes. Roberts et al. (2006) suggested that SMEs are already managing a large number of social, economic, and environmental impacts, but do not generally use the language of CSR to describe it. Jenkins (2004) pointed out the cultural differences between SME and MNE that influence the type of CSR. This research concurs with these contentions regarding the differences observed in CSR implementation by sport federations.

Eventually, the measuring and reporting stage opened up important discussion on the need to eventually adapt the practices developed around the globe (Pope et al., 2018). Such an issue is particularly salient given the similar debates existing in the context of MNEs seeking to apply CSR standards initially developed for SMEs.

This research shows that there the way remains long before there exist if not a real CSR strategic agenda, at least a plan of actions associated with CSR strategic choices that depicts how CSR principles will be integrated in the structures and culture. For this reason, this dissertation has only partly answered the research question formulated earlier. The examined sport federations have not yet reached a sufficiently high degree of maturity and institutionalisation of CSR to provide a comprehensive view on the CSR implementation process.

By extending the debate on CSR from the corporate domain to investigate its relative importance in the non-profit sport sector, this study supports the applicability of social responsibility to non-profit. As such, although the word “corporate” has typically been associated with large business organisations, CSR is now being embraced by organisations of all types and sizes, including non-profit sport organisations.

e. Corporate Social Responsibility in the Non-Profit Sector

This dissertation unpacked how non-profit organisations are addressing social issues under the CSR concept. These practices are often considered as directly related and falling outside their immediate purposes.

Building on the contention made by SMEs and non-profit scholars, this study also defends the need for differentiated research on non-profit CSR. As depicted in the above section, differences between non-profit social responsibility and for-profit social responsibility are noticeable. Non-profit-sport organisations possess distinct features that seem to lead to different CSR implementation patterns. These differences are important in practice, not least, because the classical approach to CSR applied for the study of professional sport organisation (i.e. formalisation, auditing, reports, and standards) translates poorly to non-profit sport organisations (see Soundararajan et al., 2018; Spence, 2016). This is not because non-profit and small organisations are irresponsible, but because their approach to social responsibility is different (Murillo & Lozano, 2006; Spence & Rutherford, 2003) and they are poorly equipped to fund compliance with standards, or to invest in audits, marketing and in the external communication of CSR (Wickert et al., 2016). Therefore, this study confirms that CSR is sensitive to organisational context and idiosyncrasies (Jamali, Zanhour, & Keshishian, 2009). It thus further adds to the various studies that have alluded to the peculiarities of CSR in relation to different organisational contexts by offering new insights to the unique features of CSR by non-profit organisations. This eventually supports the call for a distinct approach of the social responsibility of non-profit organisations.

The application of organisation and management theory needs to be contextualised and take into account social economic and political factors to be directly relevant to the specific institutional context (Pettigrew, 2005). The literature on CSR suffers from a limitation: some CSR implementation theories claim to be generic but have been constructed on sectoral basis (Fortis et al., 2017; Maon et al., 2008; 2010). As noted by SME scholars, the key danger related to the over-emphasis on larger organisations within the debate about CSR, is that the solutions proposed in terms of encouraging greater engagement with CSR will not be relevant for other organisations forms (Fassin, 2008; Jamali et al., 2009).

In searching for the most effective practices to sustainably implement CSR, researchers have predominantly focused on larger firms that employ full-time CSR managers and formal resources. This research indicates that, in practice, sport federations rarely adopt the same style of management. Sport federations are implementing CSR practices using their own assets. This research therefore shows that organisational context is a critical component and that practices need to be adapted to environments. This contingency perspective is particularly relevant for organisations that rely on both volunteers and paid staffs. Therefore, this study contributes to CSR literature by confirming that CSR is contingent on the organisational context.

For this reason, the present dissertation contributes to extending the existing scholarship that defends a differentiated research stream on CSR. In particular, it extends the recent efforts by non-profit scholars (Lin-Hi et al., 2015) and sport scholars (Robertson et al., 2018) by highlighting the key factors that influence the way non-profit organisations implement CSR. We plainly put forward analytical keys to improve our understanding of the unique complexities, challenges and features that characterise the interactive nature of CSR implementation. This endeavour for pushing forward the CSR field of research is by essence subject to evolutions and contextual adaptation. This dissertation resolutely reiterates the call for more research addressing the particularities of social responsibility in diverse contexts.

f. Hybridity and Mission Drift in the Non-Profit Sector

In Paper 2, we suggested potential risks of mission drift or stretch for non-profit organisations engaged in non-profit collaboration for socially responsible programs. Enacting discretionary actions may create tension with their core social mission. The impact CSR implementation on non-profit organisations strategy could represent a key challenge for the non-profit sector. As sport federations have undergone important organisational changes over the past decades such as commercialisation and professionalisation, the question of mission drift has been raised by several scholars from the sport community (Breitbarth et al., 2019; Lucassen & de Bakker, 2016). Sport federations, as any other non-profit organisations, are often described as hybrid organisations (Lucassen & de Bakker, 2016). According to Maier et al. (2014), the concept of hybrid organisations encapsulates the merging of logics from different

fields. Hybridity means different and conflicting missions, values within one organisation (Brandsen & Pestoff, 2006; Evers, 2005). What we have observed in this paper could be called the “blurring of boundaries” between traditional sectors by Bromley and Meyer (2017) and Dees and Anderson (2003). As noted by Pope et al. (2018), the hybridity literature has highlighted the cross-fertilisation of businesses and non-profits by logics that have been previously confined to a single sector, and has sometimes focused on the blending of these logics at the level of the organisational form, yielding such new social arrangements as the social entrepreneurship, networked governance, and public–private partnerships. Our view is that the emergence of hybrid organisations, such as some sport federations examined in this research, stems from organisational efforts to respond structurally to the multiple logics at play- including rationality, efficiency, and social responsibility.

Further, Clausen (2018) pointed out that the business-like behaviour also brings new issues to the fore such as the risks of goal vagueness and governance issues. In particular, she stressed that mission drift could potentially entail a loss of (social) values and traditions. Lucassen and de Bakker (2016) reported other risks pertaining to missing drift such as development of delegate syndrome (solely working on self-interest); several fields of tensions between government and management; tension between the commercial demands (media, sponsors) and members’ expectations) (e.g., selling products and sport for all); elite sport and sport for all as a consequence of hybridisation. The present dissertation contributes to this research stream by adding a reflexion on the transformations of the non-profit sector. These changes – illustrated by the increasing adoption of CSR practices - raise important issues and paradoxes that should be further examined. The proposal for future research outlined in the next section builds on this discussion.

3. Strengths and Limitations

In addition to the aforementioned strengths and weaknesses in previous sections of the discussion, we would like to highlight several additional points. The following sections discussed three strengths and three limitations.

a. Theoretical and Methodological Strengths

First, as already discussed at length, our QCA approach to study CSR implementation in sport federations is innovative because it responds to explicit calls for original business ethics research (Greckhamer, Misangyi, Elms, & Lacey, 2008; Misangyi et al., 2017; Wagemann, Buche, & Siewert, 2016) and sport management research (Rudd & Johnson, 2010). QCA is an original approach to examine complex phenomenon such as CSR implementation. Whereas conventional statistical techniques are concerned with linearity between variables, innovative comparative methods, such as QCA, are particularly relevant to study how organisational factors combine to each other to facilitate CSR implementation. This helps tease out the complementarities and allows a more nuanced analysis than conventional quantitative correlation techniques (Skarmeas et al., 2014). This approach is growing in the sport management, as attested by the two recent manuscripts published in this journal (Clausen et al., 2018; Väättäinen & Dickenson, 2018). In recent years, QCA has grown exponentially in CSR literature (Crilly, Zollo, & Hansen, 2012; Halme, Rintamäki, Knudsen, Lankoski, & Kuisma, 2018; Skarmeas et al., 2014) and is being considered as a “powerful, new and proper analytical tool that can help in further advancing of the knowledge in the CSR domain” (Skarmeas et al., 2014, p. 1804).

Second, the multi-theoretical perspective represents a valuable strength characterising this research. In their recent literature review of CSR in professional team sport organisations – that represent a significant portion of the research conducted on CSR in the sport setting – Walzel et al. (2018) found that more than half of the articles (56%) did not explicitly mention a theoretical approach. Further, they suggested that there have been few attempts toward supporting, expanding or testing a new theory in the context of CSR in professional team sport organisations. This prevents the literature from advancing theoretical knowledge on CSR and eventually leaves CSR remaining largely a theoretical.

As discussed earlier in this discussion part, this research has engaged in advancing theoretical knowledge on CSR by offering an understanding of CSR implementation in and around three specific theoretical approaches. Our results have pushed the boundaries and offered novel theoretical insights and more substantive theoretical contribution. Blending theories provide a useful means of understanding CSR implementation by non-profit organisations.

Third, the non-profit context in which the PhD research took place is one major strength of this dissertation. While the scale of non-profit organisation is an undeniable methodological strength, this setting is also theoretically valuable to contribute to the sport management and business ethics literature. First, non-profit organisation's voice in CSR has been insufficiently examined. Many researchers advocate for more studies examining cross-collaborations for CSR rendering the non-profit sector viewpoint (Austin, 2000b; Omar et al., 2014). Second, the question relating to how non-profit organisations act as developers of their own CSR programs remains largely unanswered. Third, non-profit collaboration possesses unique features (Guo & Acar, 2005) and the sport setting offers additional patterns. In a nutshell, one merit of paper 2 is the different angle offered to examine collaboration among organisations, while paper 1 and paper 3 developed the particularities of CSR implementation by sport federations by emphasising the uniqueness of the sport system.

b. Theoretical and Methodological Limitations

The strengths of this dissertation should be tempered by an understanding of its limitations. Next to the limitations outlined in the three papers, there are six theoretical and methodological limitations with the project.

First, this research only focuses on one type of non-profit organisation, sport federations. As such, the results may most literally apply to this type of non-profit sport organisations. Different types and sizes of organisations such as community sport clubs or international sport federations also experience different types of CSR and as such these findings must be further tested.

However, these organisations still share many commonalities including the need to manage a variety of stakeholders and the resource scarcity. Moreover, there is some evidence that the sport network is also utilised in smaller organisations (Misener &

Doherty, 2012). Therefore, the findings from this research may be generalisable back to the theories used in this project including institutional theory, resource-based view and organisational learning theories.

Second, despite a multilevel conceptualisation of CSR implementation, the main focus of this PhD remains on the organisations. Our research has focused on the organisational level of analysis, which included research on individuals such as executives and board members at the club, league or federation level as well as various stakeholders. However, the study did not dissect all the possible levels of analysis (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007). This limitation calls for additional research deeply examining different units of analysis that could complement the findings of the present study.

At the individual level, - although the organisational learning framework used in this research has been insightful because it subsumes all levels of analysis - the psychological micro foundations of CSR (or micro-CSR) has been largely ignored. This reflects the dearth of micro-level research on CSR found in the CSR literature and in other fields and areas of study (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Walzel et al., 2018). To move beyond a traditional emphasis on institutional or organisational levels of analysis (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012), scholars suggest integrating organisational psychology, organisational behaviour, human resource management with CSR insights (Jamali et al., 2015; Morgeson, Aguinis, Waldman, & Siegel, 2013). Gond et al. (2017) organised micro-CSR studies in three streams: (i) individual drivers of CSR engagement, (ii) individual processes of CSR evaluations, and (iii) individual reactions to CSR initiatives.

Borrowing this classification of micro-CSR studies, three research avenues that improve our understanding of the underlying CSR implementation process. For instance, studies reported that age, gender, or educational background of employees (Celma, Martínez-García, & Coenders, 2014) and executives (Mazutis, 2013) predict CSR engagement. Additional research could explore board members, executives and employees' socio-demographic characteristics and competencies (Osagie, Wesselink, Blok, Lans, & Mulder, 2016) in light of the various profiles of CSR champions identified in this study. Further, the sensemaking process by which board members and paid staff within sport federations and sport clubs interpret CSR initiatives could be

examined and compared to grasp the paradoxes and tensions in CSR implementation. Finally, in the perspective of sport volunteers attraction and retention, one future avenue could evaluate whether and how CSR programs support positive behaviours such as creativity or other positive emotional outcomes such as organisational pride (Gond et al., 2017), but also potentially prevents the emergence of negative attitudes and behaviours such as volunteers drop out.

At the network level, this research considered key internal and external stakeholders to the sport federation but did not complete a comprehensive overview of all stakeholders. One of the benefits of qualitative research is its ability to capture complexity and to acknowledge a range of influences and interpretations. While this study does so, it was not possible to capture all of the voices initially considered necessary. For these reasons, it was necessary to limit the participants. As a result, the knowledge derived about CSR implementation of sport federations is limited to this perspective and does not directly incorporate stakeholder perspectives.

In a comprehensive perspective, professional sport leagues would also be given separate treatment. In the present study, the hockey federation is currently experiencing the creation of a professional body. The impact of such a structure on the implementation of CSR practices could be examined in future research. Further, in the case of football for instance, a two-level parallel structure (i.e., the professional football league evolves next to the football federation) has caused tensions between the different visions these organisations had for CSR policies. Other important stakeholders are international sport bodies such as the parent international sport federations and the IOC. Sport organisations' suppliers, sponsors and public partners are also increasingly important in the sport network. Since their interest vary within geographical regions, their varying motives can differentially affect pressures for sport federations to adopt CSR policies.

Theoretically, we also note that literature has acknowledged the relevance of stakeholders theory in the understanding of CSR implementation (Maon et al., 2010), where CSR development is the result of the interaction between corporate and stakeholder cultures (Kolyperas et al., 2015). Viewing collaboration from a learning process across the organisational boundaries, the concept of communities of practices will be discussed in the next section.

Third, other methodological limitations should also be noted regarding the study design. In line with difficulties to measure learning (Crossan et al., 1999) as well as the desire to examine CSR implementation from a more holistic perspective, longitudinal, participatory and multi-methods methods could have been employed. For instance, adapting a longitudinal study design could allow for investigation of different configurations related to the determinants and outcomes of CSR.

Fourth, this research has compiled different definitions of the CSR construct. Our conception of CSR at the heart of this dissertation progressed along the doctoral research. This development mirrors the researcher's evolving consideration of CSR and associated dimensions along the research process. That is, based on the development of the researcher along the research journey and following a progressive maturation process, the conception of CSR gradually switched from "ontologically-given" to a more socially-constructed one idealistic (manipulation) versus strategic (instrumental) (Maon et al., 2010). For this reason, distinctive definition and terminologies of CSR are used in the different papers.

Fifth, the research revealed similarities and differences in the CSR implementation process which are partly explained by the specific national system in which the sports federations operate. While our view concurs with other CSR studies concerned with 'European-ness' (Breitbarth et al., 2019; Maon et al., 2017), comparative efforts were beyond the scope of this research. As argued by Breitbarth et al. (2019), "comparative studies investigating different contexts in depth can be promising platforms to generate valuable insights into and spark inspiring discussions about what constitutes 'European-ness' in our very sub-field of sport management – and, possibly, even beyond" (page 6). The limited number of comparative studies provide important grounds for future avenues (Breitbarth & Harris, 2008; François et al., 2019; Schyvinck & Willem, 2018). Building on such work, we reemphasise the need to understand 'European-ness' and learn more about intercontinental convergences and differences by developing comparative studies, for instance, between sport federations from different sport systems (Scheerder, Willem, Claes, & Billiet, 2015).

Sixth¹⁷, in essence, one of the major criticisms to the validity of qualitative action research is the potential for researcher bias (Patton, 2002). By insisting on the highly constructed quality of knowledge, the constructivist approach considers that the researcher and the subject of the research are a social production (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). The researcher must challenge predetermined postulations by interpreting the meanings of the observed phenomena. In designing this research, the intention was to investigate the actions sport federations can take to develop their ability to contribute to the development of CSR. Implicit in this question was the assumption by the researcher that the solutions would hold multiple meanings for different people, would be situation and context specific and would need to be studied within a localised setting.

Another important acknowledgement is that the researcher is automatically “embarked” in the research¹⁸. Inspired by my personal background in political science at the multidisciplinary Spiral research centre with recognised expertise in Sciences and Technology Studies (STS) and qualitative methodological developments, I borrowed the notion of “embarked researcher” (Thoreau, 2013). This notion considers that the embarked researcher is unable to conduct research in a fully independent way and “not riddled with scientific subjectivity” (Van Oudheusden & Laurent, 2013). By his/her involvement on the field, the researcher influences and is influenced by its object of study. The co-production of science should be borne in mind because “scientific knowledge, in particular, is not a transcendent mirror of reality. It both embeds and is embedded in social practices, identities norms, conventions, discourses, instruments and institutions - in short, in all the building blocks of what we term the social” (Jasanoff, 2004, p. 3).

Conscious of this unavoidable embarking, the challenge was therefore to deal with this tension between the distance and the proximity of the phenomenon, with the discomforts and difficulties that it generates. Accordingly, reflexivity, broadly defined as “a turning back on oneself, a process of self-reference”, (Davies, 2008, p. 4) was brought into play to critically reflect and negotiate my role on the field. This necessary

¹⁷ This discussion builds on a presentation addressed at the Audencia Business School Conference untitled “Research and Business in Sport: Qu’est-ce que la recherche peut apporter au monde du sport?” in November 2017.

¹⁸ For this section only, the “we” commonly used in academic work was removed for “I” to fully adopt the reflexive perspective guiding these paragraphs.

stance requires the researcher to be aware of their value-laden role in research as well as how their own knowledge has been shaped, produced, and favoured (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2017). Little scholarly work within sport management has discussed the importance of reflexivity when conducting studies (McSweeney & Kikulis, 2017). Integrating reflexivity into research can have a profound impact on how scholars engage with participants in research context (Edwards, 1999; Shaw & Hoeber, 2016).

Calling attention to the research and the practices the social scientist engage in, it is consistent to offer my reflection on this PhD research experience. By doing this, I illustrate the dilemmas that occurred while carrying out this research and how we reflected on them. Two dilemmas principally emerged during this research.

First, this PhD has the particularity of having been funded by the Baillet Latour Fund. It was created at the end of 1970s at the initiative of Alfred de Baillet Latour, administrator of the Artois breweries without heirs. The Baillet Latour Fund awards grants every year to four sectors representative of Belgian excellence on an international scale: Clinical research, Training, Belgian Heritage, Olympic spirit. The Henri de Baillet Latour¹⁹ - Jacques Rogge Olympic Chair was inaugurated on October 3, 2008, in collaboration with Université catholique de Louvain (UCL) and Ghent University (UGent). This Olympic Chair aims to stimulate academic study of the different aspects of the management of sporting organisations, emphasising the Olympic values related to sports ethics and good sportsmanship.

The PhD management and supervision were entirely given to both partnering universities. As a researcher, the only constraint was that the research convention written by the supervisors had preliminarily defined the research topic: the concept of CSR and the integration of ethics in the management of sport governing bodies. The following research question was formulated: How can sport governing bodies create social added value through a strategic approach of CSR that takes ethical issues into consideration. Thereafter, my autonomy to select the appropriate research methods, select the case studies, collect and analyse the data was complete.

¹⁹ Henry de Baillet Latour (1876-1942) was a great Belgian leading figure of the 20th century. He was the founding president of the Belgian Olympic Committee and succeeded Pierre de Coubertin at the IOC.

The numerous criticisms around the CSR notion (e.g., Banerjee (2008)), the fallacies of CSR (e.g., (Fassin, 2008)) were some of the ambiguities I had to deal with during the early (and later stages) of this research. Among the formulated critics, Van Marrewijk (2003) noted, “Too often, CSR is regarded as the panacea which will solve the global poverty gap, social exclusion and environmental degradation” (page 96). At the same time, “various management disciplines have recognized that CSR fits their purposes, such as quality management, marketing, communication, finance, HRM and reporting” (van Marrewijk, 2003, p. 96). Moreover, Bradish and Cronin (2009) stressed that “there are a number of tensions related to, and inherent in, the principles and practices of CSR, including: competing economic and social agendas (Margolis & Walsh, 2003); authentic interpretations and commitment of CSR philosophies and programs (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988); and the appropriate allocation of resources versus measurable results, and competing corporate and community agendas (White, 2004)” (page 692).

As noted in the introductory part, CSR is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon. This is displayed by the various conceptions, meanings and definitions of CSR, the multiple causes and consequences that occur in different contexts, in various forms that range in intensity. Accordingly, the concept has been described as essentially contested (Okoye, 2009), with unclear boundaries and debatable legitimacy (Lantos, 2001). In other words, the CSR concept is a permanent debate (Lockett, Moon, & Visser, 2006), that is a concept academic agree to disagree on (Gond & Moon, 2011).

These critics and complexities had implications on the data collection because (when you engage on the field by) interviewing means that you disclose yourself to the participants. In that sense, I had to negotiate my conceptualisation of the concept with the informants. For instance, this implied acknowledging its contested nature (Okoye, 2009) and reporting to the informant that I was aware of these criticisms and that another conceptualisation could also be used.

This complexity has also been illustrated by the diverging conceptions of CSR. In academic research, CSR, governance and business ethics are discrete fields of inquiry with distinct research traditions, theories and disciplines. Although these concepts have developed along separate lines, some complementarities and increasing overlaps have been observed. Several studies discussed their interconnection as well

as their confusion. For instance, Robertson et al. (2019) examined the intersection between CSR and governance. Also, Joyner and Payne (2002) discussed the distinction between CSR and business ethics. Further, Whetten et al. (2002) positioned CSR within business and society scholarship. They outlined three streams of research: 1) business ethics linked to philosophical underpinnings; 2) ideology, values and attitudes built upon the psychological and sociological disciplines; and 3) corporate social responsibility that investigates what, if any, responsibilities corporations have to society and is founded on sociology and management thinking. More recently, Constandt (2019) noted 'CSR applies an external perspective, in which the relationships between the organization and the society are considered as a social contract (DeSensi & Rosenberg, 2010). While building on the insights of moral philosophy, the conceptualisation of ethics management we apply looks into how the organization and those closely involved are affected (DeSensi & Rosenberg, 2010)' (page 17). An in-depth analysis of differences and commonalities between these related concepts is beyond the scope of this dissertation but undeniably represents a potential future research direction.

In practice, CSR is often a 'multi-quantifiable tool to represent responsible business activities' (Hack, Kenyon, & Wood, 2014). The boundaries are also loose between concepts and conceptualisations. As Votaw wrote: 'CSR means something, but not always the same thing to everybody'. Relatedly, Hack et al (2014) noted "the definition of CSR appears to reflect individual businesses rather than all corporations, and their relationship with stakeholders and society" (page 46).

In this PhD research, these difficulties when examining such concepts were also salient. The cases examined in this PhD research illustrate this variation and flexibility between the concepts, the meaning and the vocabulary used in practice. In the case of hockey, disability, environmental and fair play were the main CSR programs. While Fair Play is generally considered as the essence of sport, the federation had prioritised several actions to tackle irresponsible behaviours on the field. In the case of football, their CSR programs mostly related to social integration and diversity practices. Recently, their CSR practices were adapted following refugee crisis. In the case of golf, sustainability and good governance related actions were the CSR practices implemented.

Moreover, depending of the environmental and policy context as well as on the specific organisation context and on the individual, meanings, definitions, and language differ. Further, practices deviate from the theoretical definition and the participant's definition. For instance, some practices that are in line and extend beyond the core practice are considered as CSR practices by sport federations (e.g., disability programs and fair play programs).

Second, reflexivity involved that the social researcher should relate to the actor's studies. In this perspective, I decided to remain outside the sport's sphere I was close to. This principle was more difficult to fully apply with regards to my supervisors' given the previous research conducted and their personal background leading to close connection with several sport federations for several decades.

Third, in the course of conducting research with sport federations, I have been challenged by a hiatus between the research question that I address as a researcher and the questions that the research subjects were asking - for instance, is CSR the best option to create social value for sport federations? Several times, in some organisations where the concept of CSR was not already institutionalised within the organisation, I felt that the research subjects seemed to consider the need to integrate this concept in their organisation because a researcher was working on this "unknown concept" or "buzz word". Of course, my intentions were not to support or discourage the adoption of CSR practices by sport federations. Rather, as a researcher, my role is not to take a stand on whether or not CSR is desirable or the best option, but to deconstruct the mechanisms it involves, the functions that it meets and the interpretations developed by the informants. However, in doing so, I unconsciously became "embarked" in a consciousness raising and legitimising process of the CSR notion. Besides, in other circumstances, the data collection has also been used in other ways by the research subjects in their own quest for fulfilling various goals, including that of acquiring resources via the researcher's role as a "third-person evaluator" providing analysis and feedbacks. The instrumentality of the research dilemma was also experienced by Bjärsholm, Gerrevall, Linnér, Peterson, and Schenker (2018) "sport in combination with business ideas is used as a means to do something that can be seen as normatively good (Peterson & Schenker, 2018)" (page 217).

This “seal of approval” observation corresponds to the concept of performativity, and developed in Callon (1998). Studying the performative role of scientific statements, Callon (1998) argues that scientific statements are not ‘outside the world(s) to which they refer’, but are ‘actively engaged in the constitution of the reality that they describe’ (Callon, 2007, p. 318). Callon (1998) argues that economic markets are embedded in economics. Put differently, economic models (statement or theories) are key ingredients of economic activities.

The concept of performativity – and more broadly the Actor Network Theory - has been used in organisational and management theories (Acquier & Aggeri, 2007; Gond & Ligonie, 2017). Notably, Cabantous and Gond (2011) have engaged with Callon’s thesis to show how economic theories influence organisational practices. They advance the concept of ‘performative praxis’, i.e. sets of activities enable theories to become social reality, and offer a framework that explains how theories can be instantiated in practice. These authors argue that knowledge (theories) and practice are intrinsically linked and conceptualise a set of mechanisms that bridge dynamically actors, tools and theory.

On the performativity and CSR, Gond (2013) examines CSR as a performative praxis. Acquier & Aggeri (2007) studied the genealogy of CSR from the work of Edward Bowen to understand the diffusion of the concept. Aggeri (2017) discussed the observation and performative function of CSR reports. Further, the ‘Montréal School’ developed a growing stream of research relating to the understanding of organisations as performativity constituted through communicative events. In this research stream, for instance, Christensen, Morsing, and Thyssen (2013) examined the notion of organisational hypocrisy in CSR by suggesting that gaps between action and talk are a necessary condition for raising aspiration and inspiration. They suggest that responsible practices become enacted because they have been first talked into-existence’. Overall, observing CSR to study the regulation of economic activities as well as the construction and the institutionalisation of CSR as a thinking and action represents the contribution offered by these scholars.

Undeniably, this reflexion calls to seize the ambiguities of our involvement on the field as a researcher embarked by the research subjects when examining CSR. While developing an in-depth analysis goes beyond the primary purpose of this research,

reporting these dilemmas appeared to be necessary to render how the performativity of CSR has shaped our reflection during this research. Scholars have laid the ground for future work applying a constructivist perspective to the domain of CSR. On the grounds of these studies, future research could develop around the understanding of the role of academics embarked in delivering evaluation reports of CSR programs. Such work would be guided by the following questions: How have sport scholars contribute to the co-creation of the CSR concept in the sport field? How does a researcher contribute to shaping an organisation and its CSR policy? These questions have not attracted the attention of sport scholars yet, despite some pioneering efforts by Levermore and Moore (2015) and Giulianotti (2015a) calling for new theories to sport CSR. This future research perspective is complemented by additional propositions detailed in the next section.

4. Future Research

We hope that this study will inspire researchers to develop increased knowledge related to CSR implementation in the non-profit sector. Conspicuously, very little was known in this domain previously, and we humbly suggest that our contribution could act as a catalyst for a more intensive research agenda to emerge. Besides the specific avenues for future inquiry that were suggested in the papers, we would like to turn our attention to new research questions. We believe research on these topics would further move the field forward. The forthcoming overview is of course not exhaustive. Six future research perspectives are discussed.

a. Collaborative Dynamics and Processes among Non-profit Sport Organisations²⁰

While the second paper focused on the motivations for collaboration, another study could focus on the collaborative dynamics and processes among non-profit sport organisations. More specifically, available data collected in the hockey sport federations and clubs allows us to review how collaboration is managed by sport partners in terms of formalisation, the nature of the relational ties and the evolving nature of the collaborations over time. This research addresses the following research question: how do collaborations among non-profit sport organisations occur and evolve? This study would examine dyadic interorganisational relationships between a sport federation and its sport member-clubs from the hockey case.

Understanding the dynamics of collaboration ultimately remains an important question. This is indeed critical to understand how collaboration sustainably evolves over time. Furthermore, identifying mechanisms and micro-processes that make up the stages of implementation may be a way to overcome implementation difficulties (Seitanidi & Crane, 2009). Therefore, these may be important factors explaining why some collaborations succeed and others fail (Babiak et al., 2018). Although, the scholarly activity in collaboration within the sport management field has importantly evolved over the past decade, Babiak, Thibault, and Willem (2018) recently noted that the

²⁰ At this stage, a conference abstract has been submitted to the 2018 EASM Conference held in Malmö, which could be an opportunity to develop this paper further and confront our conclusions. A manuscript has been drafted but still requires additional work to be submitted in its current form.

mechanisms of interaction and processes of collaboration remain insufficiently examined. In the context of CSR, the management of such collaboration among non-profit sport organisations remains unaddressed. Yet, collaborative dynamics and processes are central and are supposed to differ from cross-sectoral collaboration (Babiak & Thibault, 2008, 2009; Seitanidi & Crane, 2009).

b. Extending the Collaborative Governance Research Agenda

This study revealed the importance of the sport federated model. To date, collaborative governance has been examined in the sport governance literature from a national sport organisation-regional sport organisation perspective (Shilbury & Ferkins, 2015; Shilbury et al., 2016). The need for collaborative governance relationships, particularly salient within a federated sport governance system where cooperation amongst clubs, is critical to a unified vision and strategy for the sport as well as a positive collaborative working relationship. The need for the board of sport federations to consider its member clubs and to engage in a collaborative governing process to achieve the broader sport's strategic outcomes is well-established in the sport governance literature (Ferkins et al., 2018; Shilbury, Ferkins, & Smythe, 2013; Shilbury et al., 2016). Ferkins and Shilbury (2010) emphasised the need for a power-sharing approach between member associations (state and regional)/clubs in order for the board of the national body or central commission in professional sports league to develop its strategic capability.

Sport governance scholars have acknowledged the need to recognise multi-level governance structures and how responsibilities are shared between governance actors at different levels. However, previous studies have essentially examined collaborative governance between regional and national entities in the sport industry. Results shown in this dissertation suggest the need to further examine the relationship between regional sport organisations and their members clubs. Moreover, the studied case revealed tensions in the implementation of CSR between national and regional sport organisations and professional sport league of the sport discipline that could be examined with collaborative governance lens.

c. Diffusion of Corporate Social Responsibility: The Role of Communities of Practices

Implementing CSR programs is a major issue for sport organisations over the globe. One of the challenges is situated in the knowledge intensive and diverse character of CSR practices with highly dispersed knowledge creation and sharing processes involving numerous practitioners, professional experts and consultants (Fortis et al., 2017). Communities of practice are social learning spaces allowing for knowledge creation and sharing, enhanced by knowledge-brokers (Wenger, 1998). As reflected by the recent study by Willem et al. (2018), governing bodies of sport typically embrace the role of knowledge brokers in sport-for-all policy. When it comes to CSR implementation, different knowledge-brokers have been identified. The notion community of practice could be useful to examine CSR implementation because it is frequently used in the management field to explain social learning and knowledge sharing among practitioners working within a common practice (Benn et al., 2013; Carlile, 2002).

Based on the data collected during this PhD research (observations at the national level, organisational documents and interviews), we suggest examining the role of community of practices in one national setting (CSR group including the professional league, the national federation and the regional leagues) and one international setting: EFDN (European Football Development Network). These communities have the particularity to gather practitioners and academics. Analysing the process facilitating the development of a common understanding, shared practices and the creation of new learning as well as the transfer of knowledge from one partnering organisations to other partners belonging to the network (such as international standards and toolkit) could provide a useful contribution to our understanding of CSR implementation. Immersion within a research setting could allow the researcher to have an insider's perspective that facilitates a deeper understanding of the organisational culture and offers insights in the different narratives and the languages used by the participants (Carlile, 2002; Orlikowski, 2002).

d. Facilitators and Impediments of Organisational Learning for CSR

Non-profit organisations endure rapid organisational growth and re-structuring which provoke significant organisational changes in return, making the way how they learn and what they do with gained knowledge crucial for CSR implementation and for their general development. However, until now, organisational learning remains a generally insufficiently empirically explored research area by the non-profit sectors (Gill, 2009). The role of organisational learning in non-profit sport organisations remains vague in particular, and the barriers to organisational learning are yet to be fully discovered, or how exactly organisational learning practices impact capacity building, performance and other important organisational areas (Schilling & Kluge, 2009; Zietsma, Winn, Branzei, & Vertinsky, 2002). Future research could therefore address the following questions: What organisational structures and coordination mechanisms support learning and knowledge management in the different forms and types of sport collaborations? What individual and organisational barriers and facilitating factors influence organisational learning within sport federations and what strategies are employed to counter such factors? Data collected within the Belgian football, hockey and golf settings could offer an insightful cross-comparative case study. With paper 3, a multiple case study research design was initially chosen to examine organisational learning. Multiple case study permits the development of a rich theoretical framework and enhances the robustness of theories through literal replications (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2009). More particularly it allows an in-depth investigation of sport federations in order to understand, explain, compare and contrast the mechanisms at stake in the implementation. Different learning schemes and structures have been observed in the different case studies. Empirical research is therefore needed to generate a more comprehensive understanding of how organisational learning systems and structures can influence the organisational learning process.

e. The Roles of Consultants and Academic Experts in the Diffusion and Implementation of CSR Programs

Some organisations, mostly companies but increasingly sport organisations including sport federations, resent the need for more professionalisation and the need to hire special consultants. Consulting companies are providing competencies and professional services to these organisations willing to adapt their organisational

setting, implement CSR programs, evaluate CSR programs, and produce extensive special reports on their CSR activities (Brès & Gond, 2014; Fassin, 2008). Recently, Breitbarth, Schaltegger, and Mahon (2018) examined how conferences and expert communities contribute to the formation and development of CSR as a field in several ways. This PhD research uncovered that consultants have an important role in promoting CSR concepts and tools within sport federations (Southwell 2004). In most cases, sport federations work with consultants, experts and academics to gain new knowledge and enhance learning through training, to implement specific projects, to validate and evaluate labels as well as to disseminate the CSR practices and develop CSR strategically. Sport and CSR consultant, as a growing industry, could have a strong impact on the implementation of CSR and can be regarded as important external sources of organisational learning that remain yet uncovered. Consultants are yet considered as agents of change (Berthoin Antal & Krebsbach-Gnath, 1998; Massey & Walker, 1999). In line with the extension of the organisational learning model to an inter-organisational level (Crossan, Maurer, & White, 2011; Inkpen & Currall, 2004), future research could examine the importance, the types, the content and the influence of the consultants as external sources of learning on the organisational learning process and by consequence, on the CSR implementation process. In particular, uncovering the nature of learning and how it circulates between the partners in this mode of learning could contribute to the understanding of the evolution of CSR practices within sport organisations.

f. Hybridity and Mission Drift as Consequences of CSR

Non-profit sport organisations have undergone important organisational changes over the past decades such as the commercialisation, managerialisation and professionalisation of its operations (Dowling et al., 2014; Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011). The adoption of business-like practices and the blurring of traditional sector boundaries have drawn considerable attention from scholars in many disciplines (Dees & Anderson, 2003; Maier et al., 2014; Misener & Misener, 2017). Consequently, sport federations are regarded as hybrid organisations. In this PhD research, CSR implementation can be considered as business-like practices that could create a diversion of time, energy and money away from their core mission potentially lead to mission drift. Understanding what the use of business-like means for non-profits and its impact is timely as “the crucial question whether non-profit organisations should,

and indeed can, use business-like approaches to better serve the public good lies at the heart of non-profit management studies” (Maier et al., 2014, p. 65). Future research could explore what hybridity means for organisational members, their experience and reflections, and investigate what strategies are used to manage hybridity. Results from this research show different narratives and strategies deployed by sport federations to manage and negotiate the trade-offs between the different logics.

5. Practical Suggestions and Recommendations

This dissertation depicted an evolution in the CSR practices implemented by non-profit sport organisations. The above research illustrates that the implementation of CSR requires key organisational determinants, learning, collaboration and resource sharing from a variety of sport stakeholders. The following recommendations are provided to help sport practitioners enhance their decision-making process with regards to CSR.

Sport federations are important change agents developing social initiatives. However, this endeavour should be complemented by the active participation of sport stakeholders that form the network. Social responsibility concerns all stakeholders: all organisations have a responsibility toward society and their stakeholders. Thus, other partners must take an active and facilitating role.

Singularly, sport federations must build on their network of member associations to impulse the creation of (autonomous) network to share good practices among clubs and among sport federations. The network is the richness of the sport sector. Organisations need to focus principally on developing strong and trustworthy relationships within their organisational boundaries. Such relations foster close cooperation that are likely to support knowledge creation and transfer. Doing so, collaboration among sport clubs and federations for sharing best practices and bringing change agents together could be made possible.

CSR champions can be top manager, board members, volunteers, athletes, parents or any individual with the desire to implement actions that further social good. Moreover, sport federations must seek for supportive leaders committed to organisational learning with a clear vision and goals. Similarly, sport organisations should also consider recruiting staff and electing board members with background, education, knowledge and more broadly, an awareness of related-CSR topics. Organisations should have the capacity to develop programs that can contribute to creating social value, whatever the label used to qualify it.

So far, few tools are available in sport federations to implement CSR and eventually monitor and evaluate their policies. In particular, two initiatives could be replicated at a broader level: the CSR Practitioners' guide by the Belgian Professional football league

and the EFDN network's CSR guide. Sharing experiences is central within the organisational setting and within the sport network. Comparable initiatives – but not overlapping - could also be introduced by the associations of sport federations (i.e., AISF and VSF).

Overall, this dissertation makes a call to sport federations to actively engage in **learning**. We argue that learning can help to raise awareness, which is the first step in the direction of CSR decision making. Findings have shown that sharing knowledge and experience as well as acquiring new knowledge was central in the development of innovative ideas. The creation of learning structures and processes to manage knowledge is therefore encouraged to develop the required capacity to face the numerous challenges sport federations are facing.

Sport clubs should also be importantly positioned in this endeavour as the platform through which the sport federations are implementing the projects. However, sport clubs should not rely solely on the initiatives of the sport federations. Another danger is from sport federations to rely solely on sport clubs. The delicate balance is needed between the top-down and bottom-up approaches. The Hockey together initiative as well as the EFDN network are inspiring in this regard.

Non-profit organisations are also important partners with whom sport organisations can engage with in a win-win collaboration. These organisations at the local or national/international level possess unique complementary resources that sport federations need to acquire in order to develop their projects.

Policy makers have the capacity through policy-driven initiatives to stimulate sport organisations to take their role in seriously tackling negative sides of sport. In the past, some CSR initiatives delivered by Belgian sport organisations appeared from the impulse of policy makers. In the case of football, Open Stadium, a social project implemented by the national football federation, was financially supported by the federal administration. As noted by Constandt (2019), “in Belgium, the social and political interest in sport ethics has been steadily increasing since the 1970s (Constandt, 2013; Maebe, 2012). Formal legislation on “healthy and ethical responsible sport” has been implemented on a regular basis, often in reaction to mediatised scandals, and thanks to the efforts of several awareness-raising

organisations, such as Panathlon (Constandt, 2013; Maebe, 2012; Vertommen, 2017)” (page 216). Because the institutional context, is very different from Flanders and Wallonia, specific recommendations are developed with the related policy makers in the nearest future.

At this stage, this dissertation makes a call for French-speaking policy makers to actively engage in the creation of a **sport expertise research centre** which could allow the gathering of sport experts and practitioners on these topics. Accordingly, we repeat the call for action formulated along with Prof. Thierry Zintz and Arthur Lefebvre at the Federation-Wallonie Bruxelles Parliament to create such centre that could facilitate learning and sharing of existing knowledge. In Flanders, ICES and KICS are facilitating the diffusion and translation of research into practical suggestions. Public authorities and sport federations play a pivotal role in spreading ideas to other sport organisations (mimetic has been identified in numerous studies in the past). Further, studies have shown that comparison with other organisations in the sector is an important element of learning in non-profit organisations.

In addition, we encourage policy makers to trigger **collaboration** among sport organisations and non-sport organisations. Collaboration in the network creates new capacities and knowledge transfer.

Finally, training is essential to develop successful sport programs. Through the training provided by the administration of sport, managers, board members, coaches and beyond should receive sufficient training to professionalise and improve their knowledge and competencies. Such training could consist in key issues sport organisations have to deal currently, of which social responsibility could be included – as well as ethics, social and environmental aspects – next to strategic management and implementation (including monitoring and evaluation) trainings. Accordingly, we endorse the call made by colleague Constandt (2019) on the need to develop specific ethical **training** on behavioural norms that all stakeholders should receive.

CSR network and academic networks are important sources of knowledge for sport stakeholders to bring in the dialogue. Under the impulse of academics, measurement studies have been undertaken on governance of the sport federations and could include CSR standards in their future versions (Delta group, 2015).

Universities have an important role to play in the training of the students and future managers and board members of sport organisations. Ideas spread through education. As advocated by Phillippe de Woot, the principal leverage for a more ethical and responsible culture in companies – and to the broader extend of this dissertation: in sport organisation – is education. Business school, sport faculties and universities in general have a responsibility in developing their programs accordingly.

These guidelines are suggested on the basis of the work reviewed so far as well as the research conducted with several spot federations. These are not intended to be comprehensive or prescriptive. Rather, they are offered as starting points for practical recommendations in reflection with professional practice.

6. References

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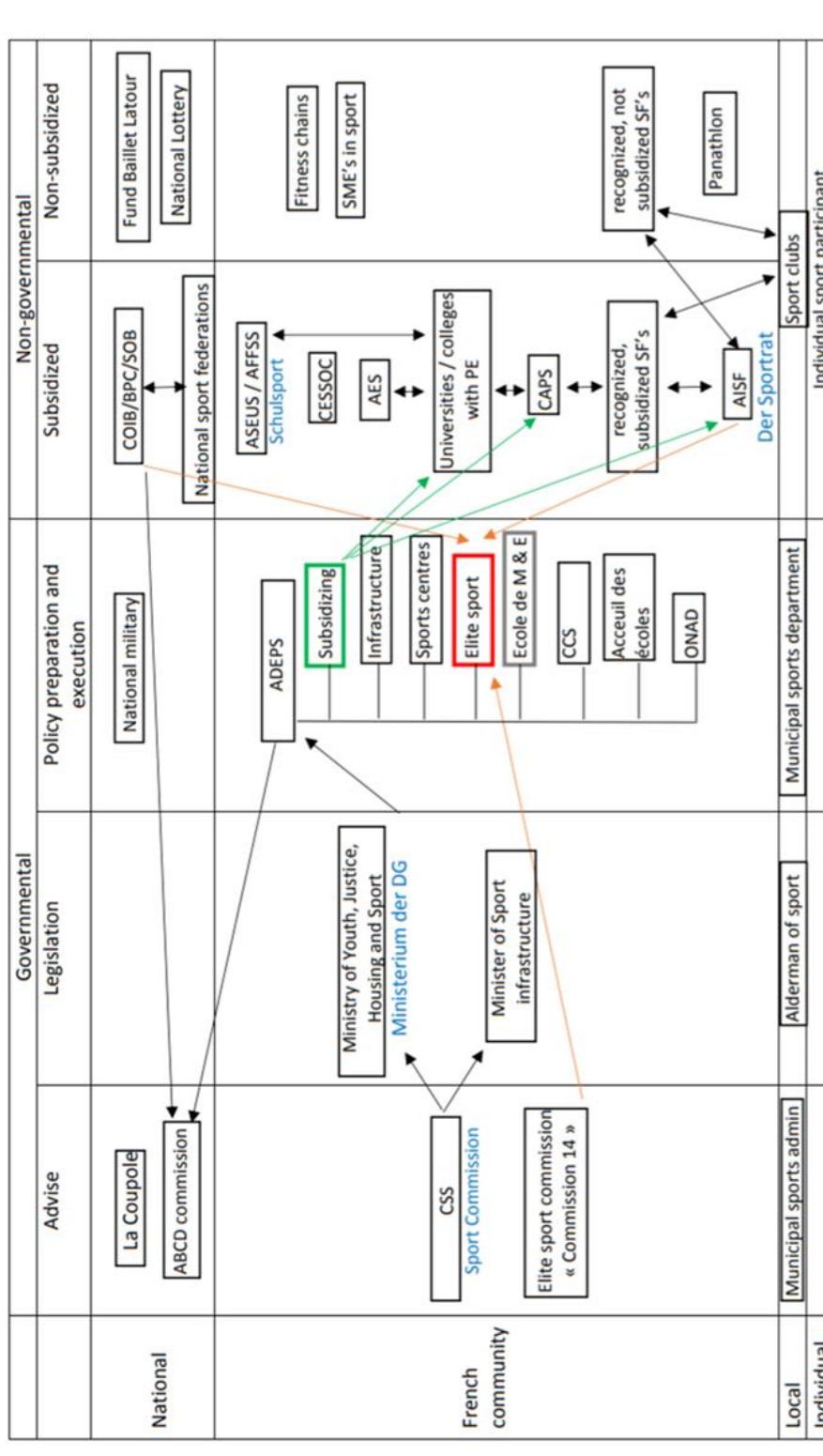
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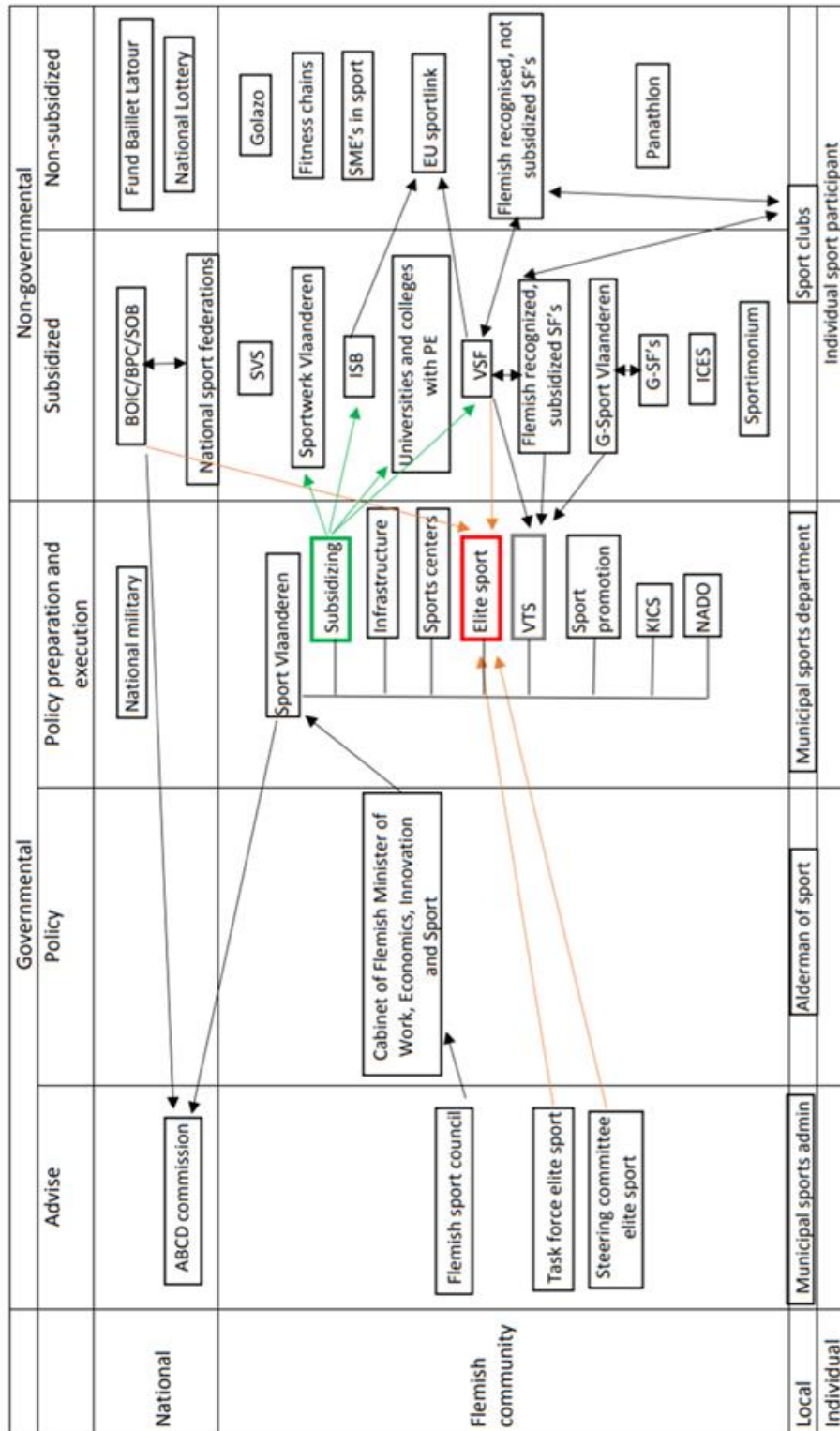
APPENDIX

1. Belgian sport landscape: Wallonia



Source: Sportmanagement UGent 2017

2. Belgian sport landscape: Flanders



Source: Sportmanagement UGent 2017

3. Curriculum Vitae

GERALDINE ZEIMERS

RESEARCH POSITIONS AND EXPERIENCES

- 2019 – present* **Research Assistant**
Universit catholique de Louvain, Louvain School of Management
- 2014 – present* **PhD in Health Sciences - Sport Management**
Joint PhD at Ghent University and UCLouvain, Olympic Chair Henri de Baillet Latour-Jacques Rogge
- Doctoral dissertation: 'Corporate social responsibility implementation in non-profit sport organisations'
- Prof. Dr. Annick Willem (Ghent University - Co-supervisor), Prof. Dr. Thierry Zintz (UCLouvain - Co-supervisor), Prof. Dr. Kathy Babiak (University of Michigan), Prof. Dr. Valérie Swaen (UCLouvain).
- 2013 - 2014* **Teaching and Research Assistant, Political Science**
University of Liege, Faculty of Law, Political Science and Criminology, SPIRAL Research Center

EDUCATION

- 2011- 2013* **M.A. in Political Science (Public Administration) – Summa cum laude**
University of Liège, Faculty of Law, Political Science and Criminology.
The evolution of the elite sport policy in Wallonia: an analysis of the factors of governments' representations ("L'évolution de la politique sportive de haut niveau en Fédération Wallonie- Bruxelles: analyse des facteurs explicatifs des changements de représentations des gouvernements")
- 2008 - 2011* **B.A. in Political Science – Magna cum laude**
University of Liège, Faculty of Law, Political Science and Criminology

ADVANCED TRAINING

- 2013-2014* **Inter-university Certificate on Public Policies Evaluation**
(FUCaM, UCL, ULB, ULiège) « The French Community sport policy: Evaluation of the 8/12/2006 decree organising and subsidising sport in the French Community". ("La politique sportive en Communauté française : Evaluation du décret du 8 décembre 2006 visant l'organisation et le subventionnement du sport en Communauté française") (20 ECTS)
- 2014-2018* **Doctoral Training Program** – Doctoral school UCLouvain and UGent
Project Management, Writing the PhD Thesis skills, Academic English, Survey, Endnote, Limesurvey, PhD Seminar.

MOBILITY

- February 2017* **Visting Research Fellow** at Molde University College, Norway
- 2011-2012* **Erasmus Program** at York University Glendon College, Toronto, Canada

INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH FELLOWSHIPS

Since 2014 Member of the Louvain Research Institute in Management and Organizations (LOURIM) – Institute Louvain School of Management (Université catholique de Louvain)

Member of the Louvain CSR Network

Member of the Center for Research in Entrepreneurial change and Innovative Strategies (CRECIS) – Institute Louvain School of Management (Université catholique de Louvain)

Associate Research fellow of University of Liege, Political Sciences, SPIRAL Research Center

Affiliated to the Doctoral School in Human Kinetics and Doctoral School in Management

FUNDING AND GRANTS (Total 102 000€)

2018 **Travel Grant Faculty Mobility Funding** (Facultair Mobiliteitsfonds) European Academy of Management (EURAM) Conference 2018 granted by the Scientific Research Commission of Ghent University (Commissie Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek) (1000€)

2017 **Travel Grant Faculty Mobility Funding** (Facultair Mobiliteitsfonds) North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) 2017 Conference granted by the Scientific Research Commission of Ghent University (Commissie Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek) (1000€)

2014 – 2018 **Four-year PhD Scholarship** granted by the Funds Baillet Latour to the Olympic Chair Henri Baillet de Latour & Jacques Rogge (~100.000€)

AWARDS

2018 **Best Paper Award Runner Up** - European Academy of Management (EURAM) Managing Sport Special Interest Group

2017 **New Researcher Award Runner Up** - European Association of Sport Management Quarterly (EASMQ), 2017 European Association of Sport Management Conference (EASM)

2016 **Best Reviewer Award Runner Up** - European Academy of Management (EURAM) Managing Sport Special Interest Group

PUBLICATIONS

International peer-reviewed journal articles

Zeimers Géraldine, Anagnostopoulos Christos, Zintz Thierry and Willem Annick. (2019). *Unpacking Collaboration among Nonprofit Organizations for Social Responsibility Programs*. Non-profit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly. Advance online publication. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0899764019837616>

Zeimers Géraldine, Anagnostopoulos Christos, Zintz Thierry and Willem Annick. (2019) *Organisational Learning in Sport Organisations: The Case of Social Responsibility Programmes*. European Sport Management Quarterly, 19, 1, 80-101.

Zeimers Géraldine, Lefebvre Arthur, Winand Mathieu, Anagnostopoulos Christos, Zintz Thierry and Willem Annick, *Organisational factors of corporate social responsibility implementation: a qualitative comparative analysis of sport federations*. Submitted to European Association for Sport Management Quarterly (Pending decision)

Book Chapters

In Sport Management

Zeimers Géraldine, Anagnostopoulos Christos, Zintz Thierry and Willem Annick. *Corporate social responsibility (CSR) in football: Exploring modes of CSR implementation*. In Simon Chadwick, Daniel Parnell, Paul Widdop, Christos Anagnostopoulos. Routledge Handbook of Football Business and Management. Routledge. 2019. In press.

In Political Sciences

Zeimers Géraldine. *Le pilotage par les chiffres de la politique sportive belge francophone*. In Catherine Fallon & Joël Ficet. Crise De La Démocratie et Nouveau Management Public : Discours, Pratiques, Instruments. Collection "Science politique" de l'Association Belge de Science Politique (ABSP), Editions Academia, L'Hamattan, Louvain la Neuve, Belgium, 2017.

International academic conference presentations - Oral Communications

In Sport Management

Zeimers, Géraldine, Zintz, Thierry and Willem, Annick. Collaborative dynamics and processes among nonprofit sport organisations, EASM conference, Malmo, Sweden, 6 -8th September 2018.

Zeimers Géraldine, Lefebvre Arthur, Winand Mathieu, Anagnostopoulos Christos, Zintz Thierry and Willem Annick, *Corporate social responsibility implementation by sport federations: a qualitative comparative analysis*, European Academy of Management (EURAM) Conference, Reykjavik (Iceland), 19- 22th June 2018.

Zeimers Géraldine, Zintz Thierry and Willem Annick, *Réflexions sur le positionnement épistémologique d'un chercheur embarqué sur un terrain dans le management du sport*, Research and Business in sport: Qu'est-ce que la recherche peut apporter au monde du sport, Audencia Conference, Paris (France), 23 novembre, 2017

Zeimers Géraldine, Anagnostopoulos Christos, Zintz Thierry and Willem Annick. *The Process of Organisational Learning in Sport Organisations: The Case of Social Responsibility Programmes*. In 25th European Association for Sport Management (EASM) Conference, Bern (Switzerland), 5-8th September 2017.

Zeimers Géraldine, Anagnostopoulos Christos, Zintz Thierry and Willem Annick. *Teaming-Up for Social Responsibility Programs: The Case of Belgian Nonprofit Sport Organizations*. In 2017 North American Society for Sport Management Conference (NASSM), Denver (USA) 30th May- 3rd June 2017.

Zeimers Géraldine, Zintz Thierry and Willem Annick. *Corporate Social Responsibility in Sport Federations: A Framework to Assess Organizational Integration and Knowledge of CSR*. In 16th European Academy of Management (EURAM) Conference, Paris (France), 1-4th June 2016.

In Political Sciences

Zeimers Géraldine. *Le pilotage par les chiffres de la politique sportive belge francophone*, Sixth triennial Association Belge de Science Politique (ABSP) Congress, Liège, Belgium, 12th April 2014.

Invited presentations and lectures

Zeimers Géraldine, *Teaming-Up for Social Responsibility Programs: The Case of Belgian Sport Federations*, Interuniversity Doctoral Exchange of the Human Kinetics Doctoral School (Echange Doctoral Interuniversitaire de l'Ecole Doctorale en Science de la Motricité), 17 May 2017.

Zeimers Géraldine, Corporate Social Responsibility in the sport sector. Invited teaching fellow in the Belgian Olympic Academy-Interuniversity certificate in Management of Sport Organisations (Belgian Olympic Committee-UGent-UCL), 2015.

Opinion articles

Zeimers, G., & Lefebvre, A., (2019, February 26). Affaire Thiam: des pratiques professionnelles sont à la portée des dirigeants amateurs de fédération sportive. [Thiam affair: professional practices are with the reach of volunteering directors of sport federations] Le Soir.

Constandt, B., & Zeimers, G. (2018, October 13). Une gestion éthique dans le football est plus urgente que jamais [The need for ethics management in football has never been more pressing]. Le Soir.

Zeimers, G. & Zintz, T. (2017, July 6) Et si nous prenions la politique sportive francophone au sérieux? [What if we seriously consider the French-speaking sports policy?] Le Soir.

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Teaching experience under Dr. Emilie Malcourant & Patric Gobert (Prof. Dr. Nathalie Delobbe) in: Human Management (4 ECTS)

Teaching experience under Pr. Dr. Thierry Zintz in: Management of sport organisations (9 ECTS)

Teaching Assistant under Pr. Dr. Catherine Fallon in: Public Policy Analysis (5 ECTS) - Public Policy Evaluation (5 ECTS)

ACADEMIC DUTIES

2015 – present Master Thesis examiner at the Faculty of Human Kinetics and Faculty of Economic, Social and Political Sciences and Communication, UCLouvain

LANGUAGES

French: Native; **English:** Professional Proficiency; **Dutch:** Basic

SKILLS

Qualitative research: Interviews, Observations, Focus Groups, QCA.

Project management: Public policy evaluation, organisation of an international conference

Software: Nvivo 10, SPSS, Tosmana, Gantt Project, Endnote.

Microsoft Office: Word, Excel, and Power Point.

MEMBERSHIP AND AFFILIATIONS

European Academy of Management (EURAM)

European Association of Management (EASM)

North American Society of port Management (NASSM)

