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## ABSTRACT

Management in modern organizations could be significantly problematic and complex as managers face many different tasks and challenges on a daily basis due to competitive sports environments and the constantly changing market needs. In order for managers to effectively perform their managerial role, they need certain skills and abilities to develop and express in their performance. In this context the present study provides a literature survey in the field of leadership and followership in sports aiming to highlight the importance of the multidimensional model of life skills and talent management in sports. Furthermore, COSMA (Commission on Sport Management Accreditation Council) is presenting focusing mainly on the way that accredited sport management schools use their courses to gain accreditation regarding sport management accreditations. The theory of Sports Marketing is presented as well as an effort-based costing case study of a team of Sports Marketing professionals working in marketing, sales and supply chain management. The main goal is to highlight the important role sports managers play in organizations, the critical success factors that are implemented by sports organizations and the importance of human resources management in enhancing cooperativity and productivity in corporate settings and sports organizations and clubs.

**Keywords:** Sport Management, Talent Management, COSMA, Leadership in sports, Sports Marketing, Human Resources Management, Human Resources Costing.

## CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

The last few decades the sports industry has grown in a global phenomenon attracting investments from different domains. As theoretical approaches of human resources management (HRM) have been applied to Sports Management since the discipline emerged, it is no surprise that Human Resource management in sport has attracted much attention in both academia and practice over the past two decades. Research has focused on the level of sports clubs, leagues, sports authorities, sports organizations, etc. (Robinson and Minikin, 2012). Following Ray et. al. (2004) who consider resource management as a prerequisite or precondition for developing competitive advantage and achieving success.

The present study provides a literature survey in order to highlight the most important aspects of sports management and leadership as it constitutes a critical factor in the strategic management. Management in sports organizations could be significantly complicated and demanding due to the daily challenges, competitive sports environments and the constantly changing market needs managers deal with. The survey findings highlight the certain life skills and abilities managers need to develop and express in their performance presentation. The research is structured in the following chapters.

In chapter two an overview of the major literatures in the field of leadership and followership in sport is presented, focusing on the explanation of life skills and on the way they are developed in sports. In addition, the multidimensional model of life skills transfer is addressed by emphasizing on the transference of life skills through interactive processes in different, possibly similar, contexts.

Chapter three provides a theoretical framework of the Talent Management (TM) and the current state of corporate talent management research, focusing particularly on definitions of skill in a corporate setting as a key factor in talent Management in sports. Also a research on TM in sports is examined regarding the two tasks of talent identification and development.

In the fourth chapter an attempt to highlight the critical factors for a successful and appropriate curriculum, as it is a hotly debated issue in academic discourses and among educators regarding the type of curriculum which can help students prepare and acquire the skills they need to be ready for the professional world (Peterson & Pierce, 2009)

In the fifth chapter a systematic literature survey on sales and marketing operations is presented with emphasis in supply chain management and Sports Marketing. Also, a costing case study approach is presented providing activity costs calculations as well as the required Full Time Equivalents per activity. In addition the articles included in the survey were categorized in four main categories identified namely: Supply Chain Management, Sales and Operations Planning, Artificial Intelligence and Big Data Analytics. Furthermore the theory of Sports Marketing is presented as well as an effort based costing case study of a team of Sports Marketing professionals working in marketing, sales and supply chain management.

The conclusions of the literature survey are presented at the last chapter. The author attempts to highlight the most significant outcomes relating to the research questions about human resource management and the most prominent methodological approaches and applications in sports marketing along with future research proposals.

## CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, we review the published literature related to the research questions, presented above, beginning with an introduction to the major literatures in the field of leadership, followed by a discussion of leadership and followership in sport, as athletes are primarily considered followers of coaches or managers on sport teams (Loughead, Hardy & Eys, 2006). Next, we explain life skills and how they are developed in sport, since we have already defined experience in the introduction as: "the knowledge or skill acquired through a certain period of practical experience with something, especially in a particular profession". In addition, the multidimensional model of life skills transfer will be addressed, and then we will assess whether life skills are transferred when there is an interaction between different, possibly similar, contexts.

The main research questions that the present study aims to address is:

RQU1: What are the dominant theoretical Models and Methodologies on Human Resources Management (HRM) that apply to sports organizations-businesses?

RQU2: How can we apply Models and Methodologies to sports clubs-businesses?

RQU3: Which critical success factors are implemented by sports clubs-enterprises?

RQU4: What are the required infrastructures-prerequisites for the implementation of Human Resources Management in sports clubs-businesses?

RQU4: How can the implementation of Human Resources Management be used in sports associations-businesses?

### 2.1. MANAGERS DOING LEADERSHIP

Management in modern organizations is problematic and complex. Managers face many different tasks and challenges on a daily basis (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2016). In order for managers to effectively perform their managerial role, they need certain skills and abilities to develop and express in their performance. Katz (1974) states that managers need competencies based on three basic skills, i.e. technical, conceptual,

and people skills. Technical skills include specialized knowledge and analytical skills required for the job. Conceptual skills require managers to see the organization as a whole and understand how the various units of the organization are interrelated and work together. People skills refer to the manager's ability to work in a group and unify the team he or she leads. This includes, for example, the ability to lead, influence, develop, motivate, and encourage his or her employees and to understand their point of view.

Managers perform a variety of tasks and roles in organizations, and it is difficult to generalize what they do in their work (Alvesson & Willmott, 1996). To explain the fragmented work of managers, Mintzberg (1989) formulated ten managerial roles. One of these roles is leadership, in which managers are expected to hire and supervise employees, motivate their subordinates, and lead them to pursue organizational goals.

Leadership has been defined and discussed by many scholars who have not been able to agree on a specific definition (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2016; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) therefore, different theories have developed over the years, giving us different perspectives on this topic. Kouzes and Posner (2002) believe that leadership is about the relationship between those who dream of being leaders and those who choose to follow them.

Barker (2001) asserts that management is about maintaining stability, while leadership is about creating change. Yukl (1989) asserts that most definitions of leadership seem to have little in common except for the process of influencing, that is, the leader's ability to influence others. Despite the multiple and varied definitions of leadership, several leadership styles and theories have been presented in the literature. Since leadership is a very broad term, we will not focus on any particular perspective or style. However, we will present theories on several aspects that are closely related to how managers view leadership. These aspects are closely related to the human factor of Katz's (1974) theory and Yukl's (1989) theory of the leader's ability to influence others.

One of the earliest leadership theories is the trait theory. This theory emphasizes certain personal characteristics and traits of an effective and successful leader (Hersey and Blanchard (1982).

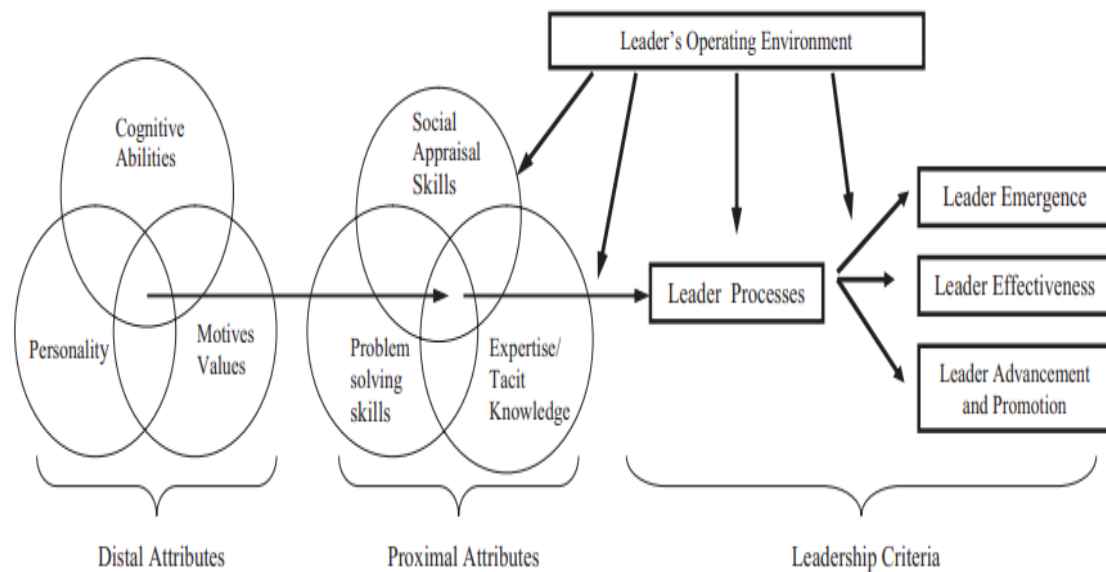


Studies have presented a long list of traits or skills associated with good or strong leadership. Individual characteristics such as a sense of responsibility, persistence, problem-solving ability, self-esteem, adaptability, dependability, and self-confidence are often associated with good leaders. Other leadership qualities that are frequently mentioned are creativity, inspiration, goal orientation, empathy, self-confidence, resilience, adaptability, etc. (Alvesson, Blom & Sveningsson, 2017). Early studies on leadership traits focused on specific traits or abilities that people are born with, i.e., people either have or do not have these qualities. However, these studies are flawed because they denied the leader the ability to develop through experience or training (Iszatt-White & Saunders 2017).

Contemporary theories of leadership traits indicate that the qualities they believe distinguish non-leaders from leaders are broad. The theories still refer to personal characteristics, but also consider other factors such as motives, values, cognitive abilities, problem-solving skills, and social skills (Zaccaro, 2007).

These factors, along with the social situation of leaders, are believed to influence their leadership effectiveness. Therefore, a person with certain characteristics may be a leader under certain circumstances but not necessarily under others (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2017).

According to Zaccaro (2007), this requires the leader's ability to adapt and change behaviour as the situation changes. This is consistent with situational leadership, where the leader must switch between different leadership styles to be effective depending on the situation. Zaccaro (2007) also provided a model of how leader characteristics affect indicators of leader performance (Fig. 1).



*Figure 1: A Model of Leader Attributes and Leader Performance (Zaccaro, 2007, p.11)<sup>1</sup>.*

Hersey, Blanchard, and Dewey (1996) believe that leadership is based on three factors competencies: diagnosing - cognitive ability to understand complicated situations, adapting - behavioural ability to adjust and change behaviour to fit the current situation, communicating - the leader's ability to communicate their message to employees. The emphasis here is on both leaders and their successors improving their skills through training and experience.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982) leaders must use a different leadership style depending on the maturity level of their subordinates. A subordinate with a high level of maturity may be able to complete tasks independently and have the confidence to perform tasks, while subordinates with a low level of maturity may lack skills and confidence. However, the basic idea may be that managers should develop and enhance the skills of their subordinates so that they can become more independent and confident in their work (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Alvesson, Blom, and Sveningsson (2017) have criticised this approach because changing leadership styles can lead to confusion and inconsistency among subordinates. They also contend that few people are able to master a wide range of different leadership styles.

<sup>1</sup> <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17209675/>

Studies on leadership perspectives show that there are multiple perspectives and that no single leadership style dominates among managers (Gagnon, 2012). Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003) investigated how managers in knowledge-intensive organisations view leadership and whether they have an integrated understanding of their leadership. Their results showed that managers have different and ambiguous understandings of their management tasks and leadership. They found that managers were strongly influenced by a discourse on leadership, emphasising values, vision, and strategy.

Managers associated themselves with leadership that was viewed as positive and appropriate by their employees and the industry in which they worked. The findings of Alvesson and Sveningsson (2016; 2003) can be associated with transformational leadership, which focuses on changing various aspects of the organisation and its followership, including strategy and vision.

Leaders in this field are interested in change and its processes (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2016). Bass (1985) asserts that in order to achieve transformation, leaders must convince their followers of the value of a potential outcome to the organization and themselves. They must also seek to awaken followers' intrinsic motivation by showing them trust, involving them in processes, and building their confidence.

According to Bass and Avolio (2000), transformational leadership is characterized by four factors: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration. Idealized influence means that leaders act as role models for their followers and place their needs above their own. Accordingly, leaders act and behave in accordance with the organization's mission, existing values, and principles. Leaders enjoy the trust and respect of their followers, who identify with leaders (James & Collins, 2008). Inspirational motivation is considered a key aspect of transformational leadership. It occurs when leaders create team spirit through their charisma and inspire their followers to put their own interest behind the interest of the organization (Alvesson, Blom & Sveningsson, 2017). They are expected to emphasize commitment to goals and a shared vision and to act in ways that inspire and motivate their subordinates (James & Collins, 2008). Leaders are also expected to support their employees' self-actualization and encourage them to grow in their field (Bass &

Riggio, 2006). Intellectual stimulation involves transformational leaders encouraging their employees to be creative and approach problems in new ways and from different perspectives (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2017). Leaders create a work environment in which individual mistakes are not criticized and all employees' ideas are valued, even if they do not agree with the leader's ideas (James & Collins, 2008). Individual consideration means that the manager treats their employees differently and is responsive to each employee's needs. They act as coaches who encourage their employees to develop and improve their skills for the sake of their work (Alvesson, Blom & Sveningsson, 2017). The communication style is two-way; the leader is expected to listen effectively and pay attention to whether followers need additional support to improve their skills without being pushy (James & Collins, 2008).

Individualized consideration may be closely related to another leadership style, namely executive coaching.

According to Alvesson, Blom, and Sveningsson (2017), managers who act as coaches are expected to share responsibilities, delegate, and offer challenging tasks to their followers to help them develop in their area of expertise.

An important aspect of coaching is communicating with, listening to, and empathizing with employees. As Korotov, Florent-Treacy, et al Vries (2007) note, listening and empathy are important skills for managers to strengthen relationships and build trust with their employees. Listening is not only about listening to the words spoken, but also about paying attention to the meaning of the words. Rogers (1980) asserts that there are three factors that coaches must emphasize in order to maintain a strong relationship with their followers. First, coaches must show empathy toward their followers by understanding their feelings and being able to see the world from another person's perspective. Second, the coach must have a positive attitude toward his followers and show them respect and acceptance. Third, he must show consistency and be himself.

## 2.2. LEADERSHIP AND FOLLOWERSHIP IN SPORTS

Over the years, leadership in sports has focused mainly on the coach, as he or she is considered responsible for making final decisions on various team issues (tactics, strategy, team players). Coaches have been viewed as leaders and players as

followers. However, more recent studies focus on athletes and how they perceive their leadership role in teams, i.e., athlete leadership (Loughead, Hardy & Eys, 2006). According to Loughead (2017, p. 58), athlete leadership can be defined as "an athlete taking a formal or informal leadership role within the team and influencing team members to achieve a common goal." This definition indicates that leadership roles can be divided and distributed among team members, and two types of athlete leaders can be identified. Formal leaders are individuals on the team who are appointed leaders (captains) by their coaches or team members.

Informal leaders are players who emerge as leaders based on their experience and interaction with team members. Those individuals who do not assume roles as formal or informal leaders can be considered non-leaders or followers (Crozier, Loughead, & Munroe-Chandler, 2017).

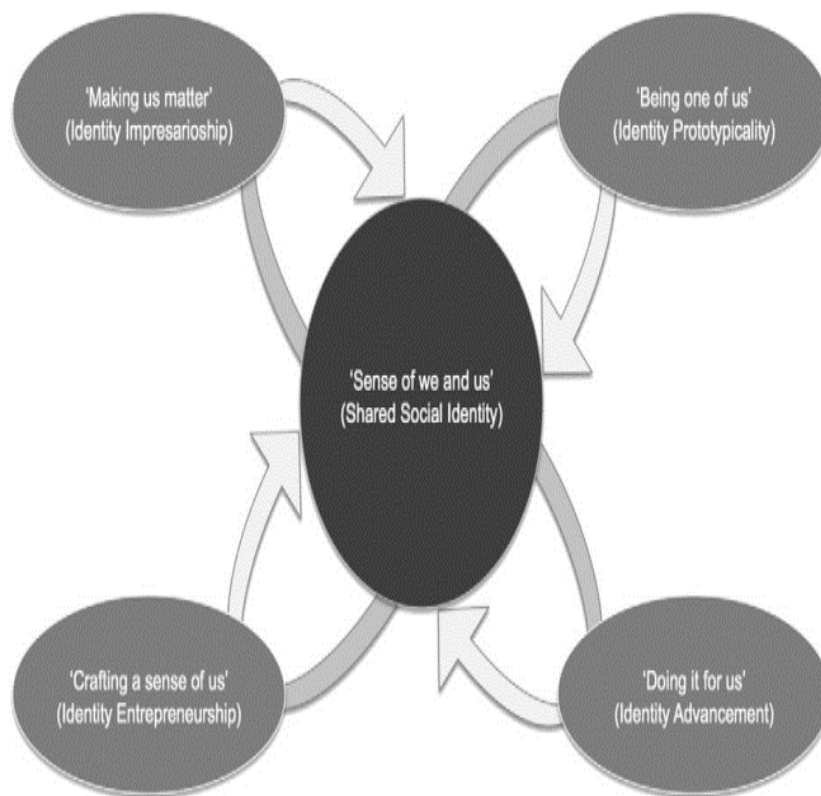
Leadership can be described as coaching, inspiring, communicating, managing, humanising, working with vision, motivating, etc. In this study, we do not define or shape the concept of "leadership" with this study we do not define or shape the concept of "leadership", but we investigate in which situations former top athletes, who now work as managers, perceive themselves as leaders.

Many studies show that effective athlete leadership can have several positive effects, such as on team confidence, team trust, and team performance. These studies also show that athlete leaders tend to provide strong morale, promote positive team spirit, help minimize conflict, motivate their teammates, and help their coaches understand and improve the team (e.g., recruit new players) (Cotterill & Fransen, 2016). Camiré's (2016) study examined captains in the National Hockey League (NHL) and primarily concluded that they need to be open to new ideas, lead by example, and act as a link between players and club staff. Yet, studies show that leaders and followers can have opposite effects on team cohesion if they have a wrong/negative attitude that undermines the team (Cotterill & Fransen, 2016).

Fransen et al. (2014) found four different leadership roles that team members (formal and informal leaders) perform on the team, namely task leader, motivational leader, social leader, and external leader. The task leader is the one who calls the shots on the field and helps the team agree on goals and tactical decision making. The motivational leader is the leading motivator on the field and encourages his team members to push

their limits and give everything they have. The social leader builds good and trusting relationships with the other players on the team and tries to foster a positive team spirit. He is a good listener and helps resolve disputes that may arise within the team.

Steffens et al. (2014) in order to specify the multiple dimensions of identity leadership and to offer a more stable theoretical base for future research of the the multi-aspect dimensions of leadership as a social identity process provide a model on the assessment of the four dimensions of identity leadership.



**Figure 2:** A four-dimensional model of social identity management comprising identity prototypicality, advancement, entrepreneurship, and impresarioship ( Steffens et al., 2014, p.1003)

The external leader is the representative of the team and is a link between the team and the supporters of a team (fans, media, sponsors). These different roles can lead to the assumption that formal and informal leaders can influence team members in different ways and their contribution has a great impact on the structure and functioning of the team (Loughead, Hardy & Eys, 2006).

Based on these studies, athletes in sport may function as leaders or followers depending on their activities and status within the team, which is similar to follower studies in business.

The Greek philosopher Aristotle stated that "subjects can only grow into leadership by training from youth," meaning that leaders must gain experience and develop certain skills as followers to become leaders (Litzinger & Schaefer, 1982). However, in early writings on leadership, followers were viewed as passive recipients of leadership's influence. The focus was on the characteristics and behaviours of leaders and how followers responded to their will and actions (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2017). In recent years, the role of followers and followership has received more attention and interest from researchers as followers are viewed as active co-producers of leadership (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2016).

Alvesson, Blom, and Sveningsson (2017) examined three perspectives on the relationship between leaders and followers. The first perspective follows the traditional view of follower behaviour, in which the leader constructs the follower's perspective. The leader's personality and style are assumed to influence follower behaviour and attitudes. Followers are viewed as passive actors who are dependent on their leaders. The second perspective views followers as co-creators of leadership. It focuses on the characteristics, tasks, and role of followers (employees), characteristics, and how they interact with leaders. Howell and Shamir (2005) argue that employees must be viewed as active participants rather than recipients of leadership. Here, leadership is explained as a result of different people co-creating it and building a relationship based on a clear understanding of roles, win-win situations, and mutual trust. However, co-constructed leadership does not mean complete equality between leader and led. In some situations, employees might decide to take a strong position as followers (e.g., immature employees) and allow the leader to take a dominant position (e.g., managers with superior knowledge). The third view considers followers as constructors of leadership and focuses on situations in which followers are the source of leadership relationships. This may be the case, for example, when followers identify with particular social groups (companies, brands, sports clubs) or within organisations where followers have certain skills and knowledge that enable the "right" attribution (Alvesson, Blom & Sveningsson, 2017).

Many researchers have attempted to posit various theories about followership, as outlined in this chapter, but there are also some who have attempted to understand what makes an "effective" or "good" follower. Kelley (1998) described positive characteristics such as self-motivation, commitment to the group, credibility, honesty, and the ability to solve problems independently. These followers were considered to be actively engaged in the followership. In their study, Pastor, Mayo, and Shamir (2007) offer co-production of leadership processes in which followers are expected to participate in setting goals, visions, and attitudes to achieve team or organizational objectives. Fairhurst & Uhl-Bien (2012) add to this by positioning followers as those who negotiate, communicate, and join with leaders to influence group understanding and outcomes. In terms of followership in sport, athletes are viewed as co-constructors of leadership, following a coach's instructions while being open to improvisation on the field.

In this context, followers can be considered an important factor in the construction of leadership because of the possibility that leadership occurs on two levels (Van Wart, 2013).

Horizontal leadership can be expressed through self-leading individuals and shared leadership within the team, where everyone provides some type of leadership. This may be similar to findings from theories of leadership and followership in sport, where athletes are assumed to provide leadership within teams. The second is vertical leadership, in which a supervisor (manager or coach) assumes a formal or informal leadership role. In this case, leadership emanates from one person, while the others are considered only followers who do not exercise a leadership role. However, in this type of followership, the followers should help shape the leadership, as described in this chapter. In this context, followers are considered to have developed skills that can be helpful and are similar to those expressed in leading. These skills, as mentioned earlier, include purposefulness, commitment, independence, personal responsibility, problem solving, and honesty. According to the studies mentioned earlier, followers can take on different roles depending on their level of activity and commitment to leadership. For example, they may act as followers or as leaders at the right time, as is the case in a leadership role where they are leaders to employees and followers to owners.



## 2.3. LIFE SKILLS

There are a variety of definitions of life skills. According to the Oxford Dictionary (2018), one definition of life skills is "a skill that is necessary or desirable for full participation in everyday life." Danish et al.'s (2004, p. 40) definition of life skills is more detailed:

“...those skills that enable individuals to succeed in the different environments in which they live such as school, home and in their neighbourhoods. Life skills can be behavioural (communicating effectively with peers and adults) or cognitive (making effective decisions) and interpersonal (being assertive) or intrapersonal (setting goals).”

Life skills are only those skills that can be transferred from one domain to another (Danish et al. 2004) and are free from any context or content (Wiant, 1977).

Therefore, skills that are only used in sport and cannot be transferred to other domains are not classified as life or transferable skills. Danish, Petitpas, and Hale (1993) list more than 25 life skills, some of which include the following: Performance under Pressure, Commitment, Dedication, Ability to Learn, Risk Taking, Flexibility, Goal Setting, Self-Motivation, and others. In relation to sport, Gould and Carson (2008, p.60) have defined life competencies:

"...those internal personal assets, characteristics and skills such as goal setting, emotional control, self-esteem, and hard work ethic that can be facilitated or developed in sport and are transferred for use in non-sport settings".

Based on these definitions, we consider life skills as actions, traits, interpersonal and intrapersonal skills that can be reflected in any type of experience. In this study, we examine what they believe former elite athletes have developed and transferred through sport, and then focus on elaborating on the presumed leadership perspective of managers.

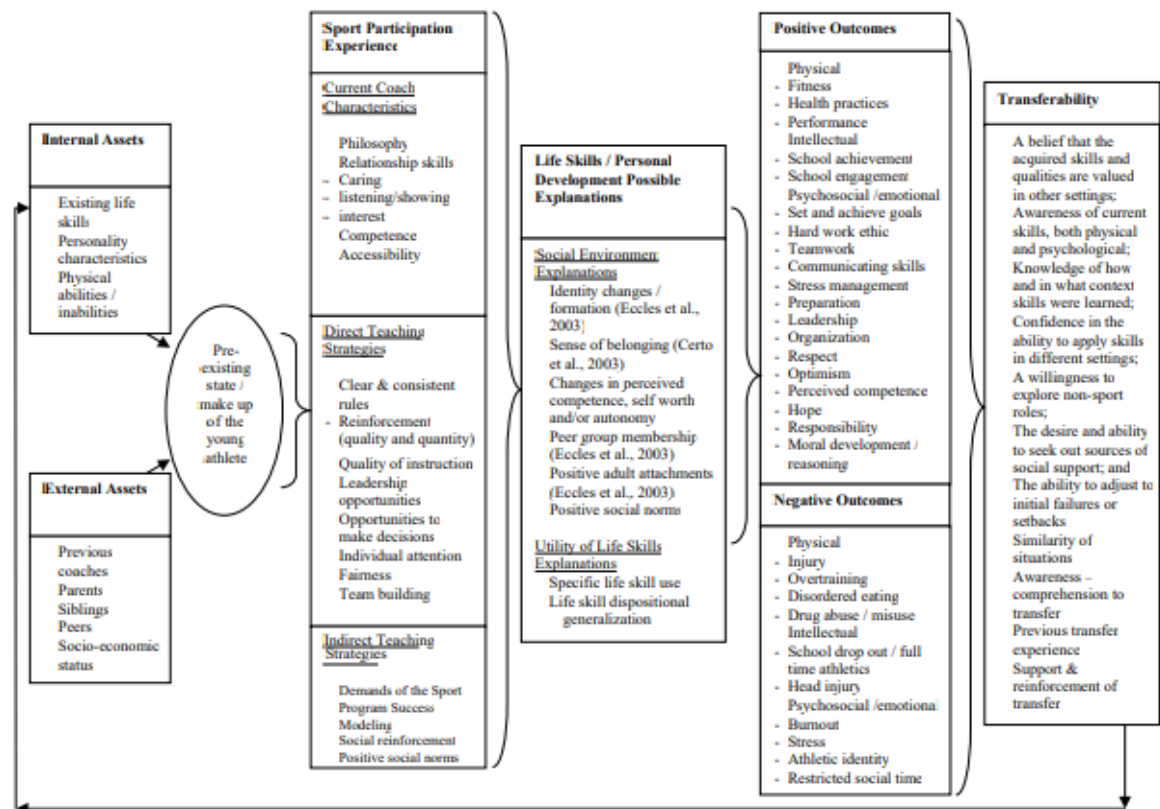


Figure 3.: A model of coaching life skills through sport (Gould & Carson, 2008, p.66)<sup>2</sup>

### 2.3.1. LIFE SKILLS DEVELOPMENT IN SPORTS

Sports are one of the most popular hobbies in the world, and children play sports regularly. In Sweden, sports are considered the most popular activity among young people. About 70% of all boys and every second girl in the age group 7 to 15 are members of a sports club, which is spread all over Sweden and organizes sports activities for children and young people. Many people start participating in organized sports activities at a young age, for example in sports clubs or in compulsory schools. In both places, they engage in various types of sports activities designed to improve their physical and cognitive skills (Turner & Martinek, 1999).

The goal of physical education is to encourage participants to develop various cognitive skills such as goal setting, planning, discipline, teamwork, communication, listening, and attention. Sports clubs aim to promote democracy, equality, fair play,

<sup>2</sup> Available at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/17509840701834573>

health, and personal development through their activities (Riksidrottsfoerbundet, 2012).

In physical education in schools, one of the goals is to learn a wide range of tactics and strategies to defeat opponents in direct competition through team and individual sports, such as soccer, badminton, tennis, and basketball (Department of Education, 2014; Skolverket, 2011).

In sports clubs, similar to schools, young players should be systematically taught skills such as team and individual goal setting, personal responsibility, discipline, self-esteem, teamwork, cooperation, preparation, listening, competitiveness, and empathy (IFK Norrkoeping, 2017; Utbildningsplan Malmoe FF Ungdom, 2013).

There are many sports-based life skills development programs being promoted around the world. These programs are specifically designed to promote life skills and personal development through physical activities in sports. An example of such a program is SUPER (Sports United to Promote Education and Recreation), which has been implemented in various sport activities (Danish, Fornes & Wallace, 2005).

Papacharisis et al. (2005) evaluated the effects of SUPER on volleyball and soccer players. One of their main findings was that players who had participated in the program had greater confidence in goal setting and had more positive thinking and better problem-solving skills than players who had not participated in the program. Another study examined the impact of the TSR program (Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility) program, concluded that the program helped players improve their self-control, attitude, and teamwork (Hellison & Walsh, 2002). In a case study, Camiré, Trudel, and Bernard (2013) examined a high school sports program in Canada that focused on teaching life skills. Results showed that life skills implementation occurred in life skills development classes where students learned about goal setting and values (e.g., fairness, honesty, and respect) and by having students participate in volunteer activities (e.g., altruism, respect, and empathy). In addition, the results showed that the coaches continuously taught life skills and used teachable moments to teach life skills. For example, one coach intervened in an argument between two groups of players who disagreed about training intensity. The coach intervened in the situation and gave what was perceived as an inspirational speech to his players about teamwork and the importance of encouragement.

Although studies suggest that participation in sports, whether in the form of extracurricular activities or sports-based development programs, has a positive impact on the development of personal and life skills, we cannot be certain of this because implementation may vary from place to place. Implementation is primarily in the hands of coaches, and in recent years coaches have become more aware of their responsibilities in promoting life skills development through their coaching (Gould et al. 2007). Some coaches believe that the process of developing life skills occurs automatically through sport participation and that they do not need to focus specifically on it. More often, coaches who work with athletes believe they have developed a set of strategies and techniques to enhance players' life skills.

Gould et al. (2007) found that coaches use two different strategies to develop and implement life skills with their players, namely through general coaching and through player development strategies. General coaching strategies involve working with players (respectful interactions, communication, and role modeling) and interacting with other parties (respecting officials, giving assignments, and listening to assistant coaches). In player development strategies, coaches help their players set goals and teach them life skills directly, such as talking to them about how life skills are learned in sports and can be transferred to other areas. In addition, these results showed that more experienced coaches did not consider life skills development separately from other general coaching strategies aimed at improving their overall athletic skills.

Trottier and Robitaille (2014) surveyed coaches from individual and team sports. They listed more than 30 life skills that they believed they taught their coaching participants. Skills included confidence, leadership, goal setting, respect, resilience, and emotional management.

Gould et al. (2007) interviewed American soccer coaches who believed their players had learned various life skills through playing soccer and striving for excellence in their sport. Coaches highlighted skills such as discipline, work ethic, and emotional control. Although the coaches emphasized many skills that they believe are taught in sports, there is another perspective that interests us - that of the athletes, because they are the ones who should be developing life skills. Students claim that extracurricular activities have taught them skills such as goal setting, taking initiative, problem solving, and time management (Cronin & Allen, 2015; Gould et al. 2007;).

In addition, Hansen, Larson, and Dworkin (2003) have found that students who participated in extracurricular activities (including sports) experienced that they developed even more life skills, such as identity exploration, reflection, and teamwork, than in the regular school classroom. All of the above studies asserted that, from the perspective of athletes, coaches, and sports programs, various life skills are taught or developed in sports.

### 2.3.2. LIFE SKILLS TRANSFER MODEL

We have already explored that sport could be an area where life skills can be developed. More specifically, life skills must be transferred from occupation/education to another area of life to be considered valuable. Therefore, in this chapter we describe how individuals can experience the process of transferring skills from sport to another domain.

Danish, Petitpas & Hale (1993) LDI (Life Development Intervention) was the first model that aimed to intentionally teach life skills in the context of sport and facilitate autonomous change for one's future. In later stages, this model was used in conjunction with BNT (Basic Needs Theory) (Ryan & Deci, 2000) to better explain the skill transfer of each individual experience based on environment, developmental competence, and autonomy (Hodge, Danish & Martin, 2013).

On the other hand, the model provided a positivist approach and did not consider the negativity or no development of life skills through sport (Pierce, Gould & Camiré, 2017; Kendellen & Camiré, 2015).

Therefore, we will explain the transfer process using a model that we believe is more holistic than the two mentioned in this section.

The multidimensional model of life skills transfer (Figure 4) from Pierce, Gould & Camiré (2017) presented multidimensional model of life skills transfer (Figure 4) is used to explain a possible transfer process of individuals from the field of sport. In this model, the complexity of skill transfer is considered by including different types of influences and stages from development to implementation. There are various influences that shape the developmental process of an individual (Gould & Carson,

2008) and the outcomes of skill transfer, which include the individual learner and different learning contexts in which sport is explained in detail.

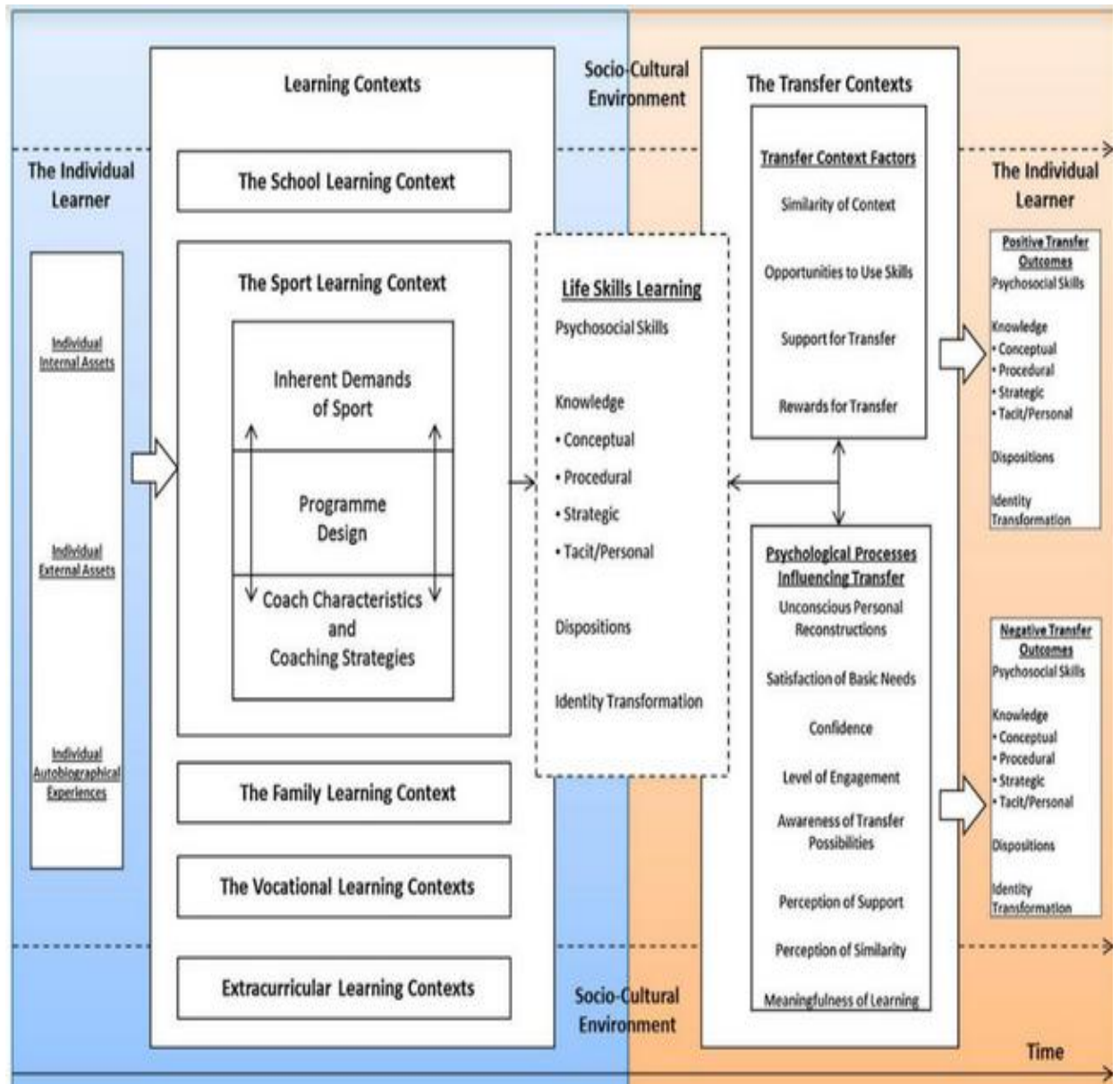


Figure 4: Life skill transfer model (Pierce, Gould & Camiré, 2017).

The learning context of sport is just one of the contexts in which individuals can learn life skills. In this context, coach characteristics, demands, sports and their strategies can influence the transfer and development of life skills (Pierce, Gould & Camiré, 2017).

Inherent demands consist of various social interactions, drive, and competition within and outside of the team, while a coach and other role models of the sport can shape the understanding and perception of certain situations and the sport itself.

According to Pierce, Gould & Camiré's (2017) model, coaches are considered to play an important role in the life skills development process because they may or may not teach life skills directly, but this does not preclude the positive or negative learning of life skills in sport (Lacroix, Camiré & Trudel, 2008). Many coaches attempt to create a positive environment and social relationships within training groups, which has been identified as implicitly influencing the development of life skills and their transfer to other domains (Turnnidge, Côté & Hancock, 2014). Coaches who are considered more successful than others and have coached at the highest levels of play on national teams are considered more effective in teaching life skills and their philosophies to their players (Collins et al. 2009; Camiré, Trudel & Bernard, 2013). These coaches have an important role to play in our study because our athletes have competed at the highest level and can be greatly influenced by their philosophies.

Ultimately, it is up to the athlete what he/she takes away from the sport and how he/she sees those skills transferring to other areas of his/her life. Many studies have documented the development of skills through sport, including leadership and perseverance (Camire and Trudel, 2013), goal setting, and teamwork (Holt et al., 2008). In addition, researchers found that life skills such as leadership, teamwork, and self-esteem are necessarily learned in sport and can be transferred to other areas (Trottier & Robitaille, 2014; Holt & Neely, 2011). This research shows that athletes can learn skills through tasks on and off the field that may be important in other areas of their lives. However, individuals learn different life skills in sport, and their development differs from that of others.

According to Larson, Walker & Pearce (2005), coaches and teachers are not the ones who can teach life skills if an athlete is not interested in learning them. Considering that one of the main goals of sport is to teach technical and tactical skills to win on the field (Vierimaa et al. 2012; Turnnidge, Côte & Hancock, 2014), athletes need to be aware of what skills they can develop and transfer from one area to another.

Last but not least, the transfer context of Pierce, Gould & Camiré's (2017) model is of utmost importance to our study. As Schmidt and Lee (2005) noted, the tasks performed and the climate of the domain in which the skill was learned must be similar to trigger the transfer of existing knowledge and skills (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Another factor could be the amount of time the individual has spent in the

domain and can reflect on their own knowledge in both environments (Camiré, Trudel, & Bernard, 2013). For example, completing the task given by a manager under time pressure could be viewed similarly to following the game tactics given by the coach. As mentioned earlier, each individual's experience and skill transfer is unique, and the model provides only an illustration of the complex transfer process.

In our study, where participants ended their sports careers some time ago, the focus is on macro-time, i.e., events that have already passed and perceptions that have emerged over time (Lee & Martinek, 2013). Time is considered important in explaining an individual's transfer of competence (Danish, Petitpas & Hale, 1993), as experiences and life skills may be formed and identified differently by an athlete at different times.

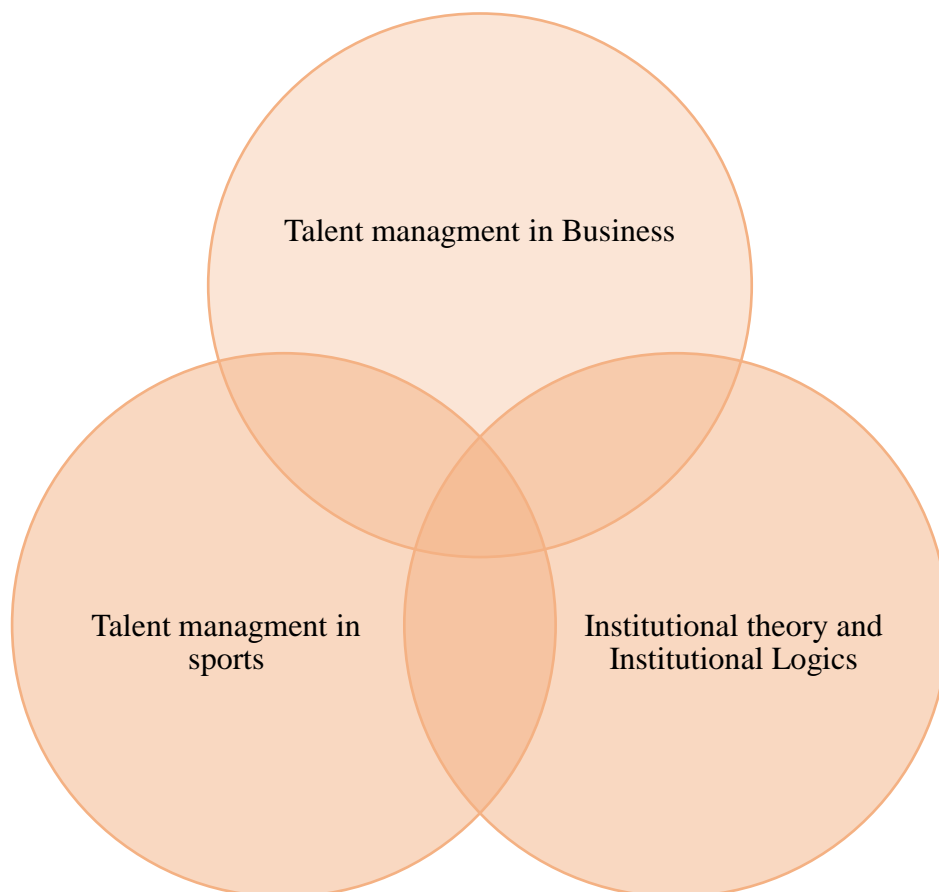
Our main consideration from the model and its options for life skill learning is: life skills are considered to be learned and transferred when there is interaction between different, possibly similar, contexts. This may be the case, for example, when the demands of sport are influenced by individual characteristics and the sociocultural environment. In this situation, the individual should reflect and analyze whether skills developed in sport in a positive or negative way can help him/her in his/her current job to cope with a specific situation. Therefore, in order to transfer the skills to other areas, life skills should be internalized by the individual. According to Gould & Carson (2008), the traits and skills developed in sports include leadership, competitiveness, goal setting, and decision making. When managers talk about the importance of their experiences in sport, it can help examine their perceived influence on leadership in the management role.

Athletes who play sports have learned skills that can help them in other areas. Sports can help them have positive or negative experiences that later can shape their own view of things. Studies show that many athletes, students, and coaches believe that the skills learned in sports have helped them in the following areas helped them in other areas of their lives, such as their careers, which may include management. These studies have not provided a deep understanding of how experiences in sports are used in other areas. Therefore, we are conducting a qualitative study to explore what they believe athletes transfer from their experiences in sport to the field of management.



## CHAPTER 3. TALENT MANAGEMENT: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter begins by going through Talent management (TM) research in a corporate setting. Following that, research on TM in the sports industry is provided. Literature on (1) the value of comprehending context when doing TM research and (2) institutional theory in sports is used to supplement the theoretical framework. The link between the theoretical domains that will be utilized to analyze the study topics is depicted in the model below. Figure 5 shows the intersection of the Venn diagrams of the literature review with the theoretical framework.



*Figure 5: Venn diagrams of the theoretical framework.*

This chapter starts out with a summary of the current state of corporate talent management research. Definitions of skill in a corporate setting will receive particular attention. After that, research on TM in sports is examined in relation to the two tasks of talent identification and development. The third study area, "Talent management in context," investigates ideas that stress how crucial it is to take context into account

while conducting and evaluating TM research. The research issues for the thesis fall under the umbrella of TM in sports, although as was stated in the introduction, the field's body of literature has a limited reach. The two additional study areas are employed as a complement to the literature, leading to the intersection shown. First, how talent definitions influence the design of talent management activities is a subject that has been studied in TM in business but not in sports. Second, whereas the issue of context's impact on TM in sports is mostly unexplored, research on TM in context has just started to examine the implications of organizational and environmental aspects (i.e. context) for TM in enterprises. This is where we see our biggest research deficit, which is covered in more detail in the chapters below. The sports context is mapped using institutional theory in a sport scenario to investigate how context is influencing TM in sports. Finally, the literature review will summarize the few data on how the institutional setting influences TM in sports.

### 3.1. REPRESENTATION OF TALENT MANAGEMENT IN BUSINESS

Given that talent management first appeared in management journals two decades ago, there has been a sharp rise in the number of papers published regarding TM (McDonnell et al., 2017). (McDonnell et al., 2017; Dries, 2013). What, though, is talent management? The academic community is still divided on what it means. Lewis & Heckman (2006) discuss the difficulties in defining "talent management" precisely due to the ambiguity of the terminologies and presumptions used by writers who write on TM. For instance, authors frequently use phrases like "talent management," "succession management," "talent strategy," and "human resource planning" interchangeably. Collings and Mellahi (2009), Thunnissen et al. (2013a), and McDonnell et al. (2013) have all confirmed the misunderstanding surrounding the notion of talent management (2017). A practical definition of talent management includes all the actions in an organization that have the primary purpose of recruiting, identifying, developing, and training individuals who are thought to have attributes required for the firm's long-term success (Bolander et al., forthcoming).

Thunnissen et al. (2013a) divide the primary subjects in the literature into three categories: (1) the definition of talent, (2) the targeted goals, and (3) the consequences of talent management strategies and activities. The literature on talent definitions in business is provided in the next section. This section of the literature is deemed significant for our empirical study since it elaborates on how different talent definitions impact talent management activities. A full examination of talent management operations in enterprises, on the other hand, will be excluded from the scope. Instead, the particular TM activities of talent identification and development in a sport-specific context will be detailed later in the study.

### 3.2. TALENT DEFINITIONS IN BUSINESSES

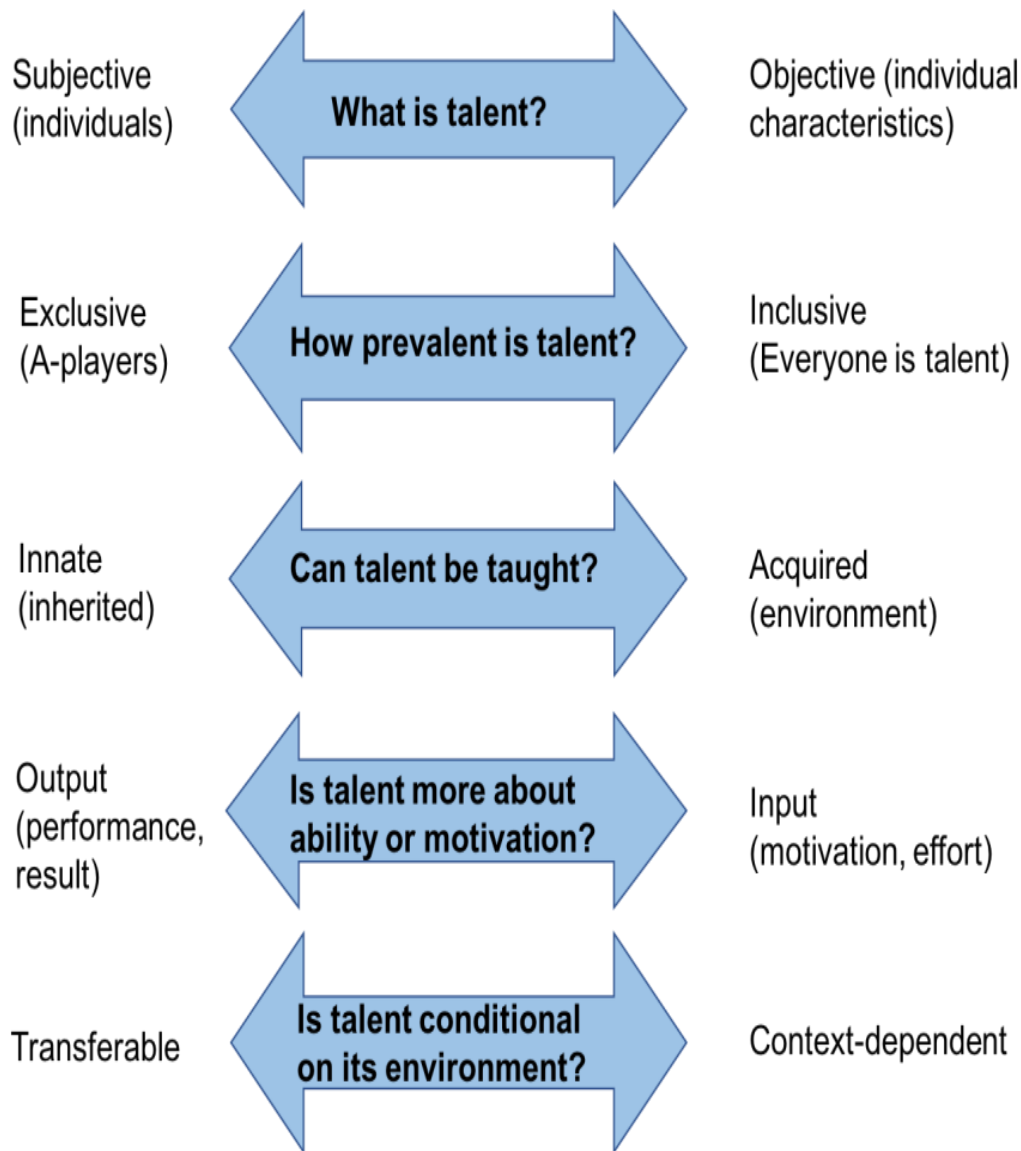
Despite growing interest in TM research, there is still no agreement among experts on what constitutes talent (Thunnissen & Van Arensbergen, 2015; Dries, 2013; Meyers, 2013). To provide some clarification on the notion of skill Dries (2013) identified five conflicts in the literature and highlighted how differing ideas on talent affect TM policies and practices. *Object or subject strategy*. The first point of contention is the difference between object and subject viewpoints on skill. Companies with subjective viewpoints prioritize talent discovery and depend more on succession planning and organizational career management (Dries, 2013). This approach considers the individuals themselves to be talented (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013). Companies with objective viewpoints concentrate on identifying and developing the attributes of brilliant employees. Thus, talent is a person's attributes. As a result, they rely more on competency and knowledge management (Dries, 2013). Approaches that are *inclusive* or *exclusive*. The inclusive and exclusive approaches are concerned with the availability of talent in the labor force.

An inclusive view assumes that all individuals are competent, whereas an exclusive perspective thinks that certain people are born to be more gifted than others in specific settings (Dries, 2013; Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2013). An inclusive strategy allocates resources more evenly to employees so that everyone may develop their abilities, whereas an exclusive approach spends proportionately more resources on a chosen few (Dries, 2013) innate or learned strategy. Because talent cannot be taught, an intrinsic viewpoint on talent focuses on talent recruitment, identification, and

retention (Meyers, 2013). An acquired view, on the other hand, contends that talent can be taught and focuses on instruments for talent development such as training and learning. (Dries, 2013; see also Meyers, 2013).

**Dries (2013) also suggest *Output or input approach*.** Assuming an input approach one claims that talent is more dependent on motivation such as effort, ambition, and career orientation, whereas an output perspective contends that it is more dependent on ability, i.e. output, performance, accomplishments, and outcomes.

Finally, *Transferable or context-dependent approach* **is presented**. A transferable approach asserts that talented people display their talent independently of the situation, whereas context-dependent viewpoints hold that individuals' talent is reliant on the environment. As a result, companies with a transferable approach focus on recruitment and talent identification prior to company entry (because talented people are talented in all environments), whereas companies with a context-dependent approach want to see how an individual interacts with the context, and talent identification occurs after a period of time (Dries, 2013).



*Figure 6: Talent definition approaches, adapted from Dries (2013).*

### 3.3. TALENT DEFINITION CONFIGURATIONS AND TALENT MANAGEMENT APPROACHES

The relationship between how talent definitions impact TM practices will be presented in respect to the activities of talent identification and recruiting, as well as talent development and training, as a quick recap of the preceding section.

#### 3.3.1. IDENTIFICATION AND RECRUITMENT

Talent recruitment refers to employing talents from outside the business, whereas talent identification is a broader phrase that includes recognizing talent that already

exists within the organization. If a corporation takes an intrinsic approach, the belief is that talent cannot be cultivated, hence more focus is placed on talent discovery rather than talent development. When talent is recognized, it is determined if the organization believes the skill is transferable or not. As previously said, if talent is considered as transportable, talent identification occurs prior to a person joining the firm. Bolander et al. (forthcoming) found four distinct typologies of how organizations identify talents and conduct TM. Both the talent identification and talent recruiting typologies have an inbuilt and transferrable perspective of talent. As a result, these two techniques appear to be complementary.

### 3.3.2. DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING

When a company takes an acquired approach to talent, it places a greater focus on talent development and training. The allocation of resources on how much is spent on staff development is determined by whether the organization takes an inclusive or exclusive strategy. When an inclusive method is used, resources are allocated equitably across personnel, but an exclusive approach results in uneven distribution. The two typologies that focused on talent development in Bolander et al.'s (forthcoming) research had both an acquired and an inclusive approach. These two techniques appear to be complementary.

### 3.4. TALENT MANAGEMENT IN SPORTS

There is no universal definition of "sports talent," but it is widely accepted in the literature and in sporting environments that "a talent in sports is an individual whose athletic performances are superior to his peer group and is capable of reaching or has achieved consistent top-level performances" (Boccia et al., 2017, p.2). The word "talent management" is rarely used in sports literature. Instead, the emphasis is on two key areas: talent identification (TI) and talent development (TD). Encompassing the sake of this thesis, TM in sports will be used as a catch-all word for both of these activities. The goal of talent identification programs is to "identify young athletes with outstanding potential for success in senior elite sport and choose and recruit them into talent promotion programs" (Vaeyens et al., 2009, p.1367). TI is investigating ways to analyze an athlete's existing ability in a certain sport and so anticipate future talent (Vaeyens et al., 2009; Breitbach et al., 2014). In comparison, talent development

programs focus less on present talents and more on how to teach players to attain their full potential in the future (Breitbach et al., 2014). There is a discussion within TM for sports over the role of natural attributes in identifying aptitude, just as there is in TM for enterprises. There is a disagreement among scholars on how essential hereditary traits, for example, are for future achievement. However, as with TM for businesses, it can be stated that the less emphasis is placed on natural talents of athletes, the more focus is placed on the growth process (ibid.).

### 3.4.1. TALENT IDENTIFICATION

Many scientific articles have attempted to identify valid predictive variables for predicting future sporting achievement (Buekers et al., 2015). In traditional TI research, the standard study design is to evaluate how single anthropometric characteristics (such as height and body composition) or physiological measurements (such as oxygen consumption and strength) influence performance. Top performers are then compared to inferior performers, and the traits with the greatest significant differences are identified as discriminating or predictor factors. However, these factors have a limited explanatory power. In basketball, for example, only 60% of the overall difference in performance could be explained by anthropometric or physiological characteristics (Breitbach et al., 2014). Furthermore, complete conclusions are difficult to draw from the research since the definitions of "elite," "successful," and "skilled" athletes vary between studies (ibid.). In response to the inadequate explanatory power of traditional TI research, investigations on additional possible predictive factors such as technical, tactical, and psychological skills have been conducted. (2015) (Buekers et al.) However, these variables have been investigated in isolation, prompting calls for a multidisciplinary approach and an examination into how the variables interact with one another. Breitbach et al., 2014; Abbott & Collins, 2004) Furthermore, only recently has attention been drawn to elements such as the environment's influence through, for example, emotional support (Breitbach et al. 2014). Criticism has been leveled not just at the small breadth of variables included in TI research, but also at their one-dimensionality. "Evidence from 19 European countries suggests that most talent identification systems in sport use current junior performance [...] as the main criterion for selection to a development programme" (Rees et al., 2016, p.1047). However, the notion that

present performance or early competitive success may predict future potential is called into doubt. It is extremely difficult to predict future performance at a young age since there are numerous other elements that influence whether someone will become an excellent athlete (Buekers et al., 2015). Finally, a distinction must be established between how TI research is undertaken and how TI methods are actually implemented in athletic situations. Buekers et al. (2015) point out that there is a tension between experience and experimentation. Many coaches use intuition to identify talents, however sport scientists believe that scientific measures are the best technique for TI. The intuitive method has the disadvantage of being subjective, but it has the advantage of focusing on the individual as a whole and including a range of aspects when forecasting future performance. In comparison, the scientific method is objective, yet it frequently overlooks contextual elements (Buekers et al. 2015).

### 3.4.2 TALENT DEVELOPMENT

As previously stated, the goal of *talent development* is to prepare sportsmen for prospects of becoming top-performing elite athletes. The research focuses on how much training is required, how much of that training must be sport-specific, and how early you should specialize within a sport. These themes will next be explored using various theories. Finally, a common paradigm for talent development is offered. Deliberate practice and deliberate play According to the deliberate practice (DP) idea (Ericsson et al., 1993), athletes must have accumulated a substantial quantity of structured sport-specific training to become world class. According to DP theory, the more DP practice acquired, the greater the performance gained. In its original version, DP theory proposed that becoming world class required 10,000 hours of DP practice over a ten-year period. But the author has since asserted that he did not want the 10 000 hours restriction to be "a norm". Rees and colleagues (2016). When Rees et al. (2016) analyzed the evidence supporting this idea, they reached the following conclusion: "the quality of evidence that extensive DP is an important contributor to the development of super-elite performance in sport is high to moderate, while high/moderate quality of evidence suggests that the applicability of the 10 years/10,000h rule is limited and that DP alone does not guarantee sporting success" (ibid., p.1048). When it comes to how early an athlete should concentrate within a sport, research reveals that early structured sport-specific training comes with hazards such as decreased pleasure, overuse injuries, and an increased risk of dropping out.

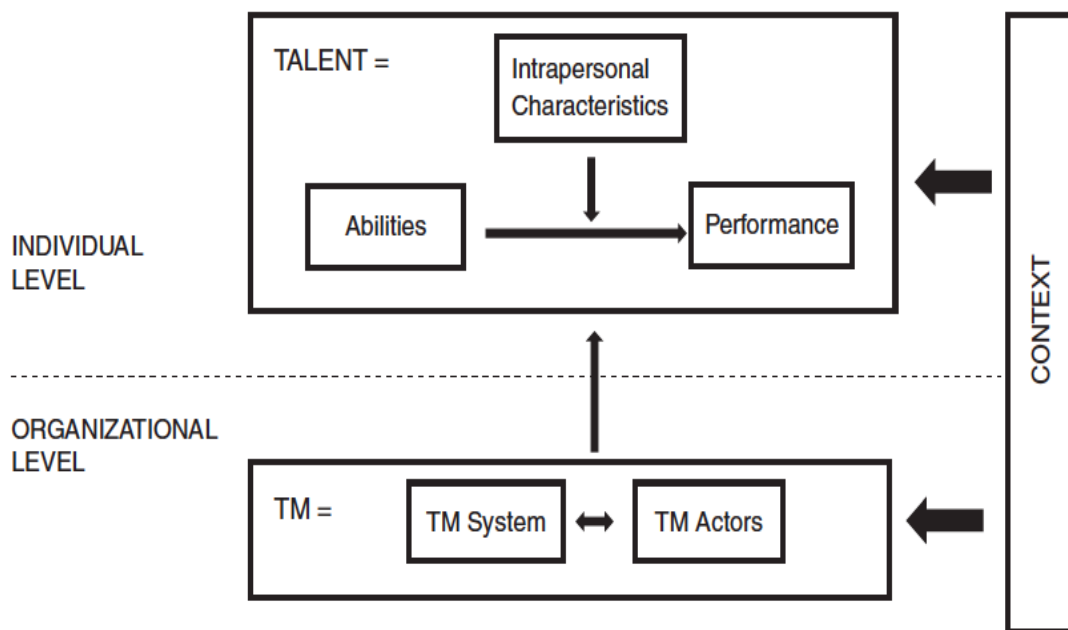


Comparisons between elite and so-called super-elite athletes in 50 Olympic sports revealed that super-elites had higher quantities of practice/training in other sports than elites. The majority of the super-elites later specialized in their main sport (ibid.). Côté coined the term "deliberate play" to describe an alternative model to deliberate practice in which athletes engage in playful training in various sports in their early years (up to 11-12 years) and gradually increase the organized and sport-specific training and specialize at around the age of 16 (Côté & Fraser-Thomas, 2008). The model of Long-Term Athlete Development (LTAD) The LTAD model has been utilized as a point of reference or a template for different sport federations' talent management on a global scale. The concept functions as a talent ladder, providing a normative structure for what and how athletes should exercise at various ages. However, researchers have questioned the model. The paradigm is criticized for having a physiological normative approach that ignores individual variability as well as social, psychological, and environmental aspects (Fahlström et al., 2015).

### 3.5. THE IMPORTANCE OF CONTEXT IN TM

When researching talent management, some scholars emphasize the need of addressing organizational and/or institutional settings (Al Ariss et al., 2014; Thunnissen et al. 2013b; Thunnissen & van Arensbergen, 2015). While Thunnissen et al. (2013b) highlight how TM may add non-economic and economic value to businesses and society, Al Ariss et al., (2014) and Thunnissen & van Arensbergen (2015) focus on how context influences talent management. According to Thunnissen and van Arensbergen (2015), organizational context can influence talent definitions and TM activities. The interpretation of talent can be influenced by organizational factors (such as financial resources) and external situations (e.g. the job market). As an example, they illustrate how one department within an organization that had a large number of potential job candidates had different TM activities than another department that was experiencing labor shortages. Because of the circumstances, the latter placed a greater priority on talent development. As stated in Thunnissen and van Arensbergen's model of talent (Fig.7 ) and TM, contextualizing talent is a significant addition to the area, as universal talent models predominate (Thunnissen & van Arensbergen, 2015). Mapping the circumstances that sport organizations in Sweden

face can help us study if various contexts alter talent definitions and TM activities that are prominent. Sections 3.5 and 3.6 provide assistance by presenting institutional theory and, more particularly, institutional logics in sports. However, while institutional logics map out context in broad terms, the next section will give a sport-specific model that categorizes contextual aspects on both a macro and a more granular level.

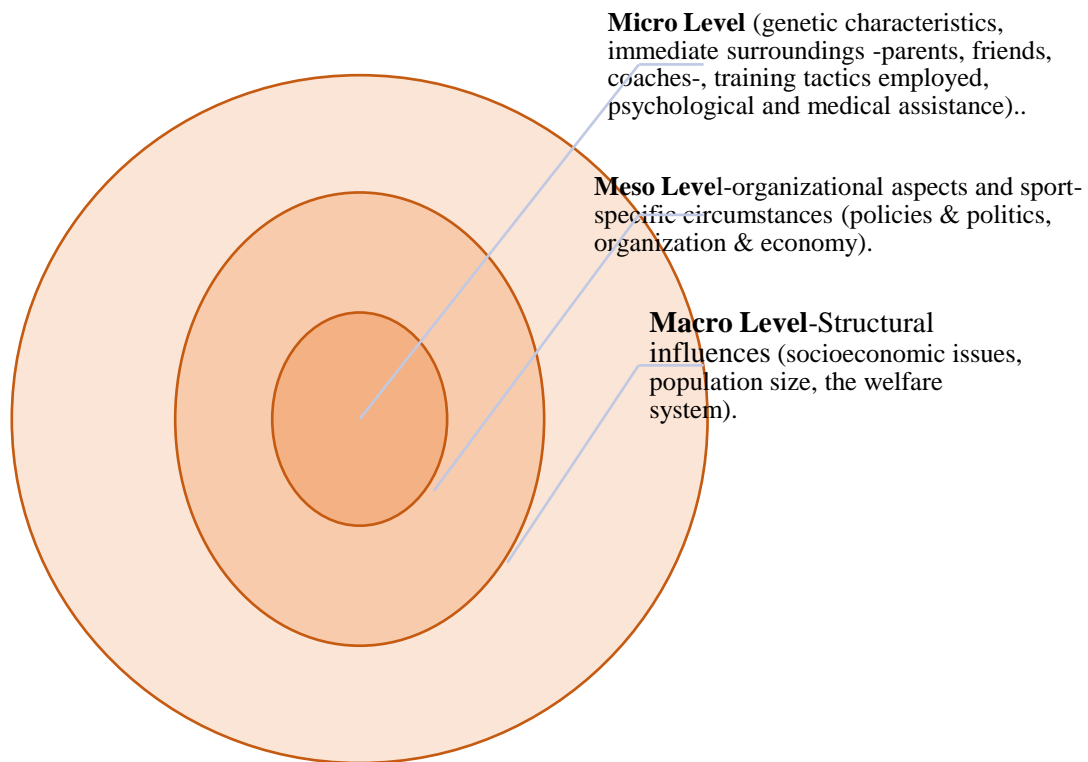


*Figure 7: Talent, TM and the impact of context (Thunnissen & van Arensbergen, 2015 p.16).*

### 3.5.1. A MODEL FOR THE FACTORS AFFECTING ELITE SPORT SUCCESS

International study on nations' elite sport and elite sport systems includes many models for organising the various aspects that may impact a nation's sport success. One of these models is seen below. Figure 8 depicts De Bosscher and Verle's (2008) model of the elements influencing individual and national sport achievement (adapted). The structural influences that determine sport success are seen at the macro level. Socioeconomic issues, population size, the welfare system, and so on are examples. The meso level encompasses organizational aspects and sport-specific circumstances such as policies and politics, organization and economy, and so on. Finally, the elements at the micro level are tied to the individual and his or her

circumstances. These determinants can include, for example, genetic characteristics, immediate surroundings (parents, friends, coaches), training tactics employed, psychological and medical assistance (De Bosscher & Verle, 2008; cf. För framtidens segrar, 2011).



*Figure 8: De Bosscher & Verle's (2008) model of the elements influencing individual and national achievement (adapted).*

### 3.6. INSTITUTIONAL THEORY AND INSTITUTIONAL LOGICS

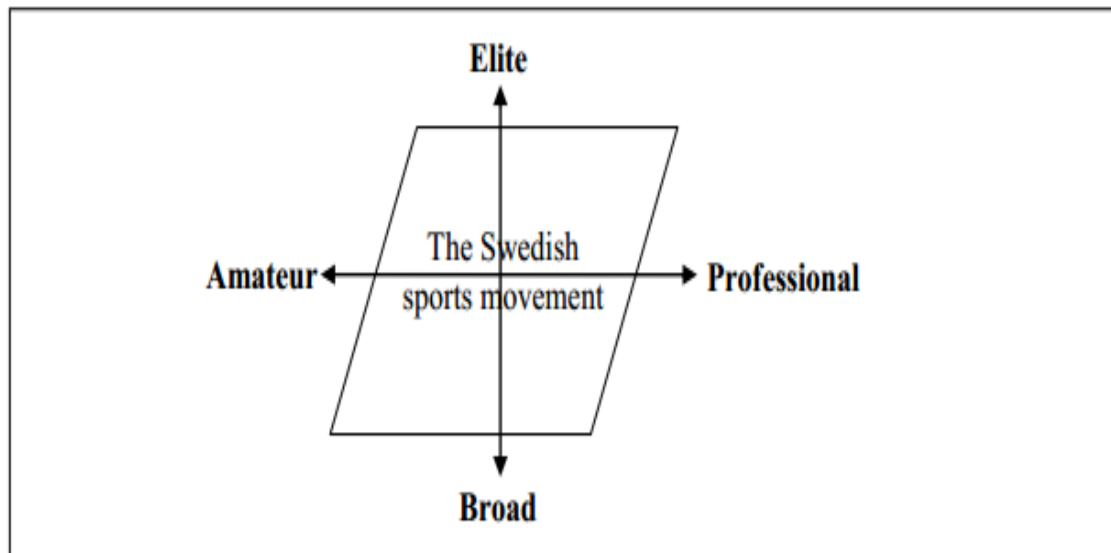
Institutional theory, as described by DiMaggio and Powell (1983), is founded on the idea that organizations have ambiguous purposes and must adapt to their surroundings in order to obtain legitimacy for their operations (as quoted in Stenling & Fahlén, 2009). The goal of institutional theory is to figure out how and why certain aspects of the environment influence organizational behavior (Washington & Patterson, 2012). The environment is made up of several stakeholders with varying expectations, and "[i]nstitutional theory advocates conceptualizing such demands as 'institutional logics'" (Carlson-Wall et al., 2016, p.47). An institutional logic is similar to a "interpretive scheme," which is defined as "a collection of ideas, beliefs, and values

that create dominant perceptions of what an organization should accomplish, how it should do it, and how it should be assessed" (Gammelsaeter, 2010, p.574). To be more specific, the primary premise is that each sets of players in the environment have their own interpretative scheme or institutional logic that they contribute to an organization. For example, a group of state players may apply a political logic to an organization, while media actors apply a media logic, and so on. However, these institutional logics are not simply used by players outside the organization; the organization itself uses them to guide its own activities. Institutional plurality refers to the condition in which organizations face pressure from many, sometimes contradictory institutional logics (Scott, 2008). One organizational method for dealing with institutional complexity is structural differentiation, which "means separating an organization into multiple components, each of which may function independently and according to the dictates of 'their' institutional logic" (Carlsson-Wall et. Al, p.48). The issue, however, is that the sub-units must be integrated because they are part of the same organization.

### 3.7. THE SWEDISH SPORT MODEL AND INSTITUTIONAL LOGICS IN SWEDISH SPORTS

Sports are regulated in Sweden as an autonomous volunteer organization (Riksidrottsförbundet, 2012). Sport clubs are non-profit organizations that generally rely on unpaid labor. In Sweden, the sports organizational style is defined by a bottom-up approach with a strong emphasis on member governance. The state has traditionally sponsored Swedish sport clubs through government funds (Kilger & Börjesson, 2015), and the Swedish sports movement's key tenet is that everyone should be able to engage in sports. Volunteer athletic clubs were seen as contributing to public welfare and building democracy as early as the 1940s (Stenling & Fahlén, 2009). However, market and economic demands have steadily altered Swedish sports. As a result, there is a growing interest in investigating the existence of various institutional logics in Swedish sports. Furthermore, Swedish sport groups and federations organize activities in all of the above-mentioned categories. They have both recreational activities with the goal of attracting as many participants as possible (broad/amateur) and activities for chosen athletes who desire to compete at a national

or international level (elite/professional). These conditions place a significant demand on sport organizations, which are susceptible to a variety of factors emanating from many institutions (Stenling & Fahlén, 2009).



*Figure 9: The structure of Swedish sports model, (Stenling & Fahlén , 2009, p.130).*

Stenling and Fahlén (2009) discovered three prevailing logics in Swedish volunteer clubs in six different sports through interviews, which are summarized in Table 1.

The authors also advise that the logics are prioritized in a certain sequence. The result-oriented and commercialization logics are overshadowing the sport-for-all reasoning because they are simpler to quantify.

Carlsson-Wall et al. (2016) discovered two institutional logics in Swedish football clubs: the sports logic, which stems from institutional demands for athletic achievement, and the business logic, which is concerned with financial performance.

Moreover, Petrelius Karlberg's (2012) approach describes a voluntary movement logic and a commercial logic, but she also includes a media logic. She contends that sports are increasingly consumed and experienced through the media, and that sport groups must examine how to structure their events in order to obtain media attention.

As a result of this rationale, greater focus is placed on identifying exceptional talents about whom the media may write.

Logics	Sport-for-all	Result-oriented	Commercialization/ professionalization
<b>Domain</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fostering of democratic, social and moral values</li> <li>• - Open to all regardless of age, ethnicity, religion, sexual preferences and social class</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Competitive sport</li> <li>• Open to those who wish to compete, and preferably do it well</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focus on the exchange value of sport</li> <li>• Related activities such as restaurants and arena companies are eligible</li> </ul>

*Table 1: Stenling & Fahlén (2009, p.131)- Prevailing logics in sport (adapted).*

## CHAPTER 4. COSMA

### 4.1. INTRODUCTION

Over the past 20 years, sport management degree programs across the country have grown in both size and popularity (Helyar, 2006). These degree programs offer a variety of different courses that cover the broad spectrum of the sport industry, including areas such as professional, collegiate, and amateur sports, sport marketing, sport psychology, and sport management, facilities/event management, to name a few (Jones, Brooks, & Mak, 2008). Some majors are suspected of teaching certain areas of the sport industry more than others, making certain skills unavailable to students who want to go into those specific areas that do not get as much attention (Jones, Brooks, & Mak, 2008). Many of these skills are not learned in the classroom, but through experiential learning as students participate in practicum and internships (Young & Baker, 2004). Sport management majors typically require some type of hands-on experience to earn a degree in sport Management (NASPE-NASSM, 1993).

This thesis will examine the course offerings of the 11 accredited sport management schools in the United States to determine what themes or differences exist among the schools and their courses. The research question of this thesis is: What are the similarities and/or differences in the curricula of the accredited sport management programs? The research conducted in this thesis can show how accredited sport management schools use their courses to gain accreditation and how these courses show that there are both similarities and differences between sport management schools and the courses they offer.

## 4.2. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 4.2.1. THE BEGINNINGS OF SPORT MANAGEMENT

The beginnings of the sport management program date back to the 1960s, and most of the credit goes to four men who were involved in establishing the first programs. These men go by the names of Earle Zeigler, Guy Lewis, Stephen Hardy, and Lawrence Fielding (de Wilde, Seifried & Adelman, 2010). Each of these men brought their business knowledge to the table and created a program that would prepare students for the business of sports (de Wilde, Seifried & Adelman, 2010). In order to become a standardized curriculum, a set of standards must be created that a program must meet before it can begin educating students. The National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE) and the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) joined together to form a task force to create and oversee a curriculum for sport management programs (NASPE-NASSM, 1993). These two groups also formed a council to review sport management programs to determine if an institution's programs meet the guidelines and standards established for them. These standards and guidelines include that documentation be submitted to the review board, that twenty percent of the courses be sport management courses, that the curriculum be adaptable to the growing interests of the students, that there be relationships with other programs in the institution (marketing, communications, etc.), and that there be a way to screen students for acceptance into the program (Letter, 2007). As noted earlier, 20% of the curriculum in a sport management program must consist of sport management courses developed and taught by faculty who have worked or are working in the sport industry to be considered a valid sport management program (NASPE-NASSM, 1993). Courses in the program curriculum must also cover 10 different areas of the industry, including behavioral dimensions, management and organization, ethics, marketing, communications, finance, economics, legal aspects, governance, and practical experience (NASPE-NASSM, 1993).



## 4.2.2. ACCREDITATION

There is a process that colleges and universities can go through to promote the validity and quality of their sport management program called accreditation.

Accreditation is a means of demonstrating to the public that the school's sport management program and curriculum are of high quality and that the program produces professional and quality graduates.

Just like entering a degree program, a sport management program must apply for accreditation, except that accreditation is not based on meeting predetermined standards, but on whether learning outcomes and assignments are met (Jacobsen & Merckx, 2008). In order to have a sport management program accredited, a College or college through the Commission on Sport Management Accreditation Council, commonly known as COSMA (Jacobsen & Merckx, 2008). COSMA has developed an accreditation philosophy to show what sports management programs accept when they accept the label of an accredited program. It lists several standards, including focusing on the quality of the output rather than the input, faculty striving for excellence in sport management education, and achieving principles that allow for measuring the output that sport management programs provide to students. Schools must also demonstrate that their courses in their sport management program are consistent with the requirements of the COSMA Handbook (COSMA, 2009).

Accreditation of a sport management program can be of great benefit to a college and/or college, but accreditation of a sport management program has both positive and negative aspects. Accreditation not only benefits sport management programs, but the institution as a whole (Letter, 2007). According to Letter (2007), an accredited program helps to increase the prestige of an institution, attract new students to the program, show the professionalism of faculty, and demonstrate the quality of academics in the program and institution. Faculty can expect higher salaries, a higher reputation among students, and a better professional image. Students can expect a quality education, be better qualified to enter the workforce, and have a higher professional standing when they graduate (Letter, 2007).

Although there are only a few, the negative aspects of accreditation must be presented in conjunction with the positive. With an accredited degree program, institutions face

more obstacles in terms of budget and losing students to other low-cost sport management programs. Faculty will have to spend more time on their courses and have less flexibility in designing their courses within the accredited curriculum. Students will have less time for electives and will have to focus more on accredited courses (Letter, 2007). Accreditation has both advantages and disadvantages and is very time consuming, but the attention it brings to an institution and the sport management program itself is something that cannot be overstated Management program itself is something that cannot be beat (Jacobsen & Merckx, 2008).

Growth of sports management programs In the many years that have passed since the first sport management program was introduced, both the sport industry and sport management programs have changed in many ways. In 1970, only Ohio College and the College of Massachusetts offered sport management programs at Massachusetts, while today over 300 universities offer such a program (Helyar, 2006). Sport management programs across the country have attracted a great deal of attention from students interested in the sport industry, which has affected the way the curriculum is taught. Today, sport management majors have such a wide variety of sport-related careers that majors cannot cover all aspects of the sport industry (Jones, Brooks, & Mak, 2008).

The question of what is a successful and appropriate curriculum has been debated for some time by educators who wonder what type of curriculum can help students prepare and acquire the skills they need to be ready for the professional world (Peterson & Pierce, 2009). The first courses that the initial sport management majors took in their early days dealt with the educational side of recreation programs as well as sports programs and how to manage each of those programs. Today's sport management majors have a greater variety and broader range of course topics, ranging from professional and amateur sports to health/fitness/wellness to marketing and event management (Danylchuk, 2003).

The future of sports management depends on many factors, but there are changes and movements toward other study methods facing these programs. Experts believe that degree programs will become more diverse and specialized, more global and international, while business courses will become more concentrated and sport courses will become decentralized (Danylchuk, 2003). Sport management majors will

also be more research-based as there is a broader range of issues in the industry. It will be beneficial for students to answer these questions through various methods and approaches they learn in the classroom (Amis & Silk, 2005; Doherty, 2013). Programs will also need to draw on theories and practices from other disciplines and combine them with sport management theories to provide a more diverse picture of today's industry while providing students with a broader range of skills (Chalip, 2006). The biggest issues that the programs have faced during their growth is the lack of credibility of the program itself, as it has not been a solid profession for as long as other programs and this could affect the credibility of sport management programs. They also struggle with the lack of support from other programs at their schools as well as low paying jobs when students leave college (Danylchuk, 2003). The sport management program as a whole is making great efforts to improve the program and the quality of students it produces, but will face many challenges along the way to improvement.

A pioneer application that could be used by both academics and practitioners that have been or are in the process of being accredited by COSMA is GSMC COSMA tracking matrix (Tsipoura, Sakellariou, Glykas & Tsimpidou, 2022).

### 4.3. GLOBALIZATION OF SPORT MANAGEMENT

The sports industry is getting bigger and bigger every year, so big that the popularity of sports management is becoming a global trend. According to Ratten (2011), people around the world follow sports, athletes, and teams in a variety of ways: radio, television, newspaper, internet, and word of mouth. Professional sports leagues, such as the NBA, MLB, and NHL, are attempting to gain a foothold in global markets to increase brand awareness worldwide (Li, Hofacre, & Mahony 2001, cited in Li, Ammon, & Kanters, 2002).

One can see the NFL slowly expanding its brand by hosting games in both Canada and London. NASCAR, although only known as an American sport, is also trying to expand its brand to other countries by streaming races online and offering its websites in different languages (Ratten, 2011). This trend can also be seen in the increasing popularity of the Olympics, Fifa World Cup, Rugby World Cup. These organizations bring together all the great athletes from around the world in one place to display the

sport and their skills. The 2012 London Olympics was the most watched event of all time with 219.4 million viewers ( US TV ), with NBC averaging 31.1 million viewers (Etkin, 2012). As the popularity of sports grows around the world, so does the number of jobs created.

#### 4.3.1. GLOBALIZATION OF SPORT MANAGEMENT CURRICULUM

Sports have spread all over the world, which means there are jobs in sports all over the world, and schools need to recognize that. Li, Ammon & Kanters (2002) state that there is an increasing demand for people who can work in international markets, and that universities should make sure that faculty know that their courses do not have to be just domestically focused, but should include examples as well as information about international events in the sports industry. The curriculum, approach to the curriculum, and offering new courses that address the internationalization of sport management is a great way to expand the opportunities that a sport management program can offer students and help them expand their skills not only for domestic jobs, but also internationally (Li, Ammon, & Kanters, 2002). In order to strengthen the curriculum and meet the growing trend of globalization, many programs encourage their students to complete internships abroad, take foreign language courses to strengthen their understanding of another culture, and choose an "international studies" minor in addition to their sport management degree (Li, Ammon, & Kanters, 2002). Sport management curricula have traditionally been domestically focused, so their content has much to do with the country in which they are located. Professors try to incorporate international studies and current events into their classes to keep up with the global growth of sports (Li, Ammon, & Kanters, 2002).

It is difficult to teach a subject that is not known to the local professors who have received little or no training on the subject, and if the professors do not know much about it, it is difficult to include international courses in the curriculum when people know so little about the subject (Li, Ammon, & Kanters, 2002). The globalization of sport, as unknown and confusing as it may be, should not be ignored, but rather researched so that educators can slowly develop courses that teach these international strategies to students interested in the growing industry of international sport.

## 4.4. Experiential Learning

Experiential learning is becoming increasingly popular in colleges and universities because of the benefits and experiences it brings to participating students (Bennett, Henson, & Drane, 2003; Weible & McClure, 2011). Experiential learning can be anything a student does to learn more about the industry and the different skills that come with that specific aspect of the industry. A lot of theory is taught in the classroom, students need to somehow make the connection between the classroom and the real world, and that is what experiential learning does for them. In this way, students can test their knowledge of sport management, gain real-world experience, and find out what areas of the industry they like and do not like (Young & Baker, 2004).

The most important factor students seem to draw from these experiential learning programs is the concept of real world experience, a sense of what the workplace is really like, not just the theory learned in courses (Cook, Parker, & Pettijohn, 2004).

According to Cunningham and Sherman (2008), a successful internship has the ability to broaden and deepen a student's educational experience and leadership skills. Students who participate in experiential learning say their experiences have increased their confidence, made them feel more prepared for the real world, improved their social skills, helped them work toward their career goals, and reduced the reality shock of what a job in the professional world looks like (Bennett, Henson, & Drane, 2003; Taylor, 1988). Universities and colleges typically endorse student participation in internships because it allows them to get their name out in the community, build relationships with the school and businesses in the area, and provide their students with an experience that will help them with their future career goals (Cook, Parker, & Pettijohn, 2004; Divine, et al., 2007; Moghaddam, 2011; Stratta, 2004; Weible & McClure, 2011).

Relationships are also formed between the intern and company staff, allowing students to build a network and assemble a group of people they can turn to in the future for help finding a job, a referral, or just advice about the industry. Ross and Beggs (2007) discuss how an intern and their supervisor should agree on what the internship means, what values are important to learn, and the importance of building a

relationship that the student can use in the future. Students also need to feel comfortable in these internships, not just gaining experience and working for companies. Students pay attention to the structures of the internship, the demographics of the area surrounding the internship site, how the internship relates to their future career goals, and whether or not the internship is paid (Hergert, 2009).

Some students travel across the country to complete an internship, and all of these factors are important when taking such a large risk. This information shows that experiential learning is not only beneficial to the students and the program, but also to the institutions. Making contacts, building relationships, and gaining valuable experience are the main goals of an internship. Many factors come into play when selecting an internship, and students need to be aware of these factors before deciding to participate in an internship.

#### 4.4.1. EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING IN SPORT MANAGEMENT

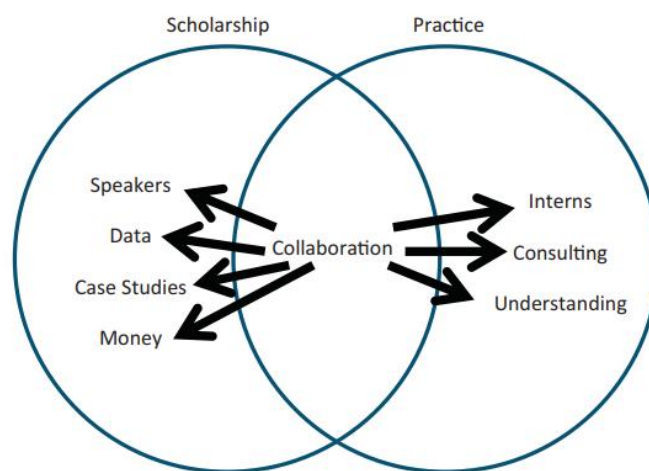
Colleges and universities offer many different degree programs, some of which require experiential learning and some of which don't. Sport management is one of the degree programs that require a certain number of hours of experiential learning (NASPE-NASSM, 1993).

In experiential learning through internships, students learn skills about the industry that they probably wouldn't learn in the classroom, so each degree program requires a certain number of field experiences outside the classroom, totaling about 15% of the curriculum (Kelley, et al., 1994). Social interaction is an important aspect in the preparation of a sport management student, and internships are a great way to combine social interaction and classroom theory (Bennett, Henson, & Drane, 2003; Irwin & Ryan, 2013).

In order for students to gain the most benefit from an internship, Young and Baker (2004) recommend (2004) suggest that students record and log their experiences during the internship to be summarized in a final paper at the end. This will help students reflect on their experience and really see what experiential learning can do to improve their preparation for their future careers (Young & Baker, 2004). It's important for interns to set goals for themselves for their internship so they have

something to work towards and have their guidelines and goals in mind (Charlton, 2007).

One of the most important factors of a sport management internship is to connect what is learned in the classroom to the experiences one will have in the professional world. Students can learn as much as they want in the classroom, but it does no good if they don't apply the skills they learn in an environment where those skills will be tested (Irwin & Ryan, 2013).



*Figure 10: Academy-practice beneficiary model (Irwin & Ryan, 2013, p. 15).*

An important aspect of a sport management curriculum is also a class that emphasizes experiential learning. There are an increasing number of courses that allow students to gain experience in the classroom, such as sales, event management, and sponsorship, because this allows students to gain experience outside of the classroom without having to complete an internship (McKelvey & Southall, 2008; Pauline & Pauline, 2008; Pierce & Peterson, 2010; Peterson, 2011). Students who took these courses felt more comfortable entering an internship because they had already gained real-world experience and felt more comfortable with the tasks they were assigned in their internships (Pierce, Peterson, & Meadows, 2011).

This research indicates that a blend of experiential learning in sport management courses and internships in the sport industry is the best way to prepare sport management students for the professional world. The internships allow students to network and build relationships with their supervisors so they can provide help,

guidance and advice in the near future. Experiential learning and internships in the sport management industry are both tools that help students transition from college to the professional world.

Excellent undergraduate sport management education requires coverage of the major content areas of the sport management field. Therefore, the Common Professional Component (CPC) subject areas, as described below, should be adequately addressed in the undergraduate sport management curriculum.

**Table 2:** *Common Professional Component (CPC) subjects areas.*

- A) Social, psychological and international foundations of sportmanagement
  - 1) Sport management principles
  - 2) Sport leadership
  - 3) Sport operations management/event & venue management
  - 4) Sport Governance
- B) Ethics in sport management
- C) Sport Marketing & Communication
- D) Finance/Accounting/Economics
  - 1) Principles of sport finance
  - 2) Accounting
  - 3) Economics of sport
- E) Legal aspects of sport
- F) Integrative Experience, such as:
  - 1) Strategic Management/Policy
  - 2) Internship
  - 3) Capstone experience (an experience that allows a student to demonstrate the ability to synthesize and apply knowledge, such as a thesis, project, comprehensive exam, or course, etc.)



**Table 3: Common Courses in each Content Area\***

<b>Common Courses in each Content Area*</b>	
<b>Sport Management Principles</b>	Introduction to Sport Management
<b>Sport Leadership</b>	Principles of Management
<b>Sport Operations Management/Event and Venue Management</b>	Sport Event and Facility Management, Sport Facility Management
<b>Sport Governance</b>	Resource Management, Sports Governance, Sport Administration
<b>Ethics in Sport Management</b>	Issues and Ethics in Sport
<b>Sport Marketing and Communication</b>	Sport Marketing, Principles of Marketing, Public and Media Relations in Sport
<b>Principles of Sport Finance</b>	Sports Finance
<b>Accounting</b>	Principles of Accounting I, Principles of Accounting II, Financial Accounting, Managerial Accounting
<b>Economics of Sport</b>	Principles of Macroeconomics, Principles of Microeconomics
<b>Legal Aspects of Sport</b>	Legal Aspects of Sport/Sport Law
<b>Strategic Management/Policy</b>	Statistical Inference and Decision Making
<b>Internship</b>	Internship
<b>Capstone Experience</b>	Senior Seminar in Sport Management

\*Each school titles their courses different; results in the chart have titled that are used generally by most schools or are listed in there to give an example of what the common courses are.

## CHAPTER 5. MARKETING, SALES AND SUPPLY CHAIN MANAGEMENT: A CASE STUDY IN SPORTS MARKETING HUMAN RESOURCES COSTING.

In the present chapter a systematic literature survey on sales and marketing operations is presented with emphasis in supply chain management. Articles included in the survey are categorized in four main categories identified namely: Supply Chain Management, Sales and Operations Planning, Artificial Intelligence and Big Data Analytics. The theory of Sports Marketing is presented as well as an effort -based costing case study of a team of Sports Marketing professionals working in marketing, sales and supply chain management. The costing case study approach provides activity costs calculations as well as the required Full Time Equivalents per activity. Based on these calculations further performance metrics per activity are calculated.

### 5.1. INTRODUCTION.

Money saving and efficiency improvement are considered constant goals for most companies globally. A very useful and innovative tool, to succeed in all business areas, is Sales and Operations Planning (S&OP). As a result of the new challenges faced by companies/organizations, to achieve the aforementioned goals, there is a growing interest from academics/researchers in the field of sales and marketing.

For example, the effectiveness of applying Artificial Intelligence in supply chain management (Dogru et.al, 2020; Toorajipour et.al, 2021), the use of a structural equation model (Goh & Eldridge, 2019) or the adoption of the circular economy (CE) business models for operations management (Jabbour et al., 2019), are just some of the frameworks presented in the literature survey above.

Facing this dynamic, the sports industry could not remain unaffected requiring innovative and integrated sales and programming activities in order to implement new marketing strategies (Niessen & Bocken, 2021). Finally, in the context of the present research, a case study was contacted presenting the example of human resource costing of a core team consisting of six sports marketing employees.

The costing approach used was an effort-based costing (Glykas, 2011; Sahini, Nikou & Glykas, 2022) in which workers' costs allocated per activity are calculated based on the percentage each employee devotes per activity.

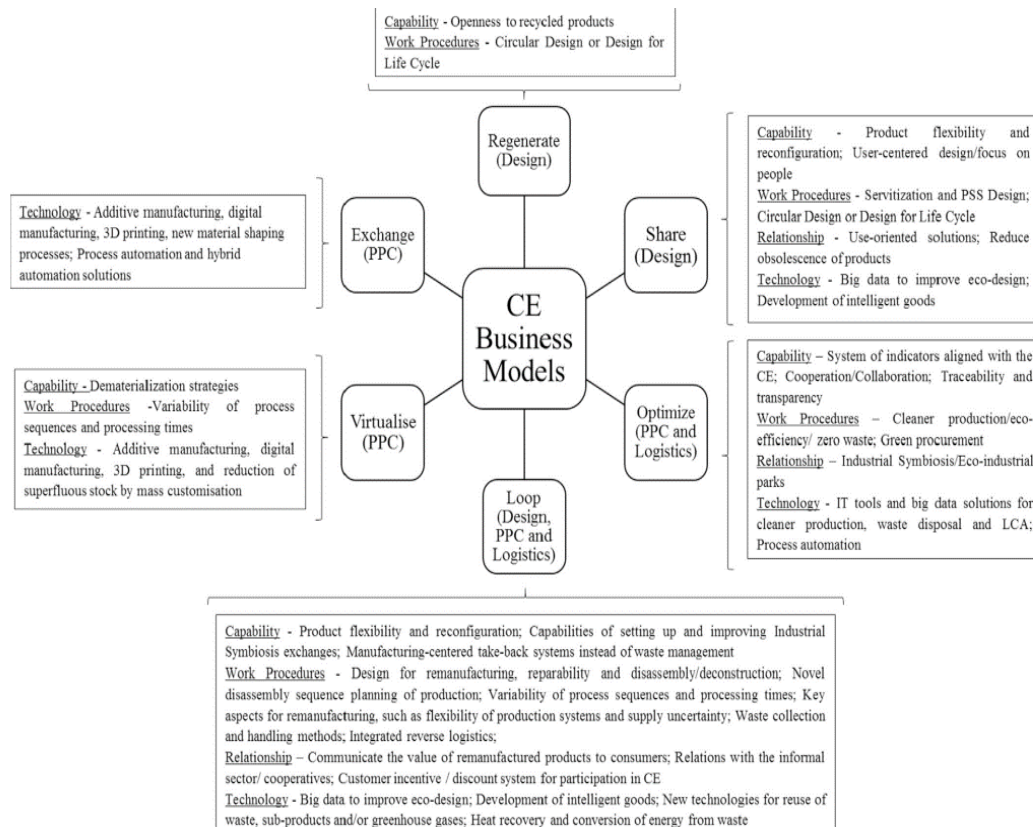
## 5.2. SUPPLY CHAIN MANAGEMENT (SCM).

Sales and Operations Planning S&OP is a process that mainly ensures balance between demand and supply and links supply chain planning with the connected and involved functional departments. The main benefits/advantages of harmonization all stages in the supply chain and evaluating financial information, is a better view of future capacity or sales problems, higher customer service and faster changes in production rates. Overall, there is an improvement in fulfilling the customer's wishes. To succeed in company objectives and coordinate production with forecasted demand, the application of good forecasts and a variety of simulations are considered very important.

Jabbour et.al (2019) conducted a systematic literature review for the identification and examination of the following key areas: (1) the new demands facing operations management decision-making related to changes in capabilities, work processes, relationships and technologies within and between organizations (2) the specific changes that operations management decision making must make in order to support CE business models (based on the ReSOLVE framework) and (3) guidelines to help planners, businesses, and supply chain managers develop the necessary skills. Specifically, the research attempts to examine and conceptualize the implications of adopting circular economy (CE) business models on operations management (OM) decision-making processes, in the areas of product design, logistics production planning and control chain (Figure ).

Huang et.al (2020) also provided an extensive literature survey (evaluating 152 peer-reviewed journal articles that meet the inclusion criteria) to identify research focus and gaps in the value of social media in OSCM, supported by an appropriate conceptual framework. One of the survey's findings highlight the lack of control/governance in the way companies use social media data for OSCM activities.

In contrast, Talwar et.al (2021) limited their scientific research on investigation of the dimensions, advantages, areas, possibilities and obstacles of Big DATA implementation in OSCM. The study concluded on the development of a conceptual framework, the Dimensions-Avenues-Benefits (DAB) model for the adoption of BDA.



**Figure 11:** How can OM decision-making support each CE business model. (Jabbour et al., 2019, p.1533).

Furthermore, Hung Goh & Stephen Eldridge (2019) revealed evidence on the negative relationship between S&OP Process/Planning and Supply Chain Performance. The study has focused on elaborating and extending existing knowledge, and on the links between S&OP implementation and Supply Chain Performance. Furthermore, a structural equation model was developed in which six S&OP coordination mechanisms hypothetically contribute to improved supply chain performance. The model was tested using a global survey of 568 experienced S&OP professionals.

Additionally, Yu & Huo (2018) examined the effects of relational capital on supply chain quality integration (SCQI) and operational performance, from the holistic

perspective of the entire supply chain. They conclude that building strong relationships with supply chain partners is the key-factor for companies to win tenders.

Dogru et.al (2020), focused on the analysis of the recent applications of artificial intelligence in operations management (OM) and supply chain management (SCM). They highlight the main challenges and opportunities for the use of artificial intelligence in these industries. Finally, current research topics with significant value potential in these areas are listed.

More recent research (Toorajipour et.al, 2021) attempts to determine the contribution of artificial intelligence (AI) to supply chain management (SCM). Research outcomes indicate that the most widespread artificial intelligence techniques are 1st ANN, 2nd FL and 3rd the ABS/MAS. However, they aim to identify current and potential artificial intelligence techniques that can improve both the study and practice of SCM.

Petri Helo & Yuqiuge Hao (2021) also conducted a review of the concept of AI and SCM focused on timely and critical analysis of AI-driven supply chain research and applications. They specifically emphasise that the SC should be digitised and increasingly dependent on technology in the form of IoT and sensors throughout the SC.

Matos et.al (2020) point out the contingencies, trade-offs and tensions of sustainable operations and supply chain management (OSCM), emphasizing that the above should be considered inevitable.

Stolze et. al (2018) argue that focusing on the decision-making and behaviors of front-line individuals could be a basis for understanding cross-functional integration and firm-level outcomes. Supply chain integration elaboration through network theory could provide useful information about the driving forces behind CPG marketing execution in the retail supply chain. Finally, the present study makes use of social networks, through inductive qualitative methods based on grounded theory and ethnography.

LeMay et.al (2017) compile current definitions of supply chain management in practical and analytical use, develop standards for evaluating definitions and apply

them to the most readily available definitions of the term. Finally, they list suggested definitions for consideration.

Furthermore, Min, Zacharia & Smith (2019) point out the key market and technological changes that have occurred in SCM. They believe that research with an emphasis on theorizing the very nature, market, and technological changes will lead to the transformation of SCM. Also, this article highlights the key markets and technological changes that have occurred in SCM.

In addition, the relationship between GSCM pressures, practices and performance is emphasized under the moderating effect of quick response (QR) technology (for Chinese firms) in Li et.al (2020) theoretical approach. Institutional Theory, Resource-Based Theory (RBV) and GSCM literature are combined along with the use of statistical analysis of collected data and case studies from companies in China. The outcomes revealed that the effect of GSCM practices on negative financial performance is smaller than on positive financial performance.

Nemati et.al (2017) elaborated on the investigation of the benefits of S&OP through (FI-S&OP), (PI-S&OP) and (DP) models (for a multi-site manufacturing company in Iran) demonstrate a slight superiority of FI-S&OP over the PI-S&OP model and a strong dominance over the DP model.

Feng and Shanthikumar (2017) focus on two aspects of supply chain management, namely, demand management, manufacturing and the way that Big Data can change the above. They summarize some relevant concepts that have emerged with Big Data and present several prototype models to show how these concepts can lead to a rethinking of this research. They highlight that using Big Data is not just about extending our models using additional functions but it can also provide understandings for general contexts without having to postulate the real data as inputs.

Tsay et.al. (2018) examined Production and Operations Management (POM) in relation to outsourcing in the supply chain context. Ardito et.al (2018) presented innovative efforts on the development of digital technologies to manage the interface between supply chain management, marketing processes and the role they play in sustaining supply chain marketing (SCM- M ). They present patent analysis and real examples and highlighted the role these solutions play in acquiring, storing and processing information for the integration of SCM-M.

### 5.3. SALES AND OPERATIONS PLANNING.

Nowadays more and more industries adopt Sales and Operations Planning aiming to line up everyday operations with corporate strategy. Although the process was primarily applied on the supply chain to balance supply and demand, it has evolved into holistic business management and decision-making models. In its advanced form, Sales and Operations Planning involves, in addition to supply chain and production, sales, marketing and management. These types of advanced organization-wide processes are often cited by successful companies as their "key to success" in increasing their performance and reducing their operating costs.

According to Wery et.al (2018) an optimization simulation-based framework is proposed for new product demand management. A log analysis simulator is used in conjunction with a tactical planning model to perform sales and operations planning. The plan provides information to the decision maker about which orders for specialized products to accept, what to produce and when, as well as the equipment arrangements to use and the raw material to purchase/consume in each period. Through an industry-inspired case study, it shows how the framework can lead to significant benefits. While it is concluded that this framework allows finding the best combination of scenarios.

Danese et.al (2017) analyzed the execution of the transition between maturity stages in S&OP, by comparing three case studies of S&OP transitions with different initiation and destination maturity stages. The study concluded that moving to a more advanced stage of S&OP maturity requires a balanced execution of all key dimensions.

In addition Darmawan et.al (2018) present a framework for developing a decision support model to acquire a sales and operations plan (S&OP) that integrates production planning and price promotion decisions. They also aim to identify gaps in the value of social media in OSCM, supported by an appropriate conceptual framework. Research outcomes point out that the resulting qualitative insights can be generalized to other problems with a different set of parameters.

Pereira et.al (2020) provided a review of existing decision-making models, e.g. optimization tools that support S&OP in order to present and characterize S&OP from a modeling perspective. A holistic framework encompassing the decisions involved in this planning activity is presented. An interesting find of the survey, in which the

papers were classified according to the modeling approaches used by previous researchers, was that there are no synthesis models that characterize the overall S&OP problem.

Noroozi et.al (2017) review of sales and operations planning (S&OP) in process industries (PIs), was aiming to investigate the current state of S&OP in such industries compared to the discrete manufacturing sector and to identify the specific characteristics of PIs that can be influential at the S&OP level. They conclude that there is a need for conceptual models with an emphasis on specific characteristics of PIs.

Additionally, a maturity framework for sustainability integration is proposed, guided by the evolution of sustainable operations capabilities based on Machado et.al (2017) theoretical approach. Furthermore, prompting a company to develop standards of operations excellence with an emphasis on long-term profits, innovation and continuous improvement, the five maturity levels in sustainable operations management are emphasized.

According to Kristensen et.al (2018) S&OP response variables are a product of S&OP related variables in addition to being dependent on S&OP maturity. Specifically the study describes-categorizes the ways that current literature contributes to sales-operations planning (S&OP) research, and the ways that environmental variables influence planning S&OP and frames future areas for context-based S&OP research. Studies for review were retrieved through a keyword search of five relevant databases, manual searches of relevant journals and collection of references in relevant papers. In total, 571 papers published between 2000 and 2017 were evaluated and 68 papers were included in the review.

In addition, Bijmolt et.al (2021) developed a framework with the following key decision areas: (i) assortment and inventory, (ii) distribution and delivery, and (iii) returns. For each of the areas, the key decisions that affect or concern both the customer journey and the product flow are first identified. Then, for each decision, the marketing and operational goals and the tensions that arise when those goals are not perfectly aligned are described. Opportunities to alleviate these tensions are also discussed, and possible directions for future research aimed at addressing these tensions and opportunities are presented. While highlighting the ways in which an integrated marketing-business perspective can be formulated to address these interdependencies.



Ambrose et.al (2018) attempt to capture the applications of social identity theory to the study of sales and operations planning to show whether fostering superior identity can aid integration efforts in this unique cross-functional team environment. The importance of senior team identity in achieving sales performance and operations planning was emphasized during the research process.

Also, Groza et. al (2021) argue that the sales manager's intellectual stimulation contributes to the promotion of organizational innovation and, in turn, sales growth. They conclude that the degree to which the sales department is embedded in the firm strengthens this positive relationship. Furthermore, the results point out that sales manager's intellectual stimulation can lead to organizational innovation.

In addition to the above, Kreuter et. al (2021) conducted a review of the empirical and theoretical perspectives on sales and operations planning (S&OP). They identify three main streams of research: S&OP and performance, S&OP implementation, and integration of S&OP plans. The research also included an empirical S&OP research based more on the theory of two effects: applying general theories from other fields and developing internal theories through middle-range theorists. Although, review was limited to empirical studies rather than conceptual work, research results can support the development of solutions to improve the effectiveness of S&OP and real-time evidence-based decisions.

Also, Wang et.al (2021) study the interface between operations and finance in risk management. Through methodologies they systematically present the progress of research from the beginning to its recent findings (through analytical, conceptual or empirical approaches). Finally, to process any new information, they trace in detail the historical development in recent contributions and thus identify possible inconsistencies in the literature as future research directions.

According to Stentoft et.al (2020), the lack of implementation skills does not affect the relevance of S&OP. The aim of the study was to understand the relationship between the reasons for not using Sales and Operations Planning (S&OP), the perceived relevance of S&OP and business performance.

Finally, a literature review of sales and operations planning is presented by Nabil et al. (2018) as well as various researches and models developed. The outcomes of the survey emphasizes the main purpose of research involving operational issues, tactical and strategic in a context subject to different constraints.

## 5.4. ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE (AI).

Artificial intelligence or machine learning is an approach of using massive data sets to train machines to perform tasks in semi-supervised ways. This applies to the entire manufacturing lifecycle, from problem identification to communication and then problem resolution. Automation is essential to streamline repetitive tasks such as scheduling and rescheduling, planning, and data tracking. Artificial intelligence should touch all aspects of the manufacturing value chain, from the shop floor to management systems and resource development systems.

Dogru et.al (2020) present the recent applications of artificial intelligence in operations management (OM) and supply chain management (SCM) highlight the main challenges and opportunities for the use of artificial intelligence in the industries above. Specifically, innovations in healthcare, manufacturing and retail activities are considered, as collectively these three sectors account for the majority of AI innovations in business as well as growing problem areas. Finally, current research topics with significant value potential in these areas are listed.

Furthermore, Toorajipour et.al (2021) seek to determine the contribution of artificial intelligence (AI) to supply chain management (SCM). They aim to identify current and potential artificial intelligence techniques that can improve both the study and practice of SCM. While they conclude that the most widespread artificial intelligence techniques are 1st ANN, 2nd FL and 3rd ABS/MAS.

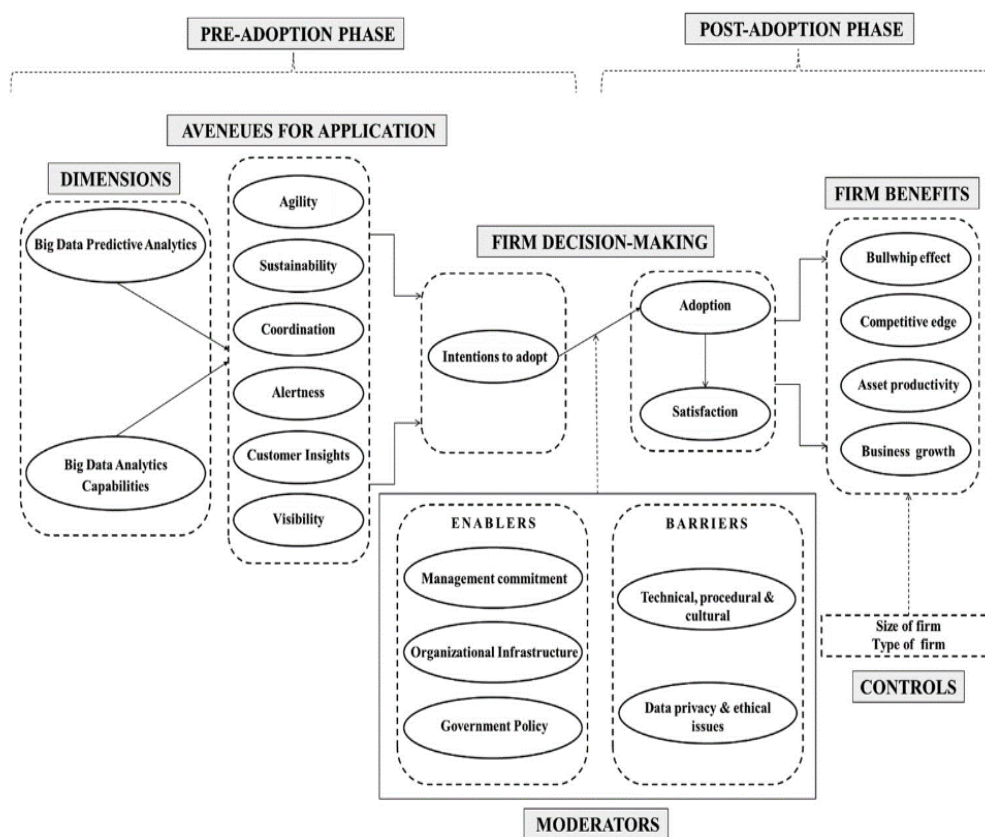
Additionally, based on Petri Helo & Yuqiuge Hao (2021) overview of the concept of AI and SCM, an extra focusing on timely and critical analysis of AI-driven supply chain research and applications is given. Furthermore, they emphasize the reasons that the SC should be digitized and increasingly dependent on technology in the form of IoT and sensors throughout the SC.

Finally, Han et. al (2021) explores the approaches that artificial intelligence can be used to enable B2B marketing innovation. The study further categorizes the use of AI for B2B marketing innovation into five areas, identifying the main trends in the literature.

## 5.5. BIG DATA ANALYTICS (BDA).

Data analytics solutions are significantly important for ensuring efficient business operations and timely logistics and operations. The field of data analytics is applied to bring enhanced intelligence to the corporate decision-making engine. Also, BDA enables managers to understand their business dynamics, anticipate market changes and manage risks. Companies increasingly depend on data analytics to personalize products and services and scale digital platforms to match buyers with sellers.

According to Talwar et.al (2021) SLR is limited to investigating the dimensions, benefits, areas, opportunities and barriers of Big DATA implementation in OSCM. As a result of the SLR is the development of a conceptual framework (Figure 10) the Dimensions-Avenues-Benefits (DAB) model for the adoption of BDA.



*Figure 12: Dimensions-Avenues-Benefits model for BDA adaptation (DAB model, Talwar, et al., 2021).*

Even Schlegel et.al (2020) explore how big data analytics capabilities (BDAC) enable the implementation of integrated business planning (IBP) – the advanced form of sales and operations planning (S&OP) – offsetting increasing information processing

demands. The research model is based on organizational information processing theory (OIPT). They conclude that for the implementation of IBP in an organization related to effective and efficient decision making, BDAC is necessary.

In addition, Roden et.al (2017) explore how Big Data can be used in different sectors and examine the ways in which it encourages change in the basic operating models of organizations and point out that most existing research has so far focused on incremental improvements in functionality.

Finally, Feng & Shanthikumar (2017) focus on two aspects of supply chain management, namely, demand management, manufacturing and how Big Data can change the above. They summarize some relevant concepts that have emerged with Big Data and present several prototype models to show how these concepts can lead to a rethinking of this research. While, they point out that using Big Data is not just about extending our models with additional functions.

**Table 4: Literature Survey of Marketing, Sales and Supply Chain Management.**

Reference	Summary	Approach Methodology	Products-Services-Subjects	Cite Score
Wery et.al (2018)	<b>It proposes an optimization simulation-based framework for dealing with the kinds of problems.</b>	A log analysis simulator is used in conjunction with a tactical planning model to perform sales and operations planning.	Engineering, Computer science	16.9
Jabbour et.al (2019)	Conceptualizes the implications of circular economy (CE) business models on operations management (OM)	Literature review	Business, Management, Accounting Decision Sciences Engineering Environmental sciences	15.8
Danese et.al (2017)	This article focuses on the so-called S&OP "maturity models", which describe the successive stages in the evolution of the S&OP process according to a precise set of dimensions.	Case studies of S&OP transitions with different initiation and destination maturity stages have been compared.	Business, Management and Accounting, Decision Sciences, Engineering	14.6
Agus Darmawan, et. al. (2018)	Presents a new modeling framework for the development of a sales and operations plan that integrates promotional and production planning decisions.	Incorporates a market appearance-brand choice-purchase quantity model and a mixed integer linear programming model to develop an optimal promotion-production plan.	Business, Management and Accounting, Decision Sciences, Engineering	14.6
Huang, S., Potter, A., & Eysers, D. (2020)	It identifies gaps in the value of social media in OSCM, within a conceptual framework.	A systematic review of English language articles was conducted following the procedures outlined by Denyer and Tranfield (2009).	Business, Management, Accounting, Decision Sciences, Engineering	14.6
Talwar et. al (2021)	The present study conducted an SLR with the aim of synthesizing the existing literature on Big Data implementation in OSCM.	Literature Review (SLR)	Business, Management and Accounting, Decision Sciences, Engineering	14.6

Pereira et. al (2020)	This paper reviews existing decision-making models, e.g. optimization tools that support S&OP.	Literature review based on the methodology proposed by Thome et al. (2016).	Business, Management, Accounting, Economics, Econometrics, Finance, Decision Sciences, Engineering	14.3
Hung Goh & Stephen Eldridge (2019)	This paper investigates the effect of S&OP on supply chain	Structural equation model	Business, Management, Accounting, Economics, Econometrics, Finance, Decision Sciences, Engineering	14.3
Noroozi & Wikner (2017)	This paper provides a systematic literature review of sales and operations planning (S&OP) in process industries (PIs).	Literature review	Business, Management, Accounting, Decision Sciences, Engineering, Finance	14.3
Machado et.al (2017)	This paper proposes a maturity framework for sustainability integration, driven by the evolution of sustainable operations capabilities.	Literature review and results from two panel studies conducted with academics and practitioners.	Business, Management and Accounting Decision Sciences Engineering, Finance	14.3
Yu & Huo (2018)	This paper aims to examine the effects of relational capital on supply chain quality integration (SCQI) and operational performance.	Applied structural equation modeling with LISREL to test a conceptual model based on data collected from 308 companies in China.	Business, Management and Accounting	13.4
Dogru & Keskin (2020)	It examines recent applications of artificial intelligence in operations management (OM) and supply chain management (SCM).	Case Study	Business, Management and Accounting Decision Sciences, Computer Science	13.1
Kristensen & Jonsson (2018)	Categorizes how the current literature contributes to sales-operations planning (S&OP)	A systematic literature review	Business, Management and Accounting Social science	11.4
Schlegel et.al (2020)	This study explores how big data analytics capabilities (BDAC) enable the implementation of integrated business planning (IBP).	The research model is based on organizational information processing theory (OIPT) and a case study.	Business, Management, Accounting, Social science	11.4
Bijmolt et. al (2021)	A framework is developed with the three key decision areas: (i) assortment and inventory, (ii) distribution and delivery, and (iii) returns.	Key decisions affecting both the customer and the product flow are identified. For each decision, marketing and operational objectives are described as well as the tensions that arise when these objectives are not perfectly aligned.	Business, Management, Accounting, Marketing	11.2
Ambrose et.al (2018)	Applies social identity theory to the study of sales and operations planning.	Responses from key informants representing middle management from the sales and operations functional areas were used.	Marketing	11.2
Toorajipour et.al (2021)	This paper seeks to identify the contribution of artificial intelligence (AI) to supply chain management (SCM).	Systematic review of existing literature	Business, Management and Accounting	11.2
Petri & Yuqiuge (2021)	Provides an overview of the concept of AI and SCM and focuses on timely and critical research analysis of AI-driven supply chain applications.	Case study	Decision Sciences, Engineering, Business, Management, Accounting, Computer Science	11.1
Matos et.al (2020)	Explores (un)expected outcomes, trade-offs and tensions in sustainable OSCM	Literature review	Business, Management, Accounting, Decision Sciences	11.1
Roden et.al (2017)	Examines how Big Data can be applied in different areas in leading organizations and the ways it changes the basic operating models of organizations.	Case studies and implementation of a test framework.	Business, Management, Accounting, Decision Sciences, Engineering	11.1

Groza et. al (2021)	Examine how the intellectual stimulation of the sales manager helps to promote organizational innovation and, in turn, increase sales.	An online database of industrial enterprises from the United States was used for data collection. Random sample from 1000 B2B.	Business, Management, Accounting, Marketing	10.4
Martinez-Lopez et.al (2020)	Focuses on the IMM journal, with an extensive bibliometric analysis of the IMM from its inception in 1971 to 2017.	Bibliometric analysis.	Business, Management, Accounting	10.4
Stolze et. al (2018)	This research elaborates supply chain integration through network theory.	Applies social networks analysis, inductive qualitative methods based on grounded theory and ethnography.	Financially Business, Management and Accounting	10.2
LeMay et.al (2017)	Brings together definitions of supply chain management in practical and analytical use, develops standards for evaluating definitions, and applies them to the most readily available definitions of the term.	Collection of supply chain management definitions from journals, textbooks, universities, industry associations, and the Internet.	Business, Management and Accounting Social science	10.1
Min et. al. (2019)	This article highlights the key markets and technological changes that have occurred in SCM.	It follows the theory proposed in the article entitled "Defining Supply Chain Management" published in 2001 in the Journal of Business Logistics.	Business, Management and Accounting Decision Sciences	10
Li et.al (2020)	The study addresses the relationship between GSCM pressures, practices and performance under the moderating effect of quick response (QR) technology.	It combines Institutional Theory, Resource-Based Theory (RBV) and the GSCM literature. Uses statistical analysis of collected data and case studies from companies in China.	Business, Management, Accounting, Decision Sciences, Engineering	8.8
Kreuter et. al (2021)	Assesses empirical and theoretical perspectives on sales and operations planning (S&OP).	Systematic literature review. The work applies an SLR following the step-by-step approach proposed by Thomé et al. (2016).	Business, Management, Accounting, General Business, Management, Accounting	8.0
Nemati et.al (2017)	This study explores the benefits of S&OP.	Mathematical approach using 3 mixed integer programming models in a real dairy industry in Iran	Chemical Engineering Computer Science	7.6
Han , Lam et. al (2021)	This study explores the approaches that artificial intelligence can be used to enable B2B marketing innovation.	Applying a bibliometric research method.	Business, Management, Accounting, Marketing, Strategy, Management Management Information Systems, Engineering, Industrial Engineering, Computer Science, IT Applications	7.3
Feng & Shanthikumar (2017)	This essay focuses on two aspects of supply chain management. Specifically, demand management and manufacturing.	It summarizes some relevant concepts that have emerged with Big Data and presents several prototype models to show how these concepts can lead to a rethinking of this research.	Decision Sciences Engineering Business, Management and Accounting	6.6
Wang et.al (2021)	Provides a comprehensive research overview and directions for future research on the interface between operations and finance in risk management.	Combination of methodologies	Business, Management, Accounting, Decision Sciences, Engineering	6.6
Tsay et.al (2018)	This article reviews the cutting edge of academic research in Production and Operations Management (POM) on outsourcing in supply chain contexts.	Review of publications from the POM community from 2000 to 2016. Divides research into empirical/conceptual.	Business, Management and Accounting Decision Sciences Engineering	6.6

Ardito et.al (2018)	Presents innovative effort aiming at developing digital technologies to manage the interface between supply chain management and marketing processes and the role they play in sustainable supply chain marketing. (SCM-M )	The paper uses patent analysis and real examples.	Business, Management, Accounting	6.2
Stentoft et.al (2020)	Advances the understanding of the reasons for not using Sales and Operations Planning (S&OP) as well as the relevance of S&OP to business performance.	Questionnaire research	Business, Management, Accounting, Decision Sciences	4.3
Nabil et.al (2018)	Provides a literature review of sales and operations planning, as well as research efforts and models. The research focused on operational, tactical and strategic issues subject to different constraints.	Research is done with a literature review related to (S&OP) and the processes that link the strategic objectives of the business with the production plan.	Engineering	1.7

## 5.6. SPORTS MARKETING.

Sports Marketing is considered one of the most profitable industries worldwide due to the enormous amount of money that has been invested. Sports companies seek to recruit human resources capable of increasing customer value and concentrate on employees who have a significant influence in the sports industry to undertake marketing expert positions.

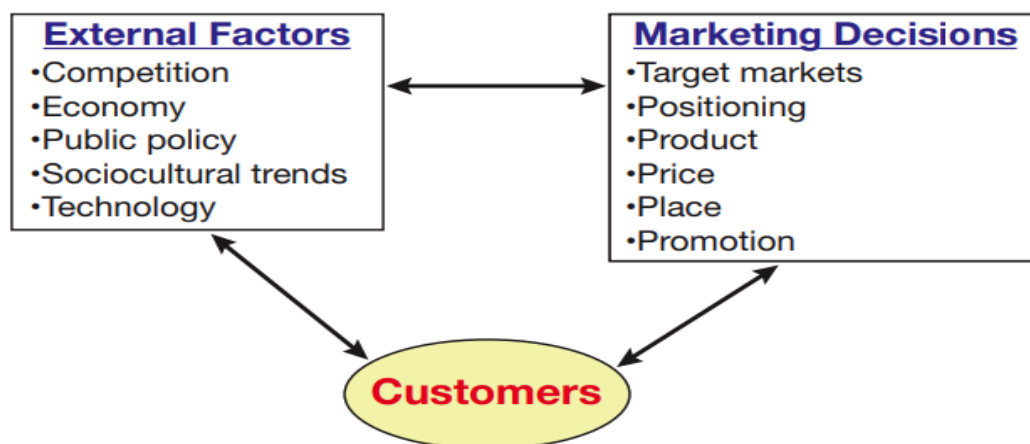
Sports Marketing could be defined as a the application and extension of marketing theories, methodologies, tools and techniques to the development of marketing plans for sports products, events (professional/amateur) or services. The aim of sport marketing is to provide to potential partners, clients and customers a multi aspect sport experience (Fetchko, Roy & Clow, 2018).

Smith and Stewart (2015) have proposed two categories in sports marketing, namely: the “Marketing in Sports” and the “Marketing with Sport” categories. The two categories are distinguished according to the way sport organizations promote their offering of sports products or services in the marketplace as well as on their communication techniques. A representative example of the “Marketing with Sports” category could be the sponsorship of a team or an individual athlete. The aim of the sponsorship is to enhance product visibility and increase sales in the main audience focusing in large scale well known event (Roche, 2006; Bruhn & Rohlmann, 2022).

Sport Marketing can affect in a very efficient way some main areas related to Sports and the consumer community. It can contribute in increasing/formulating customer value. It also enhances, the elevation and preservation of customer social connections (relationship marketing) as well as the interaction that sport companies/organizations have with society and authorities.

Mahajan (2020) points out the importance of *customer value*. It is also called value per money that is related on how a customer perceives the cost of the service or product relative to the benefits or the level of customer’s satisfaction. The cost of customer value is referring to expenses associated with the product or service use like the effort devoted or the amount spent on energy or petrol to reach or obtain the use of the service or product.

Berry (1995) refers to *relationship marketing* as an interactive process of making, preserving and reinforcing long-lasting beneficial relationships with individuals and partners. Furthermore, there are some crucial external factors (competitiveness, economical progression, social policy, technological trends and cultural main streams, Fig.12) that organizations should consider for proper marketing decision making related to new product-service, positioning, placing, pricing and promotion (Fetchko et al., 2018).

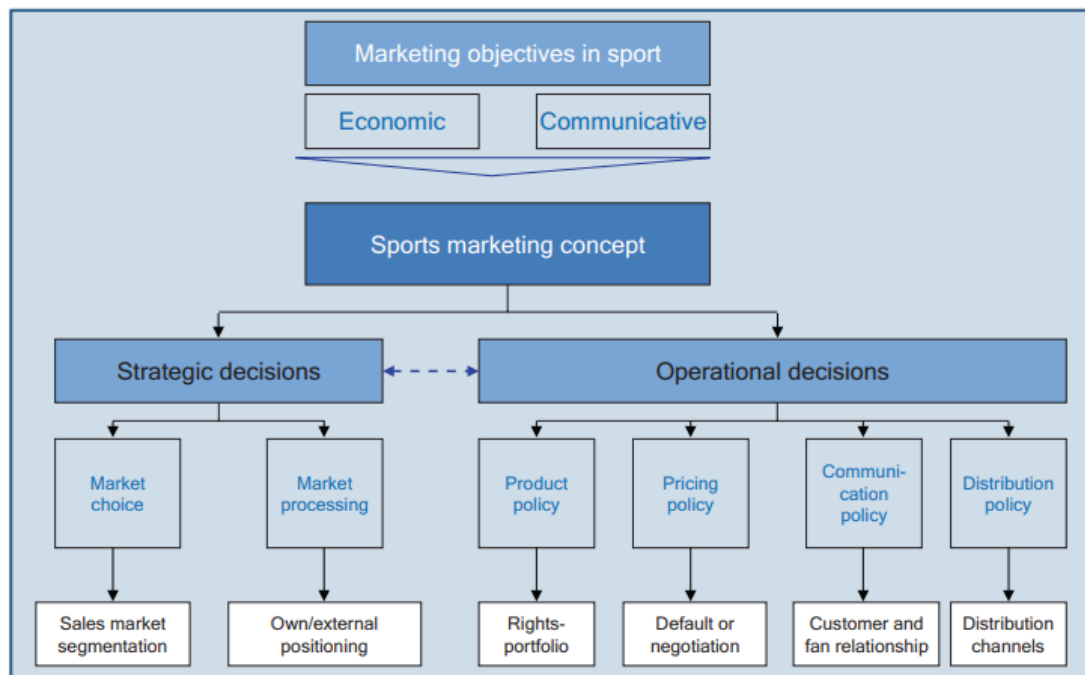


**Figure 13:** *The Relationship between External Factors, Marketing Decisions, and Customers (Fetchko et al., 2018, p.8).*

Decision making related to sport marketing lead to effective marketing strategies and implementation plans.

Regarding to strategic and operational decisions that need to be made, as a fundamentals factors on the marketing objectives and the sports marketing concept, Bruhn and Rohlmann (2022) suggest the Management process from the perspective of sports marketing (Fig.13).





**Figure 14:** *The Management process from the perspective of sports marketing (Bruhn and Rohlmann, 2022, p.12.)*

Despite the ongoing economic and environmental crisis the Sports industry continues to play a leading role in the invigoration of the global economy (Zang et al., 2017). This comes as a consequence of the increasing interest on sports and sports sponsorships and the aspiration to promote sport brands in the global market. A growing number of companies producing products and services related to sports industry seek ways to apply marketing strategies based on the viability, desirability, feasibility and sustainability of their offerings (Niessen & Bocken, 2021). Additionally, marketing strategies should be based on and include activities related to social diversity, women empowerment, increased participation in sports and public wellness through sports (Fetchko et al., 2018; Niessen & Bocken, 2021).

### 5.7. SPORTS MARKETING HUMAN RESOURCES COSTING.

According to Cole et al. (2006) the key factor of lasting organizational change and effective process development is directly related to top management commitment. A highly efficient group of employees under the proper supervision and guidance of a manager, could lead to succeeding goals and enhancing sports facilities, along with increasing customer value.

As the most valuable asset within an organization, human resources are considered fundamental for individual and collective knowledge management, especially regarding sporting events (Galbreath, 2005). Professional sports events are usually planned and managed by a core small group of employees, large numbers of volunteers and people with temporary or flexible contracts (Chadwick & Beech, 2007). The management, costing and performance analysis of this core group of employees need to be estimated and evaluated constantly in order to improve and enhance collective teamwork.

We present a human resources costing example of a core team consisting of six sport marketing employees. The costing approach used is effort-based costing (Glykas, 2011; Sachini, Nikou & Glykas, 2022) in which the employee cost allocated per activity is based on the percentage he/she devotes per activity. The total employee effort devoted to activities per employee is 100%.

The total cost the organization spends per employee (salary, pension, insurance, taxes etc) is provided by the Human Resource Department. The employee cost per activity is calculated by the multiplication of the percentage of each activity multiplied by the total employee cost. The result of our real life case study example is shown in table 5. On the left side of the table are the activities as selected by the APQC (apqc.org) reference framework. At the last line the total cost represents the employee cost.

**Table 5.** Effort Based Costing Case Study.

Activities	Employee 1		Employee 2		Employee 3		Employee 4		Employee 5		Employee 6	
	%	Cost	%	Cost	%	Cost	%	Cost	%	Cost	%	Cost
3.1.1 Perform customer and market intelligence analysis (10106)	19	4370	20	2200	17	2720	19	5130	18	2160	19	3610
3.1.1.1 Conduct customer and market research (10108)	20	4600	20	2200	18	2880	21	5670	25	3000	16	3040
3.1.1.3 Analyze market and industry trends (10110)	17	3910	17	1870	13	2080	9	2430	14	1680	8	1520
3.1.2 Evaluate and prioritize market opportunities (10107)	16	3680	16	1760	18	2880	18	4860	13	1560	22	4180
3.2 Develop marketing strategy (10102)	8	1840	8	880	9	1440	10	2700	11	1320	7	1330

3.2.4 Analyze and manage channel performance (20006)	20	4600	19	2090	25	4000	23	6210	19	2280	28	5320	
	TOTALS		100	23000	100	11000	100	16000	100	27000	100	12000	100

The total cost per activity is calculated by adding the costs calculated for each one of the six employees. In a similar way we can calculate the total effort per activity (Activity Cost column). The **Full Time Equivalent (FTEs)** per activity are calculated by dividing the total effort per activity by the effort of one full time employee (100%) (FTE column). The **Cost contribution (CC column)** is calculated by dividing the activity cost by the total cost of all activities. The **Average Salary** per activity is calculated by the division of the Activity Cost by the FTE per activity. The **Concentration index** presents the average percentage of effort of all employees that participate in an activity and is calculated dividing the FTE of an activity by the total number of employees that participate in that activity. In our example the total number of employees that participate in the activities is 6.

In addition to the “hard” (calculated factors) we also have “soft” subjective performance measures. For example with **Mission non mission** analysis we assess the contribution of each each activity the achievement of strategic goals (M column with value yes or no). With **Value Added Analysis** we categorize each activity to its relation to customer value. If the activity is directly related to the customer of to product or service development or distribution then is considered as High Value Adding (HVA column). If the activity is related to an internal customer then it is considered as Business Value Adding (BVA column). If the output of the activity is not considered useful either by an external or internal customer then the activity is considered as Low Value Adding (LVA column).

**Table 6.** Performance Measures calculation per activity.

FTE	Activity Cost	Cost Contribution		CC %	Av. Salary	Conc. Index	CI %	M	HVA	BVA	LVA
1.12	20190.00	0.19		18.69	18026.79	0.19	18.67	Y	Y		
1.20	21390.00	0.20		19.81	17825.00	0.20	20.00	Y	Y		
0.78	13490.00	0.12		12.49	17294.87	0.13	13.00	Y			Y
1.03	18920.00	0.18		17.52	18368.93	0.17	17.17	Y	Y		
0.53	9510.00	0.09		8.81	17943.40	0.09	8.83	Y	Y		
1.34	24500.00	0.23		22.69	18283.58	0.22	22.33	N		Y	
6	108000	1		100.00							

During reorganization we start with the elimination of cost and effort spent on activities that are low value adding and non missionary and we redistribute all minimized effort to other activities.

## CHAPTER 6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The outcomes of literature survey were presented in the study aiming to highlight the importance of human resource management, which consists not just of utilization of tools and techniques but a key factor on the strategic management of sports organizations and corporate environment.

Specifically, in the second theoretical chapter, we focused on two aspects in answering our research questions about the importance of Leadership and teaching life skills. The survey results are in accordance with the leadership approach on Alvesson & Sveningsson research (2003) which was also focused on how managers view leadership. By interpreting the data, we point out different perspectives of

leadership, as seen from former top athletes. Even though many theories are trying to define leadership, our findings point out that leadership has something to do with influencing other people (followers) by the leader also suggested by former scholars like Alvesson, Blom, and Sveningsson (2017) how also argue that leader's personality and style are assumed to influence follower behavior and attitudes.

In the third chapter an analytic theoretical framework focused in Talent management (TM) research in a corporate setting was presented trying to highlight the importance of a COSMA by trying to approach the way that accredited sport management schools use their courses to gain accreditation and the way these courses reveal that there are both similarities and differences between sport management schools and the courses they offer. The literature review outcomes identify two novel approaches: the GSMC maturity assessment framework and the GSMC COSMA tracking matrix (Glykas, 2019a; 2019; Tsipoura et al., 2022). No similar approach has been identified in the literature to date.

Strategy and leadership related to organizational governance were also identified in the present study as some of the most important critical success factors.

Finally, in the fifth chapter regarding Marketing, Sales and Supply chain management (case study in sports marketing human resources costing) a systematic literature survey on sales and marketing operations management was provided. We classified publications in four main categories: Supply Chain Management, Sales and Operations Planning, Artificial Intelligence and Big Data Analytics. We elaborated on the theory of each category based on the identified publications.

We then presented the theory of Sports Marketing and its significance in sports organizations. We finally provided a case study of a team of Sports Marketing professionals working in marketing, sales and supply chain management. We calculated activity costs as well as the required Full Time Equivalents per activity they perform.

We used the effort-based costing approach for these calculations and extended it with further performance metrics per activity. Some of the most important ones are: the average salary, concentration index, mission-mission analysis, value added analysis etc.

Each activity is analyzed and prioritized according to its importance for the achievement of the organizations mission (mission analysis) and the importance to its customers (value added analysis). Prioritization leads the analysts to redistribute effort and costs to more missionary and value adding activities whilst minimizing the effort of value adding and non-missionary activities.

Our application of the effort-based approach to various sport organizations has proved its validity and appropriateness for cost calculations and reorganizations of teams working in both well-established sport organizations as well as the ones that have periodic non-permanent project-based structures and concentrate on sport events.

A main limitation of our research is related to the fact that we have not yet applied effort-based costing to a large-scale team involving volunteers and sponsor provided personnel. This, however, is the subject matter of our future research efforts.

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