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Capacity Building in Community Sport Organizations

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Graduate Program in Kinesiology

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree in Doctor of Philosophy

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CAPACITY BUILDING IN COMMUNITY SPORT ORGANIZATIONS

(Thesis format: Integrated Article)

by

Patricia Lynne Millar

Graduate Program in Kinesiology

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctorate of Philosophy

The School of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies
The University of Western Ontario
London, Ontario, Canada

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Abstract

The general purpose of this dissertation was to examine capacity building in community sport organizations (CSOs). This document is comprised of three separate studies that were conducted in order to achieve this purpose.

The purpose of Study 1 was to develop a theoretically-based model of capacity building that recognizes the components and factors involved in the capacity building process. The process model of capacity building was developed according to de Groot's (1969) four-phase interpretative-theoretical methodology and contends that successful capacity building depends on an assessment of capacity needs and assets pertaining to a given organizational response to an internal or external environmental force. Effective capacity building is purported to rely on readiness for that capacity building with respect to the identified objectives and alternative strategies. Specifically, organizational readiness (member ability and willingness), strategy congruence with organizational processes and systems (alignment with existing processes, systems, and organizational missions and mandates), and existing capacity to both build and sustain change must be considered. The generation and ultimate selection of a particular capacity building strategy(s) is based on overall readiness to implement that strategy(s). Finally, the process model of capacity building asserts that the impact of those strategies can be known in terms of both immediate impact (objectives have been achieved) and whether the built capacity is maintained. The process model of capacity building developed in Study 1 offers an important contribution to the existing capacity building literature as it is the first attempt to depict capacity building from an initial stimulus through to integration into an organization's program and service delivery.

The purpose of Study 2 was to qualitatively investigate the process of capacity building in order to better understand the nuances and conditions involved in the success of capacity building efforts. A multiple case study approach, with semi-structured interviews with key volunteer board members (Case 1, $n=5$; Case 2, $n=4$), was used to investigate two purposefully selected cases – one that experienced successful capacity building, and one that experienced unsuccessful capacity building where organizational needs were not addressed. The findings revealed several key differentiating factors and conditions between the two cases of capacity building, including: (1) the thoroughness of the capacity needs assessment; (2) the organization's readiness in terms of individual willingness and commitment to the capacity building efforts; (3) existing capacity to build and sustain as key facilitators in successful capacity building, and key inhibitors in unsuccessful capacity building efforts; (4) the appropriateness of the selected strategies in addressing the organization's needs, and; (5) the overall strategic nature of the capacity building efforts.

Building on the findings of Study 2 that revealed the role that readiness for capacity building plays in the success of these efforts, Study 3 sought to examine the strength and relative impact of the dimensions of readiness on capacity building outcomes. Specifically, the purpose of Study 3 was to examine readiness for capacity building in the CSO context in order to gauge the extent to which CSOs are ready to build capacity to address some need and to determine the relative impact of readiness to build capacity on the outcomes of those efforts. CSO presidents ($N=66$) completed a survey, identifying 144 strategies of capacity building that formed the basis of the analysis. Results revealed a three-factor structure of readiness for capacity building

(organizational readiness, congruence, and existing capacity), and revealed that there was a stronger perception of the CSOs' readiness to build capacity and the congruence of capacity building strategies with existing systems, than of their existing capacity to support those efforts. The results also provided evidence that readiness predicts successful capacity building, and that existing capacity is a unique significant predictor of that outcome.

Keywords: organizational capacity building, community sport, readiness for capacity building

Co-Authorship Statement

The information presented in this dissertation is my original work. However, I would like to acknowledge the important contributions of my advisor, Dr. Alison Doherty. Her guidance, insight, and suggestions with regard to the three studies included in this dissertation were incredibly invaluable.

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Alison Doherty. You have supported, challenged, and encouraged me throughout my doctoral studies and, for that, I will be forever grateful. It has been a sincere privilege to learn from and work alongside you – I look forward to continuing to do so. Most of all, thank you for challenging me as a researcher and teacher, for the many opportunities and experiences you have provided, and the many laughs we have shared that have made me a better researcher, teacher, and person.

I would also like to thank Dr. Laura Misener and Dr. Mary Crossan for your insights, suggestions, and mentorship on my advisory committee. Thank you for your advice and support throughout the various stages of my doctoral studies. I am also grateful to the sport management faculty here at Western - Dr. Karen Danylchuk, Dr. Alison Doherty, Dr. Laura Misener, and Dr. Jim Weese. Thank you for your support throughout my studies and the many opportunities you have each provided; your commitment to the advancement of the field of sport management is contagious and you have each been instrumental in my development as a researcher and teacher.

To my fellow graduate students past and present, thank you for sharing this journey with me. I am incredibly fortunate and grateful to have met so many incredible people – thank you for the laughs, for inspiring me, and for the many conversations over coffee. I have truly enjoyed my time here at Western, and this is in large part due to the friendships I have developed and the experiences I have had with you on and off campus. A special thank you to my fellow “Dox” members – you have been a constant support. I look forward to the many memories we’ll share and rocking out with you in the future!

Last, but certainly not least, I would like to thank my family and friends. I am beyond lucky to have such a supportive group of people in my life. To my family, you have encouraged me to push myself, you have instilled in me a desire to do my best, and have always been a source of pride for me. I look up to every one of you and am sincerely thankful for your love and support every day. To my friends, thank you for always being there, for your continued support and encouragement, and for the many laughs and adventures that we have shared over the years. Most of all, thank you for helping me maintain a healthy balance in my life. I am truly a better person because of each of you.

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Introduction

Community sport organizations (CSOs) occupy a large portion of the nonprofit and voluntary sector and are responsible for providing recreational and competitive sport opportunities at the grassroots level (Misener & Doherty, 2014). CSOs, which include, for example, local soccer, baseball, and basketball clubs, as well as cycling and biking groups have a unique position within the broader Canadian sport system as they are the likely entry point into sport and recreation in Canada (Canadian Heritage, 2012); they also possess a unique position within communities around the world due to their nonprofit, volunteer-driven nature (Doherty, Misener, & Cuskelly, 2014) and their ability to foster volunteerism and contribute to establishing social networks (Doherty & Misener, 2008; Nichols & James, 2008). CSOs are a type of grassroots membership association formed around a collective that share a specific interest in sport; these organizations “offer a structure and place of identity for those with similar interests [in a particular sport] to come together in an associational form of organization” (Doherty et al., 2014, p. 124). They provide opportunities for participation at the grassroots level that are both accessible and affordable (Cuskelly, 2004) and are characterized by their local focus, almost exclusive reliance on volunteers, their modest budgets, and their relatively informal structures (Doherty et al., 2014).

In many nations, CSOs are the foundation of sport systems that extend to elite and professional sport organizations (Cuskelly, 2004). With the increased political focus placed on competitive and high performance sport, as well as enhanced participation and increased civic engagement and cohesion (Canadian Heritage, 2012), the role of CSOs within the broader Canadian sport system is emphasized to a greater degree. CSOs are a

vital part of Canada's sport development system, as they provide grassroots participation opportunities and support the identification and development of talented athletes for the elite sport system (Garrett, 2004). More so, in a society where there has been a downward trend in sport participation (Cousens, Barnes, & MacLean, 2012; Idefi, 2008), CSOs are the likely conduit to experience the ramifications of such a trend, as well as pressures to reverse it. Given the prevalence of CSOs and their position within Canadian communities, and the sport system more broadly, it is important to understand their capacity to deliver sport at the community level (Doherty et al., 2014).

Sport policy in Canada has recognized the role of capacity within the broader sport system as a key factor in attaining the objectives and priority areas of sport in Canada. The initial Canadian Sport Policy (Canadian Heritage, 2002) outlined *enhanced capacity* as one of four priorities of Canada's sport system. The most recent Canadian Sport Policy (Canadian Heritage, 2012) identified a *sustainable sport system with the organizational capacity to support the partnerships, programs, and pathways of sport in Canada* as a core principle of Canada's sport system, while highlighting the priority areas of enhanced sport participation, high performance results, and sport as a tool for social, cultural, and economic development. Each of these priority areas relies on the organizational capacity of Canada's sport organizations, and whether they possess the skills, resources, and assets needed in order to address these priority areas.

Organizational capacity has emerged in the nonprofit literature as an important theoretical framework that provides the basis for a holistic analysis of the factors involved in goal attainment and, more broadly, organizational effectiveness (Austin, Regan, Samples, Schwartz, & Carnochan, 2011). Generally, organizational capacity

refers to an organization's ability to draw on various assets and resources to achieve its mandate and objectives (Horton et al., 2003). The study of organizational capacity within CSOs has received an increasing amount of attention (see Doherty et al., 2014; Misener & Doherty, 2009, 2013, 2014; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Hallman, 2013). This line of research has furthered the understanding of organizational capacity as a construct and of the many challenges that CSOs, specifically, experience in addressing the needs of, and providing services to, their membership. These challenges relate directly to gaps in organizational capacity or an inability to draw on the various types of capital (e.g., human resources, financial, planning) that the organization possesses, including, for example, volunteer turnover and retention (Cuskelly, 2004) and limited revenue diversification (Wicker & Breuer, 2013).

Organizational capacity building is a natural extension to this line of inquiry as it represents a strategic process to alleviate these, and other, challenges within community sport organizations. While capacity building has garnered increasing attention in the nonprofit and voluntary sector (see Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011; Nu'Man et al., 2007; Simmons, Reynolds, & Swinburn, 2011; Sobeck & Agius, 2007), this shift in focus towards the development of capacity has yet to be explored in the sport setting. Further, the literature surrounding capacity building in the nonprofit and voluntary sector has yet to consider capacity building as a process. Capacity building is intended to help organizations respond effectively to new or changing situations through a structured, and strategic, decision-making and implementation process (Bryson, 2011; Cairns, Harris, & Young, 2005). However, the existing capacity building research has focused predominantly on its conceptualization, and on the assessment of particular strategies

(e.g., Casey, Payne, & Eime, 2009a; 2009b; Joffres et al., 2004; Sobeck, 2008), contributing to a fragmented understanding of the process of building capacity and confusion regarding what it really entails and the factors that contribute to successful capacity building efforts (Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011; Simmons et al., 2011).

Given the position that CSOs occupy in the Canadian sport system, the increasing attention dedicated to organizational capacity of CSOs, and the lack of understanding surrounding the capacity building process, this dissertation endeavours to build on and contribute to each of these bodies of literature by providing insight into the process of capacity building in the context of CSOs, and nonprofit and voluntary organizations more broadly. Specifically, this dissertation involves the development and proposal of a process model of capacity building (Study 1), the investigation of successful and unsuccessful capacity building efforts based on the process model of capacity building (Study 2), and finally, a more in-depth examination of readiness for capacity building as a critical factor in the process of capacity building (Study 3). The studies were conducted with the approval of Western University's Research Ethics Board (see Appendix A).

Based on the fact the literature relating to capacity building has focused predominantly on its conceptualization and the identification of capacity building strategies, rather than the identification of the key components and influential factors in the capacity building process (Sobeck & Agius, 2007), Study 1 sought to develop a theoretically-based model of capacity building that recognizes the components and factors involved in the capacity building process. The process model of capacity building was developed according to de Groot's (1969) four-phase interpretative-theoretical methodology. This qualitative process of interpretation and theoretical evaluation of

existing material resulted in knowledge extension fundamental to model building. The four-phase process involved the exploration and analysis of existing literature within the area of study, the interpretation of the relationships, process, and practices of the phenomenon under study, and a theoretically-based explanation of the proposed integrative model (de Groot, 1969; Wright, 1982). Through the first three phases of Study 1, the various components of organizational capacity and capacity building, and the factors that influence the capacity building process, were uncovered and explored within both the nonprofit and community sport literature. The final phase of de Groot's (1969) interpretative-theoretical methodology involved the compilation of the analysis and interpretation of existing literature through the explanation of the newly developed model.

The process model of capacity building developed in Study 1 contends that successful capacity building depends on an assessment of capacity needs and assets pertaining to a given organizational response to an internal or external environmental force. Capacity needs are expected to vary based on the chosen response, and become the basis of the capacity building objectives. In the nonprofit sport context, organizational capacity needs may be defined based on Hall et al.'s (2003) dimensions of organizational capacity, which include an organization's human resources, financial resources, existing relationships and networks, existing infrastructure, and planning and development capacity. Effective capacity building is purported to rely on readiness for that capacity building with respect to the identified objectives and alternative strategies. Specifically, organizational readiness (member ability and willingness), strategy congruence with organizational processes and systems (alignment with existing processes, systems, and

organizational missions and mandates), and existing capacity to both build and sustain change must be considered. The generation and ultimate selection of a particular capacity building strategy(s) is based on overall readiness to implement that strategy(s). The process model of capacity building contends that successful outcomes of capacity building are dependent on the extent to which the organization is ready to implement a strategy that addresses its capacity needs, and can be known in terms of both immediate impact (objectives have been achieved) and whether the built capacity is maintained.

The process model of capacity building developed in Study 1 offers an important contribution to the existing capacity building literature as it is the first attempt to depict capacity building from an initial stimulus through to integration into an organization's program and service delivery. In doing so, the process model of capacity building developed here contributes to a clearer conceptualization of organizational capacity building and provides a framework that sport leaders and researchers alike can utilize to measure, predict, and explain (in)effective capacity building. As Doherty et al. (2014) noted, the process of building capacity is highly contextualized, where what is critical in one context may not be relevant in another. Thus, Study 2 explored the process of capacity building in two CSOs in order to further understanding of building capacity in this context.

Specifically, the purpose of Study 2 was to gain insight into the conditions and processes involved in strategically building the capacity of CSOs, through the examination of the extent to which, in the face of some stimulus, CSOs assess their existing capacity and consider their readiness to build capacity, generate and select the strategy(s) that are implemented, and experience the impacts of those capacity building

efforts. An instrumental multiple case study approach was used to investigate two purposefully selected cases – one that experienced successful capacity building that ultimately impacted the organization’s program and service delivery, and one that experienced unsuccessful capacity building where organizational needs were not addressed and outcomes were not realized. Semi-structured interviews with volunteer board members in key executive positions and a sample of coaches and club volunteers were conducted (Case 1, $n=5$; Case 2, $n=4$). The findings from Study 2 revealed several key differentiating factors and conditions between the successful and unsuccessful cases of capacity building, including: (1) the thoroughness of the capacity needs assessment; (2) the organization’s readiness in terms of individual willingness and commitment to the capacity building efforts; (3) existing capacity to build and sustain as key facilitators in successful capacity building, and key inhibitors in unsuccessful capacity building efforts; (4) the appropriateness of the selected strategies in addressing the organization’s needs, and; (5) the overall strategic nature of the capacity building efforts. This study provides evidence that capacity building should be understood as a process that involves consideration of the initial stimulus, the assessment of needs and assets, the readiness for capacity building, appropriate strategy selection, and the impact of the outcomes in the short- and long-term.

Given the critical role of readiness for capacity building that was uncovered in Study 2, Study 3 of the dissertation narrowed further on the factor of readiness in order to provide a more in-depth description of this factor in the overall process of capacity building. Specifically, the purpose of Study 3 was to examine readiness for capacity building in the CSO context in order to gauge the extent to which CSOs are ready to

build capacity to address some need and to determine the relative impact of readiness to build capacity on the outcomes of those efforts. CSO presidents ($N=66$) across one Canadian province completed a survey measuring their organization's readiness to build capacity relating to specific capacity building strategies. The survey also measured the capacity building outcomes associated with the implemented strategies and asked respondents to identify the capacity building stimulus, and the capacity needs and assets addressed by the chosen strategies. Altogether, the respondents identified 144 strategies ($n=144$) of capacity building that formed the basis of the analysis. The results of Study 3 revealed a three-factor structure of readiness for capacity building (organizational readiness, congruence, and existing capacity). They further revealed that there was a stronger perception of the CSOs' readiness to build capacity, and the congruence of capacity building strategies with existing systems, than of their existing capacity to support those efforts. The results also provide evidence that readiness predicts successful capacity building, and that existing capacity is a unique significant predictor of that outcome.

The dissertation concludes with a summary that discusses the key findings, the contributions to capacity building research, and the practical implications for community sport and nonprofit and voluntary organizations. Suggestions for future research in the area of capacity building, and specifically readiness for capacity building, are also discussed.

Lastly, it should be noted that the dissertation was completed using the integrated-article format, in which each chapter is presented in a manuscript style with a distinct research purpose. As such, some of the information presented in this introductory chapter

may be repeated throughout the following three studies. The three studies included in this dissertation relate to organizational capacity building in the community sport context, beginning with the development of a process model of capacity building, an investigation of successful and unsuccessful capacity building efforts, and finally, an in-depth examination narrowing in on readiness for capacity building as a critical factor in the capacity building process.

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Study 1:
A Process Model of Capacity Building in Community Sport Organizations¹

Organizational capacity has emerged in the nonprofit literature as an important theoretical framework that provides the basis for a holistic analysis of the factors involved in goal attainment and, more broadly, organizational effectiveness (Austin, Regan, Samples, Schwartz, & Carnochan, 2011). It is generally regarded as a multidimensional concept, comprising a range of organizational attributes that are considered critical to an organization's ability to achieve its goals and satisfy its stakeholders' expectations (Horton et al., 2003). Within the community sport context specifically, organizational capacity has recently received an increasing amount of attention, both as an overall theoretical framework (e.g., Doherty, Misener, & Cuskelly, 2014; Misener & Doherty, 2009; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Breuer, 2011; Wicker & Hallman, 2013) and as a guide to analyze individual capacity dimensions (e.g., Misener & Doherty, 2013; Nichols, Padmore, Taylor, & Barrett, 2012; Wicker, Breuer, & Hennigs, 2012).

Capacity building is a natural extension of this line of inquiry, as a presumed process to address weaknesses, challenges or limitations in one or more aspects of organizational capacity. Yet, there has been limited scholarly consideration of that process, particularly in the sport setting. Sport and recreation organizations represent the largest category of nonprofit and voluntary sector organizations in Canada, with most of these organizations serving the community level (Hall et al., 2004). Evidently, "there is merit in exploring their unique strengths and challenges, and how these influence their ability to contribute to sport development in our communities" (Misener & Doherty,

¹ A version of this chapter has been submitted for publication to *Sport Management Review*.

2009, p. 4). It is equally valuable to understand what factors impact successful capacity building in this context, and how. Community sport organizations (CSOs) provide accessible and affordable pathways for participation in sport and physical recreation at the grassroots level (Cuskelly, 2004). These organizations face many challenges, including volunteer recruitment (Breuer, Wicker, & Von Hanau, 2012), limited revenue diversification (Wicker & Breuer, 2013), strategic planning (Misener & Doherty, 2009), and increased pressure of professionalization (Cuskelly, Hoye, & Auld, 2006).

These challenges represent gaps in organizational capacity, and the purpose of capacity building is to alleviate these and other challenges within CSOs. It aims to improve an organization's ability to formulate and achieve objectives (Aref, 2011) by improving the mobilization of various dimensions of capacity (Cairns, Harris, & Young, 2005). It is intended to help organizations respond effectively to new or changing situations through a structured series of decision making and implementation (Bryson, 2011). As such, capacity building may be seen as a strategic process that involves defining the direction of, and making decisions on, allocating resources to pursue a specific plan. However, the capacity building literature focuses predominantly on its conceptualization, and on the assessment of particular strategies (e.g., workforce development, partnership enhancement; Casey, Payne, & Eime, 2009b; Cairns et al., 2005; Crisp, Swerissen, & Duckett, 2000; Joffres et al., 2004; Sobeck, 2008), with little reflection or examination of the factors or conditions associated with the process of effective capacity building (cf. Joffres et al., 2004; Sobeck & Agius, 2007). These investigations generally neglect to account for the fuller context of capacity building as a decision-making and implementation process; one that may be presumed to be prompted

by certain organizational needs, whose success likely depends on critical organizational and environmental factors, and the outcome of which should be viewed from multiple perspectives. With a few exceptions that adopt an organizational change perspective (Casey, Payne, & Eime, 2012), and that acknowledge capacity building as a strategic approach (Chaskin, 2001; Sobeck & Agius, 2007), the literature has yet to illustrate and hypothesize about effective capacity building as a comprehensive strategic process.

There is a limited set of frameworks of nonprofit capacity building. Nu'Man, King, Bhalakia, and Criss (2007) developed a three-stage framework that includes identifying and prioritizing needs, analyzing and categorizing these needs, and developing and implementing strategies, along with the reassessment of needs following the initial strategy implementation. Sobeck and Agius (2007) advanced a framework that also includes identifying strengths and weaknesses (preparation), establishing objectives for improvement (transformation), and making changes to organizational structures and processes (formalization) as critical elements of capacity building. Blumenthal (2003) proposed a set of capacity building tools, relating specifically to the design of management training programs that include research, planning, implementation, and evaluation. However, these models do not actually depict capacity building as a dynamic process; rather, they present static frameworks of several of the critical factors presumed to be involved. Doherty (2013) differentiates between a conceptual framework and a theoretical model as the structural representation of concepts and the structural representation of the relationships among the concepts, respectively. This differentiation provides insight into the focus of existing capacity building models and the resulting oversights. These models represent conceptual frameworks that overlook the

relationships between the concepts, resulting in an overly simplistic, and arguably incomplete, understanding of capacity building.

Notably, Casey et al. (2012) introduced a framework for organizational change that incorporated capacity building and was used to investigate the implementation of a health promotion programming initiative within sport organizations. The authors examined the organizations' readiness for change and how the changes were implemented through capacity building strategies. However, they did not specifically illustrate the capacity building aspect of their model and, instead, assumed that new program implementation requires capacity building. Casey et al.'s (2012) model was a data analysis framework that traced the implementation of a single initiative, restricting its generalizability and application in different contexts.

The existing frameworks provide insight into some of the central components of capacity building, but neglect to capture the process in its entirety. Together with the relatively more extensive literature that focuses on single aspects of the process (and particularly strategies), understanding of capacity building remains incomplete and largely fragmented. Nu'Man et al. (2007) call for "a comprehensive organizational capacity building framework with complementary indicators [in order to] shed some light on how these factors impede or facilitate capacity building efforts" (p. 32). The purpose of this paper is to develop a model of capacity building that addresses this call and extends the existing line of inquiry by identifying factors that impact the capacity building process and the relationships among them. A secondary purpose is to illustrate the model through an application within the CSO context. Theory-building research in the field of sport management is needed in order to expand the body of knowledge within

the field (Doherty, 2013). Doherty argues that “as scholars, we must...invest in theory-building research...[that] involves extending existing theory or generating new theory that is particularly relevant to sport management, with potentially broader application as well” (p. 7). Responding to this call, the proposed model presents a strategic approach to capacity building as an organizational process, informed by the nonprofit management literature. The model is bounded by a focus on capacity building within the nonprofit, and specifically community sport, context. It provides both a practical and theoretical tool that sport leaders and researchers alike may utilize to measure, predict, and explain (in)effective capacity building. A review of the CSO capacity literature is next, followed by a description of the approach used to develop the process model of capacity building. The paper concludes with an explanation of the model and a hypothetical application within the CSO context.

Organizational Capacity in Community Sport Organizations

Organizational capacity as a framework for the study of critical organizational attributes has been used extensively within the nonprofit and voluntary literature. Several conceptual frameworks have been advanced that purport a variety of key dimensions of organizational capacity (e.g., Chaskin, 2001; Connolly & York, 2003; Eisinger, 2002; Hall et al., 2003). Hall et al.’s (2003) framework was developed specifically for the nonprofit and voluntary sector and appears to capture the common capacity dimensions in the literature (Misener & Doherty, 2009). Hall et al. (2003) define organizational capacity as a function of an organization’s ability to draw on or deploy a variety of types of organizational capital, and specifically human resources, financial aspects, networks and relationships, infrastructure and process, and planning and development. That model has

provided a foundation for the study of organizational capacity in the community sport context (Doherty et al., 2014; Misener & Doherty, 2009, 2013; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Breuer, 2011; Wicker & Hallman, 2013), with consistent support for the dimensions as defining components of effectiveness in these organizations. A brief overview of select research that adopts or relates to Hall et al.'s (2003) dimensions highlights the nature of those dimensions in the CSO context.

Human resources capacity has been a primary research focus within the CSO context, with a particular focus on volunteerism and management structures (e.g., Balduck, Van Rossen, & Buelens, 2010; Nichols & James, 2008; Papadimitriou, 2002; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Breuer, 2011). While research has found that human resources is primarily a strength for CSOs, the need for volunteers and the centrality of knowledge within a small group of individuals remain key challenges for these organizations (Breuer, Wicker, & Von Hanau, 2012; Gumulka, Barr, Lasby, & Brownlee, 2005; Misener & Doherty, 2009). With regard to financial capacity, Gumulka et al. (2005) found that sport organizations are likely to report financial capacity problems, with most sport organizations experiencing issues surrounding their funding models. However, Misener and Doherty (2009) found that financial capacity was not perceived by community sport leaders to be a critical factor in goal attainment. Scholars have continued to examine its role in overall organizational capacity as it is often cited as a major concern facing CSOs. Research focusing on financial capacity reveals that revenue diversification and resource acquisition allows CSOs to have more flexibility and resources to achieve organizational objectives (e.g., Vos et al., 2011; Wicker & Breuer, 2013; Wicker et al., 2012). Network and relationship capacity has also been considered

within the CSO context and found to impact organizational effectiveness through the creation and management of inter-organizational relationships and the social capital and value-added associated with the development and maintenance of these networks (e.g., Cousens, Barnes, Stevens, Mallen, & Bradish, 2006; Doherty & Misener, 2008; Frisby, Thibault, & Kikulis, 2004; Harris & Houlihan, 2014; Misener & Doherty, 2013; Sharpe, 2006). Infrastructure and process, and planning and development capacities have not been as extensively researched within the CSO context. In contrast, Misener and Doherty (2009) found that planning was a critical issue for CSOs, particularly when characterized by informality and reactionary approaches. Studies that acknowledge the multidimensionality of organizational capacity (e.g., Doherty et al., 2014; Misener & Doherty, 2009; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Breuer, 2011) serve to highlight the particular strengths and challenges associated with several dimensions of capacity that may, in turn, be the focus of capacity building.

Notably, the CSO research has been prompted largely by an interest in determining whether CSOs have the capacity to respond to particular forces in their internal and external environments; for example, an expectation to implement policy pertaining to increasing sport participation and/or community social capital (e.g., Adams, 2008; Garrett, 2004; Harris & Houlihan, 2014; Nichols et al., 2012; Vos et al., 2011), pressure to innovate (Hoerber & Hoerber, 2012), declining volunteerism (e.g., Breuer et al., 2012; Nichols & James, 2008; Nichols, Tacon, & Muir, 2013), financial pressures (e.g., Cordery, Sim, & Baskerville, 2013), and pressure for partnership formation (e.g., MacLean, Cousens, & Barnes, 2011).

Nonetheless, this growing body of research has been limited to the identification of capacity strengths and challenges. Only a few studies have extended this to the conceptualization of capacity building (Adams, 2008; Doherty & Misener, 2008; Maxwell & Taylor, 2010) while a few have examined strategies to address apparent or assumed capacity challenges (e.g., Casey, Payne, & Eime, 2009a, 2009b; Cuskelly, 2004; Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, & Darcy, 2006; Cuskelly & O'Brien, 2013; Osterlund, 2013). Like the nonprofit literature in general (see Sobeck & Agius, 2007), the capacity building research in sport has been largely conceptual and focused on particular strategies. However, given the increasing examination of organizational capacity, the building of that capacity may be expected to be the next research wave.

Model-Building

The model of organizational capacity building proposed in this paper was developed according to de Groot's (1969) interpretative-theoretical methodology, consisting of four qualitative phases: exploration, analysis, classification, and explanation. These phases promote a systematic approach to knowledge extension that is fundamental to model building, through the stringent exploration, analysis, and integration of existing material (cf. Van Hoecke & De Knop, 2006). Each of the four phases is described in detail below. This approach is particularly useful when addressing an area, such as organizational capacity building, that is supported by a growing body of theory and research, and for the development of sport management practice and theory through integration with other developed fields (Armstrong, Hansen, & Gauthier, 1991). It goes beyond a standard review of literature whose purpose is to identify, explain, and evaluate existing literature in order to summarize the state of knowledge and, often,

identify gaps in that literature (Fink, 2014; Rowley & Slack, 2004). Rather, de Groot's (1969) methodology provides a framework for a systematic review of the literature that culminates in a model synthesizing key concepts in the literature and highlighting the theoretical relationships among them. This paper is concerned primarily with the development of a model based on the interpretation and integration of capacity building literature and the phenomenon of nonprofit sport organizations.

Phase I, Exploration

Phase I serves to identify the research questions and gather the relevant "data" or information sources (Richter, 2011; Wright, 1982). Three research questions provided a guideline for the analysis and classification phases: (1) What concepts are fundamental to capacity building in nonprofit organizations? (2) What processes are involved in capacity building? (3) What factors influence the success of capacity building initiatives? Previous studies following de Groot's approach incorporated empirical data collection (Armstrong et al., 1991; Richter, 2011). However, the investigation of scholarly work is an equally useful approach for gathering relevant data (Malloy, 1992; Van Hoecke & De Knop, 2006; Wright, 1982). Due to the breadth of interpretations of capacity, including "community capacity" and "capacity for development," three overarching search criteria were imposed on the data sources to ensure the results related specifically to organizational capacity: (1) a focus on the organizational aspects of capacity building; (2) discussion of the factors involved in successful capacity building; and, (3) consideration of the impact of capacity building on organizational effectiveness.

The search for data sources was limited to peer-reviewed journals as these are considered validated knowledge and are likely to have the highest impact in the field

(Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Bacharach, & Podsakoff, 2005). The ABI/Inform Global and SPORTDiscus databases were the search pathways. The following keyword searches were used: “capacity building,” “organizational capacity building,” “nonprofit organizational capacity,” “capacity development,” and “capacity AND sport organizations.” The results yielded 102 articles, which were then reviewed using the three overarching search criteria, resulting in 85 sources that were deemed informative and relevant in the subsequent phases of the model-building.

Phase II, Analysis

Data sources extracted through the exploration phase were analyzed, with the objective of uncovering the key themes in the capacity building literature. The analysis of data sources involved thematic coding, in which sources were linked based on common themes in order to establish a frame of thematic ideas (Gibbs, 2008). An intensive review of each data source was conducted to identify the relevant ideas within each source and to identify the common themes among sources (Gibbs, 2008). Key themes were identified based on areas of consensus within the capacity building literature and aspects of capacity building around which the literature gravitated. Through this, current conceptualizations of capacity building and the main themes discussed within the literature were identified.

Capacity building is generally understood as a loosely defined and wide-ranging concept (Simmons, Reynolds, & Swinburn, 2011), often criticized for being too broad, nebulous, and ill-defined (Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011). Definitions range from any activity that increases the ability to formulate and achieve objectives to any activity that provides skills, knowledge, structures, or resources that allow organizations to reach their

full potential (Aref, 2011; Austin et al., 2011; Cairns et al., 2005). While these definitions provide some idea of the intentions of capacity building, their vagueness further contributes to conceptual confusion and an underdeveloped understanding of what makes for effective capacity building (Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011). Nonetheless, the literature supports the general notion of capacity building as an effort to build strength in areas of weakness while refining the areas of organizational strength (Mandeville, 2007). Furthermore, it is acknowledged that organizations are not built on deficiencies and needs, they are built on capacities, and that capacity building is a process of enhancing the strengths and resources the organization already possesses (Jurie, 2000).

The themes most consistently discussed within the capacity building literature pertain to the identification of capacity needs, organizational readiness, capacity building strategies, outcomes, and capacity building as strategic organizational change. Notably, few sources indicated all of these themes. The themes are elaborated upon through their fuller conceptualization in the classification phase of de Groot's model-building approach.

Phase III, Classification

This phase involves building conceptual groupings based on the main themes identified in Phase II (de Groot, 1969), and results in an integrative view of the concepts that form the basis of the model (Armstrong et al., 1991). While this phase is highly intuitive, the rigorous process of searching and analyzing the data sources in Phases I and II is foundational for the formulation of concepts (Richter, 2011). As mentioned, the literature in this area focuses primarily on the themes identified in Phase II, with little overlap of themes within single sources. Given the presence of literature relating to these

thematic areas, the emphasis placed on these themes as important pieces in understanding capacity building, and calls for the inclusion of these themes in a broader understanding of building capacity, four concepts were readily identified for a model of capacity building: (1) organizational capacity needs, (2) readiness for capacity building, (3) capacity building strategies, and (4) capacity building outcomes. The themes of organizational change and organizational strategy were determined to be lenses through which to view capacity building rather than discrete concepts in the model. Again, the themes upon which these concepts are based were not systematically linked in the literature in such a way as to represent a comprehensive model of the capacity building process, and thus the primary purpose of this paper to bring the prominent themes (and critical concepts) together was upheld. These concepts and organizational change, which ultimately frame the model of capacity building, are described below.

Organizational capacity needs. Organizations have different capacity needs depending on their mission, operating environment, and strengths and weaknesses in different areas (Horton et al., 2003); whether that is, for example, human resources, finances, or planning and development. As such, the literature suggests that it is critical to determine the particular organizational needs that require attention in order to strategically proceed with addressing those needs. A capacity needs assessment involves a systematic review of organizational needs based on the specific characteristics of the organization (e.g., Blumenthal, 2003; Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011; Nu'Man et al., 2007). The assessment determines not only the basic needs of the organization, but also the assets that the organization possesses prior to delving into a capacity building initiative (De Vita & Fleming, 2001). Interestingly, while this perspective is made clear

in the literature, its consideration is largely conceptual to date. There are few studies that have endeavored to determine, or even confirm, organizations' actual needs before examining the impact of a capacity building strategy presumed to address such needs. Rather, research identifies presumed needs for a given organization or group of organizations based on related literature (e.g., Minzner, Klerman, Markovitz, & Fink, 2013), anecdote (e.g., Brown, 2012) or intuition (e.g., Bishop, 2010). Those needs have been largely delimited to human resources, financial, and network and relationship capacities, yet without verification of their magnitude or importance in a given context or with a given sample. Nevertheless, effective capacity building can be presumed to be dependent on the development of what, in fact, requires building (Horton et al., 2003; Nu'Man et al., 2007; Sobeck & Agius, 2007).

Readiness for capacity building. This concept refers to an organization's preparedness to address organizational needs through relevant strategies, and to support the outcomes of those strategies over the short- and long-term. It derives from the notion of readiness as an important component of successful organizational change (cf. Casey et al., 2012; Joffres et al., 2004; Sobeck & Agius, 2007). Scholars have varyingly conceptualized several factors that fall within the broader readiness for capacity building, including organizational readiness, congruence, capacity to build, and capacity to sustain; each is described below. Research has examined, for example, the organization's climate and culture (Casey et al., 2012), commitment of board members and volunteers to the capacity building effort (Casey et al., 2009b; Kapuca, Augustin, & Krause, 2007; Millesen, Carman, & Bies, 2010), compatibility with organizational mandates, objectives, policies, and the external environment (Joffres et al., 2004), perceptions and support

towards the change (Sobeck & Agius, 2007), and drawing on existing resources to support the building and sustainability of outcomes (Brown, 2012; Casey et al., 2012; Nu'Man et al., 2007).

Organizational readiness refers to the ability and motivation of organization members to address the identified capacity building objectives and implement specific strategies; for example, introducing new fundraising initiatives to improve financial capacity. Organizations that are more ready to embrace capacity building have been found to have more positive indicators of change (Blumenthal, 2003; Casey et al., 2012; Crisp et al., 2000; Heward et al., 2007; Joffres et al., 2004; Kapuca et al., 2007; Nu'Man et al., 2007; Sobeck, 2008; Sobeck & Agius, 2007). As a factor within the broader readiness for capacity building, organizational readiness explains human barriers to adopting and sustaining change (Sobeck & Agius, 2007).

Intra- and inter-organizational congruence refers to the degree of alignment between the identified capacity building objectives and the organization's existing processes and its environment, respectively (Joffres et al., 2004). In both cases, congruence is concerned with whether capacity building is disruptive to or aligned with the existing processes, systems, and culture of the organization; addressing the objectives in a way that does not introduce further organizational challenges. For instance, a primary focus on day-to-day operations precludes CSOs from engaging in long-term planning (Doherty et al., 2014); as such, building planning capacity may be perceived to require additional work that is too disruptive to their basic functioning. Greater congruency between the capacity building objectives and strategies and the organization's existing

processes and systems is purported to result in greater change and enhanced organizational capacity (Joffres et al., 2004).

Capacity to build refers to the existing capacity of an organization and reflects whether any factors hinder or facilitate capacity building (Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011; Joffres et al., 2004; Nu'Man et al., 2007). The idea that an organization must possess the capacity to build in order for capacity building to take place is inherently paradoxical. It is a resource intensive process that relies on the skills, abilities, and infrastructure that an organization already possesses (Aref, 2011; Mandeville, 2007). Capacity building research focuses more on this paradox (Aref, 2011; Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011) than its role in an organization's readiness and subsequent strategy implementation. Nonetheless, the literature provides insight through discussions of the role that existing competencies (Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011), organizational roles and resources (Casey et al., 2009a; 2012), and a supportive environment (Nu'Man et al., 2007) play in facilitating capacity building efforts.

Capacity to sustain change is another critical aspect of readiness to build, indicating that effective capacity building is dependent on whether its outcomes can be sustained (Casey et al., 2012). Sustainability depends on both existing and newly developed capacities, and specifically people, processes, and structures that support rather than inhibit the continued impact of the desired change. For example, sustainability is enhanced by sufficient support for programs and staff, the ability to influence policy and change norms, a supportive environment that provides opportunities for improvement, and the ability of organizations to adapt to changing contextual factors (Brown, 2012; Nu'Man et al., 2007). These factors are much broader than adequate

funding or financial resources that are often considered as the sole basis of sustainability (Brown, 2012; Casey et al., 2009a; Nu'Man et al., 2007; Sobeck, 2008).

Capacity building strategies. This concept encompasses the specific mechanisms through which capacity is intentionally built (Chaskin, 2001). While these may be referred to as strategic practices or tactics within the strategic management literature (see Allen & Helms, 2006), the capacity building literature refers to the mechanisms through which capacity is built as the strategies themselves. Backer (2001) and Cairns et al. (2003) differentiate between strategies focused on process issues and skill issues; those that relate to long-term planning and strategic development, and to specific skill or resource acquisitions, respectively. Of course, selected strategies may address both process and skill-based issues, as organizational needs are often a combination of specific skill or resource acquisitions and long-term development (Cairns et al., 2003). A particularly useful differentiation within nonprofit and voluntary organizations is between internal and external capacity building strategies (DeVita & Fleming, 2001; Gugglberger & Dur, 2011). Internal strategies are those that are developed and implemented within the organization, such as increasing membership fees to build financial capacity and introducing a volunteer recruitment policy to enhance human resource capacity. External strategies are developed and offered by an external source, such as workforce training or consultancy and increased government funding to the organization. These strategies may be of greater utility to an organization because time is not spent internally developing and managing the strategy itself (DeVita & Fleming, 2001), but, for this reason, may also be less effective in addressing specific organizational needs. Effective capacity building likely involves a combination of

internal and external strategies to ensure both short-term and long-term outcomes (Nu'Man et al., 2007). For instance, a new fundraising program combined with a budgeting workshop builds on several capacity dimensions (finance, human resources) and fosters both short-term and long-term outcomes.

Capacity building outcomes. Effective capacity building is conceptualized in the literature as change that results from a given strategy, such as leadership development. Interestingly, the literature focuses on the short-term and to a lesser extent long-term outcomes, with little to no consideration of how these outcomes may be assessed, despite Nu'Man et al.'s (2007) argument that measurement is implied when conceptualizing capacity building as a process. Indeed, monitoring and reviewing planned changes is a critical feature of the change process (Amis, Slack, & Hinings, 2004; Ott & Dicke, 2012). The ultimate impact of capacity building cannot be determined without appropriate assessment (Mackay, Horton, Dupleich, & Andersen, 2002); one that accounts for the organization's particular needs and contextual factors, such as gaps in existing capacities and external pressures on the organization (Wing, 2004). However, the literature tends to discuss the impacts of capacity building separate from the organization's needs and irrespective of the gaps in capacity that initiated the process. Further, as noted earlier, capacity building is not simply the implementation of strategies, like training opportunities, that lead to short-term outcomes, but also the long-term maintenance of those outcomes (Nu'Man et al., 2007). Thus, assessment should consider the short-term impact of capacity building (i.e., whether change has occurred), and its long-term impact (i.e., whether that change can be maintained). It is also critical to determine whether

sustainable changes can be attributed to the strategy(s) that was implemented (Crisp et al., 2000).

Capacity building and organizational change. Capacity building is ultimately about introducing change within the organization to address a gap in effectiveness; whether that gap refers to deficiencies within the organization or improvements on existing strengths. Two perspectives are emphasized within the capacity building literature: Pettigrew, Ferlie, and McKee's (1992) conceptualization of organizational change as an interaction between context, content, and process; and Oakland and Tanner's (2007) interacting cycles of change. Heward et al. (2007) argue that organizational change should be more purposefully applied to capacity building frameworks, and thus both perspectives are discussed here.

According to Pettigrew et al. (1992), context refers to the internal and external factors that represent the 'why' and 'when' of change, process refers to 'how' or the components involved in the change process, and content relates to 'what' is changed. With regards to capacity building, context is the historical, cultural, and political aspects of the organization and its particular capacity needs, process is the selection and implementation of specific capacity building strategies, while content refers to the desired change or built capacity. The greatest utility of Pettigrew et al.'s organizational change perspective within the capacity building context is the recognition that capacity building is introduced into a pre-existing set of contextual factors.

Oakland and Tanner's (2007) framework identifies readiness for change and implementing change as two main interacting cycles. Their framework begins with an understanding of the external events that initiate the need for change. The readiness for

change and implementing change cycles function together to assess how organizational systems are prepared for and implement the desired change program, although they note that the readiness aspect is often overlooked in change programs (Oakland & Tanner, 2007). While the framework lends itself well to the capacity building context (cf. Casey et al., 2012), it adopts a broader understanding of what constitutes a change program and is not specific to capacity building, with many of the above-noted concepts not depicted. For instance, the congruence of the capacity building initiative with existing organizational processes and the sustainability of the initiative are not addressed as aspects of the readiness for change cycle. Both of these perspectives demonstrate the utility of understanding capacity building through an organizational change lens. However, because all change is not necessarily capacity building, they overlook some of the critical concepts of capacity building.

Capacity building and organizational strategy. There is also utility in understanding capacity building from an organizational strategy or strategic management perspective. Strategic management may be understood as a set of managerial decisions and actions that can facilitate organizational competitive advantage or superior performance (Cox, Daspit, McLaughlin, & Jones, 2012; Kong, 2008). The fundamental steps include the creation of a mission statement, analysis of the organization's external and internal environments, and selection of appropriate strategies, which ultimately function to set the broad direction for the organization. Whether decisions and actions are deliberate or emergent (Mintzberg, 1987), they relate to a broad level approach to responding to changes in the organization's internal or external environment (Slack & Parent, 2006). In the context of capacity building, organizations will engage in specific

efforts to build capacity in order to improve decision making and make practical changes to maximize opportunities within their environments (Millesen, Carman, & Bies, 2010). Those that do so more strategically (within the context of the organization's needs) will experience greater gains from their building efforts (Millesen et al., 2010). Essentially capacity building, at its core, is rooted in strategic management, in that it relates to modifying organizational practices in ways that are reflective of changes in the organization's environment. However, given the relatively broad nature of organizational strategy as an approach to management, the characteristics and relationships specific to capacity building may be overlooked, and thus strategic management provides a foundational rather than specific frame for capacity building.

The conceptual groupings generated from the classification phase ultimately serve as the basis for the model of capacity building. The following section presents a process model of capacity building that adopts organizational change and organizational strategy perspectives, highlighting the particular concepts involved in capacity building and the relationships among them. Examples specific to the nonprofit and community sport context are indicated.

Phase IV, Explanation

As per de Groot (1969), the proposed model (see Figure 1) is based on data gathered in the exploration phase, and the themes and further conceptual groupings identified in the analysis and classification phases. The explanation phase involves the interpretation and explanation of the relationships among the concepts in the capacity building process.

A Process Model of Capacity Building

Heward et al. (2007) adamantly argue for a redefining of capacity building to ensure that an organizational change perspective is included, not as an option but rather as an imperative. With the exception of Casey et al. (2012), few studies explicitly address the link between organizational change and capacity building. Thus, the model developed here captures change at progressive stages within the capacity building process. It contains similarities to portrayals of organizational change that acknowledge the key drivers for change within and outside the organization and the organization's ability to engage in the desired program or service. However, the model extends this to the capacity building context by highlighting the range of concepts involved in this process and the relationships among them. It also acknowledges capacity building as a strategic process that involves modifying organizational practices to address a need within its environment. Since many of the specifics of each concept were discussed in the classification phase, this section provides a description of the model with a focus on the process of capacity building rather than justification for each concept.

Capacity Building Stimulus

Although it has not been formally conceptualized in the literature to date, it is critical to recognize that capacity building is stimulated as a result of an organization's decision to respond to or act on some environmental force, and thus is ultimately connected to that force and its associated response. Effective capacity building acknowledges what prompted it from the outset, as particular capacity needs, further strategies, and readiness to build are intimately linked to that stimulus. As reported earlier, the CSO capacity literature indicates a variety of forces that have prompted

examination of the organizations' capacity to respond, although that work has not yet extended to the consideration of capacity building. The force(s) represents some opportunity or threat in the organizations' internal and/or external environment to which it chooses to respond. It is expected that an organization will respond to forces that directly pertain to or affect its programs and services, and overall goal achievement while other, tangential, forces will be less likely to prompt a response to act (and build capacity as needed). For example, an external force and subsequent response may include cuts to external funding and a move to pursue a (new) sponsorship partner, or the policy directive of a governing body and the organization's decision to proceed with its implementation. Internal forces and the subsequent responses may include decreasing membership and the introduction of a membership development program, or decreasing volunteer workforce and the introduction of a volunteer recruitment initiative. The nature and relative importance of particular internal and/or external forces require empirical investigation that may inform understanding of the stimulus to capacity building. Nonetheless, an organization's decision to respond to or act on an environmental force may be expected to compel it to determine whether it has the capacity to do so.

Organizational Capacity Needs

The assessment of an organization's capacity to respond will highlight both the particular capacity needs to be able to respond to the environmental force and the organizational assets that may be critical in supporting any capacity building initiative. Effective capacity building relies on this initial needs assessment to prevent an organization from jumping blindly into the capacity building itself. Ineffective capacity building occurs when an organization is unaware of its particular needs and assets

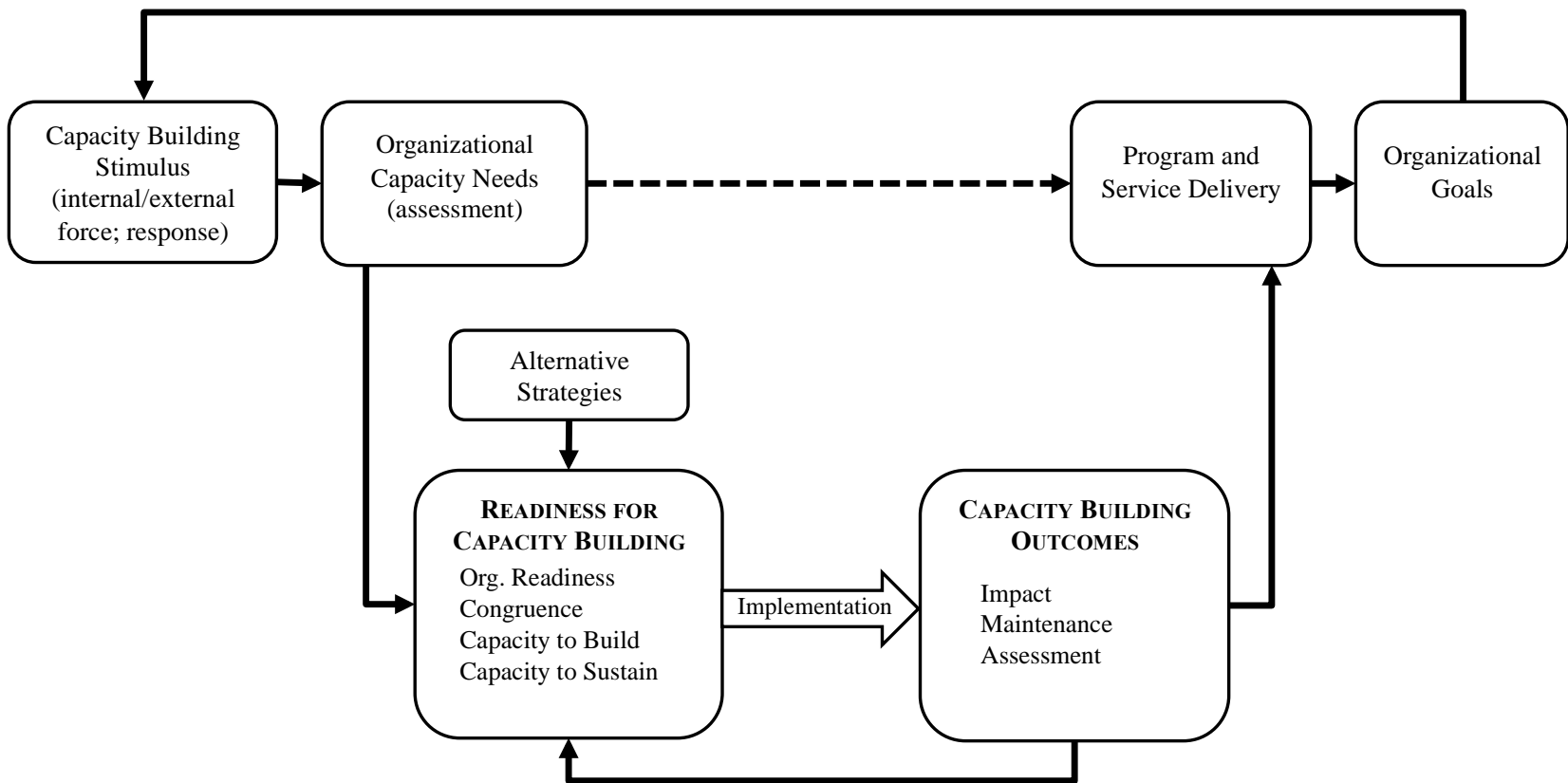


Figure 1. A process model of capacity building.

relating to capacity building. If an organization determines that it has the capacity to respond to the environmental force and carry on – for example, whether it is adjusting for reduced external funding or incorporating a certain policy directive – then capacity building does not take place. In this situation, represented by the dashed line in Figure 1, the organization continues with its program and service delivery, in the pursuit of its goals. If the organization, however, determines that it does not have the capacity to respond, it pursues building its capacity to do so.

The particular capacity needs of the organization will be specific to its response to the environmental force and must be systematically identified as such, including their magnitude and relative importance, rather than relying on what it presumes it has and needs to carry on. For example, the decision to pursue a sponsor may highlight partnership capacity limitations, the introduction of a volunteer recruitment initiative may highlight planning capacity limitations, and the implementation of a new program may highlight human resource and infrastructure capacity limitations. In contrast a, perhaps default, decision to build human resource capacity – based on the notion that an organization always needs volunteers – may not address the organization's critical capacity needs with regard to its desired action. Hall et al.'s (2003) dimensions of critical organizational attributes in nonprofit organizations, and specifically in the CSO context (Misener & Doherty, 2009; Doherty et al., 2014), provide a useful and comprehensive framework for the identification of what may be multiple capacity needs and assets. The capacity to respond to some environmental force may be expected to be a function of one or more of human resources, financial, external relationships, infrastructure and process, and planning and development capacities. Where any of these capacities is deficient,

building is required and should be the focus of strategic efforts. Any one or more of the dimensions may need to be built (developed or strengthened) and any one or more may prove to be a critical asset to supporting that effort. Research in the CSO context has consistently identified human resources as the most critical dimension of capacity for goal achievement (Misener & Doherty, 2009; Wicker & Breuer, 2013) and thus it may also be the dimension most in need of building in order to respond to some environmental force. Financial and planning/development capacity have also been identified as the most vulnerable dimensions of capacity in CSOs (Misener & Doherty, 2009; Sharpe, 2006; Vos et al., 2011; Wicker & Breuer, 2013), and so these dimensions may be the primary focus of building. Importantly, the identification of actual capacity needs, and any gaps in existing capacity, frames the objectives of capacity building.

Readiness for Capacity Building

Readiness to build capacity along one or more dimensions, and to achieve the organization's objectives in that regard, depends on the organization's readiness, congruence of the initiative with the existing organizational processes and environment, and the organization's capacity to build and sustain the change(s). Each of these four factors will vary according to alternative strategies, discussed next. The readiness factors highlight any challenges and opportunities facing capacity building and its desired outcomes; that is, whether the people and processes are in place to facilitate particular capacity building strategies, whether the objectives and strategies of capacity building are congruent with the organization's systems and environment, and whether the built capacity is sustainable and will result in long-term changes. Based on the CSO research to date, it may be expected that an organization will be more 'ready' to build (and

sustain) its (typically strongest and most important) human resource capacity (e.g., recruiting needed volunteers) than its more challenging financial (e.g., increased sponsorship) or planning and development (e.g., strategizing) capacity. Readiness is specific to an organization, and to its capacity needs and assets, and capacity building strategies. However, empirical examination will further understanding of the relative attention to and strength of the readiness factors, and their association with the intent to build certain needs. That readiness is foundational to effective capacity building that fosters sustainable change.

Alternative Strategies

The means by which alternative capacity building strategies are generated, and subsequently selected, are not discussed within the literature. It is, however, an important aspect of capacity building as a strategic process (cf. Chaskin, 2001). An organization may identify several potential strategies to address its capacity needs and objectives. The generation of strategies implies that the organization is open to new and untried alternatives rather than simply relying on what it may have done before (Chelladurai, 2005), and that the organization is concerned with addressing its needs directly through the generation of appropriate strategies. The selection of a combination of internal and external strategies, that address process- and skill-based issues, may be expected to be most effective for short-term and long-term outcomes (Nu'Man et al., 2007). For example, an organization may consider decreasing field size, shortening game times, seeking new facility opportunities, and expanding age groups in order to address a lack of infrastructure in a youth soccer program. Research in the nonprofit sector has tended to focus on the impact of workforce development and influxes in funding as types of

strategies (e.g., Austin et al., 2011; Brown, 2013; Mandeville, 2007; Minzner et al., 2013; Sobeck & Agius, 2007), although these were examined in the context of assumed rather than identified capacity needs. Empirical investigation can further develop this aspect by exploring the processes of generating and selecting strategies that address the specific needs of an organization, and uncovering the importance of this in (un)successful capacity building. Further, the selection of a strategy(s) ultimately depends on readiness for capacity building. That is, whether volunteers are willing to engage in particular strategies, whether any of the strategies align with the organization's existing processes and systems, and whether the organization has the existing capacity to implement the strategies and sustain the built capacity; one or all of the generated strategies may be selected to address the identified capacity needs. Here, too, empirical research can uncover the extent to which all or particular aspects of readiness impact the generation and selection of particular strategies.

Capacity Building Outcomes

The outcomes of capacity building are a direct function of successful strategy implementation, which is dependent on the organization's readiness, the congruence between the capacity building objectives and the organization's processes, and the organization's capacity to build and sustain change. Based on the research to date, it may be expected that organizational readiness, and in particular the level of resistance, will be most impactful on successful capacity building (Casey et al., 2012; Joffres et al., 2004; Kapuca et al., 2007; Sobeck & Agius, 2007). Further investigation is required that takes into account the broader context of the nonprofit and sport organization capacity building process, such as that depicted in the model presented here.

The outcomes of capacity building can be known in terms of both immediate impact on capacity (objectives have been achieved) and whether the built capacity is maintained. This happens through the systematic review and assessment of intended outcomes (Chelladurai, 2005). For example, the assessment of the outcome(s) associated with introducing a fundraising program and attending a budgeting workshop would reveal whether these strategies were effective in achieving the objective of enhancing financial capacity, both in terms of the short-term impact of those strategies (improved financial status and management) and the long-term maintenance of those outcomes. As depicted in Figure 1, a feedback loop exists between the capacity building outcomes and the readiness for capacity building. If it is determined that the capacity building objectives have not been achieved, or the change has not been maintained, this is presumed to be attributable to the organization not being ready to implement the selected strategy(s), not having the capacity to successfully address the identified needs, incongruence between the outcomes of the selected strategy(s) and existing organizational processes and systems, and/or not having the capacity to sustain the changes that resulted from the capacity building. As such, the readiness factors may be re-assessed and alternative capacity building strategies may be implemented to address the identified needs.

Program and Service Delivery, and Organizational Goals

Effective capacity building allows an organization to respond to the forces that prompted the capacity building in the first place, proceed with its program and service delivery, and ultimately achieve its goals. The stimulus that initiates the capacity building process is presumed to pertain directly to the organization's goals. Similarly, the built

capacity that results from addressing the needs associated with a given stimulus relates to the organization's goals. As such, the attainment, or not, of organizational goals may provide the stimulus for further capacity building, as depicted in the feedback loop. Internal or external forces, such as increased membership, a newly developed partnership, or increased funding, may be realized from the achievement of organizational goals and trigger a desire to build on those assets and address any additional needs. Similarly, failure to achieve organizational goals can drive the reassessment of capacity and expose the need to further build that capacity. The nature of these forces is determined by the particular objectives achieved through capacity building and the organizational goals achieved as a result of that process.

Application within the Community Sport Context

This section applies the model to the context of CSOs for the purpose of illustrating the factors and conditions involved in the process of effective organizational capacity building, and to also consider when that might not happen. In this hypothetical example, the "Canoe Club" is experiencing internal and external forces to introduce a parasport component to its current programming. There is growing interest in sport management literature surrounding parasport participation and the organizational considerations required for its implementation (e.g., Forber-Pratt, Scott, & Driscoll, 2012; Misener, Darcy, Legg, & Gilbert, 2013; Perrier, Shirazipour, & Latimer-Cheung, 2014). The low levels of participation in parasport, or sport for persons with a disability, may be attributed to some of the organizational barriers that exist; including, for example, lack of understanding and awareness of how to promote inclusivity, lack of accessible facilities, and limited access to resources and information (Misener & Darcy, 2014). While the

club, in this hypothetical case, offers a wide array of paddling programs, the community has expressed a strong desire for an “on the water” sport for people with disabilities. Further, members of the organization have expressed an interest in expanding programming in order to be more inclusive and provide their community with accessible sport for all. With hopes of responding to the shared desires of the community and its membership, and keeping in line with the club’s mission to provide quality and inclusive programming, the Canoe Club decides to introduce a parasport component to its programming.

In theory, the club is then prompted to examine whether it has the human resources, financial, network and relationship, infrastructure, and planning and development capacities to do this. If the club proceeds with the program without determining its capacity to do so, then it certainly risks failure as needs may be unmet. If the club ‘guesses’ that it needs, for example, money to implement the program and proceeds to build financial capacity, there may also be a reduced likelihood of program success if other aspects of capacity were (also) needed (but not identified). This may not be an unusual scenario as even the nonprofit literature implies (given its almost exclusive focus on these aspects) that financial capacity and leadership capacity are most in need of building, with little or no regard for a specific force/response and respective capacity needs. Following assessment, if the club determines that it possesses the necessary capacity, it may be expected to carry on and provide the new parasport program. (If the club is not interested in addressing the internal and external forces, there would be no need for capacity building.) For the sake of this example, a needs assessment reveals that the Canoe Club lacks aspects of the infrastructure, human resources, and financial

capacities required. Specifically, the club's current facilities are not fully accessible and it does not have the required equipment, meaning that the club does not adhere to the standards outlined in the Accessibility for Ontarians with Disabilities Act (Ministry of Community and Social Services, 2005), and does not have the boats used in paracanoe programming. Further, club volunteers do not possess the expertise needed for parasport programming, meaning that volunteers and coaches lack required knowledge and coaching certification; nor does the club have the revenue required to introduce these changes. At the same time, the Canoe Club confirms that it has a critical mass of dedicated volunteers with a history of doing whatever is required to develop the club and sport. As the club wants to move forward with the parasport program, it sets objectives of building infrastructure, human resources, and financial capacities.

Given its particular capacity needs and objectives, the club ideally identifies alternative strategies and determines its readiness for capacity building. The generation of alternatives allows the Canoe Club to consider several potential means to achieve its capacity building objectives. Because the needs assessment revealed that the CSO lacks aspects of infrastructure, human resources, and financial resources required to introduce a parasport program, the capacity building strategies would be expected to reflect those areas of weakness. In this case, the strategies may include, for example, applying for government funding (e.g., the Para-Equipment Fund through the Canadian Paralympic Committee) to cover costs associated with facility and equipment upgrades, seeking sponsorship from local companies, increasing registration fees to cover the additional costs, and sending volunteers for PaddleALL coaching certification (CanoeKayak Canada, 2015) to develop the skills and acquire the tools needed to offer programs to

persons with a disability. Most importantly, the strategies must directly address the capacity building objectives, which reflect the organization's capacity needs. Again, it is possible that this connection is not realized, if the organization fails to identify its particular needs (objectives) for capacity building, or if the first strategy to come to mind is selected but not capable of addressing the capacity needs.

The club's capacity needs and objectives, and alternative strategies, are critical to its readiness to engage in capacity building. Ideally, the Canoe Club's volunteers are willing and able to apply for government funding, to secure other financial resources, and to develop their knowledge and skills with respect to parasport programming. Ideally, again, these strategies align with or are expected not to be disruptive to its existing practices. In addition, the existing infrastructure, planning, networks, and human and financial resources are ideally able to support any of the capacity building strategies, and to sustain the change that is intended to result from that. Human resources capacity has been identified as the most critical dimension of capacity for goal attainment (Breuer et al., 2012; Misener & Doherty, 2009), and so it may not be unexpected that understanding readiness in general may be limited to that dimension. Nonetheless, all of the aspects of readiness are purported to be critical to effective capacity building, although research in the nonprofit and sport context is necessary to examine the veracity of that notion.

In the hypothetical case, the club is 'ready' to apply for government funding to support the parasport program in terms of equipment acquisitions and facility upgrades; thus building its financial and infrastructure capacity. Also, because the club has a very committed volunteer workforce, with the motivation and aptitude for training and acquiring additional coaching certifications, the club sends its volunteers to a PaddleALL

certification session to develop their parasport skills and knowledge; thus building its human resources capacity. These strategies were chosen based on the club's (hypothetical) access to and relationship with the certification body, and their volunteers' grant writing abilities, relying on existing network and human resources capacities. This highlights the potential impact of an organization's existing capacity assets for further capacity building.

The effectiveness of these strategies is known through the systematic assessment of the capacity building outcomes, including the immediate impact on capacity and maintenance of any change over time. The assessment is expected to reveal whether the funding received and the additional coaching certification address the gaps in infrastructure, human resources, and finances that were identified in the initial capacity needs assessment as barriers to introducing a parasport program. Failure to impact on organizational capacity can be attributed to the club's lack of readiness for capacity building, based on any one or more of the readiness factors. Assuming that the capacity building strategies are effective, the assessment would also determine whether these infrastructure and human resources capacities are maintained over time. Critical outcomes of capacity building are both the short-term impact on financial, infrastructure, and human resources capacity, and the long-term maintenance of those capacities that will enable the club to deliver its new programming, ultimately contributing to organizational goal attainment.

Concluding Comments

The model developed here provides a comprehensive understanding of the capacity building process, while recognizing the interplay between the many concepts

and factors involved. It is intended for broad application, as the factors included are relevant to the nonprofit organizational setting in general. The hypothetical application in the CSO setting exemplifies its use in one specific context. Indeed, a particular utility of this capacity building process model rests in the fact that it is comprehensive, while providing the opportunity for contextualization based on the unique factors and influences that may be involved.

The process model offers an important contribution to the existing capacity building literature. It appears to be the first to depict capacity building from an initial stimulus through to integration into an organization's program and service delivery. While previous models (i.e., Nu'Man et al., 2007; Sobeck & Agius, 2007) have recognized a selection of the components of this model, this is the first attempt at pulling these and other components together, as well as highlighting the connections between them, to depict the process of capacity building in its entirety. In doing so the model also contributes to a clearer conceptualization of organizational capacity building. The literature in general exhibits a high level of confusion and fragmentation in terms of how organizational capacity building is understood and what it entails. This model, and the mechanism for its development, offers a comprehensive and aggregated understanding of capacity building. Most importantly, it provides a framework that sport practitioners and researchers alike can utilize to measure, predict, and explain (in)effective capacity building.

In practice, capacity building is resource intensive and may draw on many dimensions of organizational capacity to accomplish the desired outcomes (Sobeck, Agius, & Mayers, 2007). This introduces an underlying paradox as at least some capacity

is required in order to implement and support capacity building initiatives (Horton et al., 2003). The application of the model in the CSO context highlights areas of importance for success but also areas of concern. For example, CSOs often lack the specialized staff (Misener & Doherty, 2009), the diversification of funding streams (Vos et al., 2011), and the formal and proactive planning (Misener & Doherty, 2009) that may be required for capacity building. While Barr et al. (2006) argue for increased funding and support towards capacity building in the nonprofit sector, the necessary resources to fully support capacity building in sport organizations is not yet evident in the Canadian sport system. This may be a major barrier to capacity building within the community sport context.

Directions for Future Research

Despite the growing body of literature in the area of organizational capacity, considerable gaps remain in our knowledge of the effective building of that capacity. The proposed model provides a foundation for further investigation of capacity building as a process; from the initial stimulus for capacity building and subsequent determination of needs, to the factors that bear on readiness to build, and the influence of that readiness on built and maintained capacity. The model also allows researchers to examine concepts and relationships of particular interest within a broader portrayal of capacity building. A necessary first step, however, is to examine the veracity of the model and specifically the proposed concepts and relationships among them as critical to effective capacity building, with commensurate adjustments to the model as necessary. This may be undertaken through the examination of examples of successful and unsuccessful capacity building, and consideration of the alignment (or not) of the process utilized in each case with the model proposed here.

Research framed by the model may also provide specific insight into the nature and relative importance of the various model concepts (i.e., particular forces that stimulate capacity building, capacity needs, strategies, aspects of readiness), to further contextualize the model to particular settings, such as community sport. For example, research may examine the nature of environmental forces that prompt capacity building (Are there particular internal and external forces that prompt an organizational response that leads to a capacity needs assessment? Which forces and responses provide a stronger impetus for capacity building?). Future research may also examine the relative influence of the various readiness factors on the generation, selection, and implementation of capacity building strategies (Which readiness factors bear more heavily on strategy selection?). Further, research should investigate the relative influence of the readiness factors on the impact of capacity building and maintenance of built capacity (Which readiness factors have a greater influence on the short-term and long-term outcomes of a capacity building initiative? Which readiness factors play a greater role in supporting the maintenance of the built capacity?). All of these questions should be investigated within a broader understanding of capacity building.

Indeed, understanding of capacity building in CSOs, specifically, would benefit from research that addresses, for example, whether CSOs assess multiple dimensions of capacity when determining their ability to address environmental stimuli and their readiness to develop capacity in a given area. As discussed earlier, research indicates that CSOs have several capacity needs (e.g. Misener & Doherty, 2009; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Breuer, 2011), however it is unclear whether CSOs engage in further capacity building, and particularly whether they follow a systematic process, such as the one modeled here.

As such, future research may examine, for example, what internal and/or external forces elicit an organizational response that prompts an assessment of capacity needs; the extent to which CSOs are 'ready' to build their capacity, what readiness factors appear to be stronger and weaker in this context, and whether there are patterns of readiness in relation to particular stimuli to capacity building (e.g., Are CSOs more ready to build human resources than planning capacity?); and, to what extent the short-term and long-term outcomes of capacity building are assessed in CSOs and whether unsuccessful capacity building is (re)addressed.

The shift from the examination of organizational capacity to how it is built (Sobeck & Agius, 2007) further enhances understanding of organizational capacity itself. For example, the multidimensionality of organizational capacity has been supported in previous research (e.g., Doherty et al., 2014; Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011; Misener & Doherty, 2009; Nu'Man et al., 2007; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Breuer, 2011), but few have considered it from a building perspective. The examination of capacity building may provide further insight into the multidimensionality of capacity, as well as factors that prompt its assessment within an organization, and the organization's readiness to build or strengthen areas of weakness. As such, the process model not only provides the basis for the analysis of organizational capacity building, but also reflects back on organizational capacity and thus, provides insight into this foundational construct.

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Study 2:
An Investigation of Strategic Capacity Building in Community Sport Organizations

Organizational capacity is the assets and resources an organization draws on to achieve its goals (Hall et al., 2003). It has been the focus of increasing attention in the nonprofit sector, and community sport context in particular, as scholars endeavour to understand the critical dimensions of capacity, and determine community sport organizations' strengths and challenges with regard to those factors (see Misener & Doherty, 2009, 2013; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Hallman, 2013). This research has implications for capacity building, yet there has been limited consideration of the processes and conditions involved in that building process (Sobeck & Agius, 2007). Capacity building is an approach to developing an organization's resources and improving its ability to utilize those resources in order to successfully respond to new or changing situations (Aref, 2011). Capacity building presents a targeted approach to addressing the challenges an organization faces by focusing the development efforts on the specific needs of the individual organization. The limited consideration of capacity building in the existing literature may be because it is a contested concept, with confusion and vagueness regarding what it really entails (Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011; Simmons, Reynolds, & Swinburn, 2011). Nonetheless, it is important to understand the mechanisms through which nonprofit voluntary organizations, and community sport organizations in particular, build their capacity.

Community sport organizations (CSOs) provide sport and physical recreation opportunities at the community level (Cuskelly, 2004), and are characterized by their local focus, modest budgets, almost exclusive reliance on volunteers, and relatively informal structures (Doherty, Misener, & Cuskelly, 2014). The study of CSO capacity

has focused mainly on determining whether CSOs have the capacity to respond to particular environmental forces; for example, an expectation to implement policy pertaining to increasing sport participation (e.g., Adams, 2008; Garrett, 2004; Harris & Houlihan, 2014; Vos et al., 2011), or declining volunteerism (e.g., Breuer, Wicker, & Von Hanau, 2012; Nichols, Tacon, & Muir, 2013). While this growing body of research has furthered understanding of the challenges experienced by these organizations, it has been limited to a focus on the identification of capacity strengths and challenges. Few studies have extended this to the consideration of capacity building (Adams, 2008).

As a foundation for such inquiry, a process model of capacity building was developed to provide a comprehensive understanding of the capacity building process, including the stimulus for capacity building, the needs associated with responding to that stimulus, the organization's readiness for capacity building, strategy generation and selection, and the short- and long-term impact of those strategies (Study 1). It illustrates effective capacity building as a strategic process, highlighting the key concepts and conditions involved in that process and the relationships among them. The model is outlined below. The purpose of this study was to examine capacity building in the CSO context in order to (1) gain insight into the nature of the conditions and processes in the community sport context, and (2) examine the veracity of the proposed model. This is undertaken through the examination, and comparison, of cases of successful and unsuccessful organizational capacity building. The findings enhance understanding of effective (and ineffective) capacity building, and help further refine the proposed process model (Study 1).

Review of Literature

Organizational Capacity Building

Capacity building is a natural extension of the inquiry surrounding organizational capacity, as a strategic process to address gaps in one or more dimensions of organizational capacity. However, broad terms that do not distinguish building *organizational* capacity from building capacity at the individual, community, or systemic levels have been used within the literature to describe and analyze capacity building (Simmons et al., 2011). As a result, understanding of what makes for effective capacity building, and the factors that influence this process more specifically, are not well developed (Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011). Notably, the conditions that facilitate or hinder *organizational* capacity building are unclear.

Existing capacity building research focuses predominantly on single aspects of the building process, leaving the understanding of effective capacity building fragmented and incomplete. This is reflected in the continued focus on its conceptualization and the assessment of capacity building strategies, with little reflection or examination of the factors that affect the process of effective capacity building (Sobeck & Agius, 2007). Specifically, research has tended to focus on the impact of particular capacity building strategies (e.g., Casey, Payne, & Eime, 2009b; Cairns, Harris, & Young, 2005; Joffres et al., 2004); the identification of organizational needs that precedes capacity building (Aref, 2011; Horton et al., 2003); organizational readiness for change as it relates to capacity building (e.g., Casey et al., 2009b; Kapuca, Augustin, & Krause 2007; Nu'Man, King, Bhalakia, & Criss, 2007); and, the outcomes generally associated with capacity building (e.g., Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011; Minzner, Klerman, Markovitz, & Fink,

2013; Sobeck & Agius, 2007). These aspects of capacity building have been examined and, thus understood, irrespective of one another, limiting understanding of capacity building as a strategic process.

Organizational Capacity Building in the Sport Context

As noted, research in the sport context has focused largely on the identification and exploration of the needs within these organizations, as well as focusing on the outcomes of specific strategies, such as training workshops (Millar & Stevens, 2012) and partnership formation (Babiak & Thibault, 2009). Research in this area serves to highlight the multidimensionality of organizational capacity and to enhance understanding of those dimensions (e.g., human resources, financial, network and relationships, planning and development, and infrastructure and process; Hall et al., 2003). Perhaps surprisingly, little research in this context has ventured to explore the processes involved in building one or more of those dimensions as a strategy to address organizational challenges or weaknesses.

With the exception of Casey, Payne, and Eime (2009a, 2009b, 2012), research surrounding organizational capacity building in the sport context is limited. Casey et al.'s line of research focused on whether particular strategies supported capacity development in sport and recreation organizations that subsequently facilitated the implementation of externally directed programming (2009a, 2009b, 2012). That body of work, while informing and perhaps promoting the further study of capacity building in the nonprofit sport context, focuses on a narrow element of the capacity building process, limiting understanding of the stimulus, specific needs, readiness for alternative strategies, and immediate and long-term impact of the capacity building initiatives. Consequently, this

line of research contributed to the greater trend of understanding capacity building as a general concept. Additionally, research in the sport context has focused largely on capacity development *through* sport, sport as a tool to build community capacity, and sport *for* the development of capacity (i.e., Bolton, Fleming, & Elias, 2008; Lawson, 2005; Skinner, Zakus, & Cowell, 2008), none of which explore the building of organizational capacity to address the needs (weaknesses or challenges) of a specific organization. Instead, this body of work understands sport as a tool to develop better community and citizen life outcomes and to deal with social issues, foster social inclusion, and build positive social capital.

Process Model of Capacity Building

This investigation follows a process model of capacity building in nonprofit and voluntary organizations (see Figure 2; Study 1). The model was developed to address a gap in the literature regarding the conceptualization of capacity building as a comprehensive process that may be prompted by organizational needs, that depends on critical organizational and environmental factors, and the outcomes of which may be viewed from multiple perspectives. Derived from the literature (cf. de Groot, 1969), the theoretical model contends that successful capacity building depends on an assessment of capacity needs pertaining to a given organizational response to an internal or external environmental force. An organization may choose not to respond to some stimulus and therefore capacity building is not needed or undertaken. Capacity needs are expected to vary with the particular stimulus, and become the basis of the capacity building objectives.

In the nonprofit sport context, organizational capacity, and related capacity needs, may be defined as an organization's human resources, financial resources, or existing relationships, planning, and infrastructure (Doherty et al., 2014; Hall et al., 2003; Misener & Doherty, 2009; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Hallman, 2013). A CSO may determine that it does not have, for example, the financial assets sufficient to launch a new recreational program, in response to member pressure to do so, and therefore sets an objective to build that capacity. Effective capacity building is purported to rely on readiness for that capacity building with respect to the identified objectives and alternative strategies. Specifically, organizational readiness (member ability and willingness), strategy congruence with organizational processes and systems (alignment with existing processes, systems, and organizational missions and mandates), and existing capacity to both build and sustain change must be considered.

It is, evidently, paradoxical to require capacity in order to build it, however organizations need to rely on the skills, abilities, and infrastructure that they already possess. The generation and ultimate selection of a particular capacity building strategy(s) is based on overall readiness to implement that strategy(s). The successful outcomes of capacity building are dependent on the extent to which the organization is ready to implement a strategy that addresses its capacity needs, and can be known in terms of both immediate impact (objectives have been achieved) and whether the built capacity is maintained. Effective capacity building results in both immediate and sustained changes in the form of, for example, enhanced human resources, infrastructure, or partnerships. The current study uncovered the force and response, capacity needs and

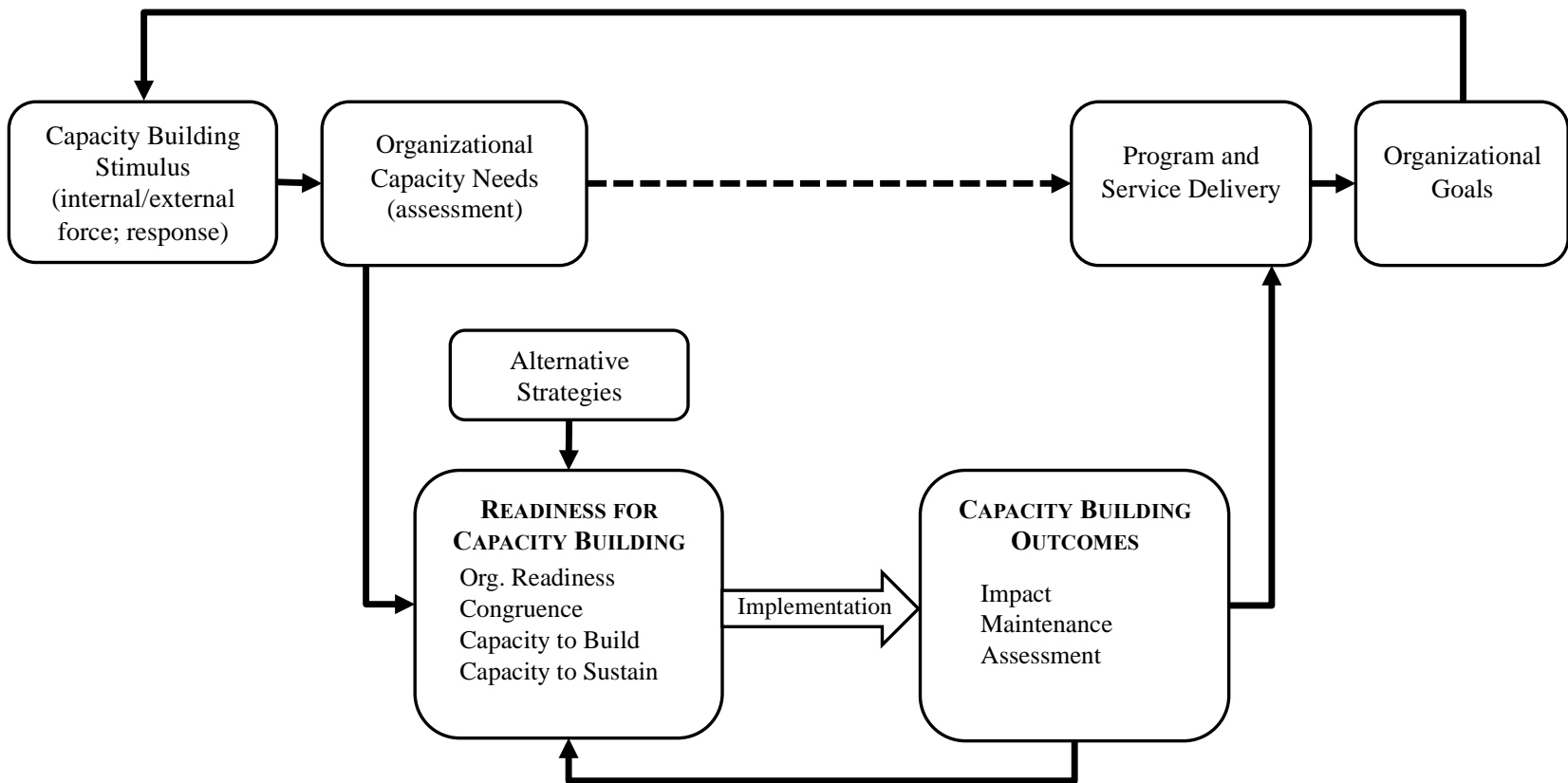


Figure 2. A process model of capacity building.

assets, selected strategies and readiness to implement them to build capacity and, ultimately, the impact of built and sustained capacity.

Methods

An instrumental multiple case study approach was used as it enabled the in-depth study of specific cases that may enhance the examination of the phenomenon of interest (Stake, 2006). The multiple case study approach guided the interpretation and comparison of the profiles of capacity building in different CSOs. In order to fully address the study's purpose of gaining insight into the nature of the conditions and processes of capacity building in this context, two CSOs were purposefully investigated (Patton, 2015): one that experienced successful capacity building that ultimately enhanced the organization's program and service delivery, and one that experienced unsuccessful capacity building where organizational needs were not able to be effectively addressed. These two CSOs were purposefully selected in order to demonstrate different perspectives on the topic of study (Creswell, Hansen, Clark, & Morales, 2007). Intentionally sampling discrepant cases leads to clear pattern recognition of the central concepts, relationships, and the logic of the phenomenon being studied (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). Further, by selecting both successful and unsuccessful cases of capacity building, understanding of the conditions associated with this process is enhanced by considering what did and did not work in each case (Patton, 1999).

Cases

Prospective CSOs for the study were initially approached based on whether they had recently attempted new initiatives, for which they may have had to build capacity. The researcher was made aware of the potential CSOs through word of mouth and

searching organization websites. Those CSOs that had recent initiatives which did or did not come to fruition were contacted via email, based on the assumption that a (un)successful initiative meant that (un)successful capacity building had taken place. Specifically, the presidents of each club were provided with a letter of information outlining the purpose of the study, what was involved in participation, and an invitation to participate. Upon agreement from the CSO's president, and based on whether the club had in fact attempted any capacity building, the president was asked to circulate a letter of information and invitation to participate to the club's executive board, key volunteers, club members, and relevant program personnel. Those interested in participating contacted the researcher directly to arrange an interview.

CSOs examined in this study are located in a midsized city in central Canada. The subject of the first case is a curling club that provides recreational, social, and interclub competitive curling programs for ages seven and up. The club operates alongside a golf club, with separate boards overseeing the curling and golf programs and activities. The mandate of the curling component of the club is to provide a quality program across all age groups that promotes participation and creates opportunities for competitive development. The curling club experienced successful capacity building in order to introduce a program for new curlers. The study was undertaken three months following the completion of the new program's first season (with the intent of offering the program again the following year).

The subject of the second case is a football club that provides competitive football programs, with a focus on development, for ages eight and up. The mission of the football club is to offer youth the opportunity to learn and play football in a safe

environment, through providing elite training and coaching at the best facilities in the area. This club was unsuccessful in developing its capacity to introduce a new recreational league program. The study was undertaken shortly after the cancellation of the program, which had already been promoted publicly and was cancelled six weeks before its intended launch.

Data Collection and Analysis

The profiles of capacity building for each club were generated through the triangulation of sources (Patton, 2015; Stake, 2005). Specifically, each case profile was developed based on semi-structured interviews with a combination of key decision-makers (presidents, directors, coordinators) and secondary stakeholders for each organization (members, instructors). Although additional sources may be useful for profiling a case (e.g., document analysis), no such other sources pertaining to capacity building existed for these cases.

In case 1, interviews ($n = 5$) were conducted with the curling coordinator, the vice-president, a program instructor, and two participants of the newcomer program. This comprised all of the key decision-makers and several stakeholders for curling-related programming. In case 2, interviews ($n = 4$) were conducted with the president and founder, the vice-president of football operations, the coaching director, and director at large. Two remaining board members, who felt they had no role in the introduction of the new program and any associated capacity building efforts, declined interviews. As such, the interviews conducted comprised the club's key decision-makers and those involved in the capacity building efforts being investigated. Together these individuals represent the clubs' governance and service delivery, thus providing meaningful insights into the

thinking, interactions, and nuances of the capacity building process. The interview guide used for both cases addressed the initial stimulus for capacity building, the factors that bear on readiness to build, strategy selection and implementation, and the influence of that readiness on built and maintained capacity. Participants were also asked about their role in the decision making and/or identification of these components of capacity building. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim.

A 'case record' was developed for each club that was informed by the interviewees' perspectives (Patton, 2015). To do this, and to enhance trustworthiness, the researcher and her supervisor read the transcripts independently, drawing judgments and interpretations about the meaning of the data (Patton, 2015). Data were then subjected to a priori coding according to concepts in the model, and emergent coding of any subthemes (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), resulting in the development of independent coding frameworks. Notes were then exchanged between the researcher and her supervisor, and the various interpretations and nuances of the themes were discussed. Once there was agreement on the meaning of each theme and subtheme, all of the transcripts were coded by this scheme and inputted into NVivo 10. The insights provided by the various members interviewed within each club were reconciled, resulting in two case records that represent rich profiles of capacity building. Comparisons were then made between the two case records in order to identify any commonalities and variations; a number of inferences relating to the success of capacity building efforts were generated from the multiple case findings (Stake, 2006).

Findings

The findings revealed the key conditions and processes of both the successful and unsuccessful capacity building efforts. The findings, based on the concepts included in the process model of capacity building (Study 1), are presented below along with representative quotations, and are summarized in Table 1.

Case 1 – Successful Capacity Building

Force and response. Participants in Case 1 identified two forces that ultimately triggered the capacity building process: (1) decrease in membership; and (2) interest in skill-based instruction. The club's response to these forces was the proposed introduction of a membership development program in the form of a beginners' curling league. As one participant stated, in speaking of the purpose of the new league,

It was twofold; it was to attract new members to the club [who] maybe wanted to experience curling [who] had never tried, and it was also to give [instruction to] some existing members who have curled for maybe a year or so but really needed a lot of instruction. (Curling Coordinator)

Participants felt that one of the barriers to participation in curling was lack of skill or a general unawareness about how the sport is played, and that an instruction-based league would address this. As the Curling Coordinator noted, "this [new league] was just to basically get new people in to try the game, to get them comfortable with the game; we felt that if they were comfortable with the game, they would want to stay." Participants also recognized the state of participation in curling as a key issue for their club: "well, it certainly is an area that isn't growing quickly...[the new league] looks like incentive to

Table 1

Summary of Findings

	Case 1 – Curling Club	Case 2 – Football Club
Force	Decrease in membership Interest in skill-based instruction	Need for a feeder system to their competitive program
Proposed Response	Introduce a beginner curling league	Introduce a minor football league
Capacity Needs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Human resource capacity (instructors) • Financial capacity (money for promotion and instructor compensation) • Infrastructure and process capacity (facility scheduling) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Human resource capacity (skilled executive) • Financial capacity (money for promotion/advertising) • Relationship and network capacity (reputation of recreational programs)
Capacity Assets	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Human resource capacity (volunteer and member support) • Planning and development capacity (program plan) • Infrastructure and process capacity (facility and equipment) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Infrastructure and process capacity (field time and equipment) • Human resource capacity (coaching) • Relationship and network capacity (reputation of elite programs)
Strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shifted funds from competitive program to support compensation of instructors • Approached local university and college curlers to fill instructor roles • Rescheduled men’s competitive league to create desirable timeslot 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low league registration fee • Placed responsibility on two executive members • One-time advertisements at other league’s registration, information session at some schools • Relied on reputation in community • Applied for provincial grant funding

Readiness for Capacity Building

- Willingness to commit resources to addressing capacity needs (organizational readiness)
- Added work was worthwhile (congruence)
- Congruency between strategies and club's objectives (congruence)
- Club relied on existing capacities (quality of facility, commitment of existing members, relationships within the local curling community) (capacity to build)
- Too much added work for executive members (congruence)
- Congruency between league and club's objectives (congruence)
- Conflicts between competitive program and proposed new league, poor communication within executive (congruence; organizational readiness)
- Lack of willingness from executive to be involved in planning, and to commit resources to addressing capacity needs (organizational readiness)
- Club relied heavily on reputation in community (capacity to build)
- Lack of capacity to address capacity needs (communication issues, lack of skilled people, lack of funds, lack of collective goal in the planning phases) (capacity to build)

Outcomes/Impact

- Successful in addressing capacity needs
- Successful in addressing decreasing membership concerns
- Lack of financial capacity to sustain the implemented strategies, or program
- Lack of human resource and financial capacity to sustain the advertising/promotion of the program
- Reassessment of the capacity needed to sustain the program
- Unsuccessful in addressing capacity needs
- League did not go forward
- Club committed to offering the league despite identifying the needs in order to do so
- Reassessment of club's readiness to build capacity prior to undertaking capacity building strategies

Successful?

Yes

No

join the club” (Vice-President). Participants agreed that membership in the club was an issue and that this program was an appropriate response to that force.

Capacity needs and assets. Three subthemes representing capacity needs pertaining to the proposed new program were identified, including: (1) instructors to facilitate the program (human resource capacity), (2) money to support the promotion of the program and to compensate instructors (financial capacity), and (3) room in their facility scheduling to allow for the program (infrastructure and process capacity).

Not having instructors secured for the new program was a major concern for the curling club. Participants felt that if they could not secure qualified instructors then the program as a whole would be unsuccessful: “Probably the biggest thing was to make sure we had very competent instructors in place because the last thing we wanted was to have a program with participants and no one to instruct them...that was our biggest concern” (Curling Coordinator). Participants also felt that the club did not have the money to support the promotion of and advertisements for the new program, or to compensate the instructors. As one participant stated, “we had some funds available, we would have liked to have had more...we had some challenges...advertising money is always a bit of a hurdle” (Curling Coordinator). Finally, there were concerns surrounding the scheduling of the new league and whether the club could create room in their existing schedule: “time slotting was, our evenings are booked solid...could we accommodate that? And where could they do it where they would feel comfortable? Like we didn’t want to throw it in on a competition evening” (Vice-President). These gaps in capacity were ultimately the focus of the club’s capacity building efforts, with the concrete objectives of building human resources, financial, and infrastructure capacities of the club.

Three subthemes representing capacity assets pertaining to the introduction of the new program were also identified, including: (1) volunteer and member support for the program (human resource capacity), (2) having a program plan (planning and development capacity), and (3) the club's facilities and access to equipment (infrastructure and process capacity).

In speaking about the supportive culture of the curling club and towards the new program specifically, one participant noted, "this may sound a little odd, but...we also try and leverage off our members and make sure they're welcoming to anybody [who's] coming in new...the members were very on side and very supportive of it" (Curling Coordinator). Two curlers participating in the new program also recognized the support from existing members: "They were very inclusive of you even though you were new, you know, you were made to feel welcome" (New Curler); "in terms of the atmosphere and the culture there, people seemed to really be interested in us, excited for us, rooting for us" (New Curler). Having a program plan to follow for the implementation of the new program was seen as a key asset for the club: "we actually had a bit of a model of a program to follow that had started in [another city] actually and it set out for us basically the number of instructors you would need for participants, like the ratio, what a start up cost would be...and all that type of thing" (Curling Coordinator).

The club's facilities were identified as one of the greatest strengths of the club, in terms of both the quality of the ice and layout of the facility: "we have excellent ice [and] we leverage on our club as a whole too because it's not your typical curling club like [there's] a little bit more to it and it has more to offer...people quite like our actual physical clubhouse" (Curling Coordinator). The new curlers also identified the facilities

as a great strength of the club, stating that it is a “much nicer environment and the facilities, the restaurant and that, were better” (New Curler) and has “terrific, really good ice; brooms were available to us, lots of information” (New Curler). The above statements also allude to the fact that equipment was made available for the participants of the new program. Access to equipment was identified as an asset for the club: “we have enough brooms, et cetera, that anyone can use, so that wasn’t an issue” (Vice-President); “as far as a lot of the equipment goes, we had a lot of it in place...so that part was fine” (Curling Coordinator). The club’s capacity assets provided resources that the club could rely upon in addressing the identified capacity needs.

Capacity building strategies and readiness. Three subthemes were identified that represent the strategies that were implemented to address the capacity needs associated with introducing the new beginners’ curling league, including (1) approaching the local university and college curling team athletes to fill the instructor roles, (2) drawing funds from their competitive programs to support the compensation of these instructors and promotion of the program, and (3) moving the men’s competitive league to a later timeslot to offer a more desirable timeslot to the newcomers.

With regard to readiness to implement each of these strategies, four subthemes (as they relate to the readiness factors outlined in the model) were uncovered: (1) a willingness to commit the necessary resources to address the capacity needs (organizational readiness), (2) added work involved but was seen as worthwhile (congruence), (3) congruency between the strategies and the club’s objectives (congruence), and (4) reliance on the club’s existing capacities (capacity to build). In

speaking of the added work associated with implementing the capacity building strategies, one participant noted:

It was extra work, of course, but we were certainly hoping the pay off would be good. I don't know if you always realize how much work is involved in something until you get into it, but [we] did realize that there would be some extra work. (Curling Coordinator)

Participants also felt that the capacity building strategies, and the new program itself, were congruent with the mandate of the club and that there was little resistance towards these efforts: "there wasn't resistance, it was quite well received...I wouldn't say it was a resistance, but we [the curling committee] did have to put together a business plan and had to present that to our board of directors because it was new...we had to make sure that they were all on side" (Curling Coordinator); "there was no resistance at all; as long as we come forward with all of the recommendations...the board is open to that" (Vice-President). As discussed above, participants noted that the club had several strengths on which it could rely to facilitate the implementation of the capacity building strategies, including a supportive membership, quality facility, and relationships within the curling community. Further, a Program Instructor spoke of the benefit of a supportive membership when approaching local curlers to fill the instructor roles, in highlighting that they were "familiar with people there, could answer any questions [they] might have or guide them along in that regard; [member] knowledge and experience was key, for sure." When asked about whether the club possessed the capacity to sustain any built capacity, participants were very casual in their responses suggesting that sustaining the impacts would not be a problem, once they got to that point in time. It was assumed that

if they could implement the strategies to build the needed capacity that it would be maintained without issue.

Impact. The participants noted that the club was able to address its human resources needs through recruitment of skilled instructors from the local university and college teams, and was able to address its infrastructure and process needs through shuffling its schedule. The club was also able to rely on financial support from other club programs to provide compensation for instructors while keeping registration costs at a reasonable rate.

Despite indicating that sustaining the impacts of capacity building would not be an issue, in terms of being ready to do so, study participants noted that the club might lack the financial capacity to maintain the actual outcomes of its capacity building efforts. Because the club's strategy to address the gaps in its financial capacity was to shuffle funds around within the club, participants expressed concern that those resources may eventually become exhausted: "it's a pretty resource intensive program to put on" (New Curler); "our capacity or ability maybe to sustain to me is key to keep this going, and just the challenges in that, I mean having the resources as far as both financially and personnel wise" (Curling Coordinator). Similarly, participants felt that the lower than desired registration in the new program was due to the limited advertising that was done, noting that "the biggest issue was advertising and getting the word out as to what was available" (Vice-President). While this was not identified as introducing additional needs, evidently the limited advertising that occurred could be a result of a lack of capacity to do so.

Overall, this curling club displays a case where successful capacity building occurred, at least for the short term. The club approached capacity building from a strategic process perspective, from the initial response to the internal and external stimuli placed on the club (introducing a membership development program to address decreasing membership), to the assessment of the needs associated with this response (acquiring instructors, securing funds to compensate instructors and support promotion of the program, fitting the new league into the schedule), to the consideration of the club's readiness to go forward with capacity building (willing staff, congruent with club's mandate and mission, ability to leverage existing resources), through to the implementation of capacity building strategies (shifting funds around, securing instructors, scheduling changes) and the assessment of the outcomes (built human resources and infrastructure capacity). The curling club's success in building the required capacity to address their needs resulted in the introduction of a program for new curlers into the club's program and service delivery, ultimately contributing to the overall organizational goal of promoting participation in curling across all age groups.

Case 2 – Unsuccessful Capacity Building

Force and response. Participants in Case 2 identified the need for a feeder system into their competitive program as the force that ultimately triggered the capacity building process. The football club was experiencing a decline in the number of youth entering their competitive program, which they attributed to a growing conflict with the local recreational league that traditionally functioned as their feeder program. The response to this force was the proposed introduction of the club's own recreational league that would function as a feeder league to their competitive program. As one participant

stated, in speaking of the conflict with the organization that was offering the existing league,

We're a [competitive] program, so being a [competitive] program, we have to have a feeder system and we were trying to work with the current system, the [recreational] league system in [city]...and they didn't seem to be interested in working with us, so, we know to fill our club, to get our kids into the system, we wanted kids at the grassroots level. So that's where the idea came that we would just create our own [recreational] league under our own direction. (Vice-President)

Participants felt that the conflict with the existing local recreational league (run by a separate organization) was a major barrier to increasing their club's membership in its competitive program. As one participant noted, "we want more kids playing football at the younger ages, it will give us more opportunities to get kids [who] are at the level to be able to play at the [competitive] level" (Vice-President). Participants agreed that their lack of a feeder system into their competitive program was an issue for the club, and that introducing their own recreational league was an appropriate response to this force.

Capacity needs and assets. Three subthemes representing the club's capacity needs with regard to the proposed program were identified, including: (1) skilled executive members to handle recruitment (human resource capacity), (2) money to support the advertising efforts (financial capacity), and (3) reputation surrounding recreational programs (relationship and network capacity).

Participants felt that the club lacked the skill on their executive to introduce the new recreational league, and to handle the player recruitment, more specifically. As one

participant noted: “we didn’t have the organization, didn’t have the right people... we didn’t have enough people who knew how to start [a league]” (Director at Large). Participants also felt that the club lacked the financial resources to support the new recreational league and the advertising required to get it started: “I think number one, financially, there wasn’t enough money to support advertising and to support, even little things, and there just seemed to be a disconnect...there was no money put into it” (Coaching Director). Finally, participants expressed concerns about whether they had the reputation surrounding their recreational programs to attract community members, as stated by the President: “our number one concern was, could we get the kids...the main challenge was how do we get a community that has supported [the other club]?” During the interviews, participants expressed frustration that they had not considered the planning involved in introducing a new recreational league: “you can’t just start go from here and expect it to work” (Coaching Director). Evidently this was a need of the club, but was not identified as such prior to the capacity building efforts. The identified gaps in the club’s capacity were the focus of the club’s capacity building efforts going forward, with the objectives of building financial, human resource, and relationship and network capacities of the club.

Three subthemes representing the club’s capacity assets were also identified, including: (1) having the field time and equipment required for the new recreational league (infrastructure and process capacity), (2) having access to the necessary coaches (human resource capacity), and (3) having a strong reputation surrounding its elite programs (relationship and network capacity).

In speaking about the field time and equipment required for the new recreational league, two participants noted that this was not a concern for the club, “of course facility, are we going to have a field? And that was already taken care of; times, practice times, all those kinds of things, so that was all, everything was in place” (Coaching Director); “basically it was the fields and the refs, we had them already prepared...we had the fields and the refs, which is the important thing, and the practice fields” (Director at Large). Participants also felt that having access to the necessary coaches was a strength of the club: “we had enough coaches to get by and then to build on once we get going” (Coaching Director). The club’s reputation with regard to its elite programs was identified as one of the greatest strengths of the club, in terms of both attracting members to its elite teams and providing a “winning team” on the field. Participants alluded to the value that the club places on its reputation within the community to attract elite players to their club. This strong reputation surrounding the club’s elite programs also extended to the participants believing that they would offer a better program than its competitors at the recreational level:

We just felt that providing a better, if someone read what we were doing that looking at their options they would [choose] us with a fresher approach, with the success of the [competitive] program as well, with its affiliation[s], the whole, we felt it was a better package, we just felt that we had a better thing to offer than our competition...we feel that once we get the kids into our system, we have a very good retention...because they buy into what we’re doing and they feel fortunate that they’re playing in [our] organization...we’ve got a good name out there across the board. (Vice-President)

Participants believed that the club's capacity assets would enable the club to address the above capacity needs.

Capacity building strategies and readiness. Five subthemes were identified that represent the strategies that the club implemented to address the financial, human resource, and relationship and network capacity needs associated with introducing a new recreational league, including: (1) offering a low league registration fee, (2) placing responsibility on two executive members, (3) posting one-time advertisements, (4) relying on the reputation of its elite program to attract members and enhance the reputation of the club's recreational program, and (5) applying for provincial grants.

With regard to readiness to implement each of these strategies, five subthemes (as they relate to the readiness factors outlined in the model) emerged: (1) too much added work for the executive members (congruence), (2) conflicts between the competitive program and the new recreational league (congruence, organizational readiness), (3) lack of willingness and commitment from the executive to be involved in the planning of the new recreational league (organizational readiness), (4) lack of capacity to address the club's capacity needs (capacity to build), and (5) congruency between the new recreational league and the club's objectives (congruence). With regard to addressing human resource capacity by specifically assigning the work to two executive members, participants noted that the added work ended up being disruptive and was too much responsibility placed on those members: "it was too much on [their] plate, it wasn't fair for [them] to have [that]" (Director at Large); "I can understand why some of our key, one of our, a couple of our key people didn't want to do it because they were also the ones doing the registration, doing the equipment, doing this, doing that" (Vice-President).

The amount of added work contributed, to some degree, to conflicts within the club's executive, specifically between those responsible for the competitive program and those responsible for the new recreational league program. As one participant stated,

Within the so-called board, they weren't going to lend their support, 'it was a stupid idea, we don't need to do this', and that was it. Once we lost some support, or some potential support, and we never expected that they were going to do that, and so we were left out on a limb by ourselves, basically...because people didn't want any part of the [recreational league] program...it didn't matter what you did, they weren't going to go along with it. They thought, because it might cut into what their role was, and then they weren't involved to what degree they thought they should be, so as far as they were concerned it was a waste of time. (Coaching Director)

Another participant discussed the conflict that arose within the club based on where and on whom the responsibility should have fallen:

People on our board, they felt they should be in charge of the [recreational] league and that they should operate the [recreational] league over other people [who] felt they should operate the [recreational] league...and then people [who] weren't included in that now wanted to be included, and then when they got included, they didn't really want to help...that's a slippery slope because...these people are valuable to our organization...so you've got to be careful telling someone what they are going to or not going to spend their time doing. (Vice-President)

Participants also revealed that there was a lack of willingness and commitment to be involved with the planning and implementation of the new recreational league. Several

participants expressed statements indicating a general lack of commitment to the capacity building efforts, and the new recreational league as a whole: “this was not something that we wanted to do” (President); “I was prepared to [drop it] mid-stream if that’s what it took” (Vice-President). Participants also more explicitly expressed the lack of commitment towards the new recreational league and the capacity building efforts: “there was no unified force saying ‘yeah, we believe, we’re committed’, it was ‘yeah we think we can do this, oh, wait we’re not doing that, that’s a stupid idea’” (Coaching Director). The lack of commitment and willingness to support the capacity building efforts revealed that they were not emotionally ready to be involved in these efforts.

Participants also felt that the club lacked the existing capacity to build the capacity required to address the needs associated with introducing the new recreational league. In addition to the need for personnel to organize the program, participants also identified the board itself as a capacity deficit, both in terms of its structure and function, that hurt the club’s ability to build other aspects in order to implement the recreational league: “the board was not really a board, we never met...[one executive member] is the motivating force...things get done when [they] get around to doing them...[they] just wanted to go boom, here you go, get it done, you know. And eventually when things fall apart people start to get mad, so that didn’t address [any] issues” (Coaching Director); “reality is that we needed more people...to be more involved in the organization and we didn’t have that, and so everybody got burnt out, because we have our own jobs, our own lives, you need more people, more volunteers” (Director at Large). Participants also indicated that the club did not have the financial capacity to support the capacity building efforts and that this was a concern: “all of the money went [to competitive], and we

didn't raise money to start this league up, you know, we've got the fields ready, we got this ready, we got all of the back end but we didn't put the money into the front end" (Director at Large).

Further, the club lacked the existing capacity to successfully complete the application forms for available provincial grant funding. One participant spoke of the process of applying for a particular grant knowing that they were unlikely to get it based on their inability to demonstrate financial competency, which as they stated,

Impacted not getting the provincial grants because they want to see some sustainability and there was nothing like that...it was just big wads of cash being dropped onto the book, that's the way it was...they care about seeing in, you know, 2010, we had such and such in the bank, in 2011...especially when you work from a zero-based budget...you're not supposed to carry over huge amounts of cash or have cash just suddenly drop out of the sky...three reports later it didn't work. (Coaching Director)

The club maintains that the introduction of this new league was consistent with its objectives and mission: "it's about having kids play football, get more kids actively involved with football, having fun, learning...it aligned with everything, getting more kids involved, understanding, getting involved with what we're doing...absolutely it aligned" (President). However, based on the conflicts that arose throughout the capacity building process, it appears that the club as a whole did not feel this way. Overall, they were not ready or committed to invest the resources and building efforts in order to actually get the league started.

The club ended up implementing the capacity building strategies that were the easiest and cheapest, regardless of whether they addressed the key needs of the club: “we [tried] to go with the most inexpensive, low-lying fruit, easiest way” (President) and acknowledged that there came a point where they just “had to pull the trigger...we had to go all in” (President) despite not having built the needed capacity to do so. For instance, the club posted low-quality, inexpensive advertisements at the other recreational league’s registration instead of acquiring the funds needed to develop quality, and arguably more effective, advertisements; the club identified two volunteer executive members to lead the creation of the new league even though these individuals were already strained to meet their duties associated with the competitive leagues; and, the club decided to offer a low registration fee despite the fact that they lacked the financial capacity to promote the league, let alone offer it.

Impact. The club was not able to adequately address its capacity needs associated with introducing a new recreational league and, as such, the league did not go forward. The strategies that were implemented were not successful in building the club’s human resources, financial, and relationship and network capacities. Participants indicated that the club was already committed to offering the new recreational league despite identifying the capacity needs that in all likelihood ultimately contributed to a failed attempt: “it was not a success at all, wasn’t even close to a success” (President); “we need to [refocus], reorganize, we’re starting over, practically starting over again” (Director at Large); “we still have the same issue now at the younger level still, it’s still going to impact us at the younger level” (Vice-President).

Overall, this football club displays a case where unsuccessful capacity building occurred. The club did not approach its capacity building efforts from a strategic process perspective and, instead, focused on the response (i.e., the new recreational league) from the beginning without fully committing to the capacity building that was required to accomplish this. More specifically, the assessment of the needs associated with introducing a new league (acquiring the necessary skills for executive members, developing effective advertising and promotions, acquiring the money needed to support advertising efforts, and building a reputation for recreational programming in the community) occurred, while overlooking the club's apparent planning needs, but the results of that assessment were not fully taken into account when it came to choosing and implementing strategies. Further, the club was not in a state of readiness to implement the capacity building strategies (conflicts between executive members, concerns regarding the added work required, lack of willingness and commitment within the club). The strategies that the club attempted to implement were not successful in addressing the gaps in capacity and, as such, had no effect on the overall capacity of the club, ultimately resulting in the league not going forward.

Discussion

Capacity building in two CSOs was examined in relation to the process model (Study 1), while identifying the key factors that differentiate successful and unsuccessful capacity building in those cases. The findings reveal that, in order for capacity building to be successful, the organization needs to adopt a strategic approach towards the building efforts. They also reveal that each stage of the capacity building process is, individually and collectively, integral to the success of these efforts, as proposed in the process model.

While the specific findings of the two case studies are not necessarily generalizable to other organizations, they do provide support for the process model. Insights into the conditions that impact that process are discussed below.

Force and Response

As demonstrated in the cases examined here, capacity building is likely driven by a response to some internal and/or external environmental force. Organizations do not build capacity just for the sake of doing so (i.e., recruit volunteers just to have more volunteers); there is likely a force of some kind that an organization chooses to respond to or act upon. Within organizational change theory, this is understood as the driving force that initiates the change cycle (Lewin, 1951), and is in response to changing circumstances in an organization's environment (Horton et al., 2003). Similarly, in the capacity building context, these forces trigger a response and stimulate the capacity building process, as was the case for both clubs studied here. Existing research in this area often focuses solely on the outcomes of capacity building efforts or the strategies implemented (e.g., Joffres et al., 2004; Sobek, 2008), with little research considering the initial stimulus for that capacity building in their analyses. The two cases of capacity building examined here were initiated as a response to declining participation and a desire for instruction-based programming and the need for a feeder system to existing elite programs, respectively. Interestingly, both clubs chose to address their forces with the introduction of a new program, rather than focusing on recruitment to, or changes to, their existing programs.

Organizational Capacity Needs and Assets

Through the examination of these two cases, it appears that organizations have different capacity needs depending on their mission, and their strengths and weaknesses in different areas (Horton et al., 2003), and with respect to responding to environmental forces. Several key findings inform the understanding of how the needs and assets of an organization fit within the process of capacity building. The thoroughness of the needs assessment played a key role in the organization's capacity building efforts. One of the critical differences between the successful and unsuccessful case was that in Case 1, the curling club conducted a detailed needs assessment considering various dimensions of capacity; whereas, in Case 2, the football club did not conduct a complete assessment of their needs or existing capacity and, instead, missed identifying its planning needs and relied heavily on assets that ended up not facilitating the capacity building efforts (i.e., the reputation in the community surrounding its elite programs). This finding speaks to the importance of ensuring that actual capacity needs are identified, rather than relying on presumed needs, and that these identified needs frame the capacity building objectives going forward (Nu'Man et al., 2007; Sobeck & Agius, 2007). It also speaks to the importance of identifying and knowing the relevant assets that the organization possesses that may facilitate the capacity building efforts.

In response to the introduction of a proposed new program, both the curling club and the football club identified human resource capacity and financial capacity needs. Human resource capacity has been identified as the most critical dimension of capacity for goal attainment (Breuer et al., 2012; Misener & Doherty, 2009), while financial capacity has been identified as not critical to goal attainment, but as one of the more

vulnerable dimensions of capacity (Misener & Doherty, 2009; Vos et al., 2011). Both clubs in this study identified a need for people and money to support the introduction and promotion of the new programs. The findings, thus, reinforce the importance of the human resources and financial capacity dimensions, in general and for specific initiatives, although other capacity needs may be prominent in other cases. Interestingly, previous research has identified planning and development capacity as another vulnerable dimension of capacity (Misener & Doherty, 2009). In this study, the club that experienced successful capacity building identified planning and development a priori as an asset; whereas the club that experienced unsuccessful capacity building did not consider their planning and development capacity at all. As it happens, it was a weakness that was not addressed and ultimately contributed to the unsuccessful capacity building and demise of the proposed program. The findings support the multidimensionality of capacity, in that multiple dimensions should be considered as potential needs and/or assets for capacity building, as multiple dimensions contribute to organizational performance.

Readiness for Capacity Building

The findings also support the multidimensional nature of the readiness for capacity building concept, while highlighting its impact, and specifically organizational readiness, congruence, capacity to build, and capacity to sustain, on the relative success of capacity building efforts. The degree of willingness and commitment of individuals (organizational readiness) within the two clubs appeared to be a critical difference in the success of their capacity building efforts. This finding is consistent with other research that has demonstrated that the level of engagement and commitment of board members

towards the capacity building effort influences the success of those efforts (Kapuca et al., 2007). Specifically, the football club experienced a high level of animosity and disinterest with regard to its capacity building efforts, resulting in few people actually being involved and, as a result, the selection of strategies that the club was not able to successfully implement. In contrast, the curling club experienced a willingness to commit resources and personnel to the successful implementation of the strategies that it chose. Organizational readiness is understood as a combination of the psychological and behavioural factors that determine individuals' willingness and ability to engage in capacity building (Weiner, Amick, & Lee, 2008). The findings of this study emphasize the importance of having committed individuals, who believe in the success of the organization's building efforts, involved in those capacity building efforts.

One would assume that an organization would (only) invest resources into an activity that was congruent with its existing organizational practices and organizational objectives. The findings of this study reveal that this is not always the case. Congruence refers to the degree of alignment with organizational processes, systems, missions, and stakeholder expectations, as well as the degree of disruption introduced by the capacity building efforts (Joffres et al., 2004). The success of the curling club in its capacity building efforts was partly due to the fact that the implemented strategies, and their desired outcomes, aligned well with the club's existing systems and objectives; that is, the selected strategies and desired outcomes aligned well with the club's mandate and policies (macro-level characteristics of congruence) and the club's day-to-day operations (micro-level characteristics of congruence). The football club, in contrast, experienced great conflict within the organization due to the tensions that the strategies raised for

those responsible for the competitive programs. The football club's capacity building efforts may have aligned with its mandate and the values of the club (macro-level congruence), but they did not align with the club's operations or program delivery (micro-level congruence). Further, when discussing aspects of congruence that relate to the day-to-day operations of their club, members of the curling club expressed that the added work associated with their capacity building efforts was "worthwhile," while members of the football club expressed frustration towards the added workload and indicated that it was a trigger of further conflict within the club. These findings suggest that aspects of macro-level congruence may have a lesser impact on the success of capacity building efforts based on the ease with which it can be established; whereas, aspects of micro-level congruence may play a larger role in impacting the success of capacity building efforts because it recognizes the impact of those efforts on the day-to-day operations within a CSO. Overall, the findings support the conclusion that greater congruency between the capacity building objectives and strategies and the organization's existing missions, values, and processes resulted in greater relative success of capacity building efforts.

While paradoxical, the existing capacity of the organizations to build capacity both facilitated (in the case of the curling club) and hindered (in the case of the football club) the capacity building efforts. The curling club was able to rely on its existing capacities (facilities, volunteer and member support, program plan) throughout its building efforts. The club's facilities, for example, were something that it leveraged throughout the entire process. The football club, however, was not able to rely on its existing capacities (coaches, field time and equipment, and reputation within the

community regarding its elite programs) throughout its efforts. Further, some of the football club's other capacity limitations appeared to hinder its ability to develop the identified human resources, financial, and relationship and network capacity needs. The club's lack of internal communication and unstable revenues, for example, were aspects that hindered its capacity building efforts. Together, these findings highlight the complexity of the capacity building process and the important role of existing capacity in that process. Human resource capacity, specifically, is again indicated as a critical dimension in the CSO context, as both something that may commonly need to be 'built' but also as a broader aspect that provides an important foundation for capacity building. Existing capacity to sustain the outcomes of the capacity building efforts was only briefly discussed by both clubs; it is notable that it was just assumed that outcomes could be sustained if the capacity building efforts themselves were undertaken. Overall, the level of readiness for capacity building exhibited by the curling and football clubs was a key condition differentiating the degree of success of their capacity building efforts.

Strategy Selection

The identification and consideration of alternative strategies to attain goals is an integral aspect of a strategic planning process (Chelladurai, 2009). As such, it is an important concept within the process model of capacity building (Study 1). This was further emphasized in the findings from this study. The curling club chose, and subsequently implemented, strategies that it was ready for and that met the identified needs. The football club, however, chose strategies that were the "easiest and cheapest to do," irrespective of the club's readiness to support those strategies. To some extent, the football club ignored the needs that were identified and went forward with the strategies

regardless of the challenges that this approach would introduce. Capacity building strategies are only as strong as the planning that precedes their implementation (Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011). The degree of readiness to implement the selected strategies was a key differentiating condition between the two clubs.

Impact: Short- and Long-Term Outcomes

As discussed, the two cases studied here differ in their approach to their capacity building efforts, ultimately resulting in one successfully achieving its building objectives and the other being unsuccessful. The evaluation of the short- (whether objectives were achieved) and long-term (whether built capacity is maintained) outcomes revealed the initial needs of the respective sport clubs, the club's existing capacities, the club's readiness to go forward with their capacity building efforts, and the strategies selected. The ultimate impact of capacity building can only be determined through an evaluation that accounts for these factors and that considers the longevity of the outcomes (Mackay, Horton, Dupleich, & Andersen, 2002; Wing, 2004). As discussed above, the short-term impact (or success) of both clubs' capacity building efforts differed due to several key areas: the appropriateness of the chosen response to address the initial force on the organization, the suitability of the strategies implemented to address that response, the organization's readiness to implement those strategies, and the strategic nature of each club's overall approach to its capacity building efforts. These factors, individually and collectively, contributed to the success of the curling club's capacity building efforts and the lack of success of the football club's.

The findings indicated that these factors also played a role in fostering the long-term impact of these capacity building efforts. For instance, the curling club was

successful in addressing its capacity building objectives of building human resources, financial, and infrastructure capacities to offer a new program through appropriate strategy selection, club readiness to build capacity, and a strategic approach overall. There were concerns, however, regarding whether the club would have the resources to maintain these outcomes. Despite implementing strategies that addressed its gaps in capacity, the curling club may not have chosen strategies that would have a sustained impact. Specifically, the club chose to move funds around in order to support the new program instead of seeking new funding opportunities, a strategy that would likely have greater success in the long-term.

These findings also further inform the cyclical nature of the capacity building process (Nu'Man et al., 2007; Simmons et al., 2011) in that the outcomes of both the successful and unsuccessful cases uncovered additional needs for the clubs and may trigger a potential reassessment of the club's readiness to build capacity. The findings revealed that the football club was not ready to build its capacity prior to doing so and, as such, its capacity building strategies were not successful. Notably, the club indicated that it needed to reassess its readiness and restart the entire process of developing a feeder system for their elite program prior to moving forward with alternative strategies. Overall, the findings presented here suggest that the short-term success of capacity building depends on a thorough assessment of capacity needs, organizational readiness, the appropriate selection of strategies, and a strategic approach to the process of capacity building. The findings also suggest that the long-term success of capacity building may depend on the selection of strategies that can be sustained for the long-term and the organization's readiness to commit to those efforts for a prolonged period of time.

Conclusions and Implications

The two CSOs examined here provided useful cases for the investigation of capacity building. Applying the process model of capacity building (Study 1), key conditions and processes were identified, and compared, in both successful and unsuccessful cases. Specifically, the findings offered insight into the nature of those conditions and processes, and provided support for the process model. This study suggests that capacity building should be understood as a process that involves consideration of the initial stimulus, the assessment of needs and assets, the readiness for capacity building, appropriate strategy selection, and the impact of the outcomes in the short- and long-term. Specifically, the findings of this study contribute to the refinement of the process model of capacity building by confirming that the factors included in the model impact on the success of capacity building efforts, by supporting the positioning of the factors (i.e., capacity to sustain being considered prior to strategy implementation) in the capacity building process, and by clarifying that readiness for capacity building is a multidimensional factor in which each factor (e.g., organizational readiness, congruence, capacity to build, and capacity to sustain) impacts the short- and long-term outcomes of capacity building efforts.

With the continued focus on the organizational capacity of CSOs (e.g., Doherty et al., 2014; Misener & Doherty, 2013; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Hallman, 2013), this study represents a first attempt at extending this line of inquiry to empirically examine the process involved in addressing the capacity issues within these organizations. An improved comprehension of the processes and conditions associated with successful capacity building, including the nuances and relative importance of the factors involved

in this process, may enable researchers and sport leaders to better identify and tackle the process of capacity building in its entirety. The contrasting cases allowed for a comparison of what worked and what did not work between the two cases. From this, sport leaders at all levels (community, provincial, national) may use the process model as a guide for successful capacity building that includes aligning strategies with the needs of the organization, ensuring the organization is 'ready' to build capacity, and assessing both immediate and long-term impacts as indicators of effectiveness.

The findings offer potential utility for sport leaders undertaking capacity building efforts, by providing insight into the conditions required for success in those efforts; for instance, sport leaders should ensure that the members of their club are willing and committed to the building efforts, that these efforts align with what the organization stands for and does on a daily basis, and that they have the existing resources that can be relied on to support and facilitate these efforts. Equally important, the consideration of the capacity limitations that might act as inhibiting factors throughout the capacity building process should be identified early on. Sport leaders and sport governing officials (e.g., Sport Canada, Physical & Health Education Canada) could use the model to establish what is required for effective capacity building and, therefore, identify where support for these efforts might be needed. As the Canadian sport system continues to expand its scope and establish its strategic direction through updated policies (e.g., Long Term Athlete Development, Canadian Sport for Life, Canadian Sport Policy), capacity building at the community, provincial, and national levels is likely going to be needed in order to provide programs and services that support the philosophies outlined in these policies. As such, the process model of capacity building utilized in this study may

provide these sport bodies with a tool that facilitates the process and identifies where support may be needed.

Several limitations of the current study must be acknowledged. The multiple case study approach offered insight into the capacity building process within two CSOs and the findings of this study are not necessarily generalizable across all CSOs. Additionally, the analysis of the two cases was framed around the process model of capacity building, and it is possible that additional factors could impact the capacity building process that are not depicted in the model, and thus not interpreted within this study. As such, future research should apply the model with other cases and in other sport contexts, to further understand capacity building and further test and refine the model, in order to progress its utility as both a tool for practice and research. Utilizing the model in different contexts (e.g., professional sport, sport for development, event hosting) will also allow for an exploration of the various stimuli and needs that exist within those contexts. The findings of this study emphasize the importance of the factors of readiness for capacity building on the success of the capacity building efforts. As such, future research should investigate, specifically, the impact of the four factors of readiness for capacity building (organizational readiness, congruence, capacity to build, and capacity to sustain) on the short- and long-term outcomes. Future research should also seek to understand why some organizations are more likely to conduct a more thorough needs assessment and why some organizations are more ready than others. Longitudinal studies of capacity building are also needed in order to further understand the long-term outcomes associated with capacity building efforts, and the factors that contribute to the maintenance of those outcomes. Such work will provide an important complement and extension to the

continuing focus on organizational capacity in the nonprofit sector, and CSOs in particular.

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Study 3:
Readiness to Build Capacity in Community Sport Organizations

Community sport organizations (CSOs) occupy a central position in the Canadian sport landscape, as they provide affordable and accessible participation opportunities at the grassroots level (Cuskelly, 2004). Sport and recreation organizations, with the majority being CSOs, represent the largest category of nonprofit and voluntary organizations in Canada (Hall et al., 2004). Due to the voluntary nature of these organizations, they are often characterized by their local focus, modest budgets, almost exclusive reliance on volunteers, and relatively informal structures (Doherty, Misener, & Cuskelly, 2014). The context in which CSOs operate and the characteristics of these organizations introduce several challenges relating to their organizational capacity, including volunteer recruitment (Breuer, Wicker, & Von Hanau, 2012), limited revenue diversification (Wicker & Breuer, 2013), informal strategic planning (Misener & Doherty, 2009), and increased pressure for professionalization (Cuskelly, Hoye, & Auld, 2006).

The study of organizational capacity has been the focus of increasing attention in the nonprofit sector, and community sport context in particular, as scholars endeavour to understand the critical dimensions of capacity, and determine community sport organizations' strengths and challenges with regard to those factors (see Casey, Payne, Brown, & Eime, 2009; Doherty et al., 2014; Misener & Doherty, 2009, 2013; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Hallman, 2013). This line of research presents important implications that support a shift in focus towards the building of organizational capacity as an approach to alleviate the challenges and build on the strengths of these organizations. However, research that explores the factors and conditions involved in successfully

addressing the process of building capacity is limited. Study 1 of this dissertation developed a model of capacity building that provides a comprehensive understanding of the capacity building process, including the stimulus for capacity building, the needs associated with responding to that stimulus, the organization's readiness for capacity building, strategy generation and selection, and the short- and long-term impact of those strategies. This model was then used to examine the nature of the conditions and process of capacity building in the community sport context, which revealed, among other things, the extent to which readiness for capacity building was a differentiating factor between successful and unsuccessful cases of capacity building (Study 2). Building on the findings that suggest that readiness for capacity building is a critical contributor to successful capacity building (Joffres et al., 2004; Sobeck & Agius, 2007; Study 2), and recognizing capacity building as a process that involves multiple factors, of which readiness as a multidimensional concept is a part (Study 1), the purpose of this study is to examine readiness for capacity building in the CSO context. Within this broader purpose, the following objectives were advanced: (1) gauge the extent to which CSOs are ready to build capacity to address some need in the organization, and (2) determine the relative impact of readiness to build capacity, and its various dimensions, on the outcomes of those efforts. An additional objective of this study was to examine the multidimensionality of readiness for capacity building.

Review of Literature

Organizational Capacity Building

The study of organizational capacity in community sport organizations has received an increasing amount of attention as an indicator of how effective these

organizations are in providing their programs and services and meeting the needs of their members (e.g., Doherty et al., 2014; Misener & Doherty, 2009; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Hallman, 2013). Capacity building refers to the strategic process of addressing gaps in existing capacity that may limit the effectiveness of an organization (Aref, 2011; Cairns, Harris, & Young, 2005) and, as such, presents a logical progression of the research conducted in this area. Within sport, however, the term *capacity* has been used to refer to a variety of outcomes or impacts that sport may provide, including sport as a means of enhancing community capacity and program-related changes as indicators of capacity (see Bolton, Fleming, & Elias, 2008; Skinner, Zakus, & Cowell, 2008). Understanding of *capacity building* has followed a similar trend, in that community capacity can be built through sport and the introduction of new programs indicates built programmatic capacity in some way. However, the interchangeable use of these terms in very different contexts has contributed to a lack of understanding of what makes for effective capacity building, particularly at the organizational level. Simply offering a new program does not indicate that organizational capacity has been built; because capacity is the ability to offer a program or service, an examination of the processes and conditions that contributed to the introduction of the new program is needed in order to understand any capacity building that may have taken place. Organizational capacity building relates to the changes that occur within an organization in order to meet a specific capacity need. As such, the study of capacity building should recognize the conditions that initiate, facilitate or inhibit, and support the implementation of that change.

Process Model of Capacity Building

The process model of capacity building (see Figure 3) contends that successful capacity building depends on an assessment of capacity needs pertaining to a given organizational response to an internal or external environmental force. Capacity needs are expected to vary with the particular stimulus, and become the basis of the capacity building objectives. In the nonprofit sport context, organizational capacity, and related capacity needs, may be defined as an organization's human resources, financial resources, or existing relationships and infrastructure (Hall et al., 2003). Effective capacity building is purported to rely on readiness for that capacity building with respect to the identified objectives and alternative strategies. Specifically, organizational readiness (member ability, willingness, and commitment), strategy congruence with organizational processes and systems (alignment with existing processes, systems, and organizational missions and mandates), and existing capacity to both build and sustain change must be considered. The successful outcomes of capacity building are dependent on the extent to which the organization is ready to implement a strategy that addresses its capacity needs, and can be known in terms of both immediate impact (objectives have been achieved) and whether the built capacity is maintained. Effective capacity building results in both immediate and sustained changes in the form of, for example, enhanced human resources, infrastructure, or partnerships.

Readiness for Capacity Building

There is an argument within the change literature that stipulates that the key causal factors of unsuccessful change are a lack of readiness for the change, a lack of acceptance of the change, and a lack of capacity to make the change (Cinite, Duxbury, &

Higgins, 2009; Weiner, Amick, & Lee, 2008). Readiness for change is similar to Lewin's (1951) conceptualization of change as a process of unfreezing, moving, and refreezing, in which the unfreezing stage refers to altering individual beliefs and attitudes towards, and accessing resources that support, a pending change so that members are likely to see the change as worthwhile and attainable. The refreezing stage reflects the sustainability of expected or desired outcomes (Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993; Buchanan et al., 2005; Eby, Adams, Russell, & Gaby, 2000; Weiner, 2009). An assessment of readiness prior to change implementation enables individuals and the organization to identify gaps that may exist between their expectations about a given change initiative, and an assessment of existing resources and personnel required to implement a given change (Holt, Armenakis, Feild, & Harris, 2007). When readiness for change exists, the organization is primed to embrace the change and resistance is reduced. In sum, readiness for change "reflects beliefs, feelings, and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and perceptions of individual and organizational capacity to successfully enact those changes" (Bouckenooghe, Devos, & Van den Broeck, 2009, p. 561). Readiness for change is a situational concept, rather than a general state of the organization, meaning that an organization's degree of readiness may differ based on the initial trigger for change (Weiner, 2009).

Readiness for capacity building derives from the notion of readiness as a critical factor in successful organizational change (Joffres et al., 2004; Sobeck & Agius, 2007). As such, it similarly refers to individuals' beliefs that an organization can initiate the required capacity building and engage in practices that will lead to the successful implementation of capacity building strategies. Capacity building research to date has

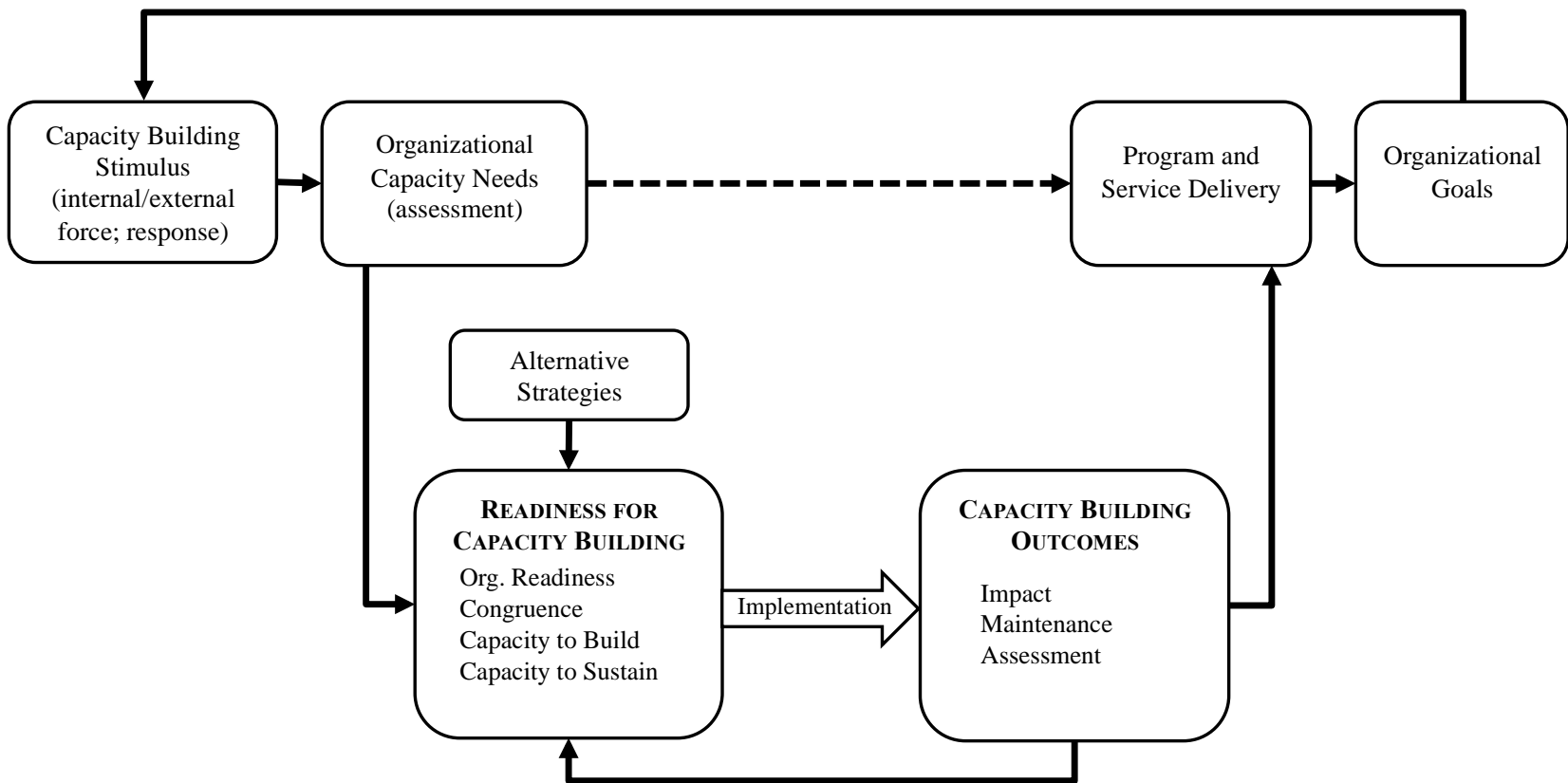


Figure 3. A process model of capacity building.

examined elements of readiness that align with this conceptualization, including the organization's climate and culture (Casey, Payne, & Eime, 2012), compatibility with organizational mandates, objectives, policies, and the external environment (Joffres et al., 2004), and commitment of board members and volunteers to the capacity building effort (Casey et al., 2009b; Kapuca, Augustin, & Krause, 2007; Millesen, Carman, & Bies, 2010). These elements of readiness, however, fall within four broad factors of readiness for capacity building that have been varyingly considered in the literature: organizational readiness, congruence, capacity to build, and capacity to sustain. These factors are described below.

Dimensions of Readiness for Capacity Building

Readiness for capacity building is a multidimensional concept grounded in the understanding of readiness for change as a critical precursor of the successful implementation of change (Bouckennooghe et al., 2009; Weiner, 2009; Weiner et al., 2008). Readiness for capacity building has been conceptualized as a four-factor concept that occupies a critical position in the capacity building process (Study 1), and that includes organizational readiness, congruence, capacity to build, and capacity to sustain. These four factors are consistent with the readiness for change literature that suggests the inclusion of psychological and structural dimensions of readiness in its assessment (Bouckennooghe et al., 2009).

Organizational readiness. Organizational readiness is understood as a combination of the psychological (attitudes, beliefs, intentions) and behavioural (capabilities, efficacy) factors that determine organizational members' willingness and ability to engage in capacity building (Weiner et al., 2008). This factor of overall

readiness for capacity building reflects the appropriateness of the proposed initiative(s) and personal capability to implement the proposed initiative(s) (Holt et al., 2007).

Individuals who are more confident in their ability to partake in, and cope with, the capacity building process are more likely to direct energy and resources to contribute to that process (Cunningham et al., 2002). Similarly, individuals who are motivated and believe that capacity building will benefit their organization are more likely to support those efforts (Weiner, 2009; Weiner et al., 2008).

Existing research that has examined organizational readiness as a precursor to successful capacity building reveals that those organizations that are more ready to embrace capacity building tend to demonstrate more positive indicators of change (Blumenthal, 2003; Casey et al., 2012; Crisp, Swerissen, & Duckett, 2000; Heward et al., 2007; Joffres et al., 2004; Kapuca et al., 2007; Nu'Man, King, Bhalakia, & Criss, 2007; Sobeck, 2008; Sobeck & Agius, 2007). Study 2 of this dissertation further demonstrates the role of organizational readiness in the success of capacity building efforts through a comparison of successful and unsuccessful cases of capacity building. The findings from that study demonstrate that the degree of willingness and commitment of individuals within the two clubs was a critical difference in the success of their respective capacity building efforts (Study 2). Organizational readiness is a critical factor in the greater readiness for capacity building concept as organizational members seek to attain consistency in their role, such that there is a sense of control and confidence in their ability to perform their responsibilities (Weiner et al., 2008).

Congruence. Congruence refers to the degree of alignment between an organization's existing processes and environment and the objectives and strategies of the

capacity building initiative (Joffres et al., 2004). This factor is concerned with whether capacity building is disruptive to, or aligned with, the existing processes, systems, missions, and culture of the organization. Greater congruency between the capacity building objectives and strategies and the organization's existing processes and systems is purported to result in greater change and an increased likelihood of experiencing successful capacity building (Joffres et al., 2004). Joffres et al. (2004), in a study examining the facilitators and challenges of building organizational capacity for health promotion, identified both organizational readiness and congruence as being essential to successful capacity building efforts, stating that the "fit" of the capacity building initiative with existing organizational processes and missions was a recurring thread in determining the success of capacity building efforts. Further, Study 2 revealed, among other things, that greater congruency between the capacity building strategies and the organization's existing processes resulted in greater relative success of capacity building efforts. Congruence is a critical factor in overall readiness for capacity building as it ensures that the capacity building efforts are minimally disruptive to the organization and its members, and that the benefits of the capacity building efforts outweigh any disadvantages.

Capacity to build. Capacity to build refers to the existing capacity of an organization and is concerned with whether any factors hinder or facilitate the capacity building process (Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011; Nu'Man et al., 2007). This factor of overall readiness for capacity building recognizes that it is a resource intensive process that relies heavily on the existing skills, abilities, and infrastructure of an organization (Aref, 2011; Mandeville, 2007). While the organizational readiness and congruence

factors recognize the intrinsic or psychological aspects of overall readiness, capacity to build and capacity to sustain (discussed below) reflect the structural aspects of readiness (Weiner, 2009), emphasizing the organization's human, financial, relationship, infrastructure, and planning resources. Existing research has examined the role that existing competencies (Cinite et al., 2009; Cornforth & Mordaunt, 2011), organizational roles and resources (Casey et al., 2009a; 2012), adequacy of resources and staff skill (Lehman, Greener, & Simpson, 2002) and existing organizational procedures and operations (Eby et al., 2000) play in facilitating or inhibiting capacity building or change efforts. The findings of Study 2 further support capacity to build as a key factor contributing to the success of capacity building efforts as they demonstrate that the ability to rely on, and utilize, existing capacities facilitated, while the inability to do so hindered, the organization's capacity building efforts.

Capacity to sustain. Capacity to sustain change relates closely to the capacity to build factor discussed above in that it refers to how the existing capacity of an organization facilitates or hinders the sustainability of the capacity building outcomes (Casey et al., 2012). While existing research in this area focuses largely on financial resources as the sole indicator of sustainability (see Brown, 2012), the ability to sustain capacity building outcomes depends both on existing and newly developed capacities. Specifically, the people, processes, and structures that support the continued impact of the desired capacity building outcomes are critical indicators of an organization's capacity to sustain outcomes. Capacity to sustain is a critical factor in overall readiness for capacity building as any long-term impacts of a capacity building effort rely on existing abilities, resources, and people to facilitate the maintenance of those outcomes.

In combination, the organization's readiness, congruence of the capacity building initiative with the existing organizational processes and environment, and the organization's capacity to build and sustain the change(s) determine overall readiness to build capacity along one or more dimensions (i.e., human resources, financial, relationships, infrastructure, and planning). These four factors serve to highlight the challenges and opportunities facing the capacity building initiative and its desired outcomes.

Building on existing research relating to readiness for capacity building, the following research questions were advanced:

RQ1: What is the level of readiness to build capacity in CSOs?

RQ2: Does readiness to build capacity impact capacity building outcomes in this context, and is there any variation among the different dimensions of readiness?

In order to better understand readiness for capacity building, it was also of interest to determine whether readiness varies by key organizational characteristics; namely, club size, club age, and board size. Club size, in terms of numbers of members or registrants, may be a factor because clubs with larger memberships tend to be more formalized (Nichols, Padmore, Taylor, & Barrett, 2012) and organizations with a large membership base may be more likely to have the capacity to formally sustain programs (Casey et al., 2012), suggesting that CSOs with larger memberships may be more likely to have the structures in place to support capacity building efforts. The age or tenure of the club may also be a factor in readiness to build capacity given that organizational age can affect the structural arrangements of an organization (Thibault, Slack, & Hinings, 1991). Finally,

the size of the volunteer board of directors of the club, in terms of number of members, may be a factor in readiness to build capacity because larger boards tend to have access to additional resources and more advanced decision-making processes (Brown, 2012), larger boards are more likely to have established human resource management programs (Taylor & McGraw, 2006), and organizations with larger boards tend to administer more sophisticated capacity building strategies to implement change (Casey et al., 2012). However, larger sport clubs are also more likely to experience variation in common focus among volunteers (Nichols et al., 2012), which may play a critical role in establishing readiness for capacity building. Thus, a third research question was advanced:

RQ3: Does readiness vary by club size, board size, or club age?

Methods

Instrument

A survey comprising four sections was developed for the study. The four sections measured: (1) environmental force and organizational response, related capacity needs, and capacity building strategies; (2) readiness for capacity building; (3) capacity building outcomes; and, (4) organizational and respondent characteristics. In order to understand the context of the study it was of interest to know the force and CSOs' response, and their particular capacity needs (human resources, financial resources, relationships with external partners, infrastructure, and planning and development). Participants were also directed to list up to three strategies used to build capacity. Open-ended questions were developed to capture these aspects (see Appendix E). Readiness to implement each strategy and capacity building outcomes were subsequently measured.

Although variations of the dimensions of readiness for capacity building have been examined in earlier studies (e.g., Holt et al., 2007; Joffres et al., 2004), they have yet to be measured simultaneously, nor in the context of a specific capacity building effort (based on an identified need and the associated strategies for addressing that need). Therefore, items were generated to capture all four aspects of readiness (organizational readiness, congruence, capacity to build, and capacity to sustain) and both short and long-term or sustained capacity building outcomes. These items were generated based on the conceptualizations proposed in Study 1, and revealed in Study 2, as well as support from related literature.

A total of 35 items were derived, with 26 items representing readiness for capacity building and 9 items representing capacity building outcomes. This version of the survey was distributed to a panel of six experts who have published in the areas of organizational capacity, human resource management, community sport organizations, and/or scale development. The panel was asked to comment on the clarity and conciseness of the wording of the items, whether the items listed for each construct were indicators of that construct, whether the items included were sufficient to ensure each construct was addressed, and the relevance of the items in the context of capacity building in community sport organizations. Modifications were made as a result of the feedback on items that lacked clarity, were redundant, or that required rewording for contextual understanding. This required adjustments to the wording of 12 items, utilizing italicized font to emphasize particular terms in the survey (e.g., sustain vs. build), and the removal of two items.

A 7-point Likert scale indicating the variations in perceived readiness for capacity building and capacity building outcomes was utilized, ranging from 1 (not at all) to 7 (to a great extent). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which each of the statements describes their club's readiness for capacity building and the outcomes of their capacity building efforts. Certain steps were followed in order to minimize potential bias in responses. In line with Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff's (2003) recommendations to minimize response bias, the items within each section of the survey were randomized and both positively and negatively worded items were included, with the latter being reverse-scored for analyses. Finally, a pilot test with a sample of representatives from five CSOs was conducted to determine the time required to complete the online survey, the ease of completion, and the clarity of the survey instructions and items (DeVellis, 2012). The results from the pilot study were not included in the final data set. Minor modifications to the functionality of the online survey and the clarity of the instructions were made as a result of the feedback received. This process resulted in a survey consisting of 33 items (24 items representing readiness for capacity building and 9 items representing capacity building outcomes).

A fourth section of the survey comprised questions to collect background information about the clubs and participants. Demographic items were included in order to develop a profile of the participating CSOs and participants, including sport type, club age, club size (in terms of registered members), board size (in terms of the number of current board members), as well as the participants' position, tenure in their current position, and tenure with the club.

Participants and Procedures

Participants were 66 presidents (or their representatives) of CSOs in one Canadian province. The 66 survey participants represent 11 sports across the province, with soccer (19%) and hockey (17%) representing the largest groups and ringette (2%), lacrosse (3%), and rowing (3%) representing the smallest groups of participants. The majority of participants were presidents (67%) or directors at large (12%) of their organizations. Participants had been with their organization for an average of 11.59 years ($SD = 7.39$) and in their current role for an average of 4.94 years ($SD = 5.31$), ranging from less than a year to 23 years. The clubs had been in existence for an average of 37.70 years ($SD = 29.48$). The longevity witnessed here is consistent with Gumulka et al. (2005) who found that 63% of all Canadian community sport organizations have been in existence for over 20 years. The average number of registered members in the CSOs was 578.33 ($SD = 1021.28$) and the average number of board members in the CSOs was 9.28 ($SD = 6.05$). Because there were only a few clubs ($n = 5$) with over 2,000 registered members, the median (284.50 members) is likely a more representative indicator of club size within this sample. Each of the participants rated the readiness of their CSO to implement up to three capacity building strategies, resulting in a total of 144 data points or cases. Subsequent analysis pertaining to capacity building readiness was based on those 144 cases. A summary of the CSO and participant profiles are provided in Table 2.

In order to generate the sample, websites for provincial sport organizations (PSOs) were first consulted to gather a sport-specific list of CSOs across the province. Team sports were targeted in order to establish a level of consistency in the sample, while also capturing a variety of sports. From these websites, the nonprofit CSOs with website

Table 2

Participant and organizational characteristics.

Variable	<i>N</i>	%	<i>M (SD)</i>
Position with club			
President	44	67	
Director at Large	8	12	
Vice President	2	3	
Registrar	2	3	
League Contact	2	3	
General Manager	2	3	
Marketing Coordinator	2	3	
Secretary	1	2	
Chair	1	2	
Past President	1	2	
Tenure with club (years)			11.58 (7.39)
Tenure in current position (years)			4.94 (5.31)
Sport type			
Soccer	12	19	
Hockey	11	17	
Basketball	9	13	
Softball	7	11	
Volleyball	7	11	
Rugby	6	9	
Baseball	5	7	
Football	3	5	
Lacrosse	2	3	
Rowing	2	3	
Ringette	1	2	
Club age (years)			37.70 (29.48)
Club size (membership)			578.33 (1021.28)
Board size			9.28 (6.05)
Capacity Building Strategies	144		

N = 66. *Note.* The numbers for 'Position within club' and 'Sport type' are based on 65 responses, as one participant did not provide this information.

links provided were visited and email addresses for the presidents (or their representatives) were gathered. A number of CSOs listed did not have websites or provided a mailing address and no email; these CSOs were not included in the sample. This process resulted in a sample ($N = 700$) covering a variety of team sports (11; ringette, baseball, basketball, soccer, hockey, softball, volleyball, football, lacrosse, rugby, and rowing). The original sample was drawn from different sized communities and geographic regions to reflect the CSO landscape of the province, although the need for confidentiality precluded collecting data regarding participants' home communities.

A letter of information including a link to a secure webpage directing participants to the survey on [surveymonkey.com](https://www.surveymonkey.com) was distributed to the sample. The letter indicated that the study was about capacity building and presidents were invited to participate if their CSO had engaged in capacity building recently. The intent was to recruit only those CSOs that had some capacity building experience on which participants could reflect, and thus it was fully expected that only a modest proportion of the original sample would even respond. It was deemed necessary to sample widely in order to generate a sufficient pool of participants for the study. Of the 700 initial letters of information sent, 73 were returned as undeliverable and were eliminated from the sample, resulting in 627 invitations to participate being distributed. A follow-up notice reminding participants to complete the survey was sent one week after the initial invitation, with a second and third follow-up sent three and four weeks after the initial invitation, respectively, with an extended timeline for completion.

Data Screening

Prior to conducting the statistical analyses, data screening, including an assessment of the amount and pattern of missing data, and reverse scoring those items that were negatively phrased, was conducted. The analysis of missing data revealed that the majority of items were missing less than 6% of their values, with one item missing 8%. While consensus has not been reached regarding the percentage of missing data that is problematic, recommendations range from 5% to 20% (Schlomer, Bauman, & Card, 2010). However, Schlomer et al. (2010) argue that any percentage cut off is problematic as it overlooks the reasoning behind the missing data values. Instead, it is recommended that patterns of missing data and imputation strategies be the primary focus when addressing missing data (Schlomer et al., 2010). Based on the distribution of the missing data values in this study, it was evident that the data were missing at random, with no patterns to the missing data and the missing values were not obviously related to any specific variables in the study (Schlomer et al., 2010). Given these observations, a decision was made to use the series mean substitution imputation method to address the missing data. This missing values replacement method replaces any missing value in the data set with the overall mean of that item (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

Data Analysis

Exploratory factor analyses (EFA) using principal component analysis with varimax rotation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012) were performed to determine the underlying factor structures of the readiness and outcome measures developed for this study. Although the items included in the instrument were developed to reflect particular constructs, in the early stages of investigation there is uncertainty surrounding whether

alternative underlying factor structures may emerge in the data (Byrne, 2005). There is much debate surrounding the use of exploratory (EFA) versus confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Hurley et al., 1997). Given the research surrounding readiness for capacity building and the lack of a tested conceptual framework, EFA was deemed appropriate to assess the structure underlying the observed data (Stevens, 2009). Henson and Roberts (2006) note that confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) should only be used when there is strong rationale regarding what factors should be in the data and what variables define those factors. Because a scale that includes the various dimensions of readiness and outcomes has yet to be established, an EFA was utilized to assess the factor structure and to uncover any potential sub-loadings that may exist. Sampling adequacy for factor analysis was examined using Bartlett's test of sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy. A significant Bartlett's test indicates that correlations exist in the data set that are appropriate for factor analysis, while KMO values greater than 0.60 are deemed acceptable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 were retained (Todman & Dugard, 2007), and items loading 0.40 or higher on a factor and that did not correlate with 0.10 of any other factor were retained (Stevens, 2009). Lastly, items were screened to determine whether the factor on which they loaded made conceptual sense (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Cronbach alpha reliability analyses and scale intercorrelations were performed to test the psychometric properties of the instrument. Tabachnick and Fidell (2012) note that Cronbach alpha values above 0.70 are considered acceptable measures of internal consistency, while Lance, Butts, and Michels (2006) consider values above 0.80 to be a more meaningful indicator of reliability. Bivariate scale intercorrelations should not

exceed 0.90, as this would suggest a problem with multicollinearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012; Todman & Dugard, 2007).

The investigator and her supervisor independently coded the open-ended responses relating to the force and response (stimulus) for capacity building. Participant responses were coded based on apparent common themes across the responses. The investigators then exchanged notes and discussed any varying interpretations of the responses. Once agreement was reached, the codes were categorized and imported for data analysis. Descriptive statistics and multivariate analysis were used to examine the relative strength of the readiness for capacity building factors, and variation in readiness by the club size, board size, and club age. Correlation and linear regression analyses were conducted to test the relationship between readiness for capacity building and capacity building outcomes.

Results

The 66 survey respondents identified a total of 144 capacity building strategies and provided ratings of readiness and outcomes for each. As such, analyses of readiness for capacity building and capacity building outcomes were conducted based on those 144 cases ($n = 144$).

Capacity Building Profile

Frequency analyses were conducted on the coded data regarding the force and subsequent CSO response, as well as analysis of the selected strategies to build the necessary capacity required for that response. With regards to the stimulus, 78% of the identified forces were internal to the organization, and particularly about declining membership and membership demands. A much smaller proportion of the identified

forces were external to the organization (22%), and were particularly about competition or demand in the marketplace. Responses to those forces were predominantly in the form of program development (27%), membership development (26%), and personnel development (19%), with relatively fewer indications of a change in financial direction (11%), strategic direction (8%), facilities/equipment (8%), and new partnerships (1%). Participants identified multiple needs associated with their club's response to the particular forces. A majority of participants indicated human resources needs (80%), financial needs (64%), and planning and development needs (56%), while 49% and 42% indicated infrastructure and relationship needs, respectively.

As noted earlier, most participants (68%) indicated more than one strategy for building capacity to meet these needs. The reported capacity building strategies aimed at building human resources capacity included, for example, targeted recruitment efforts and training volunteers and coaches; those aimed at building financial capacity included applying for government grants and conducting fundraising initiatives; those aimed at planning and development capacity included creating a new strategic plan and reviewing internal procedures; those aimed at infrastructure capacity included facility and equipment acquisitions and enhanced communication; and, those aimed at relationship capacity included establishing new partnership agreements.

Psychometric Properties of Readiness and Outcomes Scales

Separate EFAs were conducted to analyze the underlying structure of the readiness for capacity building scale and the capacity building outcomes scale. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy ($KMO = 0.92$) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ($X^2 = 3169.68, p < .001$) confirmed that the factor analysis procedure was

appropriate for the readiness for capacity building scale. Principal component analysis yielded four possible readiness factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Inspection of the rotated component matrix revealed that two items correlated within 0.10 of another factor and so were removed. The reverse-score items loaded together as a three-item factor. The Cronbach alpha reliability value for this factor ($\alpha = 0.66$) was lower than the acceptable value of 0.80, indicating that this subscale did not demonstrate acceptable internal consistency. As such, the three items, and the corresponding factor, were removed. These procedures resulted in a three-factor solution. In total, 19 of the original 24 items representing readiness for capacity building remained. The three factors of readiness for capacity building factor were labeled: (1) organizational readiness (e.g., “People were committed to building capacity this way”; “Our people were willing to dedicate resources to this strategy”), (2) congruence (e.g., “This strategy/action was consistent with the values of our club”; “This strategy/action aligned with our club’s mandate”), and (3) existing capacity (e.g., “Our club has the existing capacity to implement this strategy”; “Our club had the necessary resources to sustain built capacity”). All three factors demonstrated acceptable levels of internal consistency ($\alpha > 0.80$; Lance et al., 2006). The three-factor structure accounted for 65% of the explained variance. The factor loadings, eigenvalues, percent variance, and internal consistency coefficients for each factor are presented in Table 3.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy ($KMO = 0.88$) and Bartlett’s test of sphericity ($X^2 = 846.9, p < 0.001$) confirmed that factor analysis procedures were appropriate for the capacity building outcomes scale. Principal component analysis yielded one possible factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0, and

all items loading greater than 0.40 on this factor. Thus, all items were retained within one capacity building outcomes factor, indicating that the short-term (e.g., “Our club’s needs have been addressed”; “The gap in our club’s capacity has been addressed”) and long-term (e.g., “These efforts have been maintained within our club”; “These efforts allowed us to solve other/new problems”) items collapsed into a single factor. The factor loadings, eigenvalues, percent variance, and internal consistency coefficients for the outcomes factor are presented in Table 4. Subsequently, an acceptable level of internal consistency ($\alpha = .91$) was determined for the capacity building outcomes factor. Additionally, as shown in Table 5, the intercorrelations between the three readiness for capacity building factors ranged from 0.59 to 0.75, indicating that multicollinearity was not a problem as all values were below 0.90 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

Readiness for Capacity Building

Bivariate correlations revealed that club size was negatively associated with existing capacity ($r = -0.23, p < 0.01$). Club age and board size were not significantly associated with any of the readiness for capacity building factors ($p > .05$).

A repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if any differences exist between the three factors of readiness for capacity building. Mauchly’s test of sphericity was examined in order to determine whether the level of dependence between pairs of data was roughly equal (Field, 2012). Mauchly’s test indicated that the assumption of sphericity was violated, $\chi^2(2) = 15.64, p < 0.001$, therefore the Greenhouse-Geisser estimate of sphericity was reviewed ($\epsilon = 0.91$). Since this value is greater than 0.75, the Huynh-Feldt correction was utilized in reviewing the ANOVA results (Field, 2012). The results reveal that a significant difference was found

between the three readiness for capacity building factors ($F(1.83, 262.12) = 38.09, p < 0.001$). A post hoc Bonferroni test of multiple pairwise comparisons demonstrated that congruence of the particular capacity building effort with the CSOs' systems ($M = 5.48, SD = 1.72$) was significantly greater than the organizations' readiness to go forward ($M = 5.03, SD = 1.11, p = 0.000$), which was significantly greater than the organizations' existing capacity to do so ($M = 4.77, SD = 1.14, p = 0.010$). A summary of the descriptive statistics for the readiness for capacity building factors and the capacity building outcomes are presented in Tables 3 and 4.

Readiness for Capacity Building and Capacity Building Outcomes

Testing for autocorrelation. Before performing the regression analysis, the assumption of independence of errors that is essential for obtaining unbiased parameter estimates was evaluated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). This assumption is often violated as a function of the order in which the cases are collected or for time-series data. Because the 144 data points or cases used in this analysis were gathered from 66 respondents, there was potential for nonindependence of errors or serial correlation due to the consecutive order in which the multiple data points from a single participant were collected. The assumption of independence of errors was evaluated using the Durbin-Watson (DW) statistic (d), which is a measure of autocorrelation of errors over the sequence of cases (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012; Todman & Dugard, 2001). According to decision rules used for the DW test, a d value of approximately 2 indicates that the residuals are uncorrelated, upholding the assumption of independence of errors, while a value close to 0 indicates a strong positive correlation (Wilson, 1992). The DW test for

Table 3

Pattern matrix representing factor loadings for readiness to build capacity

	Factor		
	1	2	3
1. Organizational Readiness			
People were committed to building capacity this way	.82		
People were motivated to engage in this strategy	.81		
People were confident the club was able to meet its needs this way	.80		
Our people were willing to dedicate resources to this strategy	.77		
People were willing to put energy into building capacity this way	.76		
People in our club felt they could implement this strategy/action successfully	.76		
Our people believed that this strategy would work	.75		
This strategy/action aligned with stakeholder expectations	.64		
2. Congruence			
This strategy/action was consistent with the values of our club		.82	
This strategy/action was consistent with our club's policies and procedures		.80	
This strategy/action aligned with our club's mandate		.74	
This strategy/action was consistent with our club's operations		.72	
3. Existing Capacity			
Our club had the necessary resources to implement this strategy/action			.85
Our club had the capacity to sustain the outcomes of this strategy/action			.84
Our club had the means to sustain capacity built through this strategy/action			.83
Our club had the necessary resources to sustain built capacity			.82
Our club had the existing capacity to implement this strategy/action			.81
Our club had the means to build capacity this way			.74
People in our club possessed the skills/experience needed to implement this strategy			.60
Cronbach α	.95	.93	.94
Eigenvalue	12.13	1.61	2.70
Percent variance	25.90	17.10	22.39
<i>M (SD)</i>	5.03 (1.11)	5.48 (1.17)	4.77 (1.14)

Loadings <.55 are suppressed. $N=144$; M = mean; SD = standard deviation.

Table 4

Pattern matrix representing factor loadings for capacity building outcomes

	Factor 1
1. Capacity Building Outcomes	
These efforts contributed to our club's ability to achieve its goals	.89
Our club's needs have been addressed	.83
The gap in our club's capacity has been addressed	.80
Our club's ability to achieve organizational goals has been enhanced	.75
These efforts allowed us to try new things	.74
These efforts have been maintained within our club	.74
These efforts allowed us to respond to new challenges	.74
Our club had been able to respond to the pressures we were feeling	.72
These efforts allowed us to solve other/new problems	.69
Cronbach α	.91
Eigenvalue	5.35
Percent variance	59.44
<i>M (SD)</i>	4.70 (1.02)

Loadings $<.55$ are suppressed. $N=144$; M = mean; SD = standard deviation.

Table 5

Bivariate correlations among the readiness for capacity building and outcome factors

	1	2	3	4
1. Organizational Readiness	--			
2. Congruence	.75**	--		
3. Existing Capacity	.59**	.56**	--	
4. Outcomes	.35**	.28**	.36**	--

Note. $N=144$; ** $p <.01$

the regression yielded a d value of 1.01 for the readiness for capacity building model, indicating a violation of the assumption of independence of errors and the likelihood of positive serial correlation. Given this result, the Cochrane-Urcott procedure for dealing with the effects of autocorrelation was utilized as a robustness check (Thejll & Schmith,

2005; Wooldridge, 2002) and is presented below with the results of the regression analysis.

Regression model. Capacity building outcomes was regressed on the three readiness for capacity building variables using standard linear regression (see Table 6). The full model accounted for 16% of the variance in capacity building outcomes ($R^2 = 0.16$, $F(3, 140) = 8.89$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that a higher level of overall readiness for capacity building was predictive of higher capacity building outcomes. The results also indicated that existing capacity ($\beta = 0.24$, $t = 2.45$, $p = 0.015$) made the only unique significant contribution to the prediction of capacity building outcomes, although the positive effect of organizational readiness was approaching significance ($\beta = 0.22$, $t = 1.82$, $p = 0.070$). These results reveal that existing capacity demonstrated unique variance over and above the contribution of the other two factors (organizational readiness and congruence).

Robustness check. Because the assumption of independence of errors was not upheld based on the results of the DW test reported above, the Cochrane-Urcott procedure was conducted as additional regression analysis. The Cochrane-Urcott procedure is designed to address autocorrelation by adjusting regression estimates and using the residuals to repeatedly compute parameter estimates until the serial correlation is no longer present (Thejll & Schmith, 2005; Wooldridge, 2002). Table 6 provides results of the regression analysis with the Cochrane-Urcott procedure. Although changes in the t values were observed, the results provided consistent support for existing capacity as the only significant contributor to the prediction of capacity building outcomes ($\beta = 0.42$, $t = 4.58$, $p < 0.001$), while narrowly rejecting the positive effect of organizational

readiness ($\beta = 0.20$, $t = 1.76$, $p = 0.081$) and rejecting the slightly negative effect of congruence on capacity building outcomes ($\beta = -0.15$, $t = -1.31$, $p = 0.189$). Thus, these results validate the robustness of the regression parameter estimates discussed above.

Table 6

Results of regression analysis for readiness for capacity building variables predicting capacity building outcomes and results of regression analysis with Cochrane-Orcutt procedure.

Variables	Outcomes				Outcomes with Cochrane-Orcutt			
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Org Readiness	.21	.11	.22	1.82	.16	.09	.20	1.76
Congruence	-.02	.10	-.02	-.17	-.11	.08	-.15	-1.32
Existing capacity	.22	.09	.24*	2.45	.34	.08	.42**	4.58
<i>F</i>	8.89**							
<i>R</i> ²	.16							
<i>N</i>	144							

** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

Discussion

In order to provide deeper insight into readiness for capacity building, this study examined the readiness of CSOs to undertake efforts to build capacity to address organizational needs with respect to some capacity building stimulus. Building on earlier findings that suggest that readiness is a critical contributor to successful capacity building, the objectives of the current study were to examine the extent to which CSOs are ready to build capacity and to determine the relative impact of the various aspects of readiness on the outcomes of capacity building efforts. An additional objective of the current study was to further define the multidimensional nature of the readiness for capacity building variable. As such, the findings provide insight into readiness for

capacity building as a multidimensional phenomenon in the CSO context, and the relative strength and impact of those dimensions.

The three-factor structure of readiness for capacity building that was uncovered in this study suggests that this context may demand an understanding of existing capacity that is focused on the present, rather than on longer term sustainability. As presented above, the capacity to build and capacity to sustain items loaded as one factor, labeled existing capacity. Misener and Doherty (2009) and Doherty et al. (2014) discuss the informal nature of the planning that often takes place in CSOs, stating that while a vision and direction for future planning and a desire to engage in long-term planning exist, the need to focus on the day-to-day operations introduce critical challenges and limitations for CSOs in this regard. Similar to the findings presented in Study 2, where capacity to build and capacity to sustain were not discussed as distinct concepts, the combination of these two dimensions into one factor suggests that the constraints introduced by the need to focus on day-to-day operations of the organization may extend to the conceptualization of existing capacity. Specifically, club representatives may be unable to differentiate the capacity required in order to undertake capacity building efforts and the capacity required to sustain the outcomes associated with those efforts based on the necessity to focus on short-term planning and day-to-day operations (Misener & Doherty, 2009).

The results of the factor analysis also provide insight into the perception of congruence as an aspect of readiness to build capacity. Specifically, the factor labeled congruence comprised only items that appear to reflect “macro” aspects of congruence (e.g., consistency with club values, alignment with club mandate, consistency with club policies and procedures), as identified in Study 2. Items reflecting “micro” aspects of

congruence (e.g., disruptive to day-to-day responsibilities, amount of extra work, disruptive to existing processes) loaded onto a separate factor that was ultimately discarded due to poor internal consistency. It is possible that the “micro” items loaded together because they were all negatively worded, and ultimately reverse scored.

However, it is also possible that the two forms of congruence are conceptually distinct, as indicated by Joffres et al.’s (2004) differentiation between inter-organizational and intra-organizational congruence.

Study 2 of this dissertation also identified that macro-level and micro-level congruence may be distinct concepts. The findings of Study 2 revealed that macro-level congruence may have a lesser impact on the success of capacity building efforts based on the ease with which it can be established; whereas, micro-level congruence may play a larger role in impacting the success of capacity building efforts because it recognizes the impact of those efforts on the day-to-day operations within a CSO. As such, it may be determined that a capacity building effort is congruent with an organization’s mandate, but that it is incongruent with the existing processes of the organization. For example, a CSO may have intended to search for qualified instructors in order to address a gap in human resources that is required to offer a new program that focuses on a parasport initiative. The club may have a mandate of providing accessible sport for all, with which this initiative and its associated strategies would align, indicating congruence with macro aspects; but it may not fit well with the day-to-day responsibilities and existing workload of the volunteers (micro aspects), demonstrating that a capacity building effort could be both congruent at the macro-level and incongruent at the micro-level. The manifestation

of congruence at both the macro and micro level warrants further investigation in order to better understand the nature and role of congruence in capacity building.

With regard to the level of readiness to build capacity, the findings provide insight into the multidimensional nature of the concept and revealed perceived differences between the three factors of readiness to build capacity. Congruence was perceived to be significantly stronger than organizational readiness, which was significantly stronger than existing capacity as aspects of readiness to build capacity. As it happens, CSOs were most ready in terms of the congruence between the club's existing policies, values and operations and the intended capacity building efforts, suggesting that intended strategies were quite closely aligned with the organization's mandate. To a (significantly) lesser but notable extent, the organizations were ready in terms of individuals' willingness, commitment, and ability to go forward with the capacity building efforts, suggesting that people were prepared to commit the time and resources needed to engage in the particular strategies. The clubs were least ready in terms of having the existing capacity (skills, means, and resources) to build (and to support the maintenance of the outcomes).

These findings suggest that the psychological dimensions of readiness were more prevalent than the structural dimensions. It may not be surprising that the alignment of organizational values, mandates, and policies with intended capacity building (congruence) is most prevalent, as a CSO's decision to respond to the force itself, through such things as introducing a new program and recruiting board members, was likely dependent on alignment with these macro-level organizational characteristics. Further, macro-level congruence is likely more easily established based on the nature of organizational values, mandates, and policies as broad, overarching approaches to sport

delivery in a given CSO. CSOs are membership associations and are, thus, created around the shared interests of a membership, that is served by the organizational mandate and policies, and that embody the values of that CSO (Doherty et al., 2014). As such, it is unlikely that CSOs would entertain initiatives that do not align with their organizational values, mandates, and policies.

It is also worth noting that existing capacity was the (significantly) lowest aspect of readiness to build capacity. As existing research on capacity in CSOs indicates, these organizations often rely exclusively on volunteers, have relatively informal structures, lack specialized knowledge, and have difficulty obtaining funding and earning revenue (see Doherty et al., 2014; Gumulka et al., 2005; Misener & Doherty, 2009). Further, Sharpe (2006) notes that CSOs often experience low capacity in ‘professional’ competencies relating to management and rely on most of the work being done by a small number of over-worked volunteers (see also Doherty & Misener, 2009). As mentioned above, the capacity-related challenges experienced by CSOs mean that they are often forced to focus on short-term planning and the day-to-day responsibilities of program and service delivery. It is perhaps not surprising that respondents felt they were least ready in terms of having the existing capacity to support their capacity building efforts, based on the capacity limitations of CSOs as presented in existing literature.

It was of interest to determine whether club characteristics (club size, board size, club age) explain any variation in the readiness for capacity building factors. The results reveal that club size was the only characteristic significantly associated with readiness. Club size was negatively associated with existing capacity, suggesting that with greater club membership there is likely to be a lower level of existing capacity. As club

membership increases, demands and pressures placed on the club's existing human resources, financial resources, relationship, infrastructure, and planning and development capacities will presumably also increase, and potentially contribute to a lower level of existing capacity with regard to the ability to introduce new or additional initiatives to support capacity building. It may be argued that as club membership increases, the club would presumably have greater access to potential volunteers and greater financial income, as important capacity assets and resources (Doherty et al., 2014). However, despite previous research suggesting that sport clubs with larger memberships may have access to more formalized structures, more volunteers, increased income, and greater capacity to provide programs (i.e., Casey et al., 2012; Nichols et al., 2012), the findings of this study suggest that the opposite may be true in relation to existing capacity for capacity building.

Notably, despite previous research highlighting the linkages between board size and organizational characteristics that could presumably impact readiness for capacity building (e.g., access to additional resources, Brown, 2012; more sophisticated human resource management plans, Taylor & McGraw, 2006), no significant association was found. Similarly, no significant association was found between club age and readiness for capacity building. The assumption that over time a CSO would be more likely to have systematic processes (Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, & Darcy, 2006) was not upheld. This may be due in part to the extent of volunteer turnover that exists within CSOs (Cuskelly, 2004; Doherty et al., 2014); while the club itself may have been around for a longer period of time, the individuals within the club may have varying tenures in their roles, potentially impacting their level of readiness for capacity building.

It was also of interest to investigate the relative impact of the dimensions of readiness to build capacity on capacity building outcomes. The full model of readiness explained 16% of the variance in outcomes; however, existing capacity was the only unique significant predictor, suggesting that the more structural dimension of readiness (i.e., existing capacity) had a greater impact on capacity building outcomes than the more psychological dimensions (i.e., organizational readiness, congruence). Existing research in the area of readiness for change emphasizes the role of the psychological dimensions of readiness, highlighting the impact that attitudes towards change (Cinite et al., 2009), the anticipated benefits and appropriateness of a given change (Holt et al., 2007), the willingness to be involved in the change initiative (Bouckennooghe et al., 2009), and individual attitudes towards change (Eby et al., 2000) have on the success of change initiatives. In this study, however, the findings suggest that the structural dimensions of readiness hold more bearing than the psychological dimensions. For instance, if a CSO intends to establish a new partnership with a sporting goods company as a response to equipment constraints, it may require the building of relationship and network capacity in order to do so. In turn, the club volunteers may feel that this is highly congruent with the organization's mandate and values, and that they are willing and committed to investing in these capacity building efforts. However, if they do not have the human resources capacity, for example, to support and sustain the building efforts, then it is likely to be an unsuccessful attempt at building capacity.

Existing capacity as the only unique significant predictor of capacity building outcomes contradicts previous research surrounding readiness that reiterates the primacy of having willing and committed individuals involved in the change process (see Weiner

et al., 2008), and previous research in the sport context that suggests that organizational leaders may be a driving or resisting force in the change process (Amis, Slack, & Hinings, 2004). However, this finding supports Casey et al.'s (2009a) claims that understanding an organization's capacity is crucial when designing capacity building strategies; these authors, however, neglect to demonstrate any direct links between existing capacity and the outcomes of those capacity building strategies. This study extends the discussion of an organization's existing capacity in the building process, and addresses Casey et al.'s (2009a) concerns that understanding how an organization functions is often overlooked within capacity building initiatives, by revealing the significant impact of an organization's existing capacity on capacity building efforts.

Notably, the findings suggest that the psychological dimensions of readiness are, alone, not sufficient in contributing to the success of capacity building efforts. There needs to be a structure or foundation (i.e., existing capacity) in place; successful capacity building relies on an organization's foundation of existing capacity in terms of possessing the means, resources, and skills needed. This is particularly insightful in the CSO context, where volunteers are typically highly committed and passionate about their role (Cuskelly, 2004; Doherty et al., 2014), and often operate in an environment of resource vulnerability, with unstable financial resources and high volunteer turnover (Breuer, Wicker, & Von Hanau, 2012; Cuskelly et al., 2006). While, in this study, the psychological aspects of readiness were found to be more prevalent, the structural aspects were a unique predictor of successful capacity building.

Nonetheless, the variance explained by the model of readiness may be lower than expected. There are, however, several potential reasons for this. First, there may be

factors that were not measured that may moderate the impact of an organization's readiness, including, for example, previous efforts to build capacity. Second, there may be other readiness factors that explain further variance in capacity building outcomes that were not (fully) considered here. Specifically, as described above, it is possible that "micro" aspects of congruence play a meaningful role in determining readiness for capacity building, with a subsequent impact on outcomes. Future research should explore the differentiation between the "micro" and "macro" aspects of congruence as they pertain to readiness for capacity building and, if relevant, the role of micro aspects in capacity building. Lastly, the perhaps lower than expected variance accounted for by readiness to build could be due to the capacity building outcomes measure in this study. It was an overall, or general, measure of outcomes that did not capture the nuances of immediate or sustained capacity building outcomes. Particular types of readiness may be more (or less) strongly associated with different outcomes. Future research should focus on teasing out the unique nuances associated with the immediate (short-term) and sustained (long-term) impacts of capacity building, particularly in relation to readiness.

Concluding Comments

The current study provides important insight into the extent to which CSOs are ready to build capacity to respond to forces within their internal and/or external environments, and the impact of that readiness on their ability to successfully build capacity. This study contributes to capacity building theory by testing the relationship between readiness for capacity building and capacity building outcomes, as highlighted in the process model of capacity building (Figure 3). The findings provide evidence that

readiness for capacity building does impact capacity building outcomes, and that, in this context, existing capacity is particularly important.

The findings also provide evidence of the multidimensional nature of readiness for capacity building. Specifically, the findings of this study contribute to a greater understanding of the nature of readiness in the community sport context. Primarily, this study revealed that readiness for capacity building comprises three dimensions (organizational readiness, congruence, and existing capacity), that congruence is more prevalent than organizational readiness, which is more prevalent than existing capacity, but that existing capacity is the only unique significant predictor of capacity building outcomes. While existing research regarding readiness for change, and readiness for capacity building more specifically, highlights the importance of individuals' commitment and willingness in the success of change initiatives, the findings of this study revealed that existing capacity plays a larger role in predicting the perceived success of capacity building efforts in the CSO context.

However, limitations to this study must be acknowledged. First, the sample was drawn from CSOs representing team sports; thus, the findings are only generalizable to similar types of organizations. Second, participants were asked to respond to club-level indicators of readiness; as such, the data reflect individual perspectives towards CSO readiness rather than individual perspectives of their own readiness. However, the individuals targeted for this study were the central figures within each organization; those who presumably would have the greatest insight into, and be most informed of, the organization's internal activities and decision-making processes.

To the extent that the findings may be generalized to the population of CSOs from which the sample was drawn, the findings have implications for practice. Specifically, CSOs may utilize these findings to shape their approach to capacity building efforts by ensuring that the organization is ‘ready’ to build capacity, in terms of possessing the existing capacity to do so, prior to engaging in capacity building efforts. That means CSO leaders, basing their capacity building efforts on specific objectives that address a need for the organization, should conduct a thorough assessment of their existing capacity in order to utilize and rely on their areas of strength throughout their capacity building efforts, or reconsider any building efforts. CSO leaders, and sport leaders in general, can utilize the results to rationalize requests made to funding agencies for resources to support capacity building efforts. Similarly, individuals responsible for granting funds to CSOs and assessing the performance of these organizations based on those funds should recognize that capacity building is a resource intensive process. The results of this study provide evidence that resources, in the form of existing capacity, are critical to the success of capacity building efforts.

Several directions for future research are prompted by the study. Future research should continue to investigate the nature of readiness for capacity building in the community sport context, as well as the broader nonprofit and voluntary context. The multidimensionality of readiness adopted and supported in this study should serve as the basis going forward, in that a multidimensional perspective allows for consideration of different types of readiness and possible correlates of each. Further, as noted earlier, the possibility exists that the “micro” aspects of congruence are an important factor of readiness for capacity building. As such, future research should explore the

characteristics of micro-level congruence in order to gain insight into the nuances and role of this factor in readiness.

More so, to further understanding of the nature of the different readiness dimensions, future research should examine the organizational readiness and congruence elements in order to uncover the potentially differing perceptions of the psychological dimensions of readiness when compared to the structural dimensions. For example, future research might adopt a qualitative approach to gain deeper insight into how the psychological and structural dimensions of readiness differ in their influence on capacity building outcomes. In this study, existing capacity emerged as a unique significant predictor of capacity building outcomes. Future research should explore this association further in order to enhance understanding of what existing capacity entails, and to uncover ‘how’ and ‘why’ existing capacity impacts capacity building outcomes (Are there particular dimensions of capacity that are relied upon more often than others?). In addition, future research might utilize qualitative analyses to better tease out short- and long-term capacity building outcomes to determine if readiness is differentially associated with these outcomes.

Finally, future research should examine whether readiness for capacity building varies based on particular capacity needs. For instance, human resources capacity has been identified as a strength for CSOs (Misener & Doherty, 2009); thus, are CSOs more ready to address capacity needs that relate to human resources? Similarly, planning and development capacity is an ongoing challenge for CSOs (Misener & Doherty, 2009), will they be less likely to address those needs? Such work will provide greater insight into the role of readiness for capacity building, while furthering capacity building theory by

investigating the relationships among the factors involved in the capacity building process.

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Summary, Implications, and Future Directions

This dissertation included three studies focusing on capacity building in community sport organizations (CSO). The purpose of Study 1 was to develop a process model of capacity building to address a gap in the literature regarding the conceptualization of capacity building as a comprehensive process. This study utilized de Groot's (1969) interpretative-theoretical methodology of model building, a four-phase qualitative process of interpretation and theoretical evaluation of existing materials that results in knowledge extension fundamental to developing a novel model. de Groot's (1969) methodology involved the exploration and analysis of existing literature, the interpretation of the relationships and practices associated with capacity building, and a theoretically-based explanation of the process model of capacity building.

The model contends that successful capacity building begins with an assessment of capacity needs in response to a given internal or external environmental force (capacity building stimulus). Capacity needs are expected to vary with the particular stimulus, and become the basis of the capacity building objectives. Readiness for capacity building is then considered with respect to the objectives and alternative strategies. Specifically, organizational readiness, strategy congruence with organizational processes and systems, and capacity to build and sustain built capacity are considered. The generation and ultimate selection of a particular capacity building strategy(s) is based on the organization's readiness to implement that strategy(s). The successful outcomes of capacity building are ultimately dependent on the extent to which the organization is ready to implement a strategy that addresses its capacity needs, and can be known in terms of both immediate impact (objectives have been achieved) and whether the built

capacity is maintained. The process model of capacity building provides a comprehensive depiction of the factors and influences involved in the process of building capacity.

The purpose of Study 2 was to gain insight into the conditions and processes involved in successfully building the capacity of CSOs, through the examination, and comparison, of case studies of successful and unsuccessful organizational capacity building. Utilizing the process model of capacity building as a guide, Study 2 examined the extent to which, in the face of some stimulus, CSOs assess their existing capacity and consider their readiness to build capacity, generate and select the capacity building strategy(s) that are implemented, and experience the impacts of those capacity building efforts. The findings from the two cases – one that was successful in their capacity building efforts and one that was unsuccessful in their efforts – revealed several key differentiating conditions between the successful and unsuccessful cases. First, the thoroughness and appropriateness of the needs assessment played a key role in guiding the successful case through its capacity building efforts, in that actual capacity needs were identified and framed the capacity building objectives rather than relying on presumed needs, as was the case in the unsuccessful case. Second, the degree of willingness and commitment of individuals (organizational readiness), the congruence between the capacity building strategies and existing organizational processes and practices, and the existing capacity of the organizations to build capacity both facilitated (in the successful case) and hindered (in the unsuccessful case) the capacity building efforts. Third, the selection of suitable strategies that addressed the identified needs of the organization and that the organization was ‘ready’ to implement contributed to the success of the capacity building efforts. These factors, individually and collectively,

contributed to the success (and lack of success) of the capacity building efforts of the two CSOs examined in this study.

Given the role of readiness for capacity building that was uncovered in Study 2, the purpose of Study 3 was to examine readiness for capacity building in order to gauge the extent to which CSOs are ready to build capacity to address some need placed on the organization and to determine the relative impact of readiness to build capacity on the outcomes of those efforts. Study 3 provides evidence that readiness for capacity building is a multidimensional concept and enhances understanding of the extent to which CSOs are ready to address needs within their internal and/or external environments. Further, utilizing the process model of capacity building as a framework for the analysis of readiness for capacity building allowed for an analysis grounded in the broader conceptualization of the factors and conditions involved in this process. Presidents (or their representatives) from 66 CSOs described 144 capacity building strategies. Data collected from those respondents were subjected to exploratory factor analysis that resulted in a three-factor structure of readiness for capacity building (organizational readiness, congruence, and existing capacity). The subsequent analyses revealed that there was a stronger perception of CSOs' organizational readiness, and congruence of capacity building strategies with their existing systems, than of their existing capacity to support those efforts. The results also provide evidence that readiness predicts successful capacity building, and that existing capacity is a unique significant predictor of that outcome. Interestingly, existing capacity was perceived to a significantly lesser extent than the other readiness for capacity building factors. This finding provides unique insight into the role of readiness in the CSO context as it contradicts much of the

organizational readiness research that states that having a committed and willing workforce (or volunteer-force) is paramount in determining the success of change initiatives (see Weiner, Amick, & Lee, 2008).

Taken together, the findings from the three studies included in this dissertation present important contributions to knowledge and capacity building theory, implications for practice, and suggestions for future research.

Contribution to Knowledge and Theory

Four main contributions to capacity building research can be drawn from the findings presented in this dissertation. First, central to the overall purpose of this dissertation, a *comprehensive understanding of the capacity building process* was garnered through the development of the process model of capacity building, which allows for a comprehensive yet customizable approach to understanding and examining the conditions and factors involved in capacity building. Existing research in this area has adopted a fragmented view of capacity building by focusing on single factors involved in the process of building capacity (e.g., Cairns, Harris, & Young, 2005; Joffres et al., 2004; Sobeck & Agius, 2007), contributing to conceptual confusion surrounding capacity building (Simmons, Reynolds, & Swinburn, 2011). The process model of capacity building presents a framework to measure, predict, and explain (in)effective capacity building, highlighting the need to investigate capacity building as a process.

Second, relating closely to a comprehensive understanding of capacity building, a *clearer conceptualization of capacity building* was developed. The process model of capacity building is the first attempt to depict capacity building from an initial stimulus through to integration into an organization's program and service delivery. In doing so, a

clearer conceptualization of capacity building was developed; one that recognizes capacity building as process that involves consideration of the initial stimulus, the assessment of needs and assets, the readiness for capacity building (in terms of organizational readiness, congruence, and existing capacity), appropriate strategy selection, and the impact of the outcomes. As such, going forward, research should advance this conceptualization of capacity building.

Third, *the multidimensional nature of readiness for capacity building* was demonstrated. Building on the findings of Study 2, the analysis in Study 3 identified a three-factor structure of readiness for capacity building that includes organizational readiness (willingness and commitment of individuals), congruence (alignment with existing values, mandates, and policies), and existing capacity. While previous studies have examined a combination of readiness factors (e.g., Bouckenooghe, Devos, & Van den Broeck, 2009; Holt, Armenakis, Field, & Harris, 2007; Joffres et al., 2004), the approach taken here allows for consideration of the psychological *and* structural nature of the construct by examining the dimensions in combination.

Lastly, *the importance of existing capacity in the capacity building process* was emphasized. Interestingly, the results presented in Study 3 revealed that existing capacity was the only unique significant predictor of successful capacity building outcomes; notably, it was also perceived to a significantly lesser extent than organizational readiness and congruence. The nature of the CSO context may explain why individuals involved in CSOs may be more likely to experience high levels of willingness and commitment based on their motivations for being involved in the organization, their level of identification with the organization, and their shared interest in the sport (Doherty, Misener, &

Cuskelly, 2014). However, the results of this study suggest that a structure or foundation (i.e., existing capacity) is required as successful capacity building relies on an organization's existing resources, means, and skills.

Overall, the collection of studies presented in this dissertation address Nu'Man et al.'s (2007) call for "a comprehensive organizational capacity building framework with complementary indicators [in order to] shed some light on how these factors impede or facilitate capacity building efforts" (p. 32). The studies presented here further contribute to the understanding of how and what factors impede or facilitate the capacity building process.

Implications For Practice

Taken together, these findings present several implications for CSOs and those responsible for, and involved in, administering sport programs and services in these clubs. First, the process model of capacity building *provides a framework for sport leaders to manage, predict, and explain effective capacity building*. Sport leaders can utilize the process model to facilitate successful capacity building, including aligning strategies with the needs of the organizations and ensuring the organization, and its leaders, are 'ready' to build capacity.

Second, the findings reveal the nuances and conditions associated with successful capacity building. This *enables sport leaders to better identify and tackle the process of capacity in its entirety*. The improved comprehension of the process of successful capacity building allows sport leaders to be better prepared when initiating capacity building efforts. Similarly, sport leaders and policy makers can use the model to establish what is required for effective capacity building.

Lastly, the role of existing capacity as a predictor of capacity building outcomes highlighted where CSOs may require support in their capacity building efforts. The findings of this dissertation provide evidence of *the need for existing capacity in order to build capacity* in the face of some stimulus on the organization. Sport leaders and policy makers alike should direct resources to support these efforts, as well as shape their approach to capacity building by ensuring that the organization is ‘ready’ to build capacity, in terms of possessing the existing capacity to do so, prior to engaging in capacity building efforts. The findings presented here may be particularly useful for the broader Canadian sport system as attempts are made to meet the core principles of the Canadian Sport Policy (Canadian Heritage, 2012). Specifically, the desire for a sustainable sport system with the organizational capacity to support its objectives; the findings suggest that it would be useful to direct resources to ensuring that CSOs have the capacity to build further capacity, in order to provide programs and services that may align with the objectives outlined in the Canadian Sport Policy.

Directions for Future Research

In order to further advance the knowledge base and understanding of capacity building, several directions for future research emerged from this dissertation. First, the process model of capacity building provides a foundation for further investigation of capacity building as a process. As such, in order to further establish its utility, and address any refinements, future research should *utilize the process model of capacity building model in various contexts*, including, for example, professional sport, sport for development, and sport event hosting contexts. Further use of the process model of capacity building in various contexts will contribute to a greater understanding of

capacity building, identify any refinements to the model including contextual nuances, and address the gap in knowledge of what contributes to effective capacity building.

Second, future research framed by the process model of capacity building would provide *insight into the nature and relative importance of the various concepts highlighted in the model*. For example, future research should explore the nature of the environmental forces that prompt capacity building in CSOs to uncover whether particular internal or external forces provide a stronger impetus for capacity building, or whether possible links exist between the capacity building needs and an organization's readiness to build capacity. Future research should *investigate further the nuances and conditions of readiness for capacity building in order to uncover the intricacies associated with readiness* towards strategy selection and strategy implementation. Specifically, future research should examine the nature of existing capacity given its importance in predicting capacity building outcomes. The three-factor structure of readiness for capacity building found in Study 3 should also be tested further. With that, the items associated with aspects of micro-level congruence should be explored further to differentiate between the macro- and micro-level aspects of congruence and to determine if, in fact, they constitute part of the conceptualization of readiness in the process model of capacity building and the CSO context.

Third, *different research methods and paradigms could be used to deepen understanding of capacity building as an organizational process*. For instance, longitudinal studies of capacity building should be considered in order to investigate the long-term impacts of capacity building efforts and the factors that contribute to the maintenance of those outcomes. Utilizing an active-member researcher approach (Adler

& Adler, 1987) in which the researcher is an active observer in the research context or a participatory approach (Frisby, Reid, Millar, & Hoeber, 2005) in which the researcher assumes an active role within a CSO as it progresses through a capacity building initiative from start to finish would contribute to a deeper understanding of the capacity building process.

Lastly, future research should conduct *comparisons with CSOs in other parts of Canada and in other countries, where community sport plays a similar role* to assist in defining the nature and conditions associated with organizational capacity building in this context. For instance, future research might investigate whether the Canadian sport system presents any unique opportunities or challenges related to capacity building when compared with the Australian or English sport systems. The above suggestions for future research will provide an important complement and extension to the continuing focus on organizational capacity in the nonprofit sector, and CSOs in particular, while providing profound insight into the process of capacity building within these contexts.

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Appendix A

Western University

Research Ethics Approval Notices



Use of Human Participants - Initial Ethics Approval Notice

Principal Investigator: Dr. Alison Doherty
File Number: 104642
Review Level: Delegated
Protocol Title: An Investigation of Capacity Building in Community Sport Organizations
Department & Institution: Health Sciences/Kinesiology, Western University
Sponsor:
Ethics Approval Date: April 11, 2014 **Expiry Date:** December 31, 2014

Documents Reviewed & Approved & Documents Received for Information:

Document Name	Comments	Version Date
Instruments	Interview guide-Received Jan 16, 2014	
Western University Protocol		
Letter of Information & Consent	organization	2014/03/21
Letter of Information & Consent	Participants	2014/03/21

This is to notify you that The University of Western Ontario Research Ethics Board for Non-Medical Research Involving Human Subjects (NMREB) which is organized and operates according to the Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct of Research Involving Humans and the applicable laws and regulations of Ontario has granted approval to the above named research study on the approval date noted above.

This approval shall remain valid until the expiry date noted above assuming timely and acceptable responses to the NMREB's periodic requests for surveillance and monitoring information.

Members of the NMREB who are named as investigators in research studies, or declare a conflict of interest, do not participate in discussions related to, nor vote on, such studies when they are presented to the NMREB.

The Chair of the NMREB is Dr. Riley Hinson. The NMREB is registered with the U.S. Department of Health & Human Services under the IRB registration number IRB 00000941.

Ethics Officer to Contact for Further Information

 Grace Kelly (grace.kelly@uwo.ca)	 Vikki Tran (vikki.tran@uwo.ca)	 Mina Mekhail (mmekhail@uwo.ca)	 Enka Basile (ebasile@uwo.ca)
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**Western University Health Science Research Ethics Board
NMREB Delegated Initial Approval Notice**

Principal Investigator: Dr. Alison Doherty
Department & Institution: Health Sciences\Kinesiology, Western University

NMREB File Number: 106375
Study Title: Readiness to Build Capacity in Community Sport Organizations
Sponsor:

NMREB Initial Approval Date: March 03, 2015
NMREB Expiry Date: March 03, 2016

Documents Approved and/or Received for Information:

Document Name	Comments	Version Date
Letter of Information	Letter of Information	
Instruments	Survey	
Western University Protocol		2015/02/17

The Western University Non-Medical Research Ethics Board (NMREB) has reviewed and approved the above named study, as of the NMREB Initial Approval Date noted above.

NMREB approval for this study remains valid until the NMREB Expiry Date noted above, conditional to timely submission and acceptance of NMREB Continuing Ethics Review.

The Western University NMREB operates in compliance with the Tri-Council Policy Statement Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans (TCPS2), the Ontario Personal Health Information Protection Act (PHIPA, 2004), and the applicable laws and regulations of Ontario.

Members of the NMREB who are named as Investigators in research studies do not participate in discussions related to, nor vote on such studies when they are presented to the REB.

The NMREB is registered with the U.S. Department of Health & Human Services under the IRB registration number IRB 00000941.

 Ethics Officer to Contact for Further Information

<input type="checkbox"/> Erika Basile ebasile@uwo.ca	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Grace Kelly grace.kelly@uwo.ca	<input type="checkbox"/> Mina Mekhail mmekhail@uwo.ca	<input type="checkbox"/> Vikki Tran vikki.tran@uwo.ca
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Appendix B

Letters of Information

Study 2

LETTER TO ORGANIZATIONS



An investigation of capacity building in community sport organizations

Information:

The research team of Ms. Patti Millar (Doctoral Candidate) and Professor Alison Doherty invite your club to participate in a research study of the factors involved in building club capacity at the community sport level. Capacity is the ability of an organization to draw on its human resources, finances, infrastructure, and relationships to achieve its goals. It is not unusual for community sport organizations or clubs to need to build their capacity in certain areas – for example recruiting or training volunteers, increasing the financial base, establishing external relationships and networks – so that they can respond to opportunities or pressures for change. If you have engaged in building capacity in your club in some way recently, we are interested in understanding how that unfolded. Specifically, we are interested in the conditions and processes that contributed to the success, or lack of success, of your capacity building efforts.

If your club agrees to be involved, we will then invite you, as President, and several executive members, volunteers, and coaches to participate in one-on-one interviews in person or by telephone. We will send you a letter of information to forward along to your board members, coaches, and key club volunteers. Those individuals wishing to participate will be prompted to contact us directly. The interview will provide an opportunity for participants to reflect on the capacity building process within your organization, with a particular focus on the conditions associated with its success, or lack of success. We are also inviting you to share any relevant program and organizational documentation (i.e., meeting minutes, organizational policies and procedures, strategic plans, operating regulations, mission and vision statements) with the research team in order to provide further insight into the capacity building undertaken by your organization.

We will follow up with you shortly to determine your interest in being involved, or you may contact us.

Participation:

Participation in the study by the club, and by any board members, coaches or volunteers is voluntary. Individuals may refuse to participate, refuse to answer any questions, or withdraw from the study at any time and withdraw any information collected to that point. The information reported to us will be held in the strictest confidence. Findings will be aggregated across the organization in order to ensure that individual participants cannot be identified. Interviews will take about 45 minutes to complete, and will be audio recorded with the participants' permission. Participants may ask that the recording be stopped at any time during the interview. If they do not want to be audio recorded then

handwritten notes will be taken. Interviews will be scheduled at times that are convenient for the participants.

Benefits:

The information you provide will help us understand organizational capacity building in community sport with the intent of identifying promising practices. We will be pleased to provide your organization with a summary report outlining the capacity building process that we have determined from our research to be particularly successful.

Confidentiality and Potential Risks:

There are no known risks to participation. The names of all participants, the name of the organization, and any other identifiers will be removed from the interview transcript and fictitious names will be used in any publicly reported results from the study. A copy of the transcribed interviews will be kept on a password-protected computer, accessible only to the researchers conducting the study. Audio files will be deleted once the interviews have been transcribed. We will send participants a copy of their transcribed interview in order to verify the statements. Changes can be made to the transcript if participants feel that their thoughts and opinions were not properly conveyed.

Contact:

This letter is for you to keep. If you have any questions about the study, you can contact us at the numbers given below. If you have any questions about the conduct of this study or your rights as a research subject you may contact The Office of Research Ethics, Western University, 519-661-3036 or e-mail at: ethics@uwo.ca.

Thank you for your consideration,

Ms. Patti Millar
PhD Candidate, Sport Management
School of Kinesiology, Faculty of Health Sciences
Western University

Dr. Alison Doherty
Professor, Sport Management
School of Kinesiology, Faculty of Health Sciences
Western University

LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS



An investigation of capacity building in community sport organizations

Information:

The research team of Ms. Patti Millar (Doctoral Candidate) and Professor Alison Doherty invite you to participate in a research study of the factors involved in building club capacity at the community sport level. Capacity is the ability of an organization to draw on its human resources, finances, infrastructure, and relationships to achieve its goals. It is not unusual for community sport organizations or clubs to need to build their capacity in certain areas – for example recruiting or training volunteers, increasing the financial base, establishing external relationships and networks – so that they can respond to opportunities or pressures for change. If you have engaged in building capacity in your club in some way recently, we are interested in understanding how that unfolded. Specifically, we are interested in the conditions and processes that contributed to the success, or lack of success, of your capacity building efforts.

Your organization has agreed to be involved in the study. The interview will provide an opportunity for you to reflect on the capacity building process within your organization, with a particular focus on the conditions associated with its success, or lack of success. The information you provide will help us understand organizational capacity building in community sport with the intent of identifying promising practices.

We will follow up with you shortly to determine your interest in being involved, or you may contact.

Participation:

Participation in the study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate, refuse to answer any questions, or withdraw from the study at any time and withdraw any information collected to that point. The information reported to us will be held in the strictest confidence. Findings will be aggregated across the organization in order to ensure that individual participants cannot be identified. Interviews will be conducted in person or by telephone and will take about 45 minutes to complete. Interviews will be audio recorded with the participant's permission. Participants may ask that the recording be stopped at any time during the interview. If they do not want to be audio recorded then handwritten notes will be taken. The interviews will be scheduled at times that are convenient for the participants.

Benefits:

The information you provide will help us understand organizational capacity building in community sport with the intent of identifying promising practices. We will be pleased to provide your organization with a summary report outlining the capacity building process that we have determined from our research to be a particularly successful approach.

Confidentiality and Potential Risks:

There are no known risks to participation. The names of all participants, the name of the organization, and any other identifiers will be removed from the interview transcript and fictitious names will be used in any publicly reported results from the study. A copy of the transcribed interviews will be kept on a password-protected computer, accessible only to the researchers conducting the study. Audio files will be deleted once the interviews have been transcribed. We will send participants a copy of their transcribed interview in order to verify the statements. Changes can be made to the transcript if participants feel that their thoughts and opinions were not properly conveyed. Representatives of the Western University Research Ethics Board may contact you or require access to your study-related records to monitor conduct of the research.

Contact:

This letter is for you to keep. If you have any questions about the study, you can contact us at the numbers given below. If you have any questions about the conduct of this study or your rights as a research subject you may contact The Office of Research Ethics, Western University, 519-661-3036 or e-mail at: ethics@uwo.ca.

Thank you for your consideration,

Ms. Patti Millar
PhD Candidate, Sport Management
School of Kinesiology, Faculty of Health Sciences
Western University

Dr. Alison Doherty
Professor, Sport Management
School of Kinesiology, Faculty of Health Sciences
Western University

An investigation of capacity building in community sport organizations**Consent Form for all Participants**

I have read the Letter of Information, I have had the study explained to me, and I agree to participate. I am satisfied that all of my questions have been answered. I understand that I do not waive my legal rights by signing this consent document.

Please circle Yes or No to indicate whether you agree or disagree with each of the following statements, then sign the form at the bottom.

The interview can be taped with an audio recorder. Yes
No

Your name (please print): _____

Your signature: _____

Name of person responsible for obtaining informed consent (please print):

Signature of person responsible for obtaining informed consent:

Date: _____

Appendix C

Interview Guide

Study 2

An investigation of capacity building in community sport organizations

Interview Guide

Thank you for participating in this study. I would like to remind you that your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may choose not to answer any of the interview questions. Any personal information that we discuss that is not relevant to the study's purpose will not be transcribed or included in any reporting of the findings.

Focus of capacity building process (reiterate that this is the focus of the interview):

Role within Club: _____

1. What was the stimulus that initiated capacity building? Was this an internal or external stimulus? How was it introduced and discussed within the organization? [What triggered your club to introduce/implement this program/change/etc?]
2. Did your organization assess whether it was able or had the capacity to respond to the stimulus? What things were considered? [Prompts: Human resources? Finances? Planning/development? Infrastructure? External relationships?]
3. What challenges or needs were identified with respect to responding to the stimulus? [Refer back to Q1 response; needs/challenges that arose from that trigger?]
4. What assets or strengths were identified with respect to responding to the stimulus? [What resources/assets did your club already possess that relate/facilitate the response to the stimulus?]
5. Did the organization set goals/objectives with regard to addressing those challenges/needs? Or did it just move forward into building capacity? [Were specific goals/objectives identified prior to going forward with the implementation/response to the stimulus?]
6. Did you find the organizational needs assessment helpful/effective?
 - a. Was this a collaborative effort? Did you feel involved in the needs assessment?

7. Did your organization consider several different strategies or just one? Who was involved in this discussion?
[Were other options discussed/raised in terms of how to address the stimulus; refer to Q1]
8. What strategy(s) was chosen? Why?
[Why did your club ultimately choose the strategy that you did (insert strategy that was used)?]
9. On what basis was this strategy selected?
Prompt questions:
 - a. Did the organization consider whether individuals were willing and able to implement the strategy(s)? [How did this come about?]
 - b. Did the organization consider whether this strategy(s) would be disruptive to your organization in any way? To your day-to-day responsibilities? [How did this come about?]
 - c. Did your organization consider whether this strategy(s) would create a significant amount of added work? [How did this come about?]
 - d. Did your organization consider whether this strategy(s) aligned with what's important for your organization? Consistent with what your organization is trying to do?
 - e. Did your organization consider whether it had any particular strengths (such as people, finances, or infrastructure, etc) that would help with the capacity building?
 - f. Did your organization consider whether it had any particular assets/strengths that would help to sustain the outcomes of this strategy(s)?
10. How was the selected strategy(s) implemented? [How did it unfold?]
[Can you speak to the process of how the selected strategy unfolded?]
11. Did your organization face any challenges/issues/barriers with implementation?
[Attendance? Commitment? Enthusiasm?]
[Was there any resistance throughout the implementation of the strategy?]
12. What were the results of the implemented strategy(s)? [Outcomes? Address objectives?]
13. How do you know that these were the results/outcomes? How were they experienced? Assessed?

14. What impact have these outcomes had on your organization? Impact in the future?
15. Have/can the outcomes/changes be maintained within your organization? What has it taken/will it take for these outcomes/changes to be maintained?
[Is this program/etc something that can be maintained within your club? What will that involved? Foresee any issues/challenges with maintaining?]
16. How did the capacity building impact program and service delivery? And the achievement of organizational goals?
17. What were some of the challenges you experienced throughout the capacity building process?
18. Refer to Model. Based on what we've discussed, what are your thoughts on this model of capacity building? Relevant to this context?
19. Is there anything else you would like to add?

Appendix D
Letter of Information
Study 3

LETTER OF INFORMATION



Readiness to build capacity in community sport organizations

Information:

Community sport organizations (CSOs) are an essential part of the Canadian sport system. It is critical that they have the capacity to deliver their programs and services effectively and efficiently. Capacity refers to an organization's ability to use its various resources (human resources, finances, planning and development, infrastructure, and relationships and networks) in order to meet its goals and provide services to its community. It is not unusual for community sport organizations or clubs to need to build capacity in one or more of these areas – for example recruiting or training volunteers, increasing their financial base, establishing external relationships and networks – so that they can respond to opportunities or pressures for change. In an effort to better understand the factors that impact capacity building efforts, we are conducting a study that examines the readiness of sport club's to undertake these efforts.

We are inviting Presidents (or their representatives) of community sport organizations across Ontario to participate in this study. We are interested in hearing from you if your club has engaged in efforts to build its capacity in some way, whether that effort was successful or not. The attached survey should take about 20 minutes to complete. It will provide you with an opportunity to reflect on your club's readiness to build its capacity. The findings of the study are expected to provide a foundation for policy and practice to support successful capacity building in community sport.

Participation:

Participation in the study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate, refuse to answer any questions, or withdraw from the study at any time and withdraw any information collected to that point. The information reported to us will be held in the strictest confidence.

If you agree to participate, you may access the survey at a secure website by clicking on this link: [<https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/CSOreadiness>]. At the end of the survey, you may choose to be entered into a draw for one of three \$50 gift certificates for SportChek and request a Summary Report of the study results. In order to ensure the anonymity of your responses to the survey, at the end of the survey you will be directed to a separate secure area from which you may make your request for the draw and/or report. Your contact information will only be used to send a summary report and/or for the draw, and will be destroyed once the draw has been made and the reports have been sent.

We request that you complete the survey as soon as possible or by [date to be determined pending ethics approval to proceed].

Benefits:

The information you provide will help us understand organizational readiness for capacity building in community sport with the intent of identifying promising practices. We will be pleased to provide your organization with a summary report outlining the factors of readiness that we have determined from our research to be particularly impactful on successful capacity building.

Confidentiality and Potential Risks:

There are no known risks to participation. No individuals or organizations will be identified in the data or any published results. The survey data will be stored electronically on a password-protected computer, accessible only to the researchers conducting the study. Representatives of the Western University Research Ethics Board may contact you or require access to your study-related records to monitor conduct of the research.

Contact:

Completion of the survey indicates your consent to participate in the study. If you have any questions about the study, you can contact us at the numbers given below. If you have any questions about the conduct of this study or your rights as a research subject you may contact The Office of Research Ethics, Western University, 519-661-3036 or e-mail at: ethics@uwo.ca.

Thank you for your consideration.

Ms. Patti Millar
PhD Candidate, Sport Management
School of Kinesiology
Western University

Dr. Alison Doherty
Professor, Sport Management
School of Kinesiology
Western University

Appendix E

Readiness for Capacity Building Survey

Study 3

Introduction

Thank you for participating in this study on your club's readiness to build capacity. There are four sections to this survey. You may find some of the items repetitive; this is common and necessary in survey research.

The survey should take about 20 minutes to complete. At the end of the survey, you will have the opportunity to enter into a draw for one of three gift certificates for SportChek and/or request a summary report of the study results.

Patti Millar
PhD Candidate, Sport Management
School of Kinesiology, Faculty of Health Sciences
Western University

Alison Doherty, PhD
Professor, Sport Management
School of Kinesiology, Faculty of Health Sciences
Western University

Section I: Background

1. What sport is your club involved in?

2. How long has your club been in existence? (years)

3. How many registered members are there in your club?

4. How many individuals sit on your executive board?

5. What is your position in the club?

6. How long have you been in your current position? (years)

7. How long have you been in a volunteer role of any kind with this club? (years)

Section II: Capacity Building

In this section we want to know about your club's capacity building efforts. Capacity building is the process of enhancing a club's assets and resources in order to achieve its goals. Capacity building may be necessary for an organization to respond to new or changing situations. When faced with changes or pressures in its environment, a community sport club is likely to determine whether it has the people, the money, the facilities, the policies, and so on to respond.

For example, a sport club may be experiencing a decline in membership and decide to introduce a membership development program. Prior to going forward with this development program, the club may determine that it lacks the people and the facilities to do so, and therefore must build its capacity in terms of, for example, acquiring more volunteers and increasing access to facilities. Other examples of capacity building may include: securing new sponsors to address a shortage of money to support a club's programming, bringing in coaches to support the introduction of a new league division, seeking new venues and shortening game times to address a lack of facilities, or introducing a volunteer recruitment plan to address a shortage in volunteers.

Keeping the above description and examples in mind, please respond to the following questions:

8. What did your club need to build capacity for? (e.g., new program, new initiative, change in direction)

9. What prompted this action or response? (e.g., external opportunity or pressure, internal opportunity or pressure)

10. Which of the following were identified as your club's capacity needs? (That your club's capacity building hoped to address?) Check all that apply.

- Human Resources** (e.g., need for more volunteers, need for volunteer(s) with particular skills/experience, need for common focus among volunteers, need to train volunteers, need to retain volunteers)
- Finances** (e.g., need for finances, need for stable revenues/expenses, need for alternative funding sources, need for cash reserve)
- Relationships with External Partners** (e.g., need for partners, needs for improved communication with partners, need for dependable partners, need for balanced partnerships)
- Infrastructure** (e.g., need for written policies and procedures, need for communication within club, need access to facilities, need quality facilities)
- Planning and Development** (e.g., need for planning, need for strategic vision, need for creative ideas, need for strategy for the future, need for commitment to implementation of long-term plans)

11. What strategies or actions did your club use to address those needs (whether successful or not)? List up to 3 strategies/actions, in order of importance.

You will be asked to think about each of these strategies in the questions to follow, and so it might be helpful to also write down your responses for future reference. You will also be able to return to this page for reference if needed.

Strategy/Action

1:

Strategy/Action

2:

Strategy/Action

3:

Section III: Capacity Building

12. Overall, think about the impact that these capacity building efforts have had on your club. Indicate the extent to which each statement describes your club.

	Not at all 1	2	3	Somewhat 4	5	6	To a great extent 7
Our club's needs have been (were) addressed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
These efforts (have) allowed us to try new things.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The gap in our club's capacity has been (was) addressed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
These efforts (have) contributed to our club's ability to achieve its goals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club has been (was) able to respond to the pressures we were feeling.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
These efforts (have) allowed us to solve other/new problems.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club's ability to achieve organizational goals has been (was) enhanced.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
These efforts have been (were) maintained within our club.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
These efforts (have) allowed us to respond to new challenges.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Comment:

Section IV: Readiness for Capacity Building - Strategy/Action 1

The following questions also relate specifically to **Strategy/Action #1** listed in your response to Question 11 (on page 3).

14. Think back to before your club engaged in this particular capacity building effort. Indicate the extent to which each statement describes your club at that time.

	Not at all 1	2	3	Somewhat 4	5	6	To a great extent 7
Our club had the means to build capacity this way.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the means to <i>sustain</i> capacity built through this strategy/action.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the existing capacity to implement this strategy/action.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the capacity to <i>sustain</i> the outcomes of this strategy/action.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the necessary resources to implement this strategy/action.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the necessary resources to <i>sustain</i> built capacity.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

15. Which resources in particular did your club have that enabled it to implement this strategy? Check all that apply.

- Human Resources
- Financial Resources
- Relationships with External Partners
- Infrastructure
- Planning and Development

**16. Which resources in particular did your club not have to implement this strategy?
Check all that apply.**

- Human Resources
- Financial Resources
- Relationships with External Partners
- Infrastructure
- Planning and Development

17. Which resources in particular did your club have that enabled it to *sustain* built capacity? Check all that apply.

- Human Resources
- Financial Resources
- Relationships with External Partnerships
- Infrastructure
- Planning and Development

**18. Which resources in particular did your club not have to *sustain* built capacity?
Check all that apply.**

- Human Resources
- Financial Resources
- Relationships with External Partnerships
- Infrastructure
- Planning and Development

Section IV: Readiness for Capacity Building - Strategy/Action 2

The following questions also relate specifically to **Strategy/Action #2** listed in your response to Question 11 (on page 3).

20. Think back to before your club engaged in this particular capacity building effort. Indicate the extent to which each statement describes your club at that time.

	Not at all 1	2	3	Somewhat 4	5	6	To a great extent 7
Our club had the means to build capacity this way.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the means to <i>sustain</i> capacity built through this strategy/action.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the existing capacity to implement this strategy/action.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the capacity to <i>sustain</i> the outcomes of this strategy/action.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the necessary resources to implement this strategy/action.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the necessary resources to <i>sustain</i> built capacity.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

21. Which resources in particular did your club have that enabled it to implement this strategy? Check all that apply.

- Human Resources
- Financial Resources
- Relationships with External Partners
- Infrastructure
- Planning and Development

**22. Which resources in particular did your club not have to implement this strategy?
Check all that apply.**

- Human Resources
- Financial Resources
- Relationships with External Partners
- Infrastructure
- Planning and Development

23. Which resources in particular did your club have that enabled it to *sustain* built capacity? Check all that apply.

- Human Resources
- Financial Resources
- Relationships with External Partnerships
- Infrastructure
- Planning and Development

**24. Which resources in particular did your club not have to *sustain* built capacity?
Check all that apply.**

- Human Resources
- Financial Resources
- Relationships with External Partnerships
- Infrastructure
- Planning and Development

Section IV: Readiness for Capacity Building - Strategy/Action 3

The following questions also relate specifically to **Strategy/Action #3** listed in your response to Question 11 (on page 3).

26. Think back to before your club engaged in this particular capacity building effort. Indicate the extent to which each statement describes your club at that time.

	Not at all 1	2	3	Somewhat 4	5	6	To a great extent 7
Our club had the means to build capacity this way.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the means to <i>sustain</i> capacity built through this strategy/action.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the existing capacity to implement this strategy/action.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the capacity to <i>sustain</i> the outcomes of this strategy/action.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the necessary resources to implement this strategy/action.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our club had the necessary resources to <i>sustain</i> built capacity.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

27. Which resources in particular did your club have that enabled it to implement this strategy? Check all that apply.

- Human Resources
- Financial Resources
- Relationships with External Partners
- Infrastructure
- Planning and Development

**28. Which resources in particular did your club not have to implement this strategy?
Check all that apply.**

- Human Resources
- Financial Resources
- Relationships with External Partners
- Infrastructure
- Planning and Development

29. Which resources in particular did your club have that enabled it to *sustain* built capacity? Check all that apply.

- Human Resources
- Financial Resources
- Relationships with External Partnerships
- Infrastructure
- Planning and Development

**30. Which resources in particular did your club not have to *sustain* built capacity?
Check all that apply.**

- Human Resources
- Financial Resources
- Relationships with External Partnerships
- Infrastructure
- Planning and Development

Thank you for your participation.

You may click on the link below to go to a separate secure website with instructions on how to be entered into a draw for one of three \$50 gift certificates for SportChek and/or to request a summary report of the findings of this study.

[Click here to go to the draw ballot instructions](#)

If you do not wish to be entered in the draw, please click "Done" below and exit the survey. Thank you!

Curriculum Vitae

PATRICIA L. MILLAR

Education**PhD Candidate, Kinesiology (Sport Management) (Expected completion 2015)**

Western University, London, Ontario, Canada

Dissertation title: Organizational capacity building in Canadian community sport organizations*Supervisor:* Dr. Alison Doherty**2011 Master of Arts, Applied Health Sciences (Sport Management)**

Brock University, St. Catharines, Ontario, Canada

Thesis title: Human resource training and national sport organization managers: Examining the impact of training on individual and organizational performance*Supervisor:* Dr. Julie Stevens**2007 Baccalaureate in Science, Honours (Human Kinetics)**

University of Ottawa, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada

Awards and Research Contracts

- | | |
|------|---|
| 2014 | Stevens, J., & Millar, P. <i>Risk Management Workshop Project.</i> Canadian Centre for Ethics in Sport. Funding Received: \$6,000.00 |
| 2014 | Western Faculty of Health Science Conference Travel Award. \$500.00 |
| 2013 | Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC) Doctoral Fellowship. Funding Received: \$40,000.00 |
| 2013 | Western Graduate Research Thesis Fund Award. \$810.00 |
| 2013 | Western Faculty of Health Science Conference Travel Award. \$500.00 |
| 2013 | Kinesiology Graduate Student Conference Travel Award. \$684.83 |
| 2012 | Stevens, J., & Millar, P. <i>Risk Management Workshop Phase 2-Research Support.</i> True Sport Secretariat. Funding Received: \$600.00 |
| 2012 | Western Faculty of Health Science Conference Travel Award. \$500.00 |
| 2012 | Kinesiology Graduate Student Conference Travel Award. \$660.76 |

- 2012 Earle F. Zeigler Scholarship in Kinesiology. Western University. \$1000.00
- 2012 Packianathan Chelladurai Award. Western University. \$600.00
- 2007 Deans' Honours List. University of Ottawa.
- 2006 Deans' Honours List. University of Ottawa.

Scholarly Work

A. PUBLICATIONS

a) Peer Reviewed Journals

Lebel, K., Danylchuk, K., & **Millar, P.** (2015). Social media as a learning tool: Sport management faculty perceptions of digital pedagogies. *Sport Management Education Journal*, 9(1), 39-50.

Millar, P., & Stevens, J. (2012). Management training and national sport organizations: Examining the impact of training on individual and organizational performance. *Sport Management Review*, 15(3), 288-303.

b) Book Chapters

Millar, P., & Stevens, J. (2012). Management training and national sport organizations: Examining the impact of training on individual and organizational performance. *Sport Management Review*, 15(3), 288-303. [Reprinted in M. Weed (Ed.) (2013), *Sport and leisure management* (pp. 245-274), London: Sage].

c) Other Scholarly Publications

Millar, P. (2012). *Human resource training and national sport organization managers: Examining the impact of training on individual and organizational performance*. (Unpublished Master of Arts thesis). Brock University, St. Catharines, Ontario, Canada.

c) Technical Reports

Stevens, J. & **Millar, P.** (2014, March). *2014 Annual Report: Risk Management Workshop Research Project*. Report submitted to Sport Canada and the Canadian Centre for Ethics in Sport.

Millar, P., & Stevens, J. (2011, December). *Club Excellence Standards Program Evaluation Final Report*. Report submitted to Club Excellence Consortium.

Millar, P., & Stevens, J. (2011, December). *Long Term Professional Development in Canadian Sport Organizations*. Report submitted to National Sport Organizations across

Canada and Canadian Sport for Life. Available online at <http://www.canadiansportforlife.ca/resources/long-term-professional-development>.

Millar, P., & Stevens, J. (2011, November). *Club Excellence Standards Program Evaluation Cost-Access Report*. Report submitted to Club Excellence Consortium.

Millar, P., & Stevens, J. (2010, July). *Interim Report of Preliminary Risk Management Evaluation Results*. Report submitted to True Sport Foundation.

d) Works In Progress

Millar, P., & Doherty, A. A process model of capacity building for nonprofit organizations and a community sport application. In submission to *Sport Management Review*.

Millar, P., & Doherty, A. Strategic capacity building in community sport organizations. In preparation for submission to *Journal of Sport Management*.

Millar, P., Clutterbuck, R., & Doherty, A. Building football for life? The adoption of long-term athlete development in one minor football club. In preparation for submission to *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*.

Stevens, J., **Millar, P.**, & Bell-Laroche, D. An analysis of training and change within Canadian national sport organizations. In preparation for submission to *Managing Leisure*.

B. PEER REVIEWED PRESENTATIONS

Millar, P., & Doherty, A. (2015). An investigation of capacity building in community sport organizations. Poster presented at the North American Society for Sport Management Conference, Ottawa, ON.

Smith, N., **Millar, P.**, Lupinek, J., & Achen, R. (2015). Publish or perish: Engaging with the process of publishing as a graduate student. Symposium presented at the North American Society of Sport Management Conference, Ottawa, ON.

Millar, P., & Doherty, A. (2014). An investigation of strategic capacity building in grassroots membership associations. Paper presented at the Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action Conference, Denver, CO.

Millar, P., Lebel, K., & Harman, A. (2014). Did you see that picture? The role of Instagram in the professional golf fan experience. Presented at Leisure Studies Association Conference, Glasgow, Scotland.

Millar, P., & Doherty, A. (2014). A multiple case study investigation of organization capacity building in community sport. Presented at the North American Society for Sport Management Conference, Pittsburgh, PA.

Walsh, D.W., Lupinek, J., & **Millar, P.** (2014). I'm not that kind of doctor: What to expect when expecting a PhD. A roundtable discussion on academic and non-academic pathways. Symposium presented at the North American Society for Sport Management Conference, Pittsburgh, PA.

Danylchuk, K., Lebel, K., & **Millar, P.** (2014). Sport management faculty social media awareness. Presented at the Teaching & Learning Fair at the North American Society for Sport Management Conference, Pittsburgh, PA.

Lebel, K., Harman, A., & **Millar, P.** (2014). These guys are good, but do they have an agenda? An investigation of the use of Instagram in professional golf. Presented at the International Association for Communication and Sport, New York City, NY.

Millar, P., Clutterbuck, R., & Doherty, A. (2013, September). "Football for life": Implementation of the long-term athlete development model in one minor football club. Presented at the European Association for Sport Management Conference, Istanbul, TUR.

Millar, P., & Doherty, A. (2013, May). A model of capacity building in community sport organizations. Presented at the North American Society for Sport Management Conference, Austin, TX.

Clutterbuck, R., Charest, M-P., **Millar, P.**, Doherty, A., & Demers, G. (2013, May). Multiple perspectives on the organizational implementation of an athlete development framework. Symposium presented at the North American Society for Sport Management Conference, Austin, TX.

Millar, P., Stevens, J., & Bell-Laroche, D. (2012, May). An examination of individual, organizational, and systemic level performance change in national sport organizations. Presented at the North American Society for Sport Management Conference, Seattle, WA.

Millar, P., & Stevens, J. (2011, June). The sequence and duration of performance outcomes: An analysis of the transfer of training in national sport organizations. Presented at the North American Society for Sport Management Conference, London, CAN.

Millar, P. (2011, April). The numbers game in quantitative research: A discussion of sample size in training evaluation research in the sport context. Presented at the Brock University Sport Management Research Colloquium, St. Catharines, CAN.

Millar, P., & Stevens, J. (2010, September). Human resource training and national sport organizations: Examining the impact of training on individual and organizational performance. Presented at the European Association for Sport Management Conference, Prague, CZR.

Stevens, J., Bell-Laroche, D., & **Millar, P.** (2010, April). Closing the knowledge gap: A practical examination of how practitioners and academics can collaborate to generate increased understanding and more robust results. Presented at the Canadian Sport for Life Conference, Ottawa, CAN.

C. RESEARCH ASSISTANTSHIPS

- 2013 – *Social capital in non-profit sport organizations*. Graduate Research Assistant, School of Kinesiology, Western University, London, ON.
- 2012 – *Innovation in community sport organizations*. Graduate Research Assistant, School of Kinesiology, Western University, London, ON.
- 2012 – *Sport management at Western website project*. Graduate Research Assistant, School of Kinesiology, Western University, London, ON.
- 2010 *Perceptions and values of participation in mixed martial arts*. Graduate Research Assistant, Department of Sport Management, Brock University, St. Catharines, ON.
- 2010 *Work-family conflict in parents of competitive hockey players*. Graduate Research Assistant, Department of Organizational Behaviour, Human Resources, Entrepreneurship and Ethics, Brock University, St. Catharines, ON.
- 2010 *Training in community sport organizations*. Graduate Research Assistant, Centre for Sport Capacity, Brock University.
- 2010 *Volunteer capacity at major multi-sport events*. Graduate Research Assistant, Department of Sport Management, Brock University.

D. OTHER

Millar, P., Stevens, J., & Bell-Laroche, D. (2013). Managing risks: Interactive information session for sport leaders. Facilitated in collaboration with the True Sport Secretariat.

Teaching

a) Guest Lectures

Organizational change, Part II. (November, 2013; 2014). Human Resource Management in Sport and Recreation Organizations, School of Kinesiology, Western University, London, ON.

Organizational change, Part I. (November, 2013; 2014). Human Resource Management in Sport and Recreation Organizations, School of Kinesiology, Western University, London, ON.

Organizational effectiveness. (October, 2014). Introduction to Sport Management, School of Kinesiology, Western University, London, ON.

Strategic human resource management. (September, 2013). Human Resource Management in Sport and Recreation Organizations, School of Kinesiology, Western University, London, ON.

Introduction to human resource management. (September, 2013). Human Resource Management in Sport and Recreation Organizations, School of Kinesiology, Western University, London, ON.

Cause-related marketing and social marketing in sport. (February, 2012). Sport Marketing, School of Kinesiology, Western University, London, ON.

Training and development in sport organizations. (March, 2011). Managing Human Resources in Sport Organizations, Department of Sport Management, Brock University, St. Catharines, ON.

b) Seminar and Laboratory Instructor

2012 – 2013 Laboratory Instructor, Western University, January – April
Assisted professor in the development of assignments, instruction and grading of major assignments in Excel and Web Design. Courses include:
Field Experience in Sport Management – Computer Applications

2010 Seminar Instructor, Brock University, June – December
Assisted professors in the delivery of their courses through seminar instruction, grading of papers and exams, maintenance of accurate attendance and grade reports. Courses include:
Introduction to Sport Management
Understanding Sport Industry Sectors
Sport Policy

2010 Laboratory Instructor, Brock University, January – April
 Assisted professor in the delivery of their courses through laboratory instruction, grading of papers and exams, maintenance of accurate attendance and grade reports. Courses include:
 Sport Event Management

c) Teaching Assistantships

2011 – 2013 Teaching Assistant, Western University, September – December
 Assisting professor with grading of laboratory assignments and exams, maintenance of grade reports. Courses include:
 Human Resource Management in Sport and Recreation Organizations
 Physiology of Fitness Appraisal

2009 – 2011 Teaching Assistant, Brock University, September – April
 Assisting professors with grading of assignments, papers, and exams, maintenance of accurate attendance and grade reports, providing student feedback. Courses include:
 Globalization in Sport
 Quantitative Analysis for Sport Management
 Sport and Social Responsibility
 Sport Sponsorship
 Strategic Alliances in Sport Organizations
 Financial Practices in Sport Management I
 Sport Marketing
 Sales and Promotions
 Management Concepts in Sport Organizations
 Organizational Behaviour
 Managing Human Resources in Sport Organizations

2006 Teaching Assistant, University of Ottawa, September – December
 Assisted professor with grading of assignments and exams, maintenance of accurate grade reports. Courses include:
 Human Movement

Academic Service

2014 – present Student Board President
 North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM)

2014 – present Chair, Organizing Committee
 Kinesiology Graduate Student Association (KGSA) Symposium

2013 – present Vice-President Academic

Western University Kinesiology Graduate Student Association
(KGSA)

- 2013 – 2014 Student Board Representative
North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM)
- 2014, February Steering Committee
Ontario Sport Management Collective (OSMC) Symposium
- 2013, November Student Ambassador
Faculty of Health Sciences Graduate School Information Session

Professional Development

- 2012 – 2014 *Western Certificate in University Teaching and Learning (WCUTL)*, Teaching Support Centre, Western University, London, ON (description and certificate available upon request)
- 2014 *Putting Critical Thinking into Practice [workshop]*, WCUTL, Teaching Support Centre, Western University, London, ON. August 27
- 2014 *Teaching Assistant Training Program (TATP)*, WCUTL, Teaching Support Centre, Western University, London, ON. June 10-12
- 2014 *Changing the Culture of Grading [workshop]*, WCUTL, Teaching Support Centre, Western University, London, ON. May 14
- 2014 *Talking Tech: Faculty Perspectives on eLearning [workshop]*, WCUTL, Teaching Support Centre, Western University, London, ON. May 14
- 2014 *The Future of Higher Education [workshop]*, WCUTL, Teaching Support Centre, Western University, London, ON. May 14
- 2014 *Getting Feedback on your Teaching [workshop]*, WCUTL, Teaching Support Centre, Western University, London, ON. March 20
- 2014 *Strategies that Work: Teaching in the Sciences [workshop]*, WCUTL, Teaching Support Centre, Western University, London, ON. March 20
- 2014 *Leading Effective Exam Review Sessions [workshop]*, WCUTL, Teaching Support Centre, Western University, London, ON. March 20
- 2014 *Great Ideas for Teaching [workshop]*, WCUTL, Teaching Support Centre, Western University, London, ON. January 25

- 2014 *Netiquette: Communicating with Your Students [workshop]*, WCUTL, Teaching Support Centre, Western University, London, ON. January 25
- 2014 *Learning Collaboratively in Online Courses [workshop]*, WCUTL, Teaching Support Centre, Western University, London, ON. January 25
- 2012 *Teaching Mentor Program*, WCUTL, Teaching Support Centre, Western University, London, ON. January – April
- 2009 *Teaching Assistantship Orientation: Roles and Responsibilities [workshop]*. Centre for Teaching Learning and Educational Technologies. Brock University, St. Catharines, ON. September 6
- 2009 *Your Classroom, Your Students, Your Role and You: Reflective Practice for TAs [workshop]*. Centre for Teaching Learning and Educational Technologies. Brock University. September 5

Membership in Academic and Professional Societies

- 2014 – present Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA)
- 2014 – present International Association for Communication and Sport (IACS)
- 2011 – present North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM)
- 2009 – present Centre for Sport Capacity (CSC)
- 2010 – 2012 European Association for Sport Management (EASM)