1	Challenges and opportunities arising from self-regulated
2	professionalisation processes: an analysis of a Swiss national sport
3	federation
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Challenges and opportunities arising from self-regulated professionalisation processes: an analysis of a Swiss national sport federation

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21 In recent decades, some governments (e.g. Canada, the UK, Australia) have imposed far-22 reaching professionalisation processes on national sport federations (NSFs), while others (e.g. 23 Switzerland) have made only minor impositions and relied more on NSFs to self-regulate. As 24 governments must decide on the extent to which sport policy imposes professionalisation 25 processes on NSFs, understanding the challenges and opportunities arising from both policy-26 imposed and self-regulated professionalisation processes is relevant. However, extant literature 27 has focused mostly on professionalisation processes imposed by sport policy. Therefore, this 28 study aims to analyse the context, action, content and outcome of self-regulated 29 professionalisation processes to identify the challenges and opportunities arising from these 30 processes. A framework of professionalisation and a corresponding processual approach build 31 the conceptual background of this study. A single-case study is applied to enable a holistic and long-term analysis of the proceedings of a Swiss NSF's professionalisation processes. The 32 33 results reveal the mechanisms of self-regulated professionalisation processes (i.e. how contexts 34 and actions shape outcome), thus leading to a conceptualisation of these mechanisms and 35 conclusions about challenges and opportunities arising from self-regulated professionalisation 36 processes, which are useful for sport managers and policy makers.

37

38 Keywords: sport policy; self-regulation; imposition; processual analysis; case study

39 Introduction

National sport federations (NSFs) and their associated sport clubs play a central role in the 40 41 provision of organised sports, particularly in Europe, and thus help attain the strategic 42 objectives of the national sport policy (e.g. health promotion, social cohesion, talent 43 development; Hoekman et al. 2015, Bayle 2017). NSFs promote sports in society, organise 44 competitions and grassroots events, manage marketing and sponsorship activities at the 45 national level and support the sport clubs with appropriate services (Ferkins and Shilbury 2010, Hoye and Doherty 2011, Nagel et al. 2015). For all these duties, many NSFs are facing 46 47 growing expectations from both member organisations and external stakeholders (e.g. 48 government, umbrella federation, sponsors, media). For example, member organisations 49 expect their NSF to ensure coach development (Ferkins and Shilbury 2010), while sponsors 50 expect media exposure and modern forms of communication (Ruoranen et al. 2018). 51 However, NSFs' mainly volunteer-based organisational structures are experiencing increasing difficulties in satisfying these diverse expectations, and thus many NSFs are 52 53 working to professionalise their structures, processes and staff (e.g. employment of paid staff, 54 development of a strategy, adaptation of organisational structure; Shilbury and Ferkins 2011, 55 Dowling et al. 2014, Ruoranen et al. 2016).

In the past few decades, certain governments, such as Canada, the UK and Australia, 56 57 have met the growing expectations for NSFs by imposing far-reaching professionalisation 58 processes as a condition of the government funds the NSFs receive (Amis et al. 2004a, Green and Houlihan 2006, Grix 2009). Canadian NSFs, for example, were required to develop a 59 wide range of written policies and procedures, employ paid and specialised staff and shift the 60 61 decision-making authority from volunteers to professional staff (Amis et al. 2004a). Other 62 governments, such as Switzerland, have made only minor impositions in terms of 63 professionalisation, such as the existence of a strategy (Lang et al. 2018), and relied more on

64 NSFs to self-regulate. These examples indicate that governments are concerned with the 65 question of the extent to which sport policy imposes professionalisation processes on NSFs 66 by setting, for example, standards and requirements as a condition of government funds. The 67 empirical assessment of both the imposed and non-imposed professionalisation processes, and the challenges and opportunities associated with these processes, may generate 68 69 knowledge to assist sport policy makers to gauge the extent to which sport policy imposes 70 professionalisation processes on NSFs. According to Fahlén et al. (2015), non-imposed 71 processes are called 'self-regulated' processes because, from a sport political perspective, 72 these processes are self-regulated at the NSF level. Self-regulated processes are defined by 73 the autonomy of an NSF in deciding whether or not it implements the respective process, 74 regardless of internal (e.g. from members or staff) and/or external (e.g. from sponsors) 75 pressure, which in most cases exists (see Fahlén et al. 2015). In turn, imposed processes 76 mean that the NSF does not have any other option but to follow the demands of external 77 stakeholders (e.g. government, international federation, sponsor) because the measures are 78 either part of legislation (e.g. O'Brien and Slack 2004) or a condition of receiving financial 79 subsidies, which the NSF cannot reject (e.g. Amis et al. 2004a).

80 The few existing studies analysing NSFs' professionalisation processes holistically over the years (e.g. Amis et al. 2004a, O'Brien and Slack 2004), have focused on processes 81 82 imposed by sport policy (e.g. the 'Best Ever Programme' in Canada, the 'Paris Declaration' 83 in rugby; see also Strittmatter et al. 2018). These studies reveal a significant increase in the 84 professionalisation of many affected NSFs. However, other NSFs have struggled with the impositions, either because they lacked financial and human resources for the implementation 85 86 or because they found that the imposed measures were not appropriate for their organisation. 87 Sport Canada's (i.e. the government's agent) impositions, for example, only had the goal of 88 improving performance at the Olympic Games, which was not appropriate for all

organisations (Amis *et al.* 2004a). As existing studies have not analysed the proceedings of
self-regulated professionalisation processes, the challenges and opportunities arising from
these processes remain unclear. Therefore, this study focuses on analysing self-regulated
professionalisation processes.

93 The Swiss national sport policy builds on the principles of subsidiarity and autonomy, 94 which means that it makes only minor impositions on the professionalisation of NSFs (e.g. 95 existence of a strategy) and grants considerable latitude in how the NSFs can invest the government funds they receive. Therefore, most professionalisation processes conducted by 96 97 Swiss NSFs are self-regulated at the NSF level, which makes this setting appropriate for the 98 aim of this study. Building on Nagel et al.'s (2015) framework of causes, forms and 99 consequences of professionalisation and Pettigrew's (1997) processual approach, this study 100 reconstructs the context, action, content and outcome of self-regulated professionalisation 101 processes in a Swiss NSF to understand and conceptualise the mechanisms of these processes 102 (i.e. how contexts and actions shape the outcome of the processes) and, thus, to unpack the 103 challenges and opportunities arising from these processes. We applied a single-case analysis 104 to enable a holistic and long-term analysis of professionalisation processes.

105

106 Contextual background: Swiss sport policy

107 Switzerland's sport legislation was first introduced in 1972 and established the basis for the 108 government's following sport promotion activities. In 1999, the Federal Office for Sport 109 (FOSPO) was set up to develop Switzerland's sport policy. The resulting concept followed 110 five strategic aims: health, education, performance, economy and sustainability. As part of 111 the performance aim, the FOSPO mandated Swiss Olympic, the umbrella federation of the 86 112 NSFs and national Olympic committee, to distribute government funds to the NSFs. Using 113 the principles of subsidiarity and autonomy, the FOSPO formulates goals linked to the government funds, but Swiss Olympic can make autonomous decisions on how to distribute
the funds and which achievements to demand from NSFs as a condition of the funds (Swiss
Federal Council 2000, Chappelet 2010, Bayle 2017).

117 Nowadays, Swiss Olympic imposes the existence of statutes, a mission statement, 118 financial planning and member statistics on NSFs to become a member of Swiss Olympic. To 119 receive the basic government funds, the amount of which is determined by the number of members, Swiss Olympic requires NSFs to provide (1) a strategy, including the NSF's 120 121 position towards grassroots and high-performance sport and measures for promotion of 122 volunteers; (2) ethics planning, including a multi-annual planning of measures; and (3) an 123 annual report, including the budget and financial statement. Since 2011, Switzerland's sport 124 legislation has included extra funding for competitive sport. To receive this extra funding, 125 Swiss Olympic imposes the definition of a high-performance sport promotion concept, 126 including a strategy, objectives, a responsible person for high-performance sport and a 127 detailed budget for high-performance sport, on NSFs. The amount of extra funding an NSF 128 receives for competitive sport is based on a five-tier classification. The classification builds 129 on the NSF's success in high-performance sport (i.e. success of elite athletes in international 130 competitions, their potential success in the next Olympic cycle, success of young athletes in 131 international competitions and quality of high-performance sport promotion concept 132 implementation) and the relevance of the sport (i.e. international reputation, economic 133 relevance and national popularity for active participants and spectators). Additional funds are 134 provided for qualifying for the Olympic Games and organising mega events (Swiss Olympic 2018). With this funding system, Swiss Olympic exerts only minor influence on the NSFs' 135 136 professionalisation compared with other sport systems (e.g. Canada, Australia) by demanding a few concrete measures as a condition of the funds. However, except for these conditions, 137 138 the NSFs can autonomously decide how to invest the funds (Bayle 2017).

139

140 Theoretical background and literature review 141 Framework of causes, forms and consequences of professionalisation 142 Building on the conceptualisations of Bayle and Robinson (2007) and Legay (2001) and 143 summarising extant sport management and sociological literature, Nagel et al. (2015) 144 developed a conceptual framework for the analysis of NSFs' professionalisation (Figure 1). 145 The framework suggests that a professionalisation process originates from specific causes, which can arise at the federation, the external environment and the internal environment 146 147 levels. Such causes can lead to a change in professionalisation forms, from which specific 148 consequences at the federation, the internal environment and the external environment levels 149 can arise. 150 151 [Figure 1 about here] 152 153 Nagel et al.'s (2015) literature review showed that much is known about potential causes (e.g. Ruoranen et al. 2018), forms (e.g. Amis et al. 2004b) and consequences of 154 155 professionalisation (e.g. Bayle and Robinson 2007). However, to identify the challenges and opportunities arising from self-regulated professionalisation processes, examination of the 156 157 proceedings of such professionalisation processes is required. As Nagel et al.'s (2015) 158 framework does not account for the process perspective, we added Pettigrew's (1997) 159 processual approach to include a focus on actions during the processes (i.e. how processes 160 were conducted). The combination of Nagel et al.'s and Pettigrew's frameworks provides the 161 frame to guide the empirical analysis of professionalisation processes in this study. The

162 empirical analysis contributes by specifying and conceptualising the mechanisms of

professionalisation processes and unpacking the challenges and opportunities arising fromself-regulated professionalisation processes.

165

166 Processual approach

167 Pettigrew's (1987, 1997, 2012) processual approach suggests a multi-level, holistic analysis 168 of change over a period of at least 12 years to avoid a focus on narrow changes. The four 169 levels of Pettigrew's approach are context, process, content and outcome. Context considers factors that cause the change process at the federation (i.e. inner context) and environment 170 171 (i.e. outer context) levels, similar to causes in Nagel et al.'s (2015) framework. Process refers to actions of the concerned actors during the process (e.g. decisions, behaviour, measures) 172 173 that contribute to develop the content of the process. Content conforms with 174 professionalisation forms in Nagel et al.'s framework. While Nagel et al. do not consider 175 actions in their framework, Pettigrew (2012) postulates that a long-term interplay between 176 context and action shapes content and outcome. Thus, outcome is the intermediate and final 177 effect of context and action (i.e. consequences in Nagel et al.'s framework). In the following, we label the process level as 'action', because the word 'process' often defines the whole 178 179 process, including context and outcome. According to Pettigrew (1987), the 'why' of change 180 stems from the context, the 'how' from the actions and the 'what' from the content. For 181 example, an NSF's board might realise that the NSF's organisational structure is no longer 182 appropriate (i.e. context) and decides to discuss options to adapt the structure, engages an 183 external consultant to support the discussion and promotes the process by setting deadlines 184 and persistently controlling how the work proceeds (i.e. action). Finally, the NSF might adapt 185 its organisational structure (i.e. content), resulting in board satisfaction (i.e. outcome).

186

187 Studies on professionalisation processes

188 After Kikulis et al. (1992) identified the well-known organisational design archetypes, 189 follow-up studies examined changes in Canadian NSFs' organisational designs, which were imposed by sport policy (e.g. Slack and Hinings 1992, 1994, Kikulis et al. 1995, Amis et al. 190 191 2004b). The so-called Best Ever Programme pressured Canadian NSFs to become 'a 192 professional bureaucracy controlled by professional staff, with volunteers reduced to a 193 supporting role' (Amis et al. 2004b, p. 20). These studies identified a shift to more 194 bureaucratic and professionalised organisations. Parent et al. (2018) recently analysed the 195 same NSFs and revealed a convergence in governance structures and the need to revisit 196 Kikulis et al.'s (1992) design archetypes. However, these studies focused on what changed 197 and, to a certain extent, why the changes occurred (e.g. Slack and Hinings 1992, 1994), but 198 not how the changes were undertaken (i.e. actions during the processes).

199 Only a few studies have analysed the professionalisation process of NSFs holistically 200 over multiple years, examining processes driven by sport political changes and impositions. 201 Amis et al. (2004a) examined change processes in Canadian NSFs during the Best Ever 202 Programme and found that not all the processes were successfully completed. The successful 203 ones were characterised by leaders who created a vision and persuaded other members, as 204 well as voluntary board members who were willing to share power with paid staff. The 205 unsuccessful ones were characterised by ineffective transformational leadership, volunteer 206 board members with centralised power, subunits (e.g. volunteers) with deviating interests and 207 a lack of financial and human resources. NSFs also complained that the financial support 208 provided by Sport Canada was not adequate for the imposed changes, and that Sport Canada 209 viewed success at the Olympic Games as the only criterion of achievement, a criterion that 210 was not relevant for many sports. Skinner et al. (1999) and O'Brien and Slack (2003, 2004) 211 found that the Paris Declaration, which allowed the financial remuneration of rugby players, 212 led to the professionalisation of Queensland and English Rugby Union. With this adapted

213 regulation, new business-oriented actors entered the field and brought professionally oriented 214 values with them, took measures to advocate their interests and created a collective vision; however, these professionalisation processes were hindered by a lack of financial resources 215 216 and leadership. Girginov and Sandanski (2008) analysed change in Bulgarian NSFs over 217 multiple decades, when the country was undergoing fundamental political, economic and 218 social transformations. These transformations led to a restructuring of the sport sector, 219 including a redistribution of capital, which caused change processes in the NSFs. All these 220 studies found relevant contexts and actions for imposed professionalisation processes but 221 neither differentiated between context and action nor analysed inter-relationships and 222 reconstructed the mechanisms of these processes.

223 A few action research studies have analysed self-regulated professionalisation 224 processes. However, these processes were guided by the researchers of the studies. These 225 studies focused on the analysis of specific professionalisation forms, which involved either 226 the professionalisation of strategic capability (Ferkins et al. 2009, Ferkins et al. 2010) or 227 governance capability (Shilbury and Ferkins 2015). Evaluating an intervention period of 18 228 months, these studies revealed the importance of shared leadership, board involvement in 229 strategy and collective board leadership in governance decision making. Fahrner (2009) 230 analysed an NSF's self-regulated changes in organisational structures with a focus on 231 decision-making processes and found that the different opinions of members, key individuals 232 with particular influence on decisions, intransparent preparation of decisions from top down 233 and a lack of communication before and after decisions were problematic for decision-234 making processes. While these studies provide first results about specific self-regulated 235 professionalisation processes, they do not explain the inter-relationships among multiple concurrent or consecutive professionalisation processes (i.e. longitudinal course of the 236 237 processes). For this aim, a more holistic and long-term process analysis is required.

238 According to this review, many previous studies have analysed why professionalisation 239 processes were undertaken (i.e. context), but only a few studies have also considered how the processes were conducted (i.e. actions taken during the process). Furthermore, the studies 240 241 focused mainly on professionalisation processes imposed by sport policy. Although imposed professionalisation processes may be accompanied by self-regulated processes, previous 242 243 research has not distinguished between imposed and self-regulated professionalisation processes. Furthermore, previous research has not differentiated among context, action, 244 245 content and outcome of professionalisation processes or analysed inter-relationships. Thus, it 246 remains unclear which contexts and actions are relevant to conduct self-regulated professionalisation processes and how they shape outcome (i.e. mechanisms of the 247 248 processes). To address this research gap, we formulated two research questions: Which 249 contexts and actions are relevant to the NSF's professionalisation processes? (RQ1) and How 250 do contexts and actions shape the outcome of the professionalisation processes (i.e. inter-251 relationships; RQ2)? The analysis of contexts reveals whether the processes are imposed or 252 self-regulated. Additional analysis of the relevant contexts and actions, and how these 253 contexts and actions shape outcome, unpacks the mechanisms of self-regulated 254 professionalisation processes and enables identifying the challenges and opportunities arising 255 from these processes.

256

257 Method

258 Design

259 Drawing on the conceptual background of Nagel et al. (2015) and Pettigrew (1987, 1997,

260 2012), this study analyses the four levels of context, action, content and outcome of

261 professionalisation processes and their inter-relationships. Pettigrew (2012, p. 1316)

262 emphasised that a process analysis considering inter-relationships among context, action,

263 content and outcome is 'one of the greatest inductive challenges' for process researchers. To 264 meet the required standards and manage such an in-depth analysis, focusing on one case is appropriate (Yin 2014). A qualitative single-case study design enables conducting an in-depth 265 266 analysis of the NSF's long-term professionalisation processes, capturing the complexity of this process and gaining a holistic understanding of the phenomenon (Skille 2013). The main 267 268 criterion for the selection of a suitable NSF for this case study was that the NSF underwent a 269 fundamental professionalisation process from a volunteer-administered to a professionally-270 led NSF (e.g. employment of first paid staff, formalisation of documents) during the last 20 271 years. Processes older than 20 years are difficult to reconstruct because of missing documents and faulty memories (Yin 2014). This criterion was selective because the larger, highly 272 273 professionalised NSFs began these crucial professionalisation processes earlier, and many 274 smaller NSFs are still volunteer-administered. Combined with a more pragmatic criterion of 275 accessibility of data (e.g. board meeting minutes, interviews), which was relevant to 276 reconstruct the process, we selected the Swiss Orienteering Federation (SOF) as our research 277 subject.

278 SOF is a member of the International Orienteering Federation and promotes 279 orienteering sports (foot-orienteering, ski-orienteering, bike-orienteering) in Switzerland. 280 Orienteering is a well-known sport in Switzerland; however, the NSF, with its 11 regional 281 federations, 90 clubs and 8539 members, is small. Despite its non-Olympic status, SOF has 282 reached the second-highest grant classification, mainly because of the constant international success of elite and young Swiss athletes. In the early 2000s, SOF was completely managed 283 284 by volunteers. Nowadays, SOF has nearly eight paid full-time staff equivalents (i.e. 285 permanent staff and part-time paid mandates). Although the NSF has grown only marginally in size (i.e. associated clubs and members), it has professionalised instruments and 286 287 documents, organisational structure and staff. In their study on professionalisation designs

among Swiss NSFs, Lang *et al.* (2018) examined professionalisation types among Swiss
NSFs and classified the SOF in a group with primarily Olympic NSFs, whose
professionalisation design is characterised by a particular focus on the professionalisation of
the sport sector (i.e. paid trainers and support staff).

292

293 Data collection

294 We collected organisational documents (e.g. strategic concepts, organigrams) and archival 295 minutes from board meetings and general assemblies from 2002 to 2018, because an initial 296 screening of documents showed that the first context factors leading to the initiation of the 297 first crucial professionalisation processes within the SOF came up in 2002. Thus, we 298 followed Pettigrew's (1997) suggestion to analyse a period of at least 12 years. We held in-299 depth interviews with key individuals of SOF (for an overview of collected data, see Table 1) 300 to triangulate the data and supplement the information from documents. The interviewees and 301 period of analysis were defined on the basis of an initial screening of organisational 302 documents and archival minutes and in agreement with the current CEO. The criteria for the 303 choice of interviewees were that they were (1) active in the NSF during overlapping spans of 304 the analysed period (2002–2018), (2) key actors in the crucial professionalisation processes 305 and (3) accessible for interviews. Because of the size of SOF and the few changes in key 306 positions, the number of key actors was small. Three interviews were conducted in 2015 and 307 captured the period from 2002 to 2015 retrospectively. The data on SOF's professionalisation processes reached saturation after these three interviews. At the beginning of 2019, we 308 309 conducted another interview to discuss developments in the last three years and to answer any 310 questions that came up during preliminary analysis of documents and interviews from 2002 311 to 2015. The interviews lasted between 69 and 99 minutes and were transcribed verbatim.

312

313 [Table 1 about here]

314

315 Data analysis

316 Data analysis began with a screening of organisational documents and archival minutes to 317 gain an overview of the data and identify the potential interview partners and period of 318 analysis. In a first step, the minutes of board meetings and general assemblies from 2002 to 319 2018 (including appendices) were reduced to information relevant to SOF's 320 professionalisation, to compile a chronological sequence (see Yin 2014) of context, action, 321 content and outcome. This was the most fundamental and extensive part of the analysis. 322 Organisational documents (e.g. organigrams, organisation regulations, strategic concepts) 323 assisted in this step. While the documents provided only first insights into how processes 324 were conducted (i.e. actions), the interviews mainly served to explore actions as a second 325 step. When feasible, we cross-checked the information gleaned in the interviews against the 326 document sources, and vice versa, to triangulate the data (see Yin 2014). 327 For content analysis, a 'start list' of codes was deduced from Nagel et al.'s (2015) 328 framework of professionalisation, which provided the deductive frame of the analysis. 329 However, we created additional codes using inductive descriptive and causation coding. We 330 applied descriptive coding to identify the content of SOF's professionalisation processes and 331 then assigned contexts, actions and outcome to the identified contents using causation coding 332 (see Miles et al. 2014) (for an example see Table 2). We subsequently re-analysed contexts, 333 actions and contents independent of the chronology using descriptive and pattern coding (see 334 Miles et al. 2014) to reduce them to a smaller number of themes (for an example see Table 335 3). We re-read the documents and transcripts to compare codes and, when necessary, merged, re-named or removed them. This procedure assisted in maintaining the trustworthiness of the 336 337 data analysis and limiting the extent of researcher subjectivity (Miles et al. 2014). The lead

338 author developed the codes, while a co-author, who closely accompanied the research process 339 (e.g. attended interviews), checked the identified codes. Pattern coding was applied to determine the relevant contexts and actions of professionalisation processes (RQ1). The first-340 341 order themes of pattern coding described the identified contexts, actions and contents in more 342 detail. The combination of causation and pattern coding served to illuminate how contexts 343 and actions shape the outcome of the professionalisation processes (i.e. inter-relationships; 344 RQ2). The content analysis was computer assisted with Atlas.ti, which helped manage the large number of documents. The selected quotations for the results section were translated 345 346 from German into English.

347

348 [Tables 2 and 3 about here]

349

350 Results

351 Identification of the relevant contexts and actions (RQ1)

352 We summarise the contents of professionalisation in the period analysed to foster

understanding of the case and the identified contexts and actions. We classified the identified

354 contents into (1) creation and formalisation of instruments and documents (i.e. strategy,

355 communication concept, marketing concept, allocation of roles and competencies, working

356 contracts, sponsoring contracts and organisation regulations), (2) employment of paid staff

357 (i.e. paid secretary, paid trainers, paid mandates and paid employees in the executive office)

and (3) *changes in organisational structure* (i.e. mandates, establishment of an executive

359 office and reorganisation of organisational structure, including reduction of board members,

360 new structure of commissions and departments and appointment of a CEO).

361 We classified the contexts of the SOF's professionalisation processes into (1)

362 *impositions by external stakeholders* (i.e. impositions as a condition of government funds and

sponsor money), (2) *expectations of external stakeholders* (i.e. expectations of sponsors,
event organisers, Swiss Olympic and the FOSPO), (3) *expectations of staff* (e.g. coaches), (4) *change in positions* (e.g. new president), (5) *increasing financial resources* (e.g. from
sponsors or Swiss Olympic), (6) *decreasing financial resources* (e.g. from sponsors or Swiss
Olympic), (7) *problematic organisational structure* (e.g. too much operative work among
board members) and (8) *priorities* (e.g. higher prioritisation of an event other than
professionalisation processes).

370 We identified the following actions during SOF's professionalisation processes: (1) 371 appointed working groups, (2) participative preparation of decisions, (3) creation and usage 372 of supporting documents, (4) usage of sustainable finances, (5) insufficient preparation of 373 processes, (6) realistic time management, (7) promoting individuals and (8) resisting 374 individuals. For working groups, a balanced selection of experienced group members (i.e. 375 representatives for the different affected parties) was important, and an external consultant 376 was deemed helpful. Promoting individuals were usually board members, particularly the 377 president, or paid employees who helped foster the process in its preparation and 378 implementation phase. They were persistent and convincing and were appointed for this 'job' 379 if they did not take the initiative themselves. Resisting individuals were mainly board 380 members and club presidents who did not agree with the professionalisation plans or 381 decisions (e.g. critique, counter votes). Such resistance led to deceleration or stagnation of the 382 professionalisation processes and to dissatisfaction of the resisting people if the plans were 383 implemented despite the resistance. Participative preparation of decisions included 384 transparent and long-term advance information and voting, with multiple options to choose 385 for all affected parties. Documents (e.g. strategy) supported lobbying and, thus, the progress or even success of a process; if these did not exist, they were created. Professionalisation 386 387 processes required time because of the limited availability of voluntary workers, the need for

democratic decisions and the need to wait for other upcoming priorities (e.g. mega events). The implementation phase also required time, for example, to accommodate new situations and correct problematic outcome. Processes were insufficiently prepared if not enough lead time was calculated (e.g. communication, preparatory processes), necessary documents were not prepared or decisions were made without participation of the affected parties. Usage of sustainable finances means the decision to use long-term available financial resources for professionalisation (e.g. for the employment of permanent paid staff).

395

397

396 Identification of inter-relationships among context, action and outcome (RQ2)

showed that shorter-term professionalisation processes, which were most prevalent, usually
had relatively simpler systematics than longer-term processes. Shorter-term

The analysis of how contexts and actions shape outcome (i.e. inter-relationships; RQ2)

400 professionalisation processes (e.g. formulation of a communication concept) were dependent on single context factors (e.g. a sponsor demanded a communication concept), which led to a 401 402 single action (e.g. creation of a communication concept by a working group) and a specific 403 outcome (e.g. satisfaction of the sponsor). However, the two key professionalisation 404 processes in the case of SOF-namely, the establishment of an executive office and the reorganisation of organisational structure-were longer-term processes and showed complex 405 406 inter-relationships among context, action and outcome (i.e. multiple inter-related context 407 factors from different organisational levels, a long-term action phase and both positive and 408 negative outcome). To understand the mechanisms of such complex processes, we analysed 409 these two key processes in detail with regard to RQ2. We reconstruct these two processes in 410 the following paragraphs with separate sub-sections for context, action and outcome, to track 411 the inter-relationships among contexts, actions and outcome. The contexts and actions

412 identified under RQ1 appear in italics in the text. We address the question of how these
413 contexts and actions shape the outcome of the processes (RQ2) in the discussion section.

414

415 *Establishment of an executive office: context*

416 One of the main catalysts for the professionalisation of SOF was the combination of the 417 world orienteering championship (WOC) 2003 in Switzerland and the sCOOL project, which 418 is a long-term event series in Swiss schools intended to connect young generations with the orienteering sport. A Swiss bank began sponsoring the sCOOL project after an extraordinary 419 420 sCOOL event in connection with the WOC 2003 (increasing financial resources). At the 421 same time, the WOC brought a high workload to the secretary, who at the time was a 422 volunteer (problematic organisational structure). During the preparation for the WOC 2003, 423 SOF began paying the secretary a salary, who became the first paid staff for the SOF. 424 However, '[the secretary] had an extreme amount of work and was still not well paid for this work. She was a paid volunteer' (problematic organisational structure; former vice 425 426 president, July 8, 2015). SOF realised that it was becoming more difficult to find volunteers 427 for administrative work. Another problem was that the voluntary secretary was not reachable 428 during office hours, which stakeholders (e.g. sponsors, Swiss Olympic, event organisers) 429 increasingly expected (*expectations of external stakeholders*). Furthermore, the commission 430 presidents, who were also members of the board, had too much administrative work 431 (problematic organisational structure). Therefore, the SOF considered establishing an executive office to be responsible for the main administrative tasks. The president of the 432 433 organising committee of the WOC 2003 pushed this process (expectations of staff). 434 In 2004, the sCOOL sponsor also decided to support the national team and a new international elite event and thus became SOF's main sponsor (increasing financial 435 436 resources). SOF's young talent, which won WOC titles in 2001, 2003 and 2004 and was the

437 overall World Cup winner in 2002 and 2004, might have been one reason sponsoring the
438 national team was attractive to the sponsor. In the course of this extended engagement, the
439 *expectations of the sponsor* were growing:

The sponsor counted the number of articles and pictures in journals per year and
showed us the statistics. In the end, the sponsor wanted us to sell ourselves better. He
said we need to have a communication position, higher quality of the magazine, more
professionalised website, photo archive of the top athletes.... Those were relatively
clear expectations of the sponsor, which pushed this process [of the establishment of an
executive office]. On the other hand, our athletes benefited from the sponsoring.
(Former president, June 8, 2015)

447

448 Establishment of an executive office: action

449 After the WOC 2003, a *working group* was appointed to analyse the sustainable functioning 450 and financing of SOF because paid work appeared unavoidable in the future. The working 451 group concluded that a combination of voluntary work on the board and paid administration 452 was the only long-term solution to secure the sustainable development of SOF. The working 453 group also charged the board with developing a strategic concept as a supporting document to promote the objective of establishing an executive office. The new president (elected in 2004) 454 455 and the vice president led and promoted this strategic process (promoting individuals). They 456 appointed another working group to develop SOF's strategy 2005–2010, thereby focusing on 457 including all relevant parties within the SOF, such as representatives of regional federations, clubs, young members and women (participative preparation of decisions). 458

The strategy 2005–2010 included the aim to establish an executive office. In 2006, a *working group* focusing on financial resources developed three options for the structure of
the executive office. Two options included raising membership and race entry fees; the third,

462 more extensive option included charging additional sponsoring fees. The working group 463 emphasised the relevance of the usage of sustainable finances (i.e. long-term available financial resources). The working group also created a supporting document for lobbying, 464 465 which stated the reasons for an executive office, its tasks and the benefit for clubs and 466 members. In total, the results of the working group were presented four times in annual and 467 extraordinary general assemblies. Two times the delegates had to confirm the proceedings of 468 the preparation process (participative preparation of decisions). 'The preparation process needed two years' time' (realistic time management; former vice president, July 8, 2015). 469 470 There was also scepticism. The clubs were not our friends that time. Young club 471 presidents supported the attempt but the idea was suspect to older club presidents. 472 There was also critique among the board members (resisting individuals). It is clear, 473 nowadays, more people support the decision but in the beginning it was not as 474 unanimous. (Former vice president, July 8, 2015) The executive office began the operative work in 2008. 475

476

477 *Establishment of an executive office: outcome*

The commission presidents were required to delegate administrative work to the executive
office. While this worked well for certain commissions, other commission presidents resisted
doing so (*resisting individuals*). 'They said that they did this work for 30 years voluntarily.
They will still do this, why do we need an executive office for these tasks?' (former

482 president, June 8, 2015).

The first two or three years, I talked repeatedly to the commission presidents to
convince them to transfer their administrative work to the executive office. I wrote this
concept and I wanted to implement it. I treated, punched, enslaved, and maybe also
convinced them until I succeeded (*promoting individuals*). However, there were a few

487 critical minds from the beginning and they were the same who resisted in the realisation phase as long as they were part of the board (resisting individuals). After two, three 488 years they quit. The resistance declined continuously (realistic time management). 489 (Former president, June 8, 2015) 490 491 The executive office had mainly positive consequences at the federation and external 492 environment levels. The secretary was no longer overloaded, and commission presidents were relieved of too much administrative work. Furthermore, the executive office contributed 493 to meet the expectations of stakeholders. On the internal environment level, individual 494 495 members were usually not involved in the executive office's work. 496

497 First attempt at reorganisation of organisational structure: context

498 The new president elected in 2007 (change in positions) decided to re-analyse and update the 499 strategic goals in a working group, though the strategic cycle 2005–2010 was not yet 500 finished. In addition to making minor adaptations to the strategic concept, the respective 501 working group concluded that the board was too large (i.e. 14 members) and that many board 502 members completed too many executive-level tasks (problematic organisational structure). 503 Therefore, the group recommended that the organisational structure be 'reorganised' in 504 connection with the establishment of the executive office. Thus, the statutes were updated in 505 the context of the establishment of the executive office and mandated a separation of strategic 506 and operative tasks.

507

508 First attempt at reorganisation of organisational structure: action

509 Until the operative start of the executive office in 2008, the board was not concerned with the 510 reorganisation, though the working group in the context of the update of strategic goals 511 emphasised its necessity (*insufficient preparation of processes*). However, because the new 512 statutes mandated a separation of strategic and operative tasks (supporting document), the 513 board discussed the reorganisation of organisational structure in the first board meeting after the operative start of the executive office. One board meeting later, the president proposed 514 515 four options for a new board structure in the board meeting (lacking *participative preparation* 516 of decisions). However, some board members resisted this attempt for reorganisation 517 (resisting individuals) because they did not agree with the president's propositions. 'I made 518 an attempt that time, we discussed about the options to decrease the number of board 519 members.... I did not succeed. Each commission president who would have been eliminated 520 feared that his or her department would drown' (former president, June 8, 2015). Furthermore, 'they did not want to lose the financial autonomy' (CEO, January 9, 2019). 521 522 523 First attempt at reorganisation of organisational structure: outcome 524 The discussion was adjourned, and subsequently, the president was appointed the role of the 525 CEO. 526 I had the chance, I had the time, I took the time, I could arrange it with my private life. 527 However, I knew that in the mid-term (*realistic time management*), the executive office 528 had to overtake more operative work than they did at this time. This thought faded into the background, simply because of the WOC 2012 (priorities) and after the WOC my 529 530 term was over. (Former president, June 8, 2015) 531 532 Second attempt at reorganisation of organisational structure: context 533 In 2014, a new president was elected (change in positions). 'In my first year as a president, I 534 heard comments of board members several times that the board is sluggish because there are too many board members and too many operative discussions' (president, April 1, 2015). In 535 536 particular, the president was overloaded (problematic organisational structure). 'There were

537 such dynamics in these discussions among board members that I realised we have to take 538 action' (president, April 1, 2015). In addition, Swiss Olympic, FOSPO and sponsors 539 preferred a single contact person with decision-making authority (expectations of external 540 stakeholders). Up to that time, the head of the executive office handled mainly administrative 541 tasks and had no power to make decisions (problematic organisational structure). Therefore, 542 the board discussed changing the position of the head of the executive office to the CEO as 543 part of the reorganisation. The board decided to conduct a workshop to determine the organisational structure. 544

545

546 Second attempt at reorganisation of organisational structure: action

At the beginning of 2015, a *working group* of five people prepared two workshops led by an external consultant and accompanied by the president of another Swiss NSF, who was experienced with reorganisation processes. To prepare for the workshop, the group evaluated the objectives defined in the strategy 2011–2016 (*supporting document*) and defined three options for a new organisational structure. The workshops were subsequently held with the whole board (*participative preparation of decisions*).

553It happened very fast and it was surprising to me that the commissions could be554subordinated to the executive office in these two workshops. We followed the model of555a private company.... There was a common sense, the vision and the goals were clear556but I do not know why. The president was fully committed to this process and the557proposed changes, this might be a reason (*promoting individuals*). Furthermore, we558trusted the external consultant and he did not avoid uncomfortable discussions. (CEO,559January 9, 2019)

560 The results of the workshop were sent to the club presidents to be discussed at the presidents'

561 conference at the end of 2015. The results were also discussed with the regional federations

(*participative preparation of decisions*). 'We invested a lot of time to communicate the
results transparently (*realistic time management*). This might be the reason that the general
assembly accepted changes in statutes and organisation regulations with very few abstentions
and counter votes' (CEO, January 9, 2019). The board was reduced from 14 to seven
members, the head of the executive office became the CEO of SOF and the commissions
were restructured.

568

569 Second attempt at reorganisation of organisational structure: outcome

570 The positive outcome included the reduction of the number of board members and the

571 discharge of the president of operative work. The consequences for the external environment

572 were also positive:

573 Swiss Olympic praised us very much for this initiative and also the FOSPO is glad to

574 have one single point of contact. It is good that the person who is in the meetings is the

same who signs the contract. This person is also the one contacted when somethingdoes not work. (CEO, January 9, 2019)

577 As a negative outcome, the roles of the new executive office and the board remain somewhat

578 unclear (e.g. who decides what in which case; *insufficient preparation of processes*) and the

579 board still does not think strategically enough. 'This is an important part of the whole

580 process, which is yet to come' (CEO, January 9, 2019).

581

582 Discussion

583 Mechanisms of professionalisation processes

584 The analysis of contexts (RQ1) served to differentiate between imposed and self-regulated

585 professionalisation processes within the SOF. While most of the analysed processes were

self-regulated by the SOF, we also identified processes that were externally imposed by

Swiss Olympic (e.g. the creation of a promotion concept for young and high-performance 587 588 athletes) or the sponsor (e.g. paid mandates for the sCOOL project and a part-time communication position), which provided financial resources in return for these 589 590 professionalisation processes. In consideration of the research gap identified in the literature 591 review, the subsequent analyses focused on the self-regulated professionalisation processes. 592 The question of how the contexts and actions identified under RQ1 shape outcome (i.e. 593 inter-relationships; RQ2) contributed to specify the mechanisms of professionalisation 594 processes on the basis of Nagel et al.'s (2015) and Pettigrew's (1997) frameworks. The 595 results show that the identified contexts have either a promoting (e.g. increase in financial 596 resources) or a hindering (e.g. other priorities) influence on whether actors take action to 597 initiate a professionalisation process (see also Ruoranen et al. 2018). If the promoting 598 contexts outweigh the hindering ones, the process is initiated. For example, the pressure from 599 staff and stakeholders on the SOF to establish an executive office was stronger than the 600 financial barriers. The subsequent action phase can be differentiated into preparation (i.e. 601 preparation for the voting in the board or general assembly about the realisation of the 602 process), decision making (i.e. decision about whether or not the process is being realised) 603 and realisation (i.e. realisation of the process after the decision). Just as contexts do, actions 604 have either a promoting or a hindering influence on the next process step, and promoting 605 actions need to outweigh hindering actions for the process to continue. In addition, the action 606 phase is co-determined by contexts (see also Pettigrew, 1997). SOF's president, for example, promoted the initiation of the preparation of the first attempt at reorganisation of the 607 608 organisational structure; however, the hindering actions of resisting board members and the 609 higher priority of the upcoming WOC 2012 (i.e. context) outweighed this action so the board decided not to realise the reorganisation at that time. 610

If promoting contexts and actions outweigh hindering contexts and actions in each process step (i.e. before initiation, during preparation and during realisation), the content of professionalisation can be realised, which leads to the satisfaction of those who promoted the process, such as stakeholders, staff or board members (i.e. intended outcome). However, hindering contexts and actions, which are outweighed by promoting contexts and actions, can produce an unintended outcome of the professionalisation process (e.g. dissatisfaction of commission presidents, which resisted the establishment of an executive office).

The results further show that the professionalisation processes do not necessarily end after having produced an outcome. Instead, the outcome can lead to a new professionalisation process (e.g. the process of establishing an executive office led to a follow-up process of the reorganisation of organisational structure). In addition, side-actions and side-contents (e.g. formulation of a strategy to support the process) can be initiated during or after a

623 professionalisation process.

624 Previous studies on professionalisation have shown similar contexts (e.g. expectations 625 of external stakeholders; Nagel et al. 2015, Ruoranen et al. 2018) and actions (e.g. promoting 626 individuals, resisting individuals, insufficient preparation of processes; Skinner et al. 1999, 627 O'Brien and Slack 2003, Amis et al. 2004a, O'Brien and Slack 2004) to those of the current 628 study. However, we also uncovered additional contexts (i.e. problematic organisational 629 structure, priorities) and actions (i.e. realistic time calculation, appointed working groups, 630 creation and usage of supporting documents, participative preparation of decisions and 631 sustainable financing) that are relevant for self-regulated professionalisation processes. 632 Furthermore, we reconstructed the mechanisms of professionalisation processes by analysing 633 inter-relationships among context, action, content and outcome, which has not been done in previous research and contributes to a holistic understanding of professionalisation processes. 634

635

636 *Conceptualisation of the mechanisms of professionalisation processes*

637 We used the results obtained by analysing self-regulated professionalisation processes based 638 on Nagel et al.'s (2015) framework of professionalisation and Pettigrew's (1997) processual 639 approach to propose a conceptualisation of the mechanisms of professionalisation processes 640 (see Figure 2). Such a conceptualisation does not exist to date. The results include four main 641 conclusions. First, we identified not only promoting but also hindering contexts for 642 professionalisation processes. This result complements Nagel et al.'s framework of professionalisation (see Figure 1), which considers only promoting contexts (i.e. causes). 643 644 Second, the results show that actions of concerned actors are relevant to the continuation and 645 the outcome of the process. Actions can be differentiated into preparation, decision making 646 and realisation. Third, the outcome of professionalisation processes can be intended and 647 unintended. Fourth, professionalisation processes can initiate subsequent processes or side-648 action and side-content (see arrows indicating potential additional loops in Figure 2).

649

650 [Figure 2 about here]

651

Challenges and opportunities arising from self-regulated professionalisation processes 652 The aim of investigating the mechanisms of self-regulated professionalisation processes was 653 654 to unpack the challenges and opportunities arising from these processes. The analysis of 655 inter-relationships among context, action and outcome (RQ2) showed that the timing of self-656 regulated professionalisation processes (i.e. when to initiate the process with respective 657 actions) can be adapted to organisation-specific contexts (e.g. priorities, changes in position, 658 availability of sustainable financial resources), which is an opportunity for self-regulated processes. Furthermore, the non-existent time constraints during the action phase enable a 659 660 realistic time calculation, appointment of working groups, creation and usage of supporting

documents, participative preparation of decisions and reduction of insufficiently prepared
processes. These actions contribute to a successful preparation and realisation of
professionalisation processes. In addition, the results show that self-regulated
professionalisation processes create the opportunity to adapt the content of the
professionalisation processes to the NSF's and its stakeholders' expectations (see also Fahlén *et al.* 2015), whereas the content of imposed professionalisation processes is specified by
sport policy.

The analysis of contexts and actions showed that the successful initiation of the 668 669 preparation phase of a professionalisation process is a major challenge of self-regulated professionalisation processes, given other options for investing financial and human 670 671 resources (i.e. priorities). Therefore, internal and external expectations, which put pressure on 672 the NSF, are necessary to convince employees and members of a self-regulated 673 professionalisation process. After a self-regulated process is initiated, the non-existent time 674 constraints can be challenging and may result in slow or stagnating processes during both the 675 preparation and realisation phases of a process. In particular, the preparation phase is 676 intensive and time-consuming and could be shortened by political impositions, including 677 implementation instructions (e.g. Amis et al. 2004a). However, political impositions do not necessarily lead to successful completion of a professionalisation process (Amis et al. 2004a, 678 679 Green and Houlihan 2006, Fahlén et al. 2015).

Regarding the identified challenges and opportunities, a predominantly self-regulated
sport policy system enables greater organisation specificity of the professionalisation
processes (i.e. timing, content) but entails risks of less control over and effectiveness of
NSFs' professionalisation processes and an 'illusory freedom' for NSFs. Similar results can
be found in sport policy implementation literature regarding imposed and self-regulated
policy implementation processes (e.g. Green and Houlihan 2006, Fahlén *et al.* 2015).

686 However, these studies do not analyse professionalisation processes specifically. Literature 687 on professionalisation, in turn, has not differentiated between imposed and self-regulated professionalisation processes to date. Therefore, the results complement existing literature on 688 689 professionalisation. In light of the results, we recommend the imposition of basic 690 professionalisation processes on all NSFs (e.g. existence of a strategy) because the challenges 691 of self-regulated processes outweigh the opportunities in this case. However, for far-reaching 692 professionalisation processes (e.g. shift of decision-making authority from volunteer to paid 693 staff), the opportunities arising from self-regulated professionalisation processes might 694 outweigh the challenges, at least when the same impositions are defined for all NSFs. In the 695 end, sport policy makers need to weigh the advantages and disadvantages of self-regulated 696 professionalisation processes to determine the extent to which sport policy imposes 697 professionalisation processes on NSFs.

698

699 Limitations and future research

700 This single-case study served to improve the understanding and conceptualisation of the 701 mechanisms of professionalisation processes. However, an analysis of other cases that 702 involve relevant contexts, actions and possible intended and unintended outcome of 703 professionalisation is necessary to complement Figure 2. In particular, previous research on 704 professionalisation processes has widely neglected relevant actions during professionalisation 705 processes. While this study focused on self-regulated professionalisation processes, an 706 analysis of both the sport policy imposed and self-regulated professionalisation processes 707 would yield more comprehensive and comparable results in terms of the challenges and 708 opportunities arising from imposed and self-regulated professionalisation processes (e.g. is 709 there a difference in the sustainability of the processes' outcome?). Such results would further 710 contribute to the question of the extent to which sport policy imposes professionalisation

processes on NSFs. Future studies should also analyse NSFs in different countries to
distinguish between impositions for all NSFs (e.g. Amis *et al.* 2004a) and organisation- or
type-specific impositions (e.g. Thieme 2017) as well as between top-down and bottom-up
implementation (see O'Gorman 2011) of professionalisation processes.

We chose the interviewees for this study within the NSF because our focus was on the 715 716 proceedings of professionalisation processes. However, to ideally meet the requirements of a 717 holistic analysis, additional primary data from the internal and external environment level 718 would be useful (e.g. interviews with club presidents, regional federation presidents, 719 stakeholder representatives). Furthermore, social desirability must be critically questioned 720 because professionalisation is usually deemed a desirable process, and the interviewees might 721 not be willing to reveal any undesired actions in which they were involved. However, the 722 interviewees seemed to openly reflect on both positive and negative actions. Furthermore, 723 two interviewees were no longer active in the NSF by the time of data collection. Another 724 challenge was that the analysed period of 17 years was long, so it was sometimes difficult for 725 the interviewees to recollect situations that had occurred in the past. The triangulation of 726 interview data, archival minutes and documents helped reduce these difficulties, as did the 727 information from the different sources.

728 The results regarding the challenges and opportunities arising from self-regulated 729 professionalisation processes should also prove useful for other countries with sport systems 730 containing NSFs that govern voluntary sport clubs (e.g. diverse European countries, 731 Australia, Canada), because each of these governments is confronted with the question of the 732 extent to which sport policy imposes professionalisation processes on NSFs. The results of 733 the relevant contexts and actions can be useful for sport managers in diverse sport systems, 734 because NSFs in sport systems with more restrictive impositions in terms of 735 professionalisation are also allowed to conduct self-regulated professionalisation processes,

- as long as they do not contravene the regulations. Furthermore, imposed professionalisation
- 737 processes may also benefit from promoting contexts and actions.
- 738

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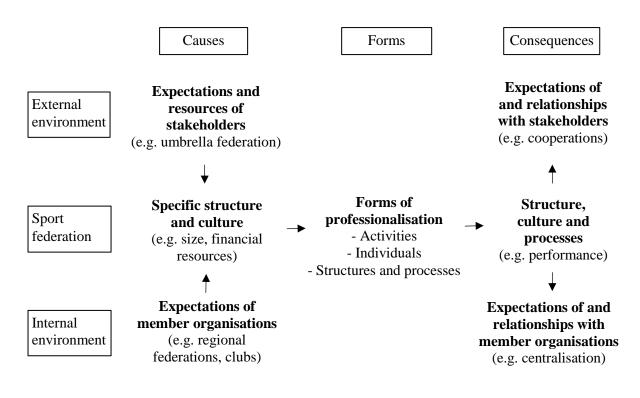


Figure 1. Multi-level framework for analysing professionalisation in sport federations (condensed form of Nagel et al., 2015, p. 412).

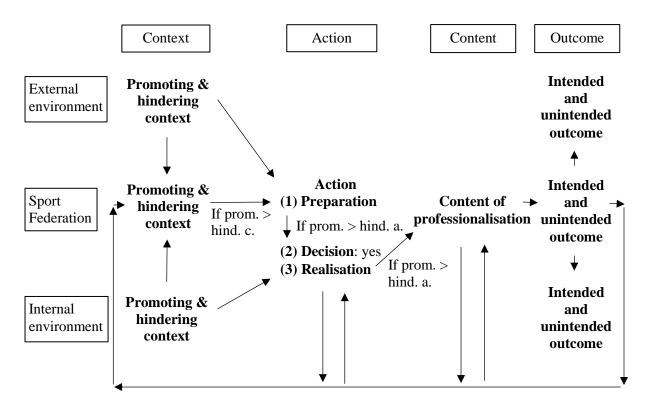


Figure 2. Conceptualisation of the mechanisms of professionalisation processes.

Table 1. Collected data.

Source	Date	Details	
Archival minutes			
Board meeting minutes	2002–2018	104 documents	
Relevant appendices	2002-2018	116 documents	
General assembly minutes	2002-2018	10 documents	
Organisational documents			
Mission statement	2018	1 document	
Organigrams	2010; 2018	2 documents	
Organisation regulations	2010; 2018	2 documents	
Statutes	2017	1 document	
Strategies incl. appendix	2005–2010;	3 documents	
	2011–2016;		
	2017-2022		
Marketing strategy	2014	1 document	
Annual reports	2002-2018	14 documents	
Interviews			
Group interview: President and	April 1, 2015	President since 2014; head of	
head of executive office		executive office 2014–2016,	
		then CEO	
Former president	June 8, 2015	President 2007–2014	
Former vice president	July 8, 2015	Vice president 2004–2007,	
		member of the board since 1993	
CEO	January 9, 2019	CEO since 2017, former head of	
		executive office	

No.	Context	Action	Content	Outcome
1	World orienteering championships 2003, increasing workload	Decision of the board to pay the secretary	Payment of secretary	Better conditions for secretary but still not ideal
2	Process to establish an executive office	Appointment of working group	Strategy 2005- 2010	Supporting document for the establishment of an executive office
3	New president 2004	Initiative to formalise roles and competencies of board members	Document of roles and competencies of board members	Clarification of roles and competencies
4	Pressure from the sponsor to improve communication activities	Initiative of head of commission communication	Paid mandate for commission communication (20%)	First communication concept; new webpage; double mandate
	•••	•••	•••	•••

Table 2. Example for causation coding.

Note. The information is ordered by the date of completion of the process

Codes	First-order themes	Second-order themes
Three options for executive	Multiple options to chose	Participative preparation
office		of decisions
Four options for reorganisation		
(first attempt)		
Three options for reorganisation		
(second attempt)		
Delegates vote for desired option	Voting for options	
Board discusses options		
Board agrees for one option		
Board confirms constitution of		
working group		
Options were presented four	Transparent advance	
times	information	
Delegates voted two times for		
proceeding of the process		
Transparent communication of		
results		
Visits in regional federations to	Participative advance	
explain intentions of new	information	
strategy		
Information for club through		
regional federations		
Common sense among decision	Common sense	
makers		
Unanimous voting		
Only few counter votes		

Table 3. Example for descriptive and pattern coding.