

# Stimulating resource integration through incentive systems

Theoretical framework and empirical  
findings

Christopher Maier

**SMAB Research Series 001 - Stimulating resource integration through incentive systems**

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[www.sma-bayreuth.de](http://www.sma-bayreuth.de)

ISBN (gedruckte Version): 978-3-946493-00-6  
ISBN (e-Book): 978-3-946493-01-3

**Stimulating Resource Integration through  
Incentive Systems: Theoretical Framework and  
Empirical Findings**

Dissertation

zur Erlangung des Grades eines Doktors der Wirtschaftswissenschaft  
der Rechts- und Wirtschaftswissenschaftlichen Fakultät  
der Universität Bayreuth

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Tag der mündlichen Prüfung: 03. November 2015

**TO MY PARENTS**

**ABSTRACT**

In order to investigate the value creation of a service, the resource integration of all different social actors has to be analyzed in its whole complexity. Any service needs to be seen as a platform, on which different stakeholders contribute to the value creation. The role of a service provider is to offer a value proposition by means that the company has to coordinate the platform in a way, in which all stakeholders are able and willing to integrate their potential resources. Therefore the service provider needs to offer adequate incentives to all stakeholders on the platform. In order to set adequate incentives and therefore to facilitate efficient resource integration, it is crucial to understand the motivations of the different stakeholder groups. As the sport industry can be considered as a role model for a service industry, which strongly depends on external resources, it serves as a suitable context to investigate incentives for resource integration of different stakeholders. According to this, the research question of this thesis is as follows: How can service providers of sport services motivate social actors to integrate resources for value co-creation? In an effort to answer this question, the thesis is composed of four articles investigating different aspects concerning motivations and incentive-induced resource integration. The first article focuses on the service provider perspective and proposes a theoretic foundation for the development of a value oriented performance measurement system of a sport league. The second article investigates motivations of public viewing spectators and therefore addresses the customer perspective of value creation. The third and fourth articles analyze the effects of non-monetary and monetary incentives on outcomes as retention, job satisfaction and performance and therefore investigate the employee perspective of incentives and resource integration. The results offer interesting insights for practitioners and encourage future research on incentives in the context of sport management.

Prof. Dr. Herbert Woratschek

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work is the result of my time at the Department for Services Management at the University of Bayreuth. It would not have been possible without the support of some special persons.

Firstly, I want to thank my supervisor and academic teacher Prof. Dr. Herbert Woratschek. This work would not be what it is now without the fruitful discussions with him. He challenged me whenever he could and he motivated me when it was necessary. Further, I was given the opportunity to contribute in several consulting projects, where I gained valuable practical experience and simultaneously was able to develop a sound knowledge of various quantitative research techniques. Aside from the academic support, I could gain international experience through conferences and workshops abroad and two unforgettable visiting research fellowships with Prof. Dr. Harold Riemer in Canada and Prof. Dr. Roderick Brodie in New Zealand. Therefore he enabled me to develop not only as a scholar, but also as a person.

Secondly, I want to thank Prof. Dr. Kühlmann for taking the position as a second supervisor. His constructive comments and suggestions helped to refine the work. Furthermore, I want to thank Prof. Dr. Germelmann for taking the role of the chairman.

Beyond this, I want to express my special gratitude to my colleagues Dr. Tim Ströbel, Dr. Christian Durchholz, Carmen Back, Dr. Bastian Popp, Prof. Dr. Reinhard Kunz, Friederike Weissmann, Michael Stadteltmann, Mario Kaiser, Prof. Dr. Chris Horbel and Johanna Mühlbeyer at the University of Bayreuth, who always provided fruitful advices and motivating words. Without their support and friendship, it would have been a lonely time.

I also want to thank Michele Tran, who helped me to gather the data for the exploratory interviews and Markus Buser for his support and great effort with the collection of the quantitative data from the clubs. Additionally, I want to thank Nicolas Sievers for the copy-editing of the manuscripts and the support with the translations.

Finally, I want to express my deepest gratitude to the most important people in my life: my family – who always supported me and showed me what really matters in life, my friends – the best I could imagine, and of course Kathi – my girl, my closest friend and always my home base.

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

<b>ABSTRACT .....</b>	<b>i</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS .....</b>	<b>iii</b>
<b>CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1    MOTIVATION.....	1
2    THESIS ORGANIZATION .....	3
3    REFERENCES .....	7
<b>CHAPTER II: SERVICE PROVIDER PERSPECTIVE .....</b>	<b>8</b>
1    INTRODUCTION .....	9
2    QUALITY MANAGEMENT IN SPORTS.....	10
3    THEORETIC FOUNDATION FOR A VALUE ORIENTED QUALITY MANAGEMENT OF A SPORTS LEAGUE.....	12
3.1    VALUE PROPOSITION OF A CLUB .....	13
3.2    VALUE PROPOSITION OF A LEAGUE .....	15
4    CONCLUSION.....	18
5    REFERENCES .....	19
<b>CHAPTER III: CUSTOMER PERSPECTIVE.....</b>	<b>21</b>
1    INTRODUCTION .....	23
2    THEORETICAL BACKGROUND.....	24
2.1    PUBLIC VIEWING .....	24
2.2    PUBLIC VIEWING AS A DISCONTINUOUS INNOVATION THROUGH THE LENSES OF SERVICE-DOMINANT LOGIC.....	25
2.3    MOTIVATIONS FOR PASSIVE SPORT CONSUMPTION .....	27
3    METHOD .....	30
3.1    DATA COLLECTION.....	30
3.2    MEASURES.....	30
4    ANALYSIS AND RESULTS.....	31

---

5	DISCUSSION.....	35
6	IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTITIONERS .....	37
7	CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH.....	38
8	REFERENCES .....	40
<b>CHAPTER IV: EMPLOYEE PERSPECTIVE I .....</b>		<b>43</b>
1	INTRODUCTION .....	44
2	THEORETICAL BACKGROUND.....	46
2.1	NON-MONETARY INCENTIVES AND TURNOVER INTENTION.....	46
2.2	INCENTIVES, MOTIVES, AND CONTEXT .....	47
3	STUDY 1 AND HYPOTHESES .....	49
4	STUDY 2 .....	52
4.1	METHOD .....	52
4.1.1	<i>DATA COLLECTION AND PARTICIPANTS.....</i>	<i>52</i>
4.1.2	<i>MEASURES.....</i>	<i>53</i>
4.1.3	<i>COMMON METHOD BIAS.....</i>	<i>55</i>
4.2	ANALYSIS AND RESULTS .....	55
4.2.1	<i>MEASURE VALIDATION.....</i>	<i>55</i>
4.2.2	<i>HYPOTHESES TESTING.....</i>	<i>56</i>
5	DISCUSSION.....	60
6	CONCLUSION.....	62
7	REFERENCES .....	64
<b>CHAPTER V: EMPLOYEE PERSPECTIVE II .....</b>		<b>69</b>
1	INTRODUCTION .....	70
2	THEORETICAL BACKGROUND.....	72
2.1	SHIRKING IN SPORTS.....	72
2.2	PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT IN TEAM SPORTS.....	72
3	CONCEPTUAL MODEL.....	76
4	METHOD .....	78

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4.1	PARTICIPANTS AND DATA COLLECTION .....	78
4.2	MEASURES.....	79
4.3	COMMON METHOD BIAS.....	82
5	ANALYSIS AND RESULTS.....	83
5.1	MEASURE VALIDATION .....	83
5.2	TESTS OF HYPOTHESES .....	84
5.3	A RIVAL APPROACH .....	86
6	DISCUSSION.....	87
7	CONTRIBUTIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH .....	89
8	REFERENCES .....	90
	<b>CHAPTER VI: CONCLUSION.....</b>	<b>97</b>

## CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

### 1 MOTIVATION

„All economic and social actors are resource integrators” (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). 2004, Stephan Vargo and Robert Lusch revolutionized the international marketing and services management world by introducing Service Dominant Logic (SDL). Up to this date, marketing theory mainly focused on a firm-to-customer perspective. SD-Logic suggests a broader perspective towards value creation, whereas different stakeholders, such as customers, employees or any further social actors integrate resources into the value creation process (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). In order to understand the value creation of a service, the resource integration of all different stakeholders has to be analyzed in its whole complexity. Therefore the SDL is not limited to the marketing field. It should rather be seen as a meta-theory to link different research areas, to facilitate interdisciplinary research and to enhance existing perspectives. Especially in the field of sport management, SDL and also the Sport Value Framework (Woratschek, Horbel & Popp, 2014) as a bridging theory of SDL in sports, have recently gained attention. Hence, the sport business is a suitable context to analyze resource integration in a service industry. According to the Sport Value Framework, the value proposition of a sport service (e.g. sport event) is the coordination of a platform, where social actors engage in business and leisure activities. All social actors (stakeholders) integrate resources, but in return they do also expect to retrieve some kind of resources for their contribution. A company might seek returns in terms of customer satisfaction, loyalty or financial revenue. Employees seek remuneration through non-monetary factors such as recognition or status, and monetary factors as pay or bonuses. Other social actors (e.g. other costumers) might seek benefits such as conversations, atmosphere or group experiences. The core of any platform is described by the logic of value creation and can be conceptualized by value configurations such as value chains (Porter, 1985), value networks or value shops (Stabell & Fjeldstad, 1998). Therefore, any service company needs to be seen as a platform on which value is co-created, regardless of the dominating value configuration. The role of a service company’s manager is to offer a value proposition by means that he/she has to coordinate the platform in a way, in which all stakeholders are able and willing to integrate their potential resources.

Therefore the manager of a service company needs to offer adequate incentives to all stakeholders of the platform.

Applying this idea to a sport event, resource integration of different stakeholders is multifaceted. Taking the view of the customer, resource integration can be embodied through an active participation and consequently to a contribution to atmosphere. Concerning employees (e.g. players), resource integration, for instance, can lead to high athletic performance. Resource integration of other social actors (e.g. caterer) can lead to a higher overall service quality at the event venue. All stakeholders contribute to the value creation on the platform. In order to facilitate an optimal resource integration of all stakeholders, it is crucial to understand the motivations of each stakeholder. As there are different motivations within the different stakeholder groups, incentives for an efficient resource integration need to be investigated for each group and for any context separately. Based on this theoretic foundation, the main research question of this thesis is as follows:

*How can service providers of sport services motivate social actors to integrate resources for value co-creation?*

## 2 THESIS ORGANIZATION

The following chapters contribute to answering the above mentioned research question by examining different aspects of the complex relationship networks of resource integrators. In order to acknowledge the complexity of value co-creation and resource integration, this thesis is comprised of four separate articles. The articles examine different aspects concerning motivations and incentive-induced resource integration. Consolidated, they represent an enclosed research project. Figure 1 shows the area of contribution of each article.

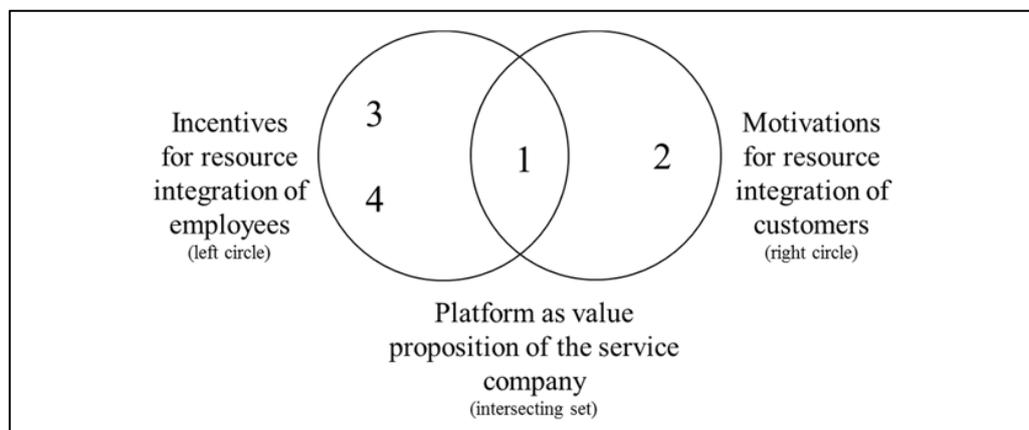


Figure 1: Thesis Organization

In order to assure conformity, the differing layouts of the submitted articles have been adjusted to the layout of this thesis. The first article originally was published in German language. Since the publication of the article, the work has been revised. Therefore this thesis consists of a revised and modified English version of the original manuscript. Besides the four articles (Chapter 2-5), the thesis includes an introductory chapter (1), explaining the motivation of the study, the general research question, the theoretic framework, and the organization of the project. In addition, the last chapter (6) concludes the work by providing a short research summary and implications for research and practice. The following paragraphs accentuate the specific research goals of the articles 1-4, provide a brief summary of each paper, and point out contributions of co-authors.

As the coordination of the platform is the foundation for an efficient resource integration, the first paper addresses this aspect. The article conceptually examines a value-based quality management of sport services. Aim of the paper is to develop a conceptual framework for a performance measurement system (PMS) of a youth sports league. It is argued that the balanced score card-approach, which

is often used for PMS models, is not appropriate for most sport services because of its focus on the value chain and the accompanied transformational logic. It is shown, that the leagues' primary role is the connection of customers (e.g. clubs) on its platform. Further, it is postulated, that a league's value is created through an optimal organization of the primary activities in the value network. Nevertheless, the value of a league is co-created with other resource integrators such as sponsors, players or the media. Those stakeholders need to be coordinated on the platform of the service provider, in order to assure efficient resource integration. In case of a sports league, the most important resource integrators are the clubs. In contrary to professional senior teams, the primary goal of youth teams is the development of talent, which fits to the problem-solving function of the value shop. Based on this foundation, the article proposes that a PMS of a youth sports league needs to incorporate performance indicators for activities within the value network of the league and the value shops of the clubs. The contributions to this article were distributed as follows. The conceptualization of the original manuscript was mainly carried out by Herbert Woratschek, while Tim Ströbel, Christian Durchholz and the author of this thesis contributed through several discussions and refinements of the theoretical concept. The writing of the article was equally distributed between all three co-authors. The revised and modified English version of the manuscript was conceptualized by Herbert Woratschek and the author of this thesis. The writing of the revised manuscript was also carried out the author of this thesis.

The second paper focuses on the customer perspective of resource integration. The concrete aim of the paper is to identify relevant motivations of customers to participate in public viewing (PV) events. The results of the study on PV's are compared to existing literature on motivations of stadium and TV spectators. The relevance of different motivations in the PV context strongly differed from the results of the studies on stadium and TV spectators. Three previously untested motivations were revealed in the study: lack of stadium tickets, intercultural contact and freedom to move around. All three motivations could be identified as independent factors, which lead to costumers' participation in PV events. The study once more revealed the importance of the context in which a service is embedded. Knowing the motivations of costumers is the basis for the identification of effective context-relevant incentives. According to this,

incentives, which are offered by service companies in order to stimulate spectators' motivations and therefore to integrate their resources, always need to be adapted to the context. Based on the findings of this study, further research needs to be carried out to test the effectiveness of potential incentives to address spectators' motivations. All four authors contributed different aspects to this study. The conceptualization was mainly done by Herbert Woratschek. Data collection, analysis and writing were mainly carried out by Christian Durchholz and the author of this thesis. Tim Ströbel contributed through the revision of the paper and fruitful discussions throughout the whole process.

The third and fourth article primary focus on the employee perspective of value creation in the context of professional team sports clubs. The attraction, motivation and retention of the workforce are necessary in order to facilitate an optimal resource integration of employees. According to this, the identification of context-relevant incentives is crucial to guarantee an efficient allocation of a club's financial resources. At this point, also other stakeholders, such as players' families and their resource integration are incorporated in this work. While sport management research strongly focuses on monetary incentives, previous research did not dedicate much attention to a player's personnel environment and potential effects of non-monetary organizational incentives. Both papers are located in the context of professional team sports and examine effects of incentives.

The third article of this thesis examines direct drivers for retention in professional team sports. Through qualitative research, three previously untested non-monetary incentives were identified (integration of family, second career support and private problem support). Appropriate scales for the operationalization of the variables were developed through a scale development process with an individual sample of semi-professional athletes. Based on this foundation, quantitative data from professional athletes was gathered in order to test the effects of the three non-monetary incentives on turnover intention. Furthermore, moderating effects of player's age were tested. Results show significant negative effects for all three hypothesized relationships. The effect of integration of family on turnover intention further is moderated by players' age.

The fourth article examines the role of several monetary and non-monetary incentives as indirect antecedents of performance. In this regard an indirect effect of incentives via job satisfaction was hypothesized. Non-monetary incentives

were derived from the qualitative study of the third paper. Monetary incentives were derived from literature. Furthermore a rival approach, suggesting a direct relationship between incentives and performance was tested and compared to the hypothesized model. Conducting the study, an innovative approach to evaluate player performance was applied in order to overcome existing shortcomings of previous studies and especially to prevent common method bias. The results show a high relevance of non-monetary incentives, while monetary incentives provided little or non-significant effects. Further the hypothesized indirect effect via job satisfaction was proved to be superior to the rival approach. The main conceptualization and implementation of the study presented in article three and four was carried out by the author of this thesis. Herbert Woratschek contributed through constant conceptual advices and revisions of the paper. Tim Ströbel contributed through several helpful discussions and revisions of the paper.

Figure 2 summarizes the contents of the paper and shows the main perspective of resource integration.

Paper	Content	Perspective
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Literature review on quality management and value configurations</li> <li>Conceptualization of the value creation in a sports league</li> <li>Development of a theoretic foundation for a value oriented quality management of sport leagues</li> </ul>	Service Provider
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Literature review on motivations for consumption of "live" sports games</li> <li>Identification of motivations for the participation in public viewing events</li> <li>Ranking of customers motivations for participation in public viewing events</li> <li>Comparison of motivations between spectators of a sports game in different service contexts</li> </ul>	Customer
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Literature review on incentives in professional team sports</li> <li>Identification of non-monetary incentives in the context of professional team sports</li> <li>Development of scales for integration of family, second career support and private problem support</li> <li>Investigation of the relationship between non-monetary incentives and turnover intention</li> <li>Investigation of moderating effects of players' age</li> </ul>	Employee
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Literature review on performance measurement in sports</li> <li>Conceptualization of an indirect relationship between incentives and performance of athletes</li> <li>Investigation of an indirect effect of incentives on performance via job satisfaction</li> <li>Comparison of the hypothesized model to a rival approach suggesting a direct relationship</li> </ul>	

Figure 2: Research Summary

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## **CHAPTER II: SERVICE PROVIDER PERSPECTIVE**

### **DEVELOPING A THEORETIC FRAMEWORK FOR A VALUE ORIENTED QUALITY MANAGEMENT OF A SPORT LEAGUE**

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**Abstract:**

A well-developed talent promotion of young athletes serves as foundation for a high quality in professional sports. That is why various sports associations have installed professional junior leagues like the A- and B-Junior-League in German football. In general, the main goal of a junior league is the personal development of young athletes, as they have to get prepared for the challenges of the working life of a professional athlete. Overall, there is a lack in research as well as in practical application with regard to the planning, managing, and controlling of the quality of sport leagues. Based on Service-Dominant-Logic, all social actors are resource integrators and a service firm can only offer a value proposition. Therefore, a value oriented quality management of a sport league needs to incorporate different stakeholders. By integrating the ideas of SDL into a value oriented quality management system, this research tries to develop a theoretic framework for the quality management of a sports league.

**Keywords:** Value; Quality Management; Sport League

## 1 INTRODUCTION

In order to achieve a high athletic level in professional leagues, it is necessary to promote young talent at an early stage. For this reason, several German sports federations introduced professional junior leagues such as the female soccer B-Juniorinnen Bundesliga overseen by the DFB. The overall goal of a junior league is generally to enhance the proficiency level of an age group. Additionally, it is crucial to assist the young athletes' personality development to prepare them for the day to day challenges of a professional. In this context it is also paramount to ensure advancement of both the mentoring and practicing quality as well as the athletic and academic development. The perceived athletic level of a league is of particular importance to conduct quality assurance in a consistent fashion. To date, one can witness a deficit in research and practice regarding the planning, operating and quality assurance of professional sport leagues.

According to Service-Dominant-Logic (SDL), a service company only offers a value proposition, but several social actors integrate resources, which consequently leads to a co-creation of value (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). In this regard, a value oriented quality measurement needs to identify and incorporate different stakeholder perspectives. At the core of this analysis stands the development of a theoretic framework of the value creation in a sport league, which enables the identification of operating figures for the assessment of the quality of the league. Providing indicators how the practical approach can be improved, this paper resembles the first step in alleviating this deficit in research.

## 2 QUALITY MANAGEMENT IN SPORTS

The utilization of the term quality is complex. It is therefore essential to have a general grasp on quality before devising analyses and methods revolving around it. The German Association for Quality refers to quality as the entirety of properties and characteristics of a product or operation which correspond to its suitability to fulfill requirements (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Qualität, Qualitätsmanagement, 1995; DIN EN ISO 8402, 1995). It is thus necessary to ask whose requirements are to be fulfilled. In order to answer this question, the central stakeholders have to be identified and analyzed first. As described earlier, the case at hand lays the focus on the stakeholders in the teams and the league, respectively, in order to operationalize specific requirements in regard to quality assessment in the B-Juniorinnen Bundesliga. Assessing quality in such a way forms the basis of a holistic indicator control.

A prerequisite for a realistic projection in regard to the situation of an enterprise is to consider the target's underlying configuration of its value proposition. The Balanced Scorecard depicts the most popular performance measurement system and is already widely applied in sports as well as being scientifically discussed (Jordan, 2008; Hacheney, 2003; Galli, Wagner, & Beiersdorfer, 2012). It is founded on the principle of value adding logic of a value chain, which is in line with a traditional business administration doctrine. Particularly in the service sector, however, there is evidence that alternative configurations of value creation are superior in mapping out the value oriented processes. On these grounds it is rather a necessity to differentiate the logic of value creation more sharply in order to create adequate performance measurement systems.

In the field of services controlling, further performance measurement systems have been developed. Nevertheless, those systems neither incorporate substantial shortcomings. First, systems, such as the Performance Measurement Framework (e.g. Fitzgerald, Johnston, Brignall, Silvestro, & Voss, 1991) are neither based on value oriented activities, nor do they incorporate other stakeholders, which is substantial for the controlling of a sport service. Further models, such as the EFQM-model, are adequate for some limited benchmarking purposes, but do not analyze any cause-effect relationships between different operating figures (e.g. Blankenburg, 1999). The Performance Pyramide hypothesizes relationships between operating figures, does not incorporate the requirements of employees

(e.g. Lynch & Cross, 1995). As employees are a key resource integrator of sport services, they may not be excluded from an all-embracing quality management. The Value-Based Performance Management (e.g. Brunner, 1999), embraces most stakeholders, but is also not based on the considerations towards the relevance of structuring primary activities.

For the field of sport management it is crucial not to get lost in a wide array of indicators. Thus, a focus on value oriented indicators is proposed.

### 3 THEORETIC FOUNDATION FOR A VALUE ORIENTED QUALITY MANAGEMENT OF A SPORTS LEAGUE

The sport value framework (Woratschek, Horbel, & Popp, 2014), a bridging theory of SDL in sports indicates that the value proposition of a sport service (e.g sport event) is the coordination of a platform. On this platform social actors are able to engage in business and leisure activities. The core of any platform is described by the logic of value creation. This logic can either be related to transformation functions of the value chain (Porter, 1985), problem-solving functions of the value shop, or mediating functions of the value network (Stabell & Fjeldstad, 1998). Regardless of the underlying logic of the apparent value configuration, any service company itself needs to be seen as a platform on which value is co-created. The role of a service firm is to offer a value proposition by means that the firm has to coordinate the platform in a way, in which all stakeholders integrate other stakeholders' resources. Figure 1 graphically shows the simplified relationship network between stakeholders and the platform describing the value proposition of a service company.

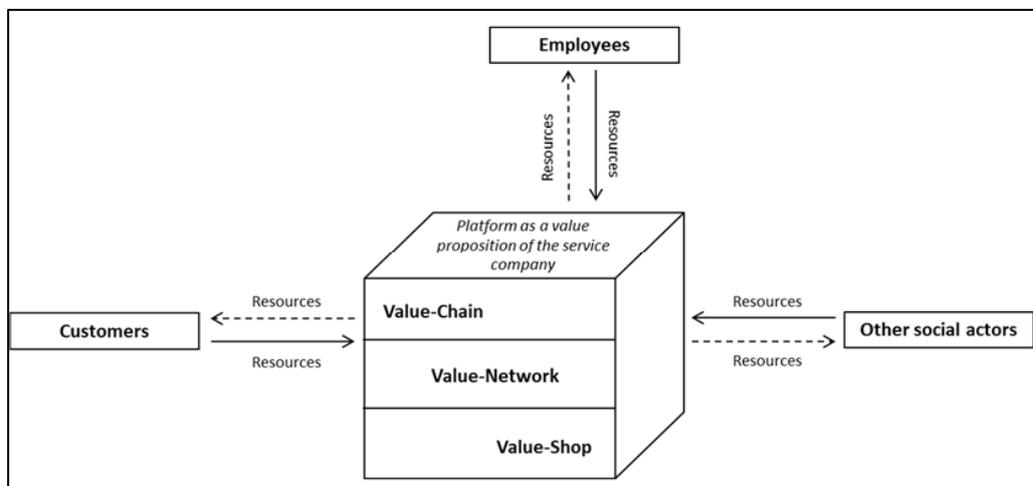


Figure 1: Theoretical Framework of Resource Integration and Value Creation on a Service Platform

Applying this framework on a youth sport league, especially one further stakeholder group is of particular importance: the clubs. In order to understand the underlying principles of the resource integration of a league, a league manager needs to understand the value proposition of the clubs. As the value proposition of the league and the value proposition of the club are interdependent, both aspects need to be considered for an embracing value oriented quality management. Therefore the following chapters analyze the value propositions and the related

value configurations for the club (value shop) and the league (value network). Although, value chain, value shop, and value network refer to the mindset of Goods-Dominant-Logic, we suggest, that they can fruitfully be applied if they are re-interpreted from a SD-Logic perspective. In contrast to Stabell & Fjeldstad (1998), we argue that value cannot be created by firms or organizations. Firms and organizations can only offer value propositions and therefore enable other stakeholders, such as employees or customers, to co-create value. However the primary activities of the traditional value configurations directly contribute to a high quality of a value proposition. Furthermore, value propositions have to be coordinated in a way that facilitates co-creation of value. Performance measurement systems should mainly focus on such primary activities, which are important facilitators for the value co-creation process.

### **3.1 Value Proposition of a Club**

The classic way a team seeks to add value consists of optimal development of its own athletes and further acquisition of outstanding players. In doing so, the team intends to strengthen the athletic level to ultimately reach its main goal: athletic success. Value adding analyses along the lines of Porter's Value Chain (1985) fall short, since the enhancement of a team's athletic quality is not founded on a linear transformation process and therefore processes of problem solving shift into the main focus. This is why the value shop, created by Stabell & Fjeldstad (1998), is an outstanding theoretical basis to describe the quality of teams by means of value oriented activities and to achieve comparability within a league.

Primary activities of a value shop are plotted towards problem solving, which can also be witnessed in the selection and classification of primary activities. According to Stabell & Fjeldstad (1998), it is characteristic for a value shop that the acquisition of internal customers depicts the first order of business. In the case at hand, the term *internal customers* refers to the employees of a team: Athletes, coaches and the like. Additionally, it is not only important to promote athletes from the team's own junior program or to acquire them from other programs but also to properly document the compatibility of athletic and academic activity. By providing opportunities of dual career paths to athletes, those athletes can be motivated to join a particular club. In case the internal customers have already been acquired, the first stage of acquisition is replaced by the phase of problem

finding. Problem finding in this context is to be understood as the development and promotion of athletes and coaches. Thus, the goals of promotion and development must be viewed in a more precise fashion, for they are to be subsequently measured with the help of indicators and subjective ways of quality valuation. The then following stages of problem solving, choice, execution and control/evaluation are all geared towards problem solution for the customer. Yet, these activities do not follow a linear sequence but have to be fitted to the accomplished sub-ordinate targets repeatedly. Therefore, the primary activities of a value shop adhere to a cyclic and iterative sequence and add directly to the value proposition of a team and its quality. Supporting activities like corporate infrastructure, human resources management, technology development and procurement ensure that the primary activities can deliver its value oriented impact at all. Figure 2 graphically shows the theoretical concept of a value shop:

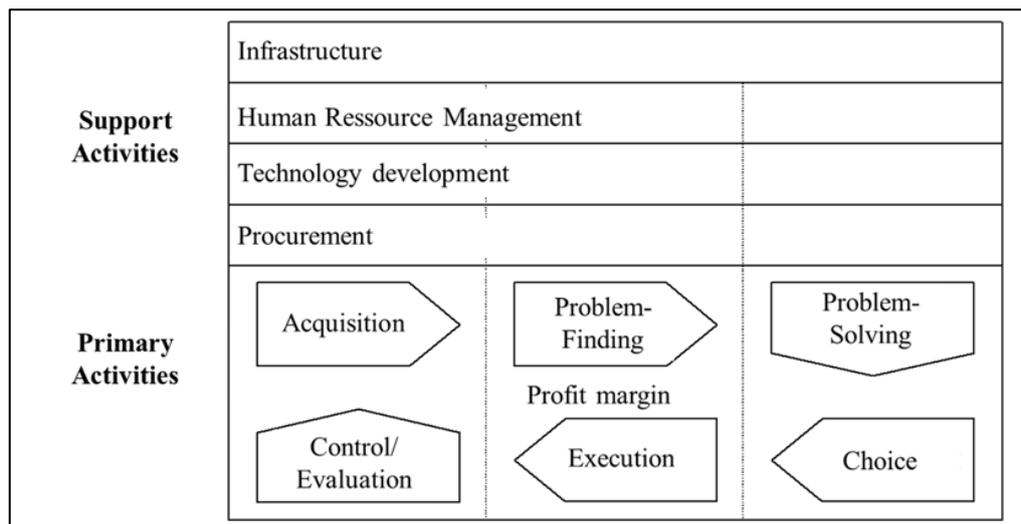


Figure 2: Configuration of Activities in a Value Shop (Stabell & Fjeldstad, 1998; Woratschek et al., 2002)

This value shop diagram illustrates that the entirety of activities can influence the quality of a club. On the grounds of value oriented activities, the following exemplified, quality determining criteria can be identified for the teams of the B-Juniorinnen Bundesliga:

- Acquisition: athlete recruitment from internal and external junior programs; number of players on the roster
- Problem Finding: athletic goals for the season; talent promotion
- Problem Solving: practice/training; compatibility of athletic and academic education (dual career paths)

- Choice: training hours; training volume
- Execution: execution of training
- Control/ Evaluation: feedback; medical and physiological performance diagnostics

In this context, secondary activities like infrastructure, human resources management, technology development and procurement can be viewed as, for instance, the practice facilities, the club's executives or practicing equipment.

The purpose of this example was to show that the value shop serves as a structure creating element for the statistic process control within the management oriented measurement process for quality of services. Ideally, this approach should be complemented by the internal quality assessment, surveying the subjectively perceived indicators of internal customers as well. Thus, an extensive scope of a club's quality can be achieved, whereupon the athletic quality is measured simultaneously.

### **3.2 Value Proposition of a League**

A league's quality is decisively determined by the quality of the participating clubs. Therefore, the analysis regarding the value proposition is founded on the clubs that make up the B-Juniorinnen Bundesliga. A balanced athletic level among the part-taking teams ensures suspense and fosters competition within a league in the race for the title. Accordingly, the main goal of a league is to obtain the best possible teams and the best possible players and to organize them in a suitable system of competition. This form of organization requires an innovative, value oriented perspective, which is neither determined by a sequential nor a cyclic process. By utilizing mutual relations between the mediary (the league) and its customers (the teams) to create versatile and utility maximizing interactions between various agents, a league rather adopts the function of an intermediary. The value proposition of a value network therefore bears on generating opportunities to establish and maintain contact between consumers, businesses, organizations and other stakeholders. In terms of activity configuration of the value network, the supporting activities resemble the ones described in the value chain and the value shop. The primary activities, however, are composed of network promotion, network services and network infrastructure, which are provided simultaneously.

Network promotion takes on the task of marketing and contract management (Woratschek, 2004). Specifically, this concerns the selection of new participants, the determination of conditions regarding the provision of the network, and the regulation of settlement for services rendered. The generation of value is thus heavily intertwined with the number and the composition of participants in the network. It generally holds, that the more participants in the network, the higher the externally perceived value or quality of the league. It is noteworthy though, that league quality is not always determined by number of participants, since the value of a network might increase if access is restricted by certain preconditions. This is particularly the case for sports leagues. It is obvious that three or four teams competing for a championship would be too few, whereas one hundred would be too many. Moreover, the quality of a network (league) hinges on the quality of the participants (teams). A league is attractive to spectators and sponsors, only when the best are joining in on the race for the title. In contrast to a producing enterprise, the rules of competition, for instance advancement and relegation, are crucial for the league's quality. These rules are part of the network's non-materialistic infrastructure and have to be planned, operated, controlled and refined simultaneously to the production activities. In regard to a network infrastructure, standards have to be established to grant consumers access to the network under equal terms. In a complementary fashion, network services facilitate production, maintenance and termination of contacts between participants as well as settlement and invoice processing of services (Woratschek, Schafmeister, & Ströbel, 2007). Figure 3 shows a typical activity configuration of a value network:

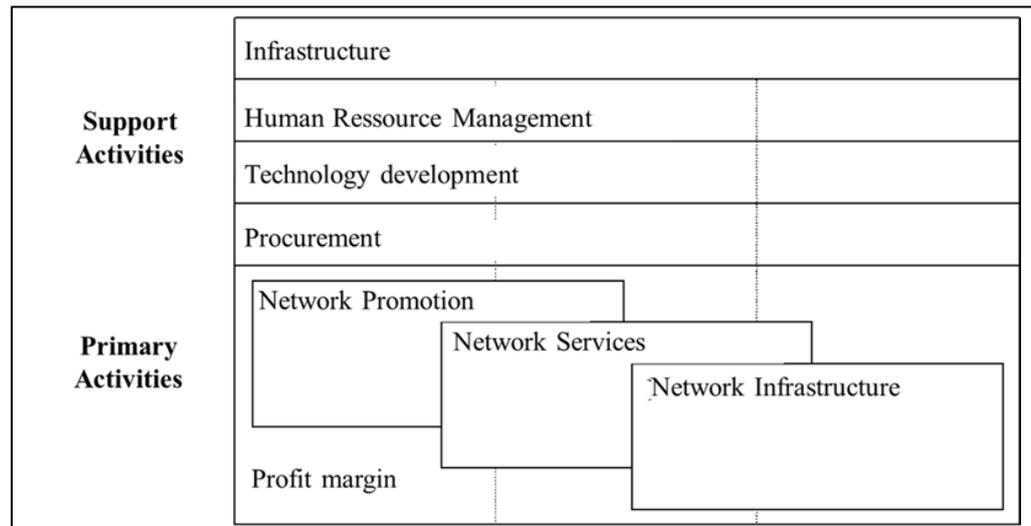


Figure 3: Configuration of activities in a value network (Stabell & Fjeldstad, 1998; Woratschek et al., 2002)

The figure clearly shows that, in contrast to the sequential process of a value chain or the cyclic process of a value shop, the primary activities in a value network are performed simultaneously. On the one hand, this simultaneous process is based on the fact that participants of the network might have different requests to the network, which the network has to react to at the same time. On the other hand, gradual integration of new participants has to be ensured, since the participants are the blood in the networks system.

On the grounds of value oriented activities, the following exemplified, quality determining criteria can be identified for the teams of the B-Juniorinnen Bundesliga:

- Network promotion: selection criteria for teams, media and sponsors
- Network services: game schedule, referee selection
- Network infrastructure: rule books, criteria for competition system, league-wide equipment

Secondary activities like corporate infrastructure, human resources management, technology development and procurement can be displayed as work of the organizations department, further training of staff, statistics, data transfer or player permit matters. As the primary activities of value networks are based on the connection of social actors, a value network represents a focal actor. This explains the importance of a league's role concerning the intermediation between players, coaches, clubs, and other stakeholders.

#### **4 CONCLUSION**

The analysis of value creating activities by teams and the league form the basis for modeling quality assessing indicators for a sports league. An isolated investigation of a team's or a league's processes and activities is counter constructive. Solely by analyzing the collaborative value creation of teams within a league's network, the superordinate goals can be identified and indicators can be determined. With the help of the described measurement processes, the indicators derived from the value creating activities can be summarized to a more holistic quality management for a sports league. It has to be taken into account, however, that the main goals of a junior league, namely talent promotion in the sense of a positive performance and personality development, are not necessarily in line with goals of other league forms. This approach can be seen as a first step towards the creation of a holistic value oriented quality management of a sport league. Future research needs to expand this theoretic approach by incorporating further interrelations between different stakeholder groups.

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## CHAPTER III: CUSTOMER PERSPECTIVE

### INNOVATIONS IN SPORT MANAGEMENT: THE ROLE OF MOTIVATIONS AND VALUE CO-CREATION AT PUBLIC VIEWING EVENTS

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**Abstract:**

During mega sport events as FIFA World Cup or Olympic Games, Fan Fests and other Public Viewing events have been developed as an innovative value proposition for watching sports. Those events attract millions of sport spectators worldwide. Event organizers have already realized the tremendous economic potential, yet sport management literature provides little empirical evidence on this innovation in sport management. Therefore, this study investigates motivational drivers for sport consumption of Public Viewing events. As Public Viewing represents an innovative combination of stadium and television, we conduct a literature review of sport spectator motivations and study empirical findings in the stadium, television, and Public Viewing context. Based on this theoretical background we conduct a quantitative analysis. During the UEFA EURO 2008 in Austria and Switzerland, 381 spectators have been interviewed using a standardized questionnaire at official Public Viewing events.

The findings of this analysis reveal three new motivational dimensions for passive sport consumption. Due to Lack of Stadium Tickets, people visit public viewing events as an alternative with a stadium-like atmosphere and mostly unlimited capacities. Moreover, spectators of Public Viewing events enjoy the Freedom to Move Around and the Intercultural Contact and therefore the chance to socialize with fan groups from different countries and cultures. Those new motivational dimensions represent key drivers of sport consumption behaviour in the context of Public Viewing events. In addition to those empirical findings, we derive practical

implications in order to understand how innovations such as Public Viewings open new ways to create value at sport events.

**Keywords:**

Innovations; Motivations; Consumer Behaviour; Value Co-Creation; Public Viewing Events

## 1 INTRODUCTION

In recent years, sport management researchers have started several discussions about the value creation of sport organisations. Especially, the introduction of the Service-Dominant Logic (SDL) by Vargo and Lusch (2004) has had substantial influence on the understanding of value creation in sports. Accordingly, Woratschek, Horbel, & Popp (2014) propose the Sport Value Framework as a bridging theory to SDL and a new foundation for the analysis of value creation in sports. Sport events offer a platform that enables different social actors to interact, to engage in business or leisure activities and consequently to co-create value.

Since the FIFA World Cup 2006, Public Viewing (PV) events have been developed as an innovative value proposition for watching sports. PV, the collective watching of sport events on huge screens, represents a combination of the stadium and television experience. As those PV events are still relatively new, business and research lacks of information on the consumption behaviours of customers in this context. Therefore, we want to examine the motivations of PV spectators in order to gain insights into the consequences of this discontinuous innovation in sport management.

This work offers three major contributions to existing research. First, we introduce a new SDL perspective towards innovations in sport management. This leads to new insights and a better understanding of innovation induced value creation at sport events. Second, we identify and analyse spectators' motivations to participate in PV events and provide practical implications as well as suggestions for future research. Third, we compare motivations of PV spectators to those of TV and stadium spectators based on previous research and our empirical results. According to this, we outline how innovations such as PV's open new ways to create value at sport events.

## **2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

### **2.1 Public Viewing**

While the phenomenon of PV, has been widely discussed in the media (e.g. during the World Cup 2014: Hahn, 2014), scientific research towards that type of sport event is rare. With regard to the tremendous demand for such events, an estimated number of 18 million people visited the PV events in Germany during the World Cup 2006 (Federal Ministry of the Interior, 2006), the lack of scientific attention is even more surprising. Since the FIFA World Cup 2006 the term PV has been mainly used in media in the context of sport events. Besides sport events, also music events (e.g. State Opera Berlin) and other happenings of public interest (e.g. public funeral service of Lady Diana) have been broadcasted on screens at public places for years. PV can be seen as any broadcast of an event on a screen, which is open for the public (Reinholz, 2005). This would also include bars, parties, and company events (Ufer, 2010; FIFA, 2010a). As this scope seems to be too widespread for the purpose of an empirical analysis, we focus in the following on official PV's of FIFA or UEFA football games. According to that research focus, we explicitly exclude broadcasts in bars and similar locations.

The reasons for the increasing demand of PV events are multi-faceted. Besides the obvious advantage of additional capacity in PV settings in comparison to stadiums, several further advantages exist. First, the great variability of the venture offers an advantage, as organisers do not depend on one particular place and a fixed capacity of seats as in a stadium. So, public places in city centres can be used as well as other venues (e.g. Olympic Stadium in Munich during the Euro Cup 2012). Therefore, attendees can either benefit from the accessibility of the city centre or from the existing infrastructure of a sports venue (Schulke, 2007). Furthermore, PV's open additional possibilities for event organizers. Arranging an interesting complementary program in a traditional sports venue like a stadium, can be limited by the capacities, corresponding safety guidelines, and legal considerations. In contrast to the stadium context, PV organizers are not facing comparably strict limitations. This offers great possibilities to organize an attractive event program besides the actual game (Schulke, 2007). This fact contains the chance to address new customers, which are mainly interested in the social aspects and event character of a sports game.

The FIFA World Cup 2006 marks the start for a series of successful PV events. The combination of high quality TV-watching on huge screens and the emotional stadium-like-atmosphere tends to be a highly attractive offer for sport consumers. Those two aspects have not been combinable so far, but the innovation of PV events enables new ways to enhance the attractiveness of a sport event. Thus, knowledge about the relevance of the context, in which the sport consumer watches a game, is crucial to the success of the sport event. The innovation of PV offers enormous potential for creating an emotional platform for sport consumers and combines the advantages of TV broadcasts and stadium visits (Ufer, 2010). The emotional setting and huge capacities of PV areas facilitate social interactions and intercultural contacts.

As mentioned above, during the FIFA World Cup 2006 in Germany, almost 18 million football fans visited the official PV's. Two million of the visitors were foreign nationals and 76 % primarily joined the World Cup due to the PV events (Federal Ministry of the Interior, 2006). Referring to a study of Kurscheidt, Preuss, & Schütte (2008), foreign PV visitors stayed on average 2.4 days longer than the stadium visitors. The fact that PV visitors are on average considerably younger than the stadium spectators shows that younger sport consumers follow the trend to lean towards settings, which promise emotional experience (Kurscheidt et al., 2008). Furthermore, not only the host countries benefit from those events. During the FIFA World Cup 2010, the FIFA organized Fan Fests in six different cities worldwide. Overall 3.5 million people visited these events (FIFA, 2010b). The number of visitors of non-official PV's and Fan Fests is estimated to be considerably higher. The presented numbers indicate that PV events contain high economic potential and match the needs and demands of sport consumers very accurately.

## **2.2 Public Viewing as a Discontinuous Innovation through the Lenses of Service-Dominant Logic**

The value proposition of a sport event provider is to offer a platform that enables customers to interact with each other (Woratschek, Horbel, & Popp, 2014).

From a Goods-Dominant Logic (GDL) perspective, innovations are described as attributes of goods and services and therefore ignore the co-creation of value by customers and other stakeholders. Furthermore, GDL focuses on value-in-

exchange relations and consequently implies that an innovation needs to be related to a direct increase of financial revenue from the customer (Sorescu, Chandy, & Prabhu, 2003). As the participation in a PV event usually is free of charge for the customer, PV providers do not gain direct revenues. According to this, PV's do not count as innovations from a GDL perspective. Hence, GDL ignores the aspect of an increased value, which is co-created by non-paying customers.

According to SDL, a discontinuous innovation includes both a significant change in how customers create value and a significant effect on market size, prices, revenues, or market shares (Michel, Brown, & Gallan, 2008). As outlined in the previous chapter, PV events contribute to a significant change of market size. Therefore, this requirement is fulfilled. The second requirement depends on whether the value creation at a PV event is different from the value creation of watching a sports game in another context (e.g. TV or stadium). According to Michel, Brown, & Gallan (2008), value creation changes, when the customer's role changes. The customer can perform three different roles, namely user, buyer, and payer (Sheth & Mittal, 2004). The user uses the service, the buyer selects the service, and the payer pays for the service. A customer can perform either one, two, or all three roles. Comparing the stadium context to the PV context, the customers' role changes from a buyer, user, and payer role (stadium context) to a user and buyer role (PV context). As PV's are free of charge, the customer no longer fulfils the role of a payer. Event sponsors or even municipalities step in for the role of the payer. Comparing PV and Free-TV spectators, they both represent non-paying customers. However, the user role itself differs between these two contexts. While the TV context limits the possibilities of interacting with other customers, interaction with other users in a PV context is almost inevitable. Therefore, the value creation can be considered as different from TV context and motivations for using a value proposition need to be investigated for each context separately. Especially the change of the customer's role is a paradigm shift and consequently indicates that PV is a discontinuous innovation according to SDL.

### **2.3 Motivations for Passive Sport Consumption**

As value is always co-created by different social actors, a sport event provider can only offer a platform as a value proposition for the co-creation of value. It depends on the ability and willingness of the social actors (e.g. attendees, fans, spectators) to use the platform by integrating their resources. However, the sport event provider needs to stimulate the social actors to use the offered platform to co-create value. For that reason, the sport event provider needs to know and understand the customers' motivations for participation. By investigating the motivations for visiting PV events, we can identify appropriate incentives to foster their resource integration. Accordingly, motivations are directly linked to consumers' needs and can thus be seen as an important indicator for consumer demand in sports (Trail, Fink, & Anderson, 2003; Wann, Melnick, Russell, & Pease, 2001). By running a literature review on spectators' motivation in sports, we detect two different research fields. Typically, one can distinguish between studies focusing on spectator motivation at the venue itself and spectator motivation of watching sports on television. With regard to stadium spectators, eight motivational dimensions have been established through several studies (Wann et al., 2001; Trail et al., 2003). Examining the motivation of watching sports at home on TV, Aimiller and Kretzschmar (1995) detect twelve factors, which influence the sports consumption behaviour, while Schafmeister (2007) identifies six dimensions. Table 1 illustrates the main motivations for stadium and TV spectators.

**TABLE 1**  
**Motivations for Stadium and TV Spectators**

Stadium (Wann et al., 2001)		TV (Aimiller & Kretzschmar, 1995)		TV (Schafmeister, 2007)	
Entertainment	Quality of Physical Skills	Entertainment	Fascination of Sport (incl. 9.)	Participating in Sport's World of Experiences (incl. 2. / 3. / 4.)	
	Physical Attractiveness	Opinion Forming			
		Visual Experience			
		Emotionality / Involvement / Live-Experience			
Eustress	Drama / Excitement	Sensation Seeking			
Group Affiliation	Social Interaction	Social Experience			
Self-Esteem	Vicarious Achievement	Who wins? / Alignment			
Aesthetics	Aesthetics	Show / Aesthetics / Exclusiveness	Show / Aesthetics		
Escape	Escape	Escape	Escape (incl. 7.)		
Family	Family	Family			
Economic			Betting / Economic		
	Acquisition of Knowledge	Acquisition of Knowledge			
		Identification with Players	Identification with Players		
Σ	8	9	12	6	

Table 1 reveals that the empirical studies identify different drivers for watching sports. However, by taking a closer look, several similarities can be identified between the motivational dimensions of stadium and TV spectators. For example, seven out of eight factors from the stadium study of Wann et al. (2001) also appear in the TV study of Aimiller and Kretzschmar (1995), which indicates that watching sports in the stadium and watching sports on TV is generally driven by similar motivations. Nevertheless, marginal differences can be identified, too. For instance, Wann et al. (2001) did not detect comparable factors to Opinion Forming, Visual Experience or Acquisition of Knowledge. Additional features of TV broadcasting like slow motion or replay (Visual Experience) and commentaries of reporters and experts (Acquisition of Knowledge, Opinion Forming) enhance the overview of table 1.

The comparison of motivations for stadium and TV spectators shows that motivational dimensions are dependent on the context of the individual sport spectator. Therefore, the contextual situation of the sport spectatorship needs to be considered before evaluating the specific passive sports consumption behaviour. Identifying the motivational dimensions of sport consumers to watch sport by

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using innovative services like PV will help to understand the scope of passive sports consumption behaviour.

### **3 METHOD**

In order to assess our research goals, we apply an exploratory approach. The items for the analysis have been derived from a qualitative videographic study on observed behaviours of PV attendees (Woratschek, Horbel, & Popp, 2006). In order to identify new motivational dimensions, we apply an explorative factor analysis using SPSS 20.0. Furthermore, it is necessary to provide comparability to previous studies on motivations of watching sports in a stadium (Wann et al., 2001; Trail et al., 2003) and on television (Aimiller & Kretschmar, 1995; Schafmeister, 2007). Therefore, we include those items, in order to see if the motivational dimensions are likewise important in the context of PV's.

#### **3.1 Data Collection**

The data for this study has been collected during the UEFA EURO 2008 in Austria and Switzerland. The actual field work has been conducted in Klagenfurt and Vienna at official UEFA PV events. The data collection represents a convenience sample by interviewing the fans before the games. A standardized questionnaire including 37 closed-response questions using a 7-point-Likert-scale has been used to interview a total of 381 PV attendees.

#### **3.2 Measures**

The items have been derived out of four studies and, if necessary, adapted to the PV context. Consequently, all questions start with the phrase: "I am joining PV, because ...". First, we refer to motivational items from Aimiller and Kretschmar (1995; see table 1). Based on the factor loadings, we choose the two best items (highest factor loadings) of each dimension to reduce the complexity of the research design. Second, we adapt items from Schafmeister (2007) in order to capture the economic driver of betting. Third, we draw back on latest research results with regard to team identification as an essential antecedent of fan loyalty. Those results support the interpretation of team identification as a motivational dimension for passive sport consumption, too (Donovan, Carlson, & Zimmerman, 2005; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Trail et al., 2003). Finally, we use the insights from the qualitative study during the FIFA World Cup 2006 (Woratschek et al., 2006) and add five more items describing different observed behaviours of PV spectators. The five items are as follows: "... I did not get tickets for the stadium";

“... I like to be with people of different cultures.”; “... in contrast to the stadium I can celebrate peacefully with fans of the opposing team.”; “... here you do not have separated categories.”; “... I can move around more freely compared to a stadium.” A complete overview of all items can be found in table 2.

#### **4 ANALYSIS AND RESULTS**

Using explorative factor analysis, we derive 11 factors. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy is 0.878, thus showing a “meritorious” appropriateness of the factor analysis. Eleven factors are extracted that explain 69.3 % of the variance of the items. The factor loadings are calculated with a varimax rotation of the components. Table 2 shows the extracted dimensions. In order to rank the dimensions, mean values of each dimension are compared. Thus, table 3 shows a ranking of the 11 dimensions.

**TABLE 2**  
**Results of the Factor Analysis**

Item "I am joining Public Viewing, because..."	KMO ≥ 0.5	AVE ≥ 50 %	B ≥ 0.4	α ≥ 0.7	r ≥ 0.5
<b>Team Identification</b>					
... I identify with the national team.			0.834		0.706
... I feel bonded to the fans of the national team.			0.827		0.791
... I have got the feeling to be part of the fans of the national team.			0.812		0.766
... it is very important to be a fan of the national team.	0.895	58.72%	0.774	0.897	0.751
... I am a fan of the national team.			0.728		0.748
... I feel good when my national team wins.			0.590		0.641
... I am together with friends and like-minded people.			0.495		0.528
... fans of all social classes support the national team together.			0.494		0.518
<b>Aesthetics</b>					
... the movements of the athletes are aesthetic.			0.777		0.609
... I am fascinated by the close-up pictures from the athletes.			0.759		0.570
... some athletes are good-looking.	0.792	52.85%	0.749	0.775	0.531
... the outfit of the athletes makes the game worth seeing.			0.711		0.591
... I want to learn more about rules and techniques.			0.630		0.446
<b>Live-Entertainment</b>					
... I want to see spectacular actions.			0.723		0.568
... I need to enjoy the event live.			0.698		0.512
... football is entertainment.	0.790	46.31%	0.765	0.750	0.582
... I am really thrilled by the game.			0.730		0.550
... I admire the athletic skills of the players.			0.671		0.482
... I want to see controversial persons and want to see action.			0.447		0.304
<b>Social Interaction with Family and Friends</b>					
... I can spend time with my family.			0.864		0.680
... it is a ritual for my family.	0.709	57.48%	0.851	0.747	0.656
... I want to see tips and tricks.			0.688		0.464
... my friends talk a lot about football.			0.596		0.385
<b>Betting / Economic</b>					
... I bet on certain result.			0.882		0.568
... I need more information to bet in future.	0.572	61.67%	0.861	0.637	0.531
... I want to know if my bet was right.			0.575		0.309
<b>Freedom to Move Around</b>					
... I can move around more freely compared to a stadium.	0.5	86.45%	0.930	0.843	0.729
... here you do not have separated categories.			0.930		0.729
<b>Intercultural Contact</b>					
... I like to be with people of different cultures.	0.5	77.00%	0.878	0.699	0.540
... in contrast to the stadium I can celebrate peacefully with fans of the opposing team.			0.878		0.540
<b>Current Information Seeking</b>					
... I want the latest topics in football.	0.5	62.92%	0.793	0.705	0.544
... I want to know the opinion of the athlete.			0.793		0.544
<b>Escape</b>					
... I can temporarily escape from life's problems.	0.5	75.68%	0.870	0.677	0.514
... it compensates some disappointments of life.			0.870		0.514
<b>Identification with Players</b>					
... some athletes are like good friends for me.	0.5	83.91%	0.916	0.806	0.678
... I have the feeling that some athletes are a part of my family.			0.916		0.678
<b>Lack of Stadium Tickets</b>					
... I did not get tickets for the stadium.					

Notes: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Factor Loadings (B), Cronbach's Alpha (α), Corrected Item-Total Correlation (r).

**TABLE 3**  
**Extracted Motivations for Public Viewing Events ranked by arithmetic Means**

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Mean Values</b>
Team Identification	(5.39)
Live-Entertainment	(5.06)
Intercultural Contact	(4.63)
Lack of Stadium Tickets	(4.56)
Freedom to Move Around	(3.98)
Social Interaction with Family and Friends	(3.17)
Escape	(3.09)
Identification with Players	(2.51)
Aesthetics	(2.46)
Betting / Economic	(2.36)
Current Information Seeking	(2.09)

By comparing the extracted motivations for PV events with the existing motivations of passive sport consumption in stadium and on TV, we can see that almost all dimensions are represented in the PV context. Merely the motivations Eustress and Self-Esteem are not extracted by our data. These two main drivers of consumer behaviour are covered by the motivations Live-Entertainment and Team Identification. The main motivations of PV spectators are Team Identification, Live-Entertainment, Intercultural Contact, Lack of Stadium Tickets, and Freedom to Move Around. Among those motivations, Lack of Stadium Tickets, Intercultural Contact, and Freedom to Move Around are three additional motivations in the PV context. Based on the ranking (table 3), those three additional motivations represent important characteristics of passive sport consumption behaviour during PV events. Aside from the identification of new motivational dimensions for passive sport consumption in the PV context, we compare the derived motivational dimensions from our study with the studies of passive sport consumption in stadiums and on TV. Table 4 illustrates this comparison of the main motivations for stadium, TV, and PV spectators.

**TABLE 4**  
**Motivations for Stadium, TV, and Public Viewing**

<b>Stadium</b> (Wann et al., 2001) (Trail et al., 2003)		<b>TV</b> (Aimiller & Kretzschmar, 1995) (Schafmeister, 2007)		<b>Public Viewing</b>	
Entertainment	Quality of Physical Skills	Entertainment	Fascination of Sport (incl. 9.)	Live-Entertainment (incl. 2.)	
	Physical Attractiveness	Opinion Forming			
		Visual Experience	Participating in Sport's World of Experiences (incl. 2. / 3. / 4.)		
		Emotionality / Involvement / Live-Experience			
Eustress	Drama / Excitement	Sensation Seeking			
Group Affiliation	Social Interaction	Social Experience		Intercultural Contact	
Self-Esteem	Vicarious Achievement	Who wins? / Alignment			
Aesthetics	Aesthetics	Show / Aesthetics / Exclusiveness	Show / Aesthetics	Aesthetics	
Escape	Escape	Escape	Escape (incl. 7.)	Escape	
Family	Family	Family		Social Interaction with Family and Friends	
Economic			Betting / Economic	Betting / Economic	
	Acquisition of Knowledge	Acquisition of Knowledge		Current Information Seeking	
		Identification with Players	Identification with Players	Identification with Players	
				Team Identification (incl. 4.)	
				Lack of Stadium Tickets	
				Freedom to Move Around	
$\Sigma$	8	9	12	6	11

## 5 DISCUSSION

For many sport fans it seems to be important to share their experience within a group to derive more satisfaction out of the situation. Unfortunately, sport fans usually have to cope with a very high demand for sport tickets at mega events. Hence, not every applicant gets the ordered amount of tickets for the preferred game, which leads to adapted distribution processes. For instance, FIFA and UEFA use a lottery for selling their tickets. This system cannot consider the demand of larger fan groups. Therefore, those fan groups might travel together to a foreign country, but cannot enjoy the games together in the stadium. The scarcity of tickets can even lead to situations, in which none of the fans gets any tickets. As fans want to celebrate and support their teams jointly, they use PV events as second best designs to enjoy a stadium-like atmosphere. Former research already revealed that social relationships to other fans are essential for sport fans as they strengthen their commitment for a club and a team (Woratschek, Horbel, Popp, & Roth, 2007). The linkage between scarcity of stadium tickets and the importance of social relationships can be subsumed under the new motivation Lack of Stadium Tickets.

Besides the described experiences within a group, interactions and contacts with other fan groups are of high relevance, too. In contrast to the stadium attendance, this aspect needs to be highlighted, because usually tickets are distributed separately based on national orders (FIFA, 2012). Consequently, only certain amounts of tickets are available for a specific nation. This leads to separated seating categories and hinders fan groups to get in contact with other nations within a stadium. In contrast, PV events do not offer fixed seating categories, so PV attendees can meet with fans of their own team and with fans of the opposing team. Compared to the stadium, this situation offers opportunities to enjoy intercultural contacts before, during, and after the game. Fortunately, it seems that fans at PV events look for a peaceful get-together with other fan cultures, which probably supports the value of this sport event for most of the fans. This new motivation Intercultural Contact is another driving force and determines customer behaviour of sport fans at PV events.

In addition, PV fans describe another motivation in contrast to the stadium context, which enhances the value of a PV event. Usually, a stadium ticket allocates a certain seat to the spectator. This approach implies the need of seating

categories and blocks within a stadium. Moreover, these seats can only be reached when the spectator passes an appropriate entrance where a security person controls the ticket. Hence, these organisational efforts lead to crowding costs as spectators need to wait in cues at the entrances, for example. Furthermore, fans are not allowed to change their seats to improve their viewing conditions or to enjoy the games next to their friends or preferred fan group. These restrictions do not appear at PV events, as there are no separated blocks, prescribed seating or standing area. This leads to the new motivation Freedom to Move Around, which is another dominating characteristic to understand motivations of PV attendees.

In summary, PV customers can co-create additional value by skirting the lack of tickets, by interacting with other customers of different nationalities, and by using the possibility to move around freely within the event venue.

## 6 IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTITIONERS

Our results complement existing research about motivations for passive sport spectators in the field of sport management. Besides new identified motivational dimensions, our study also considers different service settings of watching sports. Fans can either go to a stadium, watch the event on TV, or enjoy a stadium-like atmosphere at PV events. Based on those diverse contexts, spectators might have different preferences and reasons, which should be considered from a managerial point of view.

How can sport managers activate those motivations in the context of sport value networks in order to establish co-creation of value? As PV events offer several possibilities to interact with other people and fans, the intercultural exchange between different fan groups is one important factor and enriches the consumption experience as our study proves. The general framework of a PV event additionally facilitates this aspect, as fans do not have any restrictions with regard to a fixed seating or standing place. Therefore, fans can easily move and mingle with friends and / or fans of other national teams. According to this new motivation, event organizers need to build upon this social catalyst and facilitate intercultural contact through side events or special meet and greet zones. Although PV event organizers need to offer a secure and peaceful environment, they must not hinder interaction between different fan groups by barriers or assigned seating.

Moreover, these new motivations offer the possibility to attract more spectators by target-group-specific marketing. This leads to higher customer satisfaction and customer loyalty. Even if customers might not come back to the same event, it can be assumed that they will recommend it and therefore attract new customers to the event. In the case of mega events, this means that the scarcity of tickets can be overcome and, at the same time, the demand for watching the event in other contexts can be increased. Therefore, discontinuous innovations and related changes of user roles and usage processes can lead to higher values for event organizers, hosting countries / cities and various other social actors as long as their individual motivations are fulfilled.

## 7 CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study offers three contributions to existing research. First, our approach shows that following the SDL (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) and the Sport Value Framework (Woratschek et al., 2014) innovations in sport management must be interpreted as value propositions of the provider, whereas value itself is co-created by all social actors. Second, results show that additional motivations are fulfilled by integrating resources of PV platforms. Using innovative value propositions opens new ways to increase the value of a sport event. A shift of the customer role, from a buyer, user, and payer role (stadium context) to a user and buyer role (PV context), implies the change of thinking for the event provider, which in consequence leads to new opportunities to fulfil more motivations of several stakeholder groups. Third, we compared motivations of PV attendees with those of TV and stadium spectators. The results show that most motivations are similar in all three contexts. Nevertheless, the social dimension of intercultural contact and the according freedom to move around, as well as significant increase in spectator capacity, suggest that the contexts differ and therefore open new ways to offer adequate value propositions and to enable value co-creation. Consequently, the interactions between different customers take a special role in the value co-creation at a PV event.

The implications drawn from our results must be tempered by some limitations. In general, the implemented motivational scale in the context of PV needs to be validated by further research. In this regard, it seems necessary to add more variables to the single-item factor Lack of Stadium Tickets and to balance the items between the extracted factors. Moreover, future research should focus on confirmatory approaches to refine the variables and the according motivational dimensions to set a basis for further analyses. In addition, the questionnaire should be applied in different countries and different languages in order to gain a better understanding of this international phenomenon. Furthermore, our study refers to an international football context. Future research needs to focus on potential differences of motivations for PV spectators of national league games and other sports competitions apart from football. As this study mainly investigates dyadic relationships between customers, it only describes a micro-level analysis. The Sport Value Framework (Woratschek et al., 2014) suggests an incorporation of various social actors and further meso-level analyses. Therefore, future research

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needs to facilitate a better understanding of the roles and interrelationships of other stakeholders such as sponsors or municipalities. Although our study offers new insights into the phenomenon of PV, it also reveals several open questions and encourages further research in this field.

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## **CHAPTER IV: EMPLOYEE PERSPECTIVE I**

### **THE EFFECT OF NON-MONETARY INCENTIVES ON TURNOVER INTENTION IN PROFESSIONAL TEAM SPORTS**

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**Abstract:**

Employee retention is one of the key challenges for companies nowadays. In the field of professional team sports the market for potential employees is even more restricted than in most other industries. Therefore it is important to set appropriate incentives in order to retain the key players in the organisation. This study investigates the effects of three non-monetary incentives on turnover intention of professional team sports athletes. As the effectiveness of incentives depends on context, relevant incentives for professional team sports athletes had first to be identified. (1) By applying a qualitative exploratory approach we identified three relevant incentives: integration of family, second career support and private problem support. (2) In order to test the effectiveness of the identified incentives, a second quantitative study was conducted. Based on the data, collected by questionnaires of 315 athletes from 19 professional clubs in football, ice hockey, and handball, all three identified factors negatively influence players' turnover intention. As motives and preferences can shift over time, possible moderation effects of age were also tested for all three incentives. Evidence was found that integration of family is more relevant to younger athletes. The findings of this study indicate the importance of non-monetary incentives for athletes' retention and encourage further research to be conducted towards this topic.

**Keywords:** Retention; Turnover Intention; Non-monetary Incentives; Team Sports

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The field of incentive systems plays a central role in human resource management (HRM) literature. Attracting, motivating, and retaining the workforce are the main challenges for managers and should be seen as key functions for generating competitive advantage. In professional team sports, the market of potential employees is even more restricted than in most other industries. Salary caps and draft systems further reduce possibilities of employers to attract potential players and transfer fees worsen the situation as the acquisition of new talent is very expensive. According to this, it is of high relevance for the clubs to create an environment, which helps to retain players and therefore avoids the costs of high transfer fees for adequate replacements. Consequently, sport managers need to set policies for an employee friendly environment and install adequate incentives to retain their human capital. While HRM literature has widely discussed the effectiveness of monetary and non-monetary incentives on retention and turnover, sport management literature to date mainly focused on outcome variables such as athlete satisfaction (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998) or performance indicators as winning percentages or league standings (e.g. Franck & Nüesch, 2011; Breunig, Garrett-Rumba, Jardin, & Rocaboy, 2013). Considering the economic relevance of this issue, the identification of direct drivers for retention in professional team sports is still a substantial research gap in sport management literature.

Value always depends on the context (Vargo & Lusch, 2008) and therefore also the effectiveness of incentives is closely linked to the context (Latham & Pinder, 2005). As a consequence, it seems likely that results of studies in non-sport related industries cannot be transferred to the team sports context without further qualification. Furthermore, results from studies on other employee groups within the sport context, such as coaches or sport officials, cannot be analogously transferred to the context of professional athletes. Motive structures vary and thus the effectiveness of incentives differ as well. Accordingly, context-dependent incentives for professional athletes in team sports have to be identified.

Giving an overview of HRM and organisational behaviour literature in sports, Doherty (1998) shows that only one tenth of literature is focused on entry or turnover of organisation members. Until today research in this field is rarely conducted. Although several studies on factors for retention or turnover of coaches (Cunningham & Sagas, 2003; Pastore, Inglis, & Danylchuk, 1996;

Rundle-Thiele & Auld, 2009; Ryan & Sagas, 2009), referees (Rainey, 1995, 1999), staff or sport officials (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010; Taylor, Daniel, Leith, & Burke, 1990), and college or other non-professional athletes (Adler & Adler, 1988) exist, we could not find any empirical evidence for the effects of organisational incentives on turnover of professional athletes. The lack of research and quantitative empirical data in this field is mainly due to severe problems of access to professional team sport athletes.

Analyzing the performance of Chinese baseball clubs and undertaking further laboratory experiments, Chang (2011) found that a stable workforce is a crucial factor in the promotion of group dynamics and overall performance of a team. Thus, as retention is a key driver for performance, knowledge about the influence of non-monetary factors, such as incentives of the organisational environment, on turnover or turnover intention could also be used to create a performance enhancing environment within professional sports clubs. Particularly with regard to salary caps and scarcity of financial resources, the relevance of non-monetary incentives in sport management is of tremendous importance.

## **2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

### **2.1 Non-monetary Incentives and Turnover Intention**

HRM literature discussed a wide range of factors influencing employee retention and reasons for turnover. Many studies show that non-monetary incentives can cause positive effects on retention (Fairris, 2004; Hsu, Jiang, Klein, & Tang, 2003). Recent research often focused on different facets of organisational support. In a meta-analysis Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer (2011) identified two areas of research in this field: The organisational support related to family issues and the perceived organisational support in general. Both aspects are relevant in our research project.

Supportive policies for one, but also emotional support and understanding for family issues, seem to be important for employees (Lu et al., 2009). Several studies indicate that conflicts between family and work negatively influence affective outcomes and behavioural outcomes like turnover. Cegarra-Leiva, Sánchez-Vidal, & Gabriel Cegarra-Navarro (2012) showed that supporting the work-life balance of employees positively influences their satisfaction. In addition, they found strong evidence for a negative relation of satisfaction and turnover intention. Generally, there is little doubt that satisfaction can influence turnover intention. Nevertheless, recent research tends to investigate direct relationships between predictors as incentives and outcomes as turnover intention (Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007). Conflicts of work and family can cause various kinds of nonattendance behaviours like, for instance, leaving work early (Boyar, Maertz, & Pearson, 2005). Using a sample of 1228 employees Yamamoto (2011) claimed a strong relationship of  $-0.37$  between family friendly policies and withdrawal cognition. In order to handle competing demands of work and family, employees with parental obligations even have higher needs for family friendly policies. Aryee, Luk, & Stone (1998) showed that work-family support of the supervisors substantially decreases turnover intention of employed parents. Further results were found by Carr, Boyar, & Gregory (2007). Their study indicates that work interfering with family strongly increases voluntary turnover and their results also show that employees, that attach relatively high importance to family, are more likely to respond negatively to family issues caused by work. Family friendly policies are a fairly broad concept. Examples for family friendly

policies are flexible working hours, opportunities to work from home, part-time working arrangements, job sharing, health benefits for self and family or childcare centers (Baral & Bhargava, 2010). Existing research merely grasps a few aspects of family friendly policies.

Considering the circumstances of professional team sports many of the above mentioned family friendly policies are not applicable. Furthermore, irregular working schedules, frequent player trades and related relocations as well as high media attention for players and families lead to inevitably high potential for work-family conflict. Therefore, different aspects of family friendly policies could play a central role in this particular context and need to be further investigated.

The majority of studies focused on supervisory and organisational support for employees' family needs. Besides family-related aspects, perceived support of one's organisation in general can influence turnover intention. In a meta-analysis Rhoades & Eisenberger (2002) found a strong negative relationship between perceived organisational support and turnover intention. Perceived support of the organisation can be related but is not limited to work-family issues and has to be investigated accordingly.

## **2.2 Incentives, Motives, and Context**

We have analyzed human motivation literature in order to understand the process and determinants of human needs and motives as antecedents of behaviour or behavioural intention. Earlier content theories as Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943) or Herzberg's two-factor theory (1974) focus on human needs and motives. They try to explain how particular motives influence behaviour and how those motives can change over time. Process theories like Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) or Locke's goal setting theory (1968) concentrate on cognitive processes and deliberate decisions towards a particular behaviour. Although psychological motivation literature is fairly divergent, most findings show that motivation towards a particular behaviour is the result of the fit of individual motives and adequate incentives (Rheinberg, 2002). In order to explain human motivations through incentives, we directly focus on cognitive processes and the relation of incentives and turnover intention instead of concentrating on individual motives or traits. To reduce the complexity of interrelations between individual motives or traits and incentives and in order to get useful management

implications, latest research rather concentrates on context related differences than on motive related differences of effects of particular incentives (Kanfer, Chen, & Pritchard, 2008). The underlying principle here is that employees in one particular context have similar motive structures and therefore are responsive to the same incentives.

Research on preferences of employees towards job attributes in different contexts supports the relevance of context. First, Lindahl (1949) presented a list of relevant job attributes at the workplace. Based on this or with slightly adapted attributes other researchers studied employee preferences in different contexts. Hersey & Blanchard (1969) analyzed employees' preferences on job attributes in the United States. Later, those results were further investigated by other researchers in different countries (e.g. Fisher & Yuan, 1998; Islam & Ismail, 2008; Jurgensen, 1978; Kovach, 1980, 1987; Silverthorne, 1992; Wiley, 1997). Their results indicate that culture, as one possible contextual factor, can influence the preferences of employees. As those studies on preferences of job attributes for employees in different cultures show, the context seems to have tremendous impact on whether an incentive is adequate or not. Instead of focusing on possible effects of incentives this particular research line only concentrates on actual preferences of employees in different contexts. Considering that motivations (e.g. motivation for turnover) are largely determined by cognitive processes, it seems obvious that the varying preferences of employees towards particular incentives in different contexts allow the assumption that actual effects on motivations or behaviour are varying in a similar way. Consequently, the results of this research on preferences towards incentives in non-sport related businesses cannot be analogously transferred to the context of professional sports without further qualification or adjustments. Hence, we conducted a qualitative study in order to identify relevant aspects for supervisory and organisational support in general and also related to family issues in the context of professional team sport athletes.

### 3 STUDY 1 AND HYPOTHESES

12 professional male athletes from basketball, football, handball, and hockey teams between 1st and 4th league participated in the study. Athletes were between 18 and 32 years old. The goal of this study was to get insights into the work and social life of professional team sports athletes in order to identify relevant incentives for motivation and retention of players. To reach a better understanding of the athletes' work and social situation and to formulate hypotheses later on, we applied an exploratory research design. Semi-structured interviews were used and interview length was Ø 29 minutes. Sample questions are 'Do you feel well in your actual club? Why/Why not?' or 'What would be reasons for you to sign with another club?'. All interviews were transcribed, paraphrased and coded. Content analysis according to Meuser & Nagel (2005) was conducted by two independent researchers to bundle the coded paraphrases into specific categories of incentives. The researchers compared results and discussed differences until agreement was reached. Results were compared to existing literature and new aspects were identified.

Among others, three new aspects concerning organisational support were identified: integration of family (IOF), second career support (SCS), and private problem support (PPS). As many players change their clubs frequently, players stated that in the short run it is hard for their families to make friends in the new environment, which makes them feel uncomfortable and leads to family issues. Integration of family is the effort a club makes to integrate but also the actual degree of succeeded integration of the partner and family in the environment of the club. Integrating family or partners into the club community, where they can meet other players' families, chat, and make friends potentially makes them feel more comfortable in the new environment, which therefore might lead to lower turnover intention of players.

*Hypothesis 1 (H1): Integration of players' families into the club community leads to lower turnover intention of the players.*

Apart from family issues, several of the interviewed players had serious concerns about their future occupational perspectives. Most of the players did not consider themselves financially independent after their career. Athletes were afraid of getting injured and suddenly being forced to drop out of professional sports. All of

the interviewed athletes already engaged, or planned to do so, in a second career such as correspondence courses or coaching classes. Clubs can support their players in taking up a second career by offering access to further qualifications or should at least give the players time and space to enable them to take care of their second career themselves. We defined second career support as: Perspectives, which a club provides through its structures, active support, and offers, which encourage the development of an alternative career during or after the sportive career. Clubs which support the second career of their players are attractive. This could lead to higher retention rates.

*Hypothesis 2 (H2): Second career support by the clubs leads to lower turnover intention of the players.*

The daily routine of professional team sports athletes demands a high level of commitment and dedication. Investing much effort and time in travelling, practicing, and playing, many of the interviewed players admitted that they struggle with the trivia of everyday life, for instance dealing with paperwork and bureaucratic affairs. Support in private problems is the willingness, authority, and reliability of the club or its employees to solve non-sport related problems of the players. Coping with non-sport related problems seems to be interfering with the daily routine of a high performance athlete. Players expressed high appreciation, if the club takes on their private problems, so they can focus on the sport.

*Hypothesis 3 (H3): Private problem support by the clubs leads to lower turnover intention of players.*

While the above mentioned incentives were relevant to all interviewed athletes, the younger athletes seemed to attach a particular importance to them. Considering the fact that motives can shift over time, an age-related change in preferences is theoretically more than conceivable. Therefore, we expect age to moderate the relationship of the raised hypotheses 1-3 positively.

*Hypothesis 4a (H4a): Age moderates the relationship between integration of family and turnover intention of players, whereas the negative association between integration and turnover intention is stronger when age is low.*

*Hypothesis 4b (H4b): Age moderates the relationship between second career support and turnover intention of players, whereas the negative association between second career support and turnover intention is stronger when age is low.*

*Hypothesis 4c (H4c): Age moderates the relationship between private problem support and turnover intention of players, whereas the negative association between private problem support and turnover intention is stronger when age is low.*

## 4 STUDY 2

As qualitative research is an effective way to understand the social and cultural contexts in which people live and to gain insights of a particular recipient group, it can be used to generate new hypotheses. A shortcoming of qualitative methods is that results cannot be generalized to a larger population (Meyers, 2013). A triangulation of qualitative and quantitative methods is useful to provide valid management implications (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Study 2 is a quantitative approach to examine the raised hypotheses from the qualitative Study 1.

### 4.1 Method

#### 4.1.1 *Data Collection and Participants*

Since only fully professional team sports athletes were eligible to take part in the study, the overall population of potential participants was rather limited. A suitable context for the data collection was critical for the success of the study. Data was conducted from professional sports teams in Germany. As there is no competitive college sport in Europe, talented young athletes get in the professional club sport system at a younger age compared to other systems like in North America (Fort, 2000). This led to the setup of a broad professional league system in Europe, which makes it a suitable context for the data collection. The four main German team sports football, basketball, ice hockey, and handball all operate more than one professional league and thus offer a comparably broad set of eligible players for the study. While the German basketball and handball federations, Deutscher Basketball Bund (DBB) and Deutscher Handball Bund (DHB), operate two professional leagues each, the Deutscher Eishockey Bund (DEB) even runs three professional ice hockey leagues and the Deutscher Fußball Bund (DFB) runs four leagues with professional football teams.

Besides a rather small set of eligible participants, studies in this field are also rare because the clubs protect their players against any external sources of irritation, which causes difficulties in assessing primary data from players. Thus, we generated a sizable sampling frame using three complementary ways to get access to the teams and their players. First, the authors' personal networks to team managers, general managers, athletes and coaches were used to establish first contact with the clubs. Then, responsible officials within the club hierarchies,

which could authorize a data collection with the players, had to be identified. Said persons were informed of procedure, purpose, and the importance of the research. In addition the questionnaire had often to be sent to the club officials beforehand in order to get final authorization. Apart from personal contacts of the authors, league officials were informed about the project and the potential value of its results for retaining good players in the clubs and thereby also in the league. League officials from two of the four sports could be convinced and supported the project by advising the clubs to take part in the study. Clubs which were interested in the project were informed of procedure and purpose of the study and questionnaires were sent out. The third way to recruit clubs was canvassing from door to door by contacting the clubs via telephone and email. With a response rate of < 5% the third option was rather inefficient. Players having to focus on their sport and them having no time was the main reason of the clubs not to participate. In order to obtain reliable data from the players, online-surveys were no appropriate alternative. Since sensitive questions were asked, promises had to be made to the players, that team officials will not have access to the answered questionnaires, the physical presence of the researchers on site at the clubs was essential to get reliable data and high participation (Child & Möllering, 2003). Individual appointments with the clubs were made. Clubs provided training or social facilities at the stadiums or training centers for the data collection. After explaining the procedure of the survey and guaranteeing anonymity to players, club officials and coaches were asked to leave the room and the surveys were handed out to the players. Players were seated in distance in order to avoid interactions.

Using all three data collection tactics a total of 315 players from 19 different teams agreed to participate. The sample consists of players from three out of the four chosen sports and is composed of 158 hockey players, 95 football players and 59 handball players. None of the contacted basketball teams took part in the study. Participants are between 19 and 36 years old with an average age of 24. Regarding the nationality of the players, 85% are German and 15% are players of other nationalities.

#### *4.1.2 Measures*

The questionnaire consists of 46 questions. In interest of consistency all responses were provided on a seven-point Likert scale from 'strongly disagree (1)' to

‘strongly agree (7)’. Due to the sensitive character of some questions, forced answers could have decreased reliability of the data. Therefore, participants also had the chance to choose the option ‘I cannot judge’ for each question. Questionnaires were available in German and English language. The measures for IOF, SCS and PPS were developed for this study. A scale development process based on Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma (2003) was applied. Items were derived from responses of Study 1 and were checked for face validity by interviews with several players and coaches. In order to purify the items, a pilot testing with 85 semi-professional athletes was conducted. Psychometric properties of the pilot study were tested with exploratory factor analysis (EFA) via SPSS and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) via AMOS. Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  values were all above .87. EFA over all items extracted three factors while 75.5 % of variance was explained. Factor loadings were above .76.

*Turnover intention (TOI).* The dependent variable turnover intention measures the players’ tendency to leave the organisation or club. It was assessed with a 3-item scale from Jaros (1997). The three items are “I often think about quitting this organization.”, “I would likely search for a position with another employer.”, and “It is likely that I will leave the organisation in the next year.”. Internal consistency of the scale was acceptable ( $\alpha = .77$ ). Tett & Meyer (1993) show that turnover intention/withdrawal cognition is the strongest predictor for turnover and therefore a useful alternative if actual turnover cannot be measured directly. In the context of professional team sports, transfer periods, terms and remaining contract length restrict voluntary turnover. If the athlete has a valid contract, the club has to approve the transfer. Athletes can be forced to stay with a club until the expiry of the contract duration. Therefore, turnover intention is a more appropriate construct than actual turnover in regard of measuring the effects of incentives in the context of professional team sports.

*Integration of family (IOF).* We developed a 3-item scale for integration of family. The internal consistency after Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  was .83. The items were: “The club tries to make my family/partner feel well in the environment of the club.”, “My club tries to integrate my family/partner.”, and “My family/partner is well integrated in the environment of the club.”.

*Second career support (SCS).* Second career support was measured with a 3-item scale ( $\alpha = .88$ ) consisting of the following items: “My club supports

me, if I try to build up a professional career besides my career as a player.”, “My club provides me with opportunities to build up prospects for the life after my active sports career.”, and “My club offers structures which enable me to achieve further education and qualification besides the active sports career.”

*Private problem support (PPS).* The measure for private problem support contains four items ( $\alpha = .85$ ). The four items are “The club relieves me by solving my non-sport related problems”, “I can count on the persons in the club supporting me if I have problems.”, “The club helps me with organisational or administrative matters and paperwork”, and “I feel that I can always turn to the club when I have problems.”.

#### 4.1.3 Common Method Bias

As the research design of the study bears the inherent risk of common method bias, Harman’s post hoc single-factor test was conducted. Harman’s single factor test is one of the most widely used tests to address the issue of common method bias. (Organ & Greene, 1981; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). An EFA was applied and the unrotated solution revealed 4 factors which explained 74.5 % of the variance. The strongest factor accounts for 38.3 % of the variance, which is rather moderate for an EFA with 4 factors. Therefore, common method bias should not to be an issue in this study.

## 4.2 Analysis and Results

### 4.2.1 Measure Validation

We assessed the validity of our measures using CFA ( $\chi^2 = 156.41$ ;  $df = 59$ ;  $p < .001$ ;  $RMSEA = .077$ ) via Amos for SPSS 20.0. The results of the measurement models appear in Table 1. Fit indices for reliability (Cronbach’s alphas  $> .77$ ; AVE  $> .50$ ) suggest adequate scales and in general we exhibit a good fit of the measurement models to the data. To address the issue of discriminant validity, we applied Fornell & Larcker’s (1981) test. All measures fulfill the test’s requirements. Therefore the constructs discriminate sufficiently.

**TABLE 1**  
**Measurement Model Results**

Factors and Items	Standardized Loadings
<b>Turnover intention</b>	
TOI_1	.48 <sup>b</sup>
TOI_2	.90 (13.53)
TOI_3	.84 (11.87)
<b>Integration of family</b>	
IOF_1	.80 <sup>b</sup>
IOF_2	.85 (11.87)
IOF_3	.74 (13.93)
<b>Second career support</b>	
SCS_1	.86 <sup>b</sup>
SCS_2	.89 (17.08)
SCS_3	.78 (14.92)
<b>Private problem support</b>	
PPS_1	.70 <sup>b</sup>
PPS_2	.84 (12.51)
PPS_3	.66 (10.20)
PPS_4	.89 (12.75)

*Notes: t-values are reported in parentheses; b = Fixed parameters.*

#### 4.2.2 Hypotheses Testing

Table 2 shows the correlation matrix and descriptive statistics of the measures. We used structural equation modelling with LISREL 8.80 to test the model and hypotheses H1-H3. The first model in Figure 1, which examines hypotheses H1-H3, the effects of IOF, SCS, and PPS on turnover intention provided the following fit to the data:  $\chi^2 = 129.08$ ,  $df = 59$ ,  $p = .00$ ;  $RMSEA = .06$ ;  $GFI = .93$ ;  $AGFI = .90$ ;  $NFI = .96$ ,  $NNFI = .97$ ;  $CFI = .98$ . Therefore conventional standards for good fit were reached. Figure 1 shows the model and path coefficients. The paths representing hypotheses H1-H3 are all significant and in the expected direction.

**TABLE 2**  
**Means, standard deviations, correlations and reliabilities**

	<b>TOI</b>			<b>IOF</b>			<b>SCS</b>			<b>PPS</b>				<b>MEAN</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	
	<b>TOI_1</b>	<b>TOI_2</b>	<b>TOI_3</b>	<b>IOF_1</b>	<b>IOF_2</b>	<b>IOF_3</b>	<b>SCS_1</b>	<b>SCS_2</b>	<b>SCS_3</b>	<b>PPS_1</b>	<b>PPS_2</b>	<b>PPS_3</b>	<b>PPS_4</b>			
<b>Turnover intention (TOI)</b>																
TOI_1	1.0														2.30	1.72
TOI_2	.43	1.0													3.17	2.00
TOI_3	.37	.76	1.0												3.33	2.01
<b>Integration of family (IOF)</b>																
IOF_1	-.24	-.32	-.33	1.0											3.92	1.60
IOF_2	-.21	-.21	-.27	.69	1.0	(.75)									3.21	1.56
IOF_3	-.26	-.30	-.30	.55	.63	1.0									3.63	1.62
<b>Second career support (SCS)</b>																
SCS_1	-.11	-.25	-.25	.17	.18	.25	1.0								3.79	1.92
SCS_2	-.14	-.24	-.24	.16	.18	.26	.77	1.0	(.88)						3.55	1.90
SCS_3	-.14	-.18	-.22	.16	.20	.27	.65	.68	1.0						3.58	1.90
<b>Private problem support (PPS)</b>																
PPS_1	-.33	-.25	-.23	.42	.36	.32	.27	.27	.33	1.0					3.61	1.75
PPS_2	-.34	-.31	-.31	.38	.32	.31	.31	.32	.29	.57	1.0				4.80	1.69
PPS_3	-.28	-.24	-.16	.41	.37	.30	.06	.04	.02	.55	.49	1.0	(.85)		4.19	1.86
PPS_4	-.38	-.36	-.31	.44	.39	.32	.28	.28	.27	.61	.75	.61	1.0		4.54	1.76

Notes:  $n = 306$ ; Correlation coefficients greater .06 are significant at  $p < .01$ ; reliability coefficients are in parentheses; interconstruct correlations are in bold numbers; S.D. = standard deviation.

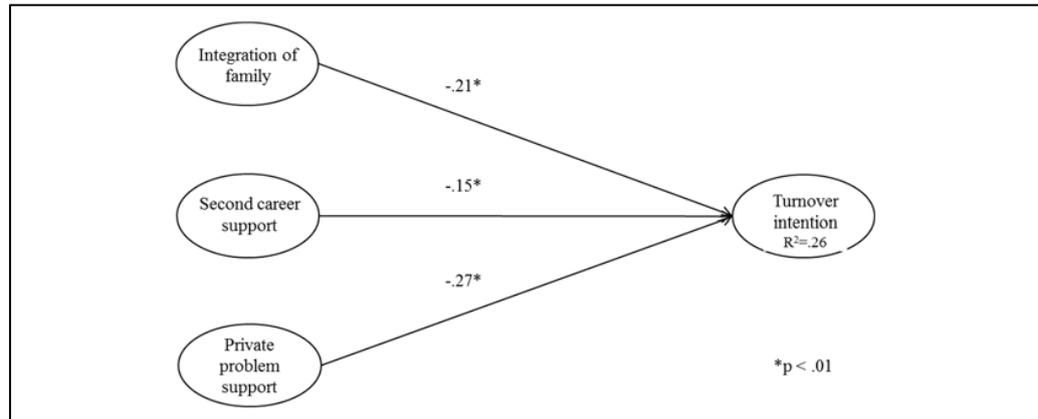


Figure 1: Model and Path Coefficients

Integration of family ( $\beta = -.21$ ,  $p < .01$ ), second career support ( $\beta = -.15$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and private problem support ( $\beta = -.27$ ,  $p < .01$ ) are all relevant to turnover intention. All of the three independent variables show a negative effect on the dependent variable, so hypotheses H1-H3 are supported by the data. According to the results above, 26 % of variance of turnover intention can be explained by the model.

In addition to the direct effects, we used PROCESS for SPSS to calculate moderating effects of age of the respondents in order to test hypotheses H4a-H4c. Using model=1, PROCESS estimates a moderation by including an interaction term in a linear regression model of one independent variable and one dependent variable. Therefore, the product of the independent variable and the moderator variable is included as another predictor for the dependent variable (Hayes, 2013). We used factor scores instead of means or sum scores in order to represent the data of our study in a realistic way. Three different moderation models were estimated. An interaction term for each independent variable and the moderator was used to analyze if age moderates the effects of the independent variables IOF, SCS, and PPS on turnover intention. We found evidence that age moderates the relationship of IOF and turnover intention. The interaction term of IOF and age is significant on a .05 level ( $p = .03 < .05$ ). Hypothesis H4a is supported by the data. Table 3 shows the results of the moderation analysis of age on IOF - TOI.

**TABLE 3**  
**Regression analysis examining the moderation effect age on IOF – TOI**

	Coeff.	SE	t	P
Constant	-.01	.06	-.11	.92
Age	-.01	.01	-.92	.36
IOF	-.23	.06	-5.19	.00
int_1 (Age x IOF)	.02	.01	2.18	.03

Notes:  $R^2 = .09$ ;  $MSE = .93$ ;  $F(3, 290) = 9.444$ ;  $p = .00$ .

If substantive interpretation of regression coefficients in a regression model of the form  $Y = c + b1X + b2M + b3XM$  is possible, strongly depends on the scaling of X and M (Hayes 2013). The regression coefficient of M is estimated by manipulating  $X = 0$ . An interpretation of the coefficient of M in Table 3 is not appropriate as the age of professional athletes cannot be 0.

In order to analyze the conditional effects of age, Table 4 shows a comparison of athletes with high and low age. IOF has a substantially stronger negative effect on TOI for athletes with lower age ( $-.40$ ;  $p = .00 < .05$ ) than for those with higher age ( $-.18$ ;  $p = .001 < .05$ ).

Tests for moderation of age on the effects of SCS and PPS on TOI were not significant, hence age does not moderate any of these relations and H4b and H4c are not supported by the results of the study.

**TABLE 4**  
**Conditional Effects of Respondents with high and low Age**

Path	Parameter	Low age		High age			Interaction term		
		t-Value	p	Parameter	t-Value	p	Parameter	t-Value	p
IOF - TOI	-.40	-4.76	.00	-.18	-2.82	.01	.02	2.18	.03*
SCS -TOI	-.24	-2.76	.01	-.18	-2.18	.03	.01	.23	.66
PPS - TOI	-.34	-3.87	.00	-.34	-4.40	.00	.00	.01	.99

Notes: \* =  $p < .05$

## 5 DISCUSSION

This section discusses the main results presented in the previous chapter. In general, the results from the quantitative study 2 support the findings from the qualitative study 1. All three incentives, integration of family (IOF), second career support (SCS), and private problem support (PPS) have substantial negative effects on turnover intention of the players. So, players value the support they get from their clubs as it helps them to organize a functioning private life. Factors like irregular working hours and frequent team changes make it necessary to integrate players' families into the social environment of their clubs prior to them feeling uncomfortable with their private situation. If partners and families of the players feel isolated, this can lead to problems within the family that can have an immediate effect on the commitment of the players towards their clubs. Integration into the social environment of the clubs will give the players' families a feeling of being welcome and in good hands. The better the clubs manage to achieve the integration of family, the fewer problems between the players and their families might occur and the more focused and dedicated the players will be. Therefore, club managers should attach special importance to integrate the partners and families of their players. In addition to that, our results show that club managers should especially pay attention to the integration of families when it comes to younger athletes, because for them the effect on turnover intention is substantially stronger than for older athletes. A possible explanation for this might be that young athletes are less self-reliant and need the stable structure of a functioning family life to stay committed and dedicated to the team. Older athletes might be more experienced in coping with those kinds of problems and less influenced by familiar problems with regard to their professional life.

Additionally, our results show that the development of a second career is crucial to athletes. Reasons for this might be financial worries about the future or the lack of perspectives for challenging tasks after the sportive career. Clubs need to build structures for the support of a second career and offer help and assistance to consult their players with their career related anxieties. Examples for this second career support could be cooperations with schools and universities that help the athletes to gain qualifications for their professional career after the sport. Furthermore, clubs should invest in a business network that helps athletes to accomplish vocational trainings, because the majority of the athletes do not

continue his or her second career in a sports-related environment. Most of the athletes need to start their second career in other industries and businesses. The age of the players seems to be irrelevant for this issue. Older and younger athletes likewise value the support of their second career by the clubs.

The third factor that was analyzed in our research refers to the private problem support. With regard to our results, players are less likely to leave their clubs if they get support with any kind of private matters. This result might be based on the earlier mentioned circumstances related to the profession of team sports athletes. Players have to focus on their sport related tasks which are demanding and which make it hard to concentrate on trivial duties of their private life. This becomes even more evident, when we take into account that athletes are often far away from home and maybe even coming from another country. In those cases players need support in administrative affairs like visits to the authorities, for example. In order to assure that players do not get distracted by any kind of private matters, clubs need to be responsive, cooperative, and helpful in assisting and supporting their players with any problems on and off the field. Contrary to the prediction, that older athletes, based on their experience and maturity, are able to cope with their private matters themselves, private problem support seems to be as important for them as it is for the younger ones. Therefore, the clubs need to set structures which assure immediate and uncomplicated support in private problems for players of all ages.

## 6 CONCLUSION

The primary purpose of this research was to examine how non-monetary incentives influence professional team sport athletes' intention to leave their clubs. First, we had to identify relevant factors for this special sports context. By using qualitative research techniques in Study 1, we found three non-monetary factors to be important to professional athletes: integration of family, second career support, and private problem support. Although previous research on several incentives linked to family friendly policies and supervisory support already identified effects on turnover intention in other contexts (Aryee et al., 1998; Yamamoto, 2011), not one of the studies addressed the specific factors mentioned above and not one of them was in the context of professional athletes.

The results of the study show the importance of context, but also that the traditional focus on a dyadic relationship between players and the clubs is insufficient. Most studies in sport management only focus on this simple dyadic relationship between players and clubs. The importance of the influence of social groups such as families of players should not be neglected. This research acknowledges triadic relationships by including the family of players as social actors in the club-player relationship. Clubs are focal social actors where value is always co-created by firms, customers and other stakeholders (Woratschek, Horbel, & Popp, 2014). Including other stakeholders into the player-club relationship can help to identify context-relevant incentives and sharpens an understanding of the importance of relationship networks in sport management.

This research reveals several implications for practitioners, especially sports club managers. Our research proved that not only pay or bonuses are relevant to the players, but also non-monetary incentives of the organisational environment need to be addressed by the clubs in order to increase the retention of their players. Integration of family, second career support, and private problem support show a strong negative effect on turnover intention. Therefore, sports clubs need to create organisational and social structures that address those non-monetary incentives. Finally, being able to retain the best players will have a positive impact on the overall success of the sports clubs.

Future research needs to focus on the identification and analysis of further non-monetary incentives and their effect on turnover intention in professional team sports. In addition, effects on further relevant outcome variables, such as job

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satisfaction or performance, need to be analyzed. Therefore, research in this field should start to recognize the importance of other stakeholders and analyze the complex network of relationships.

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## **CHAPTER V: EMPLOYEE PERSPECTIVE II**

### **ANTECEDENTS OF PERFORMANCE: THE ROLE OF INCENTIVES AND JOB SATISFACTION IN PROFESSIONAL TEAM SPORTS**

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**Abstract:**

One of the key tasks for sport managers of professional sports clubs is to create the ideal environment that enables athletes to provide their best performance. This study investigates the relationship between incentives and athletic performance in professional team sports. Suggesting an indirect relationship via job satisfaction, the relative effect sizes of several non-monetary and monetary incentives are compared. An innovative approach of measuring player performance is applied using individual performance ratings of coaches. Data was collected with questionnaires from 315 athletes and 34 coaches of 19 professional football, ice hockey, and handball clubs in Germany. Although most studies in this field focus on monetary incentives, the findings of this study reveal a detrimental relevance of monetary incentives compared to non-monetary incentives. Therefore sport managers must start to incorporate non-monetary incentives into their management repertoire in order to improve job satisfaction of their players and consequently to facilitate top performance.

**Keywords:** Performance; Incentives; Job Satisfaction; Team Sports

## 1 INTRODUCTION

In professional sports, even a marginal increase of athletic performance can mean the difference between winning and losing. Performance strongly determines the sporting as well as the economic success of a sports club. Current research focuses on domains such as kinesiology, physiology, biomechanics, or coaching in order to maximize the performance of athletes. Those research streams deal with the issue of how coaches and trainers can improve their athletes' performance. However, research on how the management can influence performance is limited. Apart from literature about the effectiveness of salary or wage dispersion, there are only few studies analyzing further monetary incentives. For instance, potential effects of individual financial performance bonuses are neglected in most studies on the relation of pay and performance. Taking into account that most player contracts contain performance bonuses for parameters like wins, points, or goals, this aspect may not be overseen in research. Besides monetary incentives, the relation of non-monetary incentives and performance has not been investigated at all from the perspective of a professional team sports club. Furthermore, there are no studies analyzing the relative effectiveness of monetary and non-monetary factors. Particularly with regard to salary caps and scarce financial resources, knowledge about the relative effectiveness of incentives is crucial for an efficient allocation of those resources. As the effectiveness of incentives highly depends on the context (e.g. Fisher & Yuan, 1998; Latham & Pinder, 2005), results of non-sport related industries cannot be transferred to the context of professional team sports clubs without further qualification.

In general, literature shows three main problems that limit existing research. First, it is very difficult to access remuneration data from professional team sport clubs. While some leagues reveal team expenditures or sometimes even player salaries, data about performance related bonuses is usually not open to the public. Second, there is almost no primary quantitative data from professional team sports athletes concerning the effectiveness of incentives. Gathering primary quantitative data from professional team sports athletes always bears the difficulty of accessing an eligible data set. The population of professional athletes is small and clubs try to protect their players from external influences. Secondary data, gathered by leagues or private institutions such as sports magazines, usually is not usable to access psychographic variables like job satisfaction. Furthermore, collegiate or

non-professional athletes cannot be compared to professional athletes, as they are no employees and therefore research in this field incorporates different contextual factors. Third, existing approaches to measure the performance of team sports athletes are related to several shortcomings. Measures for team performance are not appropriate to measure the individual performance of athletes and existing approaches to measure individual performance provide inherent measurement problems. Econometrical approaches with objective performance indicators lack of validity and also in comparability between different sports. Subjective approaches, such as evaluations of presumed experts as journalists, lack of reliability.

This study provides three main contributions to this increasingly important area in sport management. First, we provide empirical support for the relationship of job satisfaction and performance in the context of professional team sports. Second, we analyze the relative impact of two monetary incentives (salary satisfaction and monetary bonuses) and three non-monetary incentives (integration of family, second career support, and private problem support) on job satisfaction. Third, we come up with an innovative approach to measure athletes' individual performance in team sports. Therefore, we use performance ratings by coaches for every player and match them to the athletes' answers concerning the incentives offered by their clubs.

We begin by explaining the role of incentives to avoid opportunistic behavior in sports. Then, we describe existing approaches of performance measurement in team sports and discuss apparent shortcomings. Based on this foundation, we present our conceptual model and suggested hypotheses. Subsequently, we describe our research design, validate the measures, and estimate a structural model in order to test the hypotheses. In this regard, we further test a moderation effect between one of the non-monetary incentives and job satisfaction. In addition, a rival approach, that relates incentives directly to performance, rather than supporting the proposed indirect effect via job satisfaction, is tested. Finally, we discuss the results of the study and provide implications for research and practice.

## **2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

### **2.1 Shirking in Sports**

Evidence of opportunistic behavior in sports has been explored in several studies. Although some studies indicate that there is no evidence for shirking (Krautmann, 1990; Maxcy, Fort, & Krautmann, 2002), most of recent findings in research could identify opportunistic behavior (Fernie & Metcalf, 1999; Frick, Prinz, & Winkelmann, 2003; Krautmann & Solow, 2009; Lehn, 1982; Scoggings, 1993; Stiroh, 2007). Especially athletes with long-term contracts tend to reduce their efforts strategically. Maxcy et al. (2002) investigated the performance of athletes in major league baseball over the duration of their contracts. The results showed that fixed salaries in long-term contracts provide a significant incentive for shirking. Frick (2011) analyzed two longitudinal data sets of German soccer players and identified an increase of 2-3 % in performance in the last year of their contract. This shows that athletes are able to and will in fact vary their effort strategically. Besides shirking and the strategic or possibly unconscious decrease of performance, opportunistic behavior can also be expressed through athletes not taking part in the actual competition. Lehn (1982) showed that players with multi-year contracts tend to spend considerably more time on the disabled list, than players with contract lengths of two years or less. Shirking or moral hazard in sports seems to be a relevant and actual issue and actions need to be taken by the clubs to defend against this opportunistic behavior. In order to decrease shirking and to provide a performance enhancing environment, clubs need to set adequate incentives.

Although most studies indicate that there is concrete evidence for shirking in sports, results strongly depend on the applied methodology and especially on the operationalization of athletes' performance. In the following, existing methods of performance measurement in sports are analyzed towards their applicability and potential shortcomings of each method are revealed.

### **2.2 Performance Measurement in Team Sports**

Performance measurement in team sports is discussed controversially. In individual sports, the evaluation of performance is comparably simple. Absolute numbers as strokes in golf (Ehrenberg & Bognanno, 1990; Melton & Zorn, 2000; Orszag, 1994) or time in various disciplines as marathon or horseracing (Frick &

Prinz, 2007; Lynch, 2005) are easy to measure and quite useful indicators. In team sports, the situation is more difficult. Sport management literature offers a wide variety of performance measurement approaches for team sports.

Most researchers used indicators of team performance in order to address this issue. Especially winning percentage (Berri & Jewell, 2004; Breunig, Garrett-Rumba, Jardin, & Rocaboy, 2013; Frick et al., 2003; Hall, Szymanski, & Zimbalist, 2002; Katayama & Nuch, 2011; Mondello & Maxcy, 2009; Simmons & Berri, 2011; Yamamura, 2008) is used to evaluate team performance. Apart from winning percentages, also indicators such as league standings (Franck & Nüesch, 2011; Ribeiro & Lima, 2012) or the number of won games (Jane, Ou, & Chen, 2011; Jane, San, & Ou, 2009) are used. Although the variable team performance seems to have the advantage of comparable indicators and appropriate data is easy to access, it is not usable for all issues. For example, it bears the inherent problem that a separation of team performance and individual performances is not possible. Therefore, team performance is not an appropriate construct to study effects of incentives, such as salary or bonuses on an individual level. Furthermore, the measurement of performance, based on winning percentages or the number of won games, is always influenced by external factors such as luck, opponents' performance or unfavorable refereeing (Courneya & Chelladurai, 1991). Moreover, wins and losses cannot reflect the relative performance of a team in relation to its resources (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998).

Apart from measuring team performance, some researchers use indicators for the individual performance of players. Mostly, objective game related indicators are used to measure players' individual performances: batting and slugging averages, home runs or hits in baseball (Ahlstrom, Si, & Kennelly, 1999; Harder, 1991; Krautmann & Solow, 2009; Ou & Wang, 2009; Sommers, 1994), goals, assists and fouls in football (Frey, Schaffner, Schmidt, & Torgler, 2013; Schmidt, Torgler, & Frey, 2009) or points, rebounds and steals in basketball (Berri & Krautmann, 2006; Stiroh, 2007). Most professional leagues gather this objective statistical numbers and data sets are available. Nevertheless, using those objective performance indicators is problematic. One critical issue refers to the lack of comparability between different team sports. Due to the varying nature of the different team sports, indicators are hardly comparable, so they have to be established for every single sport separately. Apart from this, the analysis of the

great variety of objective indicators, used in studies within the same sport, shows that there is no agreement among researchers about the most relevant indicators of player performance. Even comparisons between studies within one sport are only possible to a limited extent. The lack of comparability is not the only problem of said objective indicators. Any of the above-mentioned objective indicators can only explain isolated aspects of the variable performance. Even a combination of several objective indicators offers only a very limited and narrow perspective of the complex structure of player's performance. For example, effort, teamwork, tactical performance in the game or effort and development in practice sessions (Riener & Chelladurai, 1998) cannot be assessed by any of the above-mentioned indicators, but still are relevant aspects of performance in most team sports.

Recently, more subjective performance indicators have been introduced, such as overall player ratings of presumed experts like sports journalists (Della Torre, Giangreco, & Maes, 2014, Frick, 2011). Subjective performance indicators display a better overall picture of all performance-relevant aspects of the game and provide the chance to compare performances over different sports. Nevertheless, player ratings of experts have their shortcomings, too. First, the validity of the measure itself is questionable. Both Frick (2011) and Della Torre et al. (2014) do neither provide detailed information about the expertise of the journalists, nor about the specific criteria on which the player ratings are based on. The second shortcoming is the outside perspective of journalists. Usually, journalists do not have any knowledge about the specific individual tasks the coach gives to the players. Without knowing the particular tactical tasks of every player, a realistic and fair performance evaluation is simply not possible.

Consequently, the players themselves and the coaches are the only experts, which have all necessary information and therefore are capable to evaluate and rate a player's performance. Some studies (e.g. Riener & Chelladurai, 1998; Baruch, Wheeler, & Zhao, 2004) used self-evaluations of players to assess individual performance. Although this approach can be seen as superior to most other approaches mentioned above, it is associated with other problems. First, it is questionable if athletes are able and willing to evaluate their own performance realistically. Second, studies that use self-evaluations to measure individual performance as a dependent variable are likely to be influenced by common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Third, athletes on

the field might have a limited perspective on the game. While athletes only perceive actions in their narrow environment, coaches can take the role of an authority, external observer and expert. In summary, existing methods for performance measurement of players in team sports have several limitations. A valid and unbiased performance measurement in team sports therefore needs to be based on individual ratings by coaches. This study uses individual performance ratings of coaches to evaluate player performance and therefore overcomes existent shortcomings of prevalent approaches.

### 3 CONCEPTUAL MODEL

The research about antecedents of satisfaction of athletes is a well-established field in sport management literature (Doherty, 1998). However, studies in the context of professional athletes are rare. Due to the above-mentioned difficult accessibility of data from those athletes, the outcomes of several monetary and non-monetary incentives remain unsettled. It is crucial for the effectiveness of an incentive that it is valuable to the recipient. Therefore an incentive has to fit to the physiological and psychological needs of the player (Maslow, 1943). Value in sport management always depends on context (Woratschek, Horbel, & Popp, 2014). Therefore, identifying context-relevant incentives is the key to assure satisfaction. We included five context-relevant incentives in our model. With regard to monetary incentives, we included salary satisfaction and monetary bonuses. Analyzing the effects of monetary incentives, salary satisfaction can be seen as a superior indicator compared to absolute salary numbers. High salaries and club budgets attract better players. Therefore the performance of a team might increase although players are shirking. In order to analyze the motivational effects to perform better, salary satisfaction is a more appropriate indicator as it is not directly correlated to the sportive quality of a player. Concerning professional athletes, sport management literature mainly focuses on a direct relationship of level of pay or club budgets and performance (e.g. Hall et al., 2002; Katayama & Nuch, 2011). Rather than a direct effect on performance, we assume an indirect positive effect of salary satisfaction via job satisfaction. However, studies from other industries are not consistent, a meta-analysis of Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw, and Rich (2010) showed a mean correlation of (.15) between pay satisfaction and job satisfaction. The second monetary incentive, monetary bonuses, has not been dedicated much attention in research so far. The study of Baruch et al. (2004) first discusses a possible relation between performance related pay and individual performance in team sports. Findings from Mondello and Maxcy (2009) could not confirm a significant positive relationship of bonuses and performance on a team level. Preliminary field interviews with professional athletes revealed that most contracts include performance-related bonuses. As performance related bonuses could be considered as fair, they might lead to higher satisfaction of the athletes.

According to non-monetary incentives, we included three variables from a mixed methods study on drivers for retention of professional team sports athletes from Maier, Woratschek, and Ströbel (2013). The three incentives were integration of family (IOF), second career support (SCS), and private problem support (PPS). A successful integration of a player's family in the social environment of their clubs increases the well-being of the athletes' families and therefore decreases problems between the athletes and their families. Relevant studies on family-work conflict and work-family conflict showed a negative relation with job satisfaction (Calvo-Salguero, Martínez-De-Lecea, & Carrasco-González, 2011). Therefore, IOF might lead to a higher satisfaction of athletes. According to this, we further suggest a decreasing relevance of IOF in relation to the time a player is within an organization (TWO). Over time, players' families are able to integrate themselves without the help of the club. The second variable, second career support by the clubs should limit the uncertainty and anxieties of athletes concerning their life after the sports career. Professional athletes appreciate direct support and supportive structures for the development of a second career. According to this, we assume a positive relation between SCS and job satisfaction. The third non-monetary incentive, private problem support, aims at the idea that challenges of everyday life (e.g. problems with paperwork) can lead to a distraction from the sport. A reduction of those problems through help of the clubs could lead to a higher job satisfaction of an athlete. Literature already discussed the positive effects of similar variables, such as perceived organizational support or supervisor support, on job satisfaction in other contexts (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Griffin, Patterson, & West, 2001). Based on the idea that athletes do not want to be distracted from their main task, their sport, we assume that PPS has even stronger effects on job satisfaction than perceived organizational support in other contexts. As those organizational incentives concern the everyday life and well-being of the athletes, it is conceivable that they have a direct influence on their job satisfaction.

The relation of satisfaction and performance has been subject of one of the most controversial discussions in human resource management (HRM) literature. Research goes back to the beginnings of human relations theory and the Hawthorne studies in the late 1920's (Schwab & Cummings, 1970). Since then, numerous researchers have discussed intensity and direction of this relation. The

most contested aspect deals with the direction of the influence: satisfaction → performance or rather performance → satisfaction. The relation performance → satisfaction is based on the idea that performance leads to valued outcomes, which in turn lead to satisfaction. This idea goes along with Vroom's review and theory of 1964. Although this idea is theoretically comprehensible, the majority of studies do not find a significant relationship (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001); rather, studies have mostly found the satisfaction → performance relationship. However, the effect sizes often were relatively low. Iaffaldano and Muchinsky's (1985) meta-analysis shows a consistent effect between OJS and performance, with a mean correlation of .17. Nevertheless, consistency is lacking in different contexts, and thus if and how strong OJS influences performance of elite team sports athletes has not yet been proven. It is conceivable that players who are satisfied with their organizational environment and related incentives tend to increase effort in practice and games to maximize their performance. High individual performance increases the chance that athletes will receive a follow-up contract and thus stay in the satisfying environment of their current club.

Figure 1 shows the conceptual model and the suggested hypotheses of the study.

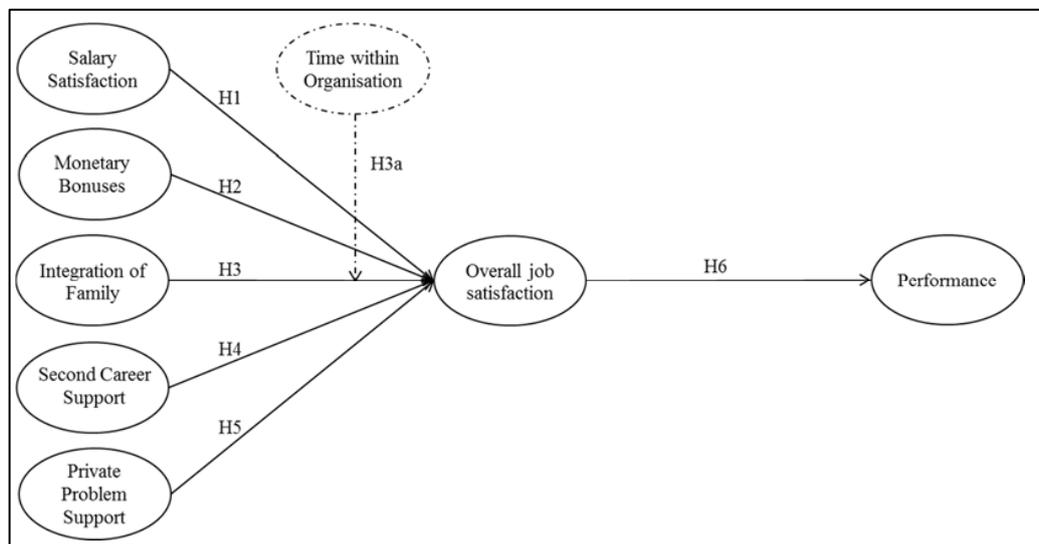


Figure 1. Conceptual Model

## 4 METHOD

### 4.1 Participants and Data Collection

The data was collected from 315 professional players and 34 coaches of 19 different teams in Germany. In order to increase observed variance and

generalizability of the findings, the sample consisted of different leagues in three team sports, namely football, ice hockey, and handball. All participants played on a professional level, by means that none of the participants had amateur status. 85 % of the participants were German. The average age of the participants was 24. The data was collected by two different questionnaires for athletes and coaches. Athletes answered questions on incentives and job satisfaction. As some of the questions addressed sensitive information, the data was collected at the clubs' venues with physical presence of at least two researchers in order to assure reliability. Consequently, athletes could be guaranteed that neither club managers nor coaches were able to see their answers. Coaches had to answer several questionnaires, as they had to evaluate the performances for all of their athletes individually. Either one or two coaches of each team had to rate the players on six aspects. In order to avoid internal arguments and discussions between coaches and players, also coaches wanted their evaluations to be handled confidentially. Therefore, players at no time had access to their performance evaluations. Nevertheless, it was necessary to match athletes' questionnaires with the corresponding individual performance evaluation of their coaches. An innovative and rather unconventional approach of data collection was applied. Coaches' performance evaluations were put in individual envelopes with name tags of each athlete on it and were handed back to the researchers. Athletes, waiting in a different room, then were asked to fill out their questionnaires. In order to prevent biased answers, athletes were not told that coaches evaluated their performance. After the athletes had answered the questions, their questionnaires were put in the corresponding envelope, already containing their individual performance evaluation. Finally, the name tags were ripped away from the envelopes, in order to guarantee the promised anonymity to the players.

## **4.2 Measures**

All measures have been extracted from previous research. Wording was adapted to the sports context. In order to keep the questionnaire as simple as possible for the target group, it did not contain any reverse coded items. If necessary for contextual reasons, scales were modified on the basis of field interviews and pretests.

The questionnaires consisted of 46 questions. Recipients had to answer all questions on a seven-point Likert scale from ‘strongly disagree (1)’ to ‘strongly agree (7)’. Furthermore, the option ‘I cannot judge’ was provided in order to increase reliability if participants preferred not to answer sensitive questions. Questionnaires were available in German and English language. A brief description of the measures is provided below. A complete overview of all items can be found in the Appendix.

*Integration of family (IOF)*, *second career support (SCS)* and *private problem support (PPS)*. All three scales are derived from Maier et al. (2013) and consist of three to four items. The scales were developed through a stepwise scale development process (Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003) particularly for the context of professional team sports athletes. The scale for IOF includes the effort a club takes to integrate the family as well as the actual integration of the family or partner of the athlete. A sample item for IOF is “My family/partner is well integrated in the environment of the club.” SCS includes the support, structures, and opportunities a club provides to build up a second career. A sample item of SCS is “My club supports me, if I try to build up a professional career besides my career as a player.” On the one hand, PPS is based on the aspect that the athletes feel supported by their clubs, and on the other hand that the clubs actually solve problems and help with trivial duties of everyday life. A sample item for the scale of PPS is “The club relieves me by solving my non-sport related problems.” Therefore, the scale describes a more active role of the employer than existing scales for variables as perceived organizational support (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 1997) or supervisor support (e.g. Griffin et al., 2001).

*Salary satisfaction (SAL)* and *monetary bonuses (MBO)*. A three-item scale describes SAL. The SAL scale is borrowed from Fey (2005). The original variable was named salary. As the items mainly describe how satisfying a player is concerning his salary, we use the more adequate labelling salary satisfaction. A sample item for SAL is “I am satisfied with my salary level”. MBO is a modified version of bonus salary from Fey (2005). To adapt the scale to the context, items were refined and new items were added. Four researchers and field interviews with six players confirmed content validity of the new scale. An additional pretest was conducted to refine the scale.

*Overall job satisfaction (OJS).* In previous research, three kinds of scales have been used to measure job satisfaction. The first type of measurement is the single item measure. Although single item measures are frequently used in order to reduce questionnaire length, they bear the problem of a reduced reliability compared to multi-item measures. The second type refers to multifaceted satisfaction scales. Here, the measurement of satisfaction is represented by satisfaction with different kinds of job characteristics. In sports management literature, especially the athlete satisfaction questionnaire by Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) got broad recognition. One problem of the multifaceted scales is their large number of items. The athlete satisfaction scale, for instance, consists of 15 dimensions and 56 items. The scale was developed in the context of university students and college athletes. Most of the participating clubs in our study offered only a limited time frame for the data collection. Hence, in the context of this study a multifaceted satisfaction scale was inadequate, as it was too long. Apart from the time aspect, there are further reasons why multifaceted satisfaction scales can be seen critical. First, multifaceted scales might include aspects, which are not relevant to the individual respondent. Second, and even more problematic, the scale could omit a descriptive component, which interferes with the affective evaluation of the given job (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Besides single item scales and multifaceted scales, many authors use multi-item scales to access a global or overall evaluation of job satisfaction. Although those scales are rarely used in sports management literature, they are widely used in HRM literature. To assess job satisfaction, we used three items from Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh (1983) from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire. A sample item is: "In general, I like working here".

*Performance (PERF).* As mentioned above, existing measures to assess the performance of team sports athletes are associated with several shortcomings. To overcome the existing problems, we adapted a concept of performance evaluation from management literature. According to this concept, regardless of the context, a performance evaluation should capture the following three aspects: effectiveness, efficiency, and responsiveness (Robson, Katsikeas, & Bello, 2008). Although the scale of Robson et al. (2008) had been used to assess performance rather related to company performance than to human performance, the concept is still persuading and easily adoptable to our context. We extracted

items from Robson et al. (2008), adapted them to our context, and refined them through personal interviews with 4 researchers and several coaches. The coaches assessed the performance of their players. The questionnaire consists of six items. A sample item for PERF is “The player always fulfils the tasks, which are given to him.”

### **4.3 Common Method Bias**

If predictor and outcome variable in a survey are rated by the same person, there is a coherent risk for common method bias in the results of the study (Podsakoff et al., 2003). As performance, the key outcome variable in this study is evaluated by the coaches and not by the players themselves, the relation between performance and all other variables in the study will not be affected by common method bias. In order to rule out the possibility of common method bias in the relationships between the five incentives and OJS, we applied Harman’s single factor test (Harman, 1976). The factor analysis revealed the expected 6 factors and none of them explained more than 27.6 % of the variance. According to this, common method bias is not an issue in our study.

## 5 ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

### 5.1 Measure Validation

The validity of our measures was assessed by exploratory factor analysis via SPSS and confirmatory factor analysis with Amos for SPSS 20.0. The measurement models are comprised by the seven variables of the hypothesized model. The item SAL\_2 was excluded from further estimations due to poor factor loading and low indicator reliability. The reduced model provides good fit to the data:  $\chi^2 = 683.44$ ;  $df = 278$ ;  $p < .001$ , RMSEA = .069 Factor loadings are high and significant and all values for internal consistency (Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ) are above .77. Table 1 shows the results for the measurement model. Furthermore, we tested discriminant validity by using Fornell and Larcker's (1981) test.

**TABLE 1**  
**Factor Loadings, t-values, Standardized Loadings for the Measurement Model.**

Incentives		Outcomes	
Factors and Items	Standardized Loadings	Factors and Items	Standardized Loadings
<b>Integration of Family</b>		<b>Overall job satisfaction</b>	
IOF_1	.82 (14.01)	OJS_1	.63 (10.96)
IOF_2	.84 <sup>b</sup>	OJS_2	.83 (16.05)
IOF_3	.72 (12.95)	OJS_3	.88 <sup>b</sup>
<b>Second Career Support</b>		<b>Performance</b>	
SCS_1	.86 (17.89)	PERF_1	.80 <sup>b</sup>
SCS_2	.90 <sup>b</sup>	PERF_2	.87 (17.90)
SCS_3	.77 (15.44)	PERF_3	.85 (17.09)
<b>Private Problem Support</b>		PERF_4	.88 (18.00)
PPS_1	.72 (13.80)	PERF_5	.85 (17.19)
PPS_2	.81 (17.61)	PERF_6	.82 (16.44)
PPS_3	.66 (12.86)		
PPS_4	.90 <sup>b</sup>		
<b>Salary Satisfaction</b>			
SAL_1	.90 <sup>b</sup>		
SAL_2	.70 (3.57)		
<b>Monetary bonuses</b>		<b>Model Statistics</b>	
MBO_1	.72 (11.96)	Chi square = 684.44.21; df = 278; p < .001	
MBO_2	.82 <sup>b</sup>	RMSEA = .069	
MBO_3	.71 (10.96)		
MBO_4	.47 (7.87)		
MBO_5	.54 (8.06)		

Note: t-values are reported in parentheses; b =Fixed parameters.

## 5.2 Tests of Hypotheses

Means, standard deviations, inter-construct correlations, and reliabilities are reported in table 2. Structural equation modelling via LISREL 8.80 was used to assess the research hypotheses. We ran a full structural model with all hypothesized relationships. The model provided the following fit to the data:  $\chi^2 = 693.73$ ,  $df = 283$ ,  $p < .01$ ; RMSEA = .065; NFI = .91; NNFI = .94; AGFI = .82; CFI = .95; SRMR = .06.

**TABLE 2**  
**Means, Standard Deviations, Interconstruct Correlations, and Reliabilities.**

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mean	SD
1. OJS	<b>.82</b>							4.59	1.46
2. PERF	0.37	<b>.89</b>						4.87	1.34
3. SAL	0.48	0.18	<b>.77</b>					3.74	1.72
4. MBO	0.33	0.12	0.28	<b>.78</b>				2.68	1.89
5. PPS	0.64	0.24	0.57	0.37	<b>.85</b>			4.23	1.77
6. IOF	0.24	0.09	0.18	0.16	0.20	<b>.83</b>		3.57	1.60
7.SCS	0.16	0.06	-0.10	0.15	0.07	0.10	<b>.88</b>	3.64	1.90

*Note. Reliabilities are reported on the diagonal. Coefficients > .095 are significant ( $p < 0.05$ ).  $N = 315$ .*

The results for the investigated paths in the structural model are presented in Figure 2. Hypotheses 1-5 predicted positive relationships between the five incentives and overall job satisfaction (OJS). While the model reveals a positive and significant relationship of monetary bonuses, integration of family and private problem support with overall job satisfaction (H2:  $\beta = .13$ ,  $p < .001$ ; H3:  $\beta = .19$ ,  $p < .001$ ; H5:  $\beta .49$ ,  $p < .001$ ), we could not identify a significant effect for salary or second career support on overall job satisfaction. Thus, hypotheses 1 and 4 are not supported. Nevertheless, the used predictors explain 46 % of the variance of overall job satisfaction. Consistent with the theoretical foundations, performance ( $R^2 = .134$ ) is influenced by the level of overall job satisfaction (OJS  $\rightarrow$  PERF:  $\beta = .31$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

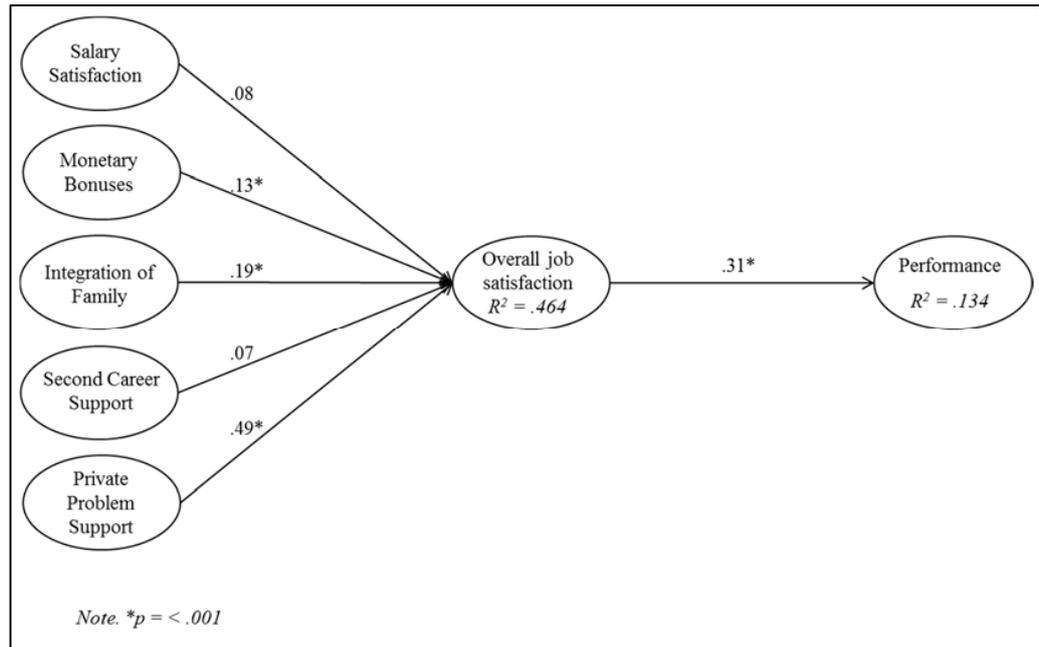


Figure 2. Theoretical Model, Path Coefficients and Squared Multiple Correlations

Further, a moderating effect of the player's time within an organization (TWO) on the relationship IOF  $\rightarrow$  OJS was tested via PROCESS for SPSS. Therefore a linear regression model, including an interaction term of IOF and TWO, was carried out. Based on the given significance ( $p = .01$ ) of the interaction term, a moderating effect is confirmed by the data (Hayes, 2013). Table 3 shows the results for the moderation analysis and conditional effects for two groups of athletes. The first group "TWO high" represents athletes, who have been with the organization for longer. The second group "TWO low" is comprised by those athletes, who have been with the organization for a shorter period of time. Results show a considerably stronger effect for TWO low.

**TABLE 3**  
**Regression Analysis Examining the Moderation Effect of TWO on IOF  $\rightarrow$  OJS.**

	Coeff.	SE	t-Value	p		
Constant	.00	.05	.03	.98		
TWO	-.02	.01	-1.49	.14		
IOF	.44	.05	8.04	.00		
int_1 (TWO x IOF)	-.03	.01	-2.53	.01		
	<i>TWO (high)</i>		<i>TWO (low)</i>			
Path	Coeff.	t-Value	p	Coeff.	t-Value	p
IOF - OJS	.32	4.78	.00	.53	7.78	.00

Note.  $R^2 = .21$ ;  $MSE = .81$ ;  $F(3, 23) = 18.169$ ;  $p = .00$ .

### 5.3 A Rival Approach

A rival approach towards the relationship of incentives and performance is based on the earlier mentioned expectancy theory of Vroom (1964). With regard to that theory, any individual decides to behave in a particular way based on the expected result, which the individual associates with its behavior. If the valence of an incentive seems high, the motivation for the behavior which leads to the incentive, increases. According to this, satisfaction with incentives was not necessary for a positive effect on performance. Especially with reward-based incentives as monetary bonuses, a direct relation between the incentives and performance would be assumed. This possibility was examined via another structural equation model. The corresponding goodness-of-fit criteria were:  $\chi^2 = 581.11$ ,  $df = 215$ ,  $p < .01$ ; RMSEA = .07; NFI = .91; NNFI = .93; AGFI = .82; CFI = .94; SRMR = .06. The only incentive that shows a significant direct effect on performance is SCS. The effects of the four remaining constructs are low and not significant. Furthermore, the explained variance  $R^2$  of performance decreases to (.07). The results confirm the preferable conceptualization of the original model. Table 4 shows the results for the rival model.

**TABLE 4**  
**Coefficients and t-values of the rival approach.**

Variable	Coeff.	t-Value
SAL → PERF	.11	1.74
MBO → PERF	.00	.05
FAM → PERF	.04	.46
SCS → PERF	.18	2.60*
PPS → PERF	.05	.59

Note. \* $p < .01$ .

## 6 DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between incentives and performance in professional team sports. Therefore, we conceptualized the relations between different monetary and non-monetary incentives, job satisfaction, and performance. Subsequently, we compared the hypothesized model to a rival approach suggesting a direct relation between incentives and performance.

Most previous studies analyzed direct effects between incentives and performance. Although this study suggests an indirect relationship via job satisfaction, we tested the rival approach using the new performance measurement. Results of the rival approach showed low and non-significant effects for four out of the five investigated incentives. In regard to financial bonuses, this is contradictory to the results of Baruch et al. (2004), who identified a positive effect (.40) of performance related pay on individual performance of Chinese baseball players. The reason for the contrary results could either be based on cultural differences between China and Germany or might be due to the methodological differences between both studies. While Baruch et al. (2004) used self-perceptions of players, this study used the proposed external performance evaluations of coaches.

Only second career support shows a moderate significant direct effect on performance in the rival model. This effect might be explained by the anxieties of athletes concerning their future. Athletes can be satisfied with their job, but at the same time afraid of getting injured and dropping out of professional sports. If athletes do not directly blame the club for those anxieties, their anxieties will not reflect on their job satisfaction. Nevertheless, it could directly lead to a decreased performance, due to the anxiety of getting injured and dropping out of sports.

Compared to the rival approach, the conceptualized model, suggesting the indirect effect via job satisfaction, in general provides superior explanation for the relation between incentives and performance. Nevertheless, the conceptualized model could not show a significant effect of salary satisfaction on job satisfaction. This is contradictory to the results of the meta-analysis of Judge et al. (2010), proposing a moderate mean effect of (.15) between pay satisfaction and job satisfaction. These findings once again show the relevance of context concerning the effectiveness of incentives. According to monetary bonuses, the second

monetary incentive in the study, we found a moderate positive effect on job satisfaction. This confirms our theoretical considerations that the linkage of performance and pay rather leads to job satisfaction than directly to performance of an athlete. If a player knows his income is linked to his performance, the player feels treated fairly and therefore is satisfied.

According to the three non-monetary incentives, integration of family and private problem support both showed strong positive effects on job satisfaction. Especially private problem support, showing a path coefficient of (.49), seems to be of paramount importance to the players. This result confirms the vast importance of creating a supportive environment within sports clubs. Players have to focus on their game. Coping with private problems distracts them from their main duties. Clubs need to set structures to accommodate this finding and to offer easily accessible assistance and problem-support to their players. According to integration of family, the moderation analysis showed an increased importance for players, which are new to the organization. This was in line with our expectations. Especially families of new team members are reliant on an integrative and welcoming environment within the clubs, as they usually do not have friends or family in every new city. The results concerning the effects of integration of family show the relevance of incorporating influences of third parties such as families into research on incentives. The social environment of athletes affects their personnel needs and wishes and therefore their susceptibility to different incentives.

The latter results even gain in importance when we look at the relation of job satisfaction and performance. As satisfied athletes provide substantially better performances than unsatisfied athletes do, it is unlikely that satisfied players strategically decrease their performance. Suggesting a cognitive process between job satisfaction and performance, shirking might be decreased by increasing job satisfaction of the athletes through incentives such as PPS, IOF and MBO. As a slight increase of an athletes' performance can change the whole outcome of games, it is of tremendous importance to provide information to the club managers about the effectiveness of different incentives.

## **7 CONTRIBUTIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH**

This study provides three major contributions to current research. First, the results show the importance of job satisfaction for the individual performance of athletes in the context of professional team sports. Satisfied athletes perform better. As incentives are the key to job satisfaction and therefore the key to performance, club managers need to know which incentives are effective in order to increase players' job satisfaction.

Second, empirical proof for the effectiveness of two previously untested non-monetary incentives is provided. Further, the relative effectiveness of five monetary and non-monetary incentives is compared and in this regard, the detrimental importance of monetary incentives could be revealed. Therefore, club managers must incorporate non-monetary incentives into their management repertoire, in order to increase the job satisfaction of their athletes, and consequently to facilitate their top performance.

Third, apparent shortcomings of existing approaches of performance measurement in team sports are analyzed and a new approach is presented. Although the suggested approach is limited through high effort for researchers concerning the data collection, this downside is outweighed by higher validity, reliability and comparability compared to other approaches.

Future research should continue identifying and investigating relevant non-monetary incentives rather than only focusing on the effects of budgets and paychecks. Therefore researchers need to understand interrelations between different social actors in the environments of players.

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## Appendix

Construct and measurement items		Reliability
<b>Integration of Family</b>		
IOF_1	The club tries to make my family/partner feel well in the environment of the club.	.83
IOF_2	My club tries to integrate my family/partner.	
IOF_3	My family/partner is well integrated in the environment of the club.	
<b>Second Career Support</b>		
SCS_1	My club supports me, if I try to build up a professional career besides my career as a player.	.88
SCS_2	My club provides me with opportunities to build up prospects for the life after my active sports career.	
SCS_3	My club offers structures, which enable me to achieve further education and qualification besides the active sports career.	
<b>Private Problem Support</b>		
PPS_1	The club relieves me by solving my non-sport related problems.	.85
PPS_2	I can count on the persons in the club supporting me if I have problems.	
PPS_3	The club helps me with organizational or administrative matters and paperwork.	
PPS_4	I feel that I can always turn to the club when I have problems.	
<b>Salary</b>		
SAL_1	I am satisfied with my salary level.	.77
SAL_2	My salary is completely satisfactory for the needs of me and my family.	
<b>Monetary Bonuses</b>		
MB_1	My salary is linked to the results of the work of my team.	.78
MB_2	I earn more when my team works harder.	
MB_3	A large percentage of my salary consists of bonuses for the performance of my team.	
MB_4	I earn more when I work harder.	
MB_5	A large percentage of my salary consists of bonuses for my individual performance.	
<b>OJS</b>		
OJS_1	All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	.82
OJS_2	In general, I like my job.	
OJS_3	In general, I like working here.	
<b>Performance</b>		
PERF_1	The player always fulfils the tasks, which are given to him.	.89
PERF_2	The player is very effective for the game of the team.	
PERF_3	The player uses his individual skills efficiently.	
PERF_4	The player can efficiently implement the contents covered in practice in the game.	
PERF_5	The player can adapt his play quickly to a changing game situation.	
PERF_6	Whenever some unexpected situation arises, the player is capable of reacting fast and making good decisions.	

## CHAPTER VI: CONCLUSION

The main research question of this work was as follows: How can service providers of sport services motivate social actors to integrate resources for value co-creation? In order to assess this question, different aspects of resource integration were addressed. First, the process of value creation and the key role of a service provider as coordinator and facilitator of resource integration were analyzed in Chapter 2. For a deeper understanding, the value creation of a sports league was examined exemplarily. The theoretic conceptualization of the interrelations and interdependencies between a service provider (e.g. league) and other stakeholders (e.g. clubs) fosters a deeper understanding of value creation und can be seen as a contribution to the ongoing debate on the practical relevance of SDL theory. Aside from the perspective of the service provider, Chapter 3 addressed the costumer perspective of resource integration. In this regard, we operationalized the resource integration of spectators of live sport events as their participation in general. Following this, we analyzed spectators' motivations to participate in such events. It was shown, that motivations for consumption are strongly context-dependent. Knowledge on customers' motivations for sports consumption in different contexts leads to new ways to address those motivations through adequate incentives. Third, the employee perspective of resource integration was addressed. According to this, we focused on the context of professional team sports. Chapter 4 and 5 investigated different effects of monetary and non-monetary incentives on job satisfaction, turnover intention and performance. Previous research in sport management strongly focused on effects of monetary incentives. The results, presented in Chapter 4 and 5, revealed the importance of non-monetary incentives in this context and encourage further research in this field. In this regard, also potential influences of other social actors need to be considered in future research. The results, presented in Chapter 4, show influential effects of other social actors, such as employee`s families. Incentives therefore need to be adapted to the needs and motivations of employees. In order to assess those motivations, a holistic picture of various interrelations between different stakeholders needs to be drawn. Generally, incentives are the key drivers to facilitate resource integration and knowledge on the effectiveness of incentives is crucial for an efficient coordination of stakeholders. Future research should be directed towards a

development of a deeper understanding of stakeholders' interests and motivations in order to offer adequate incentives for an optimal facilitation of resource integration.